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POSSIBLE OPTIONS OF THE ENTITIES CONCERNING THE RESERVES' TREATMENT FROM REEVALUATION AND HISTORICAL COST'S RETURN

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Abstract: *In the economical environment, accounting is the main information provider. Thesse information reflect an actual image only when the accounting principles, the actual regulations are kept and last but not least through the instrument of evaluation, respectively the one of reevaluation. The evaluation has always been an activity which had the capacity of significantly influencing the decisions which are made based on the information provided, no matter if it is about the traditional model based on historical cost and prudence principle, or if it about the concept of fair value brought by globalization and harmonization process. Concerning the accounting policies associated with registering the evaluation and respectively the reevaluation results, the entities have the possibilities of opting yearly for installment transfer of the reserves from reevaluation on the reported result, or making this transfer only in the moment when the immobilization is out of use, for which the reserves from reevaluation are registered. There are also situations when the entities may choose for returning at historical cost from the fair value. The purpose of this scientific approach is the one of practically and theoretically presenting both the implications which different options of the entities have, in the treatment of the reserves from reevaluation, and the return at historical price from fair value upon the information given for publishing.*

Keywords: *evaluation, reevaluation, reserves from reevaluation, fair value, historical price.*
JEL Classification: *M40, M41.*

1. Introduction

In an era in which all life's economical, social and political domains are under globalization's effect, obtaining real information in exact time is the key for substantiating one's decisions. One of the instruments which is used in accounting for offering the users real and useful information, concerning patrimonial elements which are reflected within financial reports, is evaluation.

Evaluation is a form of quantification through which the accounting method determines the size of fortune elements in natural expression and expresses this size with the help of monetary etalon. In this way, through evaluation, all asset items, debts and equity are homogenized, are expressed in the same etalon and may be centralized. (Todea, 2009, p.114). Concerning reevaluation, this means evaluating again regularly for updating a preexistent value. (Todea, 2004, p.4)

The traditional way of evaluation represents an inosculation of prudence principle and historic cost, and the process of globalization and harmonization concerning evaluation, have as coordination the concept of fair value.

For offering useful information to the diverse categories of users, the entities also have to respect the accounting principles and to apply the same accounting policies in order to ensure the comparison of given information both in time and space. Also any kind of changes that occur in the accounting policies must be mentioned in explanatory notes.

Conceived and structured on a complex problem, this scientific approach is considering a theoretically and practically presentation of certain accounting elements which refer to reserves treatment from reevaluation and returning to historical cost at fair value.

2. Methodology

The methodology I have used for making this scientific approach is based on theoretical research concerning the concepts and regulation in this domain, along with an

empirical research through I have pointed out some peculiar aspects referring to the approached subject. I have resorted to studying some papers of financial accounting, which are elaborated by specialists and theorists in this domain, I have resorted to studying Evaluation Standards, the analysis of the regulations in this domain, thus being a explanatory qualitative research, and also practical aspects specific to the options that entities have concerning accounting treatment of reserves from reevaluation corresponding to intangibles after reevaluation, but also the aspects implied by returning to historic cost and fair value, thus being a descriptive quantitative research.

3. Aspects concerning tangible assets reevaluation

In order to be able to perform, the entities need financial resources, material and humans. Within these resources, an important place is being occupied by fixed assets, and within these, tangible assets.

Tangibles are asset items, which are held for more than a year, being generators for the entity's future economical benefit. (Matiș et al., 2010, p.144).

Tangibles are those asset items held for being used in goods manufacturing, or services providing, for being rented to a third party or for being used in administrative purposes, and which are foreseen to be used for long time. (IAS 16, 2015, paragraph 6)

Due to the fact that these elements are used for long periods of time, their value changes and for being able to provide a real value, the entities resort to evaluation, respectively reevaluation.

Evaluation the assets is directly implied in elaborating information concerning the entity's financial position, which reflects the relationship between assets, debts and personal capital, recorded in its balance sheet. Also, by modifying the value of some assets during financial exercise, the assets' evaluation affects other critical components of financial reports (Stan and Anghel, 2007, p.355).

Reevaluation of tangible assets is made at fair value at the balance sheet date. Fair value is determined based on some evaluation usually being made by qualified evaluation professionals, who are members, of a professional organization, which should be nationally and internationally recognized (OMFP 1802/2014).

Reevaluation has to be made regularly so that the accounting value does not considerably differ from the one which is to be determined using fair value al balance sheet's date. The frequency of reevaluation depends on the evolution of tangible assets' fair value, in the case when the fair value of an evaluated asset considerably differs from accounting value, then a new reevaluation is necessary. Some tangible assets may suffer great and fluctuant changes of fair value, thus requiring annual reevaluation. For those tangible assets which do not suffer from a fair value big change, a revaluation is not necessary. For these, reevaluation made once in 3 – 5 years may be more adequate (IAS 16, 2015, paragraph 32).

After the reevaluation a plus value may result which is equivalent with an increasing of personal capital or a minus value which diminishes them (Paraschivescu and Radu, 2008, p.60).

In the situation in which the result of reevaluation is an increasing from net accounting value, then this is being treated as an increase in the reserves from reevaluation, if there wasn't a previous decrease, or as an income which compensates the expenses of decrease previously known in that asset. And if the result from reevaluation is a decrease from the net accounting value, then this is treated as an expensse, or as a decrease of the reserve from reevaluation, with the minimum from the value of that reserve and the decrease's value. The eventual uncovered difference is registered as an expense (Paraschivescu and Radu, 2008, p.64).

Concerning the subsequent treatment of redundancy realized from reserves from reevaluation, the entities have the possibility of opting for capitalization through direct transfer in the reported result, or for removing the asset from evidence for which the reserve from reevaluation was made, or as the asset is being used by the entity. In the staged transferred the value of realized redundancy is the difference from calculated amortization based on the reevaluated accounting value and the value of amortization calculated based on the asset's initial cost (Pântea et al., 2013, p.74).

The treatment connected to amortization in reevaluation does not have to be forgotten, because there are two possibilities: simultaneous reevaluation of tangible assets' brut value and the cumulated amortization, or the cumulated value and the adjustments for depreciation are eliminated from brut value (Pântea et al., 2013, p.67).

4. Considerations concerning historical cost, respectively fair value in evaluation

Tangible assets owned by the entity are initially recognized at cost, and afterwards are registered in accounting according to the model based on cost, or to the model based on fair value.

The model based on cost stipulates the fact that, after being recognized as an asset, a tangible will be registered at its cost minus any afferent cumulated amortization and any losses cumulated from depreciation (IAS 16, 2015, paragraph 30).

The model based on fair value stipulated regular reevaluations, so that, after recognizing an asset, the tangible element whose fair value may be credible evaluated, will be registered at its reevaluated value, this being the fair value at the reevaluation date, minus any subsequent afferent cumulated amortization and any loses cumulated from depreciation (IAS 16, 2015, paragraph 31).

One of the main reasons which determined the primate of historical cost upon the other bases of evaluation, at least in the past, is the fact that it may be determined with a much higher precision than any other nase of evaluation. Based on current and past transactions, historical costs are already registered in justifying documents, thus they are verifiable, objective and more credible than the alternatives (Guşe, 2011, p.235).

Although, the economical realities, armonization, respectively globalization, have proved the necesity of completing historical cost, with its advantages brought by evaluation at fair value.

Historic cost may not reflect market valuet and thus it may lead to underevaluation of assets, due to the fact that it does not overlooks the effects of increased market costs. As a resutlt, it does not display the users a very relevant information when taking a decision (Deaconu, 2009, p.123).

Fair value presents a series of advantages which refer to the fact that allows the recognition of some elements which historical cost ignores, more reliable financial reports are obtained, offers a more objectivity and neutrality, allows a better comparison, offers a better information concerning the current and future performances of the entity, and last but not least, has a "more universal" character than historical cost (Deaconu, 2009, p.106).

Both the model based on historical cost, and the one based on fair value, represent accounting policies for the entities. And crossing from one model to another, is called change of accounting policy. OMFP 1802/2014 requires the obligativity of evaluation, respectively reevaluation of patrimonial elements; but still there are situations when the reevaluation is not required and turning back to historical cost is. In this situation, one must take into consideration the entities' option concerning the division of reevaluation reserve, if it is made staged or only pulling the assets for which the reserve was registered in accounting, out of use.

5. Study case concerning reevaluation reserves treatment and returning to historical cost

Entity S.C. EXAMPLE S.A. has purchased a machinery at the beginning of N year, having a 9496 entrance value, for which a linear amortization method was established, and the established useful lifetime was of eight years. The machinery is annually evaluated, according to accounting policies of the entity, a plus or minus of value resulting correspondingly.

Concerning the subsequent treatment of reevaluation reserve I will present both the situation of staged transfer and also the one of transfer at the machinery's decommissioning.

1. Registering the machinery's purchesse

%	=	404"Intangible suppliers"	11300,24
2131"Technological equipments (machineries, machines and work installations")			9496
4426 „ Reclaimable VAT"			1804,24

2. Amortization calculus in linear method: 9496 / 8 = 1187 lei/year

3. Presenting the machinery's situation from accounting net value point of view, in the situation when there wouldn't be any value pluses or minuses and from the point of view of reevaluation value during the eight years.

Table no.1. Presenting the machinery's situation

Year	Amortization in linear method	Cumulated amortization	Accounting net value	Fair value	Reevaluation difference
N	1187	1187	8309	8752	443
N+1	1187	2374	7122	7830	708
N+2	1187	3561	5935	5740	-195
N+3	1187	4748	4748	4932	184
N+4	1187	5935	3561	3980	419
N+5	1187	7122	2374		
N+6	1187	8309	1187		
N+7	1187	9496	0		

Source: Own processing

4. Presenting the accounting registrations afferent to subsequent treatment of reevaluation reserves in the situation of staged transfer, respectively of transfer of machinery's decommissioning.

Used accounts: 2131 – „Technological equipments (machineries, machines and work installations"), 2813- „Amortization of installations and means of transport", 6811 - „ Operating expenses concerning intangibles' amortizations", 105 – „Reserves from reevaluation", 1175 – „Reported result", 655 – „ Expenses from intangible assets' reevaluation", 755 - „ Incomes from tangible assets reevaluation"

Year N

Staged Transfer				**Decommissioning Transfer**			
Registering expenses of annual amortization				Registering expenses of annual amortization			
6811	=	2813	1187	6811	=	2813	1187

Closing N Year

Registering reevaluation results

2813	=	2131	1187
2131	=	105	443

Accounts balances after reevaluation
2131 – 8752
2813 – 0
105 – 443

Registering reevaluation results

2813	=	2131	1187
2131	=	105	443

Accounts balances after reevaluation
2131 – 8752
2813 – 0
105 – 443

Year N+1

Staged Transfer

Amortization calculus = 8752/7 = 1250
Registering expenses of annual amortization

6811	=	2813	1250

Payment redundancy from reevaluation reserve, proportionally with calculated amortization: 443/7 = 63 lei – taxable amount

105	=	1175	63

Decommissioning Transfer

Amortization calculus = 8752/7 = 1250
Registering expenses of annual amortization

6811	=	2813	1250

Tracking the amount of 63 lei, in this situation is only fiscally recorded, the amount being untaxable. .

We observe that if the amount of 63 lei is being decreased from recalculated amortization, the amortization which would be registered in the absence of reevaluation is obtained.

Closing N+1 year

Accounts balances before reevaluation:
2131 – 8752
2813 – 1250
105 – 380 (443-63)
Accounting net value = 7502
Fair value = 7830
Difference from reevaluation = +328
Registering reevaluation results

2813	=	2131	1250
2131	=	105	328

Accounts balances after reevaluation:
2131 – 7830
2813 – 0
105 – 708

Accounts balances before reevaluation:
2131 – 8752
2813 – 1250
105 – 443
Accounting net value = 7502
Fair value = 7830
Difference from reevaluation = +328
Registering reevaluation results

2813	=	2131	1250
2131	=	105	328

Accounts balances after reevaluation:
2131 – 7830
2813 – 0
105 – 771

Year N+2

Staged transfer

Amortization calculus = 7830/6 = 1305
Registering expenses of annual amortization

6811	=	2813	1305

Payment redundancy from reevaluation reserve, proportionally with calculated amortization: 708/6 = 118 lei –taxable amount

105	=	1175	118

Decommissioning transfer

Amortization calculus = 7830/6 = 1305
Registering expenses of annual amortization

6811	=	2813	1305

Closing N+2 year

Accounts balances before reevaluation:
2131 – 7830
2813 – 1305
105 – 590 (708-118)
Accounting net value = 6525
Fair value = 5740
Reevaluation difference (devaluation) = 785
Registered reevaluation reserve (590) does not cover the devaluation resulted from reevaluation, thus the difference of 195 (590-785) will be registered as expenses.
Registering reevaluation results

2813	=	2131	1305
%	=	2131	785
105			590
655			195

Accounts balances after reevaluation:
2131 – 5740
2813 – 0
105 – 0
Turnover 655 – 195
Comparing the account's turnover 655 with calculated devaluation in table 1, we observe that it is equal with the devaluation initially calculated

Accounts balances before reevaluation:
2131 – 7830
2813 – 1305
105 – 771
Accounting net value = 6525
Fair value = 5740
Reevaluation difference (devaluation) = 785
Registered reevaluation reserve (771) does not cover the devaluation resulted from reevaluation, thus the difference of 14 (771-785) will be registered as expenses.
Registering reevaluation results

2813	=	2131	1305
%	=	2131	785
105			771
655			14

Accounts balances after reevaluation:
2131 – 5740
2813 – 0
105 – 0
Turnover 655 – 14
655 turnover cannot be verified, respectively compared with previous calculations.
It should be noted that devaluation is not fiscally recognized, thus, at closure, 5740 accounting value is different from fiscal value 5740+195 =5935, namely accounting value calculated in table 1 for N+2 year.

Year N+3

Staged transfer

Amortization calculus = 5740/5 = 1148
Depreciation is not fiscally recognized, thus accounting amortization differs from the fiscal one. Fiscal amortization is 1187 (5935/5).
Registering expenses of annual amortization

6811	=	2813	1148

Decommissioning transfer

Amortization calculus = 5740/5 = 1148
Depreciation is not fiscally recognized, thus accounting amortization differs from the fiscal one. Fiscal amortization is 1187 (5935/5).
Registering expenses of annual amortization

6811	=	2813	1148

Closing N+3 year

Accounting balances before reevaluation:
2131 – 5740
2813 – 1148
105 – 590 (708-118)
Accounting net value = 4592
Fair value = 4932
Difference from reevaluation (appreciation) = 340

Accounting balances before reevaluation:
2131 – 5740
2813 – 1148
105 – 590 (708-118)
Accounting net value = 4592
Fair value = 4932
Difference from reevaluation (appreciation) = 340

This difference from reevaluation is a positive one and follows after depreciation; consequently, it will be first registered on incomes. For establishing the amount which will be registered in the reevaluation reserves account, the positive value of 340 lei will be compared with the value of 195 lei registered on expenses, but also with the amount of 184 lei which was established in table 1. As a result, the reevaluation reserve value is 184 lei, and on incomes the amount of 156 lei (340 – 184) will be registered.

Registering reevaluation results

2813	=	2131	1148
2131	=	%	340
		105	184
		755	156

Accounts balances after reevaluation:
2131 – 4932
2813 – 0
105 – 184

Registering reevaluation results

2813	=	2131	1148
2131	=	%	340
		105	184
		755	156

Accounts balances after reevaluation:
2131 – 4932
2813 – 0
105 – 184

Year N+4

Staged transfer

Amortization calculus = 4932/4 = 1233
Registering expenses of annual amortization

6811	=	2813	1233

Availability of a part from reevaluation reserve, proportionally with calculated amortization: 184/4 = 46 lei – taxable amount

105	=	1175	46

Decommissioning transfer

Amortization calculus = 4932/4 = 1233
Registering expenses of annual amortization

6811	=	2813	1233

Closing N+4 year

Accounts balances before reevaluation:
2131 – 4932
2813 – 1233
105 – 138 (184-46)
Accounting net value = 3699
Fair value = 3980
Difference from reevaluation = 281
Registering results from reevaluation

2813	=	2131	1233
2131	=	105	281

Accounts balances before reevaluation:
2131 – 4932
2813 – 1233
105 – 138 (184-46)
Accounting net value = 3699
Fair value = 3980
Difference from reevaluation = 281
Registering results from reevaluation

2813	=	2131	1233
2131	=	105	281

Accounts balances after reevaluation: 2131 – 3980 2813 – 0 105 – 419 (138+281)	Accounts balances after reevaluation: 2131 – 3980 2813 – 0 105 – 465

Year N+5

Staged transfer	**Decommissioning transfer**
Amortization calculus = 3980/3 = 1327 Registering expenses of annual amortization 6811 = 2813 1327 Availability of a part from reevaluation reserve, proportionally with calculated amortization: 419/3 = 140 lei –taxable amount 105 = 1175 140	Amortization calculus = 3980/3 = 1327 Registering expenses of annual amortization 6811 = 2813 1327

5. Presenting registration afferent to resignation of reevaluation and returning to historical cost

At N+5 year's closure, the entity gives up at machineries' reevaluation, crossing to historical cost model.

Reevaluation resignation and crossing to historical cost in N+5 year

Staged transfer	**Decommissioning transfer**
Accounts balances before reevaluation resignation: 2131 – 3980 2813 – 1327 105 – 279 (419-140) Accounting net value = 2653 Annulment of reevaluation reserve in correspondence with immobilization account 105 = 2131 279 Accounts balance after reevaluation reserve annulment: 2131 – 3701 (3980-279) 2813 - 1327 Accounting net value after reevaluation annulment= 2374	Accounts balances before reevaluation resignation: 2131 – 3980 2813 – 1327 105 – 465 Accounting net value = 2653 For avoiding overestimation of patrimonial elements, the crossing from actual net accounting value must be done (2653), at accounting net value, from the table, when there wouldn't be any decreases or increases of value (2374). As a result, from the account balance will be decreased 2131, the difference of (2653 – 2374), namely 279, the amount which is decreased also in staged transfer. Decreasing the amount of 279 lei from the balance of intangibles account 105 = 2131 279 Closing the account 105 (465-279) 105 = 1175 186 Accounts balances after reevaluation annulment 2131 - 3701 2813 - 1327 Net accounting value after reevaluation annulment = 2374

6. Conclusions

The users of the information provided by financial reports, benefit from a fair reflection if the entity's situation, only when the entity follows the current norms, the accounting principles, realize an adequate evaluation, respectively reevaluation and uses the same accounting policies for long, and if there is a change of these policies, it must be mentioned in the explanatory notes.

Concerning the subsequent treatment of the reevaluation reserve, the entities have a choice from the two possible variants, namely the transfer to the reported result or pulling out of use the asset which the reevaluation reserve corresponds to, or staged transfer on the amortization measure.

Both options have advantages as well as disadvantages as follows: in the case of transfer only at pulling out of use, reports are simpler, and it is not necessary to follow the difference from reevaluation, but this method raises issues in establishing a subsequent depreciation, and the available reserve is provided to the entity later only when the asset is out of use. Referring to staged transfer, a first advantage would be the one that it allows a better control of reevaluation reserve, and also the available reserve is faster provided to the entity, compared to the transfer only when decommissioned. The disadvantage brought about this method is the greater effort made for calculating and transferring the reevaluation reserve.

Referring to the usage within the entity of historical cost evaluation model, respectively the one at fair value, crossing from one model to another is considered change of accounting policy. Although the entities are compelled by regulations to make patrimonial elements' evaluation, there is also a situation of returning to historical cost model from that of fair value. This thing must be specified in the entities' explanatory notes. The influence of subsequent treatment of reevaluation reserves, is also felt in this situation, so if the entity has made a staged reserve transfer, then only the closure of reserve reevaluation account has to be done. In the situation of transferring the reevaluation reserve only at decommissioning, in order to avoid undervaluation, one must keep in mind the net accounting value which the intangible would have had if there wasn't any kind of value change.

Comparing the advantages and respectively the disadvantages of the two transfer methods of reevaluation reserves upon the reported result, I consider that the method of staged transfer is more favorable both for the situation when there is no accounting policy changing, and for the situation when one comes back at historical cost from the evaluation model based on fair value, having in mind the simpler registrations and calculations one needs in order to make this change.

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POSIBILE OPȚIUNI ALE ENTITĂȚILOR PRIVIND TRATAMENTUL REZERVELOR DIN REEVALUARE ŞI REVENIREA LA COSTUL ISTORIC

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Rezumat: *În mediul economic, contabilitatea este principalul furnizor de informații. Aceste informații reflectă imaginea fidelă numai în condițiile respectării principiilor contabile, a reglementărilor în vigoare și, nu în ultimul rând, prin instrumentul evaluării, respectiv al reevaluării. Evaluarea, dintotdeauna, a fost o activitate care a avut capacitatea de a influența semnificativ deciziile luate pe baza informațiilor furnizate, indiferent dacă e vorba de modelul tradițional, bazat pe costul istoric și principiul prudenței sau de conceptul de valoare justă, adus de procesul de globalizare și armonizare. Referitor la politicile contabile aferente înregistrării rezultatelor evaluării, respectiv reevaluării, entitățile au posibilitatea de a opta pentru transferul eșalonat al rezervei din reevaluare asupra rezultatului reportat, în fiecare an, sau de a face acest transfer doar la momentul scoaterii din funcțiune a imobilizării pentru care se înregistrează rezervele din reevaluare. De asemenea, există situații în care entitățile pot opta perntru revenirea la costul istoric de la valoarea justă. Scopul acestui demers științific este cel de a prezenta atât teoretic, cât și practic, implicațiile pe care le au diferitele opțiuni ale entităților în tratamentul rezervelor din reevaluare, precum și al revenirii la costul istoric de la valoarea justă, asupra informațiilor date spre publicare.*

Cuvinte-cheie: *evaluare, reevaluare, rezerve din reevaluare, valoare justă, cost istoric.*
Clasificare JEL: *M40, M41.*

1. Introducere

Într-o eră în care toate domeniile vieții, economice, sociale şi politice se află sub influența globalizării, obținerea unor informații reale, la momentul oportun, este cheia fundamentării deciziilor. Unul dintre instrumentele utilizate de contabilitate, pentru a putea oferi informații utile și reale utilizatorilor cu privire la elementele patrimoniale reflectate în cadrul situațiilor financiare, este evaluarea.

Evaluarea este o formă de cuantificare prin care metoda contabilităţii determină mărimea elementelor de avere în expresie naturală şi exprimă această mărime cu ajutorul etalonului monetar. În acest fel, prin evaluare, toate elementele de activ, toate datoriile şi capitalurile proprii se omogenizează, se exprimă în acelaşi etalon şi se pot centraliza (Todea, 2009, p.114). În ceea ce priveşte reevaluarea, aceasta înseamnă a evalua din nou, de regulă a aduce la zi o valoare preexistentă (Todea, 2004, p.4).

Modul tradițional de evaluare reprezintă o îmbinare a principiului prudenței cu costul istoric, iar procesul de globalizare și armonizare, în ceea ce privește evaluarea, au ca și coordonată conceptul de valoare justă.

Tot în scopul de a oferi informații utile diverselor categorii de utilizatori, entitățile trebuie să respecte principiile contabile și să aplice aceleași politici contabile pentru a asigura comparabilitatea atât în timp, cât și în spațiu a informațiilor furnizate. De asemenea, orice modificare a politicilor contabile trebuie precizată în cadrul notelor explicative.

Conceput și structurat pe o problemă complexă, acest demers științific are în vedere prezentarea, atât din punct de vedere teoretic, cât și practic, a unor elemente de contabilitate referitoare la tratamentul rezervelor din reevaluare și al revenirii la costul istoric de la valoarea justă.

2. Metodologie

Metodologia pe care am utilizat-o în vederea realizării acestui demers științific are la bază cercetarea teoretică privind conceptele și reglementările în domeniu, însoțită de

cercetarea empirică prin intermediul căreia am reliefat aspecte particulare referitoare la subiectul abordat. Am apelat la studierea lucrărilor din domeniul contabilității financiare elaborate de specialiști şi teoreticieni în domeniu, studierea Standardelor de Evaluare, analiza reglementărilor în domeniu, fiind o cercetare calitativă de tip exploratoriu şi, de asemenea, aspectele practice specifice opțiunilor pe care le au entitățile privind tratamentul contabil al rezervelor din reevaluare, aferente imobilizărilor în urma reevaluării, dar şi aspectele pe care le implică revenirea la costul istoric de la valoarea justă, fiind o cercetare cantitativă de tip descriptiv.

3. Aspecte privind reevaluarea imobilizărilor corporale

Entitățile, pentru a-şi putea desfăşura activitatea, au nevoie de resurse financiare, material şi umane. În cadrul acestor resurse, un loc important este ocupat de activele imobilizate, iar în cadrul acestora, de imobilizările corporale.

Activele imobilizate sunt elemente de activ, deţinute pe o perioadă mai mare de un an, fiind generatoare de beneficii economice viitoare pentru entitate (Matiș et al., 2010, p.144).

Imobilizările corporale sunt acele elemente tangibile deţinute pentru a fi utilizate în producţia de bunuri sau prestarea de servicii, pentru a fi închiriate terţilor sau pentru a fi folosite în scopuri administrative, şi care se preconizează a fi utilizate pe parcursul mai multor perioade (IAS 16, 2015, paragraf 6).

Datorită faptului că aceste elemente sunt utilizate pentru perioade îndelungate de timp, valoarea acestora suferă modificări, iar pentru a putea reflecta valoarea lor reală, entitățile apelează la evaluare, respectiv reevaluare.

Evaluarea activelor este implicată, în mod direct, în elaborarea informațiilor privind poziția financiară a entității, care reflectă relația dintre activele, datoriile și capitalurile proprii înregistrate în bilanțul acesteia. De asemenea, prin modificarea valorii unor active, pe parcursul exercițiului financiar, evaluarea activelor are efecte și asupra celorlalte componente cifrice ale situațiilor financiare (Stan, Anghel, 2007, p.355).

Reevaluarea imobilizărilor corporale se face la valoarea justă de la data bilanţului. Valoarea justă se determină pe baza unor evaluări efectuate, de regulă, de profesionişti calificaţi în evaluare, membri ai unui organism profesional în domeniu, recunoscut naţional şi internaţional (OMFP 1802/2014).

Reevaluările trebuie făcute cu suficientă regularitate, astfel încât valoarea contabilă să nu difere în mod semnificativ de cea care ar fi stabilită folosind valoarea justă la data bilanţului. Frecvenţa reevaluărilor depinde de evoluţia valorii juste a imobilizărilor corporale în cauză: în cazul în care valoarea justă a unui activ reevaluat diferă semnificativ de valoarea contabilă, atunci este necesară o nouă reevaluare. Unele imobilizări corporale pot suferi modificări semnificative şi fluctuante ale valorii juste, necesitând, prin urmare, reevaluări anuale. Pentru imobilizările corporale ale căror valori juste nu suferă modificări semnificative, nu este necesar să se facă reevaluări. Pentru acestea, reevaluările făcute la 3-5 ani pot fi mai adecvate (IAS 16, 2015, paragraf 32).

În urma reevaluării, poate rezulta o plusvaloare care echivalează cu o majorare a capitalurilor proprii sau o minusvaloare, care le diminuează (Paraschivescu şi Radu, 2008, p.60).

În situația în care rezultatul reevaluării este o creştere față de valoarea contabilă netă, atunci acesta se tratează fie ca o creştere a rezervei din reevaluare, dacă nu a existat o descreştere anterioară, fie ca un venit care să compenseze cheltuiala cu descreşterea recunoscută anterior la acel activ. Iar, dacă rezultatul reevaluării este o descreştere față de valoarea contabilă netă, atunci acesta se tratează fie ca o cheltuială, fie ca o scădere a rezervei din reevaluare, cu minimul dintre valoarea acelei rezerve și valoarea descreşterii.

Eventuala diferență rămasă neacoperită se înregistrează ca o cheltuială (Paraschivescu şi Radu, 2008, p.64).

În ceea ce priveşte tratamentul ulterior al surplusului realizat din rezerve din reevaluare, entitățile au posibilitatea de a opta pentru capitalizarea prin transferul direct în rezultatul reportat, fie la scoaterea din evidenţă a activului pentru care s-a constituit rezerva din reevaluare, fie pe măsură ce activul este folosit de entitate. În cazul transferului eşalonat, valoarea surplusului realizat este diferenţa dintre amortizarea calculată pe baza valorii contabile reevaluate şi valoarea amortizării calculate pe baza costului iniţial al activului (Pântea et al., 2013, p.74).

Nu trebuie uitat tratamentul aferent amortizării în situația reevaluării; astfel, există două posibilități: fie se reevaluează simultan atât valoarea brută a imobilizărilor corporale, cât şi amortizarea cumulată, fie se elimină din valorea contabilă brută amortizarea cumulată şi ajustările pentru depreciere (Pântea et al., 2013, p.67).

4. Considerații privind costul istoric, respectiv valoarea justă în evaluare

Imobilizările corporale deținute de entitate sunt recunoscute, inițial, la cost, iar ulterior sunt înregistrate în contabilitate, fie în conformitate cu modelul bazat pe cost, fie cu modelul bazat pe valoarea justă.

Modelul bazat pe cost prevede faptul că, după recunoaşterea ca activ, un element de imobilizări corporale va fi înregistrat la costul său minus orice amortizare cumulată aferentă şi orice pierderi cumulate din depreciere (IAS 16, 2015, paragraf 30).

Modelul bazat pe valoarea justă prevede reevaluări regulate, astfel încât, după recunoaşterea ca activ, un element de imobilizări corporale a cărui valoare justă poate fi evaluată credibil, va fi înregistrat la valoarea reevaluată, aceasta fiind valoarea justă la data reevaluării minus orice amortizare cumulată ulterior aferentă şi orice pierderi cumulate din depreciere (IAS 16, 2015, paragraf 31).

Unul dintre principalele motive care au determinat primatul costului istoric asupra celorlalte baze de evaluare, cel puțin în trecut, este că se poate determina cu o precizie mult mai mare decât orice altă bază de evaluare. Bazate pe tranzacții reale și trecute, costurile istorice sunt deja consemnate în documente justificative, sunt deci verificabile, obiective şi mai credibile decât alternativele (Guşe, 2011, p.235).

Totuși, realitățile economice, armonizarea, respectiv globalizarea, au demonstrat necesitatea completării costului istoric, cu avantajele aduse de evaluarea la valoarea justă.

Costul istoric nu poate reflecta valorile de piață și, astfel, conduce la o subevaluare a activelor, având în vedere faptul că nu ține seama de efectele creşterii prețurilor de piață. Ca urmare, nu se redă cea mai relevantă informație utilizatorilor în luarea deciziilor (Deaconu, 2009, p.123).

Valoarea justă prezintă o serie de avantaje care se referă la faptul că permite recunoașterea unor elemente pe care costul istoric le ignoră, se obțin situații financiare mai fiabile, oferă o mai mare obiectivitate şi neutralitate, permite o mai bună comparabilitate, oferă o mai bună informare privind performanțele prezente și viitoare ale entităților și, nu în ultimul rând, are un caracter „mult mai universal" decât costul istoric (Deaconu, 2009, p.106).

Atât modelul bazat pe costul istoric, cât şi cel bazat pe valoarea justă, reprezintă politici contabile pentru entități. Iar trecerea de la un model la altul reprezintă schimbare de politică contabilă. OMFP 1802/2014 prevede obligativitatea evaluării, respectiv a reevaluării elementelor patrimoniale, totuși există situații în care se renunță la reevaluare și se revine la costul istoric. În această situație, trebuie ținut cont și de opțiunea entităților în ceea ce priveşte repartizarea rezervei din reevaluare, dacă se face eşalonat sau doar la scoaterea din funcțiune a imobilizării pentru care s-a recunoscut în contabilitate.

5. Studiu de caz privind tratamentul rezervelor din reevaluare şi al revenirii la costul istoric

Entitatea S.C. EXEMPLU S.A. a achiziționat, la începutul anului N, un utilaj cu o valoare de intrare de 9496 lei, al cărui regim de amortizare stabilit a fost cel liniar, iar durata de viață utilă stabilită a fost de 8 ani. Utilajul este supus reevaluării în fiecare an, conform politicilor contabile ale entității, rezultând un plus sau un minus de valoare.

În ceea ce privește tratamentul ulterior al rezervei din reevaluare, vom prezenta atât situația transferului eșalonat, cât și cea a transferului la scoaterea din funcțiune a utilajului.

1. Înregistrarea achiziționării utilajului

%	=	404„Furnizori de imobilizări”	11300,24
2131„Echipamente tehnologice (maşini, utilaje şi instalații de lucru)”			9496
4426 „TVA deductibilă”			1804,24

2. Calcul amortizare în regim liniar: 9496 / 8 = 1187 lei/an

3. Prezentarea situației utilajului din punct de vedere al valorii nete contabile, în situația în care nu ar exista plusuri sau minusuri de valoare și din punct de vedere al valorii reevaluate pe parcursul celor 8 ani.

Tabel nr.1. Prezentarea situației utilajului

An	Amortizare în regim liniar	Amortizare cumulată	Valoare netă contabilă	Valoare justă	Diferență din reevaluare
N	1187	1187	8309	8752	443
N+1	1187	2374	7122	7830	708
N+2	1187	3561	5935	5740	-195
N+3	1187	4748	4748	4932	184
N+4	1187	5935	3561	3980	419
N+5	1187	7122	2374		
N+6	1187	8309	1187		
N+7	1187	9496	0		

Sursa: prelucrare proprie

4. Prezentarea înregistrărilor contabile aferente tratamentului ulterior al rezervei din reevaluare, în situația transferului eșalonat, respectiv a transferului la scoaterea din funcțiune a utilajului.

Conturi utilizate: 2131 - „Echipamente tehnologice (maşini, utilaje şi instalații de lucru)”, 2813 - „Amortizarea instalațiilor și mijloacelor de transport”, 6811 - „Cheltuieli de exploatare privind amortizarea imobilizărilor”, 105 – „Rezerve din reevaluare”, 1175 – „Rezultatul reportat”, 655 – „Cheltuieli din reevaluarea imobilizărilor corporale”, 755 - „Venituri din reevaluarea imobilizărilor corporale”.

Anul N

Transfer eşalonat	**Transfer la scoaterea din funcțiune**
Înregistrare cheltuială cu amortizarea anuală	Înregistrare cheltuială cu amortizarea anuală
6811 = 2813 1187	6811 = 2813 1187

Închiderea anului N

Înregistrare rezultate din reevaluare

2813	=	2131	1187
2131	=	105	443

Solduri conturi după reevaluare:
2131 – 8752
2813 – 0
105 – 443

Înregistrare rezultate din reevaluare

2813	=	2131	1187
2131	=	105	443

Solduri conturi după reevaluare:
2131 – 8752
2813 – 0
105 – 443

Anul N+1

Transfer eșalonat

Calcul amortizare = 8752/7 = 1250
Înregistrare cheltuială cu amortizarea anuală

6811	=	2813	1250

Disponibilizarea unei părți din rezerva din reevaluare, proporțional cu amortizarea calculată: 443/7 = 63 lei –sumă impozabilă

105	=	1175	63

Transfer la scoaterea din funcțiune

Calcul amortizare = 8752/7 = 1250
Înregistrare cheltuială cu amortizarea anuală

6811	=	2813	1250

Evidența sumei de 63 lei, în această situație se ține doar fiscal, suma fiind impozabilă.

Observăm faptul că, dacă se scade suma de 63 lei din amortizarea recalculată, se obține amortizarea care s-ar fi înregistrat în lipsa reevaluării.

Închiderea anului N+1

Solduri conturi înaintea reevaluării:
2131 – 8752
2813 – 1250
105 – 380 (443-63)
Valoarea netă contabilă = 7502
Valoarea justă = 7830
Diferența din reevaluare = +328
Înregistrare rezultată din reevaluare

2813	=	2131	1250
2131	=	105	328

Solduri conturi după reevaluare:
2131 – 7830
2813 – 0
105 – 708

Solduri conturi înaintea reevaluării:
2131 – 8752
2813 – 1250
105 – 443
Valoarea netă contabilă = 7502
Valoarea justă = 7830
Diferența din reevaluare = +328
Înregistrare rezultată din reevaluare

2813	=	2131	1250
2131	=	105	328

Solduri conturi după reevaluare:
2131 – 7830
2813 – 0
105 – 771

Anul N+2

Transfer eșalonat

Calcul amortizare = 7830/6 = 1305
Înregistrare cheltuială cu amortizarea anuală

6811	=	2813	1305

Disponibilizarea unei părți din rezerva din reevaluare, proporțional cu amortizarea calculată: 708/6 = 118 lei –sumă impozabilă

105	=	1175	118

Transfer la scoaterea din funcțiune

Calcul amortizare = 7830/6 = 1305
Înregistrare cheltuială cu amortizarea anuală

6811	=	2813	1305

Închiderea anului N+2

Solduri conturi înaintea reevaluării:
2131 – 7830
2813 – 1305
105 – 590 (708-118)
Valoarea netă contabilă = 6525
Valoarea justă = 5740
Diferența din reevaluare (depreciere) = 785
Rezerva din reevaluare înregistrată (590) nu acoperă deprecierea rezultată în urma reevaluării; ca urmare, diferența de 195 (590-785) va fi înregistrată pe cheltuieli.
Înregistrare rezultate din reevaluare

2813	=	2131	1305
%	=	2131	785
105			590
655			195

Solduri conturi după reevaluare:
2131 – 5740
2813 – 0
105 – 0
Rulaj 655 – 195
Comparând rulajul contului 655 cu deprecierea calculată în cadrul tabelului nr. 1, observăm faptul că este egală cu deprecierea calculată inițial.

Solduri conturi înaintea reevaluării:
2131 – 7830
2813 – 1305
105 – 771
Valoarea netă contabilă = 6525
Valoarea justă = 5740
Diferența din reevaluare (depreciere) = 785
Rezerva din reevaluare înregistrată (771) nu acoperă deprecierea rezultată în urma reevaluării; ca urmare, diferența de 14 (771-785) va fi înregistrată pe cheltuieli.
Înregistrare rezultate din reevaluare

2813	=	2131	1305
%	=	2131	785
105			771
655			14

Solduri conturi după reevaluare:
2131 – 5740
2813 – 0
105 – 0
Rulaj 655 – 14
Rulajul contului 655 nu poate fi verificat, respeciv comparat cu calculele făcute anterior.
Trebuie precizat faptul că deprecierea nu este recunoscută fiscal; ca urmare, la închidere, valoarea contabilă 5740 este diferită de valoarea fiscală de 5740+195 =5935, adică valoarea contabilă calculată în tabelul nr. 1 pentru anul N+2.

Anul N+3

Transfer eșalonat

Calcul amortizare = 5740/5 = 1148
Deprecierea nu este recunoscută fiscal, ca urmare amortizarea contabilă diferă de cea fiscală. Amortizarea fiscală este de 1187 (5935/5).
Înregistrare cheltuială cu amortizarea anuală

6811	=	2813	1148

Transfer la scoaterea din funcțiune

Calcul amortizare = 5740/5 = 1148
Deprecierea nu este recunoscută fiscal, ca urmare amortizarea contabilă diferă de cea fiscală. Amortizarea fiscală este de 1187 (5935/5).
Înregistrare cheltuială cu amortizarea anuală

6811	=	2813	1148

Închiderea anului N+3

Solduri conturi înaintea reevaluării:
2131 – 5740
2813 – 1148
105 – 590 (708-118)
Valoarea netă contabilă = 4592
Valoarea justă = 4932
Diferența din reevaluare (apreciere) = 340

Solduri conturi înaintea reevaluării:
2131 – 5740
2813 – 1148
105 – 590 (708-118)
Valoarea netă contabilă = 4592
Valoarea justă = 4932
Diferența din reevaluare (apreciere) = 340

Această diferență din reevaluare este una pozitivă și urmează unei deprecieri, în consecință se va înregistra mai întâi pe venituri. Pentru a stabili suma care se va înregistra pe contul de rezerve din reevaluare, se va compara valoarea pozitivă de 340 lei cu valoarea înregistrată pe cheltuieli de 195 lei, dar și cu suma stabilită în Tabelul nr. 1, de 184 lei. Ca urmare, valoarea rezervei din reevaluare este 184 lei, iar pe venituri se va trece suma de 156 lei (340-184).

Înregistrare rezultate din reevaluare

2813	=	2131	1148
2131	=	%	340
		105	184
		755	156

Solduri conturi după reevaluare:
2131 – 4932
2813 – 0
105 – 184

Înregistrare rezultate din reevaluare

2813	=	2131	1148
2131	=	%	340
		105	184
		755	156

Solduri conturi după reevaluare:
2131 – 4932
2813 – 0
105 – 184

Anul N+4

Transfer eşalonat

Calcul amortizare = 4932/4 = 1233
Înregistrare cheltuială cu amortizarea anuală

6811	=	2813	1233

Disponibilizarea unei părți din rezerva din reevaluare, proporțional cu amortizarea calculată: 184/4 = 46 lei –sumă impozabilă

105	=	1175	46

Transfer la scoaterea din funcțiune

Calcul amortizare = 4932/4 = 1233
Înregistrare cheltuială cu amortizarea anuală

6811	=	2813	1233

Închiderea anului N+4

Solduri conturi înaintea reevaluării:
2131 – 4932
2813 – 1233
105 – 138 (184-46)
Valoarea netă contabilă = 3699
Valoarea justă = 3980
Diferența din reevaluare = 281
Înregistrare rezultate din reevaluare

2813	=	2131	1233
2131	=	105	281

Solduri conturi după reevaluare:
2131 – 3980
2813 – 0
105 – 419 (138+281)

Solduri conturi înaintea reevaluării:
2131 – 4932
2813 – 1233
105 – 138 (184-46)
Valoarea netă contabilă = 3699
Valoarea justă = 3980
Diferența din reevaluare = 281
Înregistrare rezultate din reevaluare

2813	=	2131	1233
2131	=	105	281

Solduri conturi după reevaluare:
2131 – 3980
2813 – 0
105 – 465

Anul N+5

Transfer eşalonat

Calcul amortizare = 3980/3 = 1327
Înregistrare cheltuială cu amortizarea anuală

6811	=	2813	1327

Disponibilizarea unei părți din rezerva din

Transfer la scoaterea din funcțiune

Calcul amortizare = 3980/3 = 1327
Înregistrare cheltuială cu amortizarea anuală

6811	=	2813	1327

reevaluare, proporțional cu amortizarea calculată: 419/3 = 140 lei –sumă impozabilă

105 = 1175 140

5. Prezentarea înregistrărilor aferente renunțării la reevaluare și revenirii la costul istoric
La închiderea anului N+5, entitatea renunță la reevaluarea utilajelor, trecând la modelul costului istoric.

Renunțarea la reevaluare și trecerea la modelul costul istoric în anul N+5

Transfer eșalonat	**Transfer la scoaterea din funcțiune**
Solduri conturi înaintea renunțării la reevaluare: 2131 – 3980 2813 – 1327 105 – 279 (419-140) Valoarea netă contabilă = 2653 Anularea rezervei din reevaluare în corespondență cu contul de imobilizare 105 = 2131 279 Soldurile conturilor după anularea rezervei din reevaluare: 2131 – 3701 (3980-279) 2813 - 1327 Valoarea contabilă netă după anularea reevaluării = 2374	Solduri conturi înaintea renunțării la reevaluare: 2131 – 3980 2813 – 1327 105 – 465 Valoarea netă contabilă = 2653 Pentru a evita supraevaluarea elementelor patrimoniale, trebuie să se facă trecerea de la valoarea netă contabilă actuală (2653), la valoarea netă contabilă, din tabel, în cazul în care nu ar fi existat creșteri sau descreșteri de valoare (2374). Ca urmare, se va scădea din soldul contului 2131, diferența dintre (2653 – 2374), adică 279, suma care se scade și în situația transferului eșalonat. Scăderea sumei de 279 lei din valoarea soldului contului de imobilizare 105 = 2131 279 Închiderea contului 105 (465-279) 105 = 1175 186 Soldurile conturilor după anularea reevaluării 2131 – 3701 2813 - 1327 Valoarea contabilă netă după anularea reevaluării = 2374

6. Concluzii

Utilizatorii informațiilor furnizate de situațiile financiare beneficiază de o reflectare fidelă a situației entității, numai în situația în care entitatea respectă normele în vigoare, principiile contabile, realizează o evaluare, respectiv reevaluare adecvate și utilizează aceleași politici contabile în timp, iar, în situația în care are loc o schimbare a acestor politici, acest lucru trebuie precizat în notele explicative.

În ceea ce privește tratamentul ulterior al rezervei din reevaluare, entitățile au de ales între cele două variante posibile, și anume: transferul la rezultatul reportat fie la scoaterea din funcțiune a imobilizării căreia îi corespunde rezerva din reevaluare, fie transferul eșalonat, pe măsura amortizării.

Ambele opțiuni prezintă atât avantaje, cât și dezavantaje, astfel: în cazul transferului doar la scoaterea din funcțiune, înregistrările sunt mai simple, nefiind nevoie

să se urmărească diferența din reevaluare, dar această metodă ridică probleme în stabilirea valorii unei deprecieri ulterioare, iar rezerva disponibilă este pusă la dispoziția entității târziu, abia la scoaterea din funcțiune a imobilizării respective. Referitor la transferul eşalonat, un prim avantaj ar fi faptul că permite un control mai bun al rezervei din reevaluare și, de asemenea, rezerva disponibilă este pusă la dispoziția entității mai repede decât în cazul transferului abia la scoaterea din funcțiune. Dezavantajul adus de această metodă este dat de efortul mai mare făcut pentru calcul şi transferul rezervei din reevaluare.

Referitor la utilizarea în entitate a modelului de evaluare la cost istoric, respectiv cel la valoarea justă, trecerea de la un model la altul este considerată schimbare de politică contabilă. Deși entitățile sunt obligate, prin reglementări, să realizeze evaluarea elementelor patrimoniale, există și situația în care se revine la modelul costului istoric, de la cel al valorii juste. Acest lucru trebuie precizat în notele explicative ale entităților. Influența tratamentului ulterior al rezervelor din reevaluare se resimte și în această situație; astfel, dacă entitatea a realizat un transfer eşalonat al rezervei, atunci trebuie realizată doar închiderea contului de rezerve din reevaluare. În situația transferului rezervei din reevaluare doar la scoaterea din funcțiune, pentru a nu se ajunge la cazul subevaluării, trebuie să se țină cont de valoarea contabilă netă, pe care ar fi avut-o imobilizarea respectivă, dacă nu ar fi existat niciun fel de modificare a valorii sale.

Comparând avantajele, respectiv dezavantajele celor două metode de transfer a rezervelor din reevaluare asupra rezultatului reportat, consider mai favorabilă metoda transferului eșalonat, atât pentru situația în care nu există o modificare a politicii contabile, cât și în situația în care se revine la costul istoric de la modelul de evaluare bazat pe valoarea justă, având în vedere înregistrările și calculele mai simple de care este nevoie pentru a realiza această schimbare.

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A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SELECTION CRITERIA OF THE BENEFICIARIES OF THE SUBMEASURE 8.1 AFFORESTATION AND CREATION OF WOODLAND OF 2014-2020 NATIONAL PROGRAMME FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract: *The authors intend to develop a critical analysis of the selection criteria of the beneficiaries of the Submeasure 8.1. Support for the first afforestation and creation of forested areas from the 2014-2020 National Programme for Rural Development taking into consideration the case of Țara Oașului, county of Satu Mare. The need of investment in afforestation in Țara Oașului is required to improve its environmental capital. The forest biodiversity indicators have to be improved after the increase of forested areas, as a result of the investment in the sustainable development of the region. The forest environmental indicators were calculated (forested surfaces, diversity indices of forest species and forestry species equity) and their values show the necessity of the afforestation in each administrative unit of Țara Oașului. The solution seemed to be the submeasure 8.1 of 2014-2020 National Programme for Rural Development, through grants as financial support for afforestation. The authors identified some issues in the selection grid included in the Applicant's Guide which are not in accordance with the field reality, impeded the access of applicants to the grant and attracted the failure of this action aimed to support the improvement of forests viability and the sustainable development of rural areas.*

Keywords: *sustainable development, environmental economics, environmental equity, regional economic activity.*
JEL Classification: *Q01, Q50, Q56, R11.*

1. Introduction

The concept of sustainable development means preservation, development and rational usage of natural capital, which includes forest, as a resource and a critical component of the ecological balance. It has climatic, hydrological, aesthetical, antipollution, mediogenic, acoustic, sanitary, hygienic, oxic, protective, tourist and recreational, cinematic and economic functions (to supply the wood and secondary resources) (Popescu, 2009, pp.281-286). Any investment aimed at increasing the forested area has to protect these functions, to maintain the biodiversity, maintain or improve the productivity and regeneration capacity, vitality and potential to perform in the future these functions.

The increase of the forested areas represents one of the objectives of National Strategy for Sustainable Development of Romania, 2013-2020-2030 Horizonts and of National Straregy of Romania regarding Climate Change for 2013-2020, as well as an obligation and a national priority set up in the Forest Code.

The 2014-2020 National Programme for Rural Development includes some measures supporting investments in the development of forest areas, taking into consideration the particular landscape situations of Romanian regions.

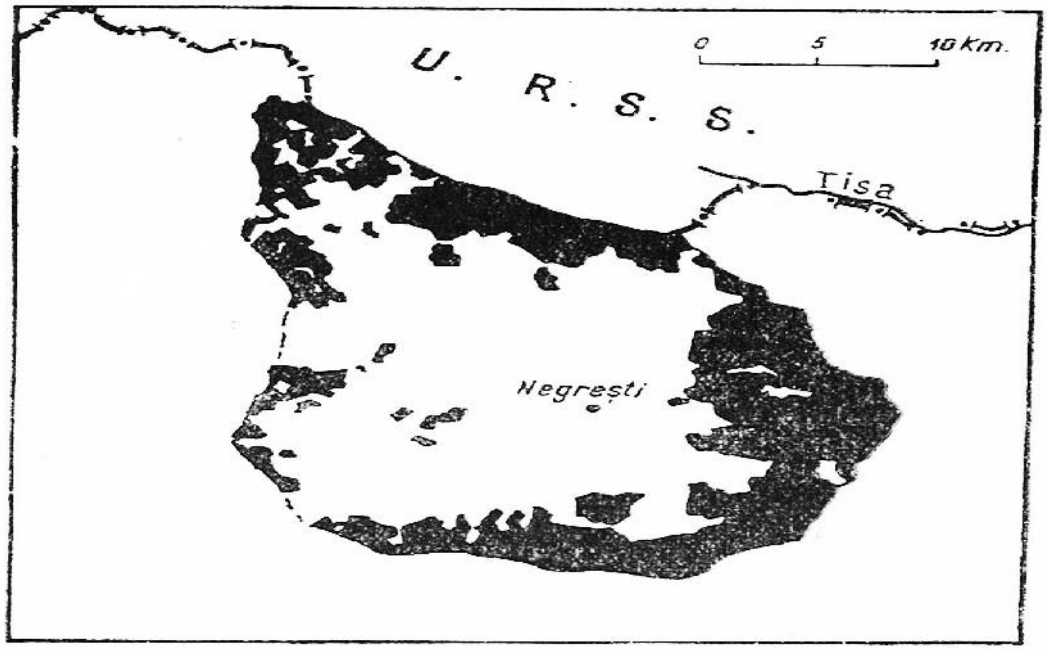
In this paper, we propose a critical analysis carried out based on some simulations, taking into consideration the reality of the administrative units located in the area called

Țara Oașului, county of Satu Mare, following the selection grid of potential projects to be financed according to the Applicant's Guide of 2014-2020 National Programme of Rural Development- Submeasure 8.1. Support for afforestation and creation of woodland.

2. A short analysis of forests situation from Țara Oașului and how it can be framed within the selection criteria of the 8.1 Submeasure of 2014-2020 National Programme for Rural Development (NPRD)

From a hystorical point of view the area from Satu Mare County called Țara Oașului was forested over 150 years ago in about 70%, meaning that the soil is appropriate for forest almost anywhere in this area (Figure no. 1).

Figure no.1 The map of Țara Oașului, 1960



Source: Velcea I..1964. *Țara Oașului. Studiu de geografie fizică și economică*. București: Editura Academiei R.P. Romîne.

Today, the Satu Mare County has a forested area of 17% of its territory (according to the 2014 Yearly Statistical Book) and Țara Oașului has 30% forested areas (Table 1).

The forested area of Țara Oașului is 23.134 ha, under the european average of 37,6% and under the level of 35% considered by Institute of Research and Forestry as the optimal value to a sustainable use of land.

We notice in the table 1 that although the average share of forested areas in the examined region is 32,54%, at the administrative units level the situation is heterogeneous, five of them have a severe deficit from this point of view, by registering shares under 25%, a level not taken into consideration within the guide of submeasure 8.1.

Table no. 1. Land situation of Oaş area by agriculture and forest destinations in 2016

Administrative unit	Total area (ha)	Agricultural area (ha)	Share (%)	Forest area (ha)	Share (%)	Other areas	Share (%)	Total agro-forest area (ha)
1. Negreşti Oaş	13.012	6.659	51.18	3.557	27.34	2.796	21.48	10.216
2. Certeze	10.132	3.442	33.97	6.061	59.82	629	6.21	9.530
3. Vama	5.104	3.147	61.66	1.681	32.93	276	5.41	4.828
4. Racşa	4.358	2.499	57.34	1.022	23.45	837	19.21	3.521
5. Oraşu Nou	6.322	3.608	57.07	1.500	16.73	1.214	26.19	5.108
6. Bixad	7.733	4.726	61.11	2.589	33.48	418	5.41	7.315
7. Târşolţ	3.235	2.197	67.92	695	21.48	343	10.60	2.892
8. Cămârzana	4.936	2.396	48.54	1.861	36.79	724	11.66	4.212
9. Călineşti Oaş	4.188	2.657	63.44	664	18.85	867	20.70	3.321
10. Gherţa Mică	3.885	2.483	844	844	21.72	552	14.21	3.327
11. Turţ	8.185	4.691	57.31	2.705	33.05	789	9.46	7.839
Total	**71.090**	**38.505**	**54.16**	**23.134**	**32.54**	**9.445**	**13.25**	**61.639**

Source: field documentation

In the background note of submeasure 8.1. it is mentioned that it supports the afforestation in the counties with a forest deficit (the share of forested areas is lower than 16% of their territory), for areas with natural calamity risk (floods, aridity) or for areas with degraded land (Annex 20-Counties with forest deficit of up to 16% of territory, Annex 22 - Map of erosion grade by administrative units at country level, Annex 21 - Map of relief forms by administrative units from the Applicant Guide of submeasure 8.1, version 1.0).

As the administrative units from Țara Oașului are located in the hill area, according to the Annex 21 to the Guide of the submeasure 8.1, the grants to be accessed for afforestation of one hectar of forest are with 36.7% lower as those from plain areas (according to the Table 1 from page 95 of Applicant Guide).

According to the Annex 22 to the Applicant's Guide, the erosion index of the soils from Țara Oașului is 0.4, as mean value, and according to the Annex 20, 17% of the territory of Satu Mare county is forest, meaning that no benefit in the calculation of project score.

Table no. 2. Degraded land in Țara Oașului

Administrative unit	Degraded land (ha)
1. Negrești Oaș	2122
2. Certeze	33
3. Vama	81
4. Racșa	66
5. Orașu Nou	95
6. Bixad	26
7. Târșolț	186
8. Cămârzana	80
9. Călinești Oaș	104
10. Gherța Mică	324
11. Turț	128
Total	**3245**

Source: field documentation

As a reference in setting the size of the afforestation which could benefit of the financiar support from submeasure 8.1, it is necessary to estimate the degraded areas.

According to statistical data and field documentation, the continuous degraded areas in the administrative units from Țara Oașului are under 20 ha, as it is shown in the Table no.2.

The Negrești-Oaș town has a large degraded area of about 2122 ha, but the compact areas are are much smaller than 20 ha, therefore the potential project score is null, according to the Applicant's Guide. At the same time, the land properties of municipalities or individuals are very fragmented, the compact pieces of land of 2-5 ha are predominant and the association of land properties is not common.

The Applicant's Guide does not refer to the quality of ecosystems of area. One of the requirements of the forest sustainable development is to ensure the polyfunctional (protective and productive) effectiveness under the stability conditions. The improvement of forest quality can be achieved by introducing the species corresponding to the basic natural type of forest, best adapted to the local conditions and, by introducing a mixture of valuable species that will increase the forest value, including the biodiversity point of view. In order to capture this last aspect, we estimate the biodiversity indicators of Țara Oașului, by administrative units, respectively the Shannon-Wiener and similarity indices, starting from the areas occupied by forest species.

Table no. 3. Areas occupied by forest species and administrative units in Țara Oașului (ha)

Species	Turț	Gherța Mică	Călinești Oaș	Cămărzana	Târșolț	Bixad	Certeze	Negrești-Oaș	Vama	Racșa	Orașu Nou
Acer campestre	28	9	4	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	14
Acer tataricum	3	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Carpinus betulus	86	65	60	13	6	5	83	8	43	19	218
Fagus sylvatica	860	212	98	763	555	1227	3904	3455	980	421	314
Populus tremula	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Quercus petraea	396	142	107	102	51	45	11	0	217	93	284
Quercus robur	0	68	22	43	19	8	1	0	96	41	511
Robinia pseudacacia	49	12	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	96
Salix caprea	2	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	5
Tilia platyphyllos	12	18	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	53
Ulmus minor	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Alnus glutinosa	47	12	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	28
Fraxinus excelsior	20	21	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	29
Abies alba	5	1	0	4	2	2	1	1	8	3	1
Picea abies	141	28	3	83	36	11	628	280	46	20	9
Pinus sylvestris	59	14	4	7	3	2	3	2	14	6	9
Pinus nigra	50	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Betula pendula	3	0	0	3	1	0	4	3	11	5	2
Acer pseudoplatanus	28	6	0	7	5	14	5	35	14	6	3
Quercus cerris	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	5	2
Total	**1794**	**624**	**338**	**1025**	**678**	**1315**	**4642**	**3784**	**1442**	**620**	**1588**

Source: authors' computations

The Shannon-Wiener indices show the ecosystem biodiversity that reflects its stability (a biotic pest attacks predominantly some trees species and others are avoided) as

well as its productivity (different species have different rooting systems, different behaviour at light, water and nutrition requirements so that a mosaic of species will value more the ecosystem's resources) that will ultimately lead to the increase of economic benefits of the area.

The similarity indices show the similarity degree between the forest populations from two administrative units. Their interpretation has to be done in correlation with Shannon-Wiener indices. Thus, a low similarity indice between two administrative units means similar forests from the biodiversity point of view (good or bad). The aim of the paper is to show that a quality assessment is very important and it should be taken into account.

Table no. 4. Shanon-Wiener diversity indices

Species	Turț	Gherța Mică	Călinești Oaș	Cămărzana	Târșolț	Bixad	Certeze	Negrești-Oaș	Vama	Racșa	Orașu Nou
Acer campestre	-0.015	-0.027	-0.044	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.026
Acer tataricum	-0.210	-0.340	-0.443	-0.080	-0.060	-0.031	-0.104	-0.019	-0.151	-0.154	-0.393
Carpinus betulus	-0.509	-0.529	-0.518	-0.317	-0.236	-0.093	-0.210	-0.120	-0.379	-0.379	-0.462
Fagus sylvatica	-0.020	-0.027	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.012
Populus tremula	-0.481	-0.486	-0.525	-0.331	-0.281	-0.167	-0.021	0.000	-0.411	-0.411	-0.444
Quercus petraea	0.000	-0.348	-0.257	-0.192	-0.145	-0.045	-0.003	0.000	-0.260	-0.259	-0.526
Quercus robur	-0.142	-0.110	-0.060	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.245
Robinia pseudacacia	-0.011	-0.015	-0.025	0.000	0.000	-0.008	0.000	0.000	-0.013	-0.015	-0.026
Salix caprea	-0.048	-0.148	-0.271	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.164
Tilia platyphyllos	-0.006	-0.015	-0.025	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.017
Ulmus minor	-0.138	-0.110	-0.025	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.103
Alnus glutinosa	-0.072	-0.165	-0.128	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.105
Fraxinus excelsior	-0.024	-0.015	0.000	-0.031	-0.025	-0.014	-0.003	-0.003	-0.042	-0.037	-0.007
Abies alba	-0.288	-0.201	-0.060	-0.294	-0.225	-0.058	-0.390	-0.278	-0.159	-0.160	-0.042
Picea abies	-0.162	-0.123	-0.076	-0.049	-0.035	-0.014	-0.007	-0.006	-0.065	-0.065	-0.042
Pinus sylvestris	-0.144	-0.096	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Pinus nigra	-0.015	0.000	0.000	-0.025	-0.014	0.000	-0.009	-0.008	-0.054	-0.056	-0.012
Betula pendula	-0.094	-0.064	0.000	-0.049	-0.052	-0.070	-0.011	-0.062	-0.065	-0.065	-0.017
Acer pseudoplatanus	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.054	-0.056	-0.012
Quercus cerris	-2.473	-2.905	-2.532	-1.368	-1.072	-0.499	-0.761	-0.496	-1.652	-1.657	-2.717
Total											

Source: authors' computations

The formula of Shannon-Wiener diversity indice:

$$H = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{n_i}{N} \log \frac{n_i}{N} \qquad (1)$$

where: $\frac{n_i}{N} = p_i$ is the probability of occurence of species of *i* rank.

Table no. 5. Forest similarity indices in the administrative units in Țara Oașului

SIMILARITY INDICES	Turț	Gherța Mică	Călinești Oaș	Cămărzana	Târșolț	Bixad	Certeze	Negrești Oaș	Vama	Racșa	Orașu Nou

Turț	0.000	-0.023	0.083	0.272	0.434	0.365	-0.158	-0.096	0.172	0.299	0.286
Gherța Mică	-0.023	0.000	0.106	0.006	0.195	-0.112	-0.599	-0.587	-0.111	0.149	0.038
Călinești Oaș	0.083	0.106	0.000	-0.063	0.050	-0.297	-0.589	-0.615	-0.126	0.068	0.123
Cămărzana	0.272	0.006	-0.063	0.000	0.036	0.008	-0.132	-0.173	0.046	-0,013	0,490
Târșolț	0.434	0.195	0.050	0.036	0.000	-0.063	-0.077	-0.154	0.132	0.021	0.663
Bixad	0.365	-0.112	-0.297	0.008	-0.063	0.000	0.122	0.036	0.114	-0.123	0.597
Certeze	-0.158	-0.599	-0.589	-0.132	-0.077	0.122	0.000	0.030	-0.103	-0.252	0.011
Negrești Oaș	-0.096	-0.587	-0.615	-0.173	-0.154	0.036	0.030	0.000	-0.111	-0.306	0.106
Vama	0.172	-0.111	-0.126	0.046	0.132	0.114	-0.103	-0.111	0.000	-0.001	0.306
Racșa	0.299	0.149	0.068	-0.013	0.021	-0.123	-0.252	-0.306	-0.001	0.000	0.454
Orașu Nou	0.286	0.038	0.123	0.490	0.663	0.597	0.011	0.106	0.306	0.454	0.000

Source: authors' computations

The similarity indice between two populations *a* and *b* measures the differences between the populations of two neighboring biotypes and it is calculated with the formula:

$$\overline{H} = \overline{H}_{\sim ab} - 0{,}5\left(\overline{H}_{\sim a} + \overline{H}_{\sim b}\right) \quad (2)$$

$\overline{H}$ ranges between 0 (when populations are identical) and 1 when they are different, so when they have no common species.

3. Versions of afforestation projects in the area

The Applicant's Guide of submeasure 8.1 provides several principles to be followed by the potential applicants, namely:

1. **principle of protection function** (priority is given to the protection forest curtains);
2. **principle of land location** (priority is given to the afforestation in the forest-deficient areas);
3. **principle of plantation size** (priority is given to the land proposed to higher afforestation areas);
4. **principle of land rehabilitation** (priority is given to the afforestation in administrative units affected by aridation, erosion and salinisation phenomena, depending on the values of aridity index, erosion and salinisation degree);
5. **principle of species diversity** (priority is given to the afforestations proposing at least 2 basic species in the content).

We conceived three versions of projects:

-Version 1: 22 ha forest body located in a hill area with medium erosion, a single species proposed for planting, located in Satu Mare county;

-Version 2: 4 ha forest body located in a hill area with very high erosion, a single species proposed for planting, located in Satu Mare county;

-Version 3: 4 ha forest body, located in a hill area without erosion, 5 species proposed for planting, located in Satu Mare county.

For each of these versions we calculated the scoring possibly to be obtained. The results are displayed in the Table no.6.

Table no. 6. Simulation of scoring auto-assessment for three versions of afforestation projects through the submeasure 8.1 in the administrative units from Oaș area, county of Satu Mare

Selection principles	Maximum score	Version 1 score	Version 2 score	Version 3 score
1.Principle of protection function	30	0	0	0
2.Principle of land location	20	0	0	0
3.Principle of plantation size	20	15	10	10
4.Principle of land rehabilitation function	20	8	20	0
5.Principle of species diversity	10	0	10	10
Total score	100	23	40	20

Source: authors' computaion, according to the grid from the Applicant's Guide submeasure 8.1

As we can notice, the scorings are between 20 and 40 points of a maximum of 100. We can obtain for the administrative units from Țara Oașului only a modest scoring, discouraging anyone who wants to access these funds.

4. Conclusions

Taking into account our analysis and the simulation results of the three versions of projects, we can conclude as follows:

-The Applicant's Guide of the submeasure 8.1. is very complex due to the multitude of documents and certifications required to be obtained from diverse authorities;

-An assessment of the quality of procedures used to access the grants is required;

-The failure of this actions is also due to the fact it favors investments in forests located in plains, in counties with fruitful soils where a risky investment is not justified (the reimbursement is made after the establishment of plantations) because there are other easier exploitation alternatives;

-The fragmentation of arable lands, with properties of up to 10 ha per farmer, in average, does not allow their removing from the agricultural use, because the farmers lose their source of living in the case the reimbursements are not made in time or not at all;

-However, the nature ensures a natural afforestation, a spontaneous phenomenon on the unexplored territories, with the notice that a forest with low value is obtained;

-It would be beneficial that the Guide takes into account the forest areas at administrative unit not at county level, this fact would reflect better the social needs at a local administrative unit;

-The selection grid of afforestation projects does not provide any qualitative criterion that could improve the forest biodiversity and economic value as well as its polyfunctional role.

Acknowledgment

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O ANALIZĂ CRITICĂ A CRITERIILOR DE SELECȚIE A BENEFICIARILOR SUBMĂSURII 8.1. PRIMA ÎMPĂDURIRE ŞI CREAREA DE SUPRAFEȚE ÎMPĂDURITE DIN CADRUL PROGRAMULUI NAȚIONAL DE DEZVOLTARE RURALĂ (PNDR) 2014-2020

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Rezumat: *Intenția autorilor este aceea de a dezvolta o analiză critică a selecției beneficiarilor submăsurii8.1.Prima împădurire și crearea suprafețelor împădurite din cadrul Programului Național de Dezvoltare Rurală (PNDR) 2014-2020, luând în considerare cazul Țării oașului, județul Satu Mare. Nevoia de a investi în împădurire este dată de necesitatea de îmbunătățire a capitalului natural al zonei. Indicatorii de biodiversitate forestieră trebuie să se amelioreze în urma creșterii suprafețelor împădurite. Au fost calculați indicatori de mediu forestier (suprafețe împădurite, indicii de diversitate și similitudine ai speciilor forestiere) valorile acestora sugerând necesitatea acțiunilor de împădurire în fiecare unitate administrativ-teritorială din Țara Oașului. Soluția părea să fie oferită de submăsura 8.1 a Programului Național de Dezvoltare Rurală (PNDR) 2014-2020, prin intermediul fondurilor nerambursabile acordate pentru împăduriri. Autorii au identificat câteva aspecte din grila de selecție din Ghidul aplicantului submăsurii 8.1. care nu sunt în acord cu realitatea de pe teren, împiedicând accesul potențialilor aplicanți de fonduri nerambursabile și conducând la eșecul aplicării acestei submăsuri menite să sprijine creșterea viabilității pădurilor și dezvoltarea durabilă a zonei.*

Cuvinte-cheie: *dezvoltare durabilă, economia mediului, echitate de mediu, activitate economică regională*

Clasificare JEL: *Q01, Q50, Q56, R11*

1. Introducere

Conceptul de dezvoltare durabilă presupune preservarea, dezvoltarea şi utilizarea raţională a capitalului natural, în care se include, ca resursă şi element critic în echilibrul ecologic, pădurea. Aceasta are funcţii climatice, hidrologice, estetice, antipoluante, mediogene, antifonice, sanitar-igienice, oxice, de protecţie, turistice şi recreative, cinegetice şi economice (de a asigura resursa de masă lemnoasă şi resurse secundare) (Popescu, 2009, pp.281-286). Orice investiție având ca obiect creșterea suprafețelor împădurite trebuie să protejeze aceste funcții, să mențină biodiversitatea, să mențină sau să îmbunătățească productivitatea și capacitatea de regenerare, vitalitatea și potențialul de a îndeplini aceste funcții și pe viitor.

Creșterea suprafeței ocupate cu păduri reprezintă unul dintre obiectivele *Strategiei Naționale pentru Dezvoltare Durabilă a României, Orizonturi 2013-2020-2030* și *Strategiei Naţionale a României privind Schimbările Climatice 2013 - 2020,* precum și o obligație și prioritate națională definită în cadrul Codului Silvic.

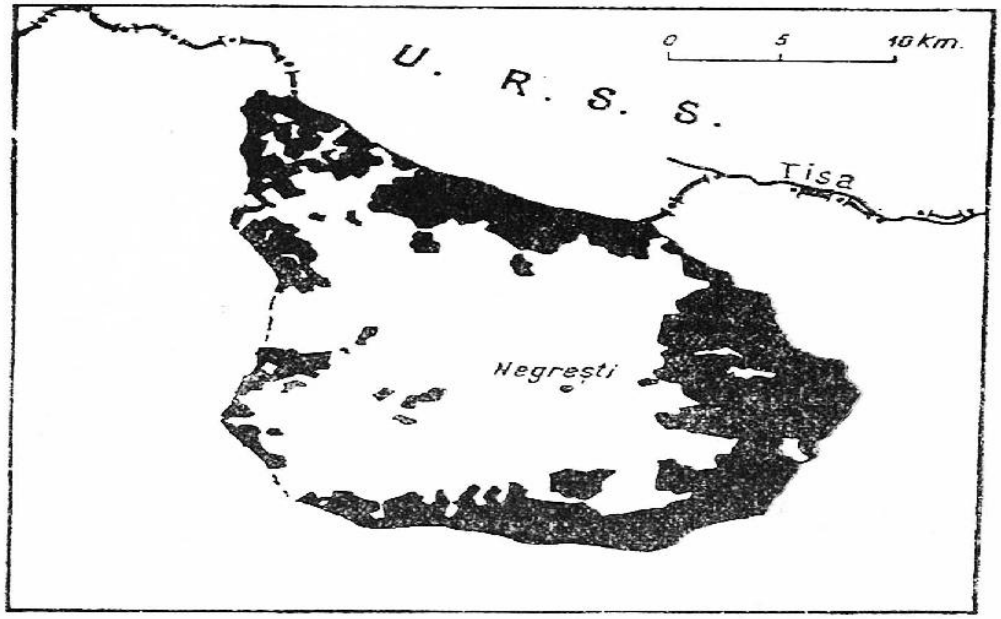
Programul Național de Dezvoltare Rurală (PNDR) 2014-2020 cuprinde măsuri de sprijin ale investițiilor în dezvoltarea ariilor de pădure, ținând cont de situațiile specifice ale regiunilor României.

În această lucrare ne propunem o analiză critică realizată în baza unor simulări, considerând realitatea unităților administrativ-teritoriale (UAT) care compun zona denumită Țara Oașului, județul Satu Mare, urmând grila de selecție a potențialelor proiecte care se pot finanța potrivit Ghidul Solicitantului Submăsurii PNDR 8.1. Sprijin pentru prima împădurire și crearea de suprafețe împădurite.

2. Scurtă analiză a situației pădurilor din Țara Oașului și modului în care s-ar putea încadra în criteriile de selecție ale submăsurii 8.1.

Din punct de vedere istoric, zona din județul Satu Mare, denumită Țara Oașului, a fost împădurită acum peste 150 de ani, în procent de aproximativ 70%, aceasta însemnând că solul este bun pentru păduri oriunde în această zonă (Figura nr. 1).

Figura nr. 1. Harta Țării Oașului la 1960



Source: Velcea I..1964. *Țara Oașului. Studiu de geografie fizică și economică*. București: Editura Academiei R.P.Romîne.

Astăzi, în județul Satu Mare, suprafețele împădurite ocupă 17% din teritoriul său (potrivit Anuarului Statistic 2014), iar pădurile reprezintă, în Țara Oașului, aproximativ 30% din suprafață (Tabel nr. 1).

Tabel nr. 1. Situația terenuri din Oaș, pe destinații în 2016

Unitate administrativ-teritorială	Total suprafață (ha)	Suprafețe agricole (ha)	Ponderi (%)	Suprafețe silvice (ha)	Ponderi (%)	Alte destinații	Ponderi (%)	Total suprafețe agro-silvice (ha)
1. Negreşti Oaş	13.012	6.659	51,18	3.557	27,34	2.796	21,48	10.216
2. Certeze	10.132	3.442	33,97	6.061	59,82	629	6,21	9.530
3. Vama	5.104	3.147	61,66	1.681	32,93	276	5,41	4.828
4. Racşa	4.358	2.499	57,34	1.022	23,45	837	19,21	3.521
5. Oraşu Nou	6.322	3.608	57,07	1.500	16,73	1.214	26,19	5.108
6. Bixad	7.733	4.726	61,11	2.589	33,48	418	5,41	7.315
7. Târşolţ	3.235	2.197	67,92	695	21,48	343	10,60	2.892
8. Cămârzana	4.936	2.396	48,54	1.861	36,79	724	11,66	4.212
9. Călineşti Oaş	4.188	2.657	63,44	664	18,85	867	20,70	3.321
10. Gherţa Mică	3.885	2.483	844	844	21,72	552	14,21	3.327
11. Turţ	8.185	4.691	57,31	2.705	33,05	789	9,46	7.839

Total	**71.090**	**38.505**	**54,16**	**23.134**	**32,54**	**9.445**	**13,25**	**61.639**

Sursa: documentare de teren

Suprafața împădurită a Țării Oașului este de 23.134 ha, sub media europeană de 37,6% şi sub nivelul de 35%, considerat de Institutul de Cercetări şi Amenajări Silvice ca fiind valoarea optimă pentru asigurarea unei folosințe şi gospodăriri durabile a terenului.

Din datele cuprinse în Tabelul nr. 1 se observă că, deşi procentul mediu (fără a lua în considerare suprafețele aferente căilor de comunicație) pe arealul studiat este de 32,54%, la nivel de UAT-uri situația este eterogenă, cinci din acestea sunt cu deficit accentuat din acest punct de vedere, înregistrând procente sub 25%, acesta fiind un aspect de care nu se ţine cont în Ghidul Submăsurii 8.1.

În nota de fundamentare a Submăsurii 8.1 se menționează faptul că aceasta sprijină împăduririle în județele cu deficit de pădure, respectiv în care pădurea reprezintă până la 16% din teritoriu, pentru zonele cu risc de calamități natural (inundații, ariditate) sau pentru zonele cu terenuri degradate (ANEXA 20 - Județele cu deficit de pădure până la 16% din teritoriu, ANEXA 22- Harta cu gradele de eroziune pe UAT-uri la nivel de țară, ANEXA 21- Harta cu formele de relief pe UAT-uri din Ghidul solicitantului submăsurii 8.1, versiunea 1.0).

Tabelul nr. 2. Terenuri degradate în zona Oaş

Unitatea administrativ-teritorială (UAT)	Terenuri degradate (ha)
1. Negreşti Oaş	2122
2. Certeze	33
3. Vama	81
4. Racşa	66
5. Oraşu Nou	95
6. Bixad	26
7. Târşolț	186
8. Cămârzana	80
9. Călineşti Oaş	104
10. Gherța Mică	324
11. Turț	128
Total	**3245**

Sursa: documentare de teren

Întrucât UAT-urile din Țara Oașului se găsesc în zona de deal, potrivit Anexei 21 (Harta formelor de relief) la Ghidul submăsurii 8.1, sumele ce se pot accesa pentru înființarea plantației unui hectar de pădure sunt cu 36,7% mai mici față de cele pentru zonele de câmpie (conform Tabelului nr.1 de la pagina 95 din ghidul solicitantului).

Conform ANEXEI 22 la Ghidul Solicitantului, indicele de eroziune pentru solurile UAT-urilor din Oaş este de 0,4, ca valoare medie, iar conform ANEXEI 20, 17% din teritoriul județului Satu Mare este acoperită de pădure, ceea ce, conform ghidului solicitantului, nu aduce niciun plus în calculul punctajului proiectului.

Ca element de reper în stabilirea mărimii plantațiilor care ar putea beneficia de sprijin financiar din partea măsurii 8.1, este necesară estimarea suprafețelor degradate. Potrivit datelor statistice și ale documentării pe teren, suprafețele degradate continue din cadrul UAT-urilor din Țara Oașului sunt mai mici de 20 ha, așa cum arată Tabelul nr. 2.

Oraşul Negreşti-Oaş are o mare suprafață degradată de aproximativ 2.122 ha, dar suprafețele compacte sunt mult mai mici de 20 ha, astfel încât conform ghidului punctajul pentru suprafață este 0. Totodată, în zonă, terenurile din proprietatea primăriilor sau a localnicilor sunt foarte fragmentate, predominând parcelele compacte de maxim 2-5 ha, iar asocierea de proprietăți nu este frecvent întâlnită.

Tabelul nr. 3. Suprafața ocupată pe specii forestiere și UAT-uri din Țara Oașului (ha)

Specie	Turț	Gherța Mică	Călinești Oaș	Cămărzana	Târșolț	Bixad	Certeze	Negrești-Oaș	Vama	Racșa	Orașu Nou
Acer campestre	28	9	4	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	14
Acer tataricum	3	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Carpinus betulus	86	65	60	13	6	5	83	8	43	19	218
Fagus sylvatica	860	212	98	763	555	1227	3904	3455	980	421	314
Populus tremula	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Quercus petraea	396	142	107	102	51	45	11	0	217	93	284
Quercus robur	0	68	22	43	19	8	1	0	96	41	511
Robinia pseudacacia	49	12	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	96
Salix caprea	2	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	5
Tilia platyphyllos	12	18	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	53
Ulmus minor	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Alnus glutinosa	47	12	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	28
Fraxinus excelsior	20	21	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	29
Abies alba	5	1	0	4	2	2	1	1	8	3	1
Picea abies	141	28	3	83	36	11	628	280	46	20	9
Pinus sylvestris	59	14	4	7	3	2	3	2	14	6	9
Pinus nigra	50	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Betula pendula	3	0	0	3	1	0	4	3	11	5	2
Acer pseudoplatanus	28	6	0	7	5	14	5	35	14	6	3
Quercus cerris	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	5	2
Total	**1794**	**624**	**338**	**1025**	**678**	**1315**	**4642**	**3784**	**1442**	**620**	**1588**

Sursa: calculele autorilor

Ghidul solicitantului nu face referire la calitatea ecosistemului forestier al arealelor. Una din cerințele gospodăririi durabile a pădurilor o constituie asigurarea eficacității polifuncționale a acestora (protective și productive) în condiții de stabilitate. Ridicarea calității pădurii se poate realiza, pe de o parte, prin introducerea speciilor corespunzătoare tipului natural fundamental de pădure, cele mai adaptate condițiilor locale și, pe de alta, prin introducerea în amestec a unor specii valoroase care să crească valoarea pădurii, inclusiv din punctul de vedere al biodiversității. Pentru a surprinde acest ultim aspect, am estimat indicatorii de biodiversitate ai zonei Țara Oașului pe UAT-uri, respectiv indicii Shannon-Wiener și indicii de similitudine, pornind de la suprafețele ocupate de speciile forestiere.

Indicii Shannon-Wiener arată biodiverstatea ecosistemului care reflectă stabilitatea acestuia (un dăunător biotic atacă, cu predilecție, anumite specii de arbori, iar altele sunt evitate), precum și productivitatea acestora (diferite specii au diferite sisteme de înrădăcinare, temperamente la lumină, cerințe față de apă și substanțe nutritive, astfel încât un mozaic de specii va pune în valoare mai complet resursele ecosistemului), ceea ce, în definitiv, duce la creșterea beneficiilor economice ale zonei.

Indicii de similitudine arată gradul de asemănare între populațiile de pădure dintre două UAT-uri. Interpretarea acestora trebuie făcută corelat cu indicii Shannon-Wiener. Astfel, indicele de similitudine redus între două UAT înseamnă păduri asemănătoare din punct de vedere a biodiversității (bune sau rele). Scopul lucrării este de a arăta că și evaluarea calitativă este foarte importantă și trebuia ținut cont de ea.

Suprafețele ocupate de diversele specii forestiere și valorile indicilor Shannon-Wiener și indicilor de similitudine sunt prezentate în Tabelele nr. 3-5.

Tabelul nr. 4. Indicii de diversitate Shanon-Wiener

Specie	Turț	Gherța Mică	Călinești Oaș	Cămărzana	Târșolț	Bixad	Certeze	Negrești-Oaș	Vama	Racșa	Orașu Nou
Acer campestre	-0,015	-0,027	-0,044	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	-0,026
Acer tataricum	-0,210	-0,340	-0,443	-0,080	-0,060	-0,031	-0,104	-0,019	-0,151	-0,154	-0,393
Carpinus betulus	-0,509	-0,529	-0,518	-0,317	-0,236	-0,093	-0,210	-0,120	-0,379	-0,379	-0,462
Fagus sylvatica	-0,020	-0,027	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	-0,012
Populus tremula	-0,481	-0,486	-0,525	-0,331	-0,281	-0,167	-0,021	0,000	-0,411	-0,411	-0,444
Quercus petraea	0,000	-0,348	-0,257	-0,192	-0,145	-0,045	-0,003	0,000	-0,260	-0,259	-0,526
Quercus robur	-0,142	-0,110	-0,060	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	-0,245
Robinia pseudacacia	-0,011	-0,015	-0,025	0,000	0,000	-0,008	0,000	0,000	-0,013	-0,015	-0,026
Salix caprea	-0,048	-0,148	-0,271	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	-0,164
Tilia platyphyllos	-0,006	-0,015	-0,025	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	-0,017
Ulmus minor	-0,138	-0,110	-0,025	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	-0,103
Alnus glutinosa	-0,072	-0,165	-0,128	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	-0,105
Fraxinus excelsior	-0,024	-0,015	0,000	-0,031	-0,025	-0,014	-0,003	-0,003	-0,042	-0,037	-0,007
Abies alba	-0,288	-0,201	-0,060	-0,294	-0,225	-0,058	-0,390	-0,278	-0,159	-0,160	-0,042
Picea abies	-0,162	-0,123	-0,076	-0,049	-0,035	-0,014	-0,007	-0,006	-0,065	-0,065	-0,042
Pinus sylvestris	-0,144	-0,096	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000
Pinus nigra	-0,015	0,000	0,000	-0,025	-0,014	0,000	-0,009	-0,008	-0,054	-0,056	-0,012
Betula pendula	-0,094	-0,064	0,000	-0,049	-0,052	-0,070	-0,011	-0,062	-0,065	-0,065	-0,017
Acer pseudoplatanus	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	0,000	-0,054	-0,056	-0,012
Quercus cerris	-2,473	-2,905	-2,532	-1,368	-1,072	-0,499	-0,761	-0,496	-1,652	-1,657	-2,717
Total											

Sursa: calculele autorilor

Formula indicelui de diversitate Shannon-Wiener:

$$H = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{n_i}{N} \log \frac{n_i}{N} \quad (1)$$

unde: $\frac{n_i}{N} = p_i$ probabilitatea de apariție a speciei de rang i.

Tabelul nr. 5. Indici de similitudine forestieră în UAT-urile Țării Oașului

INDICE SIMILITUDINE	Turț	Gherța Mică	Călinești Oaș	Cămărzana	Târșolț	Bixad	Certeze	Negrești Oaș	Vama	Racșa	Orașu Nou
Turț	0,000	-0,023	0,083	0,272	0,434	0,365	-0,158	-0,096	0,172	0,299	0,286
Gherța Mică	-0,023	0,000	0,106	0,006	0,195	-0,112	-0,599	-0,587	-0,111	0,149	0,038
Călinești Oaș	0,083	0,106	0,000	-0,063	0,050	-0,297	-0,589	-0,615	-0,126	0,068	0,123
Cămărzana	0,272	0,006	-0,063	0,000	0,036	0,008	-0,132	-0,173	0,046	-0,013	0,490
Târșolț	0,434	0,195	0,050	0,036	0,000	-0,063	-0,077	-0,154	0,132	0,021	0,663
Bixad	0,365	-0,112	-0,297	0,008	-0,063	0,000	0,122	0,036	0,114	-0,123	0,597
Certeze	-0,158	-0,599	-0,589	-0,132	-0,077	0,122	0,000	0,030	-0,103	-0,252	0,011
Negrești Oaș	-0,096	-0,587	-0,615	-0,173	-0,154	0,036	0,030	0,000	-0,111	-0,306	0,106
Vama	0,172	-0,111	-0,126	0,046	0,132	0,114	-0,103	-0,111	0,000	-0,001	0,306
Racșa	0,299	0,149	0,068	-0,013	0,021	-0,123	-0,252	-0,306	-0,001	0,000	0,454
Orașu Nou	0,286	0,038	0,123	0,490	0,663	0,597	0,011	0,106	0,306	0,454	0,000

Sursa: calculele autorilor

Indicele de similitudine dintre două populații a și b măsoară diferențele între populațiile din două biotipuri vecine și se calculează cu formula:

$$\overline{H} = \overline{H}_{\sim ab} - 0{,}5\left(\overline{H}_{\sim a} + \overline{H}_{\sim b}\right) \quad (2)$$

$\overline{H}$ variază între 0 (când populațiile sunt identice) și 1 când sunt diferite, deci când nu au nicio specie comună.

3. Variante de proiecte de împădurire a zonei

Ghidul submăsurii 8.1. prevede mai multe principii de respectat de către potențialii beneficiari, şi anume:

1. **principiul funcţiei de protecţie** (se acordă prioritate realizării de perdele forestiere de protecție);
2. **principiul amplasării terenului** (se acordă prioritate terenurilor propuse pentru împădurire situate în zonele deficitare în păduri);
3. **principiul mărimii plantaţiei** (se acordă prioritate terenurilor propuse pentru împădurire cu suprafaţă mai mare);
4. **principiul funcției de reabilitare a terenurilor** (se acordă prioritate împăduririi terenurilor situate în UAT afectate de fenomene de aridizare, eroziune sau salinizare, în funcţie de valorile indicelui de ariditate, gradului de eroziune sau gradului de salinizare);

5. **principiul diversității speciilor** (se acordă prioritate lucrărilor de împădurire care propun cel puţin 2 specii de bază în compoziţie).

Am elaborat trei variante de proiecte:

-Varianta 1: 22 ha corp de pădure situat la deal cu eroziune medie, o singură specie propusă la plantare, situată în județul Satu Mare;

-Varianta 2: 4 ha corp de pădure situat la deal cu eroziune foarte mare, o specie propusă la plantare, situată în județul Satu Mare;

-Varianta 3: 4 ha corp de pădure situată la deal fără eroziune, 5 specii propuse la plantare, situată în județul Satu Mare.

Pentru fiecare dintre aceste variante am calculat punctajul posibil a se obține. Rezultatele sunt prezentate în Tabelul nr. 6.

Tabelul nr. 6. Prezentarea simulării pentru autoevaluarea punctajului realizat de trei variante de proiecte de împădurire prin măsura 8.1 specifice UAT-urilor din zona Oaș a județului Satu Mare

Principii de selecție	Punctaj maxim	Punctaj Varianta 1	Punctaj Varianta 2	Punctaj Varianta 3
1.Principiul funcției de protecție	30	0	0	0
2.Principiul amplasării terenului	20	0	0	0
3.Principiul mărimii plantației	20	15	10	10
4.Principiul funcției de reabilitare a terenului	20	8	20	0
5.Principiul diversității speciilor	10	0	10	10
Punctaj total	100	23	40	20

Sursa: prelucrarea autorilor, după grila din Ghidul solicitantului submăsurii 8.1

Așa după cum se poate vedea, punctajele obținute de noi în simulare sunt între 20 și 40 de puncte, dintr-un maxim de 100. Se poate obține așadar pentru UAT-urile din Țara Oașului doar un punctaj modest, descurajant pentru orice doritor de a accesa aceste fonduri.

4. Concluzii

Având în vedere analiza noastră și rezultatele simulării pe cele trei variante de proiecte, putem formula următoarele concluzii:

-Ghidul solicitantului submăsurii 8.1. este deosebit de complex datorită multitudinii de documente solicitate și certificări necesar a fi obținute de la diverse autorități;

-Se impune o evaluare a calității întocmirii procedurilor folosite la accesarea fondurilor nerambursabile;

-Eșecul acestei măsuri se datorează și faptului că favorizează înființarea de păduri la câmpie, în județe cu soluri roditoare, unde nu se justifică o investiție riscantă (decontările se fac ulterior înființării plantațiilor), pentru că există alte alternative de exploatare mai facile;

-Fărâmițarea terenurilor arabile, cu proprietăți de până la 10 ha, ca o medie pentru fermierii satelor, nu permite scoaterea din circuitul agricol a acestora, pentru că îi lasă pe aceștia fără sursă de trai, în cazul în care decontările nu se fac la timp sau nu se fac deloc;

-Totuși, natura asigură o împădurire în mod natural, fenomen spontan pe teritoriile neexploatate, cu observația că se obține o pădure de valoare mică;

-Ar fi benefic ca ghidul să țină cont de suprafețele acoperite cu pădure la nivel de UAT și nu la nivel de județ, acest fapt ar reflecta mai bine nevoile sociale la nivel de administrație locală;

- Grila de selecție a proiectelor de împădurire nu prevede niciun criteriu calitativ, care ar putea spori biodiversitatea și valoarea economică a pădurii, precum și rolul ei polifuncțional.

Mulțumiri

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ISSUES OF THE ORGANIZATION AND INTERNAL CONTROL QUALITY ASSESSMENT AT THE BANK

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Abstract: *In the contemporary economy it counts not only the production and circulation processes, but also management problems. Thus, internal control system formation acquired a great importance, whose presence in the financial sector is seen as a necessary attribute of belonging to a civilized community. Control is a class complex with multiple applications in the financial sector. In this context, the purpose of this research is to determine not only the importance control for banks, but also to achieve a qualified internal control in licensed banks.*

Keywords*: internal control, principles of internal control, qualified internal control, bank, bank risk management.*

JEL Classification*: G21.*

1. Introduction

At present, the drafting of normative acts in the Republic of Moldova takes into account the existing and implemented regulation in EU practice. However, there are situations when some normative provisions are taken into account, which are just being enacted to be implemented. Thus, in the field of internal banking control, the National Bank of Moldova (hereinafter the NBM) has developed and implemented the Regulation on internal control systems in banks, which states that "the internal control systems of the bank are a process in which are involved the governing bodies of the bank and its staff, regardless of the occupied position, based on processes, methods, standards, measures, including restrictions (limitations), issuance / authorization - execution - reporting - operation and transaction control, as well as at the disposal of the governing bodies of the bank on the basis of authentic, complete and up-to-date information, adopted for the achievement of internal control goals and objectives. The Bank's internal control systems are designed to help increase revenues, minimize spending, ensure that spending is authorized and carried out as intended, that assets are adequately protected, that the bonds are properly recorded and that the risks are limited" (National Bank of Moldova, 2010).

2. Problem description

The immediate realization of the banking activity requires the organization of an efficient internal control system, which will not only ensure compliance with the norms by the bank, but will also contribute to the evaluation, management and control of the risks for the operations performed. In this context, the NBM has made a series of measures aiming at the elimination of erroneous reporting and efficient management of bank risks:

1. Elaboration of the methodological framework regarding the construction of the internal control system:
- SCI regulation;
- bank risk management regulations.
2. Establishing the organizational structure:
- the internal control department;
- the working group carrying out internal control.
3. Preparation of internal documents:
- SCI regulation

- internal regulations for internal control;
- the classification of processes and control mechanisms in the bank's subdivisions.

4. Monitoring and evaluation of SCI:
- systematic controls of the risks and the mechanisms that generate them;
- the total and systematic evaluation of the internal control system and compliance with the norms imposed by NBM.

Of course, for the creation of such a system, is not only enough to be complied with NBM provisions, but also to understand where these recommendations come from and at what stage of development they are. Thus, the realization process of internal control must be based not only on the analysis of the concrete document of the regulatory body, but also on the development of the concept of internal control. The purpose of the research is to analyze the theoretical and methodological aspect regarding the internal banking control and the evaluation of its efficiency within the bank.

In the recommendations of the Basel Committee on Internal Banking Control, it is defined as "a process performed by the board of directors, management and employees at all levels. This is not just a procedure or policy that takes place over a certain period of time, it is a process that is constantly being carried out at all levels within the bank" (Basle Committee on Banking Supervision, 1998).

The elaboration history of the requirements for internal control began in 1985 in the US, with the direction of emergence in business activity. At that time, professional institutions such as the Financial Executives Institute, the Institute of Internal Auditors, the Institute of Management Accountants, the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants, etc., set up a base for a committee that would against fight financial reports containing false data under the leadership of James C. Treadway (Committee of Sponsoring Organizations of the Treadway Commission, 2013). In 1992 was elaborated the document "Internal control. Conceptual Aspects", which includes the definition of internal control, the identification and characterization of the key elements of the internal control, emphasizing the responsibility of the top managers on the correct organization of the internal control.

Thus, following the report developed under the direction of James C. Treadway, it was the one who drew up a new document "The Integrated Concept of Internal Control", which bears the name of the committee that developed the COSO model.

The essence of this model is that risk and internal control are indispensable components of banking activity. Internal control is not just a plan of measures, or a way of ensuring against risks, but it is an integrated process in ordinary activity.

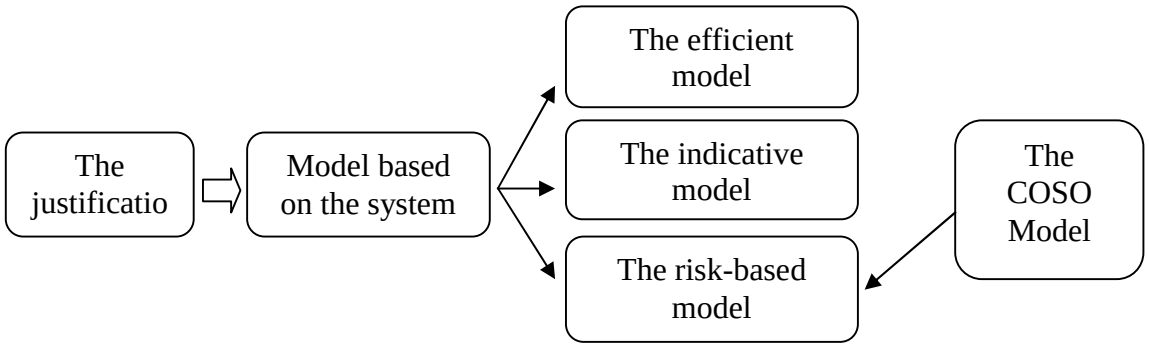

Figure no. 1. Evolution of internal control models

Following the above, we note that bank internal control has evolved from a simple model shown in Figure no. 1, to the most sophisticated models that allow not only to identify problems but also to locate them correctly.

3. Methodology and evaluation

Effective internal control is defined as a permanent element of the bank's activity in all areas, including various forms of cost optimization, the key elements of a business model through various technologies, including banking informational technologies and management technologies, when cost optimization is a prerequisite for further development of the bank. The algorithm for the basic procedures of effective internal control is shown in Figure no. 2.

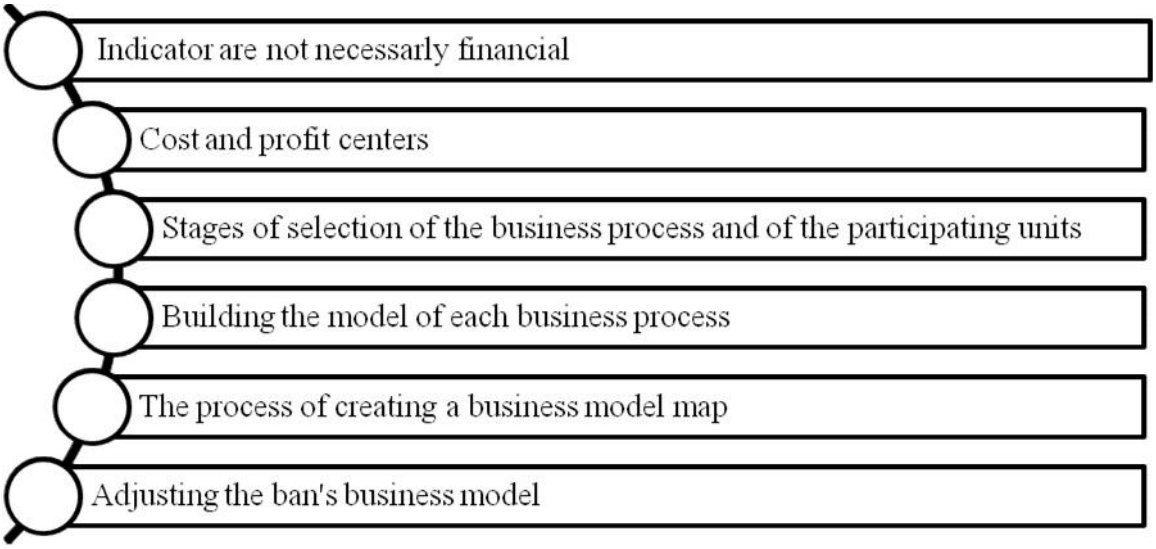

Figure no. 2. The basic procedures for effective internal control

The directions for developing the effective model of internal control are:

- identifying the cost and income centers within the banking activity;
- analysis of bank business processes;
- creating a map of the development of banking activity and financial flows within the bank;
- restructuring, if necessary, of the interaction system between the bank's departments within the banking process adjustment models.

Indicative internal control is defined as a permanent element of the Bank's business in all areas, including the use of different forms of indicators (factors) of the internal and external environment for the advanced development of the bank with the help of modern technologies including banking information technology and management technique.

Indicative internal control directions are:

1. Identify the basic parameters of the internal and external environment of the bank's development form the macroeconomic level to microeconomic level.
2. Determination of the impact of each factor on a certain indicator of the bank's activity.
3. Building maps and indicators, depending on the parameters of the Bank's development indicators.
4. Using the identified indicators to strengthen the bank's development as a competitive advantage on the market.

The indicative model acts as an efficient management resource because it identifies the strengths and weaknesses of the bank's management.

Internal risk-based control is defined as a permanent element of banking activity in all areas, including various forms of banking risk prevention and control through a variety of technologies, including bank and management information technology, where the risk is

one of the key parameters of the assessment of any banking product and the relationship between banking units, which allows the maximum possible reduction of risks, including regulatory ones.

Three main directions can be identified in the risk-based internal control system:

1. Assessing the risk factor of any bank business model, including the bank's development strategy, the bank's business plan, developing the bank's area concept and their activity, as well as an assessment of the risk appetite for all factors of development;

2. Constant real-time monitoring of all real-time operations of the bank, taking into account that the risk management service is an integrated element of any business process technology in the bank, in particular in controlling compliance with limits, which requires a reconfiguration of all banking software and the regulation of business processes (including using technology maps);

3. Checking of the activity of the bank branches in the context of business processes in terms of building a risk management system, not just in accordance with the legislation in force.

The internal control elements are shown in Figure no. 3.

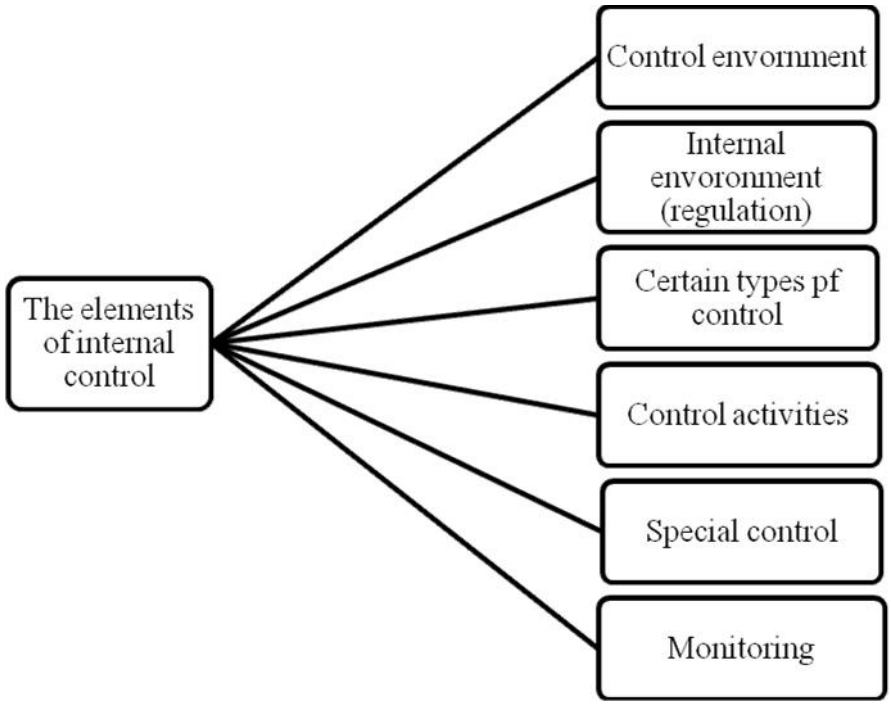

Figure no. 3. Elements of internal banking control

The control environment is the foundation for all the other components of internal control that provide discipline and employee structure. The internal control environment includes ethics and competence of bank employees, philosophy and management style, division of tasks and responsibilities, organizational structure, management's attention to staff development, board decisions. The control environment includes:

- management policies and practices;
- organizational structure of the bank;
- leadership activity;
- distribution of leadership and responsibilities;
- staff policy.

The regulation of the banking activity includes the observance of the external legal framework, elaborated and implemented by the NBM in order to ensure the stable

development of the entire banking sector and the internal normative framework elaborated by the internal subdivisions of the bank.

The division of internal control can be done according to the directions to be controlled by the bank's managers:

- administrative;
- accountant;
- financial;
- management;
- technical etc.

Control activities represent the process of interaction and operation of the individual elements of the internal control system. It includes both special control and performing some control functions in the exercise of their staff's duties.

Special control reflects the activity of the units (i.e., internal audit) or employees to verify individual operations, results obtained, and the status of objects both permanently and ad-hoc.

Monitoring is defined as the inspection and assessment of the effectiveness of internal control in the process of its operation over time. Verification is done through two processes - operational testing performed by managers in operations and a separate assessment of control.

In order to identify the corrective measures of the internal control system, it is necessary to present also the problems faced by the bank in the internal control:

- lack of management control;
- lack of information on violation of NBM norms and non-compliance with internal regulations;
- the identification and late evaluation of the risk related to the bank's balance sheet and off-balance sheet operations;
- lack of internal control system;
- inefficient audit;
- lack of corrective measures following the checks carried out;
- the low quality of the automated banking information systems;
- the psychological aspect;
- the lack of competence of control specialists.

Following the above, we mention that the achievement of a correct and efficient internal bank control is the key to success in making accurate and timely decisions. This also requires the quality of internal control to be assessed.

The specialized literature indicates that the internal banking quality assessment is based on qualitative methods, generating a subjective treatment of the results obtained from the control. At the same time, the application of this method demonstrates only the internal control system is correctly formed and the legal framework is observed.

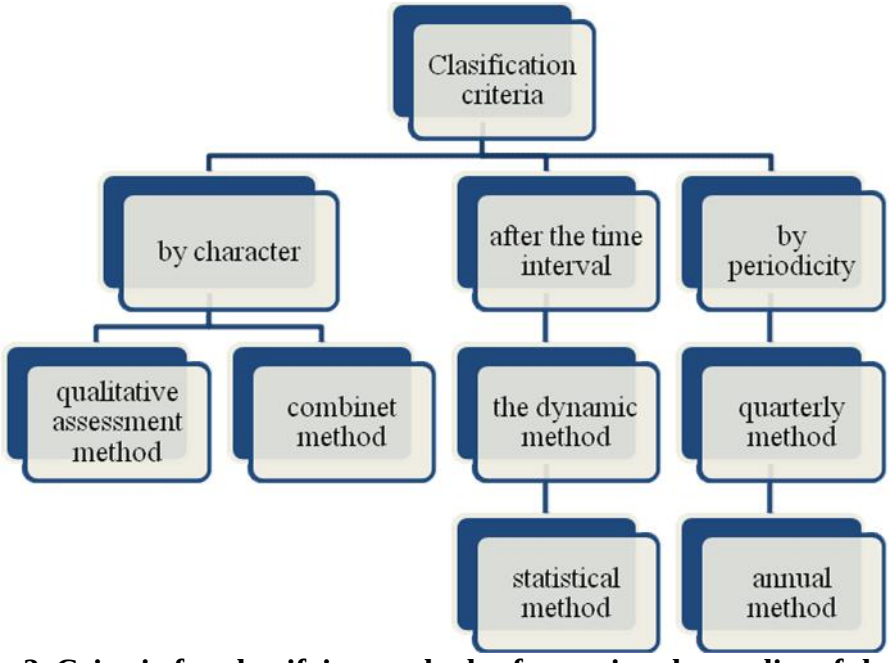

Figure no. 3. Criteria for classifying methods of assessing the quality of the internal control system

Implementing the combination between the qualitative and quantitative assessment will provide the opportunity to achieve far more accurate results with regard to the internal control system and will exclude subjectivism. To illustrate this idea, we will present in Figure no. 3 the criteria for classifying methods of assessing the quality of the internal control system.

From this figure a particular interest presents the detailed characterization of the qualitative evaluation method and the combined method. The method of qualitative assessment is based on the assessment of compliance with the criteria that determine the quality of the internal control system by using rating indicators or by simple comparison.

The combined method includes both the qualitative and quantitative assessment method by determining values for the quality criteria of the internal control system, which include financial stability indicators, capital adequacy and calculation of non-compliance with the norms imposed by the NBM.

In order to make the internal banking control system more efficient, the following integrated indicator can be calculated:

$$K = \frac{EqSCI \ x\ I_1 + EnSCI \ x\ I_2}{I_1 + I_2}, \quad (1)$$

where K – quality level; EqSCI – qualitative assessment of SCI; EnSCI – quantitative evaluation; Expert indicator 1, 2 – weight of indicator chosen by SCI.

4. Conclusions

The need for continuous improvement, change of working approaches determines the transition from setting internal controls to building a mature control environment to maintain an effective internal control system, which is achieved through:

- the proper functioning of the risk management system,
- a balanced approach to the development of control procedures for each process, in accordance with the principle of proportionality, with a view to controlling, on the one hand, the coverage of all the risks of the process and, on the other hand, not to be excessive;

- selection and training (advanced training) of control staff for the implementation of works (maintenance), regular interaction with staff;
- continuous development and improvement of the internal control system.

In conclusion, we mention that the current internal control system in the banking sector of the Republic of Moldova is not a perfect one and needs to be adapted to the provisions of BASEL III, including on the internal quality evaluation segment. For this, it is necessary to elaborate and implement a series of indicators that would have value limits, which would allow the correct assessment of the internal control system activity.

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PROBLEME CONCEPTUALE ALE ASIGURĂRII CALITĂȚII ȘI CONTROLULUI INTERN ÎN SISTEMUL BANCAR

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***Rezumat**: În economia contemporană, contează nu numai procesele de producție și desfacere, ci și problemele de management. Astfel, formarea sistemului de control intern a căpătat o mare importanță, a cărui prezență în sectorul financiar este privită ca un atribut necesar al unei comunități civilizate. Controlul este o categorie complexă, cu multiple aplicații în sectorul financiar. În acest context, scopul acestei cercetări este de a determina nu numai importanța controlului pentru sectorul bancar, ci și obținerea unui control intern calificat în băncile licențiate.*

***Cuvinte-cheie:** control intern, principii ale controlului intern, control intern calificat, bancă, management al riscului bancar.*
***Clasificare JEL**: G21.*

1. Introducere

Actualmente, elaborarea actelor normative în Republica Moldova ţine cont de reglementarea existentă şi implementată în practica Uniunii Europene. Cu toate acestea, există situaţii când se preiau unele prevederi normative care abia se încearcă de a fi implementate. Astfel, în domeniul controlului bancar intern, Banca Naţională a Moldovei (în continuare BNM) a elaborat şi implementat Regulamentul cu privire la sistemele de control intern în bănci, în care menţionează că „sistemele de control intern ale băncii reprezintă un proces în care sunt implicate organele de conducere ale băncii şi personalul acesteia, indiferent de funcţia ocupată, bazat pe procedee, metode, standarde, măsuri, inclusiv restricţii (limitări), relaţii de emitere/autorizare – executare - raportare - control al tranzacţiilor şi operaţiunilor, precum şi pe dispoziţiile organelor de conducere ale băncii, în baza unei informaţii autentice, complete şi actualizate, adoptate pentru realizarea scopurilor şi obiectivelor controlului intern. Sistemele de control intern ale băncii urmează să contribuie la sporirea veniturilor, minimalizarea cheltuielilor, să asigure că cheltuielile sunt autorizate şi efectuate conform destinaţiei, că activele sunt adecvat protejate, că obligaţiunile sunt înregistrate corect şi riscurile sunt limitate" (Banca Națională a Moldovei, 2010).

2. Descrierea problemei

Realizarea nemijlocită a activităţii bancare necesită organizarea unui sistem eficient de control intern, care nu numai că va asigura respectarea normativelor de către bancă, dar va contribui la evaluarea, gestiunea şi controlul riscurilor pentru operaţiunile efectuate. În acest context, BNM a realizat o serie de măsuri care au avut ca scop final eliminarea raportărilor eronate și gestiunea eficientă a riscurilor bancare:

1. Elaborarea cadrului metodologic cu privire construirea sistemului de control intern:
- regulamentul SCI;
- regulamentele de gestiune a riscurilor bancare.

2. Constituirea structurii organizaționale:
- departamentul de control intern;
- grupul de lucru ce realizează controlul intern.

3. Pregătirea documentelor interne:

- regulamentul SCI
- regulamentele interne de realizare a controlului intern;
- clasificarea proceselor şi mecanismelor de control în subdiviziunile băncii.

4. Monitorizarea şi evaluarea SCI:
- controale sistematice ale riscurilor şi ale mecanismelor care le generează;
- evaluarea totală şi sistematică a sistemului de control intern şi a respectării normativelor impuse de BNM.

Desigur că, pentru crearea unui astfel de sistem, nu este suficient de respectat doar prevederile BNM, dar şi de înţeles de unde vin aceste recomandări şi la ce etapă de dezvoltare se află. Astfel, procesul de realizare a controlului intern trebuie să se bazeze nu doar pe analiza documentului concret al organului de reglementare dar trebuie să ţină cont şi de dezvoltarea conceptului de control intern. Scopul cercetării constă în analiza aspectului teoretico-metodologic cu privire la controlul bancar intern şi evaluarea eficienţei lui în cadrul băncii.

În recomandările Comitetului de la Basel cu privire la controlul bancar intern, acesta este definit ca fiind „un proces, efectuat de către consiliul de administraţie, de conducere şi angajaţii de toate nivelurile. Acest lucru nu este doar o procedură sau o politică, care se desfăşoară într-o anumită perioadă de timp, ci reprezintă un proces care este realizat în mod constant la toate nivelurile din cadrul băncii" (Basle Committee on Banking Supervision, 1998).

Istoria elaborării cerinţelor faţă de controlul intern a început în 1985 în SUA, având ca direcţie de manifestare activitatea întreprinderilor. În acea perioadă, instituţiile profesionale precum Institutul Managerilor Financiari (Financial Executives Institute), Institutul Auditorilor Interni (Institute of Internal Auditors), Institutul Specialiştilor Contabilităţii de Gestiune (Institute of Management Accountants), Institutul American al Contabililor Certificaţi (American Institute of Certified Public Accountants) etc., au pus bazele unei comisii care urma să lupte cu rapoartele financiare ce conţin date false sub conducerea lui James C. Treadway (Committee of Sponsoring Organizations of the Treadway Commission, 2013). În 1992 a fost elaborat documentul „Control intern. Aspecte conceptuale", care include definirea controlului intern, identificarea şi caracterizarea elementelor-cheie ale controlului intern, fiind pus accentul pe responsabilitatea managerilor de vârf asupra organizării corecte a acestuia.

Astfel, în urma raportului elaborat sub conducerea lui James C. Treadway, a fost cel care a elaborat un document nou, „Conceptul integrat al controlului intern", care poartă denumirea comisiei care a elaborat modelul COSO.

Esenţa acestui model constă în faptul că şi riscul şi controlul intern sunt elemente componente indispensabile ale activităţii bancare. Controlul intern nu este doar un plan de măsuri, o modalitate de asigurare contra riscurilor, ci reprezintă un proces integrat în activitatea obişnuită.

În urma celor prezentate, remarcăm că controlul intern bancar a evoluat de la un model simplu, prezentat în Figura nr. 1, la cele mai sofisticate modele, ce permit nu doar identificarea problemelor, dar şi localizarea corectă a acestora.

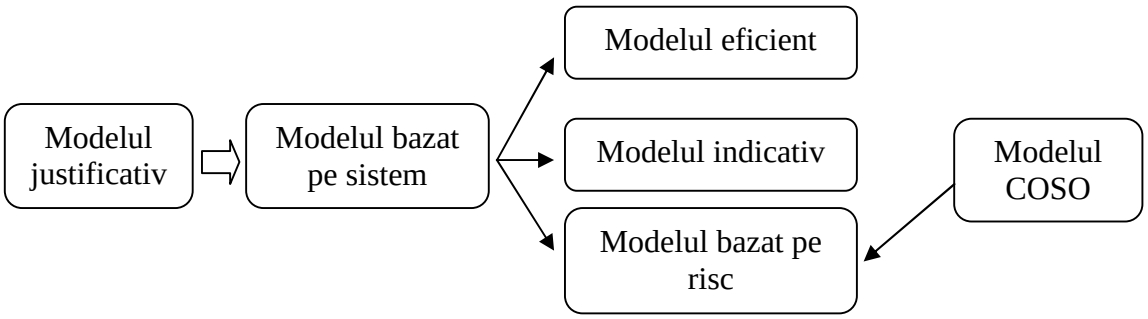

Figura nr.1. Evoluţia modelelor moderne de control intern

3. Metodologie şi evaluare

Controlul intern eficient este definit ca fiind un element permanent al activităţilor băncii în toate domeniile, inclusiv diferite forme de optimizare a costurilor, elementelor-cheie ale unui model de afaceri prin intermediul diferitelor tehnologii, inclusiv a tehnologiilor informaţionale bancare şi a tehnologiilor de gestiune, atunci când optimizarea costurilor este o condiţie prealabilă pentru dezvoltarea în continuare a băncii. Algoritmul pentru procedurile de bază ale unui control intern efectiv este prezentat în Figura nr. 2.

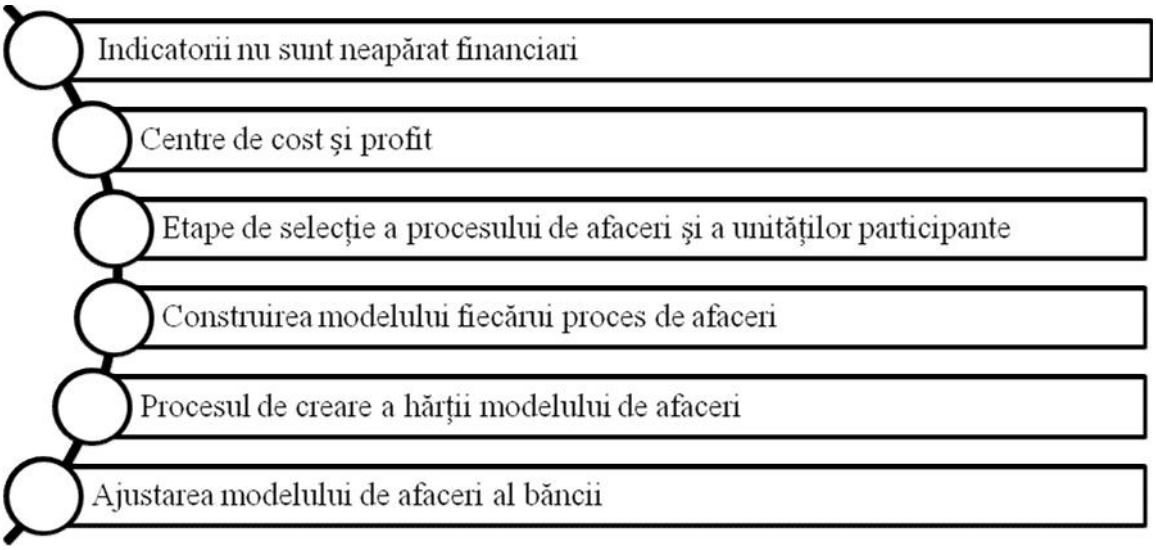

Figura nr.2. Procedurile de bază ale unui control intern efectiv

Direcţiile de dezvoltare a modelului eficient al controlului intern sunt:

- identificarea centrelor de cost şi venit în cadrul activităţii bancare;
- analiza proceselor activităţii bancare;
- crearea unei hărţi a dezvoltării activităţii bancare şi a fluxurilor financiare în cadrul băncii;
- restructurarea, în caz de necesitate, a sistemului de interacţiune între departamentele băncii în cadrul modelelor de ajustare a proceselor de activitate bancară.

Controlul intern indicativ este definit ca fiind un element permanent al activităţii băncii în toate domeniile, inclusiv utilizarea diferitelor forme de indicatori (factori) ai mediului intern şi extern pentru dezvoltarea avansată a băncii cu ajutorul tehnologiilor moderne, inclusiv tehnologia informaţiei bancare şi a tehnicii de management.

Direcţiile controlului intern indicativ sunt:

1. Identificarea parametrilor de bază ai mediului intern şi extern al dezvoltării băncii de la nivel macroeconomic la nivel microeconomic.

2. Determinarea ponderii impactului fiecărui factor asupra unui anumit indicator al activităţii băncii.

3. Construirea hărţilor şi indicatorilor, în funcţie de parametrii indicatorilor de dezvoltare ai băncii.

4. Utilizarea indicatorilor identificaţi, pentru consolidarea dezvoltării băncii, ca avantaj competitiv pe piaţă.

Modelul indicativ acţionează în calitate de resursă pentru gestionare eficientă, deoarece identifică punctele forte şi slabe ale managementului băncii.

Controlul intern bazat pe risc este definit ca fiind un element permanent al activităţii bancare în toate domeniile, inclusiv diversele forme de prevenire şi control al riscului bancar printr-o varietate de tehnologii, inclusiv tehnologia informaţiei bancare şi cea de gestiune, atunci când riscul este unul dintre parametrii cheie al evaluării oricărui produs bancar şi relaţia dintre unităţile bancare, ceea ce permite reducerea maximă posibilă a riscurilor, inclusiv a celor de reglementare.

În sistemul controlului intern bazat pe risc pot fi identificate trei direcţii principale:

1. Evaluarea factorului de risc al oricărui model de afaceri al băncii, inclusiv strategia de dezvoltare a băncii, planul de afaceri al băncii, dezvoltarea conceptului de zone ale băncii şi activitatea acestora, precum şi, o evaluare a apetitului de risc asupra tuturor factorilor de dezvoltare;

2. Monitorizarea constantă în timp real a tuturor operaţiunilor băncii, ţinând cont de faptul că serviciul de management al riscului este un element integrat al oricărei tehnologii a proceselor de afaceri în bancă, în special, în controlul respectării limitelor, ceea ce necesită o reconfigurare a tuturor softw-urilor bancare şi reglementarea proceselor de afaceri (inclusiv folosind hărţile tehnologice);

3. Verificarea activităţii filialelor bancare în contextul proceselor de afaceri din punct de vedere al construirii unui sistem de gestionare a riscurilor, nu doar în conformitate cu legislaţia în vigoare.

Elementele controlului intern sunt prezentate în figura 3.

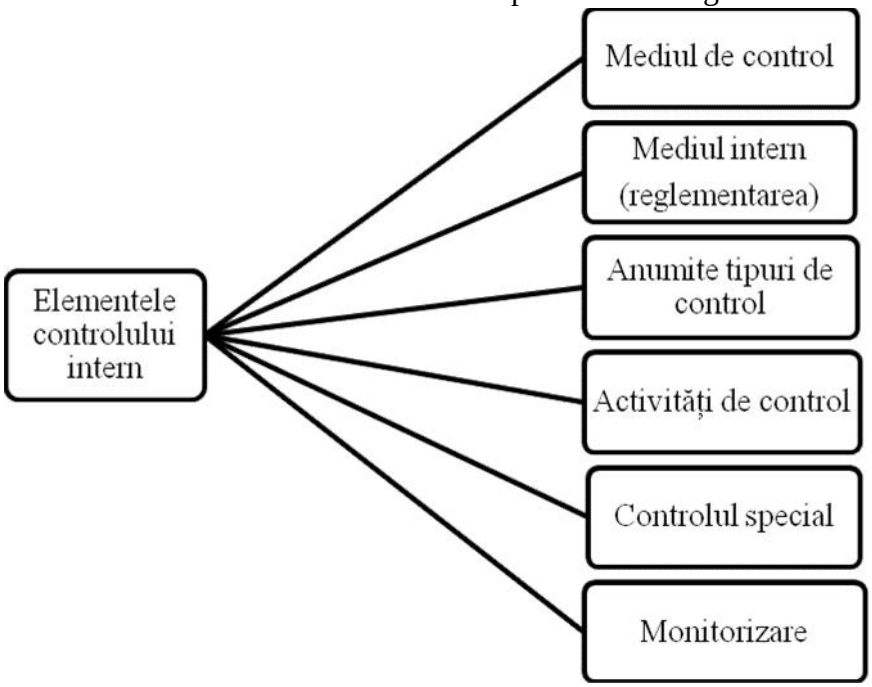

Figura nr. 3. Elementele controlului intern bancar

Mediul de control constituie fundamentul pentru toate celelalte componente ale controlului intern, care oferă disciplina şi structura angajaţilor. Mediul de control intern

include etica şi competenţa angajaţilor băncii, filozofia şi stilul de management, divizarea sarcinilor şi responsabilităţilor, structura organizatorică, atenţia conducerii la dezvoltarea personalului, deciziile consiliului. În componenţa mediului de control sunt incluse:

- politicile şi practicile de management;
- structura organizatorică a băncii;
- activitatea conducerii;
- distribuirea funcţiilor de conducere şi a responsabilităţilor;
- politica de personal.

Reglementarea activităţii bancare include respectarea cadrului legal extern, elaborat şi implementat de BNM, cu scopul de a asigura o dezvoltare stabilă a întregului sector bancar şi a cadrului normativ intern, elaborat de subdiviziunile interne ale băncii.

Divizarea controlului intern poate fi realizată în funcţie de direcţiile ce urmează a fi controlate de către managerii băncii:

- administrativ;
- contabil;
- financiar;
- de gestiune;
- tehnic etc.

Activităţile de control reprezintă procesul de interacţiune şi funcţionare a elementelor individuale ale sistemului de control intern. Acesta include atât controlul special, cât şi efectuarea unor funcţii de control în exercitarea atribuţiilor personalului lor.

Controlul special reflectă activitatea unităţilor (de exemplu, audit intern) sau angajaţilor pentru verificarea unor operaţiuni individuale, rezultate obţinute, starea obiectelor atât permanent cât şi ad-hoc.

Monitorizarea se defineşte ca fiind inspecţie şi evaluare a eficacităţii controlului intern în procesul de funcţionare a acestuia în timp. Verificarea se face prin două procese – testarea operativă efectuată de manageri în cadrul operaţiunilor şi o evaluare separată a controlului.

Pentru identificarea măsurilor de corectare a sistemului de control intern, este necesar de a prezenta şi problemele cu care se confruntă banca în cadrul controlului intern:

- lipsa controlului de gestiune;
- lipsa informaţiilor cu privire la încălcarea normativelor BNM şi nerespectarea regulamentelor interne;
- identificarea şi evaluarea cu întârziere a riscului legat de operaţiunile bilanţiere şi extrabilanţiere ale băncii;
- lipsa sistemului de control intern;
- audit ineficient;
- lipsa măsurilor de corectare în urma controalelor efectuate;
- calitatea joasă a sistemelor informaţionale automatizate bancare;
- aspectul psihologic;
- incompetenţa specialiştilor din domeniul controlului.

În urma celor prezentate, menţionăm că realizarea unui control bancar intern corect şi eficient este cheia succesului în luarea deciziilor corecte şi oportune. Pentru aceasta este nevoie de a evalua şi calitatea controlului intern.

Literatura de specialitate indică faptul că evaluarea calităţii controlului bancar intern se face în baza metodelor calitative, generând o tratare subiectivă a rezultatelor obţinute în urma controlului. Totodată, aplicarea acestei metode demonstrează doar dacă sistemul de control intern este corect format şi se respectă cadrul legislativ.

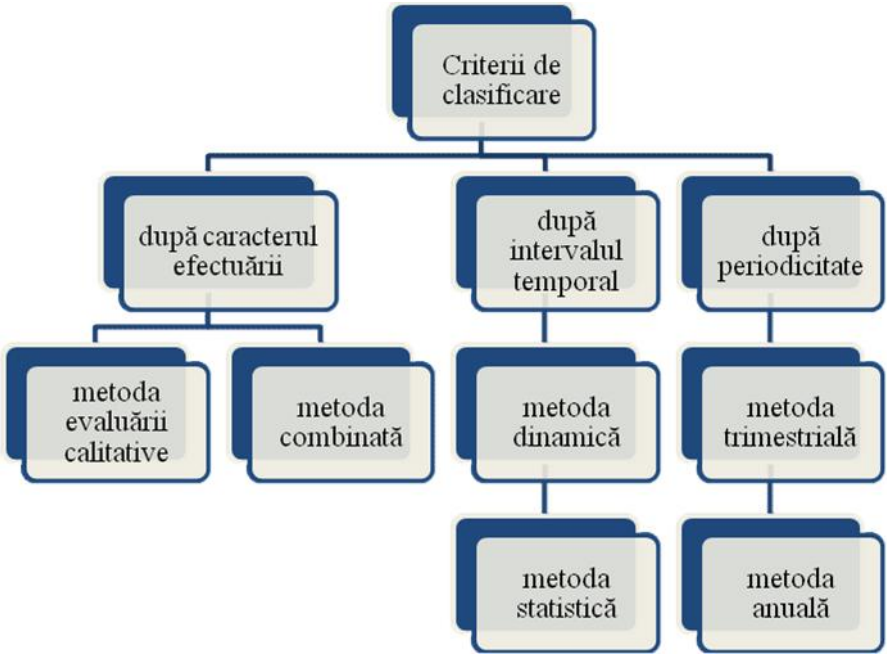

Figura nr. 3. Criterii de clasificare a metodelor de evaluare a calităţii sistemului de control intern

Implementarea combinaţiei dintre evaluarea calitativă şi cantitativă va oferi posibilitatea de a obţine rezultate mult mai exacte cu privire la sistemul de control intern şi va exclude apariţia subiectivismului. Pentru argumentarea acestei idei, vom prezenta în Figura nr. 3 criteriile de clasificare a metodelor de evaluare a calităţii sistemului de control intern.

Din această figură, un interes deosebit prezintă caracterizarea detaliată a metodei evaluării calitative şi a metodei combinate. Metoda evaluării calitative se bazează pe evaluarea corespunderii cu criteriile care determină calitatea sistemului de control intern prin utilizarea indicatorilor de rating sau prin simpla comparare.

Metoda combinată include atât metoda evaluării calitative, cât şi cantitative prin determinarea unor valori pentru criteriile de calitate a sistemului de control intern, care, în sumă, includ indicatorii de stabilitate financiară, de suficienţă a capitalului şi calcularea nerespectării normativelor impuse de BNM.

Pentru eficientizarea sistemului de control intern bancar se poate calcula următorul indicator integrat:

$$K = \frac{EqSCI \ x\, I_1 + EnSCI \ x\, I_2}{I_1 + I_2}, \quad (1)$$

unde K – nivelul calităţii; EqSCI – evaluarea calitativă a SCI; EnSCI – evaluarea cantitativă; Indicatorul expert 1, 2 – ponderea indicatorului ales de SCI.

4. Concluzii

Nevoia de îmbunătăţire continuă, schimbarea abordărilor de lucru determină tranziţia de la stabilirea controalelor interne la construirea unui mediu de control matur pentru menţinerea unui sistem eficient de control intern, care se realizează prin:

- funcţionarea adecvată a sistemului de gestionare a riscurilor;
- abordarea echilibrată în elaborarea unor proceduri de control pentru fiecare proces, în conformitate cu principiul proporţionalităţii, cu scopul de a controla, pe de o parte, acoperirea tuturor riscurilor procesului, iar pe de altă parte – să nu fie excesiv;

- selecţia şi formarea (pregătirea avansată) personalului cu funcţii de control pentru punerea în aplicare a lucrărilor (operaţiuni de întreţinere), interacţiunea regulată cu personalul;
- dezvoltarea și perfecționarea continuă a sistemului de control intern.

În concluzie la cele abordate, menţionăm că sistemul controlului intern, existent în prezent în sectorul bancar al Republicii Moldova nu este unul perfect şi necesită adaptarea la prevederile BASEL III, inclusiv pe segmentul de evaluare a calităţii controlului intern. Pentru aceasta, este nevoie de elaborarea şi implementarea unor indicatori care ar avea limite valorice, ceea ce ar permite aprecierea corectă a activităţii sistemului de control intern.

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EPISTEMOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF THE MICROFINANCE PROCESS

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Abstract: *Starting from the various definitions of microfinance in terms of epistemological given by the best specialists of our century and together with my views concerning the species microfinance through this paper will define finance as one general and microfinance for local communities as a species of funding. Regarding to the sociological aspects if we were to transpose the essential features mentioned by Peter Berger (1963) that: to "see the general in particular" and the ability "to see what is unusual in the familiar" I can say that microfinance is a species an overall financing. In the microfinance approach is bottom-up social change of the challenge in the current context of social and financial inclusion: give money directly to small entrepreneurs who want to start the business on. A great father of microfinance is Muhammad Yunus, Nobel laureate in 2006, which contributed actively and directly in the development of microfinance mechanisms. We are currently witnessing such initiatives around the world with very surprisingly good results in Africa and Asia, which currently contributes to financial inclusion and social policy at international level.*

Keywords*: finance, microfinance, social and financial inclusion.*
JEL Classification*: Q, Q01, Q14.*

In June 2010, the G20 summit in Toronto, launched the Global Partnership for Financial Inclusion. United Nations, World Bank, International Monetary Fund and the International Labour Office have oriented their programs to issues of financial inclusion as an essential condition for creating jobs and generating revenue. Also, the European Commission, in cooperation with the European Investment Bank, have established numerous programs such as "Jasmine", "Progress" and "Easi Program" to support microfinance institutions and for employment and social inclusion. More recently, in the Europe 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth adopted in 2010, the European Commission has asked Member States, among other recommendations, the need "to develop concrete strategies for social innovation, such as public private partnership, ensuring adequate financial support and predictable, including microfinance" (European Commission, 2013, p.12). It would thus achieve the goal of removing at least 20 million people out of poverty and social exclusion, and improve employment of the population aged 20-64 years to 75%. Therefore, microfinance is facing real challenges in order to contribute to the realization of the Strategy 2020. Will it be able to provide the expected impact in terms of financial and social inclusion? Impact assessment of microfinance requires awareness that "microfinance" is a generic term for a wide variety of products and services. It covers areas such as micro-credit, micro-economics, micro-guarantee and micro-insurance while in each of these subcategories services provided differ in their characteristics, cost, target audience and the institutional context in which they occur.

The impact of microfinance service provider is only one aspect of its social performance. The concept of social performance involves consideration of factors such as:

- ✓ purpose and goals of an organization;
- ✓ its inputs (resources and procedures);
- ✓ results;
- ✓ impact.

Performance analysis of social service provider's microfinance involves understanding and assessment of inputs from suppliers and their efficiency in order to

achieve the purpose and objectives initially set (Lapenu and Reboul, 2006). Social Performance evaluations have two complementary objectives: providing an understanding of the processes implemented to promote their improvement where necessary and to demonstrate the effectiveness of action by measuring change impacts principal supplier to customers (Lapenu and Reboul, 2006). In this regard, the impact assessment of microfinance service providers is not only a way to ensure ongoing funding, but a tool to help the organization to learn and perform better by designing products and processes that proves more suitable for both in terms of customers and suppliers (Copestake and Williams, 2011; Karlan and Goldberg, 2011; Copestake, 2014; GECES 2014). Improving the impact of organizations can be done by collecting data internally on a regular and reliable, but not necessarily in a "scientific manner". What matters is that the results are meaningful and credible assessment in order to take the relevant decisions.

To prove the impact of an organization requires a methodology that not only meets domestic needs, but also have an external standard of credibility. This "change" in the methodology of implementation was also supported by two factors:

The first factor is that foreign donors were often more interested in evidence of the impact their financial support for microfinance organizations rather than to contribute to the learning process and improve it (Bédécarrat et al, 2012 ;. Naudet et al ,. 2012).

The second factor is that most of the information needed to assess the social performance of an organization are easily accessible internally while impact assessment requires the collection of information by engaging discussions with potential customers and non-customers (ie, counterfactual). Data collection is a particularly difficult task for staff is not ready for such research tasks.

Providing financial and non-financial services would help entrepreneurs to overcome the challenges for rural development, supporting their businesses and stimulate the local economy. In this regard, often targeting microfinance unemployed or people excluded from the traditional banking system who want to start their own business, contributing significantly to self-employment and job creation. Thus, we can define micro financing as follows:

- ✓ Source of financial services to entrepreneurs and small businesses that do not have access to banking and related services.

There are two main mechanisms for the delivery of financial services to such customers:

(1) based on banking relationships for individual entrepreneurs and small businesses;

(2) based group, where more entrepreneurs come together to apply for loans and other services as a group.

- ✓ The manner by which the social inclusion of the poor.
- ✓ Way to promote economic development, employment and economic growth by supporting micro - entrepreneurs and small businesses.

According to CGAP (The Consultative Group to Assist the Poor) Microfinance Rural comprises providing a range of financial services such as savings, credit, payments and insurance for individuals in rural areas, households, businesses (both agricultural and non-agricultural). It also includes funding of agriculture and agro-processing, such as the provision of inputs, production, and distribution, wholesale, processing and marketing. Some challenges faced by micro enterprises (IMF) rural areas are similar to those facing any IMF while others are specific to rural organizations that provide loans for farm-based activities.

According to USAID, the following factors constrain both demand and supply in rural and agricultural finance:

- ✓ high transaction costs for both creditors and debtors;
- ✓ low population density and demand dispersed;
- ✓ limiting economic opportunities available to local populations;
- ✓ high risks faced by potential borrowers and depositors due to variability in revenues;
- ✓ exogenous economic shocks and limited tools for risk management;
- ✓ seasonality - may affect both the client and the institution;
- ✓ high concentration on agriculture and agricultural related activities, expose institutions to multiple risks;
- ✓ lack of reliable information on borrowers;
- ✓ lack of market information and / or market access;
- ✓ weak institutional capacities;
- ✓ "exclusion" effect caused by subsidies;
- ✓ lack of adequate safeguards (lack of assets, unclear property rights, etc.);
- ✓ uncertain legal framework and lack of regulation adapted to new needs;
- ✓ underdeveloped legal systems, inadequate mechanisms for the implementation of the contract;
- ✓ undeveloped or inadequate infrastructure.

Although this list is mainly based on the experience of developing countries, it provides a useful and comprehensive global challenges of creating models tailored microfinance current context of social and financial inclusion. The World Bank estimates that today, more than 16 million people are served by 7,000 microfinance institutions worldwide.

Here are some milestones in the history of microfinance. In 1800 Lysander Spooner theorist wrote a paper stressing the benefits that they bring micro entrepreneurs and farmers, seeing in them a way to achieve social inclusion of the poor. Independent Spooner, Friedrich Wilhelm Raiffeisen founded the first cooperative banks lending to support farmers in Germany. In the 80 Grameen Bank of Bangladesh appears to Mohammad Yunus, pioneer of microcredit, as seen today. Another pioneer Akhtar Hameed Khan this sector. At that time it introduced several innovations in this sector. Shorebank, founded in 1974 in Chicago, was the first bank microfinance and community development. The World Bank estimates that today more than 16 million people are served by 7,000 microfinance institutions worldwide.

Experts CGAP (Consultative Group to Assist the Poor the) say it means that about 500 million families benefiting from such small loans making possible new business. Some principles that summarize a century and a half of practice was set in 2004 by CGAP and adopted by the G8 leaders at the G8 summit of 10 June 2004:

1. Poor people need not just loans but also by way of savings, insurance and money transfer services;
2. Microfinance must be useful to poor households: ajutându- them to increase revenue, purchase goods and / or can be written off against external shocks;
3. "Microfinance can pay for itself", grants from donors and government are scarce and uncertain, as such, to reach large numbers of poor people, microfinance must pay for itself;
4. Microfinance means building permanent local institutions;
5. Microfinaţarea means integrating the financial needs of the poor in the central financial system of a country;
6. "task of government is to enable financial services, not to provide them."
7. "Donor funds should complement private capital market, not compete with it";
8. Donors should focus on capacity building;

9. Microfinance should measure performance and to present both the financial and social.

From here we could also conclude that microfinance is seen as a tool for socio-economic development and cannot be regarded as a charity!

At European level there are different models of microcredit sector, which began to develop in 2000 in the western part of the 1990s and in the central and eastern. In the western part because of strict regulatory framework that allows banks to grant credit only prevail linkage model: organizations support and accompany clients to cooperate with banks pulling credit. Although the model linkage often generates procedures for granting and firing longer, has some clear advantages: while banks obtain information specific customer segment and may outsource part of certain operating costs, nonprofits supporting target group initially with a broad Product alongside learning the techniques of scoring and evaluation of bank customers.

The countries of Central and Eastern microfinance operations began in the 90s as a private initiative supported by international donors. In Romania and Bulgaria microfinance organizations have a specific status of non-bank financial intermediaries and have the right to lend. Credit unions provide microfinance, savings and insurance. In the UK community development financial institutions.

(CDFIs) credit small businesses and individuals from disadvantaged areas. Types of microcredit organizations in Europe:

- ✓ nongovernmental organization specializing in microfinance (integrated non-financial services);
- ✓ Banks microcredit (converted from non-governmental organizations and foundations);
- ✓ nongovernmental organization focused on specific groups (acts at small scale);
- ✓ Credit Cooperative (special legal status);
- ✓ non-banking financial institutions (microfinance institutions);
- ✓ Institutional Support Programs (part of the existing programs of development banks);
- ✓ community development financial institutions (CDFI - UK only).

European microfinance market is heterogeneous, immature and fragmented. There is a common business model. Varies microloans value between 220-30000 euros, the largest being granted by banks, non-banking institutions and government organizations. The most pressing problem is the lack of such institutions' long-term funding sources.

It is however noted a trend of professionalization, efficient and self-sustaining. A growing number of unemployed people are a source of demand for microcredits. Without access to stable funding, growth prospects are limited. It is expected that during the next European commercial banks to further reduce lending to financially excluded people, small and micro start-up CEs. Microfinance is an important tool to combat the financial crisis and sustain inclusive growth. The legal framework for microfinance in Romania there since 1993, currently being over-legalized. Romanian microfinance sector is competitive, being the 5th largest in the European Union with experience in accessing decentralized programs. On the other hand, in Romania there is no coordination between training programs in entrepreneurship and access to microfinance programs.

The beneficiaries are micro-businesses, including freelancers, sole proprietorships, and family, small, new companies (start-up) companies' innovative farmers.

The institutions involved are: donors (EU, European Investment Fund), the fund manager, non-bank financial institutions, experts, consulting firms, microfinance institutions, guarantee funds, fund Counter.

The benefits of the activity of microfinance for Romania mainly consist of: improving access to finance for all recipients listed above, improving the quality of financial services and support for business development offered by participating institutions, SME development and the creation / maintenance of jobs, growth turnover of the beneficiary companies, the increase of the value of micro-credits granted. Thus, microcredit can be a breeding ground for the interbank market to creditworthy customers. Deficit financing of viable agricultural holdings in Romania (127.107) and viable enterprises in processing and marketing (4293 companies) come under MARD estimates the value of RON 9.343 million, respectively EUR 2.088 million for agricultural businesses.

Financing gap in terms of viable non-agricultural SMEs in rural areas amounts to a total of 1.235 million RON equivalent of EUR 276 million.

Table no. 1. Estimate the funding gap Indicators

Indicator sector	Number of firms targeted viable	sector average loan amount (EUR)	Deficit financing (% firms)	Deficit financing (no.firme)	Deficit financing (EUR)
Agriculture	131.400	67.429	23.6%	30.966	2.088.021.922
Nonagricultural rural sectors	20.742	113.980	11.7%	2.422	276.020.842
	152.142				2.364.042.764

Source: NBR, NTC, Eurostat, own calculations

Total cumulated deficit financing to 10.578 million RON equivalent of EUR 2.364 million.

An important aspect is to create innovative models of microfinance and training of human capital involved in providing financial services and financial education of those who accessed microcredit. European and global level is currently trying to achieve special microfinance programs, mainly in rural areas. These concerns and decisions can directly influence the development of activities in these areas through access to microcredit.

We are at the stage where we are obliged to approach decisions leading to the reestablishment of new principles of lending institutions to ensure local stakeholders and vital sectors and localities to strengthen economic welfare. It is the establishment of banking institutions to finance economic entities with legal personality: banks, in rural areas, where crediting legal entities and individuals active: banks to finance exclusively educational or health institutions in rural areas. Capital required to set up such institutions should be ensured through government financial contributions for which payment to be repaid in time. To achieve this goal of establishing a national system of microfinance rural areas should be started from what was good in the credit system areas in Romania in the interwar period, especially from existing models today in some European Union countries, as well as models of microfinance in countries on other continents.

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ASPECTE EPISTEMOLOGICE PRIVIND PROCESUL DE MICROFINANȚARE

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Rezumat: *Pornind de la diferitele definiții ale microfinanțării din punct de vedere epistemologice date de cei mai mari specialiști ai secolului nostru și coroborat cu opiniile mele privind specia microfinanțare, prin lucrarea prezentă voi defini finanțarea ca un tot general și microfinanțarea pentru comunitățile locale ca o specie a finanțării. Mai mult din punct de vedere socilogic dacă ar fi să transpun trăsăturile esențiale menționate de Peter Berger (1963) respectiv: aceea de „a vedea generalul din particular" și capacitatea de „a vedea ceea ce este neobișnuit în familiar", am putea afirma ca microfinanțarea este o specie a finanțarii generale. Un mare parinte al microfinanțării este Muhammad Yunus, laureat al premiului Nobel în 2006, care a contribuit activ și direct la dezvoltarea mecanismelor de microfinanțare. În prezent asistăm la astfel de inițiative pe întreg mapamondul cu rezultate foarte surprinzator de bune în Africa și Asia, și care contribuie în prezent la politica de incluziune financiară și socială la nivel internațional.*

Cuvinte cheie*: finanțare, microfinanțare, incluziune socială și financiară.*
Clasificare JEL*: Q, Q01, Q14.*

În iunie 2010, la summitul G20 de la Toronto, a fost lansat Parteneriatul global pentru incluziune financiară. Organizația Națiunilor Unite, Banca Mondială, Fondul Monetar Internațional și Biroul Internațional al Muncii și-au orientat programele lor spre aspecte legate de incluziunea financiară ca o condiție esențială pentru crearea de locuri de muncă și generarea de venituri. De asemenea, Comisia Europeană, în colaborare cu Banca Europeană de Investiții, au stabilit numeroase programe, precum "Jasmine" , "Progress" și "EaSI Program", pentru a sprijini instituțiile de microfinanțare și pentru ocuparea forței de muncă și incluziune socială. Mai recent, în cadrul Strategiei Europa 2020 pentru o creștere inteligentă, durabilă și favorabilă incluziunii adoptată în 2010, Comisia Europeană a cerut statelor membre, printre alte recomandări, necesitatea de "a dezvolta strategii concrete pentru inovare socială, cum ar fi parteneriatul public privat, ce asigură un sprijin financiar adecvat și previzibil, inclusiv de microfinanțare" (Comisia Europeană, 2013, p.12). Se vrea, astfel, atingerea obiectivului de a scoate cel puțin 20 de milioane de persoane din sărăcie și excluziune socială și creșterea posibilității de ocupare a populației în vârstă de 20-64 de ani la 75%. Prin urmare, microfinanțarea se confruntă cu provocări reale în scopul de a contribui la obiectivele de realizare a strategiei 2020. Va fi ea capabilă să ofere impactul așteptat în ceea ce privește incluziunea financiară și socială? Evaluarea impactului microfinanțării necesită conștientizarea faptului că "microfinanțare" este un termen generic pentru o mare varietate de produse și servicii. Aceasta acoperă domenii ca micro-creditare, micro-economie, micro-garanție și micro-asigurare, în timp ce, în fiecare din aceste sub-categorii, serviciile furnizate diferă în ceea ce privește caracteristicile lor, costuri, public-țintă și contextul instituțional în care acestea au loc.

Impactul unui furnizor de servicii de microfinanțare este doar un aspect al performanței sale sociale. Conceptul de performanță socială implică luarea în considerare a unor factori, precum:

- ✓ scopul și obiectivele unei organizații;
- ✓ intrările sale (resurse și procedurile interne);
- ✓ rezultate;
- ✓ impactul acesteia.

Analiza performanţei sociale a furnizorilor de servicii de microfinanțare implică înțelegerea și evaluarea resurselor investite de furnizorii și eficiența acestora, în scopul de a atinge scopul și obiectivele stabilite inițial (Lapenu și Reboul, 2006). Evaluările performanţei sociale au două obiective complementare: asigurarea unei înțelegeri a proceselor implementate pentru a favoriza îmbunătățirea acestora atunci când este necesar și să demonstreze eficiența acțiunilor furnizorului principal, prin măsurarea impactului schimbărilor pentru clienții (Lapenu și Reboul, 2006). În acest sens, evaluarea impactului de microfinanțare a prestatorilor de servicii nu este doar o modalitate de a asigura o finanțare continuă, ci un instrument pentru a ajuta organizația să învețe și să funcționeze mai bine prin proiectarea de produse și procese care se dovedesc mai potrivite atât din punct de vedere al clienților, cât și al furnizorilor (Copestake și Williams, 2011; Karlan și Goldberg, 2011; Copestake, 2014; GECES, 2014). Îmbunătățirea impactului activităților organizațiilor se poate face prin colectarea de date pe plan intern, în mod regulat şi fiabil, dar nu neapărat într-un "mod științific". Ceea ce contează este că rezultatele evaluării sunt semnificative și credibile pentru a permite luarea unor decizii relevante.

Încercarea de a dovedi impactul unei organizații necesită o metodologie care nu respectă numai cerințele interne, dar care are și un standard extern de credibilitate. Această "schimbare" în ceea ce privește metodologia de implementare a fost, de asemenea, susținută de doi factori. Primul este faptul că finanțatorii externi au fost de multe ori mai interesați de dovada impactului sprijinul lor financiar pentru organizațiile de microfinanțare, mai degrabă decât de a contribui la procesul de învățare și îmbunătățire a acestuia (Bédécarrat et al., 2012;. Naudet et al., 2012; Copestake, 2014). Al doilea factor este că cele mai multe informații necesare pentru a evalua performanța socială a unei organizații sunt ușor accesibile pe plan intern, în timp ce evaluarea impactului necesită colectarea informațiilor prin angajarea discuțiilor cu clienți și potențial non-clienți (de exemplu, contrafactuale). Colectarea datelor este o sarcină deosebit de dificilă pentru personalul care nu este pregătit pentru astfel de sarcini de cercetare.

Furnizarea de servicii financiare şi non-financiare ar putea ajuta antreprenorii pentru a depăși provocările pentru dezvoltarea rurală, susținând astfel afacerile lor și stimularea economiei locale. În acest sens, de multe ori microfinanțarea vizează șomeri sau persoane excluse din sistemul bancar tradițional care doresc să înceapă propria afacere, contribuind semnificativ la auto-ocuparea forței de muncă și crearea de locuri de muncă. Astfel, putem defini micro finanțarea după cum urmează:

- sursa de servicii financiare pentru antreprenori şi intreprinderi mici care nu au acces la servicii bancare și conexe.

Sunt două mecanisme principale pentru livrarea de servicii financiare pentru astfel de clienți:

(1) bazat pe relații bancare pențru intreprinzatorii individuali și intreprinderile mici;

(2) pe bază de grup, în cazul în care mai mulți antreprenori se reunesc pentru a aplica pentru împrumuturi și alte servicii ca un grup.

- modalitatea prin care se realizează incluziunea socială a oamenilor săraci.
- modalitate de a promova dezvoltarea economică, ocuparea forței de muncă și creșterea economică prin sprijinirea micro – antreprenorilor și întreprinderilor mici.

Potrivit CGAP (The Consultative Group to Assist the Poor), microfinanțarea rurală cuprinde furnizarea unei game de servicii financiare, cum ar fi economiile, creditul, plăți și asigurări pentru persoane fizice din mediul rural, gospodăriile, întreprinderile (atât agricole, cât şi non-agricole). Aceasta include, de asemenea, finanțarea agriculturii, dar și prelucrarea produselor agricole, cum ar fi furnizarea de inputuri, producție, distribuție, en-gros, prelucrarea și comercializarea. Unele provocări cu care se confruntă întreprinderile de microfinanțare (IMF) rurale sunt similare cu cele cu care se confruntă orice IMF, în

timp ce altele sunt specifice organizațiilor din mediul rural, care oferă împrumuturi pentru activități bazate pe fermă.

Conform USAID, următorii factori constrâng atât cererea, cât și oferta de finanțare în zonele rurale și agricole:

- ✓ costurile ridicate de tranzacție, pentru debitori și creditori;
- ✓ densitatea scăzută a populației și a cererii dispersate;
- ✓ limitarea oportunităților economice disponibile pentru populațiile locale;
- ✓ riscuri ridicate cu care se confruntă potențialii debitori și deponenții din cauza variabilității veniturilor;
- ✓ șocurile economice exogene și instrumente limitate pentru gestionarea riscului;
- ✓ sezonalitate - ar putea afecta atât clientul, cât și instituția;
- ✓ concentrare mare pe agricultură și activități conexe agricole, expune instituțiile la riscuri multiple;
- ✓ lipsa de informații fiabile cu privire la debitori;
- ✓ lipsa de informații de piață și / sau accesul la piață;
- ✓ capacități instituționale slabe;
- ✓ "excluderea", efect cauzat de lipsa subvențiilor;
- ✓ lipsa de garanții adecvate (lipsa de active, drepturi de proprietate neclare etc.);
- ✓ cadrul juridic incert și lipsa de reglementare adaptată noilor nevoi;
- ✓ sisteme juridice nedezvoltate, mecanisme inadecvate de aplicare a contractului;
- ✓ infrastructura nedezvoltată sau inadecvată.

Deși această listă se bazează, în principal, pe experiența din țările în curs de dezvoltare, ea oferă o perspectivă utilă și cuprinzătoare în provocările la nivel global de a crea modele de microfinanțare adaptate contextul actual al incluziunii sociale și financiare.

Iată și câteva repere din istoria microfinanțării. În 1800, teoreticianul Lysander Spooner a scris o lucrare în care sublinia beneficiile pe care microcreditele le aduc antreprenorilor și agricultorilor, văzând în acestea o modalitate de a realiza incluziunea socială a celor săraci. Independent de Spooner, Friedrich Wilhelm Raiffeisen a fondat primele bănci cooperatiste de creditare pentru a sprijini fermierii din Germania. În anii ’80 apare Grameen Bank of Bangladesh cu Mohammad Yunus, pionier al microfinanțării, așa cum este văzut astăzi. Un alt pionier în acest sector este Akhtar Hameed Khan. La acel moment, a introdus mai multe inovații în acest sector. Shorebank, fondată în 1974 la Chicago, a fost prima bancă de microfinanțare și dezvoltare comunitară. Banca Mondială estimează că astăzi, mai mult de 16 milioane de oameni sunt deserviți de 7.000 de instituții de microfinanțare din intreaga lume. Experții CGAP (the Consultative Group to Assist the Poor) spun că aceasta înseamnă că aproximativ 500 de milioane de familii beneficiază de aceste mici împrumuturi, făcând posibile noi afaceri. Câteva principii care sintetizează un secol și jumătate de practică au fost enunțate în 2004 de CGAP și adoptate de liderii G8 la Summit-ul G8 din 10 iunie 2004:

1. Oamenii săraci au nevoie nu doar împrumuturi, ci și de modalități de economisire, asigurări și servicii de transfer de bani;
2. Microfinanțarea trebuie să fie utilă pentru gospodăriile sărace: ajutându-le să-și crească veniturile, să achiziționeze bunuri și/sau să se poată amortiza împotriva șocurilor externe;
3. "Microfinanțarea poate plăti pentru sine!“ - subvențiile de la donatori și guvern sunt puține și incerte; ca atare, pentru a ajunge la un număr mare de oameni săraci, microfinanțarea trebuie să plătească pentru ea însăși;
4. Microfinanțarea înseamnă construirea de instituții locale permanente;
5. Microfinațarea înseamnă integrarea nevoilor financiare ale persoanelor sărace în sistemul financiar central al unei țări;
6. “Sarcina guvernului este de a permite efectuarea de servicii financiare, nu de a le oferi“;

7. "Fondurile donatorilor ar trebui să completeze piața capitalului privat, nu să concureze cu ea";
8. Donatorii trebuie să se concentreze pe consolidarea capacităților;
9. Microfinanțarea ar trebui să măsoare și să-și prezinte performanțele atât cele financiare, cât și cele sociale.

De aici am putea trage și concluzia că microfinanțarea este considerată un instrument pentru dezvoltarea socio-economică și nu poate fi privită ca o acțiune de caritate!

La nivel european există diferite modele de microcreditare, sector care a început să se dezvolte din anul 2000, în partea occidentală, și din anii 1990, în partea centrală și estică. În partea occidentală, din cauza cadrului de reglementare strict, care permite doar băncilor să acorde credite, prevalează modelul linkage: organizații suport acompaniază clienții și cooperează cu băncile la tragerea creditelor. Deși modelul linkage generează, adeseori, proceduri de acordare și tragere mai îndelungate, are anumite avantaje certe: în timp ce băncile obțin informații specifice pe segmentul de clienți și pot externaliza o parte din anumite costuri de operare, organizațiile nonprofit sprijină grupul țintă inițial cu o gamă extinsă de produse, în paralel cu învățarea tehnicilor bancare de scoring și evaluare a clienților. În țările Europei Centrale și de Est, operațiunile de microfinanțare au început în anii 1990 ca inițiative private, susținute de finanțatori internaționali. În România și Bulgaria, organizațiile de microfinanțare au un statut specific de intermediari financiari nonbancari și au dreptul să acorde împrumuturi. Cooperativele de credit furnizează microfinanțare, economisire și asigurări. În Marea Britanie, instituțiile financiare de dezvoltare a comunității (CDFIs) creditează afacerile mici și persoanele fizice din zone dezavantajate.

Tipuri de organizații de microcreditare în Europa:

- ✓ Organisme nonguvernamentale specializate în microcreditare (servicii integrate non-financiare);
- ✓ Bănci de microcreditare (transformate din organisme nonguvernamentale și fundații);
- ✓ Organisme nonguvernamentale orientate pe grupuri specific (acționează la scară mică);
- ✓ Cooperative de credit (au statut legal special);
- ✓ Instituții financiare non-bancare (instituții de microfinanțare);
- ✓ Programe de sprijin instituțional (parte din programele existente ale băncilor de dezvoltare);
- ✓ Instituții financiare de dezvoltare a comunității (CDFI – numai în Marea Britanie).

Piața europeană de microfinanțare este eterogenă, imatură și fragmentată. Nu există un model comun de business. Valoarea microîmprumuturilor variză între 220-30.000 euro, cele mai mari fiind acordate de bănci, instituții nonbancare și organizații guvernamentale. Cea mai presantă problemă a instituțiilor respective este lipsa surselor de finanțare pe termen lung. Se remarcă, totuși, o tendință de profesionalizare, eficientizare și autosusținere. Un număr în creștere de persoane neangajate sunt o sursă de cerere pentru microcredite.Totuși, fără acces la finanțare stabilă, perspectivele de creștere sunt limitate. Se așteaptă ca, în perioada următoare, băncile comerciale din Europa să-și reducă în continuare împrumuturile către persoanele excluse financiar, mici start-up –uri și microîntreprinderi.

Microfinanțarea este un instrument important pentru a combate efectele crizei financiare și a susține creșterea inclusivă. Cadrul legal pentru microfinanțare în România există încă din 1993, în prezent fiind supra-legalizat. Sectorul românesc de microfinanțare

este competitiv, fiind al cincilea ca mărime din Uniunea Europeană, cu experiență în accesarea de programe descentralizate. Pe de altă parte, în România nu există o coordonare între programele de formare în antreprenoriat și programele de acces la microfinanțare.

Beneficiarii sunt micro-întreprinderi, inclusiv persoane fizice autorizate, întreprinderi individuale, asociații familiale, întreprinderi mici, întreprinderi noi (start-up), întreprinderi inovative, fermieri. Instituțiile implicate sunt: finanțatori (UE, Fondul European pentru Investiții), managerul fondului, instituții financiare non-bancare, experți, firme de consultanță, instituții de microfinanțare, fonduri de garantare, Fondul de Contragarantare.

Beneficiile activității de microfinanțare pentru România constau, în principal, în: îmbunătățirea accesului la finanțare al tuturor beneficiarilor enumerați mai sus, îmbunătățirea calității serviciilor financiare și de asistență pentru dezvoltarea afacerilor oferite de instituțiile implicate, dezvoltarea sectorului IMM și crearea/menținerea de locuri de muncă, creşterea cifrei de afaceri a firmelor beneficiare, creşterea în timp a valorii microcreditelor acordate. Astfel, microcreditul poate constitui o pepinieră de clienți solvabili pentru piața interbancară. Deficitul de finanțare al exploatațiilor agricole viabile din România (127.107 firme) şi al întreprinderilor viabile din procesare şi comercializare (4.293 întreprinderi) ajunge, conform estimărilor MADR, la valoarea de 9.343 milioane lei, respective 2.088 milioane euro[1] pentru întreprinderile agricole.

Deficitul de finanțare în ceea ce privește IMM-urile nonagricole viabile din zona rurală se ridică la un total de 1.235 milioane lei, echivalentul a 276 milioane euro.

Tabel nr. 1. Estimarea deficitului de finanțare

Indicator sector	Număr de firme viabile vizate	Valoarea medie a creditului (EUR)	Deficit de finanțare (% firme)	Deficit de finanțare (nr.firme)	Deficit de finanțare (EUR)
Agricultură	131.400	67.429	23.6%	30.966	2.088.021.922
Sectoarele nonagricole din mediul rural	20.742	113.980	11.7%	2.422	276.020.842
	152.142				2.364.042.764

Sursa: BNR, ONRC, Eurostat, calcule proprii

Deficitul de finanțare total se cumulează la 10.578 milioane lei, echivalentul a 2.364 milioane euro.

Un important aspect constă în crearea de modele inovatoare de microfinanțare și formarea continuă a capitalului uman implicat în furnizarea de servicii financiare şi în educația financiară a celor care accesează microcredite. La nivel european și mondial, se încearcă, în prezent, să se realizeze programe speciale de microfinanțare, cu predilecție în zonele rurale. Aceste preocupări și decizii pot influența, în mod direct, dezvoltarea activităților în aceste zone, prin intermediul accesului la microcredite. Ne aflăm în etapa în care suntem obligaţi să abordăm decizii care să ducă la reînfiinţarea, pe principii noi, a unor instituţii care să asigure creditarea actorilor locali şi a sectoarelor vitale pentru consolidarea economică a localităţilor şi bunăstarea populaţiei. Este vorba de înfiinţarea unor instituţii bancare care să finanţeze unităţi economice cu personalitate juridică: bănci, în spaţiul rural, care să crediteze persoane juridice şi fizice active; bănci care să finanţeze exclusiv instituţii de învăţământ sau sănătate din mediul rural. Capitalul necesar înfiinţării unor asemenea instituţii ar putea fi asigurat prin contribuţii financiare guvernamentale a căror contravaloare să fie rambursată în timp. Pentru realizarea acestui deziderat de

[1] Conform cursului EUR/RON de la 31 decembrie 2014

înființare a unui sistem naţional al microfinanțării mediului rural, ar trebui pornit de la ceea ce a fost bun în sistemul de creditare rural în România, în perioada interbelică, dar, mai ales, de la modele existente astăzi în unele ţări din Uniunea Europeană, precum și de la modele de microfinanțare din țări de pe alte continente.

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FACTORS DETERMINING THE FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENTS – THEORETICAL APPROACHES

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Abstract: *The central objective of this paper is to analyse the determinants of investments, as they have been described by the economic theory specific to the field of foreign direct investments. We consider that the matter of foreign direct investments and of their determinants as one of great importance both for the Romanian economy, and for the economy of other countries. It requires elaborate and multilateral approaches, not just on the side of the investors, but also on the side of the public entities that aim to stimulate these flows. The evolution of the foreign direct investments differs from one period to another due to several factors resulting from the evolution of the economic and social systems. The multinational companies have different aptitudes in the mater of making foreign direct investments, even in countries that are equivalent in terms of attractiveness for foreign direct investments. Besides to the traditional factors pertaining to the level of the market, population size and incomes, general economic performance of the economy, there also are other factors that may influence, under specific circumstances, the size of the foreign direct investments.*

Key words*: foreign direct investment, determinants, firms, the investment value.*
JEL Classification: *F2.*

1. Introduction

Concerns for the study of the foreign direct investments (FDI) existed as far back as in the periods when the first works of international economy were produced. The main contributions to this field emerged, however, lately, in relation with the expansion of the multinational companies. Each time, the authors of the studies noticed that the existing theory couldn't answer completely the various issues regarding the determinants of the foreign direct investments. They tried to complete the theoretical analytical framework so that the results of the analytical models produce results that are much feasible as possible. The general theories thus turned into specific theories or integrating theories those apply to these processes from several points of view. On the other hand, specific studies have been undertaken, which to explain the investment behaviour in specific regions or countries.

2. Theoretical bases regarding the foreign direct investments

The theoreticians of the foreign direct investments tried to justify the behaviour of the companies with international activity and to find those models that answer best the realities, staring from the theoretical postulates accepted by each current of thought. The trend was to identify a theoretical model able to answer the exigencies of each single case, whether there are investments in developed or developing countries, equipment or enterprises of various types.

Undertakes to classify and order the theories have been attempted by several authors. A widely accepted approach divides them in five basic directions: *approach of the political economists; approach of the macroeconomic organisation; approach of the industrial organisation; approach of the national companies; approach of the business analysts*.

By this classification, the theoreticians tried to explain why the companies display, at a certain point and under certain circumstances, the trend of expanding their business abroad. Factors are highlighted which, by their informational value for the decision-making process within the companies, determine the expansion of sales on foreign markets

or, even more, the development of production capacities abroad.

■ *The approach of the political economists* is at one end of the analytical currents of the foreign direct investments. These studies consider the internalization of companies as a natural process of expansion and development of the companies within the context of the capitalist system, with the purpose of enhancing the monopolist power through investments in various countries. On the other hand, there are important contributions to the theory of the transnational capital which explain the fact that the companies, through strategic decisions, shift their activity outside the limits of the efficient markets on which they acted until that moment.

■ *The macroeconomic school* reflects an intermediary approach, derived from the *theory of the international trade*. The modern theory of the international trade starts with the Ricardian model which, by the theory of the comparative advantage, proves that by the export of goods for which such advantages exist, each country involved in such transaction achieves positive effects. The Ricardian theory relies particularly on the work factor and on the differences of productivity. However, besides this factor, the economists determined other resources too, with a strong impact on the international trade. The countries abounding in particular resources, will develop production processes using those resources mainly. The scale economy generates large incomes with minimal consumption. The comparative advantage may result from this very manner of developing the activity. By scale economy, the companies from different countries are stimulated to specialise even in the absence of the differences of technologies or resources between countries. These theories address particularly the international trade of goods and services, but they are not very different from the international trade with production factors, such as the transfer of capital or foreign direct investments. The followers of these theories take into consideration the variables specific to the localization to explain why the companies from particular countries have different tendencies to develop foreign trade or foreign production activities.

■ *The approach of the national companies* refers to the individual behaviour of the companies and it relies on the theory of the national companies to explain the necessity and evolution of multinational companies and of the foreign direct investments. The followers of this school see the multinational company (MNC) as an organisational structure that internationalizes the markets in order to import or export the intermediary products.

■ *The industrial organisation*. The followers of this theory aim to explain why the companies from a particular country are successful in penetrating specific markets and gain advantages compared to the local, national companies. The conclusion is that the companies, by their process of natural development, gain a portfolio of advantages which they can thereafter valorise at the national or international level.

In order to hold and control the capacities that generate added value abroad, the companies must have a particular level of innovation that allows them having cost, financial or marketing advantages. These advantages, specific to own business, must be sufficient to overcome the competition with the local companies from the country where it works. Nevertheless, the existence of such advantages would not be possible without some market imperfections. The monopolist or resource allocation advantages allow the companies to benefit of temporary economic revenue. Therefore, the organisation of the economic activities, improving product quality or developing innovations may rather allow achieving stronger monopolist power, than cutting the costs. Given these advantages acquired from innovations, the holding companies are reluctant to sell the patents or to sell the specific advantages.

On the other hand, there is the approach of industrial organisation based on the model of oligopolistic competition. Thus, the advantages that allow the companies to

achieve large size on the national market, allow the establishment and expansion of branches abroad. When the companies reach a particular rate of growth, they tend to maintain their evolution in the field of sales and incomes. Some industrial companies will have higher rates of growth than the average of growth. Implicitly, the companies which have growth rates below the average rate of growth will have to leave the branch. As some companies leave the branch, the surviving companies achieve higher rates of growth because they overtake partially or entirely the market share of the companies which left the sector. Thus, the competition becomes oligopolistic, being difficult to maintain the rate of growth by drawing market shares from the other competitors, because the structure of the cost is rather similar. As long as the companies aim to maintain the rates of growth, they can enter foreign markets with their traditional products, or they may enter the national or international market with new products. These actions generate foreign direct investments, the companies aiming to maintain their rates of growth, being driven to open new production capacities abroad.

■ An approach with empirical concerns is represented by the *school of the business analysts* and *organisation theoreticians*. The purpose of these studies is to determine the characteristics of the process of foreign direct investments by identifying the main factors influencing the activity of investments. The particularity of the multinational companies relies in their ability of manage assets that are dispersed geographically, with values expressed in different currencies, gaining advantages from the transactional or structural imperfections from the international markets of capital and on the foreign currency markets.

3. Theoretical approaches of the determinants of foreign direct investments

Over time, the quality of factors determining the foreign direct investments was acquired by a lot of economic and non-economic, quantitative and qualitative, directly or indirectly observable variables.

The foreign direct investments have an outstanding particularity, by the fact that they combine the advantages and disadvantages of the domestic and foreign markets with the purpose to identify the most profitable ways of capitalizing on its factors, on the conditions from the country of origin and on the opportunities from the host country where the funds and resources are to be placed. All these elements are factors determining the foreign direct investments, factors which the empiric theory and analysis surveyed and made available to the world of science and business with the view of enlarging the sphere of economically rational and justified decisions.

Below is a synthesized picture of the factors determining the foreign direct investments (Table no.1). This picture includes both internal factors, which the companies can control, both external factors, influenced and sized by entities other than the investing company.

Table no. 1. Determinants of foreign direct investment

The type of factors	Group	The determinant factors
Economic conditions	Market	Size, income levels, urbanization, stability and growth prospects, access to regional markets, demand and distribution models
	Resources	Natural resources, location
	Competitiveness	Workforce availability, labour costs, the competencies, continuing education, management skills, offer basic physical infrastructure, technological support
Policies of the host country	Macroeconomic policies	The possibility remittances facile, openness to foreign trade
	Private sector	Promoting private property, clear and stable policies, financial and effective markets, entry-exit policies facile
	Commerce and Industry	Commercial strategy, regional integration and access to markets, control of property, competition policy, support for SMEs
	Policies to promote FDI	Facilities input, ownership, incentives, access to inputs, stable and transparent policies
The strategies of multinational companies	Risk perception	The perception of country risk based on political factors macroeconomic management, labour market, political stability
	The location, origin, transfer integration	The company's strategy location, source inputs, integration of subsidiaries, strategic alliances, training, technology

Source: Sanjaya Lall, Attracting Foreign Investment: New Trends, Sources and Policies, 1997

While the factors specific to the companies are generally included within the sectoral variables or in those pertaining to the analysed countries, as fixed effects, the external factors, with a major influence on the determination of the foreign direct investments, are included as independent variables within the analytical models. Among these factors, the most used are the exchange rates, the taxes, the institutional systems, the instruments and policies of commercial protection and commercial effects.

3.1. Effect of the exchange rates on the foreign direct investments

Theoretically, it is known that the exchange rates have an important impact, within the international businesses, on all operations and activities undertaken by the multinational companies. In fact, this influence generates a specific level of risk for the companies, quantified in terms of economic, transaction and translation exposure to the exchange rate variation.

If the market is imperfect, then the cost of the internal capital will be lower than the foreign lending. Thus, if the currency of the country appreciates, the companies which had the lowest costs of capital will invest more in the countries whose currency depreciates.

The depreciation of a country's currency may allow sales for lower prices of such assets that are transferable towards foreign companies operating on the international markets, compared to the national companies which may not have such assets. If the exchange rate has sudden, short-term movements, then the foreign direct investments will intensify. The exchange rate effect is different, function of the way of making and

financing the investment. The appreciation of the local currency determines the increase of the foreign direct investments, while the current exchange rate doesn't have a strong impact.

3.2. Effect of the taxation on the foreign direct investments

High taxation rates deter the foreign direct investments. It was noticed that the effect of taxation on the foreign direct investments differs with the type of taxes, with the manner of evaluating the activity of foreign direct investments and with the fiscal treatment in the country of origin and in the host country.

The multinational companies are levied both in the country of origin and in the host country. The revenues obtained by the multinational companies are taxed both in the country of origin and in the host country, irrespective whether they are immediately repatriated or invested in the country where the branch works. There is no way of avoiding the taxation of these revenues abroad.

On the other hand, the new investments rely on new transfers of capital from the mother company to its branches, capital which originates from the host country and which was not submitted to foreign taxation. This has several implications: the companies will want to finance new foreign direct investments by retaining the revenues as much as possible, before making use of new money inflows from the mother company; the foreign direct investments materialized by retaining the taxes must be submitted only to the taxation from the host country; the foreign direct investments materialized by transfer of capital are submitted to taxation both in the country of origin and in the host country.

The double taxation policies have an important impact on capital relocation. Distinction is made, however, between the countries which don't levy the incomes obtained and taxed abroad, and the countries which levy all incomes, but which use corrections to avoid double taxation.

3.3. Institutional quality and its impact on the foreign direct investments

This factor is extremely important in determining the foreign direct investments. The existence, functioning and quality of the institutions guarantees the ownership, existence of markets, infrastructure, and costs of financing and operation of the enterprises. An interesting aspect, analysed at the institutional level, is the corruption. The decisions of the multinational companies are strongly affected by corruption. Corruption is usually seen as bearing an adverse impact in the foreign direct investments because it forces the companies to waste resources and to run risks related to corruption and to paying the bribes. Therefore, the acts of corruption actually are barriers to the entry of multinational companies on particular markets. Nevertheless, many multinational companies continue to operate in environments perceived to be, more or less, corrupt.

3.4. Effect of the trade on the foreign direct investments

Under the conditions in which, in some regions or states, there are trade protection policies, the multinational companies tend to avoid these barriers by establishing branches in those areas in order to avoid paying fees.

The development of the international trade has an adverse effect on the foreign direct investments because of the lower cost of purchasing information on particular markets, therefore the shrinking competition advantage of the multinational companies over the companies from the local national markets. Therefore, the easiness of the exchange of information doesn't support the foreign investors to develop their projects.

Because the economic and social situation is changing permanently, the validity of the various studies cannot be confirmed each time, which presumes the attentive evaluation of the determining factors, each time they are used within the models.

Besides these factors, which come from the macroeconomic area, the theory and practice of investments also analyses several other categories that may influence the

process, depending on the economic traits of the involved countries or of the investment. Among them are:

a. *Value of the investment* which expresses the total initial efforts to be undertaken by the companies in order to implement the projects. They have different values depending on the production costs in the host country, and tend to be lower in a branch where the production costs of the host country are lower than those from the country of origin; if they are lower, and then the costs of investment also tend to be lower. When analysing the value of an investment, one must take into consideration its quality since, generally, lower costs presume lower quality. Many times, the investors prefer to bring in equipment, raw materials for the investment and trained workforce from the country of origin, even though this will increase the cost of the investment, if there is a risk that, otherwise, the investment objectives may not meet the desired performance.

b. *Market size* is what the investors are interested in. To express the capacity of a market to absorb the products or services of the investor, the foreign companies usually refer to GDP expressed in various forms: absolute value, value transformed in the indicators of the purchasing power, per capital value, or rate of GDP growth.

c. *Economy of scale* in the branch where the companies aim to in vest. If in that particular sector there are large companies taking advantage of the benefits of the economy of scale, it is possible that the new companies may have serious problems trying to enter those markets. The fact that these markets are increasingly restrictive makes a lot of investors have second thoughts abut entering those markets, which lowers the competition and may be an advantage for the companies that manage to survive. Therefore, the investors are confronted with decisions that involve the capacity of their companies to operate in markets where the barriers generated by the economy of scale are, at least at the beginning, deterring.

d. *Workforce training level*. If the investors target high tech sectors, then the workforce must be specialised and adapted to their requirements. Therefore, if this is the selection criterion of the countries where to make investments, the foreign decision-makers will seek those regions where they can find specialised and experienced staff, however, with lower payment expectations than in other countries. There also is the possibility of training specialists or bringing them, but all these possibilities increase the investment efforts.

e. *Level of economic activity concentration*. The foreign companies are strongly attracted by the regions with intense economic activity. The option for these particular regions is encouraged by the fact that the companies can easily find here business partners, there is economic potential for growth, there are various types of infrastructures, etc.

f. *The level of infrastructure development* has a very strong impact on the investors because of the easiness to run activities and for the lower costs that are involved (transportation, communication, access, connecting to utilities), which may be important disadvantages on the foreign markets.

g. *The level of implementing innovation in different countries* influences the foreign direct investments for which, a low level of innovation and research in a particular country may be a disadvantage in making use of own technologies and know how.

h. *The intensity of the advertising* necessary on some markets also influences the decision to invest on those markets. There are situations when, either the cost of advertising is low, or there is no much need for advertising (known brands, markets where those products lack), and the multinational companies are encouraged to invest because of the competition and high cost of the marketing in their country of origin.

i. *The size of the markets from the local markets* can have a two-way influence on the disposition to invest. If those companies are large, then there is a higher economic

potential of the business partners. On the other hand, the stronger competition can yield significant access barriers.

j. *The minimal level of capital* concerns those branches where large initial investments are required, which may deter the foreign investors to develop business in those areas: construction of highways passing through areas with archaeological sites, or the activities which presume the transfer of property. There also are some other factors that may bear an effect on the foreign direct investments, such as: geographical proximity, common borders, and differences in the cost of labour, cultural and historical ties, consumer behaviour.

The impact of the national and local policies which stimulate the investments can often be determining for the foreign investors. In practice, they perceive in a different manner the effect of the determining factors for the investments, and they prefer actual studies, particularized on specific areas or sectors of activity.

4. Conclusions

Given that the natural environment is becoming increasingly restrictive exhaustible natural resource consuming or polluting, they should be included in the environmental economy issue-specific analysis of foreign direct investment and thus reconsidering their decisions on performance. In addition, it observes that sustainable development principles are not sufficiently addressed by economic practice, and given that any emerging from these principles should be applied to economic, social and environmental, foreign investments should be judged on other bases or criteria. Secondly, we deduce that the activity is localized multinational companies internationally against the potential benefits they can get from various markets. Considering that infrastructure has been lately developments impressive space or distance is no longer a restriction defining business so that traditional destinations may be abandoned in favor of others even if it means a relocation or mobilization of resources in areas of the globe extremely diverse and distant. We are thus witnessing a polycentric development trend of investment in relation to the competitive advantages that can be used in these locations but with less formal aspects related treaties, political affinity or development strategies of multinational companies. Such factors and others, who apparently do not compensate traditional economic conditions impact on FDI, fail to detour the inflows of FDI by economic world less predictable.

An important aspect is the cultural diversity of the nation and its impact on FDI. The cultural factor can play an important role in the FDI. Attitude to power in society and for the future or long or short-term approaches of life of individuals may represent major barriers or incentives in decision making in various development companies.

The attitude towards society and power of the future or long or short-term approaches of life of individuals may represent major barriers or incentives in decision making in various development companies. Thus, destinations for business decision-makers of a particular country does not present any attractiveness to others coming from other regions, they are sought and adjudged as some outstanding achievements in the business companies. To go beyond strictly economic considerations analysis is the key to informed decisions, and social and psychological approach of a nation provides powerful tools for the analysis of foreign direct investment.

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FACTORII DETERMINANŢI AI INVESTIŢIILOR STRĂINE DIRECTE - ABORDĂRI TEORETICE

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Abstract: *Obiectivul central al prezentei lucrări este acela de a analiza determinanţii investiţiilor, aşa cum au fost ei delimitaţi de teoria economică specifică domeniului investiţiilor străine directe. Considerăm problema investiţiilor străine directe şi a determinanţilor lor ca fiind una de mare importanţă atât la nivelul economiei româneşti, cât şi al altor ţări, ceea ce impune abordări profunde şi multilaterale nu doar din partea investitorilor ci şi a entităţilor publice care îşi propun stimularea acestor fluxuri. Evoluţia investiţiilor străine directe este diferită de la o perioadă la alta, datorită unor factori care rezultă din evoluţia sistemelor economice şi sociale. Companiile multinaţionale au atitudini diferite în ceea ce priveşte efectuarea investiţiilor străine directe chiar în ţări care sunt echivalente din punctul de vedere al atractivităţii investiţiilor străine directe. Alături de factorii tradiţionali legaţi de nivelul pieţei de desfacere, veniturile şi numărul populaţiei, performanţele economice generale ale economiilor există şi alţi factori care pot influenţa, în anumite condiţii rezultatele obţinute în ceea ce priveşte nivelul fluxurilor de investiţii străine directe.*

Cuvinte cheie*: investiții străine directe, factori determinanți, firma, valoarea investiției*.
Clasificare JEL: *F20.*

1. Introducere

Preocupările pentru studiul investiţiilor străine directe (ISD) au existat încă din perioadele în care s-au realizat primele lucrări de economie internaţională. Totuşi, în ultima perioadă au fost aduse principalele contribuţii în domeniu, profitându-se de expansiunea mare a firmelor multinaţionale. De fiecare dată, autorii studiilor au sesizat că teoria existentă nu are capacitatea de a da un răspuns complet la problematica determinanţilor investiţiilor străine directe. Ei au încercat să completeze cadrul teoretic de analiză pentru ca rezultatele unor modele de analiză să furnizeze rezultate cât mai fezabile. Se ajunge astfel de la teorii generale aplicabile şi investiţiilor străine directe la teorii specifice sau teorii integratoare care privesc aceste procese din mai multe puncte de vedere. Pe de altă parte, au fost realizate și studii specifice care şi-au propus să explice comportamentul investiţional în anumite zone sau ţări.

2. Fundamente teoretice privind investiţiile străine directe

Teoria economică a evoluat de-a lungul timpului, incluzând diferite abordări specifice diferitelor curente de gândire din sânul cărora au izvorât. Teoreticienii investiţiilor străine directe, având formaţii şi experienţe diferite, au încercat să justifice comportamentul firmelor cu activitate internaţională şi să găsească acele modele care să răspundă cel mai bine realităţilor, pornindu-se de la postulatele teoretice acceptate în cadrul fiecărui curent de gândire. Tendinţa a fost aceea de a identifica un model teoretic capabil să răspundă exigenţelor fiecărui caz în parte, indiferent dacă vorbim de investiţii în emisfera nordică sau sudică, în ţări dezvoltate sau în curs de dezvoltare, în echipamente sau întreprinderi de un tip sau altul.

Încercări de clasificare şi ordonare ale teoriilor au fost realizate de diferiţi autori. O abordare larg acceptată realizează o împărţire a acestora în cinci direcţii fundamentale: *abordarea economiştilor politici; abordarea organizării macroeconomice; abordarea organizării industriale; abordarea firmelor naţionale; abordarea analiştilor afacerilor.*

Prin această clasificare, teoreticienii au căutat să explice de ce companiile au

tendinţa, la un moment dat şi în anumite condiţii, să îşi extindă activitatea în străinătate. Se pune, astfel, accent pe factorii care intervin, prin valoarea lor informaţională, în luarea deciziilor la nivelul companiilor şi care determină extinderea vânzărilor pe pieţele externe sau, chiar mai mult, crearea de noi capacităţi de producţie în străinătate.

■ *Abordarea economiştilor politici* se află la una din extremele curentelor de analiză a investiţiilor străine directe. Studii ale unor autori adepţi ai acestui curent consideră internaţionalizarea firmelor ca fiind un proces normal de extindere şi dezvoltare a acestora în contextul sistemului capitalist, având scopul creşterii puterii de monopol prin investiţii în diverse ţări. Pe de altă parte, există contribuţii importante la teoria capitalului transnaţional, explicând faptul că firmele, prin decizii strategice, îşi deplasează activitatea în afara limitelor pieţelor eficiente pe care au funcţionat până în acel moment.

■ *Şcoala macroeconomică* reflectă o abordare intermediară, derivată din *teoria comerţului internaţional.* Teoria modernă a comerţului internaţional începe cu modelul Ricardian care, prin teoria avantajului comparativ, demonstrează că, prin exportul produselor pentru care există asemenea avantaje, fiecare ţară implicată într-o asemenea tranzacţie înregistrează efecte pozitive. Teoria Ricardiană se bazează, în special, pe factorul muncă şi pe diferenţele de productivitate. Însă, pe lângă acest factor, economiştii au sesizat că există şi alte resurse care au un puternic impact asupra comerţului internaţional. Se apreciază că ţările care dispun din abundenţă de anumite resurse vor dezvolta procese de producţie care utilizează, în principal, acele resurse. Nu doar resursele sunt cele care au impact asupra comerţului şi internaţionalizării activităţii firmelor. Economia de scară este generatoare de venituri mai mari, cu consumuri minime. Avantajul comparativ poate rezulta chiar din acest mod de dezvoltare a activităţii. Prin economia de scară, firmele din diferite ţări sunt stimulate să se specializeze, chiar în absenţa diferenţelor de tehnologie sau resurse dintre ţări. Aceste teorii se adresează, în special, comerţului internaţional cu bunuri şi servicii, însă ele nu diferă mult de comerţul internaţional cu factori de producţie, cum ar fi transferul de capital sau investiţii străine directe. Esenţa macroeconomică a acestor teorii este legată de angajarea ţărilor în realizarea investiţiilor străine directe. Adepţii acestor teorii iau în considerare variabilele specifice localizării pentru a explica de ce firmele din anumite ţări au înclinaţii diferite în a dezvolta comerţ sau activităţi de producţie externă.

■ *Abordarea firmelor naţionale* se referă la comportamentul individual al întreprinderilor şi se bazează pe teoria firmelor naţionale în explicarea necesităţii şi evoluţiei întreprinderilor multinaţionale şi a investiţiilor străine directe. Adepţii acestei şcoli văd compania multinaţională (CMN) ca pe o structură organizaţională care internaţionalizează pieţele pentru a realiza exportul sau importul produselor intermediare.

■ *Organizarea industrială*. Adepţii acestei teorii şi-au propus să explice de ce firmele dintr-o anumită ţară reuşesc să penetreze anumite pieţe şi să obţină avantaje în raport cu firmele naţionale de pe acestea. Concluzia la care se ajunge este că firmele, în procesul lor de dezvoltare naturală, ajung să aibă un portofoliu de avantaje pe care mai apoi le pot valorifica la nivel naţional sau internaţional.

Pentru a deţine şi controla capacităţile generatoare de valoare adăugată din străinătate, firmele trebuie să dispună de un anumit nivel de inovaţie care să îi confere un avantaj de cost, financiar sau de marketing. Aceste avantaje, specifice propriei afaceri, trebuie să fie suficiente pentru a depăşi barierele pe care trebuie să le înfrunte în cadrul competiţiei cu firmele originare din ţara în care se desfăşoară activitatea. Totuşi, existenţa unor asemenea avantaje nu ar fi posibilă fără un anumit nivel de imperfecţiuni ale pieţei. Avantajele de natură monopolistă sau de alocare a resurselor vor permite firmelor să beneficieze de o rentă economică temporară. Aşadar, organizarea activităţii economice, îmbunătăţind calitatea produselor sau prin dezvoltarea inovaţiilor, poate conferi, în special,

o putere monopolistă mai mare şi mai puţin o reducere a costurilor. Date fiind aceste avantaje date de inovaţii, firmele deţinătoare sunt refractare în a-şi ceda licenţele sau vinde avantajele specifice.

Pe de altă parte, există şi abordarea organizării industriale în analiza investiţiilor străine directe bazându-se pe modelul concurenţei oligopoliste. Astfel, avantajele care permit firmelor atingerea unei dimensiuni mari pe piaţa naţională dau posibilitatea creării şi expansiunii filialelor în străinătate. Atunci când firmele ating o anumită rată de creştere, ele au tendinţa de a-şi menţine evoluţia în domeniul vânzărilor şi al câştigurilor. La nivelul ramurilor industriale vor rezista acele firme care înregistrează ritmuri superioare de creştere în raport cu rata medie de creştere. Implicit, firmele care inevitabil au creşteri inferioare mediei sunt determinate să părăsească ramura. Pe măsură ce unele firme ies, firmele supravieţuitoare realizează o rată mai mare de creştere decât cea a ramurii deoarece ele preiau o parte sau în totalitate cota de piaţă a firmelor ce au părăsit sectorul. În acest fel concurenţa de pe piaţa specifică devine una oligopolistă, unde este dificil a-şi menţine rata de creştere prin atragerea cotelor de piaţă de la concurenţii săi naţionali, dat fiind că structura costului lor este asemănătoare. Atât timp cât firmele doresc să-şi menţină ratele de creştere ele pot intra pe pieţele externe cu produsele lor tradiţionale sau pe piaţa naţională sau externă cu produse noi. Aceste acţiuni sunt generatoare de investiţii străine directe, firmele ce doresc să îşi menţină ritmurile de creştere anterioare fiind determinate să îşi deschidă noi capacităţi de producţie în străinătate.

■ O abordare cu preocupări, în special, empirice este reprezentată de *şcoala analiştilor afacerilor* şi *teoreticienilor organizaţiilor*. Scopul acestor studii este acela de a determina caracteristicile procesului investiţiilor străine directe prin identificarea principalilor factori care influenţează activitatea de investiţii.

Particularitatea întreprinderilor multinaţionale constă în abilitatea acestora de a gestiona active dispersate geografic cu valori exprimate în diferite valute, obţinând astfel avantaje din imperfecţiunile tranzacţionale sau structurale de pe pieţele internaţionale de capital şi de pe pieţele valutare externe.

3. Abordări teoretice privind determinanţii investiţiilor străine directe

În decursul timpului, calitatea de factori determinanţi ai investiţiilor străine directe a fost dobândită de o multitudine de variabile economice şi noneconomice, cantitative şi calitative, observabile direct sau indirect.

Investiţiile străine directe au o particularitate marcantă, şi anume, aceea că împletesc avantajele si dezavantajele pieţelor interne şi a celor externe în vederea identificării celor mai avantajoase căi de valorificare a factorilor proprii firmelor, a condiţiilor din ţara de origine şi a oportunităţilor din ţara de destinaţie, ţara gazdă a plasamentului de fonduri şi resurse. Între toate aceste elemente se întrevăd factori determinanţi ai investiţiilor străine directe, factori pe care teoria şi analiza empirică i-au analizat şi pus la dispoziţia lumii ştiinţifice şi de afaceri în scopul lărgirii sferei deciziilor raţionale şi justificate din punct de vedere economic.

In continuare prezentam, într-o formă sintetizată, un tablou al factorilor determinanţi ai investiţiilor străine (Tabel nr. 1). Acest tablou al determinanţilor investiţiilor străine directe include atât factori interni, controlabili ai firmelor cât şi factori externi, influenţaţi şi dimensionaţi de alte entităţi decât compania ce investeşte.

Tabelul nr. 1: Factorii determinanți ai investițiilor străine directe

Tipul de factori	Grupa	Factorii Determinanti
Condiții economice	Piaţa	Dimensiune, nivelul veniturilor, urbanizarea, stabilitatea și perspectivele de creştere, accesul la pieţele regionale, modele de cerere și distribuţie
	Resurse	Resurse naturale, locaţia
	Competitivitate	Disponibilitatea forţei de muncă, costurile muncii, competențele, formarea continuă, competențe manageriale, oferta de bază, infrastructura fizică, suportul tehnologic
Politici ale țării gazdă	Politici macroeconomice	Posibilitatea remiterilor facile, deschiderea către comerţul exterior
	Sectorul privat	Promovarea proprietății private, politici clare și stabile, pieţe financiare și eficiente, politici de intrare-ieşire facilă
	Comerţ și industrie	Strategie comercială, intrare regională și acces la pieţe, controlul proprietății, politici concurențiale, suport pentru IMM
	Politici de promovare a ISD	Facilități de intrare, proprietatea, stimulentele, accesul la factorii de producţie, politici transparente și stabile
Strategiile companiilor multinaţionale	Percepţia riscului	Percepţia riscului de țară bazat pe factori politici, managementul macroeconomic, piaţa uncii, stabilitatea politică
	Localizarea, provenienţa, transferul integrării	Strategia companiilor de localizare, provenienţa inputurilor, integrarea filialelor, alianţe strategice, training, tehnologii

Sursa: Sanjaya Lall, Attracting Foreign Investment: New Trends, Sources and Policies, Economic Paper 31 (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1997)

În analizele efectuate, factorii interni ai firmelor, constituiţi din aceste active necorporale, sunt greu observabili sau cuantificabili, fapt pentru care s-a încercat găsirea unor variabile instrumentale (cum ar fi cheltuielile de cercetare-dezvoltare sau cheltuielile de publicitate).

Dacă factorii specifici firmelor sunt incluşi, în general, în variabilele sectoriale sau în cele aferente ţărilor analizate, ca efecte fixe ale acestora, factorii externi, cu importanţă majoră în ceea ce priveşte determinarea investiţiilor străine directe sunt incluşi ca variabile de sine stătătoare în modelele de analiză. Între aceşti factori, cei mai utilizaţi sunt: ratele de schimb, impozitele, sistemele instituţionale, instrumentele şi politicile de protecţie comercială şi efectele comerciale.

3.1. Efectele ratelor de schimb asupra investiţiilor străine directe

Din punct de vedere teoretic, dar şi practic, este cunoscut şi apreciat faptul că în afacerile internaţionale cursurile de schimb au un impact important asupra tuturor operaţiunilor şi activităţilor desfăşurate de companiile multinaţionale. În fapt, această influenţă generează un anumit nivel de risc pentru companii, cuantificate sub forma expunerii economice, de tranzacţie şi de translaţie la variaţia cursurilor de schimb.

Dacă piaţa este imperfectă atunci costul capitalului intern va fi mai mic în raport cu

cel al împrumuturilor din exterior. Astfel, în condiţiile în care valuta ţării se apreciază, firmele care aveau costul capitalului cel mai mic vor investi mai mult în ţările în care valuta se depreciază.

Deprecierea valutei unei ţări poate foarte bine să permită o vânzare la preţ redus a unor asemenea active transferabile către firme străine care operează pe pieţele mondiale în comparaţie cu firmele naţionale care nu pot avea asemenea active. Dacă rata de schimb are modificări bruşte pe termen scurt atunci vom asista la o creştere a investiţiilor străine directe. Efectul cursului de schimb este diferit în funcţie de modul de realizare şi finanţare a investiţiei. O apreciere a monedei locale determină o creştere a ISD, în timp ce nivelul curent al cursului de schimb nu are un impact puternic.

3.2. Efectele impozitelor asupra investiţiilor străine directe

Impozitele mari descurajează investiţiile străine directe. S-a observat faptul că efectul impozitelor asupra ISD este diferit în funcţie de tipul impozitelor, de modul de evaluare a activităţii de ISD şi de tratamentul fiscal în ţările gazdă şi de origine.

Firmele multinaţionale sunt supuse impozitării atât faţă de sistemul fiscal din ţara de origine cât şi faţă de cel din ţara gazdă. Anumite tipuri de investiţii nu sunt foarte senzitive la impozite. Veniturile obţinute de CMN sunt în final subiectul impozitării atât în ţara de origine cât şi în ţara gazdă, indiferent dacă acestea sunt repatriate imediat sau sunt reinvestite în ţara în care funcţionează filiala. Se apreciază că nu există nici o cale de evitare a impozitării străine a acestor venituri.

Pe de altă parte, noile investiţii au la bază transferuri de capitaluri noi de la compania mamă la filiale, capital care nu îşi are originea în ţara gazdă şi care nu a suferit nici o taxare străină. Acest lucru are o serie de implicaţii: firmele vor dori să finanţeze noi ISD prin reţinerea veniturilor cât mai mult posibil, înainte de a recurge la noi infuzii de la compania mamă; ISD realizate prin reţinerea impozitelor trebuie să fie supuse doar impozitării aferente ţării gazdă; ISD realizate prin transfer de capital sunt supuse însă atât fiscalităţii din ţara de origine cât şi celei din ţara de destinaţie.

Politicile în domeniul dublei impozitări au un impact important asupra repoziţionării capitalurilor. Se face distincţie însă între ţările care nu impozitează veniturile provenite şi impozitate în străinătate şi ţările care supun impozitării toate veniturile, aplicând însă o serie de corecţii în vederea evitării dublei impuneri.

3.3. Calitatea instituţională şi impactul asupra investiţiilor străine directe

Acest factor este extrem de important în determinarea ISD. Existenţa, funcţionarea şi calitatea instituţiilor garantează proprietatea, existenţa pieţelor, infrastructura, costurile de înfiinţare şi funcţionare ale întreprinderilor. Un aspect interesant ce a fost analizat la nivelul instituţiilor îl reprezintă corupţia. Deciziile companiilor multinaţionale sunt puternic afectate de corupţie. Corupţia este văzută, de obicei, ca având un impact negativ asupra ISD-urilor deoarece forţează firmele să se angajeze în risipirea resurselor, existând în continuare riscuri suplimentare care decurg din natura corupţiei şi costuri privind valoarea mitelor plătite. Prin urmare, actele de corupţie pun într-adevăr o barieră în calea intrării corporaţiilor multinaţionale pe piaţă. Cu toate acestea, multe companii multinaţionale continuă să opereze în medii percepute a fi mai mult sau mai puţin corupte.

3.4. Efectele comerţului asupra investiţiilor străine directe

În condiţiile în care, pentru unele regiuni sau state, există politici de protecţie comercială, CMN au tendinţa de a evita aceste bariere prin înfiinţarea de filiale în acele zone în vederea evitării plăţii unor tarife.

Dezvoltarea comerţului internaţional are un efect negativ asupra investiţiilor străine directe din cauza diminuării costurilor de achiziţionare a informaţiilor pe anumite pieţe şi, deci, prin diminuarea poziţiei avantajoase a companiilor multinaţionale asupra firmelor de pe pieţele interne. Deci, facilitarea schimbului de informaţii nu susţine investitorii externi

în dezvoltarea proiectelor lor.

Deoarece conjunctura economico-socială se află într-o permanentă transformare, valabilitatea diferitelor studii nu poate fi confirmată de fiecare dată, ceea ce impune o evaluare atentă a factorilor determinanţi, de fiecare dată când sunt utilizaţi în cadrul modelelor.

Pe lângă aceşti factori, care provin din sfera macroeconomică, teoria şi practica investiţională analizează şi alte categorii ce pot influenţa procesul în funcţie de trăsăturile economice ale ţărilor implicate sau de cele ale investiţiei, astfel între aceştia amintim:

a. *Valoarea investiţiei*, care exprimă eforturile totale iniţiale ce vor fi făcute de companii în vederea implementării proiectelor. Acestea au valori diferite, în funcţie de costurile de producţie ale ţării gazdă și tind să fie mai mici într-o ramură unde costurile de producţie ale ţării gazdă sunt inferioare celor din ţara de origine; dacă acestea sunt mai mici, atunci şi costurile investiţionale tind să fie mai reduse. În analiza valorii investiţiei trebuie avută în vedere şi calitatea acesteia, dat fiind că, în general, costuri mai mici presupun şi calitate mai redusă. De multe ori, investitorii preferă să aducă echipamentele, materia primă pentru investiţie şi forţa de muncă calificată din ţara de origine, în pofida faptului că valoarea investiţiei va fi mai mare, dacă există riscul ca obiectivele de investiţie realizate altfel să nu aibă performanţele dorite.

b. *Dimensiunea pieţei* este cea care interesează foarte mult investitorii. Pentru a exprima capacitatea pieţei de a absorbi şi produsele sau serviciile investitorului, companiile străine fac de multe ori referire la indicatorul PIB, exprimat în diferite forme: valoare absolută, valoare transformată prin indicii parităţii puterii de cumpărare, valoarea pe cap de locuitor sau rata de creştere a PIB.

c. *Economia de scară* din ramura în care companiile îşi propun să investească. Dacă în sector există firme mari care beneficiază de avantajele economiei de scară este posibil ca noile companii să aibă probleme importante legate de intrarea pe acele pieţe. Totodată, faptul că aceste pieţe sunt mai restrictive face ca mulţi investitori să evite intrarea în cadrul lor ceea ce reduce concurenţa şi poate constitui un avantaj pentru firmele ce reuşesc să supravieţuiască. Prin urmare, investitorii sunt puşi în faţa unei decizii ce ţine de capacitatea companiilor lor de a face faţă pe diferite pieţe în care barierele generate de economia de scară sunt, cel puţin la început, descurajante.

d. *Nivelul pregătirii forţei de muncă*. Dacă investitorii efectuează investiţii în sectoare de înaltă tehnologie, atunci şi forţa de muncă trebuie să fie specializată şi adaptată nevoilor. Prin urmare, dacă acesta va fi criteriul de alegere al ţărilor în care se va investi, decidenţii străini vor căuta acele regiuni în care să găsească personal specializat şi experimentat, dar totodată, cu pretenţii salariale mai mici decât în alte ţări. Există şi variantele pregătirii proprii sau aducerii specialiştilor, însă toate aceste acţiuni măresc eforturile investiţionale.

e. *Nivelul concentrării activităţii economice*. Firmele străine sunt puternic atrase de zonele cu o intensă activitate economică. Opţiunea pentru aceste zone este încurajată de faptul că aici firmele îşi pot găsi uşor parteneri de afaceri, există potenţial economic de dezvoltare, se dezvoltă diferite tipuri de infrastructuri etc.

f. *Gradul de dezvoltare al infrastructurii* ce are un impact foarte mare asupra investitorilor datorită uşurării desfăşurării activităţii dar şi reducerii unor costuri (de transport, de comunicare, de acces, de racordare la utilităţi) ce pot constitui dezavantaje importante pe pieţele externe.

g. *Gradul de implementare al inovării în diferite ţări* influenţează investiţiile străine directe pentru care, un nivel redus de inovare şi cercetare dintr-o anumită ţară poate constitui un avantaj în valorificarea tehnologiilor şi know how–ului propriu.

h. *Nivelul de intensitate al* publicităţii necesară pe anumite pieţe influenţează de

asemenea decizia de a investi în cadrul acestora. Există situaţii în care fie deoarece costurile de publicitate sunt reduse, fie pentru că nu este necesară foarte multă publicitate (mărci cunoscute, pieţe pe care lipsesc produse), firmele multinaţionale sunt încurajate să investească având în vedere concurenţa şi cheltuielile mari de marketing din ţările de proveniență.

i. *Mărimea firmelor de pe pieţele locale* care poate influenţa într-un dublu sens înclinaţia spre investiţii. Dacă aceste firme au dimensiuni mari există şi o mare potenţialitate economică a partenerilor de afaceri. Pe de altă parte şi concurenţa are aceleaşi dimensiuni mari, ceea ce poate genera importante bariere de intrare.

j. *Nivelurile minime de capital*. Privesc acele ramuri în care sunt necesare investiţii iniţiale mari ceea ce poate descuraja investitorii străini în a dezvolta afaceri în aceste zone: construcţia unor autostrăzi în zone în care sunt situri arheologice sau realizarea unor activităţi pentru care trebuie să se realizeze transferuri de proprietate.

Există şi alţi factori care ar putea avea efect asupra investiţiilor străine directe, cum ar fi: apropierea geografică, existenţa graniţelor comune, diferenţa dintre costul forţei de muncă, legături culturale şi istorice, comportamentul consumatorilor.

Există şi impactul politicilor naţionale şi locale de stimulare a investiţiilor care poate, adesea, să fie definitoriu pentru investitorii străini. În practică, aceştia percep în mod diferit factorii determinanţi ai investiţiilor şi se orientează către studii concrete, particularizate pe anumite zone sau sectoare de activitate.

4. Concluzii

În condiţiile în care mediul natural devine din ce în ce mai restrictiv pentru activităţile consumatoare de resurse naturale epuizabile sau poluatoare, se impune includerea în analizele specifice economiei mediului a problematicii investiţiilor străine directe şi, deci, reconsiderarea deciziilor privind efectuarea acestora. În plus, se observă că principiile dezvoltării durabile nu sunt încă suficient abordate de către practica economică, iar, în condiţiile în care măsurile care derivă din aceste principii ar fi aplicate la nivel economic, social şi de mediu, investiţiile străine ar trebui judecate pe alte baze sau criterii. În al doilea rând, deducem faptul că activitatea companiilor multinaţionale se localizează la nivel internaţional în raport cu potenţialele avantaje pe care acestea le pot obţine de pe diverse pieţe. În condiţiile în care infrastructura a înregistrat în ultima perioadă evoluţii impresionante, spaţiul sau distanţa nu mai reprezintă o restricţie definitorie pentru afaceri, astfel că destinaţii tradiţionale pot fi părăsite în favoarea altora chiar dacă asta presupune o delocalizare sau o mobilizare de resurse în zone ale globului extrem de diverse şi îndepărtate. Asistăm, astfel, la o tendinţă de dezvoltare policentrică a investiţiilor în raport cu avantajele concurenţiale ce pot fi valorificate în aceste locaţii dar şi cu aspecte mai puţin formale legate de tratate, afinităţi politice sau strategii de dezvoltare ale companiilor multinaţionale. Asemenea factori, dar şi alţii care aparent nu compensează condiţiile economice tradiţionale de impact asupra investiţiilor străine directe, reuşesc să deturneze fluxuri importante de investiţii străine directe făcând lumea economică mai puţin predictibilă.

Un aspect important îl reprezintă diversitatea culturală dintre naţiuni şi impactul acesteia asupra investiţiilor străine directe. Factorul cultural poate juca un rol important la nivelul investiţiilor străine directe. Atitudinea faţă de puterea din cadrul societăţii şi faţă de viitor sau abordările pe termen lung sau scurt ale vieţii indivizilor pot reprezenta bariere sau stimulente majore în luarea deciziei la nivelul diferitelor companii privind dezvoltarea. Astfel, destinaţii care pentru decidenţii mediului de afaceri ai unei anumite ţări nu prezintă nici un fel de atractivitate, pentru alţii, ce provin din alte regiuni, ele sunt căutate şi adjudecate ca pe nişte realizări marcante la nivelul afacerilor companiilor. Depăşirea graniţelor analizelor strict economice reprezintă cheia unor decizii bine fundamentate, iar abordarea pe plan social şi psihologic a unei naţiuni oferă instrumente

solide de analiză în domeniul investiţiilor străine directe.

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THE DIGITIZATION OF MONEY - CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE GLOBAL ECONOMY

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Abstract: *In modern society the majority of existing problems and solutions are related to money. Sustainable economic development depends to a major extent on the functionality of monetary financial laws, principles, methods and monetary instruments. Given the role of money held in economy, the problem of controlling the volume of money supply and management of its circulation has been widely studied by economists and researchers all times, each time facing new economic and social realities. The recent development of digital technologies is really a major new challenge not only for society and the whole economy, but also for monetary authorities, and policy promoted by them and economic thought in general. The new digital payment systems, currencies generated by their appearance, which essentially represent something completely different from traditional coin, are innovations that could create new problems for the authorities, problems that need to be identified and resolved in a timely manner. Regardless of whether the crypto-currency is still at an early stage, its occurrence and development cannot be neglected or bounded. The paper aims at presenting digital currency, considering its advantages and disadvantages, as well as its place in the global economy.*

Key words: *crypto currencies, global economy, digital money, digital payment systems.*
JEL Classification: *E42, E51.*

1.Introduction

It is difficult to imagine the current global economy without the existence of a freely convertible currency which has an internationally recognized value. The historical evolution of the form of money has considerably changed over the centuries: from the money commodity with intrinsic utility, the money - symbol intrinsic value until the money modern fiat, without any value or intrinsic utility, that is controlled only by a central authority that people are willing to accept in exchange of some goods and services, simply because they trust the central authority. Therefore trust is the essential element of any fiduciary monetary system.

After the global financial crisis the role and the importance of virtual money in the process of making virtual payments has considerably increased (for example, Bitcoin), which are emitted by a network of users of that system of payment. Unlike traditional currencies, crypto-currencies do not have physical form and are not guaranteed or supported by a central monetary authority. These coins circulate relying only on the exchange value of the trust given by users of that system. There are over 200 other current virtual coins nowadays and this number is growing. Although the legitimacy of digital currency movement is still under many questions because of the high volatility of their exchange rate, the significant potential of digital technology remains indisputable.

The introduction and use of digital currency has become possible due to the development of payment systems based on cryptography, used as a means of securing transactions and accounts. This type of money currently used in such payment systems is also called crypto-currencies. Although there are many crypto-currencies, the most popular digital currency Bitcoin is still decentralized. It is based on an innovative cryptographic system, which ensures security of transactions, but also the money issue - blockchain. Unlike classical money, controlled by a central authority, Bitcoin is a digital currency "peer-to-peer" operating online (Nakamoto, 2008). The essential difference between this type of money and the classical money created by banks is that the first is a payment instrument, a medium of exchange and store of value compared to the latter that is the result of monetary policy.

Emerging from the influence of any monetary authorities created, the new currency is a challenge for the central banks of each country separately and as for the global economy as well, that has already created a specific system or way of management and control of money circulation, with levers of influence are almost entirely in the hands of central banks and international monetary authorities.

2. The evolution of digital money in modern economy

The Internet is one of the most popular innovations in technology and communications that irretrievably influenced both the economic and social sphere of humanity. Since its inception, it has acquired a special scale continuing adding millions of users annually, a level which could not be unanticipated even by its creators.

According to Internet World Stats, if at the end of 2000 the number of Internet users was 361 million, then towards the middle of 2016 this figure had already risen to 3675 million people which constitute cover 50.1% of the total globe population. Such a major spread of the Internet had an impact not only on the modalities of interaction and communication between people, but also respectively on their entrepreneurial and disbursement activities.

The emergence of a great number of communities in various fields became possible due to the high penetration of the Internet into society, some of which were introduced during its evolution and its own virtual currency used for trade in goods and services they offer. Thus, a new form of money was created and is used in the Internet - digital currency (Figure no. 1).

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Legal status</td><td>Unregulated</td><td>- Certain types of local currencies</td><td>- Virtual currency</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Regulated</td><td rowspan="2">- Banknotes and coins</td><td>- E-money</td></tr>
<tr><td>- Commercial bank money (deposits)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2"></td><td>Physical</td><td>Digital</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Money format</td></tr>
</table>

Figure no. 1. Matrix of money in the economic environment

Source: ECB, 2012.

The advent of digital currency payment offers alternative opportunities for consumer who uses goods and services, that giving his confidence involuntarily takes part in its development. One of the most widespread of this kind virtual currency is Bitcoin, which has recorded a meteoric rise in recent years (Figure no. 2). Since its appearance until the beginning of 2017 their number has already exceeded 16 mil., and its market value, which was originally invalid, has already reached over 1000 US dollars (Blockchain, 2017).

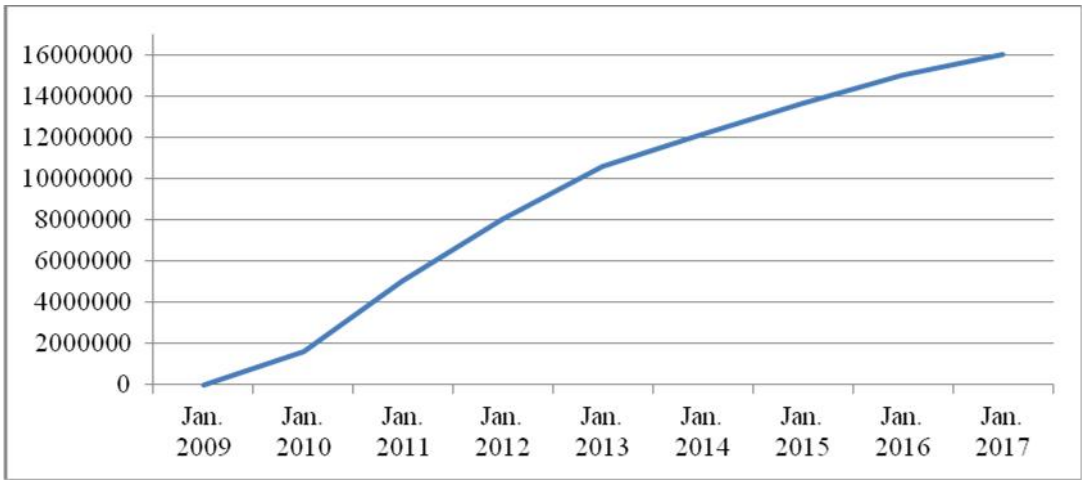

Figure no. 2. Evolution of the total number of Bitcoin in circulation

Source: Blockchain, 2017. *Bitcoins in circulation*. [online] Available at: <https://blockchain.info/ro/charts/total-bitcoins?timespan=all> [Accessed 01 February 2017].

Therefore, the main difference between centralized monetary mass (one that is subject in one way or another monetary authority) and decentralized (digital) is related to their functions. The main function of virtual currencies is to fulfill the function as a medium of exchange and an account unit in the virtual community. Nevertheless, the main question is whether these virtual currencies could take over other functions of money as the traditional store of value and what risks would spread its presence to monetary authorities and their policies.

3. Digital currency, its features, advantages and limitations

In comparison to classical currency, digital currency, for example Bitcoin, cannot be created but only obtained either by mining - a complicated and expensive process, which relies both on information technologies as well as on a complicated recent mathematic algorithm, meant to correct and maintain in a certain limit the amount of Bitcoin generated by the system. The creation of the cripto currency itself is limited to installing a file that has recorded the latest deals - block distributed network between all its users. When the computer detects a new block, it can get a certain number of Bitcoins. This number changes over time and is decreased by a factor of 0.5 every four years. The holder can obtain a quantity of Bitcoins either by accepting them as a means of payment and exchange, either by buyng them from a specialized platform.

Bitcoin exchange rate is determined by their current market demand, although they are not reported to all existing currencies in circulation. There are several exchange platforms operating in real time for purchasing Bitcoin and allow users conversion of US dollars into Bitcoin and vice versa.

Because the total number of Bitcoin is limited and tends towards 21 million, this system supports itself, is encoded, completely anonymous and is not subject to inflation. But this is not the only advantage of owning Bitcoin, there are some more advantages that are mentioned below (Böhme et al., 2015):

- Anonymity, one of the main properties of Bitcoin - the users cannot be identified, the amount of transfer and address representing a random sequence of characters that are generated on each transaction again;

- Payments without limits or restrictions, unlike the banking system, Bitcoin allows payments worldwide without restrictions;

- Lower fees for transfers and assistance, a lower charge, averaging 0.7-1%, depending on the stock exchange and payment system ;

- Decentralization, which allows it to be independent of any State or third party for clearing. The system is purely peer-to-peer, users experience a greater degree of freedom than with national currencies.

- Ability to be created by anybody, any network user, having special knowledge and skills, is able to create Bitcoin .

Despite its great advantages, Bitcoin system has also several disadvantages, such as:

- Keeping money in Bitcoin does not bring any profits in the form of interest such as stores created from banks, but from the increased value;

- The system is at an early stage of development that means it involves additional risk and volatility;

- Digital money is decentralized; it will not be able to benefit from support from monetary authorities and financial institutions of the country in case of risks.

These advantages and disadvantages are related more to Bitcoin users, but for the global economy this currency and other similar electronic currencies involve absolutely other risks and incidences. Along the risks that depend on geo-political and military factors, as well as terrorism, the development Bitcoin presents a major shift in economic thinking, the organization of economic life, an environment transformation process full of challenges, barriers and limitations.

4. Challenges and opportunities for global economy

The rapid growth of Bitcoin's popularity has sparked interest in the international world of monetary authorities, which became more and more interested in this subject, trying to identify challenges related to movement of virtual currencies, discussing and defining the possibilities for regulating their policy implications, etc. demonstrations in major international forums. However, it must be noted that most of these events result in the issuance of warnings to users of virtual currency on the risks related to the purchase, holding or trading of virtual currencies such as Bitcoin (EBA, 2013). Moreover, the European Banking Authority published a notice in July 2014, which found that regulated financial institutions should be aware of those risks and discourage those involved in buying, holding or selling this digital currency.

The monetary authorities are trying also different regulatory purposes and otherwise, try to define or classify virtual currencies, focusing particularly on the nature of non-monetary of crypto-currencies, bringing the argument that only a means of payment that has government guarantee could be considered as money. In this way, crypto-currencies are considered more as a digital representation of value that is not issued by a central bank, a credit institution or an institution for issuing electronic money, which in certain circumstances can be used as an alternative to cash.

However, in the last twenty years the inability of contemporary banking system has been clearly seen, especially it does not meet anymore the requirements of consumers in the age of massive development digitization, mobile communications, Internet and social networks.

Even if we do not take into consideration monetary manipulation and abuses in recent years, basic money transfers - are neither cheap nor too fast. For example, remittance flows are subject to relatively high taxes and credit cards, which have changed little in recent years and are also not very suitable for online transactions. The access to

banking services is also limited, a considerable part of the world population considering banking system expensive and too difficult.

Comparing banking services with the ability to transfer instantly and securely across the entire globe any amount of money during 24 hours, 7 days a week, with (almost) no fee, no approval or support of a third person the advantage of digital payment systems is obvious. Respectively, with the development of information systems that allow quick access to a huge amount of information, communication video and audio without territorial barriers and time limits are clear expectations across the changing financial system and monetary policy, which must also keep pace and become more efficient, more accessible and fair. In such circumstances, Bitcoin and other virtual currencies in general, are the only ones that can cope perfectly with these new challenges.

However, taking into account the disadvantages Bitcoin, namely the high volatility of this, we believe that it can be viewed more in terms of the possibility to experiment with money into a new realm of freedom (Nakamoto, 2008), to test various alternatives in order to detect what form the money would be the best. Since the emergence of virtual money, research has focused specifically on improving the technological limits of the Bitcoin protocol: while this approach has its merits, it has not added a relevant contribution to the adoption of virtual currencies in the economy. Respectively future research should focus more on the need to improve the usefulness of such currencies, as the transition from paper money to digital currency is inevitable.

5. Conclusion

Digital currency has an enormous potential to satisfy population needs in a financial-monetary system that in this way will become more accessible, faster and less expensive. In the form that virtual currencies exist nowadays, they are still very volatile, which involve risks and uncertainty, but evolving them into a safer form of money is only a matter of time. In such circumstances the active involvement of the authorities becomes vital, which together with the private community sector must find the best opportunities to use digital payment platforms in order to achieve benefits for both governments and the population. These currencies provide an unlimited source of reducing operational costs at all levels of an economy, a source of spectacular innovations development, a possibility of increasing financial inclusion of the population as well.

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ROLE OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY IN INCREASING VOLUNTARY COMPLIANCE BY TAXPAYERS

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Abstract: *The primary objective of fiscal administration is to encourage, facilitate and maintain a high degree of voluntary compliance by taxpayers which will allow concentrating resources on identifying and dealing with those taxpayers who fail to fully comply with their tax obligations. At the same time, for fiscal authorities tax systems based on turnover imply a high risk of evasion because taxpayers can easily submit false data. Particularly, in case of cash transactions, the problem of detecting cases of under-declaring becomes a real challenge. In foreign practice, promotion of measures to combat tax evasion is part of a wider program to support the business environment through reduction of tax burden and encouragement of payment compliance, as well as to ensure a competitive business environment, which will be undistorted by unfair competition. To accomplish this purpose, in developed countries, tax administrations have for years been appealing for technological advances implemented in private sector. At the same time, in developing countries, the opportunities that technology offers are more elusive. This article relates some of practices used by fiscal authorities to encourage tax declaring, especially by small business and self-employed, as well as measures that are based on civic consciousness.*

Keywords: *fiscal administration, compliance, self-employed, tax evasion, fiscal receipts lotteries, cash register.*
JEL Classification: *E62, H210.*

1. Introduction

The primary objective of fiscal administration is to encourage, facilitate and maintain a high degree of voluntary compliance by taxpayers.

Many developed countries have developed a strong system to improve tax compliance through a well established control mechanism and active use of technological advances in the private sector (such as electronic commerce, interactive telephone systems, and data capture via the scanning or imaging of paper documents). Tax authorities always searched ways to facilitate the use of internet for transmission of information and access to tax forms by taxpayers and direct interfaces with the sources of information. They have been implementing electronic receipt, processing, and delivery methods.

Nevertheless, it is hard for tax authorities to evaluate and collect taxes from hard-to-tax sectors of the economy. For example, small businesses, farmers, and self-employed individuals often prove a high degree of non-compliance through underreporting, especially in case of cash transactions. Consequently, many small businesses activate in informal economy or are not taxed at all.

In addressing the compliance risk of under- or non-declaration of turnover, some fiscal authorities have developed measures based on civic consciousness or use of third-party information to check taxpayer-declared data and thus combat tax avoidance.

2. Increasing civic consciousness through fiscal receipts lotteries

Use of fiscal receipts lotteries by fiscal authorities is gaining a growing interest in foreign practice. For example, *Malta* implemented this scheme in 1997, Slovakia in 2013, Portugal in 2014.

Within these measure consumers can use their receipts to participate within tax receipts lottery and the receipt issued serves as a potential lottery ticket, giving a chance to consumers to win a prize if for a randomly drawn receipt.

Tax receipts lotteries have the scope to increase the issue of receipts in business-to-consumer-transactions and officialize transactions based on receipt of cash. One of the advantages implied in this practice results from all information that is introduced by population in informational system from their receipts to be able to participate within the lottery, which will be used by fiscal authorities in the process of controlling real revenues from cash operations. Once a receipt is issued, it becomes more difficult for trading entities to hide turnover outside the cash register system of the country.

The costs of paying prizes and administrating the lottery is covered by extra revenue of an increased tax base as a result of an increase of citizens' consciousness in the process of detecting shadow business. Another advantage is indirect education of fiscal responsibility and culture among citizens, because the indifference of population when not asking for a receipt facilitates tax evasion.

Romania uses this practice to motivate population to require a receipt while purchasing goods or benefiting from services. Also a possibility was introduced for a consumer to benefit a product purchased without paying for it, in case if he is refused to be issued a receipt. Thus, any tax receipt issued by an electronic cash register can participate within lottery drawing, except for restaurant bills. Also tax receipts paid by card, cash or vouchers, as well as those issued by exchange offices or non-VAT registered companies can be used.

According to Romanian legislation, a tax receipt will be considered if it meets the following conditions: is issued by a fiscal electronic cash register that meets the legal requirements of Romania and the information submitted on it is legible and issued to a natural person. Tax receipts that have a tax registration code of the buyer will not participate in lottery.

Greece adopted a more flexible approach in the Government's attempts to reduce tax evasion with citizens' implication. Thus, fiscal authorities implemented a *registration and award scheme using mobile phones*, where buyers were able to register their purchases within the lottery system via SMS, including all necessary data from the receipt: the fiscal code of the selling entity, date and time of transaction and amount of transaction. At the same time, some possibilities of using lottery schemes in private industry and in private-public partnerships were elaborated.

Portugal implemented a lot of citizen projects to increase compliance alongside with tax authorities and other actors. Firstly, an *e-invoice system was created*, according to which all traders were obliged to report all invoices to tax authorities. Alongside with e-invoice system, consumers had the possibility to receive some tax benefits in base of their invoices, more precisely 15% of the paid VAT from four sectors, which were more problematic in terms of compliance:

- Accommodation and food services;
- Beauty treatment;
- Car maintenance and repair;
- Motorcycle maintenance and repair.

Portuguese practice demonstrated that the introduction of e-envoice system generated an increase of transactions registered in official economy and the number of companies issuing receipts from these four sectors increased by nearly 40%.

The second step was implementation of tax invoice and receipts lottery on all VAT relevant transactions (*Lucky Invoice Lottery*). One of the interesting moment of the lottery process is that all winners within the lottery can decide wether they would like to donate their prize, or if they would like to collect the prize themselves.

Georgia implemented a *VAT receipts lottery* in 2012, which started with a *GPRS-based cash registeres.* These machines permitted the Georgian tax authorities to

immediately collect information regarding the current income of companies on their online servers. *The lottery served as a good tool to increase population awareness to request a formal receipt when purchasing goods and change the negative attitude for the tax authority.*

Initially, in Georgia the lottery was daily drawn and gave small prizes, afterwards – twize per month supplemented by higher prizes and finally every three months with prizes up till 20436 EUR, which presented significant amounts compared to average wage level (Fooken, Hemmelgarn and Herrmann, 2014).

Seven agencies were involved to administrate the whole lottery process:

- The Georgia Revenue Service – the initiator of the lottery;
- The Lottery Company - responsible for the technical part of the lottery;
- Mobile operators;
- Companies that possessed fast payment machines;
- Georgian banks - responsible for the administration of payments;
- Advertising companies - responsible for the promotion and mediatising of lottery;
- A call center - responsible for answering questions to population.

In order to participate in the lottery, costumers collected the receipts issued by a GPRS-based cash register. Afterwards, they checked the validity of the receipt via a mobile phone, online, or using a fast payment machine. All receipts could be checked from the moment of issuing till the expiry in one month. By checking the unique code of the receipt, the consumer automatically received the lottery result. If the receipt was winning, then the buyer could bring the receipt to any bank to be able to collect the prize.

Georgia finished practicing tax receipt lottery in one year due to lack of financial resources to run the lottery. Also, it was demonstrated that the lottery produced positive results only at the first stage of its implementation.

3. Obligation of taxpayers to use cash register with electronic journal and their connection to supervision system of fiscal authority

Another tool used by fiscal authorities in combating tax evasion, increasing the collection of revenues and better monitoring the activity of economic agents that perform retail delivery of goods and services directly to population is *obligation of economic operators to use cash register with electronic journal* (as substitute for cash register with journal roller). Besides this, a general trend is *to connect these cash devices to monitoring and supervision system of the country's fiscal authority.*

Introduction of electronic cash devices requires a huge effort on behalf of fiscal administration and incurs both costs for administration and for taxpayers. Once the electronic cash devise is available, it is important to put in place all necessary arrangements for its installation, support, maintenance. At the same time, effectiveness of their implementation will depend on the country's compliance improvement strategy that would identify risks for the different segments of economy and hard-to-tax companies.

The system of cash registers equipped with electronic journal is advantageous for fiscal authorities in the process of monitoring the control of legal entities, as data submitted on electronic support is easier to be processed and analyzed. At the same time, the system is also advantageous for retailers, as it is not necessary to purchase all the time and deal with paper ralls.

In *Romania*, according to recent fiscal provisions (Emergency Ordinance no. 91/23.12.2014 amending and completing the O.U.G. nr. 28/1999, regarding the obligation of the economic operators to use electronic cash registers) small taxpayers were forced to use new devices from November 1st, 2016 and from January 1st, 2017 it is forbidden to

trade with electronic cash register with journal roller. Such a measure was taken by the majority of European countries, including Croatia, Hungary, Greece, Bulgaria, Slovakia. At the same time, Romanian legal provisions create the necessary legal framework for designing a National register of evidence of electronic cash registers to surveil the functioning of these devices. Thus, all electronic cash registers will be connected to the national system of surveillance and monitoring of fiscal data of National Agency of Fiscal Administration in 6 months after the expiration of transitional periods for economic agents that fall under legal provisions.

New legal provisions also introduced changes in the form of a tax receipt. Thus, mandatory elements for the devices with electronic journal will be the unit of measure and code of registration for VAT purposes of the beneficiary, on its request. Also, a number of functional and technical conditions should be accomplished by these devices. The institute responsible for authorization of entities for commercialization of electronic cash registers is the Ministry of Public Finance of Romania.

As regarding the contravention measures, in Romania the fine varies between 8000 and 10000 Lei for taxpayers who refuse to use electronic cash register with suspension (from one to three months) of business activity, as well as for the refuse to reintroduce the data from raller cash devise into electronic cash devise.

Romanian authorities belive that this project will create the legal framework to establish a National Register of fiscal electronic devices' evidence from counties or districts of Bucharest and the subsequent implementation of the procedure of supervising and monitoring the operation of these devices as a measure to combat tax evasion.

In *Slovak Republic*, entities that are engaged in selling goods or providing some specified services are obliged to use electronic cash registers with a fiscal memory from January 1st, 2012. Maintenance and repair of these cash registers can only be performed by a service company that is registered in the Register of service organisations maintained for this purpose by the Financial Directorate of Slovakia ("FD SR"). Each electronic cash register should contain the tax code attributed by the tax office.

At the same time, Slovak legislation provides exceptions when there is not a obligation to use electronic cash registers within the following activities:

- sale of stamps, tickets for public transport, phone cards, newspapers and periodicals,
- sale of postal stamps for philatelic exchanges,
- sale of goods through vending machines,
- sale of coins made of precious metals,
- rental property,
- cleaning works,
- administrative activities,
- wrecking services for motor vehicles and others.

From April 1st, 2015 the Financial Directorate of Slovack Republick has launched a free business application – *virtual cash register* ("VCR"). VCR is based on the system of electronic communication via the Internet, meaning that seller has to use electronic devices such as computers, laptops, tablets or smartphones. These terminal devices must be connected to a printer in order to print invoices. The VCR is aimed for those entrepreneurs, whose number of issued documents is less than 1000 during one calendar month. Entrepreneurs who exceed this limit are obliged to use the electronic cash register. In the case of higher amount of issued invoices, the entrepreneur must use the ECR. If the entrepreneur does not use electronic cash registers, the tax authority may impose a fine of 330 EUR to 3300 EUR.

The introduction of electronic cash registers brings negative aspects as well. The Financial Administration of Slovakia discovered cases of VAT and income tax evasion using modified software of electronic cash registers. The fraud is, in particular, in fact that the documents for the customer are not recorded in the fiscal memory, and the emblem of the Ministry of Finance of Slovakia is typically missing on the invoice. The fraud was detected on the basis of the VAT control report and physical checks of the ECR

In *Austria,* companies that exceed a certain amount of sales (exceeding annual sales of 15 000 EUR and cash transactions of 7 500 EUR) are obliged to use a cash register from the beginning of May, 2016. There were controversary discussions on the necessity of introduction of cash registers within Austrian business community. Some small entrepreneurs even filed against the mandatory introduction of cash register at the Constitutional Court, justifying that the mandatory use of cash register is inconsistent with the constitutional right to the inviolability of property and that it also violates the constitutional right of free choice of employment, freedom of trade and other economic activities. They also argued that it would impose a disproportionate financial burden for individual entrepreneurs. The Constitutional Court did not accept this request, expressing that cash registers represent an appropriate tool for the reduction of manipulations with declarations on revenues and, thus, is a prevention measure against tax evasion.

4. Implication of banks in the process of combating tax evasion

Another measure used by fiscal authorities to better control declaration of revenues by taxpayers is *communication by banks, automatically, of turnovers and balances of accounts opened by individuals and legal entities.* Usually, banks are obliged, in some particular cases, to report balances on accounts of their clients upon solicitation of fiscal authorities. These requests are done within fiscal control inspections on income tax.

In *Romania* fiscal authorities are planning to promulgate modifications on Fiscal Procedure Code to make this exchange of information on an automatic basis on some periods that will be established by order of Minister of Finance, and not just upon request as it is currently regulated. It is believed that such a modification will represent a real possibility for fiscal authority to create a data base for all tax purposes so that tax authorities can fully identify non-declared revenues.

A big problem within this measure derives from the concept that the relationship between a banker and his customer obliges the bank to treat all the customer's affairs as confidential. Governments of all OECD Member countries recognise the importance of permitting governmental authorities access to bank information for certain law enforcement purposes (e.g., money laundering). They also provide their tax authorities, directly or indirectly, with the possibility of obtaining access to bank information for at least some tax administration purposes (OECD, 2000).

Access to bank information about the account of a specific taxpayer can take several forms. The majority of OECD Member countries can obtain this information by requesting the information from the bank directly or indirectly through the use of a judicial or administrative process. Tax administrations of some Member countries have the authority, under certain circumstances, to obtain directly the necessary information. *The tax administrations of other Member countries have direct access to bank information through centralised databases.* Other tax administrations have less direct access and may need formal process to obtain such information. Many tax authorities receive certain types of information from banks (for example, amount of interest payments) on an automatic basis, which facilitates tax management and potentially expands the types of information that may be exchanged with treaty partners on an automatic basis.

Another measure used for reduction of the risk of tax evasion, is *encouraging population to pay by credit cards.*

The use of cash has been recognized in some countries as a significant factor that increases the shadow economy. Some countries have established *a legal requirement to use the banking system to make payments for purchases or services exceeding a certain amount.* By such a measure, large transactions can be traced easily by fiscal authorities and the risk of not including transaction in declaration of turnover can be minimized. Although it is difficult to implement such a measure because it requires access of both sides within a transaction to banking services, this measure can be a useful tool in reducing opportunities for evasion.

In *Israel*, the Committee to Examine Reducing the Use of Cash in Israel's Economy (The Committee to Examine Reducing the Use of Cash in Israel's Economy, 2014) recommends some ways to decrease the use of cash through:

- Limiting the amount of a transaction between private parties to up to 15 000 NIS;
- Providing by law that a violation of the prohibition on conducting cash transactions above the defined threshold will be established as a criminal offense, in respect of which an administrative fine or sanction will be imposed. Also, transactions spread out over several payments will be considered as one transaction, in contrast to extended services which will be considered as separate transactions;
- Limiting the use of endorsed checks and implementing changes which reduce the existing risks in the use of checks.

Also, in Israel various electronic means of payment have been increasing recently and the Committee recommends limiting the use of cash and negotiable checks by promoting the use of advanced electronic means of payment, which are characterized by low fees in accordance with the type of means of payment. For example, from 2007 the Zahav system for real time gross settlements was created, which allows the transfer of large sums of money in real time with irrevocable payment. The cards are accepted in all large and medium-sized businesses, and in most small business segments. Also, in recent years there has been an increase in the number of active prepaid cards. Thus, by 2012 there were 6.3 million, representing an increase of 6% from the previous year. This growth was contributed by an increase in the variety of issued cards, which today includes nonbank payment cards, which are generally related to customer clubs), an expansion of the range of services provided by financing and credit companies, the expansion of e-commerce and an increase in the number of points of sale.

At the same time the Committee to Examine Reducing the Use of Cash in Israel's Economy proposed expansion of the use of debit cards and of identified prepaid cards, through setting a maximum period of 3 days for credit card companies to credit the merchant and agreement on legislation by the Director General of the Antitrust Authority to immediately set separate interchange fees for transactions conducted via a debit card.

Another measure to promote the use of advanced electronic means of payment is moving forward with the smart virtual wallet, which will promote digital checks.

In *Korea,* in 1999 the government decided to encourage people to use credit cards through *credit card and cash receipts income deduction scheme*. Under this scheme, if a taxpayer made a payment via credit card and/or via cash, that individual would be entitled to a deduction of a prescribed percentage (20%) of that amount from their taxable income base (Byung, 2013). Through a lottery system organized in 2000, the government distributed $ 17 million credit cards to users, which caused a spectaculous increase in sales and services paid by these payment means.

This scheme aims to encourage taxpayers to actively use, in the course of their economic activities, credit cards and cash receipts which allow the disclosure of their transaction history to a third party. The ultimate goal of this scheme was to enhance levels of transparency of the income of those businesses which provide a product or service directly to end users. Thus, by developing different incentive policies and regulation strategies, the Korean government started the campaign to motivate an active use of credit cards. For this purpose, fiscal authorities first concentrated on legislative basis by encouraging business owners to pay entertainment costs using a credit card (by rectifying the Enforcement Decree of the Income Tax Act and the Enforcement Decree of the Corporate Tax Law in October 1984). Additionally, they granted companies a tax deduction based on the amount equal to 0,5% of the amount paid by credit card (Byung, 2013).

5. IT development for fiscal purposes in Republic of Moldova

In Republic of Moldova the fiscal authority does not have an IT strategy, nevertheless, the key-elements on it are included within the *Strategy of State Fiscal Service Development* (Serviciul Fiscal de Stat al Republicii Moldova, 2016). Thus, to ensure a modern tax administration system, in 2015 the *Law on State Tax Service* was drafted, the main objective of which was to create the necessary legislative framework for the successful implementation of the strategy to increase the level of tax compliance of taxpayers and and improve the process of tax administration.

At present, fiscal authorities are more preoccupied with improvement of the process of monitoring taxpayers and revenues through several services launched from 2016, like: *Adjusted pre-filled statement; excise stamps online ordering, electronic file of taxpayer; Wealth tax; SMC RIV Individuals; Internal tax documents, etc.* According to the annual report of the World Bank jointly with PricewaterhouseCoopers - Paying Taxes, the State Tax Service reached the 31st place, climbing 24 steps from 2015, which shows that the national Informational Tax System is efficient and ensures all requirements for taxpayers in Moldova.

At the same time, there are adequate IT systems capable to accept messages of electronic data transfers as well as electronical data transfers in all domains of fiscal administration. Another positive moment is that all external fiscal data can be easily transferred to statistical centers according to the established program. For outdated platform applications, new substitution solutions are planned to be identified, as modernization of IT infrastructure of State Fiscal Service remains a major priority.

According to Fiscal Blueprints Indicators' analysis for the Republic of Moldova, the "Informational Technology" block accumulated 76 points, out of 100 points as a target limit.

Still, it remains hard for national fiscal authority to follow electronic commerce transactions, as adequate instruments to investigate electronic transactions lack. It is necessary to train fiscal inspectors in the field of e-audit and e-commerce, by use of advanced adequate IT software. Thus, one of the highest challenge for Moldova is to have qualified personnel able to monitor and tax e-commerce. Also, there is a special need in adequate electronic products, which could facilitate the activity of tax officials (Vragaleva, 2015).

As regarding the problem of voluntary tax compliance, in Republic of Moldova fiscal authorities have not yet implemented measures to imply civic consciousness. The Republic of Moldova faces an ICT skills gap and a low level of the digital literacy. These drawbacks lead to insufficient use of the benefits granted by Information Society and even the exclusion of many citizens from the ICT-based society and economy. Also, a large part

of population from Moldova does not possess digital knowledge and skills; this fact reduces the opportunities to participate in digital economy (Hotărâre cu privire la Strategia naţională de dezvoltare a societăţii informaţionale "Moldova Digitală 2020", 2013). A positive moment results from continuous efforts on behalf of Fiscal State Service to increase the process of civic consciousness. For this some important documents were elaborated, like the *Strategy of taxpayer servicing, Guide of taxpayer servicing and Guide of beginning taxpayer – fiscal aspects.*

6. Conclusions

In developing countries, the opportunities that technology offers for tax administration purposes are more elusive. Tax administrations face many obstacles within the process of modernizing their services. Computer software, electronic and internet tax filing systems, electronic funds transfer and payment systems, data networks are still difficult to promote. Also in many countries governments have insufficient financial resources for their acquisition and maintenance. Nevertheless tax administrations in many developing countries are

In Republic of Moldova, the State Fiscal Service is engaging in the early stages of information technology modernization efforts. Still, the majority of fiscal administration employees are mostly tax oriented and don't possess sufficient technical IT knowledge, as well as Internet technology. It would be appropriate that government provides appropriate software to tax auditors within their activity.

At the same time, the support of civic society for the improvement and modernization of fiscal administration in Moldova remains a priority. It would be appropriate to develop a viable long-run IT strategy for fiscal purposes in Republic of Moldova, in conditions of a digital age. These technologies will expand opportunities for government to carry on with individuals and businesses electronically, to combat tax non-compliance and satisfy information requirements at the internal control levels for the effective fiscal management.

Summarizing the experience of some selected countries in implementing IT measures by fiscal authorities for increasing voluntary compliance, the following general principles for their development in Republic of Moldova can be emphasized:

- The fiscal success of the lottery will be significantly increased if it focuses on a specific problematic sector, where cash-in-hand practises are operated and which are highly affected by tax evasion. Thus, fiscal authorities should target hard taxing sectors before designing a tax receipt lottery scheme. The highest level of tax evasion is mostly attested in the retail trade sector and within services provided directly to population. Thus, citizens can refuse to pay for purchased goods or services rendered, if no receipt is issued. At the same time, technically, the tax receipt can be issued on the cash register only after payment was made. This can create opportunities for consumers to leave without paying, which infringe traders' rights. At the same time, traders will be motivated to always use cash registers and issue tax receipts for every transaction made available.
- To carry out the lottery, administratively high techniques should be used. Also a good IT framework should exist. High technology programs will also serve as data-collection tools from population, as well as processing of data for audits and evaluation of policies. Thus, fiscal authorities should consider the process of data collection while implementing and designing the tax receipt lottery scheme, as data generated in the process of such lotteries can help them in detecting tax evaders.
- The advantageous of using technology, such as electronic cash registers are obvious, still foreign practice proves that the problem is that these devices are not entirely disconnected from taxpayers. As long as taxpayers can manipulate it or conduct

transactions that the device does not capture, it cannot be a reliable third-party data source. The gradual replacement of electronic cash tax rolls equipped with paper journal with those equipped with electronic diary will allow a more efficient management and control due to the possibility of computer processing of data introduced within the system.

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EDUCATION MANAGEMENT AND EDUCATION SERVICES

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Abstract: *Education management can be defined as the science and art of preparing human resources to form personalities, according to some finalities accepted by society, community, individuals. Educational services is a set of specialized activities carried out by methods and techniques developed and deployed within public institutions or belonging to a community, which aims to solve various categories of issues concerning education and training of different categories of beneficiaries within the community. Performance management, where is inserted correctly, can be a significant factor contributing to the success of the organization. If used incorrectly, it can lead to resentment and frustration, the starting point of the failure of many organizations. Most managers believe that more accurate performance goals, identify problems which have led to a reduction in yield are the responsibility of those responsible for human resources. The quality of management is crucial to achieve the objectives set to achieve performance or newer, excellence in any type of collective action, regardless of this organization. Neglecting to implement an high quality efficient management, generates a large part of the failures of organizations.*

Keywords*:education management, education services, schools.*
JEL Classification*: I20, I21.*

"Regardless of how perfectly organized a situation and how complete its schedule, everything depends on the people who have the call to give it life, to achieve it".
D. Gusti

1. Introduction

As social beings, human beings are obliged to live in communities that have a structure, a certain degree of organization, a system of institutions and, inevitably, hierarchy. The latter aspect implies subordination relations, sometimes of very high complexity. School as a fundamental social institution is a social organism which repeats the structure and functioning of a community.

Education activities and services developed by schools, beyond the specific ones rooted in the education and training of students, aim to develop the professional skills of teachers and provide support and advice to stakeholders in the school and smaller or larger social communities. The types of education activities and services offered are designed according to the level and type of existing expertise of the supplying school.

2. Educational services

Educational services are a set of specialized activities that are carried out with the help of methods and techniques, developed and deployed in public institutions or organizations within a community, and which seek to solve various categories of issues concerning education and training of different categories of beneficiaries within the community. These services are focused on categories of beneficiaries / target-populations (children, youth, adults), organized on various levels (undergraduate, postgraduate), cycles of education (preschool, primary, secondary, higher), or forms of training (public or private system, mandatory or optional, permanent, periodic or occasional, especially in the forms of adult education, etc.); they employ specialized personnel, and allocate material, financial and logistical resources depending on the specific programs, the number of participants and their needs.

The problem of ensuring and maintaining the quality of education services is particularly important, as it has unique, but long-term impact on their direct beneficiaries (the students) and indirect beneficiaries (community, society).

In Europe, there have been many concerns about quality assurance in education and training. The quality of an educational institution (organizational quality) is determined by the quality of processes and educational services on offer.

The quality of the whole process depends on the quality of each of these three components:

a) quality of teaching;

b) quality of educational activities and / or scientific research;

c) quality of other services provided by the institution.

The quality of these three components of educational services depends on their qualitative characteristics, which are, essentially, determined by the managerial skills of the management staff who lead educational institutions or sub-units.

Defining the issue of quality educational processes requires detailed analysis, based on the particularities of each category of activity, of both the customer's needs and expectations, and of how they perceive educational services. Equally, the quality is influenced by the way it is perceived by managers and teaching staff.

Hence, the possibility of the following categories of differences in perceiving the quality of education:

- Differences between the perception of managers regarding customer expectations and quality specifications;
- Differences between quality specifications and the actual situation;
- Differences between educational services being carried out and what is communicated to customers;
- Differences between expectations and perception of quality educational services; differences between customer expectations and how managers perceive them.

The fifth difference is the result of the first four, being just what defines the quality of the educational services of an educational institution.

Improving the quality of education and thus reducing the fifth difference can be achieved by reducing each of the first four differences.

- ***Differences between the perception of managers regarding customer expectations and quality specifications*** can be reduced by proper setting of quality standards. To achieve this, the main actions that managers of educational institutions can take are:

- checking how the concept of quality is defined taking into account the customers;

- developing management skills needed to guide teachers, support and administrative staff to ensure quality education services;

- clear communication of customer-oriented quality standards by the responsible units;

- increasing responsiveness to staff proposals aimed at improving the quality of educational services and the standardization of operations with high repeatability;

- establishing realistic and clear, explicit formulated quality objectives of educational services;

- explicitly specifying directly measurable responsibilities on the quality of service for each teaching, auxiliary, and administrative position;

- measuring performance and rewarding based on achieving the objectives of quality educational services;

- ensuring that all staff understand and accept the objectives and priorities of the institution on quality education.

- ***Differences between quality specifications and the actual situation*** can be reduced by ensuring that the performance of educational services meets the standards set by the institution.

This can be ensured by:

- clear role of each participant in carrying out activities that are part of educational services;
- ensuring that everyone understands their role in in fulfilling job responsibilities related to customer satisfaction;
- providing personnel with education and training to carry out their responsibilities effectively and efficiently;
- supporting teachers to obtain good results by choosing the most appropriate methods, procedures, and equipment;
- informing customers' expectations, perceptions and problems;
- training teaching staff regarding interpersonal skills, especially for work under pressure;
- avoiding sources of conflict between different categories of staff by involving them in decision making;
- training staff to prioritize and efficiently use working time;
- measuring the performance of teachers, support and administrative staff and granting awards depending on the quality of services;
- fostering teamwork.

- ***Differences between educational services being carried out and what is communicated to customers*** can be reduced by ensuring that services match promises. This is ensured the following way:

- involving operational staff when new promotional programs are launched or in "face to face" contacts;
- ensuring that materials produced by the educational institution accurately reflect those characteristic features which are essential to customers;
- orienting customers' expectations by informing them as completely as possible and in a reasonable way about what is possible;
- providing a more diverse range of educational services, based on the customers' needs.

- ***Differences between expectations and perception of quality educational services*** can be reduced by understanding what customers expect from the institution. This can be achieved by investigating and analysing internal and external customer expectations and increasing interaction between managers and customers, for better understanding.

Setting these four types of differences can be achieved by defining standards of quality for the educational services provided by an education institution. This is where quality educational services for customers begin.

3. Educational management

Educational management, although subject to controversy, can be defined as the science and art of preparing human resources to train staff and define personality, according to finalities accepted by society, community, and individuals. It includes a set of principles, functions, rules, and management methods for achieving the objectives of the educational system (Jinga and Istrate, 1998, pp.408-409)

The defining elements of education management can be summarized as follows:

- it presents a set of actions designed and implemented to ensure optimal functioning of the educational system and the educational process;

- it is based on optimum use of human (teachers, students), material, economic, educational, informational, ergonomic, and time resources;
- it relies on the participation of factors (related to school, community or social system), on decentralization, and on creative actions and goes beyond empirical management (the *seeing and doing* type), based on common sense or mere imitation of similar models or experiences;
- it combines the theoretical aspect (concepts, approaches, hypotheses, correlations) with the methodological one (in the acquisition and processing of required information, in carrying out specific activities), but also with the technological one (concrete resolution of different situations, procedures, operations, phases, means) and management practices.

Regardless of their area of activity (commerce or business, educational services or health and social services), the manager must set goals, select ways to achieve them, identify the necessary resources, select and prepare staff to create teams with specific skills, develop mechanisms to monitor and coordinate activities, evaluate results and carry out changes that are necessary at certain times.

Some more modern approaches replace coordination functions with function focused on human resource management (selection, preparation, training and motivation), a position that is all the more important in the context of managing educational services and which involves mainly interactions with various categories of people with very diverse expectations, interests and requirements.

Any institution or organization that offers educational services is part of a specific environment that influences and conditions the managerial process. From a general perspective, this environment presents some central coordinates (Rainey, 1997, p.95):

- *technological conditions*: infrastructure, knowledge and scientific capabilities, communications, transportation facilities, equipment, etc.;
- *legal conditions*: laws, norms, values, specific regulations on the functioning of specialized institutions etc.;
- *political conditions*: types of educational policies and their social characteristics, the interest of political institutions, the degree of political stability etc.;
- *economic conditions*: standard of living, income for different social and professional categories, inflation, taxation, labour market dynamics etc.;
- *demographic conditions*: birth-rate, migration, population characteristics such as age, sex, race, religion, ethnicity, birth etc.;
- *environmental conditions*: ambient characteristics, degree of pollution, natural resources, geographical features of the area etc.;
- *cultural conditions*: prevailing values, attitudes, traditions, beliefs, customs, social processes related to elements such as family structure, political and religious practices.

All these conditions have a significant impact on organizations; for example, technological developments may give rise to new forms and types of services, which will have to keep up with the evolution of computer science and modern means of communication; demographic trends can have a significant impact in particular on the type and number of beneficiaries; economic conditions affect beneficiaries' access to certain types of services and increases in quality. In other words, no organization can neglect the context in which it operates without risking to diminish the degree of achievement of its objectives.

The management of educational services can be approached from at least two perspectives:

- a general overview, integrated in the management of social services (it may include, for example, educational services, health services, social services, rehabilitation services and day care centers, counselling etc.);
- a restricted perspective, as a process of organization and management of specific activities, targeting a population or defined beneficiaries (management of a school, management of a program for adult education, management of a class of students etc.).

A feature of the institutions and organizations providing educational programs is the heterogeneity of services and specialization among staff. Sometimes this heterogeneity may have an adverse impact on the quality of services on offer; therefore, successful management can mean a harmonization of positions / differences arising from this heterogeneity.

Given this premise, the management of education service requires addressing three priority areas:

- *the management of institutional policies* - identifying needs, analysing options, selecting programs and criteria for resource allocation etc.;
- *the management of resources* - establishing support systems, such as budget implementation, financial management, supply and staff management;

Ideally, resources should be related to the plans of an organization and the evaluation of programs and subscribed activities should determine the future of the organization. Therefore, the budget is seen as a representation of an organization's financial intentions. Through the budget, an educational organization can decide how to allocate resources to achieve its objectives. The budget must be a plan for directing all resources available to the organization: not only financial resources, but also time, human and physical resources.

- *the management of programs* - implementing strategies or current operations of organizations along functional lines or training cycles.

As in other areas, there is a hierarchy of levels of management in the field of educational services. Thus, scholarly literature (Kinard, 1988, pp.101-104) approaches:

- *top management* – related to designing educational policies, important decisions and long-term strategies and the environment in the case of an educational system. In the case of educational services, top management is identified in ministries and decision-making units within large organizational structures, if we refer to the education system as a whole, or in the *board of directors or executive board*, if we refer to an institution or organization;
- *middle management* - medium management structures implementing strategic decisions and medium-term plans;
- *line/ operational/ supervision management* - concerns the organization and effective monitoring of activities carried out by subordinated staff to achieve the results defined in the plans/ programs of institutional/ organizational development. Usually, at this stage, the plans are drawn up for the short-term, in accordance with the overall strategy developed at higher levels of management.

Performance management, where applied correctly, can be a significant factor contributing to the success of the organization. If used incorrectly, it can lead to resentment and frustration, the starting point of failure for many organizations.

Most managers believe that accurately stating performance goals and identifying problems which have led to loss of yield are the responsibility of those who manage human resources.

Management activities, regardless of the level at which they take place, require different qualities. The most important skills and qualities of a professional manager can be summarized as follows:

- ability to use knowledge, techniques and resources to solve problems;
- ability to identify key factors and understand interdependencies between them to diagnose and assess problems and situations;
- ability to make decisions and take risks;
- ability to use computer equipment and software adequate for management activity;
- ability to communicate, work and understand people;
- ability to see the organization in all its complexity and identify relations between subsystems.

New approaches to the management of education services have a number of common features that focus on aspects such as:

- *organizational culture;*
- *mission of organization / institution;*
- *clear objectives;*
- *customer orientation;*
- *higher quality of services;*
- *involvement of all stakeholders in decision-making.*

At the same time, educational management involves interpreting specific roles, which can be grouped into at least three categories (Mintzberg, 1973, pp.153-154):

➢ **Interpersonal roles** - resulting from the formal authority of a manager; they concern interpersonal relationships and interaction with others. This category can include, for example:

- *The role of representation* (promotion) does not involve making representative decisions; it requires interaction with subordinates and beyond: the manager represents the organization in relations with partners, same level managers or other hierarchies, in formal meetings or when they act on behalf of the organization (e.g. awarding annual awards, distinctions, etc.)
- *The role of leading* defines the relationship between leader and subordinates and requires directing and coordinating activities of subordinates (hire, promote, lay off); the manager guides and motivates subordinates;
- *The liaison role* with different structures or parts of the organization, or between the organization and its external community: managers know the organization's collaborators and establish interpersonal relationships with them.

➢ **Informational roles -** are related to the management and processing of information and place the manager at the center point for receiving and transmitting information. The first three roles have allowed the manager to build a network of relationships, which helps in collecting and receiving information as a monitor and sending them both as a disseminator and as a "spokesman". In this category, we can illustrate:

- *The role of monitor:* examining the environment to organize the collection of information, focusing on exchanges, opportunities and problems that may affect the company; the manager of an organization receives relevant information from the internal and external environment and tries to keep abreast with what is happening in the organization's structures;

- *The role of disseminator:* the manager analyses, multiplies and transmits information to the organization or within its units, from one level to another;
- *The role of "spokesman": w*hen it represents the organization in different environments or official courts, speaking on its behalf and submitting relevant information within the organization.

➢ **Decision roles** - mainly involve adopting relevant solutions for the functioning of the organization. Roles regarding interpersonal relationships and collection and transmission of information serve as inputs in decision making. In this category, we find the following:

- *The role of entrepreneur / manager*: involves initiating change, selecting strategies and objectives, change management, innovation and creative thinking; the manager handles the organization's problems and proposes strategies and means to address them;
- *The role of moderator (*stabilizer / settler of disruptions): the role of the manager when he is forced to make quick decisions which, due to some disturbance, can make the organization run out of equilibrium / stability.
- *The role of distribution or allocation of resources within the organization:* the manager effectively allocates or distributes resources to different sectors;
- *The role of negotiator* is found in circumstances requiring a group choice of the optimum decision out of a series of alternatives or when it is necessary to establish a common view among the various structures and departments of the organization.

4. Conclusions

Authentic education management comes to support and stimulate through all possible means and ways the democratization of education in its essence with regard to content, structure, process, naturally implying a democratization of the education management itself, of all its hierarchical structures, methods, techniques, instruments, and modern management practices.

The quality of management is crucial to achieve set objectives, performance or, lately, excellence in any type of collective action, regardless of the organization. Neglecting to implement a quality performance management generates a large part of the failures of organizations. The adoption of clear, concise, observable (measurable) and realistic (practical, possible to attain) standards is an essential condition to ensure the quality of education.

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MANAGEMENTUL EDUCAŢIONAL ŞI SERVICIILE EDUCAŢIONALE

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Rezumat: *Managementul educaţional poate fi definit ca ştiinţa şi arta de a pregăti resursele umane, de a forma personalităţi, potrivit unor finalităţi acceptate de societate, comunitate, indivizi. Serviciile educaţionale reprezintă un ansamblu de activităţi specializate, realizate prin metode şi tehnici specifice, elaborate şi desfăşurate în cadrul unor instituţii publice sau organizaţii aparţinând unei comunităţi, prin care se urmăreşte rezolvarea unor categorii variate de probleme care privesc educaţia şi instrucţia unor categorii diverse de beneficiari din cadrul comunităţii respective. Managementul performanei, acolo unde este introdus corect, poate fi un factor semnificativ ce contribuie la succesul organizaiei. Dacă este utilizat incorect, acesta poate conduce la resentimente şi frustrări, punctul de plecare al eşecului multor organizaţii. Majoritatea managerilor consideră că precizarea obiectivelor performanţei, identificarea problemelor care au condus la scăderea randamentului reprezintă atribuţiile responsabililor cu resursele umane. Nivelul de calitate al managementului este decisiv pentru atingerea obiectivelor scontate, pentru realizarea performanei, sau mai nou, a excelenţei, în oricare tip de acţiune colectivă, indiferent de organizaţia dată. Neglijarea implementării unui management performant, de înaltă calitate, generează o bună parte din eşecurile organizaţiilor.*

Cuvinte-cheie*: managementul educaţional, serviciile educaţionale, unităţi şcolare.*
Clasificare JEL*:I20, I21.*

„Oricât de perfectă ar fi organizarea unei situaţii şi oricât de complet ar fi programul ei de activitate, totul va depinde de oamenii care au chemarea să le dea viaţă, să le înfăptuiască”.

D. Gusti

1. Introducere

Fiinţa umană ca fiinţă socială e obligată să trăiască în comunităţi care au o structură, un anumit grad de organizare, un sistem de instituţii şi, în mod inevitabil, o ierarhie. Acest din urmă aspect induce relaţii de subordonare, uneori dintre cele mai complexe. Şcoala, ca instituţie socială fundamentală, este un organism social care repetă structura şi modul de funcţionare al unei comunităţi.

Activitățile și serviciile educaționale dezvoltate de unitățile școlare, dincolo de cele specifice, ancorate în educația și formarea elevilor, vizează atât dezvoltarea competențelor profesionale ale propriilor cadre didactice, cât și oferirea de suport și consultanță factorilor interesați de la nivelul comunității școlare și sociale, restrânse sau lărgite. Tipurile de activități și servicii educaționale oferite se proiectează în concordanță cu nivelul și tipul expertizei existente în unitatea școlară furnizoare.

2. Serviciile educaţionale

Serviciile educaţionale reprezintă un ansamblu de activităţi specializate, realizate prin metode şi tehnici specifice, elaborate şi desfăşurate în cadrul unor instituţii publice sau organizaţii aparţinând unei comunităţi, prin care se urmăreşte rezolvarea unor categorii variate de probleme care privesc educaţia şi instrucţia unor categorii diverse de beneficiari din cadrul comunităţii respective. Aceste servicii sunt focalizate pe categorii de beneficiari / populaţii–ţintă (copii, tineri, adulţi), organizate pe diverse niveluri (preuniversitar, universitar, postuniversitar), cicluri (preşcolar, primar, gimnazial, liceal, superior) sau forme de pregătire (în sistem public sau privat, obligatorii sau opţionale, permanente, periodice sau ocazionale, mai ales în formele de educaţie a adulţilor etc.); ele antrenează

persoane specializate, alocă resurse materiale, financiare şi logistice în funcţie de specificul programelor şi numărul şi cerinţele beneficiarilor.

Problema asigurării şi menținerii calităţii serviciilor educaționale este una deosebit de importantă cu un impact inedit, dar şi pe termen lung asupra beneficiarilor direcți ai acestora – elevii, cât şi asupra beneficiarilor indirecți – comunitatea, societatea.

La nivel european au existat şi există multiple preocupări legate de asigurarea calităţii în educație şi formare profesională.

Calitatea unei instituții de învăţământ (calitatea organizațională) este determinată de calitatea proceselor şi calitatea serviciilor educaționale oferite.

Calitatea întregului proces depinde de calitatea fiecăreia din cele trei componente:

a) calitatea procesului didactic;
b) calitatea activităților educaționale şi / sau de cercetarea științifică;
c) calitatea altor servicii furnizate de unitatea de învăţământ.

Calitatea celor trei componente ale serviciilor educaționale depinde de caracteristicile calitative ale acestora, fiind determinată, în mod esențial de competenta managerială a personalului de conducere de la nivelul instituțiilor de învăţământ sau a unităţilor componente.

Definirea cât mai completă a problematicii calităţii proceselor educaționale presupune analiza detaliată, în funcţie de particularitățile fiecărei categorii de activitate, a nevoilor clienților, a aşteptărilor şi a modului de percepere de către aceştia a serviciilor educaționale. În egală măsură, calitatea este influențată de maniera în care aceasta este percepută de manageri şi personalul didactic.

De aici rezultă posibilitatea apariției următoarelor categorii de diferențe de percepție asupra calităţii procesului educațional:

- Diferențe în perceperea de către manageri a aşteptărilor clienților şi specificaţiile de calitate;
- Diferențe între specificațiile de calitate şi situația reală;
- Diferențe între prestarea serviciilor educaționale şi ceea ce este comunicat clienților;
- Diferențe între aşteptări şi perceperea calităţii serviciilor educaționale; diferențe între aşteptările clienților şi perceperea acestora de către manageri.

Cea de-a cincea diferență este rezultanta primelor patru, constituind tocmai ceea ce defineşte calitatea serviciilor educaționale ale unei instituții de învăţământ.

Îmbunătăţirea calităţii serviciilor educaționale şi reducerea, în acest fel, a diferenței se poate asigura prin diminuarea fiecăreia dintre primele patru diferențe.

- ***Diferențele între perceperea de către manageri a aşteptărilor clienților şi specificațiile de calitate*** pot fi reduse prin stabilirea corectă a standardelor de calitate. Pentru realizarea acestora, principalele acțiuni pe care managerii unei instituții de învăţământ le pot întreprinde sunt următoarele:

- verificarea gradului în care conceptul de calitate a fost definit din punct de vedere al clienților;

- formarea abilităților manageriale necesare orientării personalului didactic, auxiliar şi administrativ în vederea prestării unor servicii educaționale de calitate;

- comunicarea, într-un mod cât mai clar, către unitățile componente, a standardelor de calitate orientate către clienți;

- creşterea receptivității la propunerile personalului propriu care vizează îmbunătăţirea calităţii procesului de servicii educaționale şi standardizarea operațiilor cu grad mare de repetabilitate;

- stabilirea realistă şi formularea într-un mod cât mai clar şi mai explicit a obiectivelor privind calitatea serviciilor educaționale;
- precizarea, în mod explicit, pentru fiecare post didactic, auxiliar sau administrativ a responsabilităților direct măsurabile, privind calitatea serviciilor;
- măsurarea performanţelor şi recompensare în funcție de îndeplinirea obiectivelor privind calitatea serviciilor educaționale;
- asigurarea că întregul personal înțelege şi acceptă obiectivele şi prioritățile instituției de învăţământ privind calitatea.

➥ ***Diferențele între specificațiile de calitate şi situația reală*** pot fi reduse prin asigurarea că performanţele serviciilor educaționale corespund standardelor stabilite de către instituția de învăţământ.

Aceasta se poate asigura prin:

- claritatea rolului fiecărui participant în realizarea activităților ce compun serviciile educaționale;
- asigurarea că fiecare înțelege rolul pe care îl are, îndeplinirea responsabilităților postului ocupat în satisfacerea clienților;
- asigurarea pregătirii şi perfecționării personalului pentru a îndeplini responsabilitățile proprii, în mod eficace şi eficient;
- sprijinirea obținerii de către personalul didactic a unor rezultate performante prin alegerea celor mai adecvate metode, proceduri şi echipamente;
- sesizarea așteptărilor, percepțiilor şi problemelor clienților;
- pregătirea personalului didactic în ceea ce privește abilităţile interpersonale, în special pentru a lucra în condiții de stres;
- evitarea surselor de conflict intre diferite categorii de personal prin implicarea acestora în procesul decizional;
- formarea abilităților personalului privind determinarea priorităților şi folosirea eficientă a timpului de lucru;
- măsurarea performantelor personalului didactic, auxiliar şi administrativ şi acordarea recompenselor în funcție de calitatea serviciilor prestate;
- stimularea lucrului în echipă.

➥ ***Diferențele între prestarea serviciilor educaționale şi ceea ce este comunicat clienților despre aceste servicii*** pot fi reduse prin asigurarea că serviciile prestate corespund promisiunilor.

Acestea se asigură prin următoarele căi:

- implicarea personalului operațional atunci când sunt lansate noi programe promoționale sau în cazul contactelor „față în față”;
- asigurarea că materialele informative elaborate de instituția de învățământ reflectă, cu acuratețe, acele trăsături caracteristice care sunt esențiale pentru clienți;
- orientarea așteptărilor clienților prin informarea cât mai completă a acestora, într-un mod rezonabil, despre ceea ce este posibil;
- oferirea serviciilor educaționale într-o paletă cât mai diversificată, în funcție de nevoile clienților.

➥ ***Diferențele între așteptările clienților şi perceperea calităţii serviciilor educaționale*** pot fi reduse prin înțelegerea a ceea ce așteaptă clienții de la instituția de învățământ. Aceasta se poate realiza prin investigarea şi analiza așteptărilor clienților externi şi interni şi creşterea interacțiunii dintre manageri şi clienți pentru o mai bună înțelegere.

Dimensionarea celor patru categorii de diferențe se poate realiza prin stabilirea standardelor de calitate a serviciilor educaționale dintr-o instituție de învăţământ. Acesta este punctul de unde începe calitatea serviciilor educaționale pentru clienți.

3. Managementul educaţional

Managementul educaţional, deşi este obiectul unor controverse, poate fi definit ca ştiinţa şi arta de a pregăti resursele umane, de a forma personalităţi, potrivit unor finalităţi acceptate de societate, comunitate, indivizi. El cuprinde un ansamblu de principii şi funcţii, de norme şi metode de conducere care asigură realizarea obiectivelor sistemului educativ (Jinga și Istrate,1998, pp.408-409).

Elementele definitorii ale managementului educaţional pot fi sintetizate astfel:

- prezintă un complex de acţiuni concepute şi aplicate pentru a asigura funcţionarea optimă a sistemului educaţional şi a procesului de învăţământ;
- utilizează optim resursele umane (cadre didactice, elevi), materiale, ecomomice, didactice, informaţionale, ergonomice, temporale;
- se bazează pe participarea unor factori (care ţin de şcoală, de comunitate sau de sistemul social), pe descentralizarea, pe creativitate acţională şi depăşeşte conducerea empirică(de tipul *văzând şi făcând)*, bazată pe bunul–simţ sau pe simpla imitare a unor modele ori experienţe similare;
- îmbină aspectul teoretic (concepte, metode de abordare, ipoteze, corelaţii) cu cel metodologic (în acumularea şi procesarea informaţiilor necesare, în realizarea activităţilor specifice), cu cel tehnologic (de rezolvare concretă a diferitelor situaţii, procedee, operaţii, etape, mijloace) şi de practică managerială.

Indiferent de domeniul în care activează (fie cel comercial şi al afacerilor, fie cel al serviciilor educaţionale sau al asistenţei şi serviciilor sociale), managerul trebuie să stabilească obiective, să selecteze modalităţi de atingere a acestora, să caute resursele necesare, să selecteze şi să pregătească personalul, să formeze echipe de lucru cu anumite competenţe, să elaboreze mecanisme pentru monitorizarea şi coordonarea activităţilor, să evalueze rezultatele şi să procedeze la schimbările necesare în anumite momente.

Unele abordări mai moderne înlocuiesc funcţia de coordonare cu funcţia care vizează managementul resurselor umane (selecţia, pregătirea, antrenarea şi motivarea personalului), poziţie care este cu atât mai importantă în contextul managementului serviciilor educaţionale, ce presupune preponderent interacţiuni cu diverse categorii de persoane care au aşteptări, interese şi cerinţe foarte diversificate.

Orice instituţie sau organizaţie care oferă servicii educaţionale este inclusă într-un mediu specific, care influenţează şi condiţionează procesul managerial.Într-o perspectivă generală, acest mediu prezintă câteva coordonate centrale (Rainey,1997, p.95):

- *condiţii tehnologice:* infrastructură, nivelul de cunoştinţe şi capacităţi ştiinţifice, comunicaţii, facilităţi de trasport, echipamente etc.;
- *condiţii juridice:* legi, norme, valori, reglementări caracteristice privind funcţionarea instituţiilor de specialitate etc.;
- *condiţii politice:* tipurile de politici educaţionale şi sociale, caracteristici ale acestora, interesul instituţiilor politice, gradul de stabilitate politică etc.;
- *condiţii economice:* nivelul de trai al populaţiei, venitul pentru diferite categorii sociale şi profesionale, inflaţia, fiscalitatea, dinamica pieţei de muncă etc.;
- *condiţii demografice:* rata natalităţii, fenomenul migraţiei, caracteristici ale populaţiei, precum vârsta, sexul, rasa, religia, etnia, natalitatea etc.;
- *condiţii ecologice:* caracteristici ale mediului ambiant, gradul de poluare, resursele naturale, caracteristici geografice ale zonei etc.;
- *condiţii culturale:* valori predominante, atitudini, tradiţii,convingeri, cutume, procese de socializare privitoare la elemente precum structura familiei, practici politice, practici religioase.

Toate aceste condiţii au o influenţă importanţă asupra organizaţiilor; spre exemplu, dezvoltările tehnologice pot da naştere unor noi forme sau tipuri de servicii, care vor fi nevoite să ţină pasul cu evoluţia informaticii şi a mijloacelor moderne de comunicare; evoluţiile demografice pot avea un impact deosebit, în special în ceea ce priveşte tipul şi numărul beneficiarilor ; nivelul economic influenţează accesul beneficiarilor la anumite tipuri de servicii şi creşterea calităţii acestora. Altfel spus, nicio organizaţie nu poate neglija contextul în care îşi desfăşoară activitatea, fără riscul de a-şi diminua gradul de realizare a obiectivelor.

Managementul serviciilor educaţionale poate fi abordat din cel puţin două perspective:

- o perspectivă generală, integrată managementului serviciilor sociale (pot fi incluse, spre exemplu, serviciile educaţionale, serviciile medicale, serviciile de asistenţă socială, serviciile de recuperare şi terapie din centrele de zi, serviciile de consiliere etc.);
- o perspectivă restrânsă, ca un proces de organizare şi conducere a unor activităţi specifice, adresate unei populaţii-ţintă sau unor beneficiari bine precizaţi (managementul unei şcoli, managementul unui program pentru educaţia adulţilor, managementul de la nivelul unei clase de elevi etc.).

O caracteristică a instituţiilor şi organizaţiilor care oferă programe educationale constă în caracterul eterogen al serviciilor şi specializărilor în rândul personalului. Uneori, această eterogenitate îşi poate pune amprenta în mod negativ asupra calităţii serviciilor oferite; de aceea, un management de succes poate însemna şi armonizarea tuturor poziţiilor /diferenţelor care decurg din această eterogenitate.

Având în vedere această premisă, managementul serviciilor educaţionale presupune abordarea prioritară a trei direcţii:

- *managementul politicilor instituţionale* - identificarea nevoilor, analiza opţiunilor, selectarea programelor, criterii de alocare a resurselor etc.;
- *managementul resurselor* - stabilirea sistemelor de suport, precum realizarea bugetelor, managementul financiar, asigurarea aprovizionării şi managementul personalului;

În mod ideal, toate resursele ar trebui să fie în legătură cu planurile unei organizaţii, evaluarea programelor şi a activităţilor subscrise ar trebui să determine viitorului organizaţiei. De aceea, bugetul este considerat drept reprezentarea financiară a intenţiilor unei organizaţii. Prin intermediul bugetului, o organizaţie şcolară poate decide cum îşi va aloca resursele în vederea atingerii obiectivelor organizaţiei. Bugetul trebuie să reprezinte un plan pentru direcţionarea tuturor resurselor aflate la dispoziţia organizaţiei: timp, resurse umane, resurse fizice – nu doar a resurselor financiare

- *managementul programelor* - implementarea strategiilor sau operaţiilor curente ale organizaţiilor de-a lungul unor linii funcţionale sau cicluri de pregătire.

Ca şi în alte domenii, şi în domeniul serviciilor educaţionale se poate vorbi de o ierarhizare a nivelurilor managementului. Astfel, în literatura de specialitate (Kinard, 1988, pp.101-104) se vorbeşte de:

- *managementul de vârf* (top management) - vizează elaborarea politicilor educaţionale, luarea deciziilor importante şi elaborarea strategiilor pe termen lung şi mediu la nivelul sistemului de învăţământ.În cazul serviciilor educaţionale, managementul de vârf se identifică la nivelul ministerelor şi al factorilor decizionali din cadrul marilor structuri organizatorice, dacă ne referim la sistemul de învăţământ în ansamblu, sau la nivelul bordului directorilor (*board of directors)*, al consiliului de administraţie sau consiliului executiv, dacă ne referim la o instituţie sau organizaţie;

- *managementul intermediar/de mijloc* – vizează conducerea structurilor medii, implementarea deciziilor de tip strategic şi elaborarea planurilor pe termen mediu;
- *managementul de linie, operativ / de supervizare* – se referă la organizarea şi la monitorizarea efectivă a activităţilor efectuate de personalul din subordine pentru atingerea finalităţilor din planurile / programele de dezvoltare instituţională / organizaţională. De regulă, la acest nivel planurile sunt elaborate pe termen scurt, în conformitate cu strategia generală elaborată la nivelurile superioare ale managementului.

Managementul performanței, acolo unde este introdus corect, poate fi un factor semnificativ ce contribuie la succesul organizaiei. Dacă este utilizat incorect, acesta poate conduce la resentimente şi frustrări, punctul de plecare al eşecului multor organizaţii.

Majoritatea managerilor consideră că precizarea obiectivelor performanţei, identificarea problemelor care au condus la scăderea randamentului reprezintă atribuţiile responsabililor cu resursele umane**.**

Activitatea managerială, indiferent de nivelul la care se desfăşoară, reclamă diferite calităţi. Cele mai importante abilităţi sau calităţi ale unui manager profesionist pot fi sintetizate astfel:

- abilitatea de a folosi cunoştinţele, tehnicile şi resursele disponibile în rezolvarea problemelor;
- abilitatea de a identifica factorii-cheie şi de a înţelege relaţiile de interdependenţă dintre ei, pentru a diagnostica şi evalua problemele şi situaţiile cu care se confruntă;
- capacitatea de a lua decizii şi de a-şi asuma riscuri;
- capacitatea de a utiliza echipamente informatice şi softuri adecvate activităţii manageriale;
- abilitatea de a comunica, de a lucra cu oamenii şi de a-i înţelege;
- abilitatea de a vedea organizaţia în toată complexitatea ei şi de a sesiza relaţiile şi raporturile dintre subsistemele componente.

Noile abordări ale managementului serviciilor educaţionale prezintă o serie de trăsături comune, care se focalizează asupra unor elemente cum ar fi:

- *cultura organizaţională;*
- *misiunea organizaţiei/ instituţiei;*
- *clarificarea obiectivelor;*
- *orientarea către beneficiar;*
- *obţinerea unei calităţi superioare a serviciilor oferite;*
- *implicarea tuturor factorilor în procesul de adoptare a deciziilor.*

În acelaşi timp, managementul educaţional presupune interpretarea unor roluri specifice care pot fi grupate în cel puţin trei categorii (Mintzberg, 1973, pp.153-154):

➢ **Roluri interpersonale –** rezultă din autoritatea formală a managerului şi vizează relaţiile interpersonale şi interacţiunea cu ceilalţi.În această categorie putem include, spre exemplu:

- *Rolul de reprezentare* (promoţional), care nu implică luarea de decizii, presupune interacţiuni cu proprii subordonaţi şi nu numai: managerul reprezintă organizaţia în relaţiile cu partenerii, cu managerii situaţi pe acelaşi nivel sau pe alte niveluri ierarhice, în cadrul unor reuniuni oficiale sau atunci când, în numele organizaţiei, exercită o acţiune (de exemplu, înmânarea unor premii anuale, a unor distincţii etc.)
- *Rolul de conducere*- defineşte relaţia dintre lider şi subalterni şi presupune direcţionarea şi coordonarea activităţii subordonaţilor (angajare, promovare, concediere); managerul ghidează şi motivează subordonaţii;

- *Rolul de legătură* – cu diferite structuri sau departamente ale organizaţiei sau între organizaţie şi comunitatea externă acesteia - managerul cunoaşte colaboratorii şi stabileşte relaţii interpersonale cu aceştia.

➢ **Roluri informaţionale -** sunt legate de gestionarea şi prelucrarea informaţiilor şi plasează managerul în punctul central de primire şi transmitere a informaţiilor. Primele trei roluri i-au permis managerului să construiască o reţea de relaţii interumane, care îl ajută în culegerea şi receptarea informaţiilor ca un monitor şi în transmitertea lor, atât ca un diseminator, cât şi ca un "purtător de cuvânt". Din această categorie putem exemplifica:

- *Rolul de monitor* - implică examinarea mediului în organizarea culegerii informaţiilor, vizând schimburile, oportunităţile şi problemele care pot să afecteze firma; managerul unei organizaţii receptează informaţiile relevante din mediul intern şi extern al organizaţiei şi încearcă să fie în permanenţă la curent cu ce se întâmplă în cadrul structurilor organizaţiei;
- *Rolul de diseminator* - managerul analizează, demultiplică şi transmite informaţii către organizaţie sau în interiorul acesteia, de la un nivel de organizare la altul;
- *Rolul de " purtător de cuvânt"*- atunci când reprezintă organizaţia în diferite medii sau instanţe oficiale, vorbeşte în numele organizaţiei şi transmite informaţii relevante în interiorul organizaţiei.

➢ **Roluri decizionale** – implică, în principal, adoptarea de soluţii cu relevanţă asupra funcţionării organizaţiei. Rolurile prinvind relaţiile interpersonale şi cele de culegere şi transmitere a informaţiilor servesc ca intrări în procesul de luare a deciziilor**.** În această categorie putem identifica următoarele tipuri:

- *Rolul de întreprinzător/administrator/antreprenor* - presupune iniţierea schimbării, selecţia strategiilor şi obiectivelor, managementul schimbării, inovare şi gândire creativă: managerul gestionează problemele organizaţiei şi propune strategii şi mijloace de rezolvare a acestora;
- *Rolul de moderator* - factor stabilizator/ de soluţionare a perturbărilor - îi revine managerului atunci când acesta este obligat să ia decizii rapide în momentul în care, din cauza unor factori perturbatori, organizaţia pe care o conduce iese din starea de echilibru/stabilitate.
- *Rolul de distribuitor sau alocare a resurselor în cadrul organizaţiei* - managerul repartizează sau distribuie în mod eficient către diferite sectoare;
- *Rolul de negociator* - este întâlnit în situaţiile care impun alegerea în grup a unei decizii optime dintr-o serie de alternative sau când se impune stabilirea unui punct de vedere comun între diferitele structuri, departamente ale organizaţiei.

4. Concluzii

Managementul educaţional autentic vine să susţină, să stimuleze prin toate mijloacele şi căile posibile democratizarea învatamântului, în esenţa sa, cu referire la conţinut, structură, proces, ceea ce implică, în mod firesc, democratizarea însăşi a conducerii învăţământului, a tuturor structurilor sale ierarhice, aplicarea metodelor, tehnicilor şi instrumentelor, precum şi a practicilor manageriale moderne.

Nivelul de calitate al managementului este decisiv pentru atingerea obiectivelor scontate, pentru realizarea performanței sau, mai nou, a excelenţei, în oricare tip de acţiune colectivă, indiferent de organizaţia dată. Neglijarea implementării unui management performant, de înaltă calitate, generează o bună parte din eşecurile organizaţiilor.

Adoptarea unui set de standarde clare (precizate), concise, observabile (măsurabile) şi realiste (practice, posibil de îndeplinit) constituie condiția esențială a asigurării calităţii serviciilor educaționale.

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SMALL AND MEDIUM ENTERPRISES. DEVELOPMENT TRENDS

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Abstract. *In this publication the author describes a brief history of the business and analyzing the situation in the SME segment of Moldavian business, identify problems and propose some solutions. The economic development of society largely depends of economic successes of the business units on and the entities' development depend on of business environment existing in the country (favorable or unfavorable).*

Keywords: *small and medium enterprises, entrepreneur, microeconomic, sales revenue, profits, losses, profitability, analyses of economic development, business.*
JEL Classification*: M21, L26.*

1. Introduction

Entrepreneurship has begun to be recognized during the French monarch Louis XIV, who used to say that "the bourgeoisie will become artisans and craftsmen wealth". Over time several institutions whose primary activity was the study of the environment and entrepreneurial behavior, defined: "An entrepreneur is a person who, based on terms and conditions of contract, undertakes to provide for another person or organization, various works and services in return of predetermined recompense".

As a topic of discussion and analysis, entrepreneurship, was introduced by economists in the eighteenth century and has continued to attract the interest of economists in the nineteenth century. Contract whereby the contractor undertakes to execute a beneficiary project is called works contract. In the modern sense of the market economy, the entrepreneur is a trader who adopts an active attitude, is an innovator, who accepts financial risks to develop new projects and make contribution to the development of entrepreneurial environment with influence on macroeconomic indicators.

2. Results and discussions

In order to determine the efficiency of use of inputs and emphasizing rationality of economic activity, it is necessary to quantify and measure outcomes, both at micro and mezzo and macro level. If the results of microeconomic highlights the work done by various economic agents at the level of economic, then mezzo results relate to the work at the branch and the administrative-territorial areas.

Macroeconomic outcomes (the national economy) is the aggregate outputs of economic activities, which the market validate and analyze their evolution knowledge and has great practical significance. Thus, for economic, macroeconomic results are the starting point in making decisions regarding the future direction of attraction and use of inputs, establishment size, structure and quality of supply and demand for economic goods.

Moldova has too modest success in the formation of a solid institutional framework with the purpose of stimulating economic growth. This explains the slow promotion of reforms aimed at creating favorable conditions for business. It should be stressed that, against an overall recovery in the domestic economy continues to be affected by the process of industrialization. While economic recovery has not been accompanied by the creation of more jobs, so people continued to emigrate and the conditions in which the employment rate of labor is extremely low - less than 40%. Finally, even after the

consequences of the global economic recovery has not been accompanied by adequate promotion of structural reforms.

Along the way, however, the government's efforts were directed to institutional capacity building and create conditions for development in three development regions - North, Centre and South. Until 2019 regional development activities as planned activities will be focused in other regions - Gagauzia, mun. Chisinau and Transdniester development region. Regional development objectives are ambitious and seeks a balanced socio-economic development and sustainable throughout the country. But to what extent these objectives will take effect at the regional level and finally to the national level, remains to be determined while, in the meantime have not achieved much.

Economic activity in an uncertain and unpredictable environment made very difficult reorientation of the national economy from one based on the consumer-oriented investments and exports. Currently the domestic economy is in a difficult situation that is worsening still being exposed to any economic downturn in both the EU and the CIS. But still, there are prerequisites that the situation of profound crisis will not repeat.

Developments in recent years certainly demonstrate that the real reforms needed by the country consist of the following: judiciary reform (including the premise key to reducing corruption), decentralization, reform of subsidy policy in agriculture, strengthen of internal and external control over public finances, reform of central public administration(including increase of absorption capacities of central and judicious exploitation of public investment).

The actually are government actions to eliminate critical constraints in the way of business, which according to Doing Business ranking of the World Bank provides about 90 legislative measures and regulations and includes a series of actions in key areas of policy, with direct impact on business: tax administration, trade border and customs administration, competition, access to finance, effective and credible justice etc.

The main generator of new jobs and economic growth in a society is the small and medium enterprises (SMEs). This sector is the engine of the market economy and underpins the creation and development of a modern and dynamic knowledge driven. Emphasis must be placed on state policy issues related to the work of small businesses, because they reflect a steady increase in the segment due to both improve the business environment and improving the regulatory framework related to entrepreneurship. This condition assessment of all initiatives from the perspective of small businesses and ensuring the continuous development of SME priority.

During the implementation of market relations, the role of the SME sector is determined not only by the economic structure of the types of activity has a high share what actually prefer small, but the existence of human resources remaining without a job, unused machinery, raw materials that could be used optimally in small business. Thus, the SME sector is of particular importance for national economic development.

The indicator SME share in GDP varies significantly in different countries. EU SME sector generates 58.4% of GDP in the US - 43.4%, i.e. the middle class in the West is considered the locomotive of an efficient economy. In Moldova, however, declares that this category is the least protected and supported by the state. Strengthening SME segment, which would be the surest way towards the goal of establishing a middle class continues to remain still in theory, despite many projects and strategies launched.

SME Sector Development Strategy for 2012-2020 provides the framework for the medium and long term policy development entities micro, small and medium enterprises in the context of transition from economic development model based on a new paradigm consumer-oriented exports, investment and innovations, the political desire for European integration and global economic trends. During this period the state should support the

development of SME segment with 941 million lei. The number of enterprises is expected to be increased to 25 units per 1,000 inhabitants, its employees by 10%, reaching a potential 38% GDP.

State orientation towards a new paradigm and the challenges still need to improve the global environment determines the framework for support of SMEs in order to increase competitiveness based on innovation and export potential recovery. SME development should be instrumental in streamlining the production factors, because they are more flexible and open to innovation. However, the capacity of SMEs to cope European competitiveness is still limited. In these circumstances, the participation of SMEs in competition on the international market should be intensified.

Evolution of SME activity in 2015 indicates the increasing average size of enterprises in the sector. The average income of an enterprise sales amounted 1.74 mln. lei or by 80.0 thousand lei (4.8%) more than in 2014, while the average per capita employee has made 308.5 thousand lei, by 14.4 thousand lei (4.9%) increase.

The share of SMEs in total enterprises remains stable at 97%. A share of employees increased from 31% to 57% and sales revenue - from 26% to 32%. Progress has been made to adjust the legislation to facilitate doing business, but they proved to be only limited improvements to the quality of the business climate.

During 2005-2015, the increase by 52.8% of number of SMEs occurred mostly due to the formation of new businesses. In the 49.800 thousand SMEs, which in 2015 held a share of 97.2% of all enterprises were 281.4 thousand salaried persons (55.1% of the total economy). It must however be mentioned that in 2015 the number of employees in the SME sector was 46.7 thousand (14.2%) below the level of before the crisis (2008), and this characterizes the poor state of the national economy and rising unemployment. In the SME sector, almost 20 thousand business units (39.8%) worked in trade.

In 2015 "sales revenue" (the main economic indicator) of SMEs totaled 86.82 bln. Lei, or 30.8% of the total economy. Compared to the previous year this index performed up 3.3 billion lei. The last decade has increased by 3.5 times (Table no. 1).

Table no. 1. Evolution of the main indicators of economic activity units

	Number of economic units (thousands)			Number of employees (thousands)			Sales revenue (MDL mld.)			Profit (+) loss (-) before tax (MDL mld.)		
	Total	MEs	SMEs	Total	MEs	MEs	Total	MEs	MEs	otal	MEs	SMEs
2001	22.9	20.5	89.5	514.6	123.7	24.0	41.9	10.8	0, 0	-0.76	-0.3	-39.0
2005	33.1	32.6	98.5	578.0	179.7	31.1	97.6	24.9	25.6	3.80	1.29	33.9
2008	41.1	40.1	97.6	572.1	328.1	57.3	175.1	65.0	37.1	15.55	5.48	35.2
2009	44.6	43.7	97.8	539.2	316.2	58.7	146.5	57.5	39.2	3.66	2.24	61.2
2010	46.7	45.6	97.7	526.2	309.4	58.8	177.5	65.3	36.8	13.18	5.46	41.4
2011	48.5	47.3	97.5	510.2	294.2	57.7	207.7	71.9	34.6	14.43	5.18	35.9
2012	50.7	49.4	97.4	519.9	300.2	57.7	211.8	73.06	34.5	4.71	1.08	22.9
2013	52.9	50.9	97.4	524.5	298.4	56.9	231.6	77.41	33.4	4.13	2.01	48.7
2014	51.7	50.3	97.3	510.8	284.0	55.6	263.1	83.52	31.8	3.66	3.01	82.2
2015	51.2	49.8	97.2	510.3	281.4	55.1	282.2	86.82	30.8	3.50	3.04	86.9

Source: National Bureau of Statistics and the National Commission of Financial Market

Study on key indicators of SME activity in territorial economic areas indicates the conclusion that substantial is concentrated in mun. Chisinau, where during 2015 have enabled 32 300 business units or 64.9% of SMEs in the country, with a number of employees 151 thousand (53.6%), ensuring a volume of sales revenue of 55.06 billion. lei

(63.4%) and a profit of 2.14 bln. lei (70.4 %). By the business results and the size of the main indicators, follows SMEs in the North, Centre and South then, in the Gagauzia (Table no. 2).

Table no. 2. Main indicators of activity in territorial SMEs, 2015 year

	Number of SMEs		Number of employees		Sales revenue		Profit prior to taxation.	
	thousand units	Share,%	thousand	Share, %	bln.lei	Share, %	mln	Share,%
total SMEs	49.8	100.0	281.4	100.0	86.82	100.0	3037.6	100.0
mun.Chisinau	32.3	64.9	150.9	53.6	55,06	63.4	2139.4	70.4
Reg. North	6.1	12.2	49.7	17.7	12.23	14.2	406.1	13.4
Reg. Center	7.4	15.1	47.8	17.0	12.02	13.8	188.4	6.2
Reg. South	2.6	5.2	23.0	8.2	5.14	5.9	232.0	7.6
UTA Găgăuză	1.3	2.6	9, 9	3.5	2.38	2.7	71.6	2.4

Source: National Bureau of Statistics

In 2015 the prevailing economic activity results by groups of economic units in the SME sector was maintained by "small" in which they have worked 115 100 people (40.9%), obtaining an income 46.84 bln. lei (53.9%) and a profit of 1.88 bln. lei or 61.7% of the SMEs. Enterprise group "medium" business results achieved with revenues of 28.71 billion. lei (35.1%) and profit of 1.03 bln. lei (33.9%) was classified in second gear and the "micro" - the third step (Table no. 3).

Table no. 3. Main indicators of economic units SME groups, 2015 year

	Number of SMEs		Number of employees		Sales revenue		Profit prior to taxation	
	Thousands joined	% Of total SMEs	thou.	% Of total SMEs	bln.lei	% Of total SMEs	mln	% Of total SMEs
Total SMEs, of which	49.8	100.0	281.4	100.0	86.82	100.0	3037.6	100.0
-medium	1.6	3.2	82.4	29.3	28.71	33.1	1028.8	33.9
-small	10.0	20.1	115.1	40.9	46.84	53.9	1875.8	61.7
-micro	38.2	76.7	83.9	29.8	11.28	13.0	132.9	4.4

Source: Data provided by the National Statistics Bureau

In 2015 the main units from the SME (about 19 800 companies, or 39.8%) have worked in the trade. In manufacturing have enabled thousands of businesses only 4.2 or 8.5%. Here is the number of SMEs on basic kinds of activity during post-crisis shows that, despite the consequences of the crisis, which has left traces harmful to the national economy, however, the number of enterprises had some stability in most main areas of activity, although lately looming slight changes in this respect.

In the chapter "sales revenue" related types of activity in 2015 compared to 2014, key indicators of the SME sector situation has improved in most areas. However, in some industries, sales revenue declined compared to those obtained in previous year. Overall, however, the rate of increase of 4.0% registered by 3.9 percentage points below the level obtained in the growth rate of 2014 to 2013 (Table no. 4).

Table no. 4. The volume and share of revenue from sales to SMEs by type of activity, bln. lei

	Informative, 2013			2014			2015		
	Total per economy	SMEs	SME%	Total per economy	SMEs	SME%	Total per economy	SMEs	SME%
Total, including:	231.60	77.41	100.0	263.09	83.52	100.0	282.25	86.82	100.0
Agriculture, forestry	8.93	6.16	8.0	10.75	7.07	8.5	11.84	7.84	9.0
Processing industry	37.14	9.64	12.5	39.57	9.74	11.7	43.13	10.0	11.5
Electricity, gas and water	19.40	0.24	0.3	21.22	0.45	0.5	25.58	0.43	0.5
Construction	10.57	6.11	7.9	13.78	7.16	8.6	15.06	6.86	7.9
wholesale and retail trade	107.91	36.33	46.9	124.93	38.2	45.7	127.84	39.23	45.2
Accommodation and catering	2.00	1.48	1.9	2.56	1.63	2.0	2.49	1.76	2.0
Transportation and communications	21.27	7.70	9.9	25.29	8.95	10.7	27.97	9.37	10.8
Real estate transactions	2.91	5.94	7 7	2.79	1.61	1.9	3.80	2.08	2.4
Other activities	21.46	3.81	4.9	22.21	8.70	10.4	24.55	9.27	10.7

Source: National Bureau of Statistics and the National Commission of Financial Market

SME financial results obtained in 2015 from all activities shows that profit before tax recorded increased a slight compared to 2014, representing 3.04 bln. lei, or by 25.6 mil. lei (0.8%). The study in groups and types of activity indicates that the most significant financial results were achieved by SMEs in the wholesale and retail profit 895.0 mln. lei, by 155.5 mln. lei (22.7 %) more than those obtained in previous year. Also the units in the transport and communications have made a profit of 537.4 million in volume. lei, achieving an increase of 2.9 times. At the same time SMEs in agriculture, hunting and forestry recorded profit of only 328.5 mln. lei (47.9%) compared to that achieved in 2014 - a significant drop which influenced significantly the financial situation in the SME segment.

State undertakes efforts to support small business, always welcome, but most SMEs in the country manifested trade-related activities and non-innovative services. This requires the need to optimize the procedures for starting and closing businesses, to carry out the reform of the single desk promising. Therefore, concentration of innovative and growth-oriented SMEs can unlock positive economic growth and the improvement of legislation and support innovative business segment will unlock the whole course.

The national economy has a low level of competitiveness in Europe, especially in the context of attracted investments, the lack of a transparent legal framework. This suggests that the concern should be to increase the gross added value and economic productivity. Otherwise (development, specialization, quality improvement) should not be a scope but a tool for raising efficiency and competitiveness of other sectors.

All business units must have equal access to aid programs, and the selection criteria should be transparent, non-discriminatory and based solely on economic reasons and not political aspects. It is necessary to promote consistent reforms and support those companies that demonstrate efficiency and vision. There is however hope that by accelerating structural reforms, economic recovery in recent years can be amplified. A more dynamic economy, involves promoting effective coordination of policies in the social, fiscal, monetary, commercial and industrial fields.

The process of developing of the SME segment should be instrumental in streamlining the production factors, because they are more flexible usually and open to innovation. It is important that these policies should not be based on discrimination between SMEs and large enterprises, so enterprises can become large units and on the

other - to ensure that SMEs are not willing to develop large enterprises. Any SME needs a business-friendly environment, a stable macroeconomic policy framework and a good public infrastructure and decent attitude of the state, conditions that could encourage business development.

The paramount objectives to stabilize a favorable business environment and national economic recovery, such as rehabilitating infrastructure, promoting exports, creating jobs and an attractive investment environment; and strengthening small and medium business is one of the key elements that will necessarily contribute to economic growth, reduce unemployment and obvious - poverty.

Cheap and relatively qualified workforce, however, presents a competitive advantage of the country, but for sustainable development of the economy this advantage is not primordial. In the difficult economic situation, it becomes increasingly necessary a constructive relationship with the IMF - a precondition for ensuring macroeconomic stability, a clear signal to strengthen the credibility of Moldova abroad, with positive effect on investment activity - a perspective strictly necessary to re-launch and advance the national economy.

Stimulating of the investment flow has been and remains an important factor for the national economy. A larger volume of public investment, private and foreign would solve partially overcome the technological and productivity gap that still separates our country from the region. In this regard, the EU institutions have declared their support for further initiated reforms.

One of the key issues, targeting weaknesses in developing and implementing effective and appropriate mechanisms to implement strategies and stipulation of the regulatory framework for entrenched corruption in virtually all sectors of the economy, hinder the development and equitable application of the established rules. But with the development of institutional infrastructure and regional advisory services will be reduced business risk, will be facilitated market access and accelerated the growth and development of SMEs. However, there are risks widening the gap so pronounced between the capital and the remaining territory, as economic activity, cultural and scientific tends to concentrate in regions with more developed infrastructure and high quality of life, and this will affect the overall development of the country.

3. Conclusions

So barriers in the business should be liquidated, and create the best business environment in Europe, it would really be a primary objective. The prospect of EU economic area, the trade advantages of free trade, national economy should benefit the most. Public policies must aim at making the domestic economy in harnessing global developments, despite some major risks across the long-term economic growth. Requires encouraging the use of modern technologies of energy conservation, energy production from waste, wind generators and solar installation, promote environmentally-safe solutions in the livestock sector etc.

However, according to the latest annual report 2016 of the World Bank "Doing Business" Republic of Moldova was situated on 44th place from 190, climbing eight positions compared to 2015 in the business world rankings. This appreciation for Moldova shows that activity in the business conditions becomes more favorable.

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BUSINESSUL MIC ŞI MIJLOCIU. TENDINŢE DE DEZVOLTARE

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Rezumat: *În această publicaţie autorul descrie un scurt istoric al mediului de afaceri şi analizează situaţia din segmentul ÎMM al businessului moldovenesc, identifică problemele existente şi propune unele soluţii. De succesele activităţii unităţilor economice, în mare măsură, depinde însăşi nivelul de dezvoltare economică a societăţii, iar nivelul dezvoltării entităţilor depind la rândul lor de mediul de afaceri existent în ţară (favorabil ori nefavorabil).*

Cuvinte-cheie: *întreprinderi mici şi mijlocii, antreprenoriat, microeconomic, macroeconomic, venit din vânzări, profit, pierderi, rentabilitate.*
Clasificare JEL*: M21, L26.*

1. Introducere

Antreprenoriatul a început să fie recunoscut în timpul monarhului francez Ludovic al XIV-lea, care obișnuia să afirme că „burghezii și meșteșugarii vor deveni artizanii bogăției”. De-a lungul timpului, mai multe instituții, având ca principală activitate studierea mediului și a comportamentului antreprenorial, au definit: „Un antreprenor este o persoană care, pe baza unor clauze și condiții contractuale, se obligă să presteze în favoarea altei persoane sau organizații, diverse lucrări și servicii, în schimbul unei recompense dinainte stabilite”.

Ca subiect de discuție și analiză, antreprenoriatul a fost introdus de economiști în secolul al XVIII-lea și a continuat să atragă interesul economiștilor în secolul al XIX-lea. Contractul prin care antreprenorul se obligă față de beneficiar să execute un anumit proiect se numește contract de antrepriză. În sensul modern al economiei de piață, antreprenorul reprezintă un agent economic care adoptă un comportament activ, novator, acceptă riscuri financiare pentru a dezvolta proiecte noi și aduce aport la evoluția mediului antreprenorial cu influența sa asupra indicatorilor macroeconomici.

2. Rezultate şi discuţii

În scopul determinării eficienţei utilizării factorilor productivi şi evidenţierii raţionalităţii activităţii economice, este necesară cuantificarea şi măsurarea rezultatelor obţinute, atât la nivel microeconomic, cât şi la nivel mezoeconomic şi macroeconomic. Dacă rezultatele microeconomice reliefează activitatea desfăşurată de diferiţi agenţi economici la nivelul unităţilor economice, apoi rezultatele mezoeconomice se referă la activitatea desfăşurată la nivelul ramural şi la nivelul zonelor teritorial-administrative.

Rezultatele macroeconomice (la nivelul economiei naţionale) reprezintă ieşirile din activităţile agenţilor economici agregaţi, pe care piaţa le validează, iar cunoaşterea şi analiza evoluţiei lor are o semnificaţie practică deosebită. Astfel, pentru agenţii economici, rezultatele macroeconomice constituie punctul de plecare la luarea deciziilor privind orientarea viitoare a atragerii şi utilizării factorilor de producţie, stabilirea dimensiunii, structurii şi calităţii ofertei şi cererii de bunuri economice.

Moldova are prea modeste succese la capitolul care priveşte formarea unui cadru instituţional solid, cu destinaţia stimulării creşterii economice. Prin aceasta se explică şi promovarea lentă a reformelor orientate spre crearea condiţiilor favorabile pentru mediul de afaceri. Trebuie de accentuat că, pe fundalul unei reveniri generale, economia naţională

continuă să fie afectată de procesul de dezindustrializare. Totodată, recuperarea economică nu a fost însoţită de multiplicarea locurilor de muncă; astfel, populaţia a continuat să emigreze şi aceasta în condiţiile în care rata de ocupare a forţei de muncă este extrem de joasă - mai puţin de 40%. Nici revenirea economică după consecinţele crizei nu a fost însoţită de o promovare adecvată a reformelor structurale.

Pe parcurs, totuşi, eforturile Guvernului au fost direcţionate spre consolidarea capacităţilor instituţionale şi crearea condiţiilor de dezvoltare în cadrul a trei regiuni de dezvoltare – Nord, Centru şi Sud. Până în anul 2019, activităţile de dezvoltare regională, conform planurilor de activitate, vor fi focusate în celelalte regiuni de dezvoltare – UTA Găgăuză, mun. Chişinău şi Regiunea de Dezvoltare Transnistria. Obiectivele de dezvoltare regională sunt ambiţioase şi vizează obţinerea unei dezvoltări social-economice echilibrate şi durabile pe întreg teritoriul ţării. Însă, în ce măsură aceste obiective vor avea efecte la nivel regional şi, în final, la cel naţional, rămâne de apreciat în timp, întrucât nu s-au realizat prea multe.

Activitatea agenţilor economici într-un climat incert şi imprevizibil a făcut deosebit de dificilă reorientarea economiei naţionale de la cea bazată pe consum la cea orientată pe investiţii şi exporturi. În prezent, economia autohtonă se află într-o situaţie dificilă, care se agravează în continuare, fiind expusă la orice recesiune economică atât din UE, cât şi din ţările CSI. Dar, totuşi, există premise că situaţia de criză profundă nu se va repeta.

Evoluţiile din ultimii ani, cu certitudine, demonstrează că adevăratele reforme de care are nevoie Republica Moldova constau în următoarele: reforma justiţiei (inclusiv ca premisă-cheie pentru reducerea corupţiei), descentralizarea, reforma politicii de subvenţionare în agricultură, consolidarea controlului intern şi extern asupra finanţelor publice, reforma administraţiei publice centrale (inclusiv pentru sporirea capacităţilor autorităţilor centrale de absorbţie şi valorificare judicioasă a investiţiilor publice).

Actuale sunt acţiunile Guvernului pentru eliminarea constrângerilor critice în calea afacerilor, care, conform clasamentului Doing Business al BM, prevede circa 90 de măsuri legislative şi normative şi include o serie de acţiuni în domenii-cheie de politici, cu impact direct asupra businessului: administrarea fiscală, comerţul transfrontalier şi administrarea vamală, concurenţa, accesul la finanţare, justiţie eficientă şi credibilă etc.

Generatorul principal de noi locuri de muncă şi de creştere economică într-o societate o reprezintă întreprinderile mici şi mijlocii (ÎMM). Acest sector este motorul economiei de piaţă şi stă la baza creării şi dezvoltării unei economii moderne şi dinamice, axate pe cunoştinţe. Accentul politicilor de stat trebuie pus pe problemele ce ţin de activitatea micilor întreprinderi, fiindcă ele reflectă o creştere stabilă a segmentului, atât datorită îmbunătăţirii mediului de afaceri, cât şi perfecţionării cadrului regulator ce ţine de activitatea antreprenorială. Aceasta condiţionează evaluarea tuturor iniţiativelor din perspectiva afacerilor mici şi garantarea priorităţii dezvoltării continue a ÎMM.

În perioada implementării relaţiilor de piaţă, rolul sectorului IMM este determinat nu doar de structura economiei, de genul de activitate preferat de întreprinderile mici, ci şi de existenţa resurselor umane rămase fără un loc de muncă, a utilajelor nefolosite, a materiilor prime, care puteau fi utilizate optim în cadrul micului business. Astfel, sectorul IMM reprezintă o importanţă deosebită pentru dezvoltarea economiei naţionale.

Valoarea indicatorului ponderii IMM în PIB variază semnificativ în diferite ţări. În UE, sectorul IMM generează 58,4% din PIB, în SUA – 43,4%. Adică, în Occident, clasa de mijloc se consideră ”locomotiva” unei economii performante. În Republica Moldova, însă, această categorie se declară că este cel mai puţin protejată şi susţinută de stat. Consolidarea segmentului ÎMM, care ar fi cea mai sigură cale spre atingerea obiectivului de constituire a unei clase de mijloc, continuă să rămână încă la nivel teoretic, în pofida multiplelor proiecte şi strategii lansate.

Strategia de dezvoltare a sectorului ÎMM pentru anii 2012-2020 oferă cadrul de politici pe termen mediu şi lung privind dezvoltarea unităţilor economice micro, mici şi mijlocii, în contextul trecerii de la modelul de dezvoltare economică bazat pe consum la o nouă paradigmă, orientată spre exporturi, investiţii şi inovaţii, a dezideratului politic de integrare europeană şi a tendinţelor economice mondiale. În această perioadă, statul urmează să susţină dezvoltarea segmentului IMM cu 941 mil. lei. Numărul IMM se prevede a fi majorat până la 25 de unităţi la 1000 de locuitori, a angajaţilor cu 10%, atingerea unui potenţial de 38% în PIB.

Orientarea statului spre o nouă paradigmă, precum şi provocările mediului global determină, totuşi, necesitatea îmbunătăţirii cadrului de suport al IMM în vederea creşterii competitivităţii, în baza valorificării potenţialului inovativ şi de export. Dezvoltarea sectorului IMM trebuie să aibă un rol esenţial în eficientizarea factorilor de producţie, deoarece acestea sunt mai flexibile şi deschise la inovaţii. Însă, capacitatea IMM de a face faţă competitivităţii la nivel european este încă limitată. În aceste condiţii, participarea IMM în competiţia de pe piaţa internaţională trebuie intensificată.

Evoluţia activităţii ÎMM în anul 2015 ne indică creşterea dimensiunii medii a întreprinderilor din acest sector. Veniturile medii din vânzări pe o întreprindere au ajuns la 1,74 mil. Lei, cu 80,0 mii lei (4,8 %) mai mult faţă de anul 2014, iar cele medii per capita de salariat a alcătuit 308,5 mii lei, cu 14,4 mii lei (4,9 %) în creştere.

Ponderea ÎMM în total întreprinderi se menţine stabil, la nivelul de peste 97%. A crescut cota salariaţilor de la 31% la 57%, iar veniturile din vânzări au crescut de la 26% la 32%. Au fost înregistrate progrese în direcția ajustării legislaţiei pentru facilitarea desfăşurării afacerilor, însă acestea s-au dovedit a fi doar îmbunătăţiri limitate la calitatea climatului de afaceri.

Pe parcursul anilor 2005-2015, majorarea numărului ÎMM cu 52,8% s-a produs, preponderent, din contul formării noilor întreprinderi. În cele 49,8 mii de ÎMM, care în anul 2015 deţineau o pondere de 97,2% din totalul întreprinderilor, erau salarizaţi 281,4 mii persoane (55,1 % din numărul total pe economie). Trebuie, însă, de menţionat că, în anul 2015, numărul angajaţilor în sectorul ÎMM a fost cu 46,7 mii (14,2%) sub nivelul anului de până la criză (2008), iar aceasta caracterizează starea gravă a economiei naţionale şi creşterea şomajului. În sectorul ÎMM, aproape 20 mii unităţi economice (39,8%) activau în domeniul comerţului.

În anul 2015, "Veniturile din vânzări" (indicator economic principal) ale ÎMM au însumat 86,82 mld. lei, ori 30,8 % din total pe economie. Comparativ cu anul precedent, acest indice a evoluat în creştere cu 3,3 mld. lei, iar, în ultimul deceniu, s-a majorat de 3,5 ori (Tabelul nr. 1).

Tabelul nr. 1. Evoluţia principalilor indicatori ai activităţii unităţilor economice

	Numărul de unităţi economice, (mii)			Numărul de salariaţi, (mii)			Venituri din vânzări, (mld. lei)			Profit(+), pierderi(-) până la impozitare, (mld. lei)		
	Total	ÎMM	% ÎMM	Total	ÎMM	% ÎMM	Total	ÎMM	%. ÎMM	Total	ÎMM	% ÎMM
2001	22,9	20,5	89,5	514.6	123.7	24,0	41,9	10,8	0,0	-0,76	-0,3	-39,0
2005	33,1	32,6	98,5	578,0	179,7	31,1	97,6	24,9	25,6	3,80	1,29	33,9
2008	41,1	40,1	97,6	572,1	328,1	57,3	175,1	65,0	37,1	15,55	5,48	35,2
2009	44,6	43,7	97,8	539,2	316,2	58,7	146,5	57,5	39,2	3,66	2,24	61,2
2010	46,7	45,6	97,7	526,2	309,4	58,8	177,5	65,3	36,8	13,18	5,46	41,4
2011	48,5	47,3	97,5	510,2	294,2	57,7	207,7	71,9	34,6	14,43	5,18	35,9

2012	50,7	49,4	97,4	519,9	300,2	57,7	211,8	73,06	34,5	4,71	1,08	22,9
2013	52,9	50,9	97,4	524,5	298,4	56,9	231,6	77,41	33,4	4,13	2,01	48,7
2014	51,7	50,3	97,3	510,8	284,0	55,6	263,1	83,52	31,8	3,66	3,01	82,2
2015	51,2	49,8	97,2	510,3	281,4	55,1	282,2	86,82	30,8	3,50	3,04	86,9

Sursa: Elaborat conform datelor Biroului Naţional de Statistică şi a Comisiei Naţionale a Pieţei Financiare

Studiul asupra indicatorilor principali ai activităţii ÎMM în profil teritorial pe zone economice indică la concluzia că partea preponderentă este concentrată în mun. Chişinău, unde pe parcursul anului 2015 au activat 32,3 mii unităţi economice ori 64,9% din totalul ÎMM pe ţară, cu un număr de angajaţi de 151 mii persoane (53,6%), asigurând un volum de venituri din vânzări de 55,06 mld. lei (63,4%) şi un profit de 2,14 mld. lei (70,4 %). După rezultatele economice şi mărimea indicatorilor principali, urmează ÎMM din regiunea Nord, apoi din Centru şi din Sud, după care din UTA Găgăuză (Tabelul nr. 2).

Tabelul nr. 2. Indicatorii principali ai activităţii ÎMM în profil teritorial, anul 2015

	Numărul de ÎMM		Numărul de salariaţi		Venit din vânzări		Profit până la impozitare	
	Mii unităţi	Pondere, %	mii	Pondere, %	mld.lei	Pondere, %	Mil. lei	Pondere,%
Total ÎMM	49.8	100.0	281.4	100.0	86.82	100.0	3037.6	100.0
mun.Chisinau	32.3	64.9	150.9	53.6	55,06	63.4	2139.4	70.4
Reg. Nord	6.1	12.2	49.7	17.7	12.23	14.2	406.1	13.4
Reg. Centru	7.4	15.1	47.8	17.0	12.02	13.8	188.4	6.2
Reg. Sud	2.6	5.2	23.0	8.2	5.14	5.9	232.0	7.6
UTA Găgăuză	1.3	2.6	9, 9	3.5	2.38	2.7	71.6	2.4

Sursa: elaborat în baza datelor Biroului Naţional de Statistică

În anul 2015 partea preponderentă a rezultatelor activităţii economice pe grupe de unităţi economice din sectorul ÎMM a fost menţinută de către întreprinderile mici, în care şi-au desfăşurat activitatea 115,1 mii persoane (40,9%), obţinând un venit de 46,84 mld. lei (53,9 %) şi un profit de 1,88 mld. lei ori 61,7% din totalul pe ÎMM. Grupul de întreprinderi mijlocii, după rezultatele economice obţinute, cu venituri de 28,71 mld. lei (35,1%) şi profit de 1,03 mld. lei (33,9%), s-a clasificat pe treapta a doua, iar cele din micro – pe treapta a treia (Tabelul nr. 3).

Tabelul nr. 3. Indicatorii principali ai ÎMM pe grupe de unităţi economice, anul 2015

	Numărul de ÎMM		Numărul de salariaţi		Venit din vânzări		Profit până la impozit	
	mii unităţi	% în total ÎMM	mii pers.	% în total ÎMM	mld.lei	% în total ÎMM	mil.lei	% în total ÎMM
Total ÎMM, din care:	49,8	100,0	281,4	100,0	86,82	100,0	3037,6	100,0
mijlocii	1,6	3,2	82,4	29,3	28,71	33,1	1028,8	33,9
mici	10,0	20,1	115,1	40,9	46,84	53,9	1875,8	61,7
micro	38,2	76,7	83,9	29,8	11,28	13,0	132,9	4,4

Sursa: elaborat în baza datelor Biroului Naţional de Statistică

În anul 2015, partea principală a unităţilor economice din segmentul ÎMM (circa 19,8 mii întreprinderi sau 39,8%) şi-au desfăşurat activitatea în domeniul comerţului. În

industria prelucrătoare au activat doar 4,2 mii de întreprinderi (8,5%). Evoluţia numărului ÎMM pe principalele genuri de activitate în anii postcriză denotă faptul că, în pofida consecinţelor crizei, care a lăsat urme nefaste în economia naţională, totuşi, numărul acestor întreprinderi a înregistrat o oarecare stabilitate în majoritatea domeniilor principale de activitate, cu toate că în ultima perioadă se conturează uşoare modificări în acest sens.

La capitolul „Venituri din vânzări", aferente genurilor de activitate, în anul 2015 comparativ cu anul 2014, situaţia indicatorilor principali din sectorul ÎMM s-a îmbunătăţit în majoritatea domeniilor. Totuşi, în unele domenii de activitate, veniturile din vânzări s-au diminuat faţă de cele obţinute în anul precedent. În ansamblu, însă, rata de creştere a înregistrat 4,0 %, cu 3,9 % sub nivelul ritmului de creştere obţinut în anul 2014 faţă de 2013 (Tabelul nr. 4).

Tabelul nr. 4. Volumul şi ponderea veniturilor din vânzări a ÎMM pe genuri de activităţi, mld. lei

	Informativ, 2013			2014			2015		
	Total pe econom.	ÎMM	ÎMM, %	Total pe econom.	ÎMM	ÎMM,%	Total pe econom.	ÎMM	ÎMM,%
Total, inclusiv:	231,60	77,41	100,0	263,09	83,52	100,0	282,25	86,82	100,0
Agricultură, silvicultură	8,93	6,16	8,0	10,75	7,07	8,5	11,84	7,84	9,0
Industria prelucrătoare	37,14	9,64	12,5	39,57	9,74	11,7	43,13	10,0	11,5
Energie electrică, gaze şi apă	19,40	0,24	0,3	21,22	0,45	0,5	25,58	0,43	0,5
Construcţii	10,57	6,11	7,9	13,78	7,16	8,6	15,06	6,86	7,9
Comerţ cu ridicata şi cu amănuntul	107,91	36,33	46,9	124,93	38,2	45,7	127,84	39,23	45,2
Cazare şi alimentaţie publică	2,00	1,48	1,9	2,56	1,63	2,0	2,49	1,76	2,0
Transporturi şi comunicaţii	21,27	7,70	9,9	25,29	8,95	10,7	27,97	9,37	10,8
Tranzacţii imobiliare	2,91	5,94	7,7	2,79	1,61	1,9	3,80	2,08	2,4
Alte activităţi	21,46	3,81	4,9	22,21	8,70	10,4	24,55	9,27	10,7

Sursa: elaborat în baza datelor Biroului Naţional de Statistică şi a Comisiei Naţionale a Pieţei Financiare

Rezultatele financiare ale ÎMM, obţinute în anul 2015 din toate activităţile demonstrează că profitul până la impozitare a înregistrat o uşoară creştere faţă de anul 2014, constituind 3,04 mld. lei, cu 25,6 mil. lei mai mult (0,8 %). Studiul efectuat pe grupe şi genuri de activitate indică faptul că cele mai însemnate rezultate financiare au fost obţinute de ÎMM din domeniul comerţului cu ridicata şi cu amănuntul, cu un profit de 895,0 mil. lei, cu 155,5 mil lei (22,7 %) peste cele obţinute în anul precedent. De asemenea, unităţile economice din domeniul transporturilor şi comunicaţiilor au realizat profit în volum de 537,4 mil. lei, obţinând o creştere de 2,9 ori. Totodată, ÎMM din agricultură, economia vânatului şi silvicultură au înregistrat profit de doar 328,5 mil. lei (47,9%), faţă de cel obţinut în anul 2014 - o descreştere esenţială care a influenţat simţitor situaţia financiară pe segmentul ÎMM.

Statul întreprinde eforturi pentru susţinerea micului business, un lucru binevenit, însă majoritatea ÎMM din ţară manifestă activităţi legate de comerţ şi de servicii non-inovatoare. Această situaţie impune necesitatea de optimizare a procedurilor de iniţiere şi încheiere a afacerilor, de a duce la bun sfârşit reforma promiţătoare a ghişeului unic. Ori, concentrarea ÎMM inovatoare şi orientate spre creştere poate debloca creşterea economică pozitivă, iar optimizarea legislaţiei şi sprijinul afacerilor inovatoare va da curs deblocării segmentului întreg.

Economia naţională are un nivel de competitivitate scăzut în plan european, mai ales în contextul investițiilor atrase, datorită lipsei unui cadru legislativ transparent. De aici reiese că preocuparea ar trebui să fie în creșterea valorii adăugate brute și a productivității economice. În rest, dezvoltarea, specializarea, creșterea calității nu trebuie să reprezinte un scop, ci un instrument pentru ridicarea eficienței și a competitivității celorlalte sectoare economice.

Toate unităţile economice trebuie să dispună de şanse egale la programele de ajutor de stat, iar criteriile de selecţie să fie transparente, nediscriminatorii şi bazate doar pe raţionamente economice, nu şi politice. Este necesară promovarea reformelor consistente şi sprijinirea acelor întreprinderi care demonstrează eficienţă şi viziune. Există, totuşi, speranţa că, prin accelerarea reformelor structurale, relansarea economică din ultimii ani mai poate fi amplificată. O creştere mai dinamică a economiei presupune promovarea unei coordonări eficiente a politicilor din domeniile: fiscale și sociale, monetare și comerciale, precum şi industriale.

Procesul dezvoltării segmentului IMM trebuie să aibă un rol esenţial în eficientizarea factorilor de producţie, deoarece ele sunt, de regulă, mai flexibile şi deschise la inovaţii. Este important ca aceste politici să nu se bazeze pe o discriminare între IMM şi întreprinderi mari, astfel ca unităţile mari să poată deveni IMM, iar, pe de altă parte, ca IMM să nu fie dispuse să se dezvolte în întreprinderi mari. Orice IMM are nevoie de un mediu de afaceri prietenos, un cadru politic şi macroeconomic stabil, o infrastructură publică bună şi atitudine decentă a statului, condiţii care ar putut încuraja dezvoltarea mediului de afaceri.

Obiectivele primordiale pentru stabilizarea unui mediu favorabil de afaceri şi relansarea economiei naţionale ar fi: reabilitarea infrastructurii, promovarea exporturilor, crearea locurilor de muncă şi a unui mediu investiţional atractiv; iar consolidarea businessului mic şi mijlociu este unul din elementele-cheie care, neapărat, va contribui la creşterea economică, la reducerea şomerilor şi, evident, a sărăciei.

Forța de muncă ieftină și relativ calificată prezintă, totuşi, un avantaj competitiv al țării, însă, pentru o dezvoltare durabilă a economiei, acest avantaj nu este primordial. În conjunctura economică dificilă, devine tot mai necesară o relaţie constructivă cu FMI, o precondiție de asigurare a stabilității macroeconomice, un semnal clar de consolidare a credibilității Moldovei pe plan extern, cu efect pozitiv în activitatea investițională, o perspectivă strict necesară în relansarea și avansarea economiei naţionale.

Stimularea fluxului de investiţii a fost şi rămâne un factor important pentru economia naţională. Un volum mai mare de investiţii publice, private şi străine ar soluţiona, parţial, depăşirea golului tehnologic şi de productivitate, care încă mai desparte ţara noastră de cele din regiune. În acest sens, instituţiile UE şi-au declarat susţinerea în continuare a reformelor iniţiate.

Una dintre problemele-cheie vizează carenţele în elaborarea şi implementarea mecanismelor eficiente şi adecvate pentru implementarea strategiilor şi prevederilor cadrului normativ, fiindcă corupţia înrădăcinată, practic, în toate sectoarele economiei, împiedică dezvoltarea şi aplicarea echitabilă a normelor prevăzute. Însă, odată cu dezvoltarea infrastructurii instituţionale şi a serviciilor regionale de consultanţă se va reduce riscul în afaceri, se va facilita accesul pe piaţă şi se va accelera creşterea şi dezvoltarea IMM. Totodată, există riscuri de accentuare a decalajului, şi aşa pronunţat, între capitală şi restul teritoriului, deoarece activitatea economică, culturală şi ştiinţifică tinde să se concentreze în regiunile cu infrastructură mai dezvoltată şi calitate a vieţii mai înaltă, iar aceasta va afecta dezvoltarea ţării, în ansamblu.

3. Concluzii

Aşadar, barierele existente în domeniul businessului trebuie lichidate, iar crearea celui mai bun mediu de afaceri din Europa ar fi, cu adevărat, un obiectiv primordial. De perspectiva integrării în spaţiul economic al UE, de avantajele comerţului de liber schimb, economia naţională trebuie să beneficieze din plin. Politicile publice trebuie să ţintească spre transformarea economiei autohtone în valorificarea evoluţiilor globale, în pofida unor riscuri majore vizavi de creşterea economică pe termen lung. Necesită încurajarea utilizării tehnologiilor moderne de conservare a energiei, producerii energiei din deşeuri, instalării generatoarelor eoliene şi solare, promovării soluţiilor ecologic-inofensive în sectorul zootehnic etc.

Totuşi, potrivit ultimului raport anual 2016 al Băncii Mondiale "Doing Business", ţara noastră s-a situat pe locul 44 din 190, urcând opt poziţii, comparativ cu anul 2015, în clasamentul mondial privind mediul de afaceri. Această apreciere pentru Moldova demonstrează că condiţiile de activitate în domeniul businessului devin tot mai favorabile.

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THE RIGHT TO A FAIR TRIAL. FREE ACCESS TO JUSTICE

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Abstract: *The right to a fair trial is a fundamental principle of civil process provided for by the code of civil procedure governed by the provisions of Article 6 so that everyone has the right to the judgment of the case in its fair, within optimal and predictable, by an independent and unbiased judgment and established by law. To this end, the instance is obligated to provide for all measures are permitted by law and to ensure that the connected with the allegation in the trial. The right to a fair trial has several components, namely: free access to justice; examining the case in the fair and public hearing within a reasonable period of time; examining the case by a court independent, unbiased as established by law; the advertising of the pronouncement of judgments. The right to a fair trial enshrined in Article 6 of the Code of civil procedure shall establish and certain guarantees conferred on consumers in order for there to be a fair trial and so provided for the right of every person in the judgment of the case in its fair, within optimal and predictable, by an independent and unbiased judgment and established by law. Free access to justice is a right that belongs to any person the right to address the justice for the defense of the rights and freedoms and the interests of his legitimate, while ensuring that the exercise of this right may not be restricted by any law.*

Keywords: *fair trial, within reasonable time, free access to justice.*
JEL Clasification*: K0, K30.*

1. Introduction

The functions of the state can be understood as groups of public papers. Leon Duguit knew that neither Montesquieu, when he spoke about the separation of powers in the state did not understand anything other than the separation of the functions in the state, unlike Rousseau, which has called the separation of powers of the state (Duguit, 1911)[2].

The theory of Subservience to the functions of the state. Leon Duguit makes a division of functions the state after the inherent nature of documents, which it executes the public authorities, girand public services. It is a classification of the functions of the state which starts from the legal nature of the acts and subject to the function (Tarangul, 1944).

The function of the laws are characterised by the fact that it has as its object the establishment of rules of conduct social, general and impersonal, with binding and likely to apply sanctions if would be violated by all the force of constraint of the state. These rules are general and impersonal in the sense that although invited to apply to persons, they are submitted in the abstract, i.e. to be all persons from a company or one or more categories of persons defined by certain features in common.

The executive function or administrative action as it is also called the authors (Tarangul, 1944) has as its object the organization of the implementation and application in concrete of the laws, to ensure the proper functioning of the public services established for that purpose and the issue of normative acts and individual or the carrying out of operations materials, through which on the basis of the law is intervenes in the life of the home to direct the activity or to perform certain benefits.

The function had jurisdiction, has as its aim the settlement of a dispute or legal establishment, with the competent working tried, of a report contested or objectionable.

[2] Jean Jakques Rousseau - French philosopher, his ideas are to be found in the massive changes promoted by the French Revolution in 1789. 1712 – 1778. Social Contract - considered a political manual - Theory the most important can in this work he represents the separation of powers in the state Puts emphasis on the importance of the fact that "the one who shall draw up laws do not need to be of the legislative powers". The concept of freedom closely linked at the general will may be maintained only in the absence of a person strong enough as to impose his will. Charles Louis of helped Montesquieu - about the spirit of the laws - translation in the romanian language Ed. Scientific, Bucharest, 1966

Administration of justice is a function of the state, and its administration is one of the essential attributes of power and the sovereign states. This function implies the existence of some state structures able to perform the work had jurisdiction. These structures formations must be organized on the basis of principles, functional and autonomous.

Among these principles we mention: Free access to justice, the independence of the judges, irremovability, gender equality before the court and free of justice all of these being in close connection with the administration of justice and guaranteeing the right to a fair trial the citizens.

The right to a fair trial occupies a special place among the fundamental rights recognized in a democratic society whose guarantee must be inherent in any system of law.

In reality, the right to a fair trial does not have a dimension unique, but reflect a complex with a series of demands that the lawmaker law but also those who are called to enforce the law, including recipients must comply with them. In view of the fact that the right in question applies not only by virtue of the internal standard but also of the supranational, covered by the European Convention of Human Rights, is imported to be determined the meaning of the case law of the European Court of Human Rights of the field of application of the principle of the right to a fair trial.

The right to a fair trial is provided for in Article 6 point 1 of the European Convention for the protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms[3].

At the same time, the Constitution of Romania in Article 21, enshrines the free access to justice "Any person may address the justice for the defense of the rights and freedoms and the interests of his legitimate. May not be restricted by any law the exercise of this right. The parties shall have the right to a fair trial and to the solving of the causes within a reasonable period of time. Special jurisdictions administrative provisions are optional and free of charge."

The right to a fair trial is a fundamental principle of civil process provided for by the code of civil procedure governed by the provisions of Article 6 so that everyone has the right to the judgment of the case in its fair, within optimal and predictable, by an independent and unbiased judgment and established by law. To this end, the instance is obligated to provide for all measures are permitted by law and to ensure that the connected with the allegation in the trial.

The nature of the fair and reasonable time limit of the trial are provided for by Article 8 of the Code of penal procedure thus components judicial authorities have the obligation to carry out the penal prosecution and judgment of the compliance with the guarantees and illegally seizing the rights of the parties and of the subjects procesuali, in such a way as to be recorded at the time and in full the facts which constitute the offenses, no innocent person should not be pulled to penal liability, and any person who has committed a crime to be punished according to the law, within a reasonable period of time.

According to the art.11 from the Constitution of Romania, the Romanian State pledges to fulfill as such and in good faith its obligations as deriving from the treaties it is a party.

Treaties ratified by Parliament are part of national law.

The text of the constitutional law apply an account of the principles relating to the trust among the Member States and the correlation between international law and national law through the integration of those rules that belong to international law in national law.

[3]Law no.30/1994 on ratification of the Convention for the protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms and of the additional protocols to this convention, published in M. Of. no.135/31.05.1994.

What integration is performed by means of the ratification of the international instruments by the Romanian Parliament and conferring these rules binding character in Romania including specific regulations on human rights.

In this respect Article 20 of the Romanian Constitution establishes that the citizens' rights and liberties shall be interpreted and enforced in conformity with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, with the covenants and other treaties Romania is a party to.

In the case where any inconsistencies exist between the covenants and treaties on fundamental human rights, in which Romania is part, and internal laws, the international regulations shall take precedence, except where the Constitution or internal laws contain more favorable provisions.

According to Article 3 of the Code of civil procedure, the provisions relating to the rights and freedoms of individuals shall be interpreted and enforced in accordance with the Constitution and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, with the covenants and other treaties Romania is a party to.

Where any inconsistencies exist between the covenants and treaties on fundamental human rights Romania is a party to, and this code, the international regulations shall take precedence, except as otherwise provided for in this code shall comprise the more favorable provisions.

The Convention for the protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms and of the additional protocols to this Convention by ratification became a part of the national law and shall apply with priority. Being an integral part of national law, these rules shall apply with priority are compulsory, are the sources of law and shall be applied by the courts, and their decisions shall be subject to control by the C.E.D.O.

According to Article 4 of the Code of civil procedure the mandatory rules of the law of the European Union shall apply on a priority basis regardless of the quality or the status of the parties.

In the framework of Article 124 (2) and (3) of the Romanian Constitution provides that justice is unique, fair and equal for all, and that the judges shall be independent and subject only to the law. Also, in Article 126 (2) shows that justice shall be administered by the High Court of Cassation and Justice and other courts established by law.

The Right 1a a fair trial is a part of the principle of preeminentei right in a democratic society and not that the law to recognize the persons substantial rights in so far as they are not accompanied by the fundamental guarantees of a procedural document, the nature of the putting them in value (Boroi, 2013).

This right is enshrined in Article 6 point 1 of the Convention for the protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms. The Convention for the protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms, within the meaning of Article 6 point 1, provides for the right of every person to a fair trial, thus "Everyone has the right to be examined fair and public and within a reasonable time by a court as an independent and impartial, established by law, which will decide either on the infringement of the rights and obligations of civil, either on an acceptance of any charges in criminal matters directed against it. The judgment must be pronounced in public, but access in the meeting room may be denied the press and the public, for the entire duration of the process or of a part of it, in the interest of morality, public order or national security in a democratic society, where the interests of the minors or the protection of the privacy of the parties to the process so require, or to the extent considered strictly required by the court of first instance, when, on account of special circumstances, advertising would be liable to prejudice the interests of justice".

According to Article 10 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights[4] shall be established the right to a fair trial according to which, "every person has the right to equal to be heard in an equitable manner and the public by a court as an independent and impartial which will decide either on his rights and obligations of the company or to an acceptance of any weighty accusation in criminal matters directed against it", and Article 30 of the declaration states that "nothing cannot be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to refrain from any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set out in the table of contents or", and by Article 14 point 1 of the International Covenant on the rights of the civil society and the The political[5].

In the analysis of the text of the Convention as a result, the right to a fair trial has several components, namely: free access to justice; examining the case in the fair and public hearing within a reasonable period of time; examining the case by a court independent, unbiased as established by law; the advertising of the pronouncement of judgments.

The right to a fair trial enshrined in Article 6 of the Code of civil procedure shall establish and certain guarantees conferred on consumers in order for there to be a fair trial and so provided for the right of every person in the judgment of the case in its fair, within optimal and predictable, by an independent and unbiased judgment and established by law.

2. Free access to justice

The right to a fair trial may not be designed without the right of a person to refer to the court to try the case with which it is delegated.

Free access to justice requires access to the procedural means by which the justice shall be rendered.

Free access to justice is governed by Article 21 of the Romanian Constitution which provides that any person may address the justice for the defense of the rights and freedoms and the interests of his legitimate. May not be restricted by any law the exercise of this right.

Free access to justice is a right that belongs to any person the right to address the justice for the defense of the rights and freedoms and the interests of his legitimate, while ensuring that the exercise of this right may not be restricted by any law.

The right to refer to the court is provided for by Article 8 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights according to which any person has the right to an effective

[4] The Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations, on 10 December 1948. Adopted and proclaimed by the general meeting of O.N.U by Resolution 217 A (III) of 10 December 1948. Romania has signed the declaration on 14 December 1955 when through the R 955 (X) of the General Assembly of the United Nations, was admitted to the rows of the Member States.

[5] The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations, on 16 December 1966, which entered into force on 23 March 1976, has been ratified by Romania by Decree No. 212/31.10.1974, published in B. Of. no. 146/20.11.1974. All men are equal in front of the courts and the courts of justice. Any person shall have the right that the dispute in which it has to be examined in an equitable manner and the public by a court competent, independent and unbiased established by law, to decide either on an acceptance of any criminal recriminations directed against them, either on the disputes concerning the rights and obligations of its civil character. The meeting of the court may be declared in the whole or a part of the conduct of themselves or in the interest of morality, public order or national security in a democratic society, or, where the interests of the private lives of the parties concerned so require, either to the extent that the tribunal determines would consider this as absolutely necessary, when given the special circumstances of the case the advertising would harm the interests of Justice; however, any decisions in criminal matters or civil society will be published, except for the cases where the interests of the minors required to do otherwise or when the process refers to the marital disputes or to the care of children.

remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him are recognized by the constitution or by law.

Thus, in accordance with the provisions of Article 6 of the Law no. 304/2004, any person may address the justice for the defense of the rights and freedoms and the interests of his legitimate in the exercise of his or her right to a fair trial. And in accordance with the provisions of Article 6 paragraph 2 of the Law no. 304/2004, access to justice cannot be restricted[6].

More than these normative acts the code of civil procedure expressly provides in Article 5 that judges have the duty to receive and to settle any claim under the authority of the courts, according to the law.

Any Judge may refuse to judge on the ground that the law does not provide, is unclear or incomplete.

In the case where a question cannot be resolved neither in the basis of the law or customary practices, and in the absence of the latter, nor on the basis of the provisions of the laws relating to similar situations, she will have the judgment on the basis of the general principles of law, having regard to all the circumstances and taking into account the requirements of equity.

It is forbidden to judge lay down general provisions made compulsory by the decisions which they acted in the causes of what they are subject.

According to the article 192 of the Code of civil procedure for the defense of the rights and interests of its legitimate, any person may address the justice by sensing the competent court with a request to call in court. In certain cases provided for by law, following a court can be done by persons or other components.

The process begins by registration of the application to the courts pursuant to Article 148 of the Code of Civil Procedure "any request to the courts must be expressed in writing...", but because of modern communication the law provides for and also the request will include, where appropriate, and e-mail or coordinates which have been indicated for this purpose by the parties, as well as the phone number, the fax number or other such"[7].

The judge has the obligation to receive the requests made, irrespective of the manner in which they have been sent to court in the course of the meeting of the court, so article104 paragraphs 14 and 15 of Regulation of internal order provides that applications for, or the documents submitted during the meeting of judgment will be dated, stamped and signed by the chairman of the board of judgment.

In the course of the meeting the court the Registrar shall be recorded in the notes: the file number, its position on the list of the meeting, oral restitute from time to time during the session, deposits of applications and the papers, the measures provided for by the court, as well as all the other aspects in the process and Article 99 (Law no. 303/2004 provides that is misconduct, Unjustified refusal to receive in the file of the applications, the conclusions, pleadings or procedural documents submitted by the parties from the process.

According to this right of free access to justice, the code of civil procedure has several legal provisions from which we mention: in judgment (Article 194), meet (Article 205), counterclaim (Article 209), a request for call (Article 470), a request for appeal (Article 486), the notice of opposition in cancellation 503-508 (Article) The review Article 509-513), the complaint to be executed (711-719) etc.

[6] The Law no. 304/2004 on judicial organization, republished in M.Of.no.827/13.09.2005.
[7] C.E.D.O. - The Decision of 16 June 2009, the cause Lawyer Partners against Slovakia, quoted in C. Birsan, - the European Convention on Human Rights. Comment on the articles, ED, 2, Ed, C. H. Schapper Beck, Bucharest, 2010, p. 442. Law no. 455/2001 on electronic signature, published in M.Of. no. 429/31.07.2001.

In the same sense remember, and the provisions of the Code of penal procedure: the preliminary complaint295-298 (article), the complaint against the measures and acts of prosecution336-340 (article), the settlement of the complaint by the judge of the chamber (preliminary341 paragraph 6(c) and paragraph 7(d), the opposition against the conclusion of the judge of preliminary room (Article 347), the call (Article 412), the appeals 425 (article), the notice of opposition in cancellation 426-432 (article), an appeal in cassation (433-451) (The review Article 453).

These procedural paths ensure that the persons concerned to have access to a court of law, to which the law has set competent to decide in civil or criminal proceedings.

The Convention for the protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms and does not provide legal means for ensuring the right of free access to justice but leave at the discretion of the Member States which have ratified the Convention, to regulate these legal means.

The right of access to justice shall be governed by the national law but this is not an absolute right and is compatible with the limits laid down by the law but only the extent to which they do not affect the right of the substance itself. The exercise of the right of access to justice involves ensuring access to any person to an arbitral established by law and thus, the guarantee of a judicial procedure by which to be able to carry out the right in question.

According to article 2 paragraph 2 of the Law no. 304/2004, Justice shall be pursued by means of the following courts: The High Court of Cassation and Justice; Courts of Appeal Courts; specialized courts; military court; the judges, but this does not mean that the right of access to justice given the opportunity to address all these courts with a specific question or that take advantage of all the ways of attack against a judgment of the Court of Justice. So that, in accordance with Article465 of the Code of civil procedure governing which are subject to the decisions of the call and article483, which are Decisions subject to appeal. In this respect we mention the provisions of Article" item 1(j) of the Code of civil procedure concerning the material competence on the criterion of value, when the district court judge: Any other applications evaluabile in money worth up to 200,000 lei including, irrespective of the quality of the parties, professional or amateur, and applications evaluabile money beyond this value the competent to judge them is the tribunal.

In this respect we remind Decision No. 1/1994 of the Constitutional Court which states that, the legislator may establish, in the light of the special circumstances, special rules of procedure, as well as the procedures for the exercise of procedural rights, the principle of free access to justice assuming the possibility of unlimited of those interested in the use of these procedures in the form and in accordance with the procedures established by law.

Access to the judicial structures and the means of the proceedings, including the legal remedies available to him, shall be carried out with due regard to the rules of competence and procedure of courts established by law.

Free access to justice will be carried only in the respect that all citizens are equal before the law and public authorities, so that any exclusion which would have the significance of the infringement of equal legal treatment is unconstitutional[8].

It is otherwise, a solution that result in firmly from the provisions of Article 126(2) in the Constitution, according to which the competent authority of the courts and procedure of courts shall be provided for only the law" and of the article 129 in accordance with the "Against decisions of the court, the parties concerned and the Public Ministry may exercise ways of appeal, in accordance with the law".

[8] Decision No. 1/1994 a consensus of the Constitutional Court, published in M.Of. No. 69/16.03.1994.

Consequently, the legislator may establish, in the light of the special circumstances, special rules of procedure, as well as the procedures for the exercise of procedural rights, the principle of free access to justice assuming the possibility of unlimited of those interested in the use of these procedures in the form and in accordance with the procedures established by law.

Therefore the rule, Article 21(2) in the Constitution, according to which may not be restricted by any law access to justice, has the significance to the fact that the legislator did not it may exclude from the exercise of the rights of illegally seizing which it has set up a category or social group.

In practice the national courts, the parties have often invoked as a limiting of free access to justice, no about intruding free incited by the obligation imposed by law in the task of the parties for the payment of a fee by judicial stamp duties and is the legal assistance free of charge.

In respect of the legal assistance invederam articles 71 of Law No. 51/1995 for the organization and practice of the profession of lawyer, which provides that, in the cases provided for by law, take proper account ensure judicial assistance in the following forms:

a) in the criminal cases in which the defense is mandatory in accordance with the provisions of the Code of penal procedure;
b) in any causes other than criminal proceedings, as a way for granting public aid the judiciary, in accordance with the provisions of the law;
c) judicial assistance through a lawyer, granted at the request of the components of the local public administration.

In exceptional cases, where the rights of the person or lack of equipment would be prejudiced by delay, Bar dean may approve the granting free of assistance for the specialist legal.

And Article 72 provides that in the case in which, according to the government decree no. 51/2008 on public aid judiciary in civil matters has been ought the aid application of the judicial public in the form of assistance through a lawyer, the application together with the conclusion of the Agreement shall be sent as soon as the presiding judge of the bar in the local district that courts.

Bar dean or the lawyer of which the dean has delegated this task shall designate, within 3 days, a lawyer is entered in the register of the judicial assistance, to whom he shall, together with the Notice of approval, the conclusion of acquiescence. Bar dean has the obligation to communicate and the recipient of the aid of the judicial public the name of the Advocate of the designated.

The beneficiary of the aid judicial public may ask himself the designation of a certain lawyer, with its consent, in accordance with the law.

With respect to the payment of the judicial stamp, we believe it is not a real limiting the right of access to justice as, changing the legal framework for the conduct of civil process through the adoption of the Civil Procedure Code and the implementation of the new institutions adopted by the Civil Code, it was necessary to be modified and the regulatory framework concerning the fees by judicial stamp. To ensure that the tax system to reflect the new structure and the dynamics of the process civil, new procedural guarantees granted to the parties in order to ensure a fair trial, and cover the extra costs for the development of the infrastructure and to ensure the logistics necessary for the implementation of the new legal provisions, taking into account the need to ensure, on the one hand, of an appropriate balance between the budgetary efforts of insurance of a public service quality and the obligation of the citizen who uses this service to help support costs,

but and, on the other hand, the transparency of the application of the rules in matters involving a clear on all the operations which they involve the tax system[9].

The duties of the judicial stamp are owed by all natural and legal persons and represents the payment of the services rendered by the courts and by the Ministry of Justice and the Prosecutor's Office of the High Court of Cassation and Justice. In certain cases provided for by law, the actions and claims brought to court and requests addressed to the Justice Ministry and the Prosecutor's Office of the High Court of Cassation and Justice be exempted from payment of taxs by judicial stamp. According to the art. 42 of the government decree no. 80/2013, individuals can benefit from exemption, discounts, 1.440 or delays for the payment of the judicial stamp, in accordance with the Decree no. 51/2008 on public aid judiciary in civil matters[10].

The court granted to legal persons at the request of the facilities in the form of discounts, 1,440 or delays for the payment of the judicial stamp tax chargeable in respect of the actions and claims introduced to the courts of law.

Pay the import duties by judicial stamp do not impair any theory about intruding free of justice and free access to justice because the losing party process will be obliged, at the request of the party which has won, to pay the expenses of the tribunal", the expenses of the tribunal have been regulated in Article 451-455 of the Code of civil procedure.

In relation to the national provisions set out, the lack of autonomy of civil process could not be invoked successfully as a breach of the free access to justice within the meaning of Article 6 point 1 of the Convention.

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THE APPLICATION OF INTERNATIONAL FINANCIAL REPORTING STANDARDS - OPPORTUNITY AND CHALLENGE

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Abstract: *Changes after 1989 in the economic, social and political developments have imposed rapid and regulatory environment, including the accounting firms. The existence of a variety of economic and financial operations carried out by companies imposed their rules in accounting terms, achieving a process of assimilation to the provisions of IFRS in Romanian accounting standards. This made possible the gradual assimilation of understanding and practice of the skilled companies of accounting rules increasingly complex and even switching to the application of IFRS as accounting basis. To analyze the impact of transition to IFRS application as accounting basis on the value of assets and equity comparing the information submitted by companies according to IFRS with those determined for the same period according to accounting regulations applicable prior to the transition to IFRS (regulations complying with European directives). The results of research conducted on the information contained in the financial statements prepared by fifteen companies, considered representative, have highlighted the fact that the transition to the application of IFRS as the basis of accounting did not significantly affect the total value of assets of these, but caused some reclassifications between different categories assets and some value adjustments. However, analysis of equity resulting from the application of IFRS has revealed that restatements made were not significantly affected equity in their entirety, with changes in their structure. The graphs shown in Annex highlight comparatively assets and equity according to IFRS and Order no. 3055/2009, as amended and supplemented.*

Keywords: *EU and national regulations, reporting, International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) transition to the application of IFRS as accounting basis, the impact of applying IFRS*

JEL Classification: *M 41.*

1. Introduction

The transition from the application of International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) by certain categories of companies was a complex process involving business, accounting and accounting regulators.

As an EU member country, Romania has to apply the EU regulations as they are. As an EU member country, Romania has to apply the community regulations as they are published.

Council Regulation (EC) Regulation (EC) No 1606/2002 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 19 July 2002 on the application of international accounting standards sets out the requirements for the application of IFRS at Community level.

Under this regulation, only certain categories of companies are required to apply IFRS in their consolidated financial statements.

The Regulation leaves it up to Member States to require companies or give them the option to apply IFRS depending on certain interests or goals pursued (eg capital attraction).

In 2012, accountancy decision makers have decided that companies whose securities are traded on a regulated market must apply IFRSs and publish annual financial statements prepared in accordance with these standards.

2. The main stages of development of accounting in Romania

Changes after 1989 in the economic, social and political developments have imposed rapid and regulatory environment, including the accounting firms.

Whereas the transition from the centralized socialist economy to market economy was made without prior training in law, Romania was in a position to regulate in terms of company accounting transactions as they occurred.

Regarding the process of normalization and accounting reporting system, we distinguish several periods[11], one of which reads:

- 1990-1993 period that was characterized by transitional measures, namely the formulation of accounting standards including summary provisions to make the transition to accounting rules specific to a market economy.

- The period 1994-1999 has been achieved Romanian accounting reform based on European directives, accounting rules issued in this period is characterized by:

- taking accounting principles and rules of valuation balance sheet of Directive IV of the European Economic Community (78/660 / EEC);

- the existence of a predetermined format of financial statements (balance sheet, profit and loss) over the same directive, the information presented is usually numeric);

- connection in most of the provisions accounting provisions of the tax laws;

- lack of flexibility as regards the possibility of a professional judgment.

Since 2001, Romania has started a process of partial adoption[12] of International Financial Reporting Standards by application of Order no. 94/2001 for the approval of accounting regulations harmonized with the Fourth European Economic Community and the International Accounting Standards, the Minister of Public Finance Order no. 94/2001.

Enforcement of accounting regulations harmonized with IFRS was achieved gradually by the companies whose securities were traded on the Bucharest Stock Exchange, national companies and enterprises, companies in the annex to the decree states and other entities, depending on the fulfillment of indicators (net turnover, total assets and number of employees).

The other categories of companies (mostly) continued to apply accounting standards compliant with European directives.

Minister of Finance no. 94/2001 was in force until 2005, which was repealed by the Order of Public Finance Minister no. 1752/2005 for the approval of accounting regulations harmonized with Directive IV and VII of the European Economic Community.

The application of international accounting standards with European directives (Minister of Finance no. 94/2001) highlighted some difficulties, both in terms of harmonization of accounting rules provisions into national legislation with provisions and difficulties in understanding and the practical application of accounting rules by experts of companies.

Regarding the content of the accounting rules stated the following:

- accounting rule is a 'mixture' between the accounting provisions of Directive (Directive IV) and certain provisions of International Accounting Standards;

- structure of individual annual financial statements was provided for in Directive IV;

- accounting treatment and valuation rules were those set out in International Accounting Standards;

- balance sheet items have emerged us (eg claims or liabilities of deferred income tax);

- conception and expression in IFRS were, in many cases, in principle, opposed to European directives which included clearly defined rules.

In the process of applying the accounting rule were identified following:

- international accounting standards applicable at that time were translated cumbersome, were using new terms with unusual expressions in texts that had power and rules to be applied consistently (eg expressions "usually," "sometimes");

[11] an analytical presentation of the stages of the accounting is performed by Mr. Romanian Costel Istrate lecturer in "Accounting and financial reporting individual and consolidated", Polirom 2016

3 some were no longer applicable international accounting standards (ex.: IAS 29 "Financial reporting in hyperinflationary economies", IAS 1 "Presentation of Financial Statements")

- difficulties in understanding and application of IFRS by experts from both companies in view of the large amount of new information and new concepts contained in them;

- mismatch some provisions of IFRS with the provisions of tax law, which led to different interpretations by the tax inspectors. During the implementation of this order were issued several decisions of the Central Fiscal Commission of the Ministry of Finance to clarify the tax treatment of certain accounting operations.

As a result of risks related to understanding and misapplication of accounting treatments and the possibility of interpretation of tax treatments, and the fact that the application of IFRS in the separate financial statements do not represent an obligation derive from Community law, to waive the application IFRS together with the European directives.

In these circumstances, application of IFRS has remained mandatory for annual consolidated financial statements by companies whose securities are traded on a regulated market and optional for other entities for annual consolidated financial statements.

The period 2005-2007 was characterized by the transition from the phase of "harmonization" with the Accounting Directives to stage "compliance" with them, in regard to meeting EU membership criteria.

The 2007-2012 period is the period in which significant developments have taken place in the accounting standardization, characterized by:

- assimilation in national accounting standards of treatment of international financial reporting standards;

- the possibility of applying IFRS in the consolidated annual financial statements by companies.

The period 2012-2017 is characterized by the parallel application of two accounting regulations, namely:

- accounting regulations in line with the accounting directives applicable to most companies;

- accounting regulations compliant with IFRS, applicable by certain categories of companies, expressly provided for in the normative acts.

The transition to the application of IFRS as an accounting basis was "announced" by the Order of the Minister of Public Finance no. 881/2012[13].

This order requires companies whose securities are traded on a regulated market to apply IFRS as an accounting base starting with the annual financial statements for the financial year 2012[14].

The accounting standard which provides technical aspects regarding the transition from an organized accounting and managed according to the Order of the Minister of Public Finance no. 3055/2009, as subsequently amended and supplemented, the accounting according to IFRS is the Order of the Minister of Public Finance no. 1286/2012, as subsequently amended and supplemented[15].

This standard includes references to the organization and management of accounting, corporate governance responsibilities and a general accounts plan.

Among the provisions of this rule are:

a) IFRS are applied together with other legal provisions (eg Law 31/1990 on Companies, Law 227/2015 on the Fiscal Code, as subsequently amended and supplemented, legislation issued by regulatory authorities such as the National Regulatory Authority for Energy);

[13] published in the Official Gazette of Romania no. 424/26 June 2012
[14] Article 3 of the Order of the Minister of Public Finance no. 881/2012
[15] Published in the Official Gazette of Romania no. 687/4 October 2012

b) IFRS apply as they are issued to ensure compliance of annual financial statements with IFRS.

Minister of Finance no. 2844/2016[16] which repealed the Order of the Minister of Public Finance no. 1286/2012, as subsequently amended and supplemented, did not make any significant changes to the previous order.

Mainly the changes refer to:

- extending the scope of application of IFRS-compliant accounting regulations and their application by the companies and companies listed in the annex to the Order of the Minister of Public Finance no. 666/2015[17] (companies whose securities are not traded on a regulated market);
- include a provision allowing future IFRS and other categories of companies to be applied in the future, in accordance with the legal provisions;
- completing the overall accounts plan taking into account changes and additions to IFRS (eg inclusion of productive plants in the scope of IAS 16).

2. Implementation of IFRS in Romania

2.1 Community Regulations on the application of IFRS

Given that Romania became EU member state, it had to apply the provisions of Regulation (EC) no. 1606/2002[18] of the European Parliament and of the Council of 19 July 2002 on the application of international accounting standards, referred to as Regulation no. 1606/2002.

An important objective of Regulation No. 1606/2002 is the adoption and use of international accounting standards within the European Economic Community, in order to harmonize the information presented by the entities whose securities are traded on a regulated market to ensure a high degree of comparability and transparency of financial statements and the efficient functioning of the internal market and the capital market community.

Regulation no. 1606/2002, as amended and supplemented, requires the application of International Financial Reporting Standards in the consolidated financial statements of the companies whose securities are admitted to trading on a regulated market, leaving Member States the possibility of extending the application of IFRS and siuaţiile individual annual.

Regarding the state of application of IFRS by the EU Member States, there is no up-to-date situation, the latest published information being for 2012.

The EU Commission[19] website publishes the state of application of IFRS by member countries, but this, at least in the case of Romania, is no longer up to date.

The admission of Romania as a EU member state, made after evaluation by international organizations (World Bank, International Monetary Fund and the European Commission) that the criteria for membership, including with regard to accounting.

In particular, accounting rules were evaluated and legislation on statutory audit of financial statements compared with the provisions of regulations in the field.

2.2 Consolidated financial statements and reports according to IFRS

[16] Published in the Official Gazette of Romania no. 1020/2016
[17] published in the Official Gazette of Romania no. 442 of 22 June 2015
[18] Regulation (EC) no. 1606/2002 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 19 July 2002 on the application of international accounting standards, published in the Official Journal of the European Union L 243 / 09.11.2002.
[19] http://ec.europa.eu/finance/ company-reporting/docs/ias/ ias-use-of-options_en.pdf

Existence in Romania of a significant number of subsidiaries of legal entities established in EU Member States has led to a common accounting language between subsidiaries and parent companies.

In some cases, parent companies shares were traded on the exchanges of statelede residence, which required the preparation of consolidated financial statements under IFRS.

Following the information needs subsidiaries in Romania have designed reporting systems parallel or IFRS accounting and reporting of parent companies for their own needs and accounting and accounting reports according to national law for state institutions, which are the official reports.

The existence of a variety of economic and financial operations carried out by companies imposed their rules in accounting terms, achieving a process of assimilation to the provisions of IFRS in Romanian accounting standards. This made possible the gradual assimilation of understanding and practice of the skilled companies of accounting rules increasingly complex and even the transition to IFRS as a basis accounting application.

2.3. Applying IFRS as accounting basis

The period 2012-2016 can be considered as the beginning of the great challenges in the transition to application of IFRS as accounting basis by certain categories of entities, namely:

- bank financial institutions;
- companies whose securities are admitted to trading on a regulated market.

The bulk of economic operators continues to apply accounting standards compliant with European directives. Features of these rules is that the provisions of European directives are significantly supplemented with some provisions of the International Financial Reporting Standards.

Switching to the application of IFRS as accounting basis by certain categories of companies was made for several reasons, tooth stating:

a) in the case of banking financial institutions supervised by the National Bank of Romania, there were requested parent companies as their subsidiaries in Romania to apply IFRS to have a single accounting both for official reporting purposes and for reporting within the group;

b) in the case of companies whose securities are admitted to trading on a regulated market, the application of IFRS in accounting followed:

- the need to make understandable and credible information presented in the annual financial statements and other periodic reports they publish societies;
- presentation in the notes accompanying the annual financial statements additional information highlighting the entity's related party relationships, the presentation of non-financial information, corporate governance issues;
- create the conditions provided for by law so that the actions of companies subject to listing on stock markets in European countries;
- access to financial resources attracted from banks and various donors.

A distinct category of companies that must apply IFRS accounting basis is represented by entities listed in the Annex to the Order of Public Finance Minister no. 666/2015 approving the Accounting Regulations compliant with International Financial Reporting Standards by some state entities.

For these entities, the decision to apply IFRS has been taken as a result of measures agreed by the Romanian authorities with international organizations, namely the World Bank and International Monetary Fund. Mainly took into account the need for transparency and credibility of the information submitted by the companies concerned in the financial statements.

3. The impact of applying IFRS as accounting basis of assets and equity of companies **- a study case**

The analysis sought to highlight how the transition to IFRS as the basis application affected the accounting value of assets and equity in the companies that have applied IFRS basis of accounting.

Companies that have been subject to analysis category are those whose securities are traded on a regulated market.

The sample comprises of fifteen companies / companies considered representative study objective in that:

- companies holding assets of significant value and equity elements which are regulated by law;

- nature of the activity and reported turnover of companies are significant even at the level of national economy;

- six companies (Transelectrica, Transgaz, Nuclearelectrica, Conpet ,Romgaz, Oltchim) are majority state-owned companies. Some companies have monopoly activity and manage national transport systems, namely: energy - Transelectrica, gas - Transgaz and Romgaz, oil -Conpet.

The activity of these companies is regulated by various state authorities approving these books, Teri depending on which setting charges for services rendered;

- Transelectrica, Transgaz and Conpet managing assets belonging to the public domain, based on concession contracts;

-nine companies, namely OMV Petrom, Alro , Romcarbon, Biofarm, Antibiotice SA, Zentiva SA, Energopetrol SA, Oil Terminal, Rompetrol are companies with full or majority private capital, some of which are part of the companies listed on various stock exchanges ;

- some companies prepare consolidated financial statements IFRS that have published on their sites before proceeding to the application of IFRS as accounting basis.

4. Research methodology

The study looked at the impact of the transition to the application of IFRS as an accounting basis for fixed assets of companies (changes in structure, valuation) and the impact on equity (total).

The study did not pursue the comparability of the information presented in the annual financial statements by the 15 companies because they can use different valuation bases according to IFRS.

Company ownership is irrelevant to the study because the IFRS applies to all companies under the same conditions, regardless of the shareholder structure.

The information underlying this study was taken from the annual financial statements published by companies on their websites.

To analyze the impact of transition to IFRS application as accounting basis on the value of assets and equity comparing the information submitted by companies according to IFRS with those determined for the same period according to accounting regulations applicable prior to the transition to IFRS (regulations consistent with European directives).

Switching to the application of IFRS accounting basis as assumed publication of comparable data for the current financial year and previous financial year.

For companies who applied IFRS for the first time[20], they presented statement of financial position IFRS comparative information for the beginning of the earliest period presented in the financial statements

[20] They applied IFRS 1 "First-time application of IFRS"

Companies Alro, Transelectrica, Transgaz Biofarm, Antibiotice SA, Energopetrol, Oil Terminal, Rompetrol Rafinare, Zentiva, Romcarbom, Oltchim, and OMV Petrom applied IFRS accounting basis as from the financial year 2012 and comparative data presented in the Statement of Financial Position at 31 December 2012 31 December 2011 and 1 January 2011.

Companies Conpet, Nuclearelectrica, and Romgaz passed the application of IFRS accounting basis as from the financial year 2013 and presented in the statement of financial position comparative information for 31 December 2013 31 December 2012 and 1 January 2012,

In terms of assets, the research aimed to structure assets and total.

The transition from accounting based on accounting directives[21] on accounting under IFRS involved a process of analysis and "reprocessing" which mainly referred to:

- derecognition accounting of assets that do not qualify for recognition under IFRS (eg formation expenses , goodwill, impaired assets);
- recognition in the accounts of assets that were not highlighted according to accounting rules comply with EU directives;
- reclassification of assets from one category to another (eg assets intended for sale property passed from stocks);
- application of criteria for assessment under IFRS (ie, IAS 36 Impairment of Assets).

Analysis of fixed assets (total) in the 15 companies the following entities:

[21] Accounting regulations compliant with European directives approved by Ministry of Public Finance no. 3055/2009, as amended and supplemented.

Table. 1 Result of the restatement of fixed assets[22]

Entity	31 December 2012				31 December 2011				1 January 2011			
	Assets				Assets				Assets			
	Intangibles	Tangible	Financial	Total	Intangibles	Tangible	Financial	Total	Intangibles	Tangible	Financial	Total
Transelectrica	-	-	-	-	66,34%	100,41%	99,08%	99,68%	123,52%	99,46%	99,32%	99,69%
Transgaz	-	-	-	-	21760,58%	22,90%	95,48%	97%	495,21%	29,07%	83,17%	100,68%
Romgaz	100%	104,55%	246,28%	105,14%	99,92%	104,47%	694,96%	106,59%	-	-	-	-
Conpet	100%	112,48%	100%	112,22%	100%	111,75%	100%	111,44%	-	-	-	-
Alro	-	-	-	-	10,00%	81,27%	143,02%	103,05%	9,49%	84,23%	106,47%	90,36%
Omv Petrom	-	-	-	-	97,99%	105,23%	113,66%	106,81%	98,61%	105,85%	111,84%	107,05%
Biofarm	-	-	-	-	16,63%	80,40%	200,02%	98,98%	23,77%	79,14%	187,21%	98,57%
Antibiotice SA	-	-	-	-	100%	121,60%	0%	121,38%	100%	126,78%	0	126,41%
Energopetrol	-	-	-	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Oil Terminal	-	-	-	-	1161,31%	100,03%	100%	100,84%	1789,12%	100%	100%	101,51%
Rompetrol Rafinare	-	-	-	-	100%	97,47%	98,66%	98,03%	100%	93,70%	98,66%	96,3%
Zentiva	-	-	-	-	100%	100%	-	99,94%	100%	100%	-	99,93%
Romcarbon	-	-	-	-	100%	74,98%	268,20%	100,10%	100%	67,31%	135,48%	75,68%
Oltchim	-	-	-	-	100%	99,9%	102,69%	99,94%	100%	97,22%	99,27%	97,25%
Nuclearelectrica	100%	126,05%	7,43%	104,15%	185,92%	124,79%	5,31%	103,99%	-	-	-	-

[22] Returnable fixed assets IFRS on fixed assets under OMFP no. 3055/2009, as subsequently amended and supplemented

The impact of the changeover to IFRS on the value of intangible assets, tangible and financial assets compared to the amounts recognized under previous GAAPs is as follows:

- Are situations where there were no differences or they were insignificant (Romgaz Conpet, Antibiotice SA, Energopetrol, Rompetrol Rafinărie, Zentiva, Romcarbon, Oltchim, Nuclearelectrica for intangible assets);
- There are situations where differences vary by +/- 5% (Romgaz and OMV Petrom for tangible assets);
- There are situations in which differences are significant (Alro, OMV Petrom Biofarm and Romcarbon recorded increases of 143% ,113%, 200% and 268% of financial assets). Romgaz registered a growth of financial assets by 694% due to the reclassification of trade receivables;
- A different situation Transgaz, who proceeded to recognize the value of a concession balance sheet accounts which aims to transport gas networks. The company also proceeded to the reclassification of property, plant and equipment intangible assets. In these circumstances, the company has increased by 21760.58% to intangible assets and a 77.1% discount to tangible assets. This situation is atypical and is a statement of application of professional judgment.
- following the analysis of the concession contract (approved by GD No. 886/2002), Oil Terminal Company found that the conditions for recognizing the concession as an intangible asset under IAS 38 "Intangible assets" are met. Thus, the company recognized the concession as an intangible asset at its fair value. Under these circumstances, the company recorded an increase of 1161.31% on intangible assets.

In terms of total assets, the differences are not significant, the biggest difference being 21,38 % for the company Antibiotice SA.

Table 2. The result of equity restatement[23]

Societate	31 December 2012	31 December 2011	1 January 2011
Transelectrica	-	98,24%	97,46%
Transgaz	-	182%	187,46%
Romgaz	93,62%	95,61%	-
Conpet	112,22%	111,44%	-
Alro	-	110,71%	80,73%
Omv Petrom	-	109,56%	111,7%
Biofarm	-	100%	100%
Antibiotice SA	-	113,81%	212,27%
Energopetrol	-	88,43%	86,99%
Oil Terminal	-	100,88%	101,57%
Rompetrol Rafinare	-	162,05%	85,02%
Zentiva	-	98,88%	100,99%
Romcarbon	-	88,98%	78,07%
Oltchim	-	-8,14%	-48,46%
Nuclearelectrica	101,18%	101,41%	-

Analysis equity resulting from the application of IFRS restatements highlights that did not significantly affect the amounts highlighted performed according to previous accounting rules. There are, however, changes in the structure of equity items.

23 Restated equity IFRS reported in equity according to OMFP no. 3055/2009

Significant increases in equity have been recorded with Transgaz, which has accounted for an appropriate concession and reserve in accounting for Antibiotice S.A.

As a result of the financial difficulties and consequently of the structure of the items presented in the balance sheet according to OMFP 3055/2009, Oltchim presented in the IFRS financial statements negative equity.

The graphs shown in Annex highlight comparatively assets and equity according to IFRS and Order no. 3055/2009, as amended and supplemented.

5. Conclusions

National accounting rules have undergone a continuous process of developing and harmonizing with provisions in IFRS, enabling the shift to application of the IFRS basis of accounting.

Transition from accounting regulations compliant with European directives as to the application of IFRS accounting basis is a complex process in which the results are influenced by the structure restatement of assets, liabilities and equity, and certain professional judgments.

Applying IFRS accounting basis as the situation requires that frequent estimates to be made, actuarial calculations and adjustments and reclassifications.

Some of the surveyed companies have state-owned capital and carry out activities regulated by certain authorities (secondary legislation), the application of professional reasoning being limited. In this situation, there are companies managing immobilized assets belonging to the public domain of the state.

Although there have been changes in the tax law to be reconciled with the developments in accounting, there is a time lag in certain accounting transactions can be interpreted differently by the tax authorities.

Regarding the level of understanding and application of IFRS by professional accountants and financial auditors, it can be appreciated that the transition to the application of IFRS as an accounting base has not raised any particular issues, with the understanding of IFRS being made progressively and with the support of professional bodies (CECCAR, CAFR).

Although the shift to applying IFRS in the study has revealed significant changes in asset and equity only in some cases, regulators are cautious about expanding the scope of IFRS-based companies as a basis for accounting.

It can be appreciated that the application of IFRS as the accounting basis is a complex process to which the professional accountants, financial auditors, assessors and state institutions have to contribute. At the same time, the governing bodies of the companies must allocate sufficient material and human resources and show willingness for change and dialogue with internal and external factors.

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2. Accounting regulations in accordance with International Financial Reporting Standards, applicable to companies whose securities are admitted to trading on a regulated market, approved by the Order of the Minister of Public Finance no. 1286/2012, as subsequently amended and supplemented.
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4. Accounting Regulations compliant with International Financial Reporting Standards by some state entities, approved by Ministry of Public Finance no. 666/2015;
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6. Regulation (EC) No. 1606/2002 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 19 July 2002 on the application of international accounting standards;
7. Associate Costel Istrate - *Accounting and financial reporting individual and consolidated*, Polirom, 2016;
8. https://www.omvpetrom.com/portal/01/petromcom;
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10. http://www.conpet.ro/;
11. http://www.alro.ro/;
12. http://new.transgaz.ro/;
13. http://www.transelectrica.ro/web/tel/home/.
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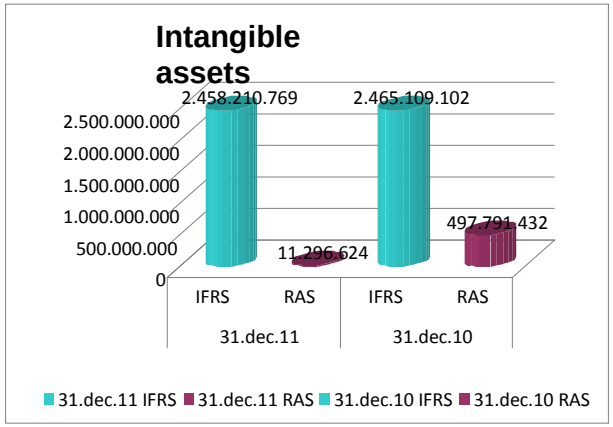
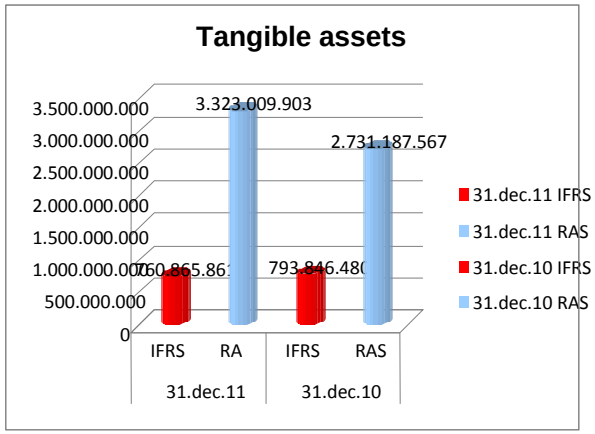
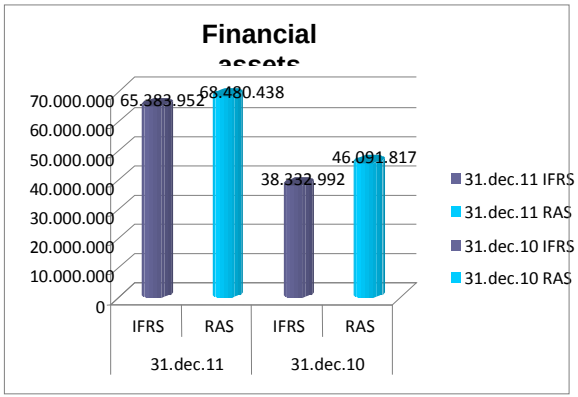
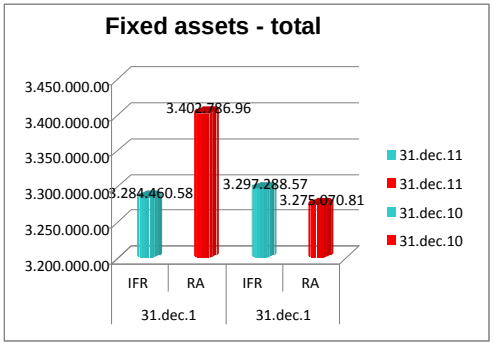
19. http://www.zentiva.ro/pages/default.aspx;
20. http://romcarbon.com/application/;
21. http://www.oltchim.ro/;
22. http://www.nuclearelectrica.ro/.

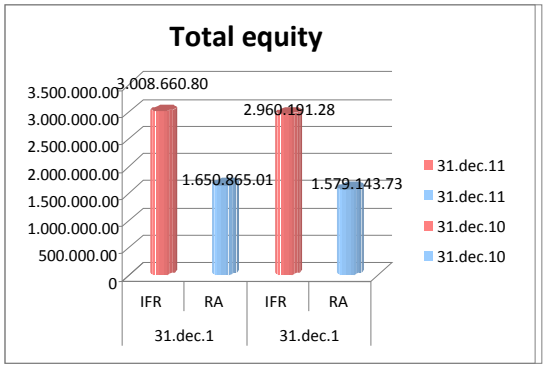
Annex 1 - TRANSGAZ



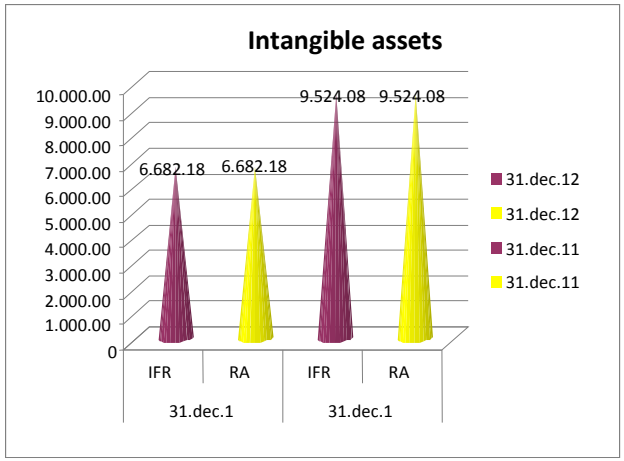


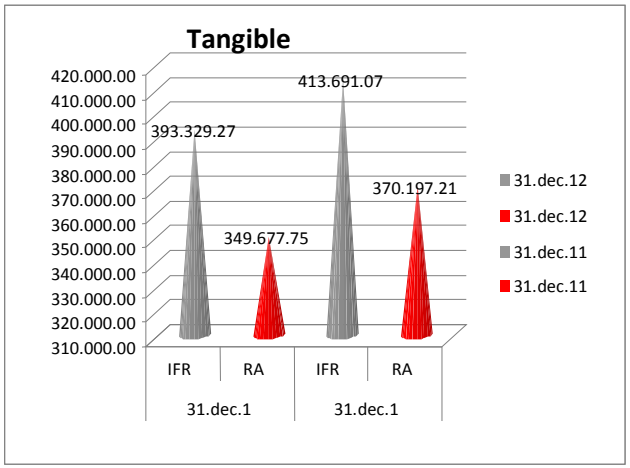


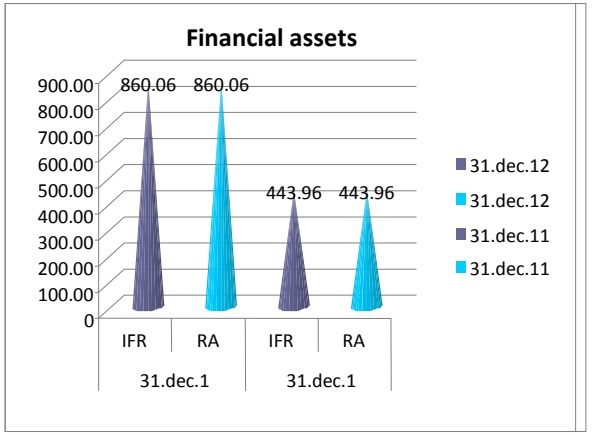


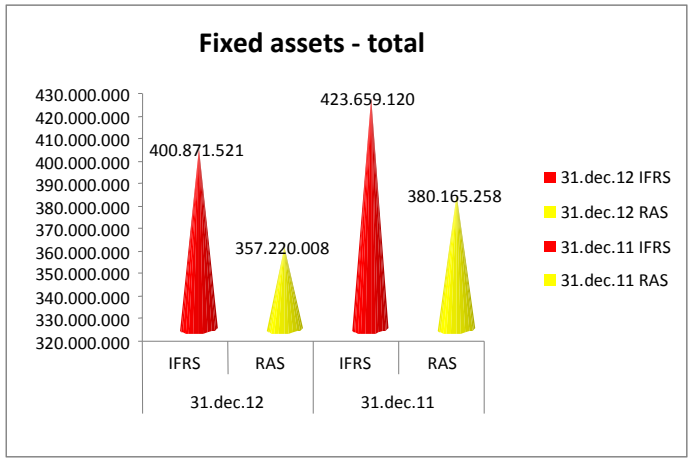


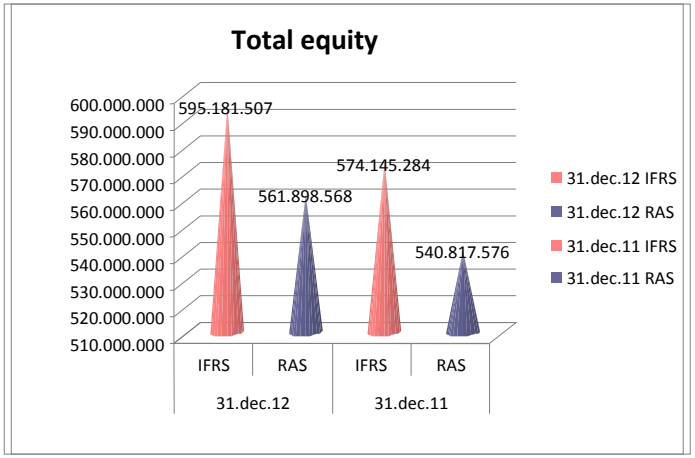
Annex2 - CONPET



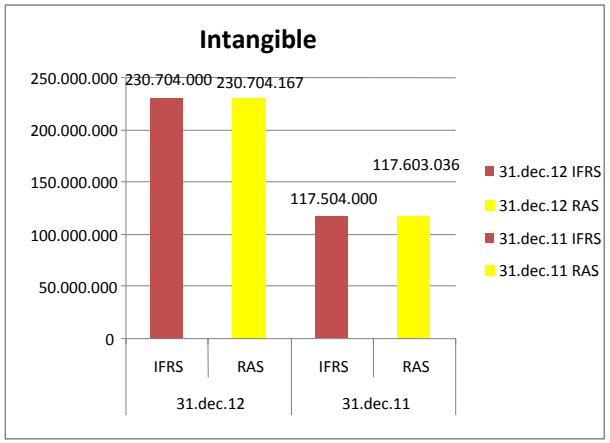


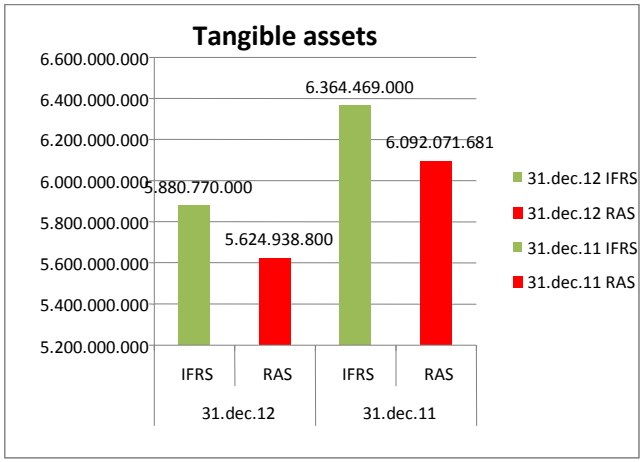


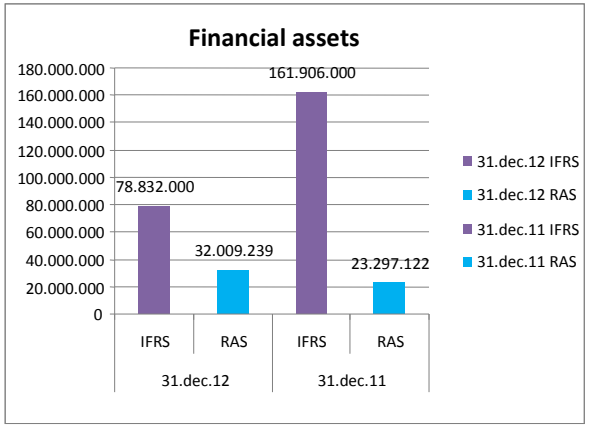


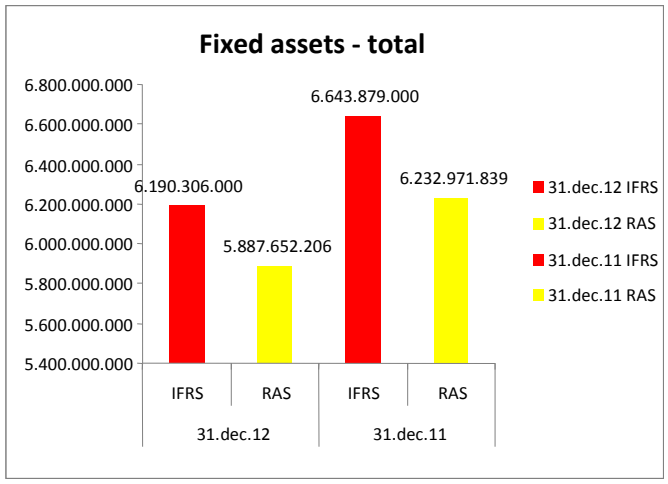


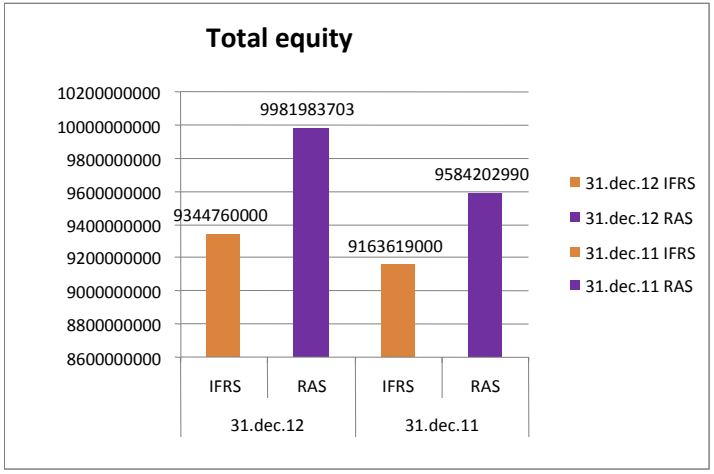
Annex 3 - ROMGAZ



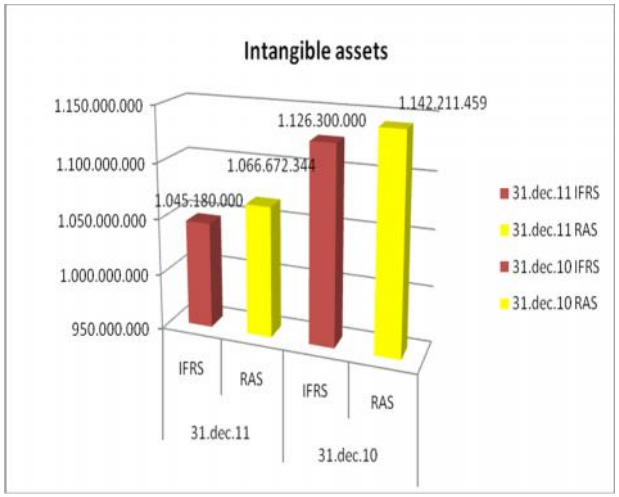


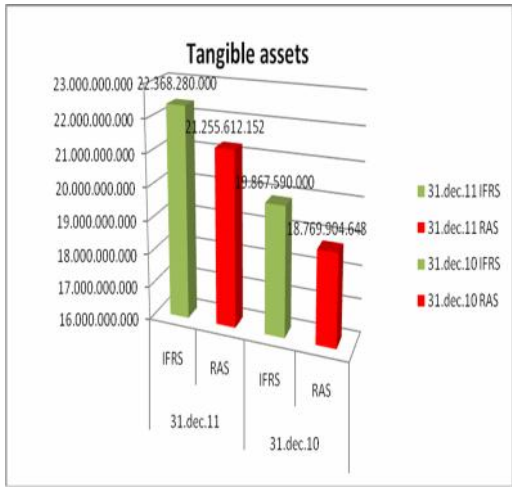


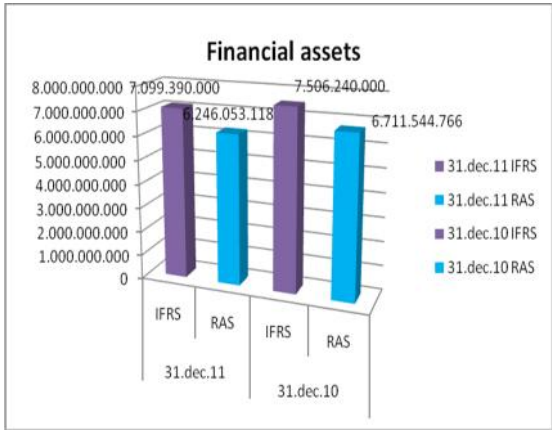


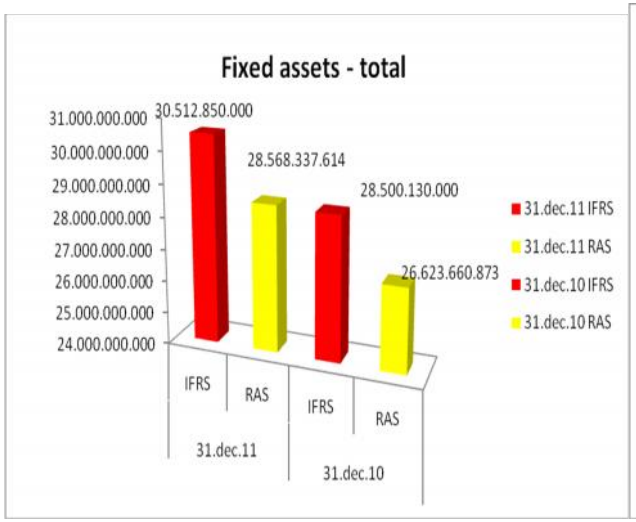


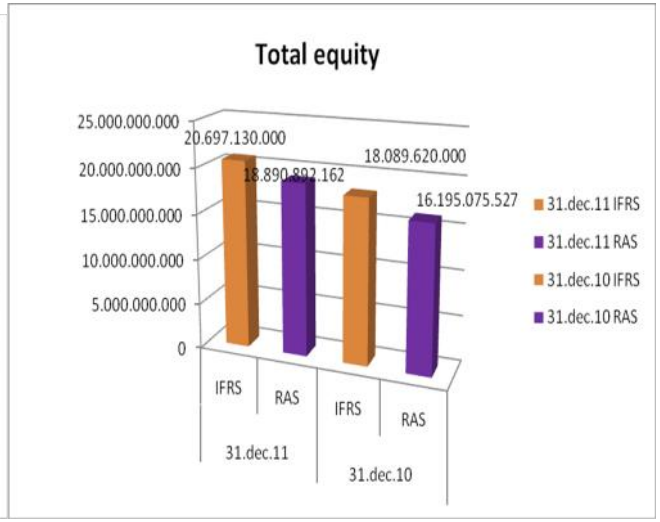
Annex 4 - OMV PETROM



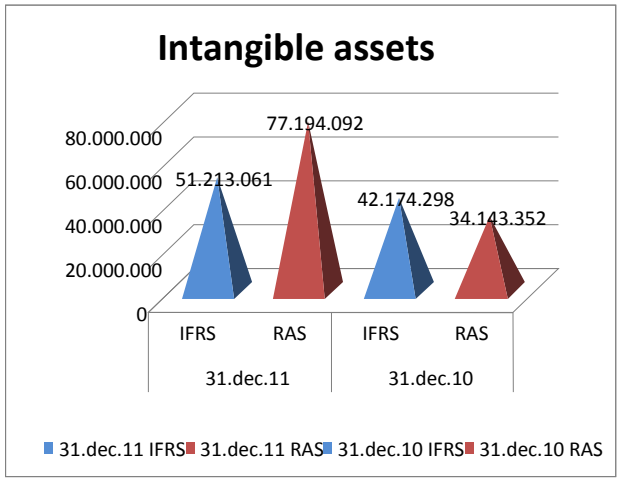








Annex 5 - TRANSELECTRICA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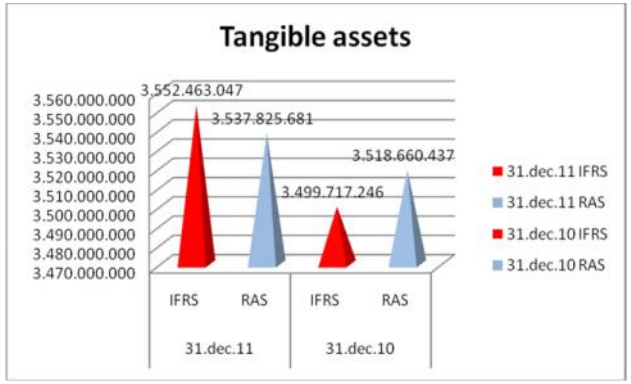
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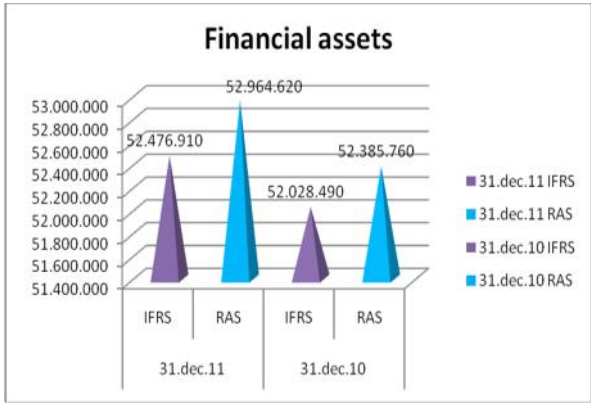
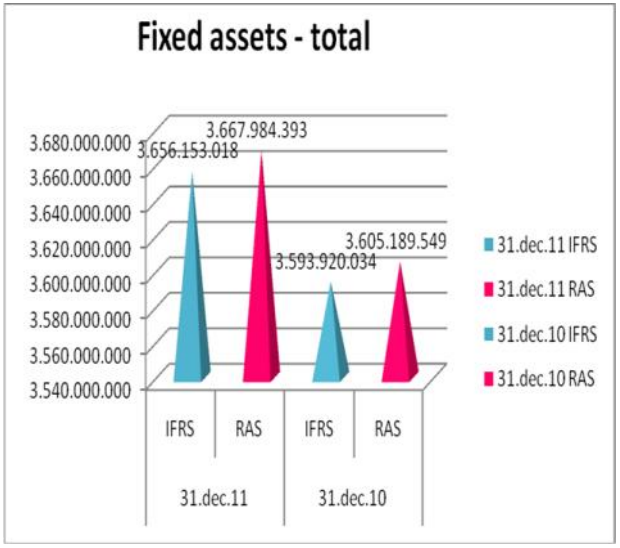
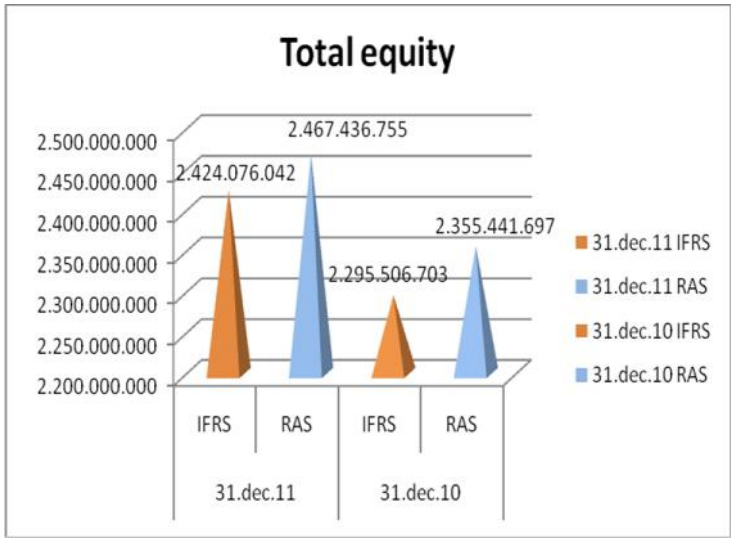
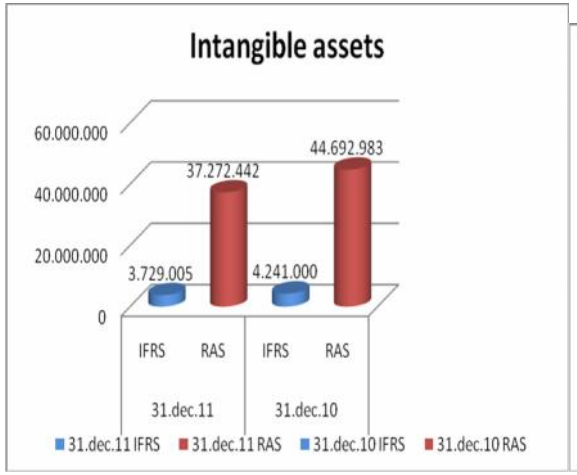
31.dec.10 RAS

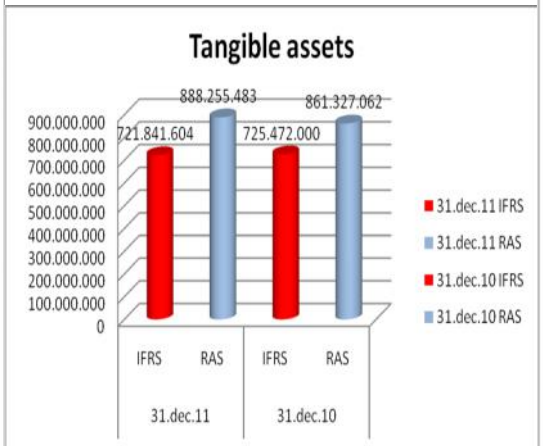

Financial assets
53.000.000
52.800.000
52.600.000
52.400.000
52.200.000
52.000.000
51.800.000
51.600.000
51.400.000
52.476.910
52.964.620
52.028.490
52.385.760
IFRS
RAS
IFRS
RAS
31.dec.11
31.dec.10
31.dec.11 IFRS
31.dec.11 RAS
31.dec.10 IFRS
31.dec.10 RAS

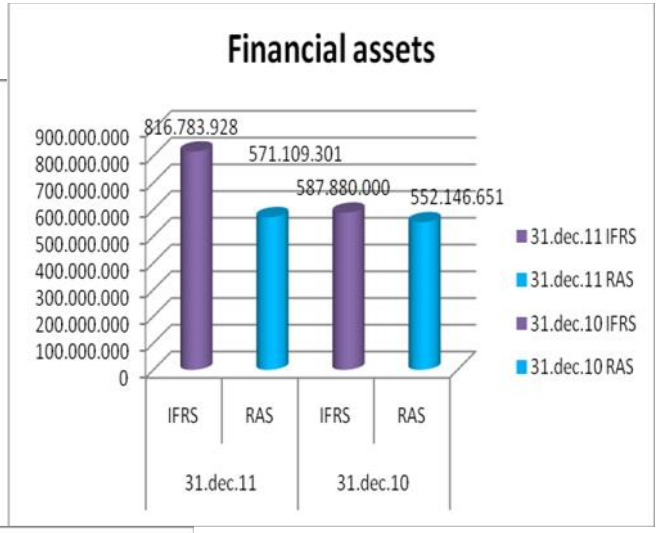

Fixed assets - total
3.680.000.000
3.660.000.000
3.640.000.000
3.620.000.000
3.600.000.000
3.580.000.000
3.560.000.000
3.540.000.000
3.656.153.018
3.667.984.393
3.593.920.034
3.605.189.549
IFRS
RAS
IFRS
RAS
31.dec.11
31.dec.10
31.dec.11 IFRS
31.dec.11 RAS
31.dec.10 IFRS
31.dec.10 RAS

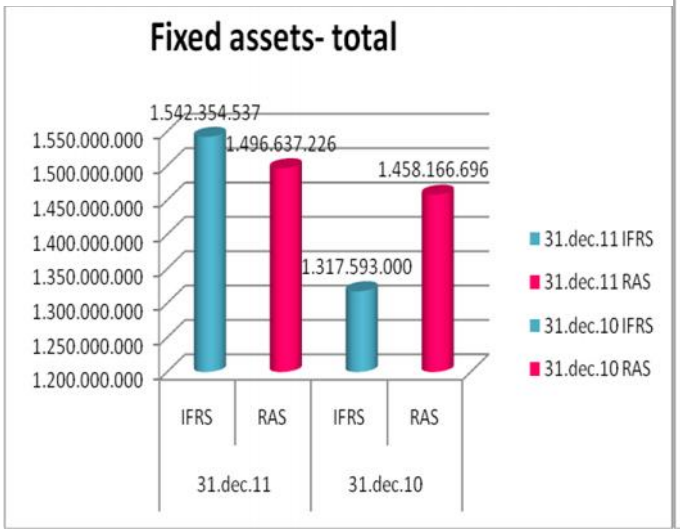

Total equity
2.500.000.000
2.450.000.000
2.400.000.000
2.350.000.000
2.300.000.000
2.250.000.000
2.200.000.000
2.424.076.042
2.467.436.755
2.295.506.703
2.355.441.697
IFRS
RAS
IFRS
RAS
31.dec.11
31.dec.10
31.dec.11 IFRS
31.dec.11 RAS
31.dec.10 IFRS
31.dec.10 RAS

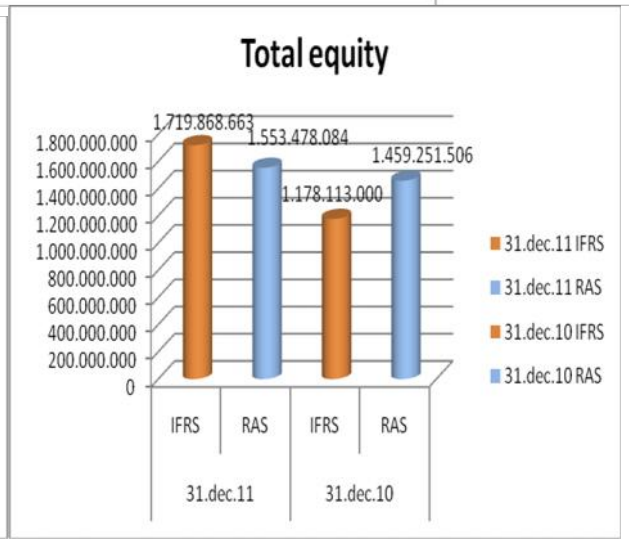
Annex 6- ALRO


Intangible assets
60.000.000
40.000.000
20.000.000
0
3.729.005
37.272.442
4.241.000
44.692.983
IFRS
RAS
IFRS
RAS
31.dec.11
31.dec.10
31.dec.11 IFRS
31.dec.11 RAS
31.dec.10 IFRS
31.dec.10 RAS

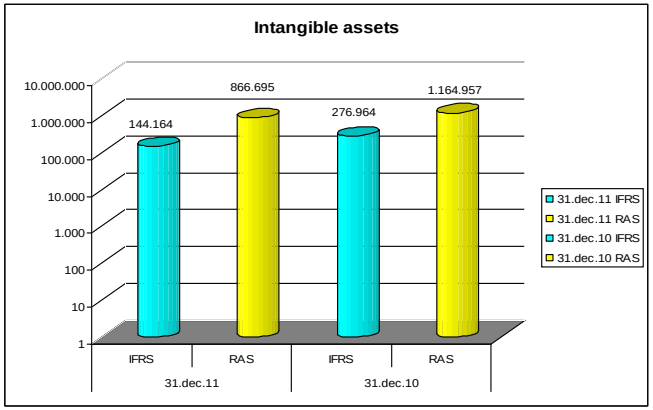

Tangible assets
900.000.000
800.000.000
700.000.000
600.000.000
500.000.000
400.000.000
300.000.000
200.000.000
100.000.000
0
721.841.604
888.255.483
725.472.000
861.327.062
IFRS
RAS
IFRS
RAS
31.dec.11
31.dec.10
31.dec.11 IFRS
31.dec.11 RAS
31.dec.10 IFRS
31.dec.10 RAS

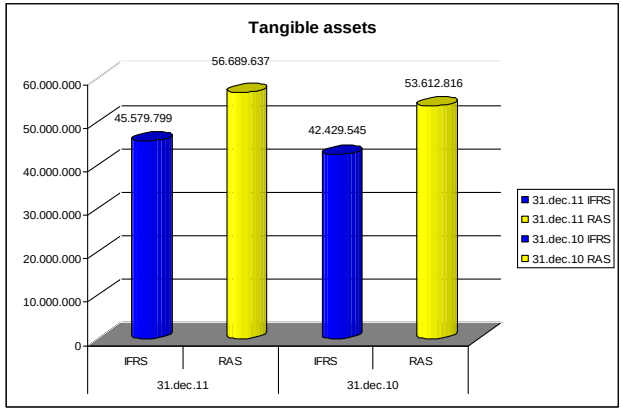

Financial assets
900.000.000
800.000.000
700.000.000
600.000.000
500.000.000
400.000.000
300.000.000
200.000.000
100.000.000
0
816.783.928
571.109.301
587.880.000
552.146.651
IFRS
RAS
IFRS
RAS
31.dec.11
31.dec.10
31.dec.11 IFRS
31.dec.11 RAS
31.dec.10 IFRS
31.dec.10 RAS

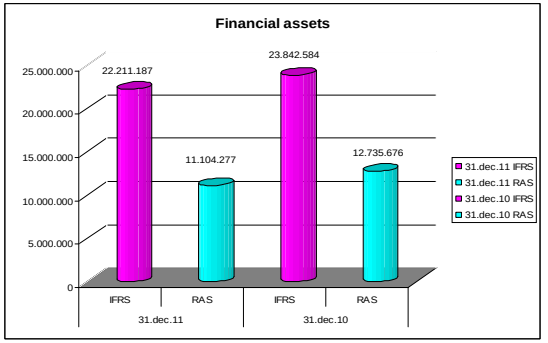

Fixed assets- total
1.550.000.000
1.500.000.000
1.450.000.000
1.400.000.000
1.350.000.000
1.300.000.000
1.250.000.000
1.200.000.000
1.542.354.537
1.496.637.226
1.317.593.000
1.458.166.696
IFRS
RAS
IFRS
RAS
31.dec.11
31.dec.10
31.dec.11 IFRS
31.dec.11 RAS
31.dec.10 IFRS
31.dec.10 RAS

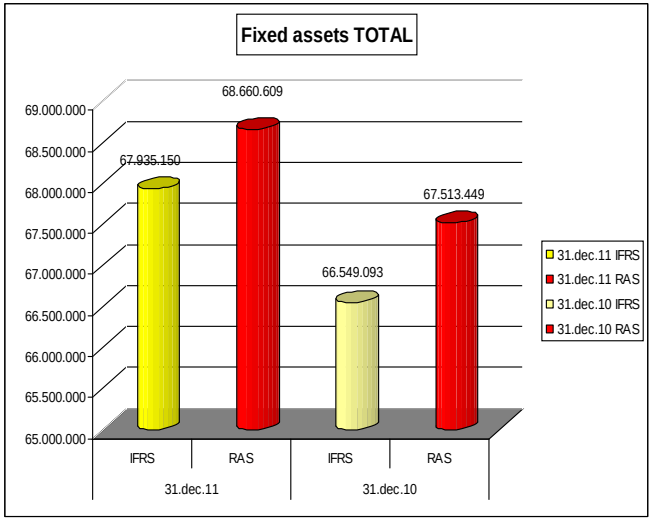

Total equity
1.800.000.000
1.600.000.000
1.400.000.000
1.200.000.000
1.000.000.000
800.000.000
600.000.000
400.000.000
200.000.000
0
1.719.868.663
1.553.478.084
1.178.113.000
1.459.251.506
IFRS
RAS
IFRS
RAS
31.dec.11
31.dec.10
31.dec.11 IFRS
31.dec.11 RAS
31.dec.10 IFRS
31.dec.10 RAS

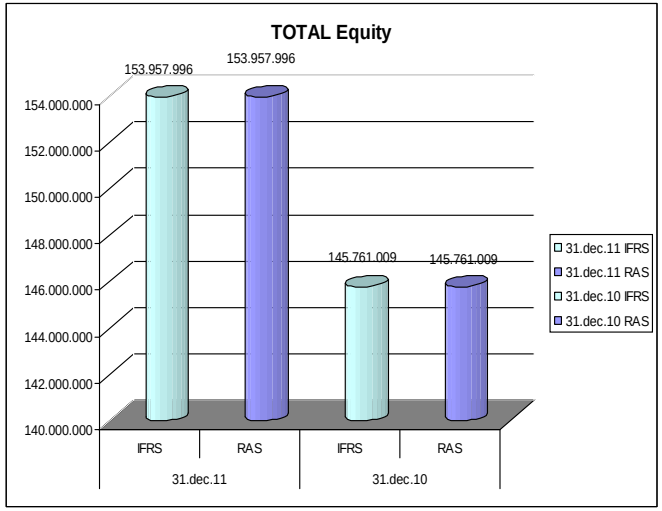
Annex 7- BIOFARM



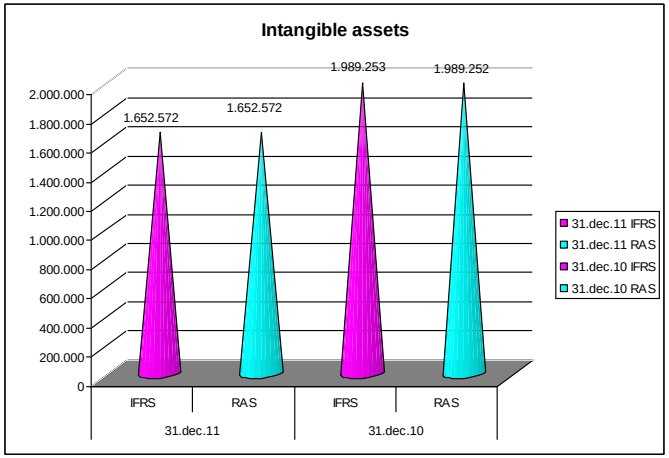


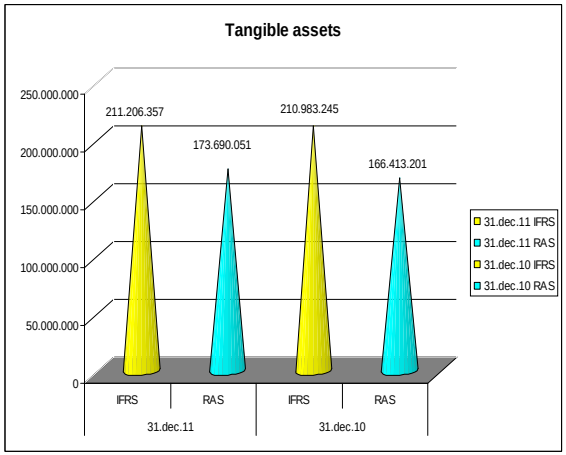


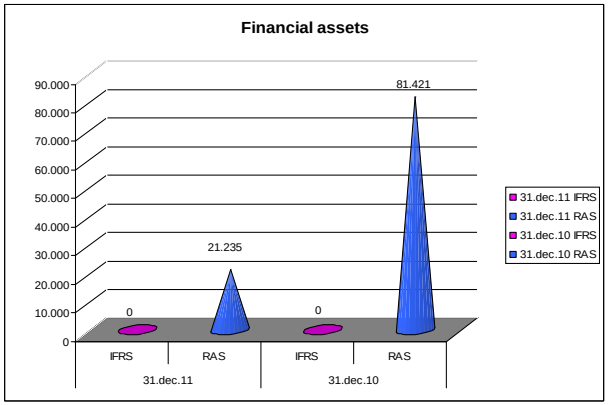


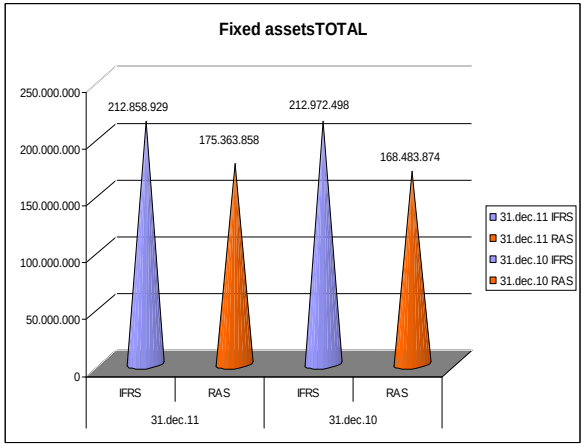


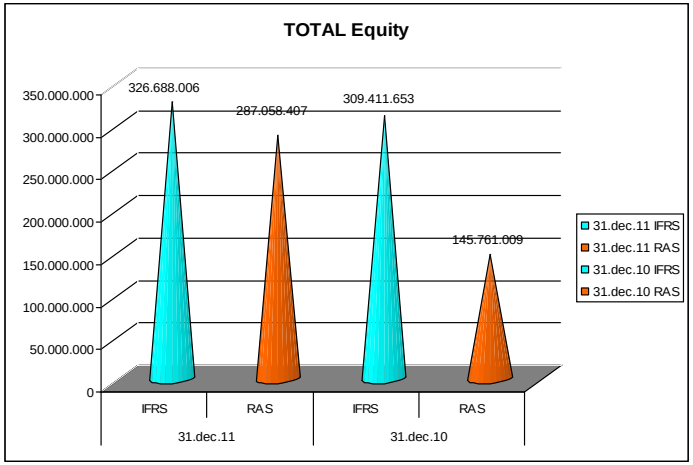
Annex 8- ANTIBIOTICE SA



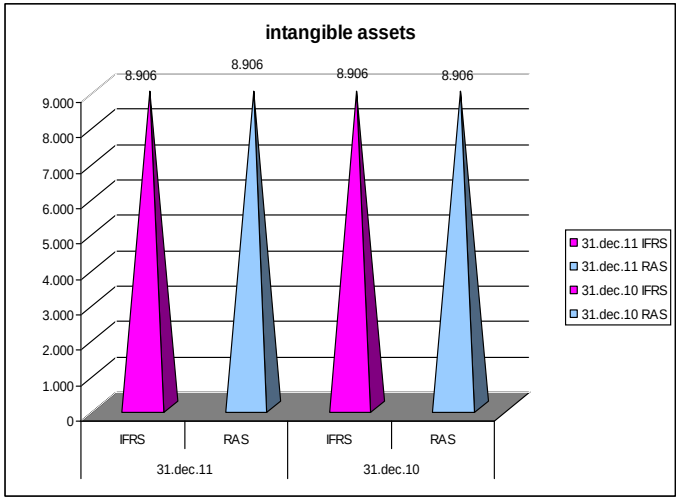


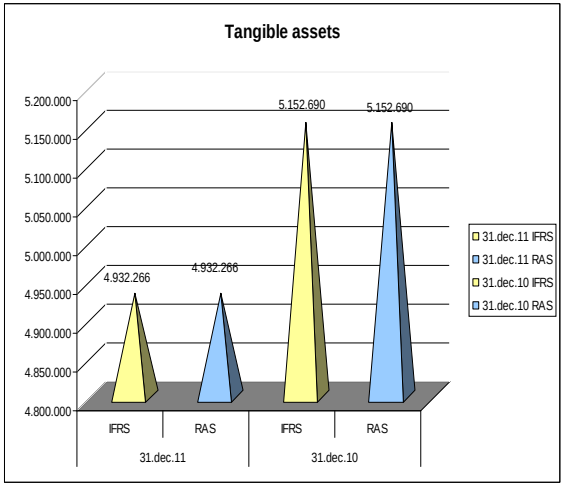


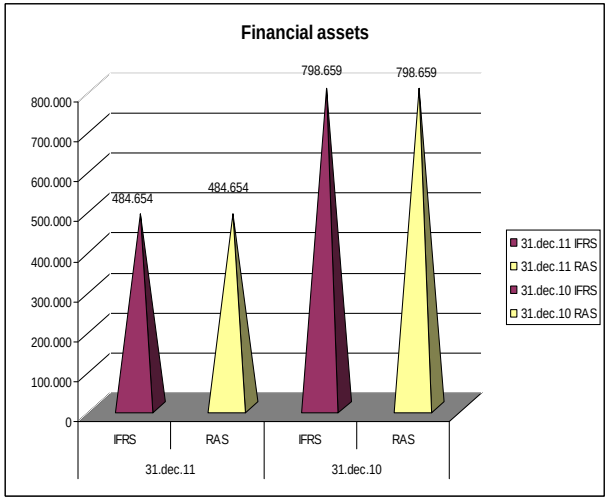


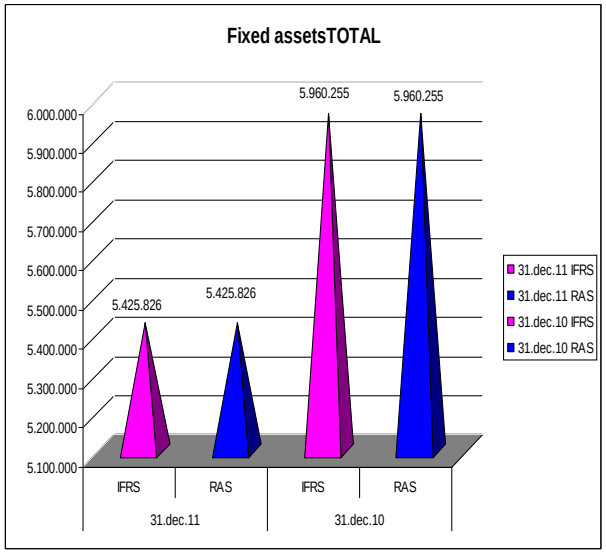


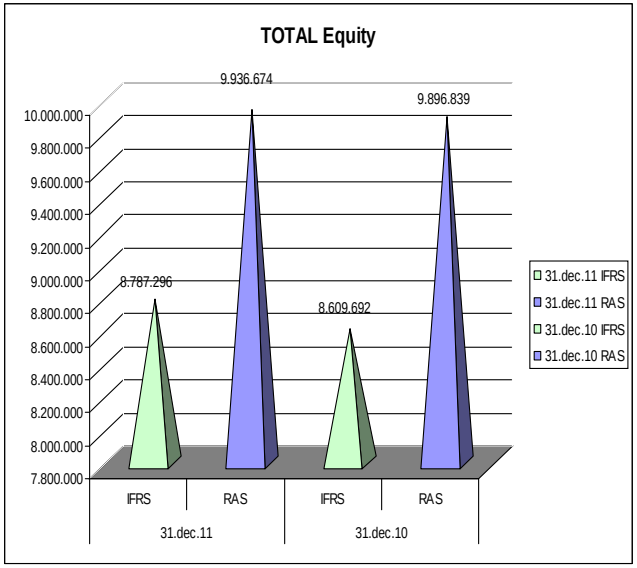
Annex 9 - ENERGOPETROL



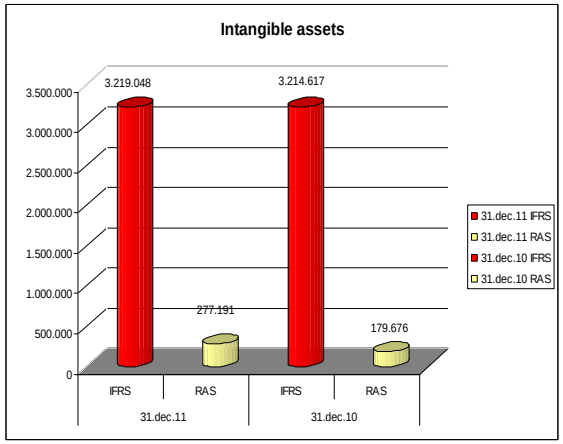


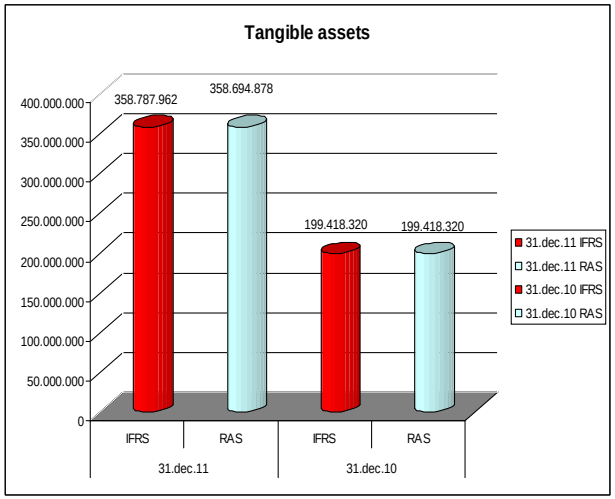


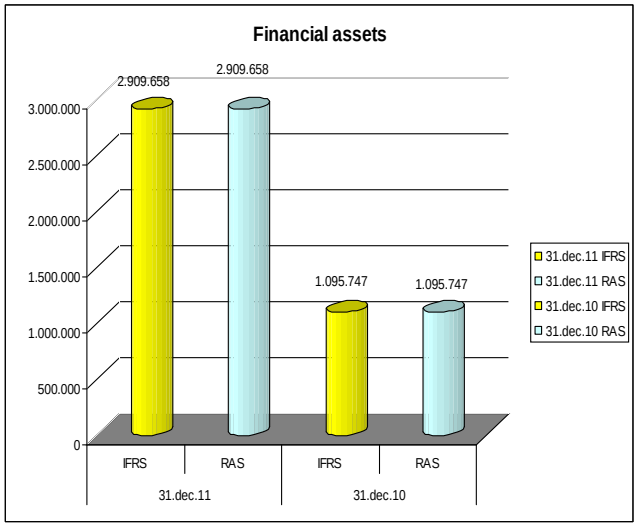


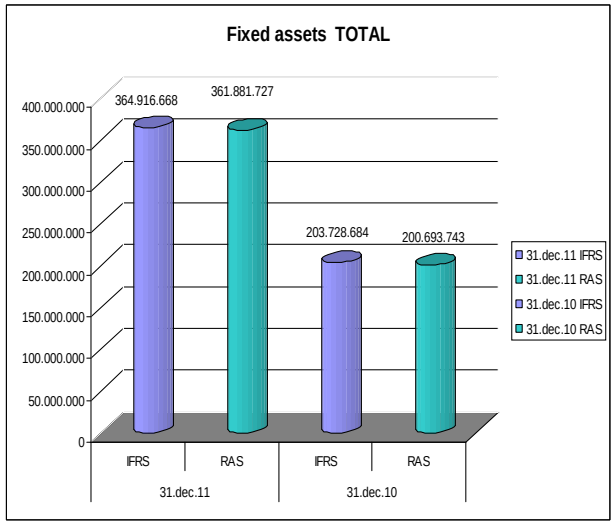


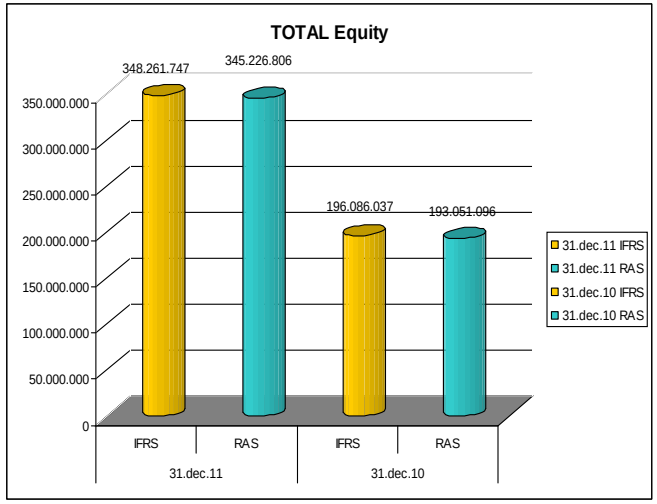
Annex 10 - OIL TERMINAL



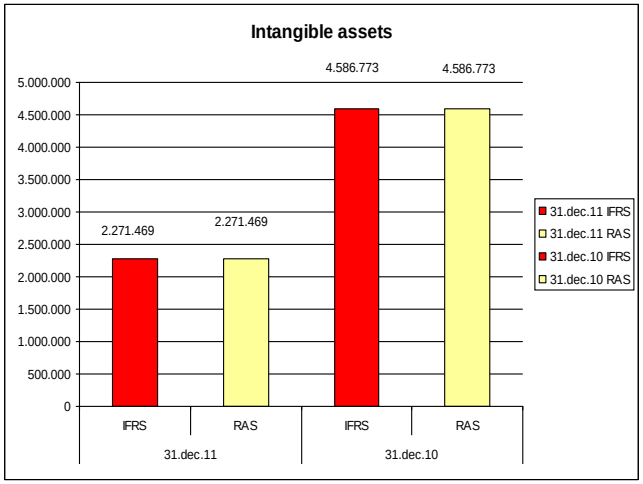


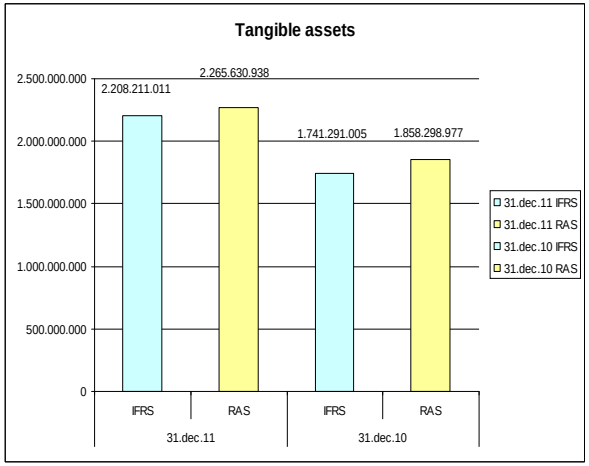


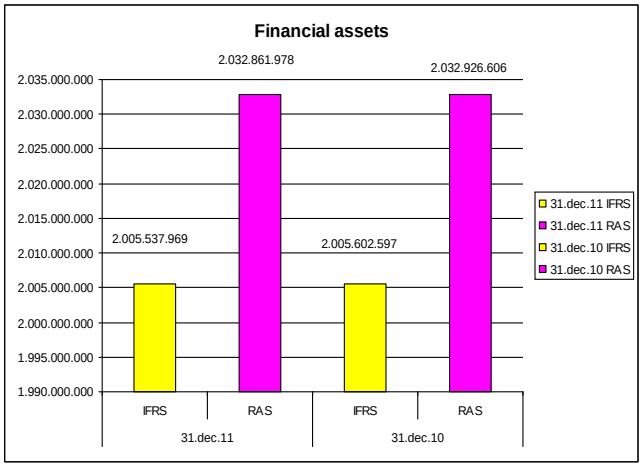


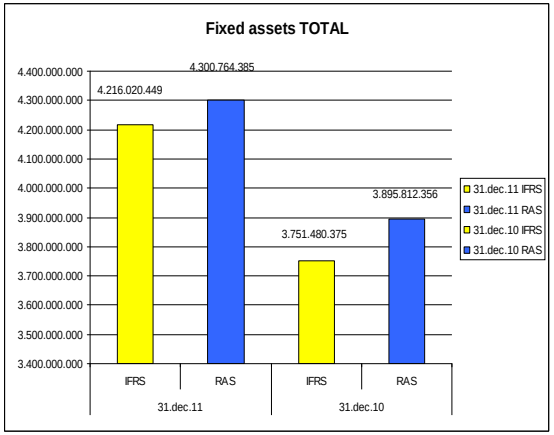


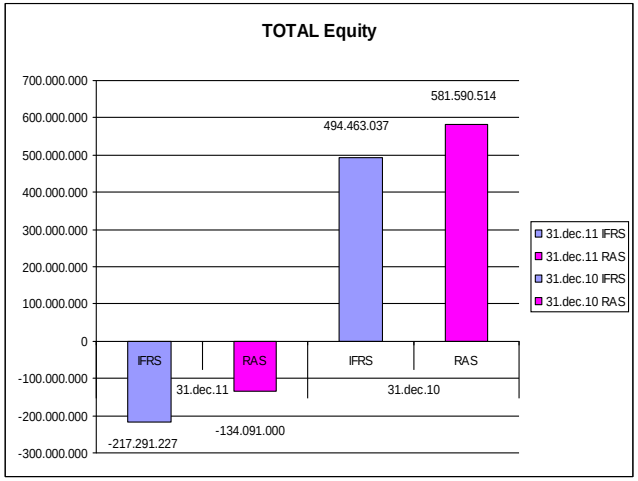
Annex 11 - ROMPETROL



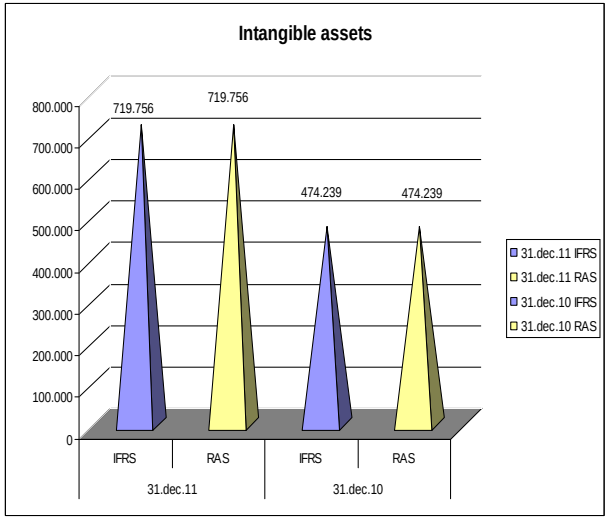


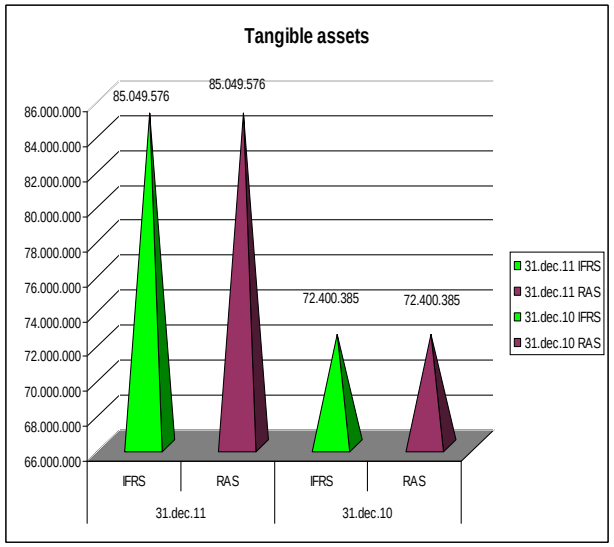


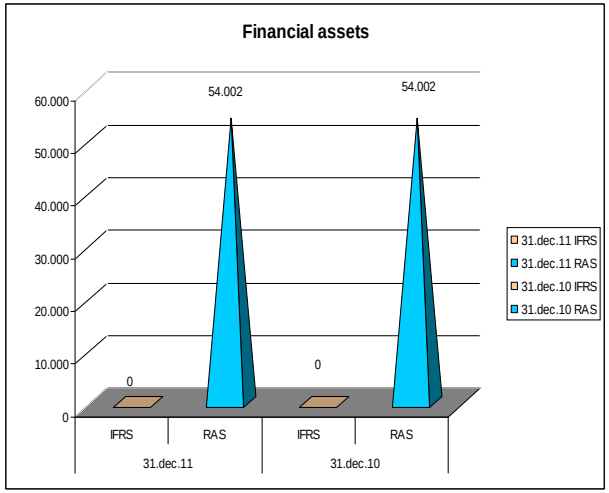


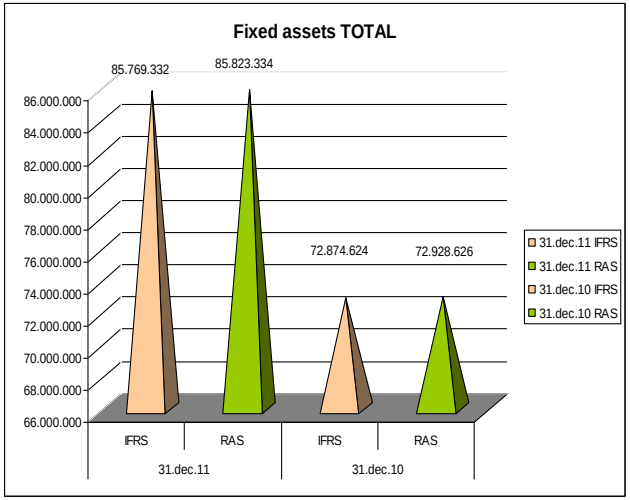


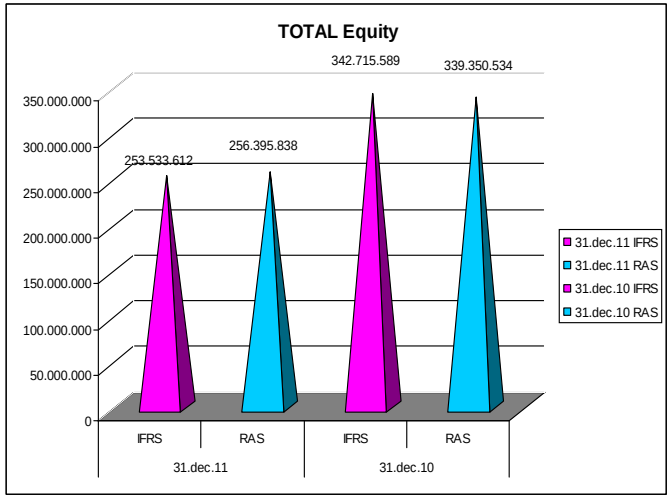
Annex 12 - ZENTIVA



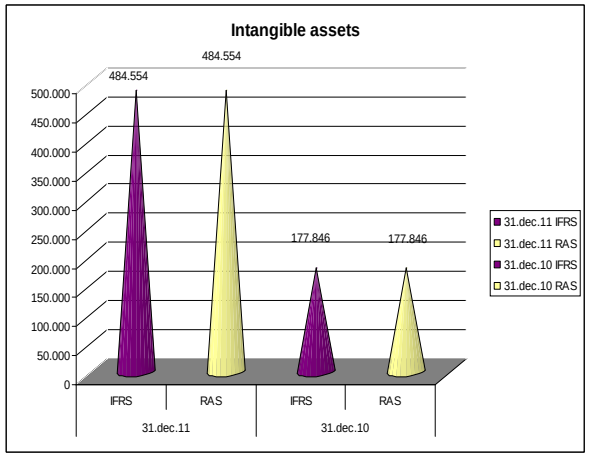


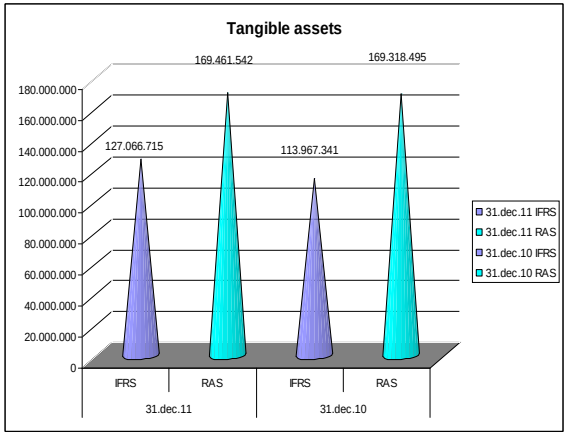


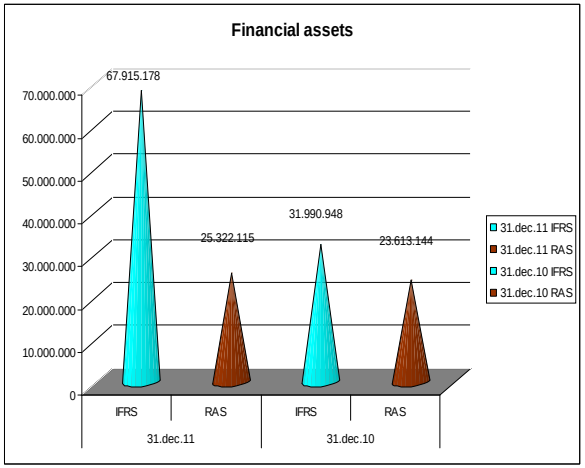


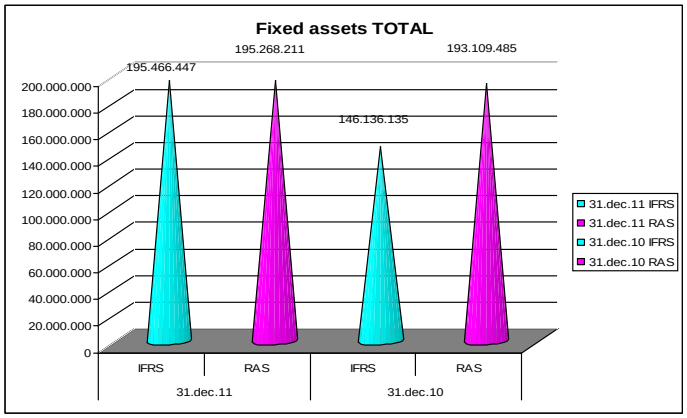


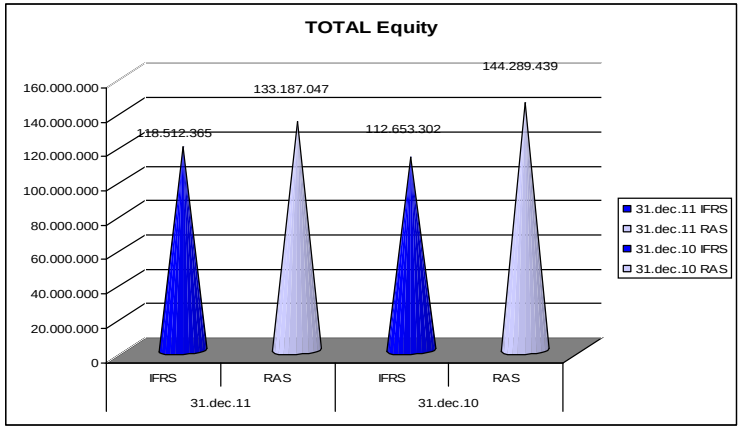
Annex 13 - ROMCARBON



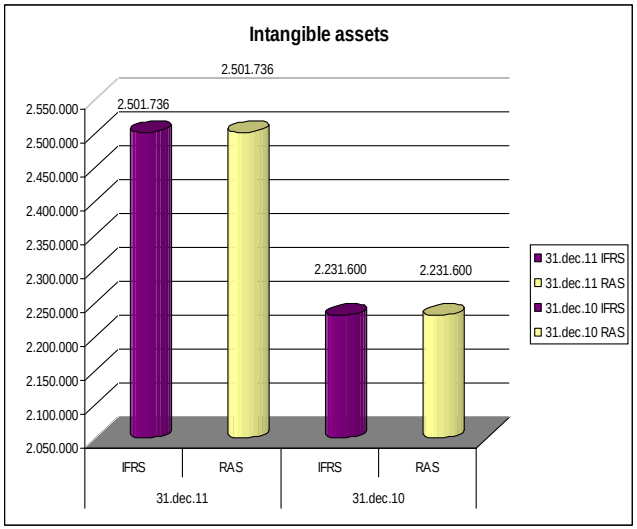


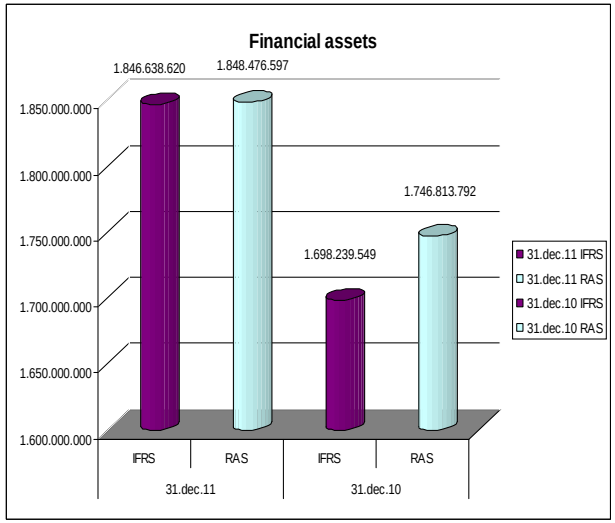


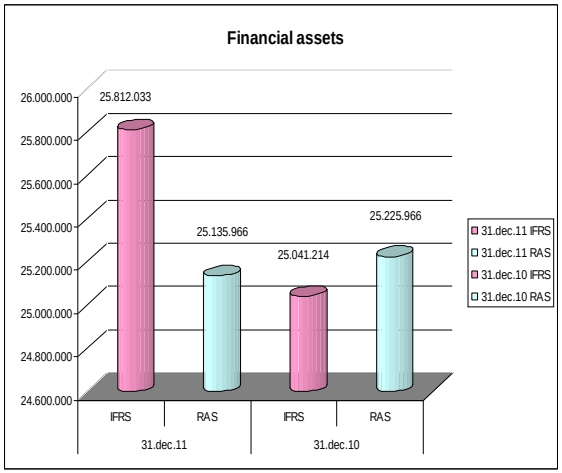


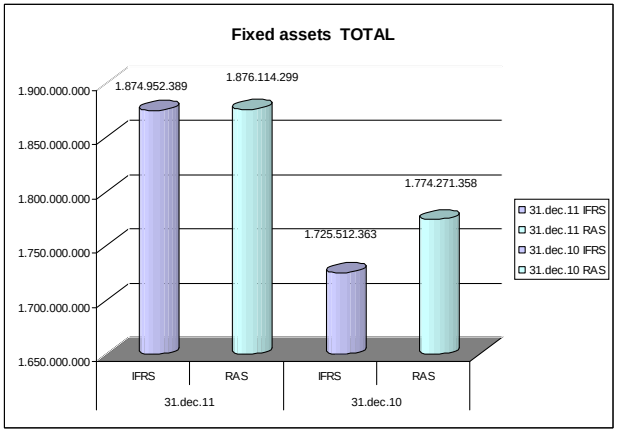


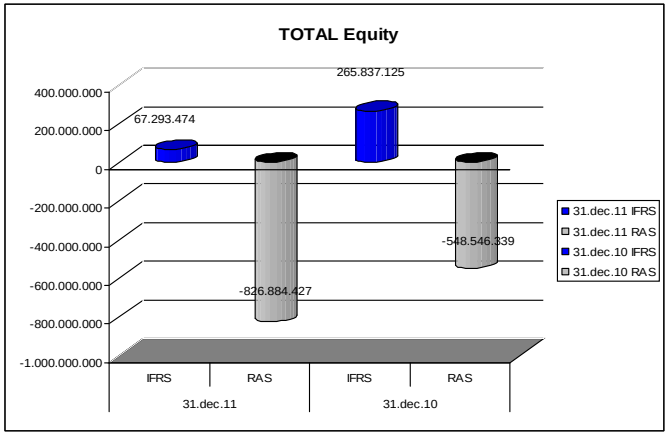
Annex 14 - OLTCHIM



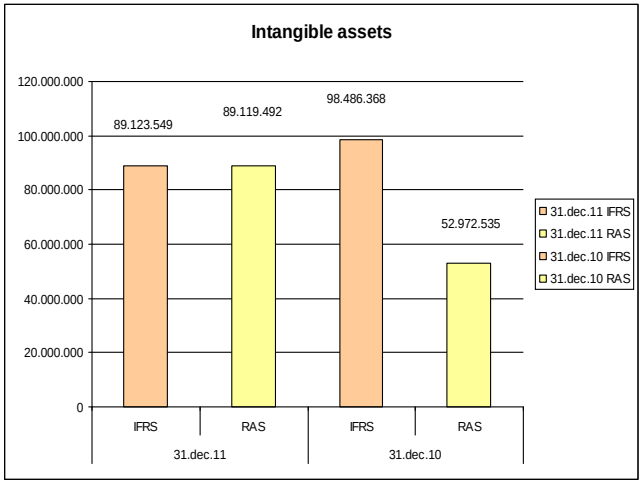


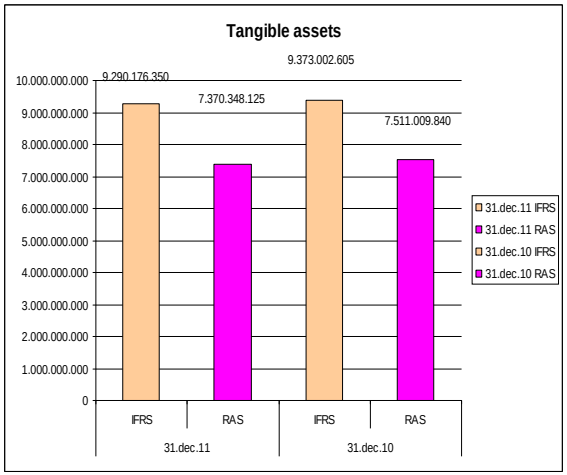


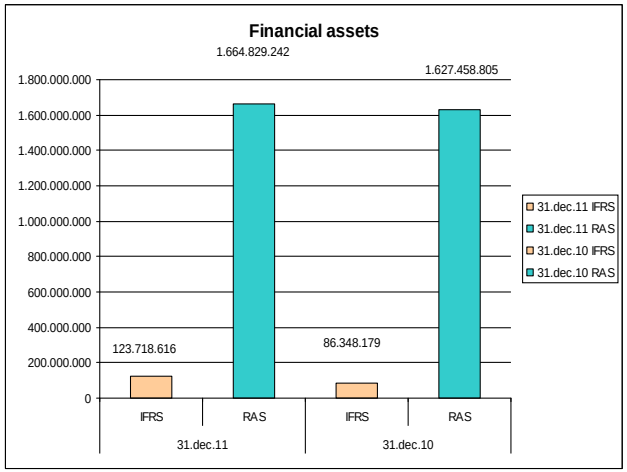


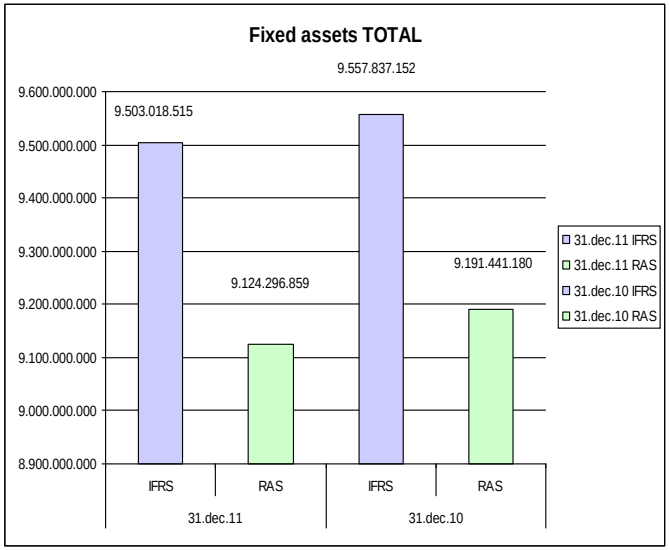


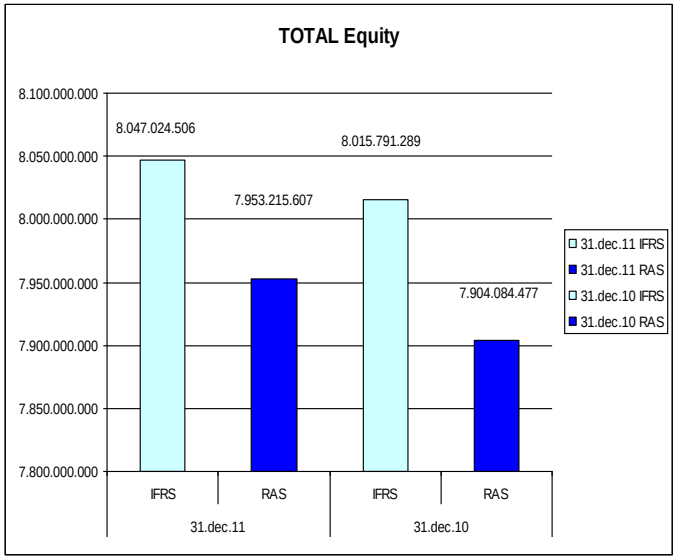
Annex 15 -NUCLEARELECTRICA











APLICAREA STANDARDELOR INTERNAȚIONALE DE RAPORTARE FINANCIARĂ - OPORTUNITATE ŞI PROVOCARE

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Rezumat: *Schimbările produse după anul 1989 în mediul economic, social şi politic au impus evoluții rapide şi în mediul legislativ, inclusiv în ceea ce privește contabilitatea societăților.Existența unei diversități de operațiuni economico-financiare efectuate de către societăți a impus reglementarea acestora din punct de vedere contabil, realizându-se un proces de asimilare a prevederilor IFRS în normele contabile românești. Această asimilare treptată a făcut posibilă înțelegerea şi aplicarea în practică de către specialiştii din societăți a unor norme contabile din ce în ce mai complexe şi chiar trecerea la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă. Pentru a analiza impactul trecerii la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă asupra valorii elementelor de activ şi a capitalurilor proprii s-au comparat informațiile prezentate de societăți potrivit IFRS cu cele determinate pentru aceeaşi perioadă potrivit reglementărilor contabile aplicabile anterior trecerii la IFRS (reglementări conforme cu directivele europene). Rezultatele cercetării efectuate asupra informațiilor cuprinse în situațiile financiare intocmite de cinsprezece companii, considerate reprezentative, au pus in evidenta faptul ca trecerea la aplicarea IFRS ca baza contabila nu a afectat semnificativ valoarea totala a activelor imobilizate ale acestora, ci a determinat unele reclasificari intre diferite categorii de active precum si unele ajustari de valoare. Totodată, analiza capitalurilor proprii rezultate în urma aplicării IFRS a pus în evidență faptul că retratările efectuate nu au afectat semnificativ capitalurile proprii in totalitatea lor, existând modificări în structura acestora. Graficele prezentate în anexă pun în evidență, comparativ, activele imobilizate şi capitalurile proprii potrivit IFRS şi OMFP nr. 3055/2009, cu modificările şi completările ulterioare.*

Cuvinte-cheie: *reglementări comunitare şi naționale, raportări, standarde internaționale de raportare financiară (IFRS), trecerea la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă, impactul aplicării IFRS*
Clasificarea JEL: *M 41.*

1. Introducere

Trecerea de la aplicarea Standardelor Internaționale de Raportare Financiară (IFRS) de către unele categorii de societăți a reprezentat un proces complex care a implicat reprezentanți ai mediului de afaceri, profesioniști contabili şi reglementatori în domeniul contabilității.

În calitate de țară membră a Uniunii Europene, România trebuie să aplice regulamentele comunitare aşa cum sunt acestea publicate.

Regulamentul (CE) nr. 1606/2002 al Parlamentului European şi al Consiliului din 19 iulie 2002 privind aplicarea standardelor internaționale de contabilitate prevede cerințele privind aplicarea IFRS la nivel comunitar.

Potrivit acestui regulament numai anumite categorii de societăți sunt obligate să aplice IFRS în situațiile financiare consolidate.

Regulamentul lasă la latitudinea statelor membre posibilitatea de a cere societăților sau de a da acestora dreptul la opțiunea de aplicare a IFRS în funcție de anumite interese sau scopuri urmărite (ex.: atragerea de capital).

În anul 2012, factorii de decizie în domeniul normalizării contabile au hotărât ca societățile ale căror valori mobiliare sunt tranzacționate pe o piață reglementată, trebuie să aplice IFRS și să publice situații financiare anuale întocmite în conformitate cu aceste standarde.

2. Principalele etape ale evoluției contabilității în România

Schimbările produse după anul 1989 în mediul economic, social şi politic au impus evoluții rapide şi în mediul legislativ, inclusiv în ceea ce privește contabilitatea societăților.

Întrucât trecerea de la economia socialistă centralizată la economia de piață s-a efectuat fără o pregătire prealabilă în plan legislativ, România s-a aflat în situația de a reglementa din punct de vedere contabil tranzacțiile efectuate de societăți pe măsură ce acestea au apărut.

În ceea ce privește procesul de normare și sistemul de raportare contabilă, distingem mai multe perioade[24], dintre care se menționează:

- Perioada 1990-1993 care s-a caracterizat prin măsuri tranzitorii, respectiv elaborarea unor norme contabile cuprinzând prevederi sumare care să facă tranziția la norme contabile specifice unei economii de piață.

- Perioada 1994-1999 în care s-a realizat reforma sistemului de contabilitate românesc bazat pe directivele europene, normele contabile emise în această perioadă caracterizându-se prin:

- preluarea principiilor contabile și a regulilor de evaluare a elementelor bilanțiere din Directiva a IV-a a Comunităților Economice Europene *(78/660/EEC)*;

- existența unui format al situațiilor financiare prestabilit (bilanț, cont de profit și pierdere) preluat din aceeași directivă, informațiile prezentate fiind, de regulă, numerice);

- conectarea, în cea mai mare parte, a prevederilor contabile la prevederile din normele fiscale;

- lipsă de flexibilitate în ceea ce privește posibilitatea realizării unor raționamente profesionale.

Începând cu anul 2001, în România a început un proces de adoptare parțială[25] a Standardelor Internaționale de Raportare Financiară prin aplicarea *Ordinului ministrului finanțelor publice nr. 94/2001 pentru aprobarea Reglementărilor contabile armonizate cu Directiva a IV-a a Comunităților Economice Europene și cu Standardele Internaționale de Contabilitate*, denumit în continuare Ordinul ministrului finanțelor publice nr. 94/2001.

Aplicarea reglementărilor contabile armonizate cu IFRS s-a realizat gradual de către societățile ale căror valori mobiliare erau tranzacționate la Bursa de Valori București, companiile și societățile naționale, societățile cuprinse în anexa la ordinul menționat precum și de către alte societăți, în funcție de îndeplinirea unor indicatori (cifra de afaceri netă, total active și număr mediu de salariați).

Celelalte categorii de societăți (majoritatea) au continuat să aplice norme contabile conforme cu directivele europene.

Ordinul ministrului finanțelor publice nr. 94/2001 a fost în vigoare până în anul 2005, acesta fiind abrogat de Ordinul ministrului finanțelor publice nr. 1752/2005 pentru aprobarea Reglementărilor contabile armonizate cu Directiva a IV-a și a VII-a a Comunităților Economice Europene.

Aplicarea unor standarde internaționale de contabilitate alături de directivele europene (*Ordinul ministrului finanțelor nr. 94/2001)* a pus în evidență unele dificultăți, atât în ceea ce privește armonizarea prevederilor din normele contabile cu prevederi cuprinse în legislația națională, cât și dificultăți în înțelegerea și aplicarea în practică a normelor contabile de către specialiștii din societăți.

Referitor la conținutul acestei norme contabile se menționează următoarele:

- norma contabilă reprezintă o ”mixtură” între prevederile din Directiva contabilă (Directiva a IV-a) și prevederile din unele Standarde Internaționale de Contabilitate;

- structura situațiilor financiare anuale individuale era cea prevăzută în Directiva a IV-a;

24 o prezentare analitică a etapelor în evoluția contabilității românești este efectuată de domnul conferențiar Costel Istrate în lucrarea ”Contabilitate și raportări financiare individuale și consolidate”, Editura Polirom 2016
25 nu au mai fost aplicabile unele standarde internaționale de contabilitate (ex. : IAS 29 ” Raportarea financiară în economii hiperinflaționiste”, IAS 1” Prezentarea situațiilor financiare”)

- tratamentele contabile şi regulile de evaluare erau cele prevăzute în standardele internaţionale de contabilitate;

- au apărut elemente bilanţiere noi (de ex: creanţe sau datorii din impozitul pe profit amânat);

- concepţia şi exprimarea în IFRS erau, în mai multe cazuri, la nivel de principii, spre deosebire de directivele europene care cuprindeau reguli clar definite.

În procesul de aplicare a normei contabile s-au identificat următoarele aspecte:

- standardele internaţionale de contabilitate aplicabile la acea dată erau traduse greoi, erau utilizaţi termeni noi, cu exprimări neuzuale în texte care aveau putere de norme şi trebuiau aplicate unitar (ex: expresii ” de regulă”, ”uneori”);

- dificultăţi în înţelegerea şi aplicarea IFRS de către specialiştii din societăţi având în vedere atât volumul mare de informaţii noi cuprinse cât şi conceptele noi cuprinse în acestea;

- necorelarea prevederilor din unele IFRS-uri cu prevederile din legislaţia fiscală, fapt ce a condus la interpretări diferite de către organele de control fiscal. În perioada de aplicare a acestui ordin au fost emise mai multe decizii ale Comisiei Fiscale Centrale din Ministerul Finanţelor Publice pentru a se aduce clarificări privind tratamentul fiscal al unor operaţiuni contabile.

Ca urmare a riscurilor legate de înţelegerea şi aplicarea eronată a unor tratamente contabile şi a posibilităţii de interpretare a unor tratamente fiscale, dar şi a faptului că aplicarea IFRS în situaţiile financiare individuale nu reprezenta o obligaţie care să derive din legislaţia comunitară, s-a renunţat la aplicarea IFRS alături de directivele europene.

În aceste condiţii, aplicarea IFRS a rămas obligatorie pentru întocmirea situaţiilor financiare anuale consolidate de către societăţile ale căror valori mobiliare sunt tranzacţionate pe o piaţă reglementată şi opţională de către alte societăţi pentru întocmirea situaţiilor financiare anuale consolidate.

Perioada 2005-2007 s-a caracterizat prin trecerea de la faza de ”armonizare” cu directivele contabile, la faza de ”conformitate” cu acestea, în perspectiva îndeplinirii criteriilor de aderare la UE.

Perioada 2007-2012 reprezintă perioada în care au avut loc evoluţii semnificative în procesul de normare contabilă, caracterizate prin:

- asimilarea în normele contabile naţionale a unor tratamente din standardele internaţionale de raportare financiară;

- posibilitatea aplicării IFRS la întocmirea situaţiilor financiare anuale consolidate de către societăţi.

Perioada 2012-2017 se caracterizează prin aplicarea în paralel a două reglementări contabile, respectiv:

- reglementări contabile conforme cu directivele contabile aplicabile de cea mai mare parte a societăţilor;

- reglementările contabile conforme cu IFRS, aplicabile de către anumite categorii de societăţi, expres prevăzute în actele normative.

Trecerea la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă a fost ”anunţată” prin Ordinul ministrului finanţelor publice nr. 881/2012[26].

Acest ordin prevede că societăţile ale căror valori mobiliare sunt tranzacţionate pe o piaţă reglementată trec la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă începând cu situaţiile financiare anuale ale exerciţiului financiar 2012[27].

Norma contabilă care prevede aspecte tehnice referitoare la trecerea de la o contabilitate organizată şi condusă potrivit Ordinul ministrului finanţelor publice nr.

26 publicat în Monitorul Oficial al României nr. 424/26 iunie 2012
27 Art. 3 din Ordinul ministrului finanţelor publice nr. 881/2012

3055/2009, cu modificările şi completările ulterioare, la contabilitatea potrivit IFRS este Ordinul ministrului finanțelor publice nr. 1286/2012, cu modificările şi completările ulterioare[28].

Această normă cuprinde referințe cu privire la organizarea și conducerea contabilității, responsabilități ale conducerii societăților și un plan de conturi general.

Dintre prevederile acestei norme se menționează:

a) IFRS se aplică împreună cu alte prevederi legale (de exemplu Legea 31/1990 privind societățile, Legea 227/2015 privind Codul fiscal, cu modificările şi completările ulterioare, legislație emisă de autorități de reglementare cum ar fi Autoritatea Naţională de Reglementare în domeniul Energiei);
b) IFRS se aplică așa cum sunt emise pentru a se asigura conformitatea situațiilor financiare anuale cu IFRS.

Ordinul ministrului finanțelor publice nr. 2844/2016[29] care a abrogat Ordinul ministrului finanțelor publice nr. 1286/2012, cu modificările și completările ulterioare, nu a adus modificări semnificative față de ordinul anterior.

În principal modificările se referă la :

- extinderea ariei de aplicare a reglementărilor contabile conforme cu IFRS, respectiv aplicarea acestora și de către companiile și societățile prevăzute în lista anexă la Ordinul ministrului finanțelor publice nr. 666/2015[30] (societăți ale căror valori mobiliare nu sunt tranzacționate pe o piață reglementată);
- includerea unei prevederi care să permită aplicarea în viitor a IFRS şi de către alte categorii de societăți, potrivit prevederilor legale;
- completarea planului de conturi general ținând seamă de modificările și completările aduse unor IFRS-uri (de ex includerea în aria de aplicabilitate a IAS 16 a plantelor productive).

3. Aplicarea IFRS în România

3.1 Reglementări comunitare privind aplicarea IFRS

În condițiile în care România a devenit țară membră UE, aceasta a trebuit să aplice prevederile ***Regulamentului (CE) nr. 1606/2002***[31] *al Parlamentului European şi al Consiliului din 19 iulie 2002 privind aplicarea standardelor internaționale de contabilitate*, denumit în continuare Regulamentul nr. 1606/2002.

Un obiectiv important al Regulamentului nr. 1606/2002 îl constituie adoptarea şi utilizarea standardelor internaționale de contabilitate în cadrul Comunității Economice Europene, în scopul armonizării informațiilor financiare prezentate de societățile ale căror valori mobiliare sunt tranzacționate pe o piață reglementată pentru a asigura un grad înalt de comparabilitate și transparență a situațiilor financiare, precum și funcționarea eficientă a pieței interne și a pieței de capital comunitare.

Regulamentul nr. 1606/2002, cu modificările şi completările ulterioare, prevede obligativitatea aplicării standardelor internaționale de raportare financiară în situațiile financiare anuale consolidate de către societățile ale căror valori mobiliare sunt admise la tranzacționare pe o piață reglementată, lăsând la latitudinea statelor membre posibilitatea extinderii aplicării IFRS și în siuațiile financiare anuale individuale.

În ceea ce privește situația aplicării IFRS de către statele membre UE, nu există o situație actualizată, ultimele informații publicate fiind pentru anul 2012.

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28 publicat în Monitorul Oficial al României nr. 687/4 octombrie 2012
[29] *publicat în Monitorul Oficial al României nr. 1020/2016*
[30] *publicat în Monitorul Oficial al României nr. 442 din 22 iunie 2015*
[31] *Regulamentul (CE) nr. 1606/2002 al Parlamentului European şi al Consiliului din 19 iulie 2002 privind aplicarea standardelor internaționale de contabilitate*, publicat în Jurnalul Oficial la Uniunii Europene L 243/11.09.2002.

Pe site-ul Comisiei Europene[32] este publicată situația aplicării IFRS de către țările membre, dar aceasta, cel puțin în cazul României, nu mai este de actualitate.

Admiterea României ca stat membru UE s-a realizat după evaluări efectuate de organismele internaționale (Banca Mondială, Fondul Monetar Internațional și serviciile Comisiei Europene) privind îndeplinirea criteriilor de aderare, inclusiv în ceea ce privește domeniul contabilității.

În mod special, au fost evaluate normele contabile și legislația privind auditul statutar al situațiilor financiare comparativ cu prevederile din reglementările comunitare în domeniu.

3.2 Situații financiare consolidate și raportări potrivit IFRS

Existența în România a unui număr semnificativ de filiale ale unor persoane juridice cu sediul în state membre UE a condus la necesitatea unui limbaj contabil comun între filiale și societățile mamă.

În unele cazuri, acțiunile societăților mamă erau tranzacționate la bursele din statelede rezidență , fapt ce impunea întocmirea de situații financiare consolidate în baza IFRS.

Ca urmare a necesităților de informații, filialele din România au conceput sisteme de raportare paralele, respectiv contabilitate și raportări IFRS pentru necesități proprii ale societăților mamă și contabilitate și raportări contabile potrivit legislației naționale destinate instituțiilor statului, acestea reprezentând raportările oficiale.

Existența unei diversități de operațiuni economico-financiare efectuate de către societăți a impus reglementarea acestora din punct de vedere contabil, realizându-se un proces de asimilare a prevederilor IFRS în normele contabile românești. Această asimilare treptată a făcut posibilă înțelegerea și aplicarea în practică de către specialiștii din societăți a unor norme contabile din ce în ce mai complexe și chiar trecerea la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă.

3.3. Aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă

Perioada 2012-2016 poate fi considerată ca un început al marilor provocări prin trecerea la aplicare a IFRS ca bază contabilă de către anumite categorii de societăți, respectiv:

- instituțiile financiar bancare;
- societățile ale căror valori mobiliare sunt admise la tranzacționare pe o piață reglementată.

Cea mai mare parte a operatorilor economici continuă să aplice norme contabile conforme cu directivele europene. Caracteristic acestor norme este faptul că prevederile din directivele europene sunt semnificativ completate cu prevederi din unele standarde internaționale de raportare financiară.

Trecerea la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă de către unele categorii de societăți s-a efectuat din mai multe considerente, dintre care se menționează:

a) în cazul instituțiilor financiare bancare, supravegheate de Banca Națională a României, au existat solicitări ale societăților mamă ca filialele lor în România să aplice IFRS și de a avea o contabilitate unică atât pentru scopuri de raportare oficială cât și pentru raportări în cadrul grupului;

b) în cazul societăților ale căror valori mobiliare sunt admise la tranzacționare pe o piață reglementată, aplicarea IFRS în contabilitate a urmărit:

32 http://ec.europa.eu/finance/ company-reporting/docs/ias/ ias-use-of-options_en.pdf

- necesitatea de a face inteligibile și credibile informațiile prezentate în situațiile financiare anuale și în alte raportări periodice pe care le publică societățile;
- prezentarea în notele explicative ce însoțesc situațiile financiare anuale a unor informații suplimentare care pun în evidență relațiile societății cu părțile afiliate, prezentarea unor informații nefinanciare, aspecte privind guvernanța corporativă;
- realizarea condițiilor prevăzute de legislație astfel încât acțiunile societăților să facă obiectul listării la burse din state europene;
- accesul la resurse de finanțare atrase de la bănci și diverși finanțatori.

O categorie distinctă de societăți care trebuie să aplice IFRS ca bază contabilă este reprezentată de societățile cuprinse în lista anexă la Ordinul ministrului finanțelor publice nr. 666/2015 pentru aprobarea Reglementărilor contabile conforme cu Standardele Internaționale de Raportarea Financiară de către unele entități de stat.

În cazul acestor societăți, decizia de aplicare a IFRS a fost luată ca urmare a măsurilor convenite de autoritățile române cu organismele internaționale, respectiv Banca Mondială și Fondul Monetar Internațional. În principal, s-a avut în vedere nevoia de transparență și credibilitate a informațiilor prezentate de societățile în cauză în situațiile financiare anuale.

4. Impactul aplicării IFRS ca bază contabilă asupra activelor și capitalurilor proprii ale unor societăți **- studiu de caz**

Analiza efectuată a urmărit să pună în evidență modul în care trecerea la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă a afectat valoarea activelor și a capitalurilor proprii la societățile care au aplicat IFRS ca bază contabilă.

Societățile care au făcut obiectul analizei sunt din categoria celor ale căror valori mobiliare sunt tranzacționate pe o piață reglementată.

Eșantionul cuprinde un număr de 15 societăți/companii considerate reprezentative pentru obiectivul studiului prin faptul că:

- societățile dețin active de valori semnificative și elemente de capitaluri proprii care sunt reglementate legal;

- natura activității și cifrele de afaceri raportate de societăți sunt semnificative chiar la nivel de economie națională;

- șase dintre companii (Transelectrica, Transgaz, Nuclearelectrica, Conpet și Romgaz, Oltchim) sunt companii cu capital majoritar de stat. Unele societăți au activitate de monopol si gestionează sisteme de transport național, respectiv: energie - Transelectrica, gaze - Transgaz și Romgaz, petrol –Conpet;

Activitatea acestor companii este reglementată de diferite autorități ale statului, acestea aprobând criteriile în funcție de care se stabilesc tarifele pentru serviciile prestate;

- Transelectrica, Transgaz și Conpet gestionează active care aparțin domeniului public al statului, în baza unor contracte de concesiune;

- nouă dintre companii, respectiv OMV Petrom, Alro, Romcarbon, Biofarm, Antibiotice SA, Zentiva SA, Energopetrol SA, Oil Terminal, Rompetrol sunt companii cu capital integral sau majoritar privat, unele dintre ele făcând parte din grupuri de societăți listate la diverse burse;

- unele dintre societăți au întocmit situații financiare consolidate IFRS pe care le-au publicat pe site-urile lor înainte de a trece la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă.

5. Metodologia cercetării

Studiul a urmărit impactul trecerii la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă asupra activelor imobilizate ale societăților (modificări în structură, evaluare) și impactul asupra capitalurilor proprii (total).

Studiul nu a urmărit comparabilitatea informațiilor prezentate în situațiile financiare anuale de către cele 15 societăți deoarece acestea pot utiliza baze de evaluare diferite potrivit IFRS.

Forma de proprietate a societăților nu are relevanță pentru studiul efectuat deoarece prevederile IFRS se aplică tuturor societăților în aceleași condiții, indiferent de structura acționariatului.

Informațiile ce fac obiectul prezentului studiu au fost preluate din situațiile financiare anuale publicate de societăți pe site-urile lor.

Pentru a analiza impactul trecerii la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă asupra valorii elementelor de activ și a capitalurilor proprii s-au comparat informațiile prezentate de societăți potrivit IFRS cu cele determinate pentru aceeași perioadă potrivit reglementărilor contabile aplicabile anterior trecerii la IFRS(reglementări conforme cu directivele europene).

Trecerea la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă a presupus publicarea de date comparabile pentru exercițiul financiar curent și pentru exercițiul financiar precedent.

În cazul societăților care au aplicat IFRS pentru prima dată[33], acestea au prezentat în situația poziției financiare informații comparative IFRS și pentru începutul primei perioade prezentate în situațiile financiare anuale.

Societățile Alro, Transelectrica, Transgaz, Biofarm, Antibiotice SA, Energopetrol, Oil Terminal, Rompetrol Rafinare, Zentiva, Romcarbom, Oltchim și OMV Petrom au aplicat IFRS ca bază contabilă începând cu exercițiul financiar 2012 și au prezentat date comparative în Situația Poziției financiare pentru 31 decembrie 2012, 31 decembrie 2011 și 1 ianuarie 2011.

Societățile Romgaz, Nuclearelectrica și Conpet au trecut la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă începând cu exercițiul financiar 2013 și au prezentat în situația poziției financiare informații comparative pentru 31 decembrie 2013, 31 decembrie 2012 și 1 ianuarie 2012.

În ceea ce privește activele, cercetarea a vizat activele imobilizate în structură și totalul acestora.

Trecerea de la contabilitatea bazată pe directive contabile[34] la contabilitatea potrivit IFRS a presupus un proces de analiză și ” retratare” care în principal s-a referit la:

- derecunoașterea din contabilitate a unor active care nu îndeplineau criteriile de recunoaștere potrivit IFRS (ex: cheltuieli de constituire, fond comercial, active depreciate);
- recunoașterea în contabilitate a unor active care nu erau evidențiate potrivit normelor contabile conforme cu directivele europene;
- reclasificarea unor active de la o categorie la alta (ex: activele imobilizate destinate vânzării trecute de la imobilizări la stocuri);
- aplicarea criteriilor de evaluare prevăzute de IFRS (ex: IAS 36 Deprecierea activelor).

Analiza activelor imobilizate (total) la cele 15 societăți/companii a pus în evidență următoarele:

33 Au aplicat IFRS 1 ”Aplicarea pentru prima dată a IFRS”
34 Reglementările contabile conforme cu directivele europene aprobate prin Ordinul ministrului finanțelor publice nr. 3055/2009, cu modificările și completările ulterioare.

Tabelul nr. 1 Rezultatul retratării activelor imobilizate[35]

Societate	31 decembrie 2012				31 decembrie 2011				1 ianuarie 2011			
	Imobilizări				Imobilizări				Imobilizări			
	Necorporale	Corporale	Financiare	Total	Necorporale	Corporale	Financiare	Total	Necorporale	Corporale	Financiare	Total
Transelectrica	-	-	-	-	66,34%	100,41%	99,08%	99,68%	123,52%	99,46%	99,32%	99,69%
Transgaz	-	-	-	-	21760,58%	22,90%	95,48%	97%	495,21%	29,07%	83,17%	100,68%
Romgaz	100%	104,55%	246,28%	105,14%	99,92%	104,47%	694,96%	106,59%	-	-	-	-
Conpet	100%	112,48%	100%	112,22%	100%	111,75%	100%	111,44%	-	-	-	-
Alro	-	-	-	-	10,00%	81,27%	143,02%	103,05%	9,49%	84,23%	106,47%	90,36%
Omv Petrom	-	-	-	-	97,99%	105,23%	113,66%	106,81%	98,61%	105,85%	111,84%	107,05%
Biofarm	-	-	-	-	16,63%	80,40%	200,02%	98,98%	23,77%	79,14%	187,21%	98,57%
Antibiotice SA	-	-	-	-	100%	121,60%	0%	121,38%	100%	126,78%	0	126,41%
Energopetrol	-	-	-	-	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Oil Terminal	-	-	-	-	1161,31%	100,03%	100%	100,84%	1789,12%	100%	100%	101,51%
Rompetrol Rafinare	-	-	-	-	100%	97,47%	98,66%	98,03%	100%	93,70%	98,66%	96,3%
Zentiva	-	-	-	-	100%	100%	-	99,94%	100%	100%	-	99,93%
Romcarbon	-	-	-	-	100%	74,98%	268,20%	100,10%	100%	67,31%	135,48%	75,68%
Oltchim	-	-	-	-	100%	99,9%	102,69%	99,94%	100%	97,22%	99,27%	97,25%
Nuclearelectrica	100%	126,05%	7,43%	104,15%	185,92%	124,79%	5,31%	103,99%	-	-	-	-

[35] *active imobilizate retratate IFRS raportat la active imobilizate conform OMFP nr. 3055/2009, cu modificările și completările ulterioare*

Impactul trecerii la IFRS asupra valorii imobilizărilor necorporale, a imobilizărilor corporale şi financiare, comparativ cu valorile recunoscute potrivit reglementărilor contabile anterioare, se prezintă astfel:

- sunt situații în care nu s-au înregistrat diferențe sau acestea au fost nesemnificative (Romgaz, Conpet, Antibiotice SA, Energopetrol, Rompetrol Rafinărie, Zentiva, Romcarbon, Oltchim, Nuclearelectrica în cazul imobilizărilor necorporale);
- sunt situații în care diferențele variază cu +/- 5% (Romgaz și Omv Petrom în cazul imobilizărilor corporale);
- sunt situații în care diferențele sunt semnificative (Alro, Omv Petrom, Biofarm și Romcarbon care au înregistrat creșteri de 143%, 113%, 200% și respectiv 268% la imobilizările financiare). Compania Romgaz a înregistrat o creștere a imobilizărilor financiare de 694% ca urmare a reclasificării unor creanțe comerciale.
- o situație aparte prezintă compania Transgaz, care a procedat la recunoașterea în conturi bilanțiere a valorii unei concesiuni care are ca obiect rețelele de transport a gazului. Totodată, compania a procedat la reclasificarea unor imobilizări corporale în categoria imobilizărilor necorporale. În aceste condiții, compania a înregistrat o creștere de 21760,58% la imobilizări necorporale și o reducere de 77,1% la imobilizări corporale. Această situație este atipică și reprezintă o situație de aplicare a raționamentului profesional.
- în urma analizei contractului de concesiune (aprobat prin HG nr. 886/2002), compania Oil Terminal a constatat că sunt îndeplinite condițiile de recunoaștere a concesiunii ca și imobilizare necorporală potrivit IAS 38 " Imobilizări necorporale". Astfel, societatea a recunoscut concesiunea ca imobilizare necorporală la valoarea ei justă. În aceste condiții, compania a înregistrat o creștere de 1161,31% la imobilizări necorporale.

În ceea ce privește totalul activelor imobilizate, diferențele înregistrate sunt nesemnificative, cea mai mare diferență fiind de 21,38%, în cazul companiei Antibiotice S.A.

Tabelul nr. 2 Rezultatul retratării capitalurilor proprii[1]

Societate	31 decembrie 2012	31 decembrie 2011	1 ianuarie 2011
Transelectrica	-	98,24%	97,46%
Transgaz	-	182%	187,46%
Romgaz	93,62%	95,61%	-
Conpet	112,22%	111,44%	-
Alro	-	110,71%	80,73%
Omv Petrom	-	109,56%	111,7%
Biofarm	-	100%	100%
Antibiotice SA	-	113,81%	212,27%
Energopetrol	-	88,43%	86,99%
Oil Terminal	-	100,88%	101,57%
Rompetrol Rafinare	-	162,05%	85,02%
Zentiva	-	98,88%	100,99%
Romcarbon	-	88,98%	78,07%
Oltchim	-	-8,14%	-48,46%
Nuclearelectrica	101,18%	101,41%	-

[1] *capitaluri proprii retratate IFRS raportat la capitaluri proprii potrivit OMFP nr. 3055/2009*

Analiza capitalurilor proprii rezultate în urma aplicării IFRS pune în evidență faptul că, în cele mai multe cazuri, retratările efectuate nu au afectat semnificativ sumele evidențiate potrivit normelor contabile anterioare. Există, totuși, modificări în structura elementelor de capitaluri proprii.

Creşteri semnificative ale capitalurilor proprii s-au înregistrat la compania Transgaz, care a procedat la recunoaşterea în contabilitate a unei concesiuni şi a unei rezerve corespunzătoare şi la Antibiotice S.A. Ca urmare a dificultăților financiare şi, în consecință, a structurii elementelor prezentate în balanța întocmită potrivit OMFP 3055/2009, societatea Oltchim a prezentat în situațiile financiare IFRS capitaluri proprii negative.

Graficele prezentate în anexă pun în evidență, comparativ, activele imobilizate şi capitalurile proprii potrivit IFRS şi OMFP nr. 3055/2009, cu modificările şi completările ulterioare.

6. Concluzii

Normele contabile naționale au suferit un proces continuu de dezvoltare şi armonizare cu prevederi cuprinse în IFRS, făcând posibil procesul de trecere la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă.

Trecerea de la aplicarea reglementărilor contabile conforme cu directivele europene la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă constituie un proces complex în care rezultatele obținute în urma retratărilor sunt influențate atât de structura elementelor de activ, datorii şi capitaluri proprii, cât şi de anumite raționamente profesionale.

Aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă presupune ca în situații frecvente să fie efectuate estimări, calcule actuariale, ajustari si reclasificări.

Unele dintre societățile care au făcut obiectul studiului au capital majoritar de stat şi desfăşoară activități reglementate de anumite autorități (legislatie secundara) , aplicarea unor raționamente profesionale fiind limitată. În această situație se află şi societățile care gestionează active imobilizate aparținând domeniului public al statului.

Deşi s-au produs modificări în legislația fiscală pentru a fi pusă de acord cu evoluțiile din contabilitate, există un decalaj de timp în care anumite operațiuni contabile pot fi interpretate diferit de către organele fiscale.

În ceea ce priveşte nivelul de înțelegere şi aplicare a IFRS de către profesioniştii contabili şi auditorii financiari, se poate aprecia că trecerea la aplicarea IFRS ca bază contabilă nu a ridicat probleme deosebite, înțelegerea IFRS făcându-se gradual şi cu sprijinul organismelor profesionale (CECCAR, CAFR).

Deşi trecerea la aplicarea IFRS în studiul efectuat a pus în evidență modificări semnificative asupra elementelor de active şi capitaluri proprii doar în unele cazuri, se constată din partea autorităților de reglementare prudență în ceea ce priveşte extinderea ariei societăților care aplică IFRS ca bază contabilă.

Se poate aprecia ca aplicarea IFRS ca baza contabila este un proces complex la care trebuie sa-si aduca contributia profesionistii contabili, auditorii financiari, evaluatorii si institutiile statului. Totodata, organele de conducere ale societatilor trebuie sa aloce resurse materiale si umane suficiente si sa manifeste disponibilitate pentru schimbare si dialog cu factorii interni si externi.

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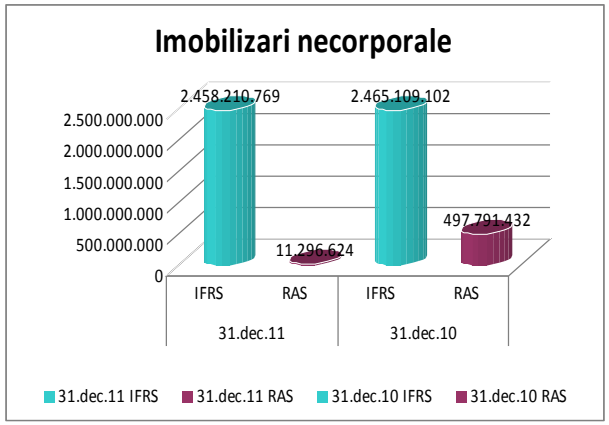
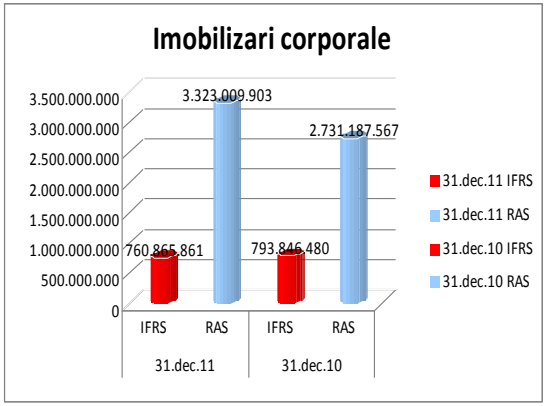
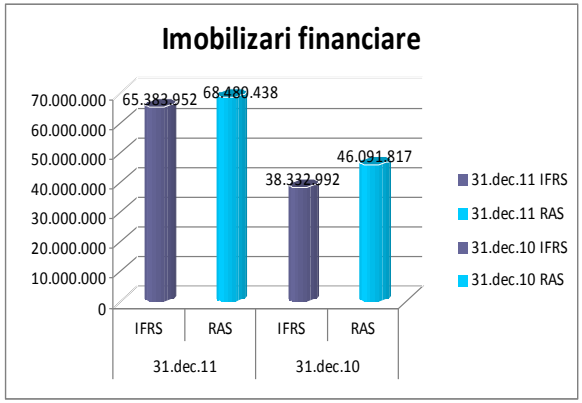
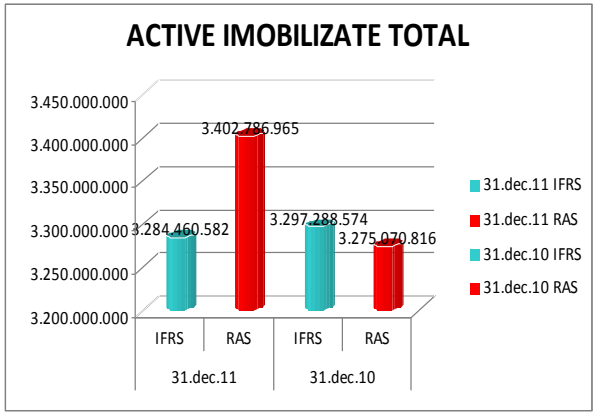
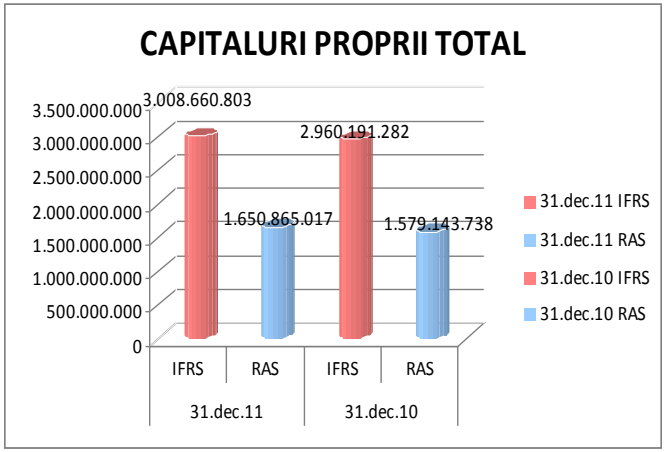
Anexa 1 – TRANSGAZ



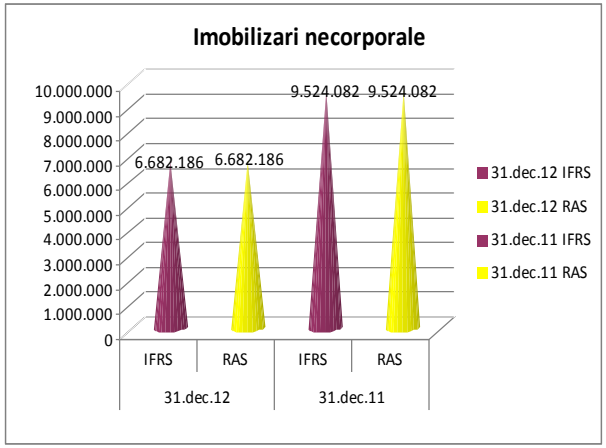


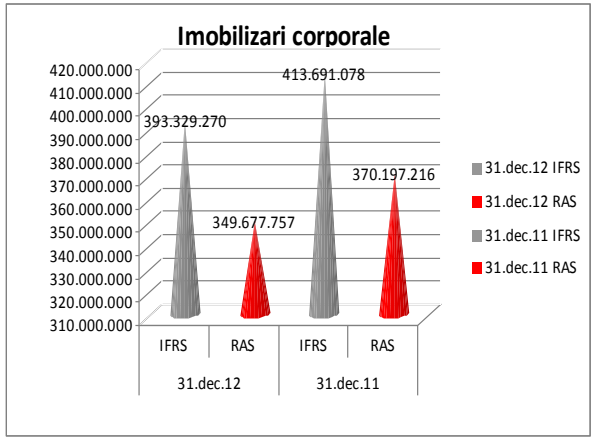


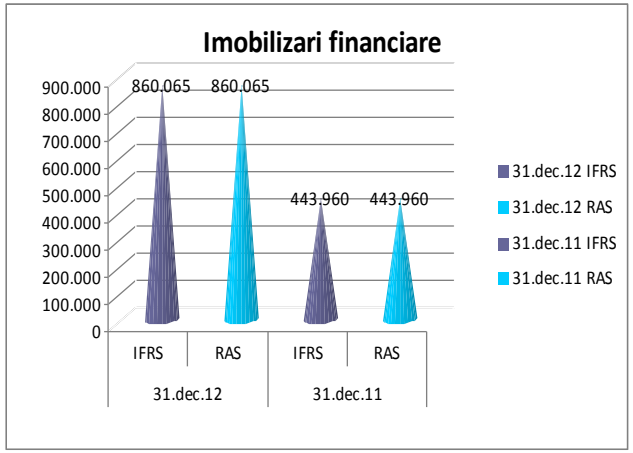


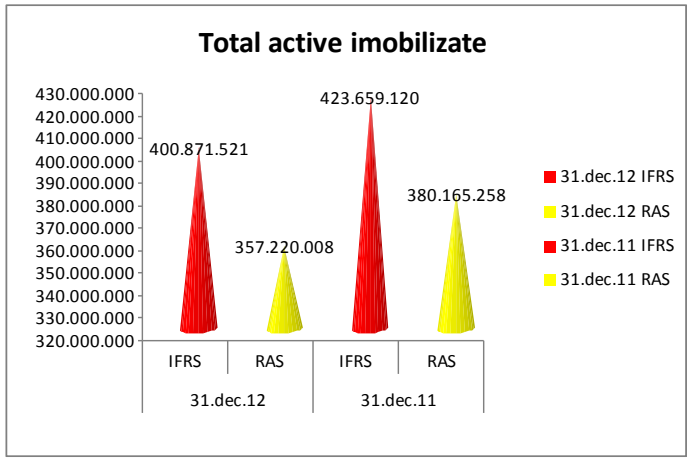


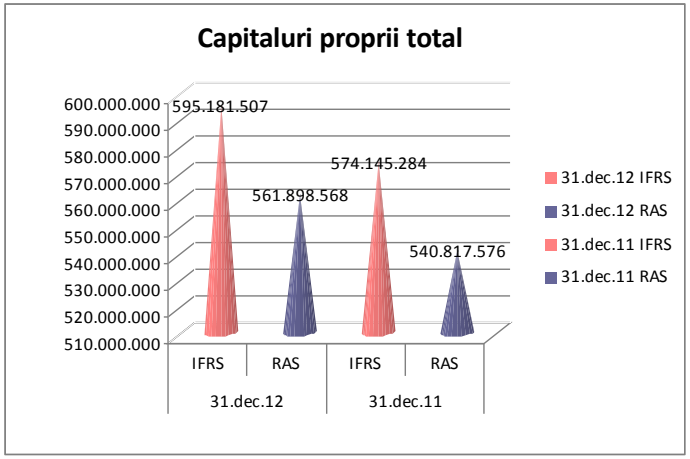
Anexa 2 - CONPET



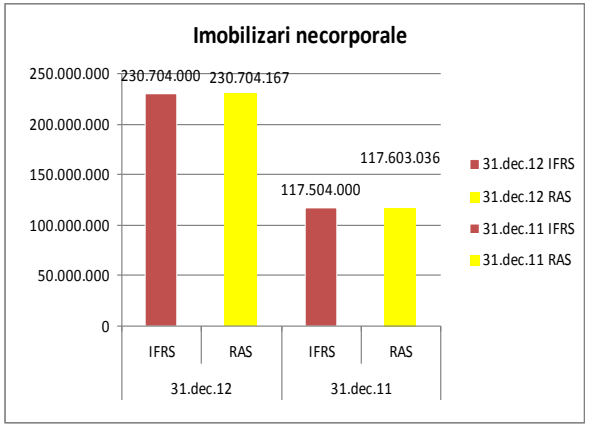


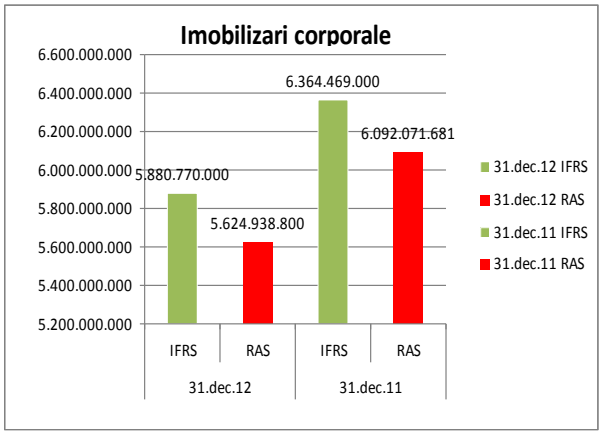


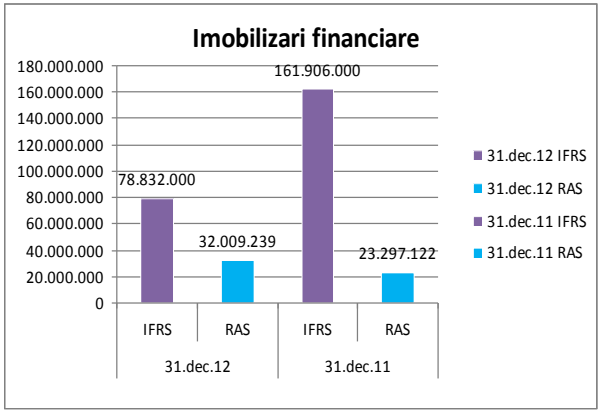


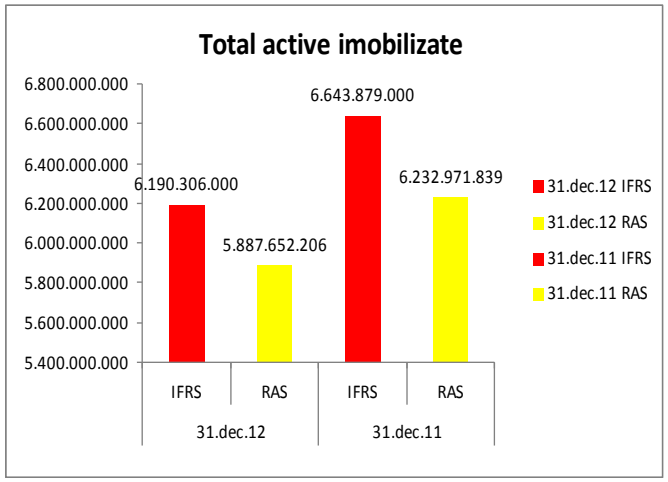


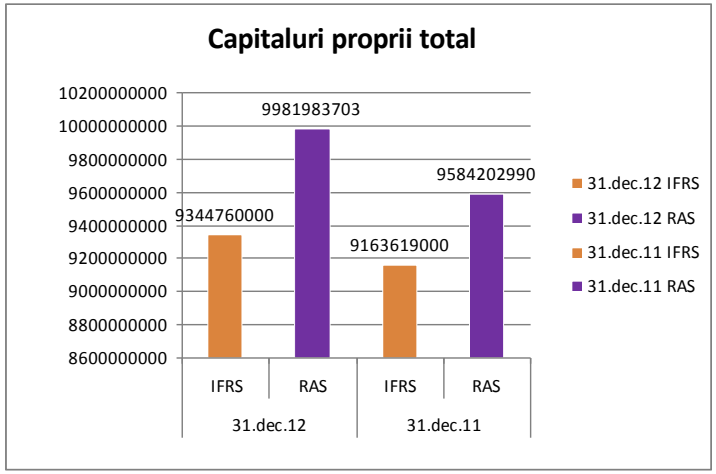
Anexa 3 - ROMGAZ











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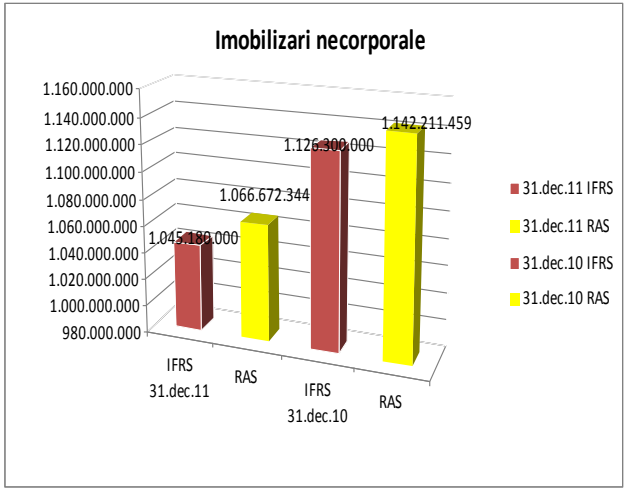
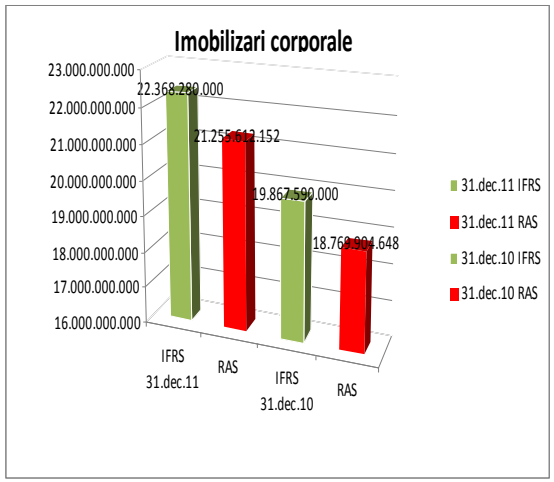
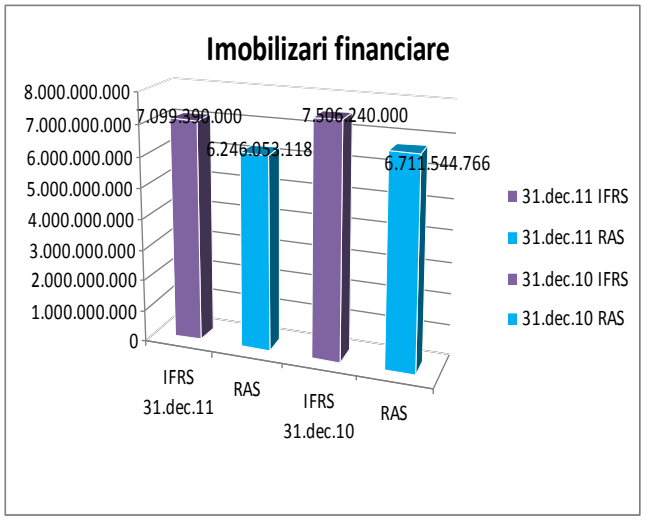
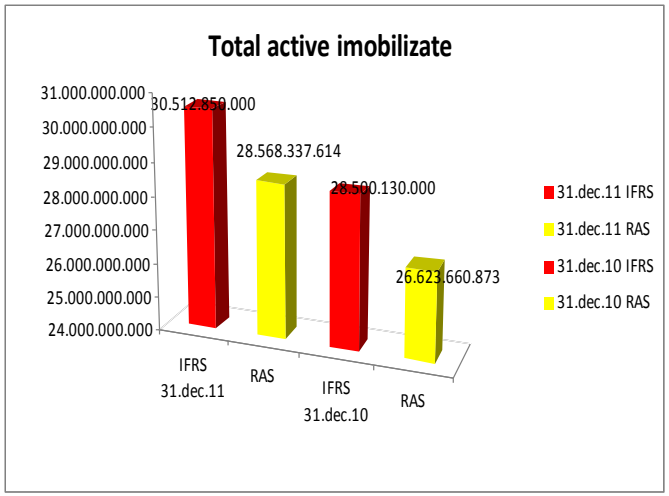
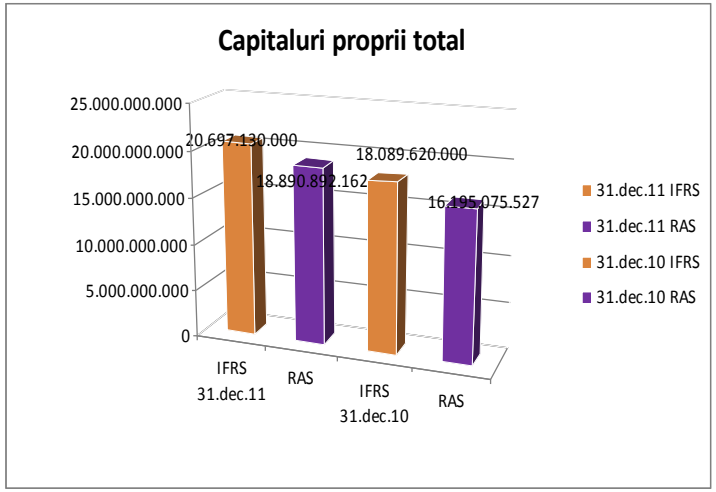


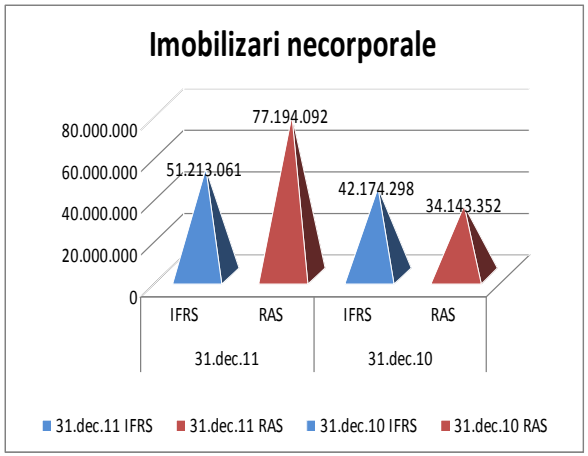


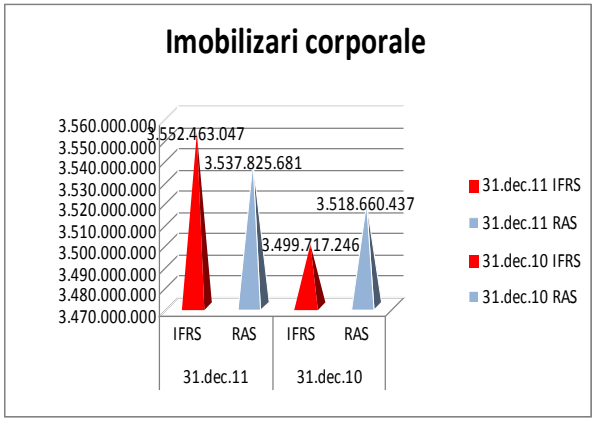


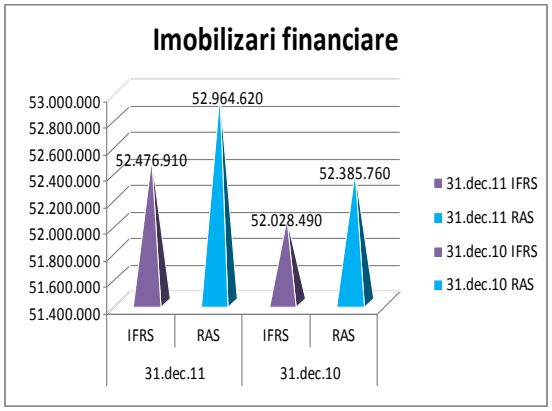


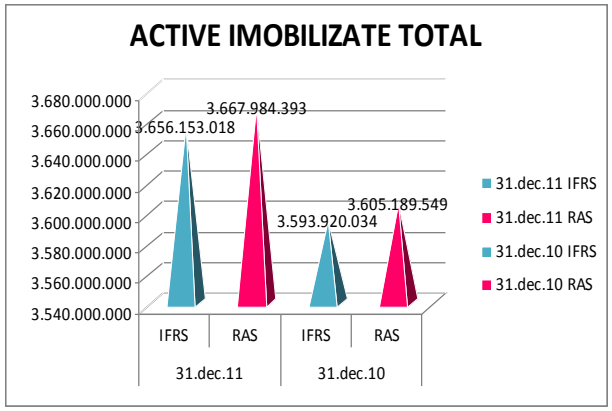


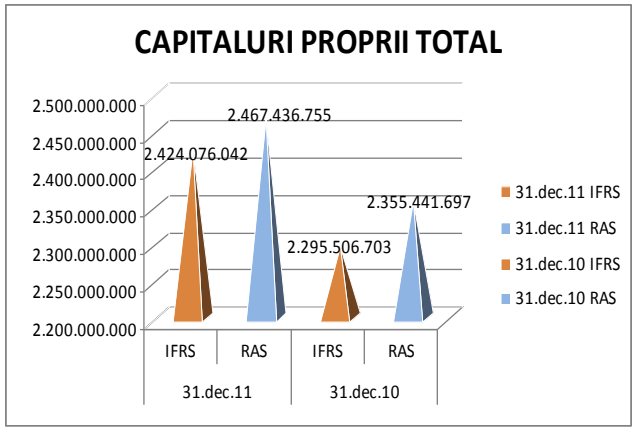
Anexa 5 - TRANSELECTRICA



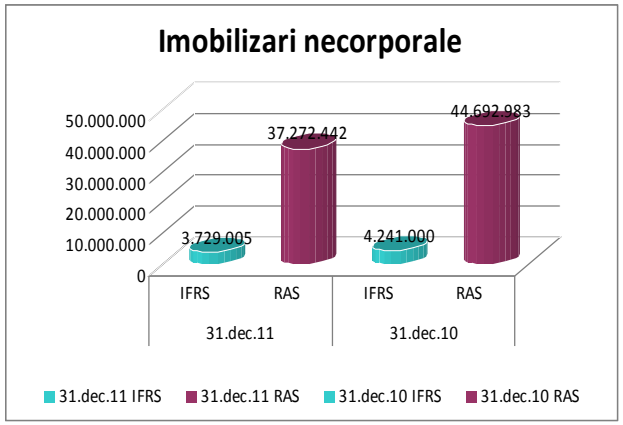








Anexa 6- ALRO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44.692.983
IFRS
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IFRS
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31.dec.11 RAS
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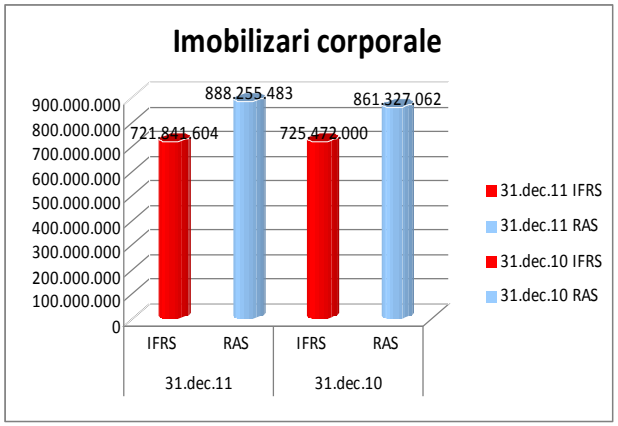
31.dec.10 RAS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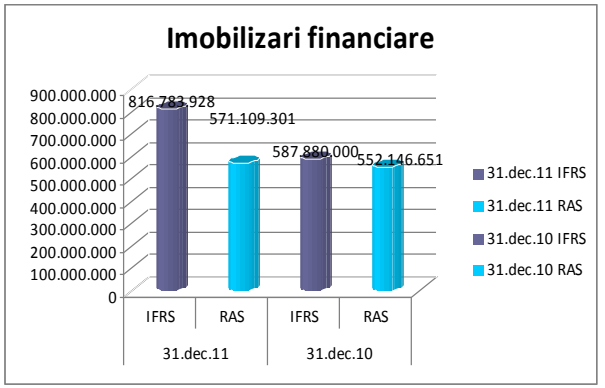
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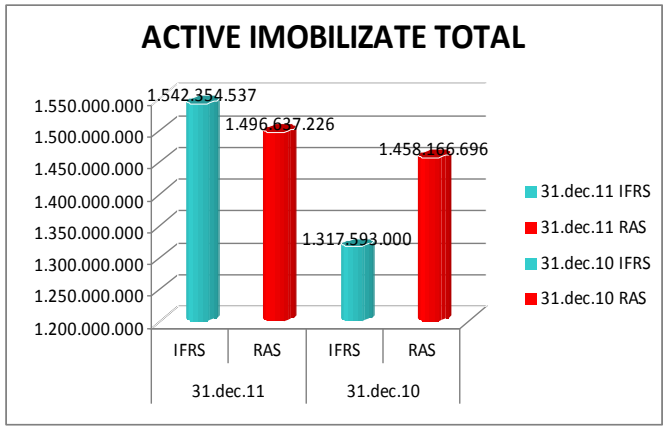
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1.458.166.696
IFRS
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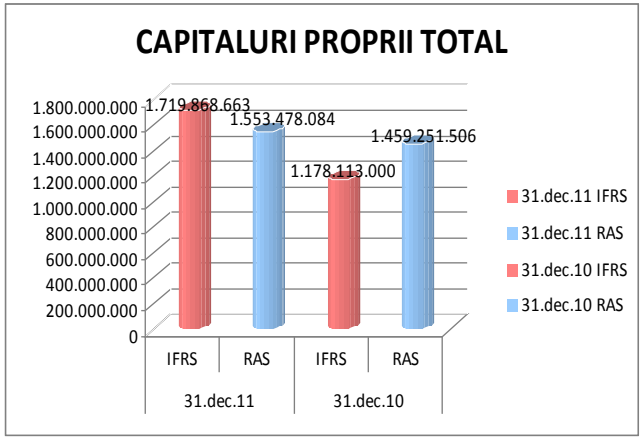
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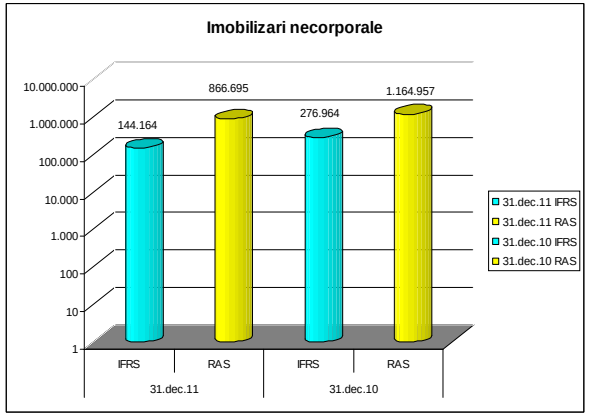
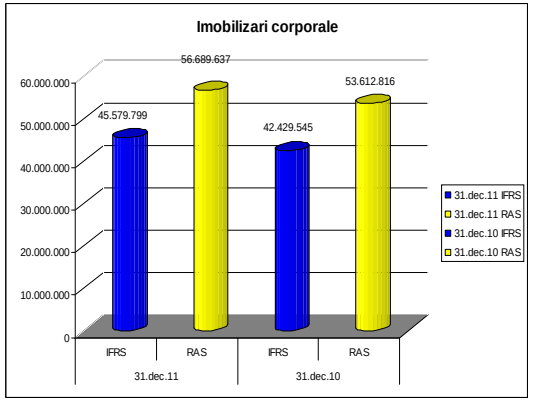
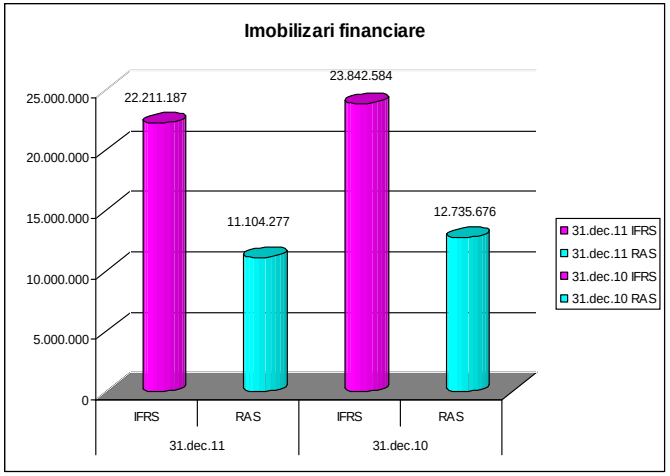
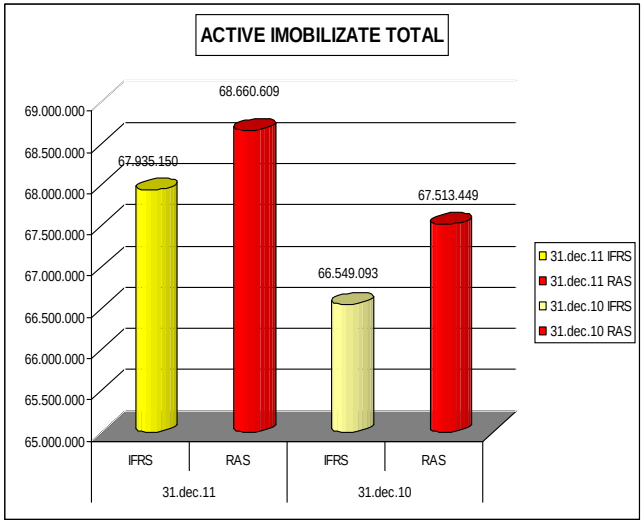
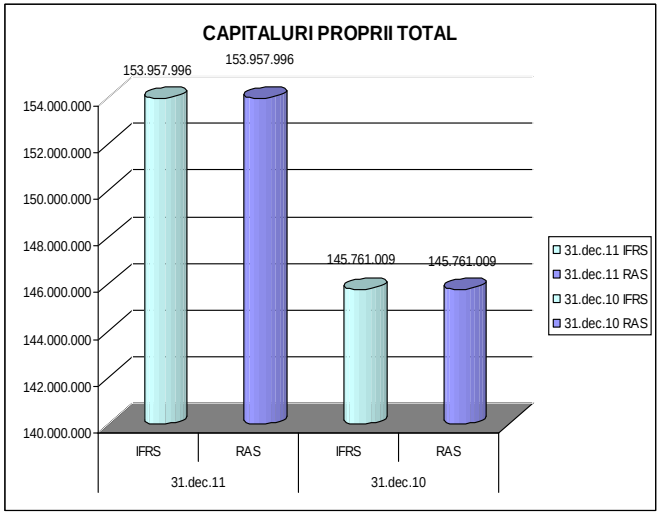
Anexa 7- BIOFARM



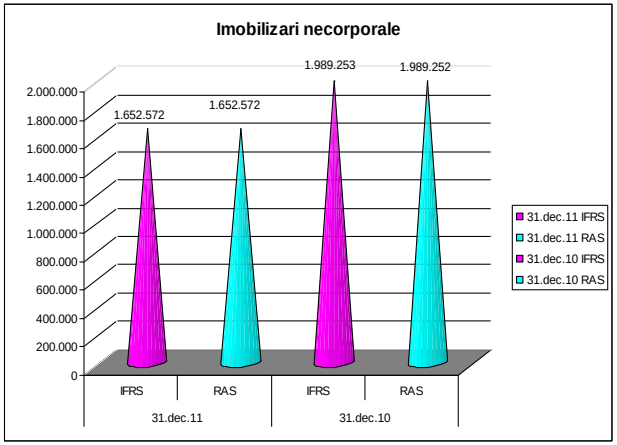


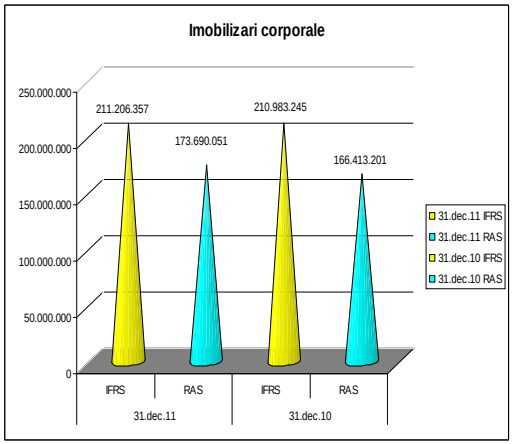


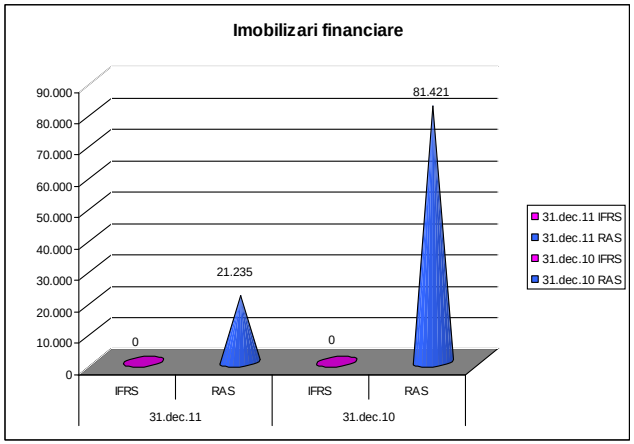


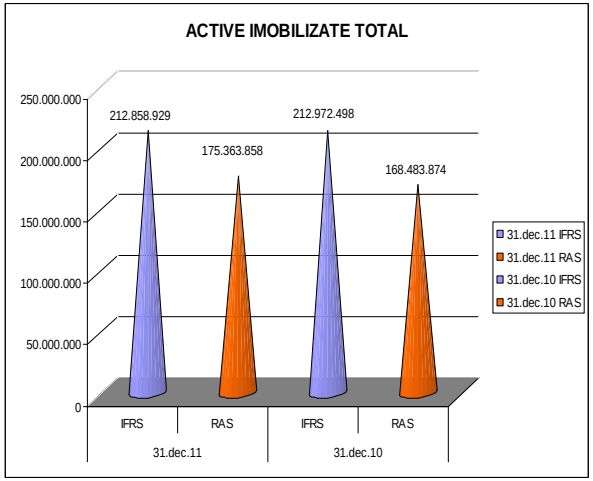


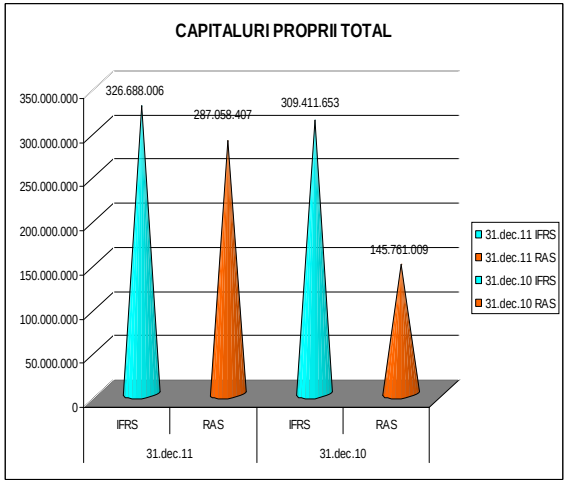
Anexa 8- ANTIBIOTICE



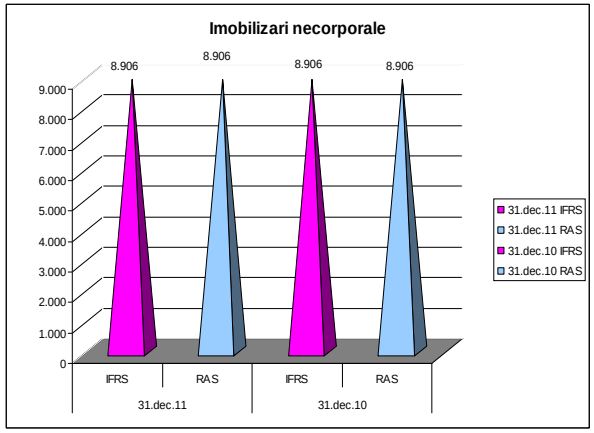


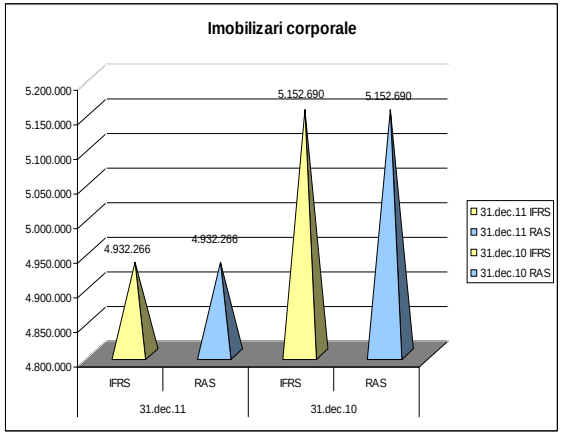


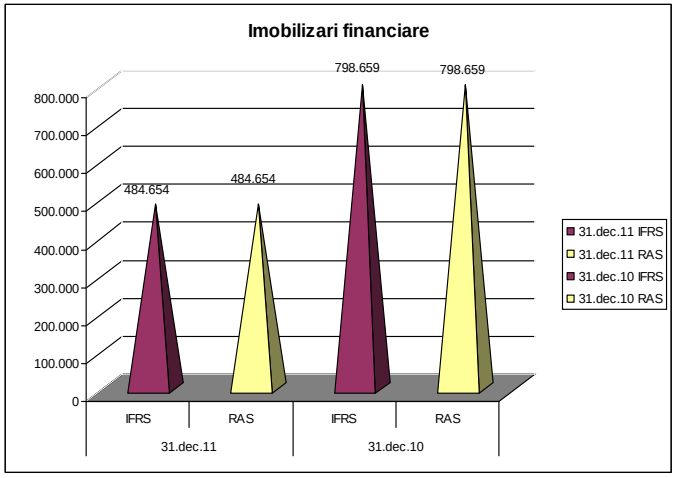


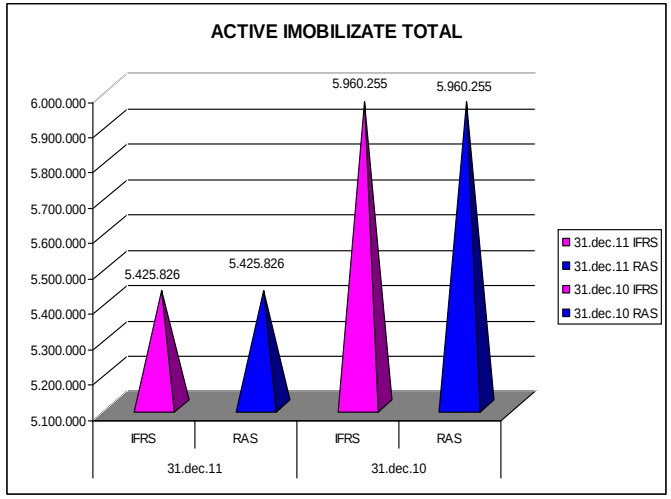


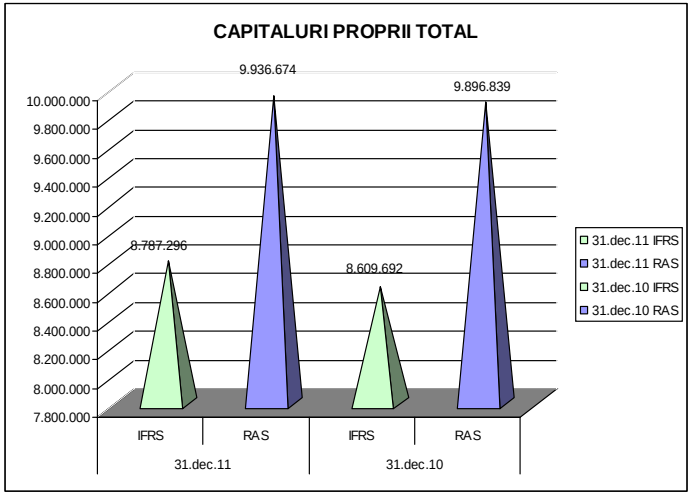
Anexa 9- ENERGOPETROL



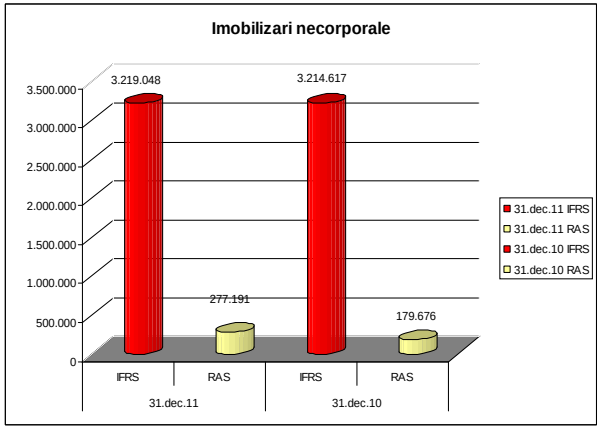


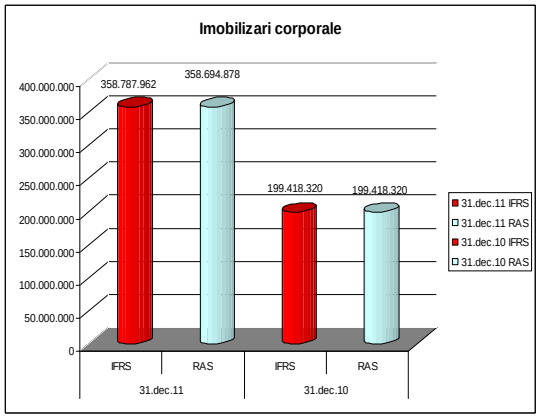


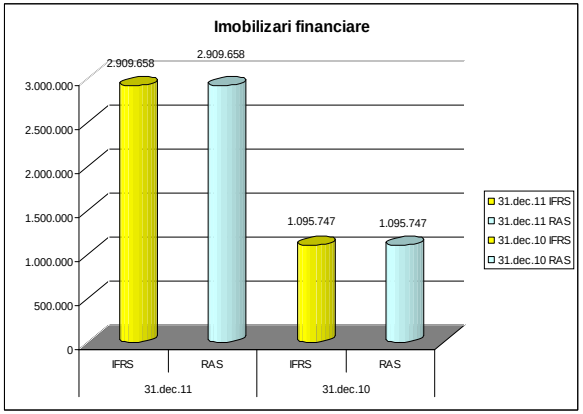


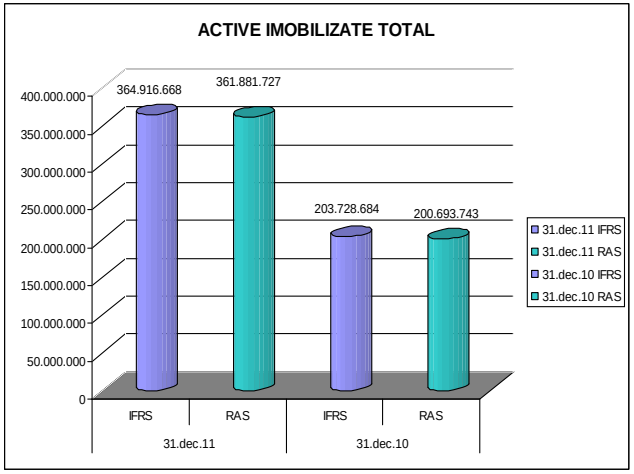


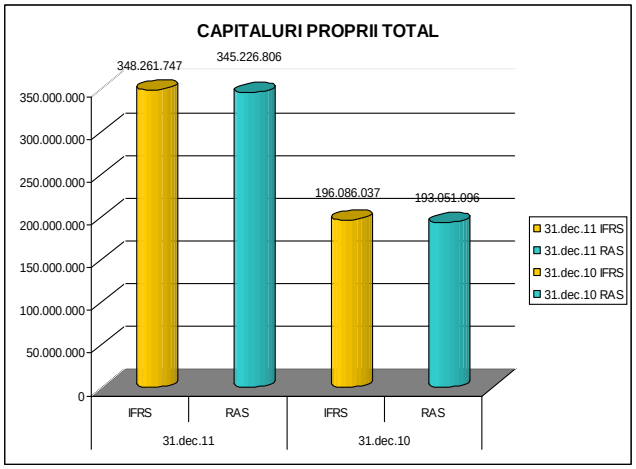
Anexa 10- OIL TERMINAL



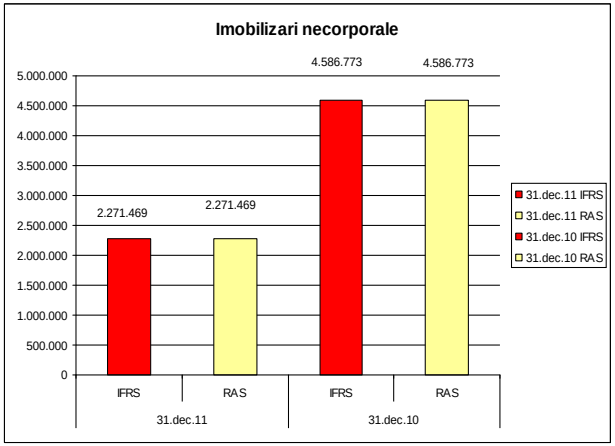


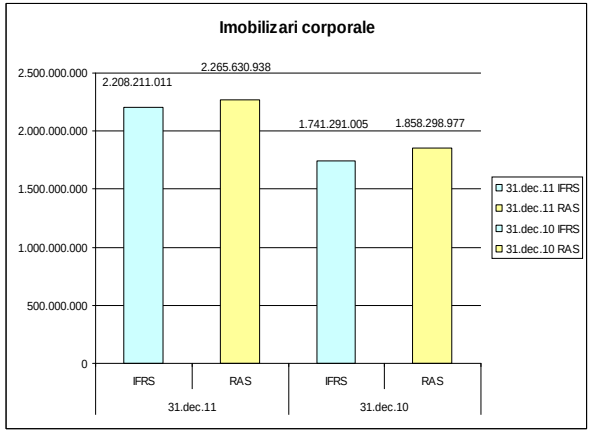


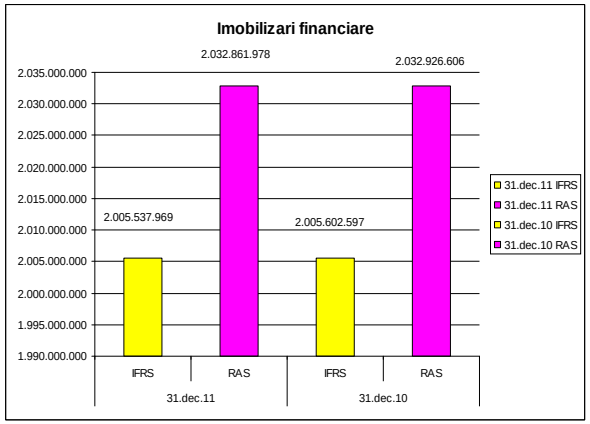


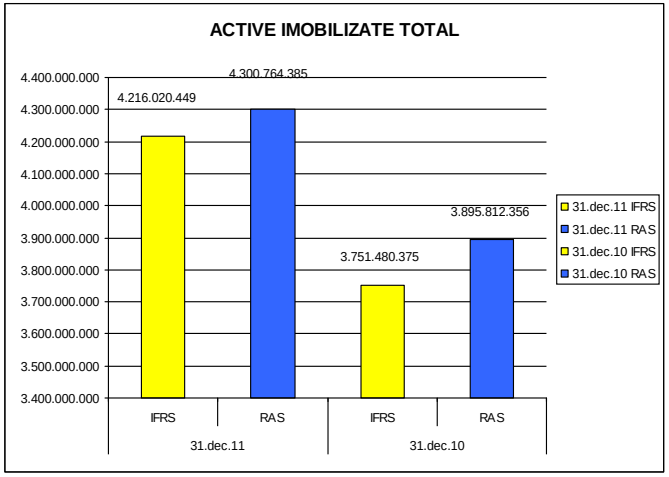


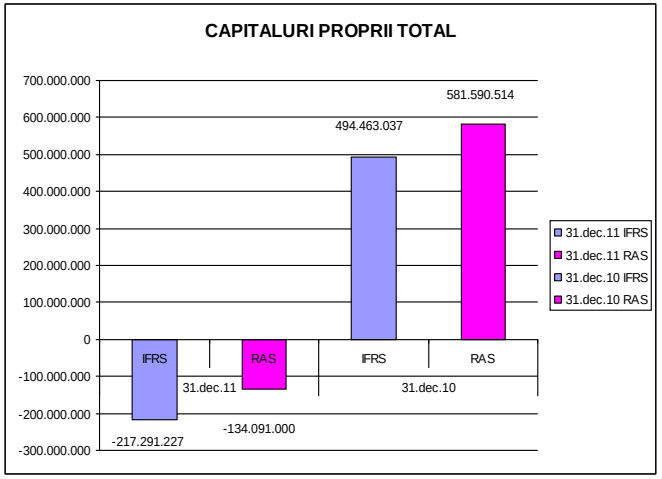
Anexa 11- ROMPETROL RAFINARE



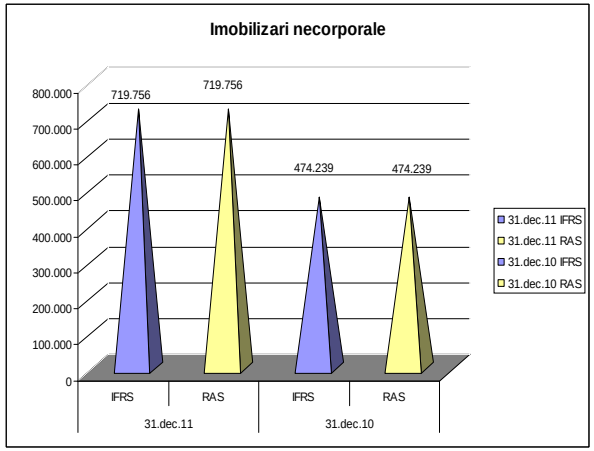


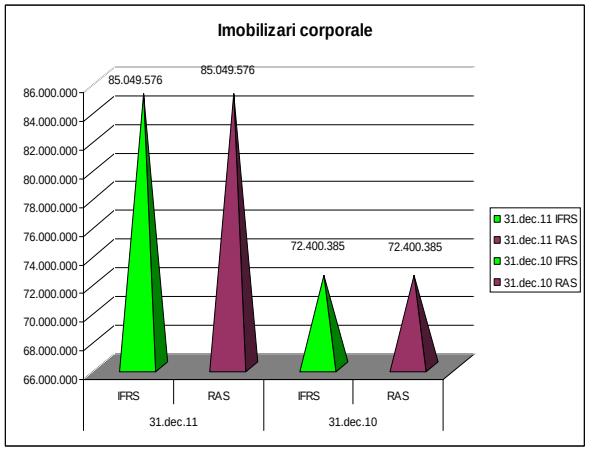


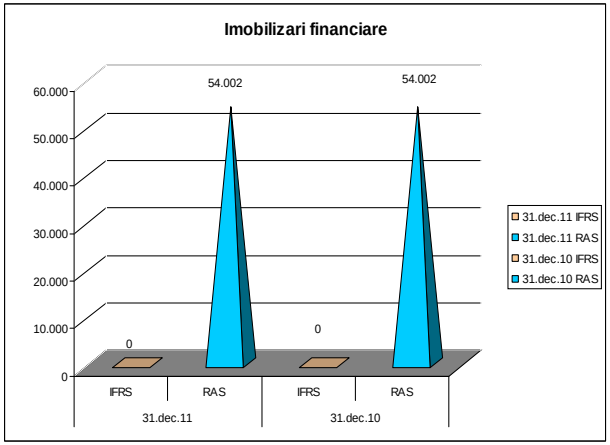


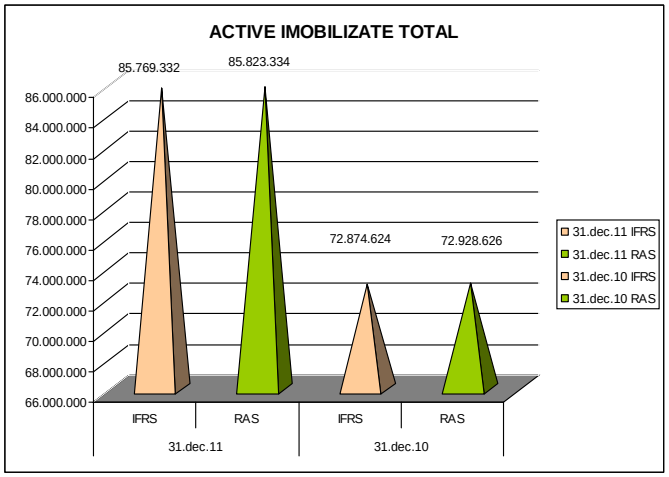


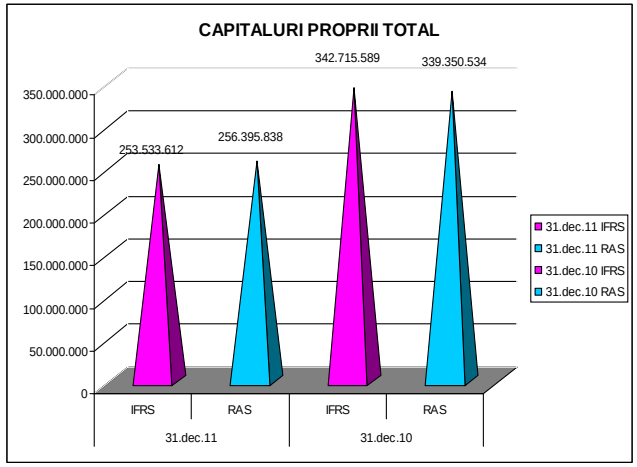
Anexa 12- ZENTIVA



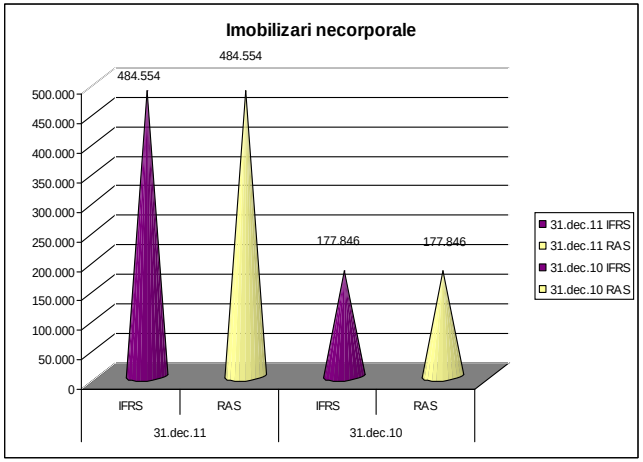


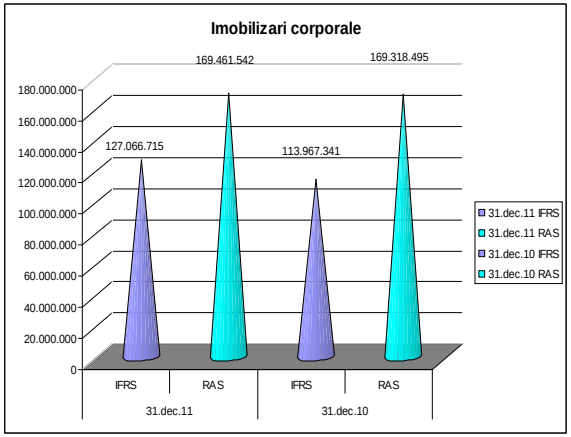


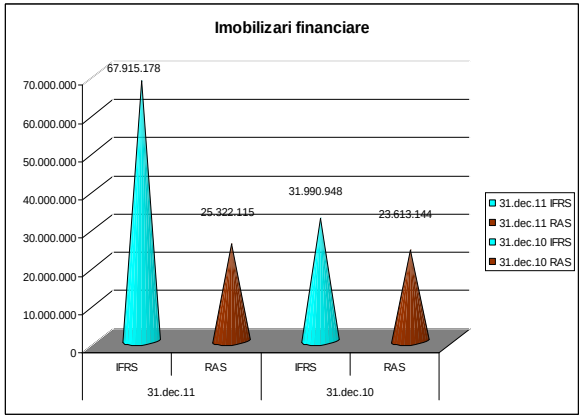


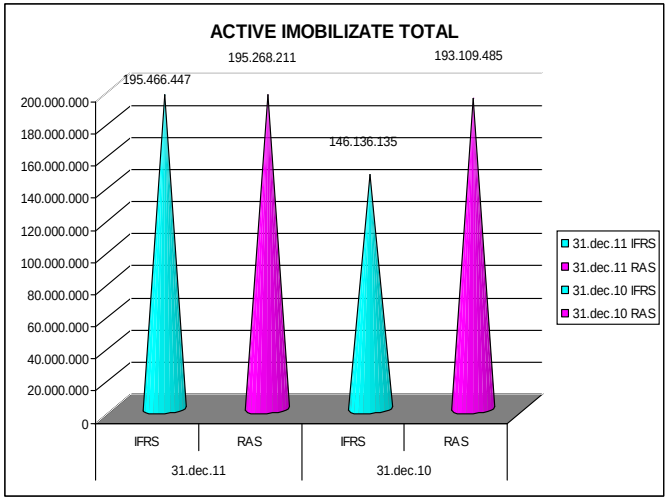


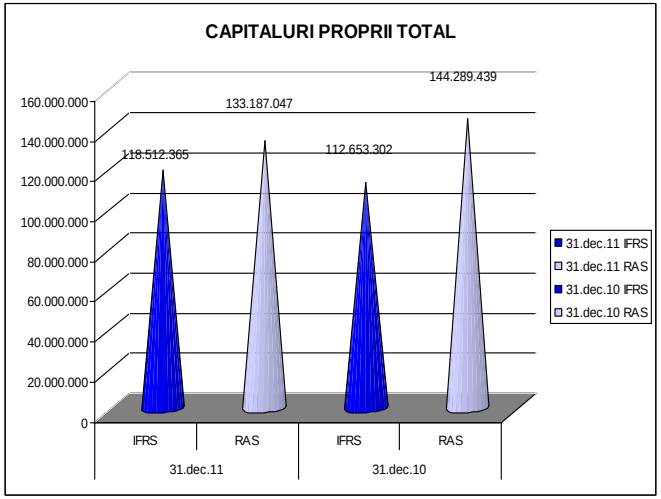
Anexa 13- ROMCARBON



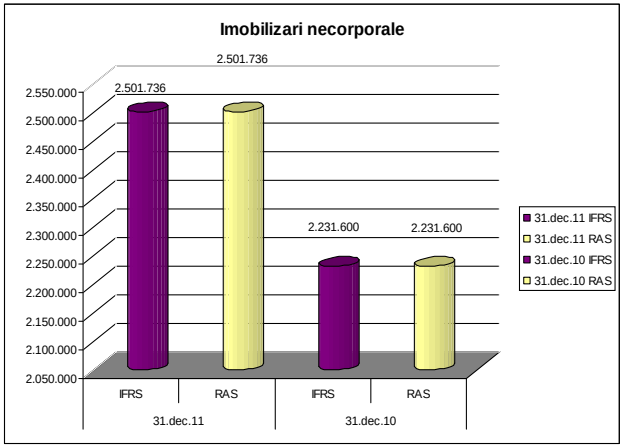


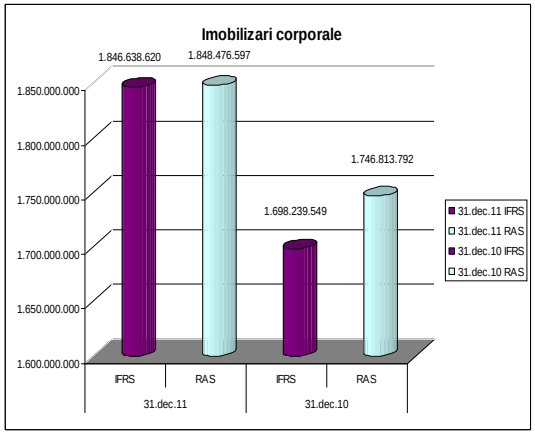


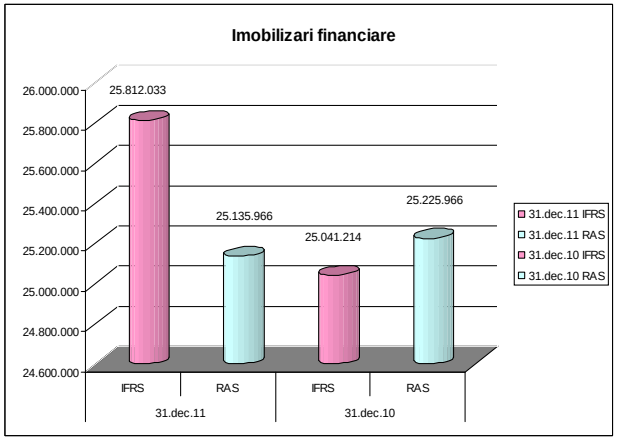


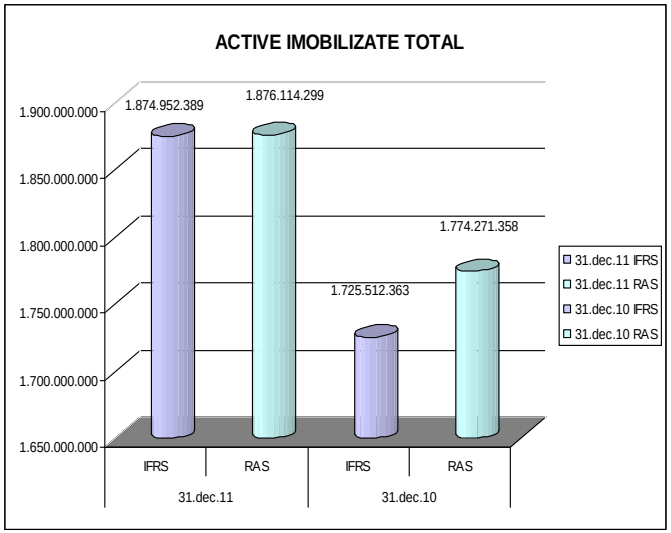


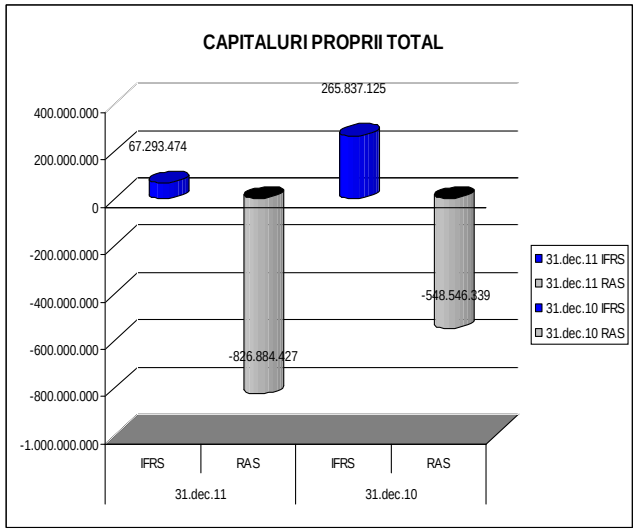
Anexa 14- OLTCHIM



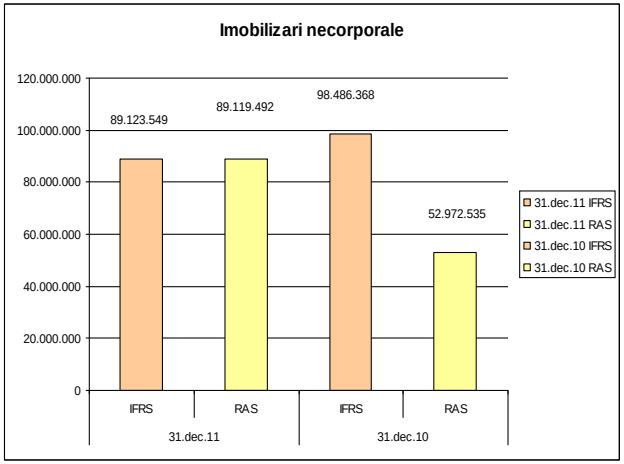


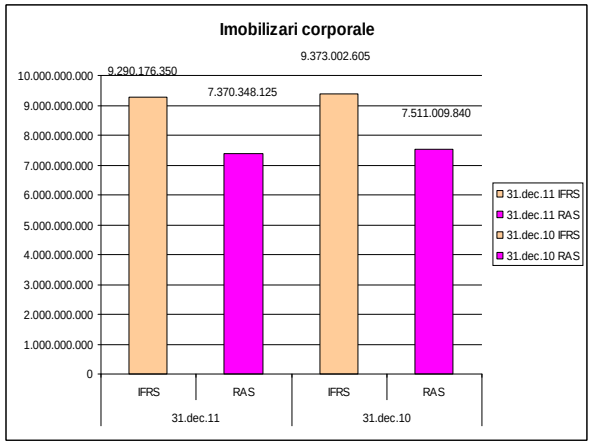


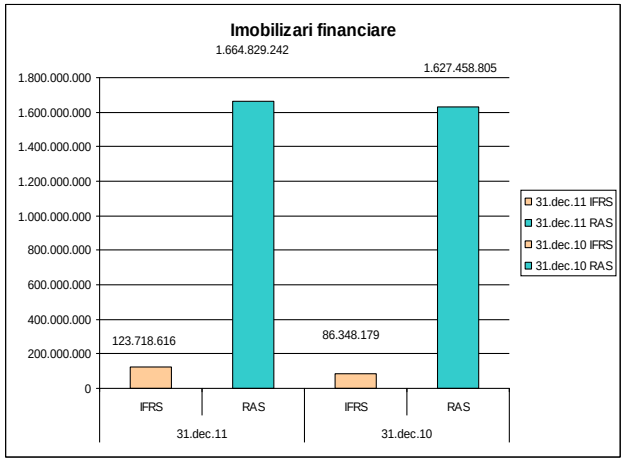


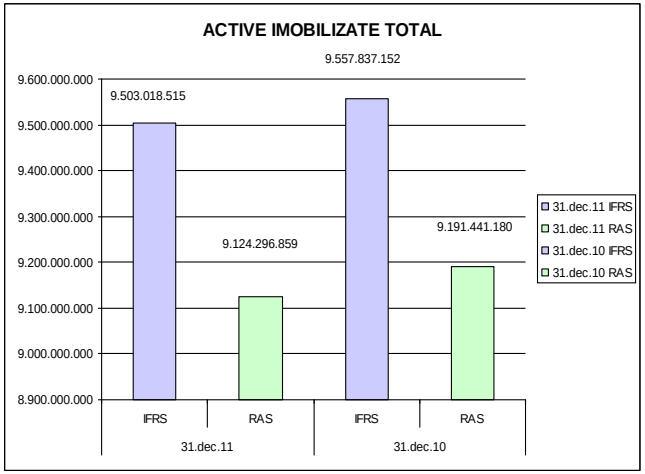


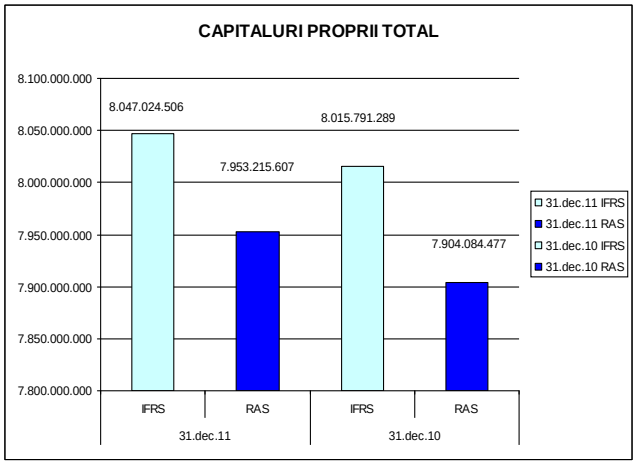
Anexa 15- NUCLEARELECTRICA











THE AUDITING OF EUROPEAN FUNDS, A MISSION BASED ON AGREED-UPON PROCEDURES

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Abstract: *The integration of Romania in the European Union in 2007 represented the beginning point of the harmonization of the Romanian legislation with the European Union legislation and also the possibility of filing projects in order to attract European funds made available to our country, as a member state. Following the accessing of European projects funding by the project beneficiaries, their auditing is compulsory and it is done by the members of the Chamber of Financial Auditors of Romania, based on agreed-upon procedures, established by the Management Authority or the Intermediate Organism in accordance with ISRS 4400 `Engagements for the execution of agreed-upon procedures regarding financial information`. In the auditing missions of European funds, the financial auditor must also respect the fundamental ethical principles presented in the Code of Ethics emmited by the International Federation of Accountants and at the end of the mission the auditor will make a report presenting in detail the aim and the agreed-upon procedures, so that it is intelligible for its users.*

Key words: *ISRS 4400, European funds, agreed-upon procedures, audit mission.*
JEL Classification: *M40, M41, M42.*

1. Introduction

Romania's integration in the European Union, had beneficial effects, from the point of view of financing the activities developed by economical agencies and public institutions, because they were offered the possibility to attract European funds, having the purpose to develop economical agencies and to become more competitive on the market, and public institutions to invest these funds in projects of national interest such as: infrastructure, health, development of human resources. As a result of accessing European funds, the beneficiaries are ought to audit these in accordance with ISRS 4400 "*Commitments for performing the agreed procedures concerning financial information"* and with agreed procedures established by Management Authority (MA) or Intermediary Organization (IO).

Audit is a theme of major importance both for practitioners, for accounting / financial information users, but also for the beneficiaries of the European funds projects, thus among the specialty literature we find a series of papers, books and articles such as: *Financial Audit. Concepts. Standards. Norms* – Emil Horomnea; *Financial Accounting – an European and international Approach* Nicolae Feleaga, *Control and Accounting Financial Audit* Oprean I; *Financial Audit. Ensurance Missions and Connected services* Horia Neamtu & all; *Financial Audit. Theoretical Aspects and Practical Applications* – Sorin Briciu & all.

Feleaga, in his paper (Feleagă, 2005, p.161) defines the audit as being "the activity through which there are independently applied concrete procedures and examination norms, through adequately examining the character and the functioning actions undertaken by an organization by referring to the norms" (Feleagă, 2005, p.161).

Oprean, in his paper, defines the audit as being "an assembly of interconnected activities (a process) undertaken by auditor or other experts, who based upon their practical and theoretical knowledge and as a result of the tasks received from certain agencies analyze the information and operations of an entity, or analyze the information referring to a certain activity for offering an insurance through an opinion or for formulating some recommendations" (Oprean, 2002, p.17).

2. Methodology

Our research is intended to present theoretical aspects concerning the audit mission effectuation based upon the agreed procedures, but also the practical aspects concerning the audit report elaboration by the financial auditor who has accepted an audit mission for European funds projects.

As methods and techniques of research used in our study, I have resorted to theoretical, practical and synthesis research. Theoretical research consisted in studying specialty literature. Synthesis was used in presenting theoretical aspects, the domain of audit being a vast study field, and we have used the practical documentation in the moment when we have searched the market for data referring to the missions based on agreed procedures.

3. Auditing Requirements for European Funds

European Funds Minister (EFM) having regulation authority in managing and controlling structural elements, in 2014, has concluded a collaboration protocol with Financial Auditors Chamber in Romania (FACR), concerning the financial audit's organization and development for European funds and other irredeemable funds received from other donators. The protocol may be consulted on Financial Auditors Chamber in Romania official site and presents both the standards to which the auditor relates to within his / her mission, as well as the conditions that the auditor has to respect in order to audit European funds, namely: collaboration protocol concerning organization and development of activities of financial audit for European funds and other irredeemable funds from other donators (FACR, 2014, p.4).

- To be financial auditors of A category and graduate of specializing and perfecting courses for European funds organized by FACR;
- They have to promote the test of verifying knowledge concerning Romanian and European legislation of European funds;
- Not to be pronounced disciplinary sanctions becoming final against financial auditors, in the last three years.

Based on the signed protocol between European Funds Minister and Financial Auditors Chambers of Romania, the parts assume the following responsibilities:

- Management Authority/other entities having coordination, managerial and certifying role of European irredeemable funds have the right of verifying the auditors' activities by sample anytime;
- The exchange of information between parts is made when requested and it is free, for a good development of financial audit for funds beneficiaries;
- FACR ensures undertaking from EFM and disseminating rules towards auditors, on which auditors must realize insurance missions having special purpose concerning eligibility of expenses and financial resources, received or asked through reimbursement requests by beneficiaries;
- The parts will ensure the received data / information security and they will use it according to law;
- FACR will publish the list of financial auditors who can audit European funds and will update it every three months.

Auditing European funds represents a complex activity of examining the information based on agreed procedures, activity which is developed by financial auditors, members of Financial Auditors Chamber of Romania, who on the basis of their theoretical and practical knowledge and

according to ISRS 4400 will make an audit report concerning the factual findings. This standard stipulates that "the objective of a mission based on agreed procedures is the consisting by an auditor of procedures which relate to the nature of an audit to which the auditor, the entity and any other third part have agreed, as well as reporting by auditor upon actual findings" (Neamțu, 2012, p.125).

In auditing European funds projects, the auditor must also respect, besides ISRS 4400, the ethical principles presented in part A of the Ethical Code (The Accounting Professionals Ethical Code Book, 2013, p.12):

- Integrity, according to this principle, the auditor has to be honest and sincere in professional and business relationships;
- Objectivity, according to this principle, the auditor must not compromise his / her professional reasoning for inequity, conflicts of certain people's influence;
- Professional competence, according to this principle the auditor has to maintain his knowledge at a corresponding level and to act according to applicable professional and technical standards;
- Confidentiality, according to this principle the auditor has to restrain both from sharing the classified information, obtained as a result of accepting the mission, and from using these information personal purpose;
- Professional behavior, according to this principle, that auditor is obliged to comply the law and to avoid any action which may discredit the job.

It may be observed that independence is not mentioned, but the terms of commitment in the mission letter may ask for respecting this thing in actual finding report (Neamțu, 2012, p.126).

A lack of independence it is also represented by the situation in which the cabinet / society in which the auditor belongs, has a financial participation in the business of auditor's client (Horomnea, 2010, p.98).

4. Auditing European Funds and Agreed Procedures

The duty of auditing European funds projects is the project's beneficiary and it is realized on the base of a service contract signed by the project's beneficiary and auditor. Thus, the auditor will verify / check the reality, legality and eligibility of expenses declared in reimbursement request by the beneficiary.

Audit mission on agreed procedures is consisted of three steps, namely:

- First step – planning the mission and one must take into account the risks, materiality calculus and determining the sample;
- The second step – verifying – consists in collecting audit samples and making worksheets;
- The third step – ending the audit and writing the audit report (Briciu, 2014, p.275).

For realizing his/her mission, the auditor will collect and make an analysis of information and papers, gotten form the project's beneficiary, and if he/she considers to be necessary, there may also be a meeting of its management team for a better understanding of the project and of the way it will be implemented. The procedures which auditor will verify within his/her mission are the following:

- Firstly one must take into account the project's beneficiary compliance with the things which are foreseen in the financing contract;

- Secondly, the budget lines from the reimbursement request submitted by the beneficiary, will be verified;
- Thirdly, the conformity of information from the reimbursement request will be verified together with the accounting of project's beneficiary;
- Fourthly, it will be checked if the acquisition rules were applied;
- Fifthly, the physical existence of material goods bought within the project will be verified;
- Sixthly, the expenses generated by the project will be checked;
- Seventhly, the project's cashed incomes will be verified.

As a result of the checks made by auditor, this will write a report on the agreed procedures, on the way in which the terms in the financing contract were applied, without expressing an opinion, thus the users of the report making the conclusions themselves on the applying of agreed procedures.

5. Audit Report in Auditing European Funds

The audit report of a auditing mission of European funds, mandatory presents the agreed purpose and procedures of the mission for providing the users with the possibility of understanding the nature and area of coverage of the effected activities (ISRS 4400, 2008, p.1037).

Audit report of a mission based on agreed procedures, has the following structure: title; addressee; identifying the information on which the agreed procedures were applied; a statement that the applied procedures were in accordance with the ones of client; a statement that the mission was made in accordance with ISRS 4400; if it is the case, the auditor will state that he is not independent from the entity; identifying the purpose concerning the procedures' execution; a description of auditor's effective findings, a statement that the effected procedures are neither audit nor revision and thus it is not given any kind of insurance; a statement that the report is addressed to the parts which agreed on the procedures; report's date; auditor's address; auditor's signature (Neamțu, 2012, p.131).

6. Conclusions

Once with the integration in the European Union and Romania becoming a Member State with full rights, accessing European funds and submitting them to the empowered institutions was allowed. As a result of accessing European funds, the project's beneficiary is obliged to audit it, the audition being made by financial auditors, on the basis of a contract signed by the project's beneficiary and financial auditor. For auditing European Funds, the auditors have to be A FACR members, to be graduated the specialization and perfecting courses of European funding, to have passed the verifying knowledge test, and not to be disciplinary sanctioned in the last three years.

Auditing the projects on European Funds, is an audit mission based on agreed procedures, which take place in accordance with ISRS 4400 "*Commitments for performing the agreed procedures concerning financial information"* and in accordance to Ethical Code. Through audit mission, the auditor will verify the reality, legality and eligibility of the expenses declared in the reimbursement request by the beneficiary, and at the end of the mission will make a report concerning the factual findings concerning the way in which the terms of the financing contract were respected, without expressing an opinion, thus the users of the report making their own conclusions concerning the appliance of the agreed procedures.

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AUDITAREA FONDURILOR EUROPENE, O MISIUNE BAZATĂ PE PROCEDURI CONVENITE

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Rezumat: *Integrarea României în Uniunea Europeană, în anul 2007, a reprezentat punctul de pornire în armonizarea legislației românești cu legislația Uniunii Europene și, totodată, posibilitatea de depunere a proiectelor în vederea atragerii fondurilor europene puse la dispoziția țării noastre, ca și țară membră. Ca urmare a accesării proiectelor pe fonduri europene de către beneficiarii de proiect, auditarea acestora este obligatorie și se realizează de către membrii Camerei Auditorilor Financiari din Romania, în baza procedurilor convenite, stabilite de Autoritatea de Management sau de către Organismul Intermediar și în conformitate cu ISRS 4400 "Angajamente pentru efectuarea procedurilor convenite privind informațiile financiare". În cadrul misiunilor de auditare a fondurilor europene, auditorul financiar trebuie să respecte și principiile etice fundamentale prezentate în cadrul Codului de Etică emis de Federația Internațională a Contabililor, iar, la finalul misiunii, va întocmi un raport care trebuie să prezinte detaliat scopul și procedurile convenite, astfel încât să fie inteligibil pentru utilizatorii acestuia. Scopul cercetării noastre este de a prezenta aspectele teoretice și practice privind auditarea fondurilor europene, iar ca metode folosite în realizarea acestei cercetări putem enumera: documentarea teoretică, documentarea practică, sinteza.*

Cuvinte-cheie: *auditare, fonduri europene, proceduri convenite, misiune de audit.*
Clasificare JEL: *M40, M41, M42.*

1. Introducere

Integrarea României în Uniunea Europeană a avut efecte benefice, din punct de vedere al finanțării activităților desfășurate de agenții economici și instituțiile publice, întrucât li s-a oferit posibilitatea să depună proiecte pentru atragerea fondurilor europene, cu scopul ca agenții economici să se dezvolte și să devină mai competitivi pe piață, iar instituțiile publice să investească fondurile în proiecte de interes național, precum: infrastructură, sănătate, dezvoltarea resurselor umane. Ca urmare a accesării fondurilor europene, beneficiarii au obligația auditării acestora, în conformitate cu ISRS 4400 *„Angajamente pentru efectuarea procedurilor convenite privind informațiile financiare"* și cu procedurile convenite, stabilite de către Autoritatea de Management (AM) sau Organismul Intermediar (OI).

Auditul reprezintă o temă de importanță majoră atât pentru practicieni, pentru utilizatorii informațiilor contabile/situațiilor financiare, cât și pentru beneficiarii proiectelor pe fonduri europene; prin urmare, în cadrul literaturii de specialitate regăsim o serie de lucrări, cărți și articole, cum ar fi: *Audit financiar. Concepte. Standarde. Norme* - Emil Horomnea; *Contabilitate financiară - o abordare europeană și internațională* - Niculae Feleagă; *Control și audit financiar contabil* - Oprean I.; *Audit financiar. Misiuni de asigurare și servicii conexe* - Horia Neamțu & all; *Audit financiar. Aspecte teoretice și aplicații practice* - Sorin Briciu & all.

Feleagă (Feleagă, 2005, p.161) definește auditul ca fiind "activitatea prin care se aplică, în mod independent, proceduri concrete și norme de examinare, pentru evaluarea caracterului adecvat și a modului de funcționare a acțiunilor întreprinse de o organizație prin referințe la norme" (Feleagă, 2005, p.161).

Oprean (Oprean, 2002, p.17) definește auditul ca fiind "un ansamblu de activități legate între ele (un proces), desfășurate de către auditori sau de către alți experți, care, pe baza cunoștințelor lor teoretice și practice și în urma însărcinărilor primite de la anumite organe, analizează informațiile și operațiunile unei entități sau referitoare la o anumită activitate, în

vederea oferirii unei asigurări prin intermediul unei opinii sau în vederea formulării unor recomandări" (Oprean, 2002, p.17).

2. **Metodologie**

Cercetarea noastră are ca şi scop atât prezentarea aspectelor teoretice privind efectuarea misiunilor de audit pe baza procedurilor convenite, cât şi aspectele practice privind întocmirea raportului de audit de către auditorul financiar care a acceptat o misiune de auditare a proiectelor pe fonduri europene.

Ca metode şi tehnici de cercetare utilizate în studiul nostru, am făcut apel la documentarea teoretică, sinteză şi documentarea practică. Documentarea teoretică a constat în studiul literaturii de specialitate. Sinteza a fost folosită în prezentarea aspectelor teoretice, domeniul auditului fiind un domeniu vast de studiu, iar documentarea practică am utilizat-o în momentul în care am căutat pe piață date referitoare la misiunile bazate pe proceduri convenite.

3. **Cerințe în auditarea fondurilor europene**

Ministerul Fondurilor Europene (MFE) cu rol de autoritate de reglementare în gestionarea şi controlul instrumentelor structurale, în anul 2014, a încheiat un protocol de colaborare cu Camera Auditorilor Financiari din România (CAFR), privind organizarea și desfășurarea activității de audit financiar pentru fonduri europene și alte fonduri nerambursabile de la alți donatori. Protocolul poate fi consultat pe site-ul Camerei Auditorilor Financiari din România şi prezintă atât standardele la care se raportează auditorul în cadrul misiunii, cât și condițiile pe care trebuie să le respecte auditorul pentru a putea audita fonduri europene, şi anume: Protocol de colaborare privind organizarea și desfășurarea activității de audit financiar pentru fonduri europene și alte fonduri nerambursabile de la alți donatori (CAFR, 2014, p.4).

- Să fie auditori financiari de categorie A și absolvenți ai cursurilor de specializare și perfecționare pentru fonduri europene organizate de CAFR;
- Să promoveze testul de verificare a cunoștințelor privind legislația românească și cea europeană a fondurilor europene;
- Să nu se fi pronunțat sancțiuni disciplinare rămase definitive, în ultimii trei ani, împotriva auditorilor financiari.

În baza protocolului încheiat între Ministerul Fondurilor Europene şi Camera Auditorilor Financiari din Romania, părțile își asumă următoarele responsabilități:

- Autoritatea de Management/alte entități cu rol de coordonare, gestionarea și certificarea fondurilor europene nerambursabile au dreptul de verificare în orice moment a activității auditorilor prin eșantion;
- Schimbul de informații între părți se face la cerere și gratuit, pentru buna desfășurare a auditului financiar pentru beneficiarii de fonduri;
- CAFR se asigură de preluarea de la MFE şi diseminarea către auditori a regulilor pe baza cărora auditorii au obligația să realizeze misiunile de asigurare cu scop special privind eligibilitatea cheltuielilor și a surselor de finanțare primite și/sau solicitate prin cereri de rambursare de către beneficiari;
- Părțile vor asigura securitatea datelor/informațiilor primite și le vor utiliza conform legii;
- CAFR va publica lista auditorilor financiari care pot audita fonduri europene şi o va actualiza trimestrial.

Auditarea fondurilor europene reprezintă o activitate complexă de examinare a informațiilor pe baza procedurilor convenite, desfășurată de auditori financiari, membrii ai Camerei Auditorilor Financiari din Romania, care, în baza cunoștințelor teoretice și practice deținute și în conformitate cu ISRS 4400, vor întocmi un raport de audit privind constatările factuale. Acest standard prevede că "obiectivul unei misiuni pe baza procedurilor convenite îl constituie efectuarea de către auditor a procedurilor ce țin de natura unui audit la care auditorul, entitatea și oricare terțe părți îndreptățite au convenit, precum și raportarea de către auditor asupra constatărilor efective" (Neamțu, 2012, p.125).

În auditarea proiectelor pe fonduri europene, auditorul trebuie să respecte, pe lângă ISRS 4400, și principiile etice prezentate în Partea A a Codului Etic (Manualul Codului Etic al Profesioniștilor Contabili, 2013, p.12):

- Integritatea, conform acestui principiu auditorul trebuie să fie sincer și onest în relațiile profesionale și de afaceri;
- Obiectivitatea, conform acestui principiu auditorul trebuie să nu își compromită raționamentul profesional datorită părtinirii, conflictelor de interese sau influențelor unor persoane;
- Competența profesională - conform acestui principiu, auditorul trebuie să-și mențină cunoștințele la un nivel corespunzător și să acționeze în conformitate cu standardele profesionale și tehnice aplicabile;
- Confidențialitatea - conform acestui principiu, auditorul trebuie să se abțină atât de la divulgarea informațiilor confidențiale obținute ca urmare a acceptării misiunii, cât și de la folosirea în interes personal a acestor informații;
- Comportament profesional - conform acestui principiu, auditorul are obligația de a se conforma legilor și de a evita orice acțiune care poate discredita profesia.

Se poate observa că independența nu este precizată, dar termenii angajamentului din scrisoarea de misiune pot solicita respectarea cerințelor de independență a auditorului, iar dacă acesta nu este independent, trebuie să prezinte acest fapt în raportul constatărilor efective (Neamțu, 2012, p.126).

O lipsă a independenței o reprezintă și situația în care cabinetul/societatea din care face parte auditorul are o participare financiară în afacerile clientului auditului (Horomnea, 2010, p.98).

4. Auditarea fondurilor europene și procedurile convenite

Obligația auditării proiectelor pe fonduri europene aparține beneficiarului de proiect și se realizează în baza unui contract de prestări servicii încheiat între beneficiarul de proiect și auditor. Astfel, auditorul va verifica realitatea, legalitatea și eligibilitatea cheltuielilor declarate în cererea de rambursare de către beneficiar.

Misiunea de audit pe bază de proceduri convenite se compune din trei etape, și anume:

- Prima etapă - planificarea misiunii - se au în vedere evaluarea riscurilor, calculul pragului de semnificație și determinarea eșantionului;
- A doua etapă – verificarea – constă în culegerea probelor de audit și întocmirea foilor de lucru;
- A treia etapă – finalizarea auditului și redactarea raportului de audit (Briciu, 2014, p.275).

Pentru realizarea misiunii sale, auditorul va colecta și va face o analiză a informațiilor și documentelor obținute de la beneficiarul de proiect, iar dacă consideră necesară, poate exista și o întâlnire cu membrii echipei de management, pentru o cât mai bună înțelegere a proiectului și a modului de implementare a acestuia. Procedurile pe care auditorul le va verifica în cadrul misiunii sale sunt următoarele:

- În primul rând, se va avea în vedere conformarea beneficiarului proiectului cu ceea ce prevede contractul de finanțare;
- În al doilea rând, se vor verifica liniile bugetare din cererea de rambursare depusă de beneficiarul proiectului;
- În al treilea rând, se va verifica conformitatea informațiilor din cererea de rambursare cu contabilitatea beneficiarului de proiect;
- În al patrulea rând, se va verifica dacă s-au respectat regulile de achiziții;
- În al cincilea rând, se va verifica existența fizică a bunurilor cumpărate în cadrul proiectului;
- În al șaselea rând, se vor verifica cheltuielile ocazionate de implementarea proiectului;
- În al șaptelea rând, se vor verifica veniturile încasate în cadrul proiectului.

În urma verificărilor efectuate de auditor, acesta va întocmi un raport asupra procedurilor convenite cu privire la modul în care au fost respectate clauzele din contractul de finanțare, fără exprimarea unei opinii, utilizatorii raportului trăgând propriile concluzii cu privire la aplicarea procedurilor convenite.

5. Raportul de audit, în auditarea fondurilor europene

Raportul de audit al unei misiuni de auditare a fondurilor europene prezintă, în mod obligatoriu, scopul și procedurile convenite ale misiunii pentru a oferi utilizatorilor posibilitatea de înțelegere a naturii și ariei de cuprindere a activităților efectuate (ISRS 4400, 2008, p.1037).

Raportul de audit, a unei misiuni pe bază de proceduri convenite, are următoarea structură: titlul; destinatarul; identificarea informațiilor asupra cărora s-au aplicat procedurile convenite; o declarație că procedurile efectuate au fost cele convenite cu clientul; o declarație că misiunea a fost efectuată în conformitate cu ISRS 4400; dacă este cazul, auditorul va declara că nu este independent față de entitate; identificarea scopului privind efectuarea procedurilor; enumerarea procedurilor efectuate; descrierea constatărilor efective ale auditorului; o declarație că procedurile efectuate nu constituie nici audit, nici revizuire și de aceea nu este exprimată nicio asigurare; o declarație că raportul este adresat părților care au convenit asupra procedurilor; data raportului; adresa auditorului; semnătura auditorului (Neamțu, 2012, p.131).

6. Concluzii

Odată cu integrarea în Uniunea Europeană și devenirea României ca stat membru cu drepturi depline, s-a permis accesarea fondurilor europene prin întocmirea unor proiecte și depunerea acestora la instituțiile abilitate. Ca urmare a accesării fondurilor europene, beneficiarul de proiect are obligația auditării acestora, auditarea efectuându-se de către auditori financiari în baza unui contract încheiat între beneficiarul de proiect și auditorul financiar. Pentru a putea audita fonduri europene, auditorii financiari trebuie să fie membrii CAFR de categorie A, să fi absolvit cursul de specializare și perfecționare pe fonduri europene, să fi trecut testul de verificare a cunoștințelor și să nu fi fost sancționat disciplinar în ultimii trei ani.

Auditarea proiectelor pe fonduri europene este o misiune de audit bazată pe proceduri convenite, care se desfășoară în conformitate cu ISRS 4400 *„Angajamente pentru efectuarea procedurilor convenite privind informațiile financiare"* și cu respectarea Codului Etic. Prin intermediul misiunii de audit, auditorul va verifica realitatea, legalitatea și eligibilitatea cheltuielilor declarate în cererea de rambursare de către beneficiar, iar la finalul misiunii va întocmi un raport privind constatările factuale cu privire la modul în care au fost respectate clauzele din contractul de finanțare, fără exprimarea unei opinii, utilizatorii raportului trăgând propriile concluzii cu privire la aplicarea procedurilor convenite.

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THE IMPACT OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENTS IN ISRAEL

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Abstract: *Research investigated gaps in achievements between Jewish and Arab pupils in Israel. Research questions were: Were there significant differences in grades attained by Jewish and Arab pupils in Israel in PISA 2009 tests? Was there a correlation between the socio-economic index measured by the PISA program, and grades attained in PISA 2009 tests? Was there a correlation between the mean grades in the PISA 2009 tests and the overall organizational status of Jewish in comparison to Arab schools? Quantitative data were collected with questionnaires for pupils and principals developed by the PISA program. Data-analysis indicated significant positive correlations of the pupils' grades with the combined socio-economic index of the school pupils, and with the school climate. Positive correlations were found with the quality of educational resources and extent of school independence in allocation of resources. Pupils' achievements in the Jewish sector in reading were significantly higher than pupils' achievements in the Arab sector. Achievements of pupils from socio-economic strata above the median were higher than those of pupils from socio-economic strata below the median. The research contributes knowledge regarding factors leading to gaps in learning achievements, between different sectors. Intensive activity is needed to reduce these gaps.*
Cercetările au investigat lacune în realizările elevilor evrei și arabi din Israel. Întrebările au fost: au existat diferențe semnificative în ceea ce privește punctajele obținute de elevii evrei și arabi din Israel la testele PISA 2009? A existat o corelație între indicele socio-economic măsurat prin programul PISA și notele obținute în testele PISA 2009? A existat o corelație între punctajele medii din Testele PISA 2009 și statutul general de organizare a evreilor în comparație cu școlile arabe? Datele cantitative au fost colectate pe baza chestionarelor pentru elevii și directorii vizați de programul PISA. Analiza datelor a indicat corelații pozitive semnificative ale punctajelor elevilor cu indicele socio-economic și climatul școlar. S-au constatat corelații pozitive cu calitatea resurselor educaționale și cu gradul de independență școlară în alocarea resurselor. Performanțele elevilor din sectorul evreiesc la lectură au fost semnificativ mai mari decât realizările elevilor din sectorul arab. Realizările elevilor din straturile socio-economice peste medie au fost mai mari decât cele ale elevilor din straturile socio-economice aflate sub medie. Cercetarea contribuie la cunoașterea factorilor care duc la decalaje în învățare, între diferite sectoare. Este necesară o activitate intensă pentru a reduce aceste lacune.

Key words: *Israel, socio-economic status, PISA, OECD, Arabs, Pupil achievements.*
JEL Classification*: A14, A21, C12, I21, I28.*

1. Introduction

Socio-economic status is a family characteristic that most strongly predicts pupils' academic performances, so that when it is higher, pupils' academic achievements increase (Van Laar and Sidanius, 2001). Socio-economic status is measured by different factors such as: parents' level of education, parents' occupations, family income and location of residence (Ben-David, 2010; Gough, 1964; Sbirsky and Degan-Bouzaglo, 2009; Van Laar and Sidanius, 2001; Yona, 2005).

There is also an additional systemic influence of socio-economic status on academic achievements, meaning that the general socio-economic status of most of the school's pupil population influences academic performances; when there is less money given to the school, it invests less money in the pupils. Sirin (2005) showed that schools in which most of the pupils came from low income families were considered "inferior" in relation to schools where most of the pupils came from high income families. Moreover, socio-economic composition of the pupil population influences achievements in physical exams, so that achievements in private schools are

far higher than in state schools. Consequently there is competition between educational institutions to attract pupils from high socio-economic strata (Zimmer, Ikeda and Ludemann, 2011).

Equality in education is a basic principle of a democratic society, since education and training are important tools for the reduction of socio-economic gaps at the individual and community levels (Yona, 2005). The aspiration for equality is expressed at the level of outputs, and not necessarily at the level of input of resources (Golan-Agnon, 2006; Sbirsky and Degan-Bouzaglo, 2009) but in order to achieve such equality, corrective discrimination may be needed to allot resources to groups of pupils with a lower starting point (Abu-Asbeh, 2008; Ben-David, 2010; Sbirsky and Degan-Bouzaglo, 2009).

Education is an important factor for individual and social development of the Arab minority in Israel, and especially for Arab children, and also serves as a tool for the community's socio-political struggle for social mobility (Arar and Abu-Asbah, 2010; Mustafa and Arar, 2009) since they live as a minority in a Jewish state and are mostly within the lowest socio-economic strata (Mazawi, 2003). In recent years, a continuous increase in the level of Arab education including higher education has led to an increase in living standards and consumer habits (Abu-Asbeh, 2008).

The four main sources of inputs for the education systems in Israel are the central government, local government, parents and civil society. The Arab education system receives fewer resources from all four sources. The responsibility of the government for the inferior state of the Arab education system is disputed; some scholars claim that the government has at least partial responsibility for example with regard to teacher quality (Arar and Abu-Asbah, 2010).

The proportion of excellent pupils (with an average grade of 95 or more) is higher by a third in Jewish schools than in Arab schools (Sbirsky and Degan-Bouzaglo, 2009). A deeper examination shows that the gaps in mathematics achievements between the Jewish and Arab school are not large; in English, a discipline essential for university admittance there is a gap of one unit and close to 10 points between the two school systems. According to Degan-Bouzaglo and Sbirsky (2009) the achievements of Arab pupils in mathematics are the result of their high motivation to succeed in sciences, for long term goal attainment. Contrastingly, Arab pupils appear to have difficulties in studying English since it is a third language, in addition to Arabic and Hebrew. In addition, in Arab schools, emphasis is given to a broad-based matriculation certificate rather than aspiring for quality grades, to comply with threshold requirements for university admittance (Agbaria and Mustafa, 2012).

Examinations of the differences between the two populations, Jewish and Arab, indicates that there are significant gaps in all the basic social characteristics: gaps in elementary and higher education, gaps in the average number of children per family, gaps in proportion of the population living in poverty, and gaps in participation in the work force. Beyond these specific gaps, there is little doubt that the weak socio-economic status of Arab local governments also influences the level of services that they supply including education (Arar and Abu-Asbah, 2010).

Achievements for standard international exams (PISA and PIRLS) are significantly lower in Arab schools, and Arab pupils were graded in the lowest groups of tested pupils in Israel. Their average grade was lower than the general average for all tested countries and regions and significantly lower than the average for Jewish students in Israel. Nevertheless, a trend to reduction in the inequality in education in Israel is evident in two dimensions: the proportion of participation in studies and the proportion of those eligible for a matriculation certificate. But this is a slow, gradual, insufficient process, and elimination of the gap between the different school

systems is not yet envisaged (Volansky, 2006). Zussman and Tsur (2008) showed that the gaps in basic achievements in matriculation exams between pupils from weak socio-economic strata and pupils from strong socio-economic strata have diminished, simultaneously with the broadening of some gaps in achievements that testify to excellence.

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) conducts research once every three years known as: Program for International Students Assessment (PISA). Israel joined this research from 2000. The research examines the readiness of 15 year olds for adult life in terms of their acquisition of tools for economic thinking and analytical and comprehension abilities to cope effectively with the environment. The exam examines the level of literacy in reading, mathematics and sciences. Literacy according to the PISA research is "the pupil's ability to apply knowledge and skills that they have acquired. Pupils and schools are sampled to represent the various sectors of society in Israel and the various types of school (including three-year and six-year schools, schools from different networks, etc.

The present study aims to investigate gaps in academic achievements between the Jewish and Arab pupils in PISA 2009 tests, and the correlation between these academic achievements and general socio-economic variables and the level of the school as an organizational unit.

2. Methodology

Research population

The sample was drawn from all pupils aged 15 studying in formal settings in many states, who participated in the PISA exams in 2000. From this population, 176 schools were selected in Israel – 137 Jewish school (4,480 pupils) and 39 Arab schools (1,281 pupils).

Research tools

A quantitative research was employed to investigate differences between different segments of the population (model of difference analysis) and correlations between variables (correlation model). Data was collected with four questionnaires administered to pupils and one questionnaire for principals, which were developed by a staff of pedagogic, scientific, testing and psychometric experts from the PISA program.

The pupils' questionnaires included a booklet testing literacy in reading, mathematics and sciences, background details, Self-Regulated Learning (SRL) and a questionnaire testing familiarity with the computer for purposes of entertainment and learning (Information Computer Technology – ICT). Questionnaires were translated in Israel into Hebrew and Arabic, and the cognitive tests underwent a pilot study and thorough analysis of the items to ensure their reliability.

The personal background details and SRL questionnaires included informative questions relating to personal and socio-demographic characteristics such as "country of birth", "mother tongue", "what is your father's occupation?"; reports on the means and facilities for learning at home (computer, books, personal writing desk), reports on extra-school learning activities (such as enrichment lessons) and reports on reading habits and homework. They also included questions measuring attitudes and behaviors: for example items relating to reading habits (for example: "I only read when I have to") and behaviors connected to learning strategies (for example: "when I prepare lessons I try to remember all the details in the text that I read") etc. Alongside each sub-question in the indexed questions that measured attitudes there was a 4-level scale of answers from "completely agree" to "completely disagree".

The ICT questionnaire was composed of ten different questions. Each question included sub-questions relating to computer equipment in the home, computer use in general or uses of the computer for learning or entertainment.

The principal's questionnaire was composed of 27 informative questions and questions (attitudes, assessments) on the following subjects: school structure and organization, pupil characteristics, the community and the teachers, resources, regulations, curriculum and assessment processes, school climate and school policy, characteristics of the principal and school leadership.

Data analysis included examination of the differences between different population segments, some of the analyses were performed at the individual level and some at the school level.

Research questions

Were there significant differences in grades attained by Jewish and Arab pupils in Israel in PISA 2009 tests? Was there a correlation between the general socio-economic index measured by the PISA program, and grades attained in the PISA 2009 tests?

Is there a correlation between parents' occupational status and pupils' grades attained in PISA 2009 in Israel? Is there a correlation between the mean grades in the PISA 2009 tests and the overall organizational status in Jewish schools in comparison to Arab schools in Israel? At the organizational unit level, is there a correlation between school characteristics, teachers, pupil population and management and pupils' achievements in PISA 2009 tests?

Research hypotheses

In consideration of the literature review and the research questions the follow research hypotheses were composed:

1. There will be significant differences in the grades attained for reading literacy, mathematics and sciences in PISA 2009 tests between Arab and Jewish pupils in Israel.
2. There will be a significant difference in the achievements for reading literacy, mathematics and sciences in PISA 2009 tests between Israeli pupils in strata above and below the general socio-economic index median
3. There will be an interaction between "school sector" x "socio-economic status" with regard to grades attained for reading literacy, mathematics and sciences in PISA 2009 tests.
4. At the level of the school as an organizational unit, there will be a positive correlation between pupils' mean "socio-economic status", mean "index of learning facilities", mean "attitudes towards the school", mean "attitudes towards computers" and the mean school grade attained for reading literacy, mathematics and sciences in PISA 2009 tests.
5. At the level of the school as an organizational unit a correlation will be found between different indices that characterize the teachers, pupils, management, school climate and learning environment and the pupils' achievements.

Findings

To examine the first three research hypotheses MANOVA analyses were run to investigate the effect of "sector", the effect of "socio-economic status" and the interaction of these two variables for three grades in the PISA 2009 tests: reading literacy, mathematics and sciences. For the purposes of this examination the sequential distribution of the socio-economic cultural index was calculated and encoded according to the median for socio-economic statuses above and below

the median. Table no. 1 displays the means and standard deviations for pupils' grades in reading literacy, mathematics and sciences, by sector and socio-economic status. It can be seen that in all three disciplines the achievements in the Jewish sector are higher than the achievements in the Arab sector. Moreover, with regard to socio-economic status, there is a higher level of achievements for pupils above the median than for pupils below the median.

Table no. 1. Means and Standard Deviations for Grades attained in Reading Literacy, Mathematics and Sciences, by Sector and Socio-economic Status (N=5525)

Sector	**Jewish pupils**			**Arab pupils**			**Total no. of pupils**		
	Reading literacy								
Socio-economic status		Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Below the median	1955	467.5	94.4	812	392.3	86.9	2767	445.4	98.4
Above the median	2329	533.1	88.6	429	417.3	93.3	2758	515.1	98.7
Total	4284	503.2	96.9	1241	400.9	89.9	5525	480.2	104.5
	Mathematics								
Socio-economic status	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Below the median	1955	437.5	84.5	812	361.0	74.5	2767	415.1	88.8
Above the median	2329	505.3	82.9	429	392.9	81.7	2758	487.8	92.2
Total	4284	474.4	90.2	1241	372.0	78.5	5525	451.4	97.5
	Sciences								
Socio-economic status	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Below the median	1955	443.4	90.2	812	378.9	78.0	2767	424.4	91.6
Above the median	2329	511.9	85.9	429	410.8	82.38	2758	496.2	92.9
Total	4284	480.7	94.3	1241	389.9	80.9	5525	460.3	99.0

The two-way 2X2 MANOVA analysis examining significance of the difference between the mean grade for "reading literacy" by "sector" and "socio-economic status" (N=5525), found an effect for "sector": the achievements of pupils in the Jewish sector for reading literacy tests were higher than the achievements of the pupils in the Arab sector ($f=982.3$; $p<0.001$). Thus too an effect was found for socio-economic status: the achievements of pupils from socio-economic strata above the median were higher than those of pupils from strata below the median ($f=220.9$; $p<0.001$), and an interaction was also found ($f=44.5$; $p<0.001$).

Table no. 2 displays the correlations between the socio-economic status variables – combined socioeconomic cultural index, parents' education, parents' occupational status, learning facilities at home and attitudes towards the computer – and grades achieved in reading literacy, mathematics and sciences. It is clear that significant positive correlations were found.

Table no. 2. Pearson correlations between the socio-economic index (parents' education, parents' occupational status, learning facilities at home and attitudes towards the computer) and grades achieved in reading literacy, mathematics and sciences

	Sector[1] (1) Jewish (2) Arab	Combined socio-economic and cultural index	Highest parents' education 5474	Highest parents' status 5155	Learning facilities at home 5647	Attitudes towards the computer 5051
Reading literacy	-.352(**)	.372(**)	.344(**)	.366(**)	.130(**)	.179(**)
Mathematics	-.328(**)	.425(**)	.403(**)	.389(**)	.140(**)	.159(**)
Sciences	-.313(**)	.410(**)	.380(**)	.372(**)	.147(**)	.138(**)

**p<.001

In the analysis at the school level (Table no. 3) significant positive correlations were found between grades and the combined socio-economic index of the school pupils, and with the school climate. Thus too, positive correlations were found with the reported quality of educational facilities, and the extent of the school's independence in allotting resources. In contrast, negative correlations were found with emphasis on achievements, problem in the classroom, reports on teachers' work, self-reports of the school principal and the correlation between number of computers and the number of pupils. No correlations were found between the grades and reports on lack of teachers and problems with teachers.

Table no. 3. Correlations between school parameters and grades attained in reading literacy, mathematics and sciences

Quality of educational resource	School's degree of freedom in allotting resources	Proportion of computers to pupils	Combined socio-economic cultural index	Learning facilities at home	Attitudes towards computers	Emphasis on achievements	Problems in class	Problems with teachers	Lack of teachers	
.28 (**)	.09	-.01	.72 (**)	. 3 (**)	.40 (**)	-.17 (*)	-.24 (**)	-.09	-.08	Reading literacy
.31 (**)	.18 (*)	.07	.78 (**)	. 36 (**)	.39 (**)	-.14	-.21 (**)	.05	.07	Mathematics
.26 (**)	.19 (*)	.01	.71 (**)	.33 (**)	.40 (**)	-.17 (*)	-.19 (*)	.11	.02	Sciences

* p<.05 **p<.001 *** p<.001

3. Discussion and conclusions

The comparison between the Jewish and Arab sectors revealed that there are significant differences between the grades achieved in the two sectors for PISA 2009 tests. Similar results were also found for the PISA 2006 tests (Sbirsky and Degan-Bouzaglo, 2009). There is no clear

scholarly consensus regarding the strength of prediction of grades according to socio-economic status. The first hypotheses was accepted.

Some studies found a strong positive correlation, while others argued there was little influence for socio-economic status (Gough, 1964; White, 1982; White, et al., 1993). Nevertheless, parents who have financial capabilities send their children to private schools, so that the principle of equality of opportunity in education is undermined (Zimmer, Ikeda and Ludemann, 2011).

There are several ways in which socio-economic status can influence pupils' academic achievements. According to Sirin (2005) pupils' socio-economic status influences the school's characteristics, so that insofar as there is a school with less money, it invests less in its pupils. This situation creates significant gaps between the different schools and thus inequality is established between different strata of the society (Golan-Agnon, 2006; Yogev, 2003).

Rouse and Barrow (2006) claimed that schools with a low socio-economic status do not use their material resources as effectively as schools with high socio-economic status. Following this argument, the studies of Rivkin, Hanushek and Kain (2005) found that the size of class has a slight but significant influence on pupils' achievements in reading and mathematics tests. According to Van, Laar and Sidanius (2001) class size influences amount of personal time that pupils receive from the teacher and this directly influences pupils' achievements. Moreover, in schools with low socio-economic status, the level of teachers will be lower than in schools with higher socio-economic situation and indeed Croninger et al. (2007) showed that when teacher level is higher, pupils' achievements are higher. According to Rouse and Barrow (Arar and Abu-Asbah, 2010) teachers' expectations from their pupils are determined according to the pupil's socio-economic status, these findings were affirmed by Ben-David (2006).

In Israel gaps between the Jewish and Arab sector are the result of continuous ideological, religious, and national-ethnic discrimination expressed even in education. This means that resources provided for the Arab sector are lower and pupils in the Arab sector have weaker achievements than pupils in the Jewish sector (Sbirsky and Degan-Bouzaglo, 2009). Difference in the three sources of investment in education: the state, local government and local society between the two sectors leaves the Arab pupil behind, so that academic grades reflect a "concentration of disadvantage of resources" (Arar and Abu-Asbah, 2010).

Pupils' achievements in the PISA tests sharpens the recognition of gaps in Israeli education that have often been noted by Israeli education researchers. The second hypotheses was accepted. To reduce these gaps, several structural and technical reforms have been attempted (6; Sbirsky and Degan-Bouzaglo, 2009; White, 1982; Yogev, 2003). The diverse characteristics of different pupils in Israel necessitate differential investment, and comprehensive reform of the education system in Israel or "a systemic program to reduce gaps" (Ben-David, 2010). Reform programs should be based on three pillars: teachers – substantial increase of wages, alongside significant improvement in teaching quality, since this is one of the weak points of the Arab education system, which essentially still needs to placate demands of strong hamullas (extended families) (Arar and Abu-Asbah, 2010). Analysis of the principal's questionnaire revealed that the principal's self-reporting was not reliable or that in the schools more "problematic" in terms of achievements, a higher level of leadership was required.

In conclusion, this research investigated the correlation between socio-economic status and academic achievements in reading, mathematics and sciences at the level of the school as an organizational unit, in a comparison between the Jewish and Arab sectors, and found a significant

correlation between socio-economic status and pupils' achievements in both Jewish and Arab schools and also influence of the level of the school as an organizational unit.

In order to improve this situation, well-trained teachers are needed, who should be carefully selected and properly rewarded, to teach a focused significantly improved learning program in the core subjects (reading, writing, sciences, mathematics and English). Additionally the combination of personal responsibility with authority in the school should be encouraged with positive and negative incentives for the school and teachers. These conditions may be able to guarantee the bridging of existing gaps in education and bring economic outputs (Balas, 2010).

Research results reported here necessitate rethinking and intensive activity to reduce the gaps between the Jewish and Arab sectors. Future studies should relate to additional factors that cause gaps between these two sectors, such as systemic factors including educational policies, the school organization and its functioning, separation between Jewish and Arab schools etc.

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DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES FOR SPA TOURISM, IN THE CENTRE REGION

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Abstract: *The first spa touristic cluster of the country was initiated in the Centre Region in year 2014 and represents an opportunity for sustainable development regarding the tourism of this region. The spa sector is one of those that succeeded in registering general and constant growth of the employment rate. Arrivals and overnight stays register increases year by year. The paper presents the necessity of the emergence, the composition, organization, as well as the objectives of a spa tourism cluster in the Centre Region.*

Key-words: *cluster, spa tourism, development strategy, master plan of tourism.*
JEL Classification: *M31, Z32.*

1. Introduction – Spa tourism, an opportunity for Romania

The spa tourism represents an opportunity for the economic development of Romania. The spa tourism signifies one of the constant tourist traffic types with relative stable customers, which contribute to the increasing of the usage coefficients of the accommodation capacities and to the average increased receipts per day/tourist.

Romania belongs to the European countries that have a remarkable spa and health potential; here you can find approximately 1/3 part of the mineral and thermal waters of Europe.

Our country possesses different resorts with a big touristic potential, in the case if they would function to the required standards of the modern tourism, but most its accommodation structures need major or even capital repairs.

Europa, just like our country is under an accelerated demographic aging process, the elderly being the most important target group for the health tourism.

2. The necessity of a cluster for the health tourism

The group formation for health tourism is probably the most important step in the establishment of a health tourism destination, in order to increase the opportunities as a health touristic destination for the tourists, as well as in order to increase the flow of patients/tourists.

All the parties who are interested in health tourism, for instance the central and local public authorities, treatment facilities, hospitals, doctors, operators of tourism and of economic development, hotels, restaurants, cultural establishments and others, have to work together, so as to promote a high-quality image of health services and in order to establish a “brand”/name for the respective destination.

A group for the health tourism is an independent organization of treatment points, hospitals, clinics, professionals in the field of medicine, central and local public authorities and economic operators.

A group like this represents the interest of all members. The scope of a cluster is the promoting of its members and the building of a reputation with high-quality health tourism.

The collective actions approved by the members of the cluster produce results which are impossible to be produced by each member individually.

Before the patients/tourists should choose a trip for these destinations, these destinations should acquire a good reputation and should be able to persuade that the location has top quality medical assistance, disposes of the necessary infrastructure and of the governmental support. No individual member is able to achieve these things alone.

A cluster can adapt and promote high standards of medical, ethic and professional assistance.

These standards have to be elaborated according to the existent medical requests and to the licensing standards for the country, state, community or region. The marketing standards and the objectives for the group have to be evaluated and appointed by an adequate entity nominated by the group.

Finally, the integrated service systems should deal with patients adequately. This means that the tourism organizations and hotels and/or treatment/recovery centres must be incorporated into a group with the aim of creating certain and resistant healthcare networks. In this way a cluster can create in its location a self-regulation with the purpose of achieving the targets functioning as an independent system of healthcare and tourism.

3. Results and Discussions

3.1. Presentation of the spa tourism cluster in the Centre Region

In the context of the development of spa tourism was created the Spa Tourism Cluster at regional level, which is the first spa tourism cluster in our country.

The objectives of this cluster are the promoting of the touristic and spa potential of the counties from the Centre Region under a common brand, the creation of common development strategies and tourist attraction, as well as the attraction of the potential investors in this field.

The initiators of this cluster in the field of spa in the Centre Region were: (http://www.asimcov.ro/userfiles/file/Evenimente/CLUSTERO_balneo.pdf) Aurel Borsan president of the Foundation Amfiteatru, Vajda Lajos, vicepresident of the Association of Clusters in Romania, Nicu Rădulescu representative of the *Organization* of Spa Owners in *Romania* (OPTBR) and Alexandru Constantin, president of the Romanian Medical Tourism Association.

This cluster is based upon the regional potential, tradition and history. The spa tourism is a field which can be developed in the Centre Region. The cluster is the organization form which assures the frame for the cooperation of different actors. The cluster has a decisive role in the social-economic development of the region.

In the Centre Region situates the town Covasna, one of the best known spa resorts in Romania. Covasna is called also as ”*the town of the 1000 health spring waters*”, has a unique character due to the abundance of natural resources of the place, used for a couple of decades for the prevention and treatment of the diseases of the cardiovascular system.

The mineral water springs are used in balneology and the existence of numerous mofettas offers an excellent remedy for health.

The permanent balneoclimateric Resort of Bálványos situates on the southern side of the Bodoc Mountain in the arc of the Carpathians, at 840-950 m above the sea level. Due to the therapeutic qualities of the mineral waters and of the post-volcanic emanations (mofette), the resort offers to its guests, ideal conditions for relaxation and treatment, as well as the beautiful landscape of the surrounding mountains.

Due to the volcanic and sedimentary rocks, the hydrogen sulphur and carbon dioxide emissions favoured the development of numerous mineral waters. Due to their chemical

composition, they are remarkable for drinking cures, used for the treatment of stomach and intestinal diseases; being used in dry baths with gas, namely mofettas prove to be natural cure factors for cardiac and vascular diseases. Both the water and the gases dispose here of a relative big natural radioactivity.

In the Centre Region the *counties Covasna and Harghita* dispose of the highest spa touristic potential of the region. On the basis of this idea, both counties worked out a project intended to reinvigorate a few stations which had been abandoned, but in the same time to develop a few localities with spa potential.

The project was entitled "*The trail of the mineral waters*", a route which goes through the localities Bixad, Belin, Malnaş, Vâlcele, Bodoc, Şugaş-Băi, Mărtănuş, Baraolt in Covasna county and through Borsec, Tuşnad, Jigodin, Homorod, Remetea in Harghita county.

The investment had the value of 10 million euros, out of which more than half constitute European funds. The pools were renovated most of all by volunteering: at Cernat, Bodoc, Peteni şi Hătuica.

In Baraolt the pool was rehabilitated, whereas in Bodoc a new moffetta was constructed, the two mineral water springs were remediated and at the same time a new building for bathes was built.

In Malnaş the two springs and the park were remediated, while at Şugaş resort and Vâlcele were built SPA centres, with pools, Turkish bathes, Finn saunas, fitness halls and other recreation spaces.

Within the diagnostic analysis of the spa health tourism the study is based predominantly on the data of the National Institute of Statistics.

The main conclusions about the tourism in Covasna county refers to the turnover percentage of the tourism within the local economics, which is above the national average and at the level of the development region.

In Table no. 1 there are presented the data regarding the number of tourists who spent the night in the Centre Region in the period of January 2016 (Comunicat de presă nr.1390/25.03.2016[online]Availableat:https://www.alba.insee.ro/.../comunicate_2016/ian/comunicat, pag. 2-3).

Table no. 1. Distribution of overnight stays on tourists' nationality and counties of Centre Region, in January 2016

	Total	**Alba**	**Braşov**	**Covasna**	**Harghita**	**Mureş**	**Sibiu**
Total from which:	336738	18065	181397	9968	27934	57344	42030
Romanians	282974	14890	155651	9255	23716	44250	35212
Foreigners	53764	3175	25746	713	4218	13094	6818

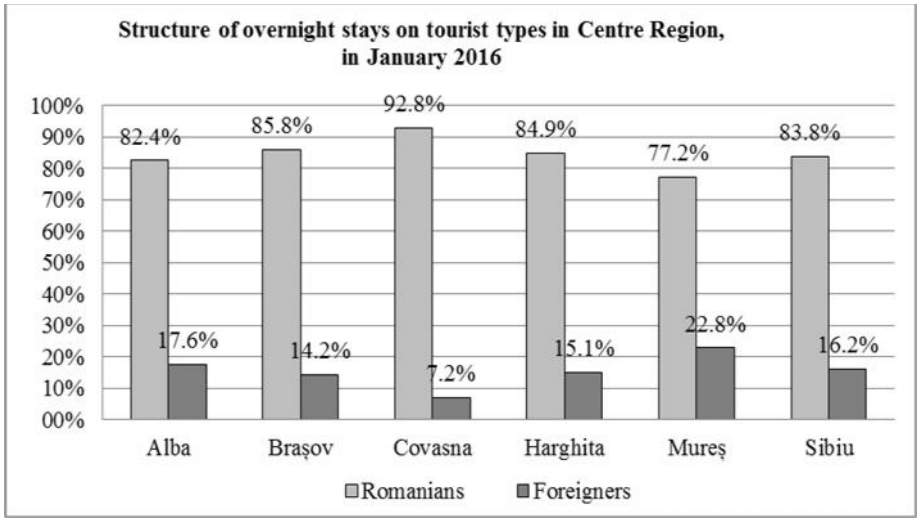
Source:http://www.alba.insse.ro/cmsalba/rw/pages/comunicatealba.ro.do

Figure no. 1 presents the structure of overnight stays on tourist types in the Centre Region in January 2016.

The average duration of a stay in January 2016 was 2.11 days, increasing with 0.38 days compared to the corresponding period in 2015; the longest stay is registered in county Covasna (2.46 days), the shortest in county Sibiu (1.77 days).

The net usage indicators of the accommodation places in the Centre Region in January 2016 was 22.7% based on the total number of accommodation structures, above the level of the

month January in year 2015 (20.6%) as well as above the calculated level of the country (19.9%). County Braşov has the highest grade of occupation 23.2%, followed by county Mureş (23.0%), Sibiu (18.7%), Covasna (17.3%), Alba (17.0%) and Harghita (16.5%) declared the National Institute of Statistics.



Source: http://www.alba.insse.ro/cmsalba/rw/pages/comunicatealba.ro.do

Figure no. 1. Structure of overnight stays on tourist types in the counties of Centre Region, in January 2016

County Alba does not dispose of balneological resorts, although there a potential exists – The Salt Baths at Ocna Mureş.

County Braşov The locality Perşani Resort is a summer balneoclimateric resort of local interest. The pool contains chloride, bicarbonate, sodium and calcic mineral water and anti-rheumatic sapropel mud which is exploited in summer time. The chloride, sodium, bicarbonate spring waters and the hypertonic mineral waters are recommended for rheumatic disease treatments. In the resort there is a camping with cottages, the number of places available is 24 and a hut with 20 places.

Homorod Resort offers natural treatment conditions for gynaecological affections, as well as for the affections of the locomotor system and of the peripheral nervous system. The material basis is deteriorated, investments are necessary. At present the place is non-functional.

Rodbav Resort has chlorine sodium and iodic mineral water springs which offer conditions for the treatment of rheumatic affections, mainly, for gynaecological and cardiovascular affections. At present the place is non-functional.

Pârâul Rece is part of the town Predeal. The climate conditions of the resort Pârâul Rece is a recommend the resort for the treatment of asthenic neurosis, treatment points for debility, physical and intellectual tiredness, rickets, endocrine affections, growth disorder by children.

In **County Mureş** there are numerous salt lakes being agglomerated in the Sub Carpathians in Sovata, Ideciu de Jos and Jabeniţa. Sovata (acknowledged for its beneficial effects in the gynaecological treatments) is declared a resort with national interests. At this place there are

10 salt lakes, among which the Bear Lake is the most important salt lake in Transylvania. It is situated in a former deserted salt-mine having the characteristics of the heliothermic phenomena. From the therapeutic point of view are also important the Red Lake and the Aluniş Lake which together with the Bear Lake assured the development of Sovata resort.

There are some treatment facilities in Sovata (the Bear Lake with heliothermic character and the Aluniş Lake with therapeutic mud abundant in inorganic substances with biostimulants in Sovata), independent treatment centres: Ideciu de Jos –Ideciu Resort (chloric, sodium mineral water springs and mineral mud), Sângeorgiu de Mureş, salt spring water in Sângeorgiu de Mureş, Jabeniţa – commune Solovăstru where you find also salt mud, Sărmăşel – commune Sărmaşu; in locality Stănceni there are arranged mineral spring waters; mofettas in Sângeorgiu de Mureş (mineral water rich in salts – chlorine, sodium, potassium, iodine, bromine). The diversity of balneological resources is recommended for different treatments; the traffic and financial accessibility constitute a factor of attraction.

County Sibiu disposes of the balneoclimateric resort *Ocna Sibiului*, the main attractions of which are the salt water of the lakes, which had formed due to the collapse of old salt-mines.

Avram Iancu Lake, with a depth of 132,5m is considered to be the deepest salt lake of the country. Due to tempered climate, to the air rich in aerosol, to the yearly temperature significantly above the average of this part of the country and owing to the recent renovations of the pool, this place is recommended as a resort of national interest.

Thereto must be added the mineral water of the river Horea, with chlorine sodium and lightly bicarbonate mineral water and the sapropelic mud in the lakes, which is lightly mineralized.

The balneoclimateric resort Bazna (recommended for rheumatic affections (is situated 69 km from the municipality Sibiu and 13 km from the municipality Mediaş. The natural cure factors are the chlorine, bromine, sodium, iodine, hypertonic and hypotonic mineral waters for external cure, used in bathes with complex effect due to the concomitant effect of the three factors: thermic, mechanic and chemic. Both the mud and the salt of Bazna are other important cure factors. At the same time the sedative cleaning bioclimate constitutes an important natural therapeutic factor.

Therapeutic indications of the resort Bazna for degenerative rheumatic affections: spondylitis, gonarthrosis, coxarthrosis, inflammatory peripheral arthrosis; articular rheumatic affections: tendinitis, bursitis; inflammatory rheumatic affections: spondylitis ankyloses, rheumatoid arthritis, psoriatic arthropathy; posttraumatic affections of the locomotion apparatus.

Miercurea Resort at present is not functional and neither registered, but has perspectives of development.

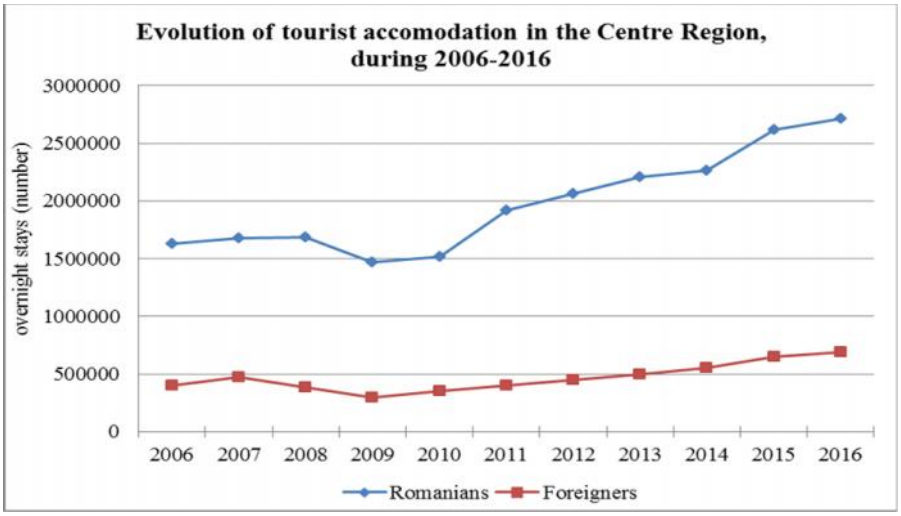
3.2. Objectives of the spa touristic cluster in the Centre Region

The objectives of this cluster are: the promotion of the touristic and spa potential of the counties in this Centre Region under a common brand, creation of common development and tourist attraction development strategies, as well as the attraction of the potential investors in this field.

This cluster can be joined by the owners of pensions, hotels and restaurants, artisans, tourist agencies, local authorities, research and innovation centres, medical units, higher education institutes, professional associations, banks, consultancy centres etc., who wish to harmonize their interests and to collaborate at a regional level.

The spa tourism has great chances to develop in the next years due to its strengths: natural cure factors, natural and anthropic factors, the lack of seasonality, and not at last the services, especially the medical services offered to the tourists.

Figure 2 presents the evolution of the accommodation in the Centre Region in the period of 2006-2016 observing a significant increase of the indigenous tourists.



Based on data from the National Institute of Statistics

Figure no. 2. Evolution of tourist accommodation in Centre Region during 2006-2016

According to the *Organization* of Spa Owners in *Romania* (OPTBR) – the recently realized researches for the elaboration of the touristic brand of the country indicates a bigger demand for the spa tourism both at internal and external level, situating on the 3 – 4 places before other traditional segments, demonstrating that the potential, and especially the therapeutic efficiency of the cures are known being carried out in the spa resort.

4. Conclusions - National frame of the strategic planning in tourism

The national frame of the strategic planning is presented mainly by the Master Plan of Tourism for Romania (Romania Tourism Development Master Plan 2007 – 2026, elaborated by the World Tourism Organisation). The key word of the master plan is sustainable development.

The master plan treats the main strategic directions so as Romania should become competitive on the global market of tourism.

The strategic directions aim at the coordination of the industry of tourism, the development of the physical infrastructure, the development of human resources, the development of the touristic products, of the information services, of the statistical researches, the marketing of the destinations, the protection of the environment and the politics of investments.

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STRATEGII DE DEZVOLTARE A TURISMULUI BALNEAR ÎN REGIUNEA CENTRU

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Rezumat: *Primul cluster balneo-turistic din țară a fost inițiat în regiunea Centru în 2014 și reprezintă o șansă pentru dezvoltarea durabilă a turismului în această regiune. Sectorul balnear este unul dintre cele care reușesc performanța de a înregistra creșteri generale și constante ale gradului de ocupare. Sosirile și înnoptările înregistrează creșteri de la an la an. Lucrarea prezintă necesitatea apariției, componența, organizarea și obiectivele clusterului balneo-turistic din Regiunea Centru.*

Cuvinte-cheie: *clusterul, turismul balnear, strategia de dezvoltare, masterplanul de turism.*
Clasificare JEL : *M31, Z32.*

1. Introducere - Turismul balnear, o șansă pentru România

Turismul balnear reprezintă o șansă pentru dezvoltarea economică a României.

Turismul balnear reprezintă una din formele de circulaţie turistică constantă, cu o clientelă relativ stabilă, care contribuie la ridicarea coeficienţilor de utilizare a capacităţilor de cazare şi la realizarea unor încasări medii sporite pe zi/turist.

România se înscrie printre țările europene cu un remarcabil potențial balnear și de sănătate; aici se află circa 1/3 din apele minerale și termale din Europa.

Ţara noastră deţine staţiuni balneare cu un mare potenţial turistic, în cazul care ar funcţiona la standardele cerute de un turism modern, dar multe din structurile de cazare necesită reparaţii majore sau chiar capitale.

Europa, ca şi ţara noastră, se află într-un proces accelerat de îmbătrânire demografică, vârstnicii fiind cel mai important grup ţintă pentru turismul de sănătate.

2. Necesitatea unui cluster pentru turismul de sănătate

Formarea unui grup pentru turismul de sănătate este, probabil, cel mai important pas în stabilirea unei destinații turistice de sănătate, pentru a-i spori șansele ca destinație pentru turiști și creşterea fluxului de pacienți/turiști.

Toate părțile interesate de turismul de sănătate, cum ar fi autorități publice centrale si locale, baze de tratament, spitale, medici, operatori de turism și de dezvoltare economică, hoteluri, restaurante, așezăminte culturale si alții, trebuie să lucreze împreună pentru a promova o imagine de înaltă calitate de servicii de sănătate și pentru a stabili o „marcă”/nume pentru destinația respectivă.

Un grup pentru turismul de sănătate este o organizație independentă de baze de tratatment, spitale, clinici, profesioniști din domeniul medical, autorități publice centrale și locale, operatori economici.

Un grup de acest fel reprezintă interesele tuturor membrilor. Scopul unui cluster este de a promova membrii și de a construi o reputație ca având turism de sănătate de înaltă calitate.

Actiunile colective vizate de către membrii clusterului produc rezultate pe care membrii individuali nu sunt capabili de a le obține de către fiecare în parte.

Înainte ca pacienții/turiștii să opteze pentru o călătorie pentru aceste destinații, trebuie să existe o reputație și convingerea că locația are asistență medicală de calitate extrem de ridicată, infrastructura necesară și sprijin guvernamental. Niciun membru individual nu poate face singur acest lucru.

Un cluster poate adapta si promova standarde ridicate de ingrijire medicală, etice si profesionale.

Aceste standarde trebuie sa fie elaborate pe baza cerințelor medicale existente si de standardele de licențiere pentru țară, stat, comunitate sau regiune. Standardele de comercializare și obiectivele pentru grup trebuie să fie evaluate si desemnate de entitatea corespunzatoare desemnată de grup.

In cele din urmă, sistemele de servicii integrate ar trebui să se ocupe în mod corespunzator de pacienți. Aceasta inseamnă că organizațiile de turism si hoteluri si/sau centre de tratament/recuperare trebuie sa fie incorporate in grup, cu scopul de a crea rețele de ingrijire sigure si fiabile.

În acest fel, un cluster poate crea auto-reglementare in locația sa pentru atingerea obiectivelor, functionând ca un sistem independent de asistență de sănătate si turism.

3. Rezultate şi discuţii

3.1. Prezentarea clusterului balneo-turistic din Regiunea Centru

În contextul dezvoltării balneo-turismului la nivel regional s-a creat Clusterul Balneo-Turistic, primul cluster balneo-turistic din ţara noastră. Obiectivele acestui cluster sunt promovarea, sub un brand comun, a potenţialului turistic şi balnear al judeţelor din Regiunea Centru, crearea unei strategii comune de dezvoltare şi de atragere a turiştilor, precum şi a potenţialilor investitori în domeniu.

Inițiatorii clusterului în domeniul balnear în Regiunea Centru au fost: Aurel Borsan președintele Fundației Amfiteatru, Vajda Lajos, vicepreședintele Asociației Clusterelor din România, Nicu Rădulescu reprezentant al Organizației Patronale a Turismului Balnear din România (OPTBR) și Alexandru Constantin, președinte al Asociației Române de Turism Medical.

Acest cluster se bazează pe potențialul regional, tradiție și istorie. Turismul balnear este un domeniu care se poate dezvolta în Regiunea Centru. Clusterul este forma organizatorică care asigură cadrul pentru cooperarea diferiților actori. Clusterul are rol hotărâtor în dezvoltarea economico-socială a regiunii.

În Regiunea Centru se află orașul Covasna, una din cele mai cunoscute stațiuni balneare din România. Covasna numită și *"orașul celor 1000 de izvoare de sănătate*", are un caracter unic datorită bogăției sale în resurse naturale, utilizate de câteva decenii în prevenirea și tratarea bolilor sistemului cardiovascular. Izvoarele de apă minerală sunt folosite în balneoterapie și numeroase mofete existente oferă și ele un remediu excelent pentru sănătate.

Stațiunea balneoclimaterică permanentă Bálványos este situată pe versantul sudic al munților Bodoc, în curbura Carpaților, la o altitudine de 840 m - 950 m. Datorită calităților terapeutice ale numeroaselor izvoare minerale și emanațiilor post vulcanice prezentate sub forma de mofete, stațiunea oferă oaspeților condițiile unei vacanțe și peisajul atrăgător al munților din împrejurimi și excelente posibilități pentru tratamente.

Datorită rocilor vulcanice și sedimentare din sol, emanațiile de bioxid de carbon și de hidrogen sulfurat au favorizat apariția mai multor izvoare de apă minerală. Mulțumită compoziției lor chimice sunt remarcabile în cure de băut, în tratamentele afectiunilor stomacale și intestinale;

folosite în băile uscate cu gaz, adică în mofete, se dovedesc a fi factori curativi naturali pentru cei suferinzi de afectiuni de cord si ale sistemului vascular. Aici, atât apa, cât şi gazul au radioactivitate naturală relativ mare.

În Regiunea Centru, județele Covasna și Harghita au cel mai mare potențial turistic balneologic din regiune. Pornind de la această idee, cele două județe au elaborat un proiect menit să revigoreze câteva stațiuni lăsate în paragină, dar și să dezvolte alte câteva localități cu potențial balnear.

Proiectul s-a numit *"Drumul apelor minerale"*, un drum ce trece prin localitățile Bixad, Belin, Malnaș, Vâlcele, Bodoc, Șugaș-Băi, Mărtănuș, Baraolt din județul Covasna și Borsec, Tușnad, Jigodin, Homorod, Remetea, din județul Harghita.

Investiția a fost de 10 milioane de euro, din care mai mult de jumătate, din fonduri europene. Refacerea piscinelor s-a făcut mai mult cu muncă voluntară: la Cernat, Bodoc, Peteni și Hătuica.

La Baraolt s-a reabilitat ștrandul, la Bodoc a fost construit o nouă mofetă, au fost reamenajate paviloanele a două izvoare cu apă minerală și a fost construită o nouă clădire pentru băi.

La Malnaș au fost reamenajate paviloanele a două izvoare și parcul, iar la Șugaș băi și Vâlcele s-au construit centre SPA, cu bazine, băi turcești, saune finlandeze, săli de fitness și alte spații de agrement.

În cadrul analizei diagnostic a turismului balnear, studiul se bazează preponderent pe datele Institutului Național de Statistică.

Principalele concluzii formulate despre turismul din județul Covasna se referă la procentul cifrei de afaceri a turismului în cadrul economiei locale, care este peste media națională și cea la nivel de regiune de dezvoltare.

În Tabelul nr. 1 sunt prezentate date privind numărul turiştilor care au înnoptat în Regiunea Centru în luna ianuarie (INSEE, 2016, pp.2-3).

Table 1. Distribuția turiștilor care au înnoptat în Regiunea Centru în luna ianuarie 2016

	Total	**Alba**	**Braşov**	**Covasna**	**Harghita**	**Mureş**	**Sibiu**
Total din care:	336738	18065	181397	9968	27934	57344	42030
Români	282974	14890	155651	9255	23716	44250	35212
Străini	53764	3175	25746	713	4218	13094	6818

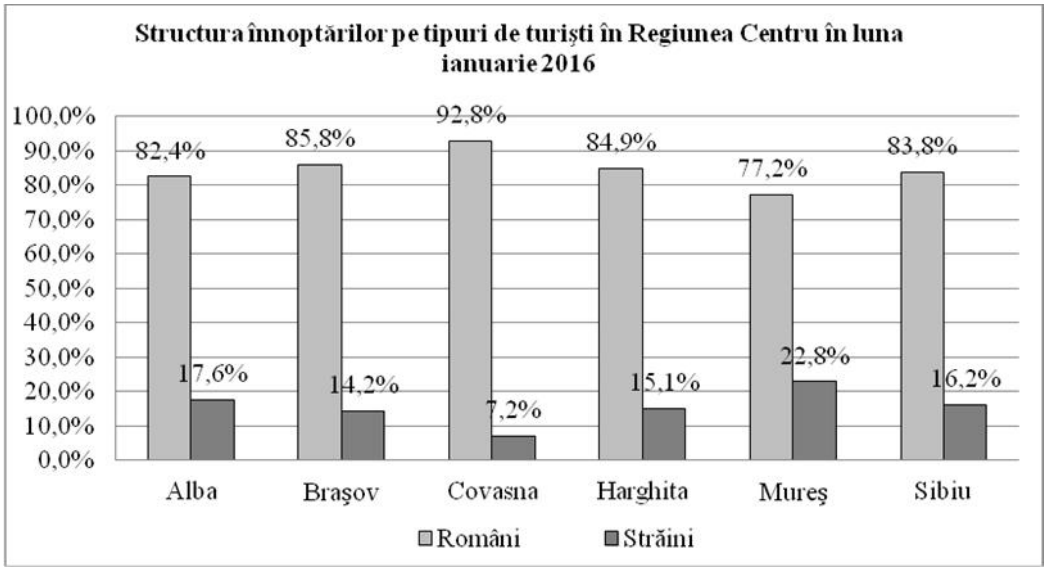
Sursa:http://www.alba.insse.ro/cmsalba/rw/pages/comunicatealba.ro.do

Figura nr. 1 prezintă structura înnoptărilor pe tipuri de turişti în Regiunea Centru din luna ianuarie 2016.

Durata medie a sejurului în ianuarie 2016 a fost de 2,11 zile, în creştere cu 0,38 zile faţă de luna corespunzătoare din 2015; pe judeţe cea mai mare durată a sejurului se înregistrează în Covasna (2,46 zile), iar cea mai mică în judeţul Sibiu (1,77 zile).

Indicele de utilizare netă a locurilor de cazare din Regiunea Centru a fost in luna ianuarie 2016 de 22,7% pe total structuri de cazare turistică, peste nivelul din luna ianuarie 2015 (20,6%) cât şi peste nivelul calculat pe ţară (19,9%). Judeţul Braşov a avut cel mai mare grad de ocupare

23,2%, urmat de judeţele Mureş (23,0%), Sibiu (18,7%), Covasna (17,3%), Alba (17,0%) şi Harghita (16,5%) a declarat Institutul Național de Statistică.



Sursa: http://www.alba.insse.ro/cmsalba/rw/pages/comunicatealba.ro.do

Figura nr. 1. Structura înnoptărilor pe tipuri de turişti în Regiunea Centru în luna ianuarie 2016

Judeţul Alba nu dispune de staţiuni balneare, deşi potenţial există – Băile Sărate de la Ocna Mureş.

Judeţul Braşov. Localitatea Băile Perşani este o staţiune balneoclimaterică de vară, de interes local. Ştrandul cu ape minerale clorurate, bicarbonate, sodice, calcice şi nămolul sapropelic antireumatic este exploatat în timpul verii. Izvoarele cu ape clorurate, bicarbonatate, sodice şi ape minerale hipertonice sunt recomandate în tratamentul bolilor reumatismale. În staţiune se găseşte un camping cu căsuţe, numărul de locuri disponibile este de 24 şi o cabană cu 20 locuri.

Băile Homorod oferă condiţii naturale de tratament pentru afecţiunile ginecologice, ale aparatului locomotor şi ale sistemului nervos periferic. Baza materială este deteriorată, sunt necesare investiții. În prezent, este nefuncţională.

Băile Rodbav, Există izvoare minerale cloruro-sodice, iodurate care oferă condiţii de tratament pentru afecţiuni reumatismale, în principal, ginecologice şi cardiovasculare. În prezent, nu este funcţională.

Pârâul Rece este localitate componentă a oraşului Predeal. Condiţiile climatului staţiunii Pârâul Rece recomandă staţiunea pentru tratarea nevrozelor astenice, stărilor de debilitate, a surmenajului fizic şi intelectual, rahitismului, afecţiunilor endocrine, tulburărilor de creştere la copii.

În **judeţul Mureş,** lacurile sărate sunt mai numeroase, fiind concentrate în Subcarpaţi la Sovata, Ideciu de Jos şi Jabeniţa. Sovata (recunoscută pentru efectele benefice în tratamentul afecţiunilor ginecologice) este declarată staţiune turistică de interes naţional. Aici există cca. 10

lacuri sărate, dintre care Lacul Ursu este cel mai important lac sărat din Transilvania. Acesta este situat într-o fostă ocnă de sare părăsită, fiind caracterizat de fenomenul de heliotermie. Importante sunt din punct de vedere terapeutic şi lacurile Roşu şi Aluniş, care, alături de Lacul Ursu, au asigurat dezvoltarea staţiunii Sovata.

Amenajări pentru tratament există la Sovata (Lacurile Ursu şi Aluniş, cu caracter heliotermic şi nămol terapeutic, care este bogat în substanţe anorganice cu caracter biostimulator la Sovata), baze de tratament independente: Ideciu de Jos – Staţiunea Ideciu Băi (izvoare de ape minerale clorurate sodice şi nămol mineral), Sângeorgiu de Mureş, izvoare de apă sărată la Sângeorgiu de Mureş, Jabeniţa – com. Solovăstru, unde se găseşte, de asemenea, nămol sărat, Sărmăşel – com. Sărmaşu; în localitatea Stânceni se găsesc izvoare minerale amenajate; mofete se găsesc la Sângeorgiu de Mureş (apă minerală, cu conţinut bogat în săruri – clor, sodiu, potasiu, iod, brom). Diversitatea resurselor balneare le recomandă pentru tratament; accesibilitatea rutieră şi cea financiară constituie un factor de atracţie.

Judeţul Sibiu are staţiunea balneo-climaterică *Ocna Sibiului,* având ca principale atracţii apele sărate ale lacurilor, care s-au format prin prăbuşirea vechilor mine de sare.

Lacul Avram Iancu, cu o adâncime de 132,5m, este considerat cel mai adânc lac de ocnă din ţară. Climatul temperat, aerul bogat în aerosoli, temperatura anuală mult peste media din această parte a ţării recentele renovări ale ştrandului o recomandă ca o staţiune de interes regional.

La acestea se adaugă apa minerală a izvorului Horea, cloruro-sodică şi uşor bicarbonată, nămolul sapropelic format în lacuri, uşor mineralizat.

Staţiunea balneo-climaterică Bazna (recomandată în afecţiunile reumatismale) este situată la 69 km de municipiul Sibiu şi la 13 km de municipiul Mediaş. Factorii naturali de cură sunt apele minerale pentru administrare în cură externă, clorurate, bromurate, sodice, iodurate, hipertone şi hipotone, folosite sub forma de băi, cu efect complex datorită acţiunii concomitente a celor trei factori: termic, mecanic şi chimic. Nămolul de Bazna şi sarea de Bazna sunt alţi doi factori importanţi de cură. De asemenea, bioclimatul sedativ de cruţare mai constituie un important factor natural terapeutic.

Indicaţiile terapeutice ale staţiunii Bazna sunt afecţiunile reumatismale degenerative: spondiloze, gonartroze, coxartroze, artroze periferice, inflamatorii; afecţiunile reumatismale abarticulare: tendinite, bursite; afecţiunile reumatismale inflamatorii: spondilită ankilozantă, poliartrită reumatoidă, atropatie psoriazică; afecţiunile posttraumatice ale aparatului locomotor.

Staţiunea Miercurea Băi, în prezent, nu este funcţională şi nici omologată, dar are perspective de dezvoltare.

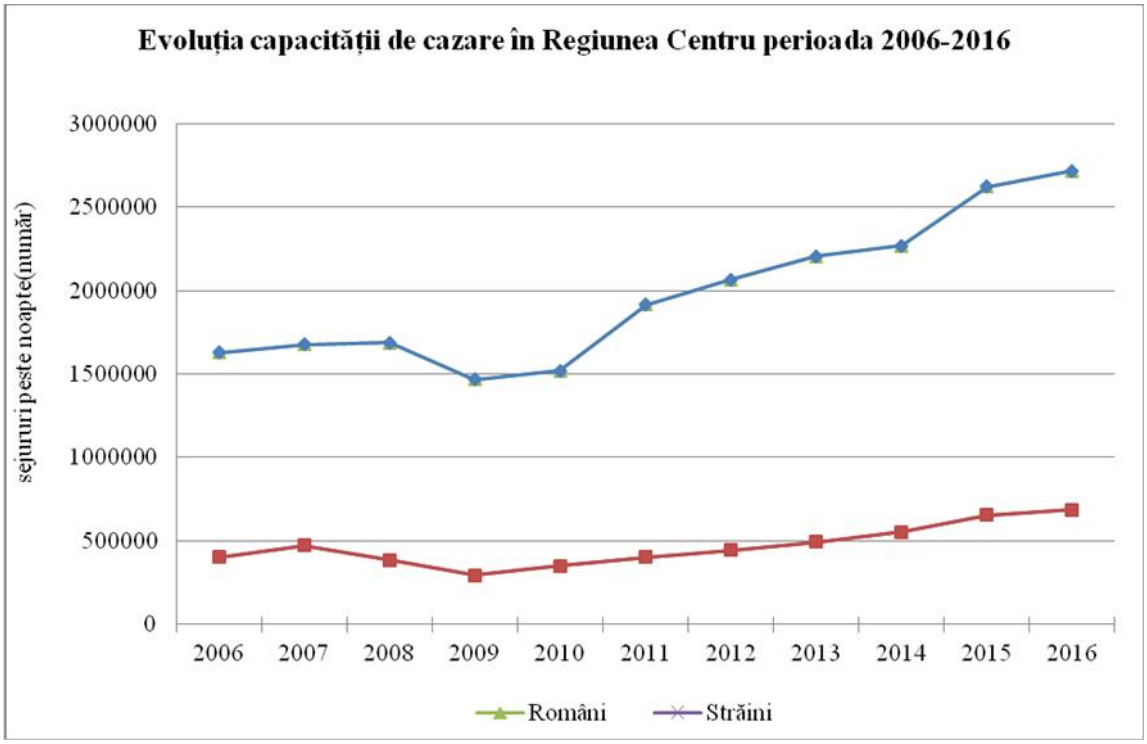
3.2. Obiectivele clusterului balneo-turistic din Regiunea Centru

Obiectivele clusterului sunt promovarea, sub un brand comun a potențialului turistic și balnear al județelor din Regiunea Centru, crearea unei strategii comune de dezvoltare și de atragere a turiștilor, precum și a potențialilor investitori în domeniu.

La acest cluster vor putea adera proprietarii de pensiuni, de hoteluri şi restaurante, meșteșugarii, agențiile de turism, autoritățile locale, centrele de cercetare și inovare, unitățile medicale, instituțiile de învățământ superior, asociațiile profesionale, băncile, centrele de consultanță etc., dornice să-și armonizeze interesele și să conlucreze la nivel regional.

Turismul balnear are mari şanse să se dezvolte în anii următori datorită atuurilor sale: factorii naturali de cură, potențialul natural și antropic, lipsa sezonalității și, nu în ultimul rând, serviciile, îndeosebi cele medicale, oferite turiştilor.

Figura nr. 2 prezintă evoluția capacității de cazare în Regiunea Centru, în perioada 2006-2016, observând o creştere semnificativă a turiştilor autohtoni.



Sursa proprie cu date preluate de la Institutul National de Statistică

Figura nr. 2. Evoluția capacității de cazare Regiunea Centru perioada 2006-2016

Potrivit patronatului din turismul balnear (OPTBR) – cercetări recent realizate pentru elaborarea brandului turistic al țării indică o cerere mare pentru turismul balnear, pe plan intern și extern, ceea ce a situat pe locul 3 – 4 înaintea altor segmente tradiționale, demonstrând că este cunoscut potențialul și mai ales eficiența terapeutică a curelor efectuate în stațiunile balneare.

5. Concluzii – Cadrul național al planificării strategice în turism

Cadrul național al planificării strategice este prezentat, în principal, de Masterplanul de Turism pentru România (Romania Tourism Development Master Plan 2007 – 2026, elaborat de către World Tourism Organisation). Cuvântul-cheie al masterplanului este dezvoltarea sustenabilă. Masterplanul tratează principalele direcții strategice pentru ca România să devină competitivă pe piața globală a turismului.

Direcțiile strategice vizează coordonarea industriei turismului, dezvoltarea infrastructurii fizice, dezvoltarea resurselor umane, dezvoltarea produselor turistice, a serviciilor de informare, a cercetărilor statistice, marketingul destinațiilor, protejarea mediului și politica de investiții.

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THE EXTENDED MARKETING MIX: THE CASE OF EL CELLER DE CAN ROCA

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***Abstract**: A key success factor in services marketing is the manner in the extended marketing mix is applied. Services, defined as activities offered on the marketplace, are difficult to evaluate from a qualitative point of view, contain only a few tangible components and cannot be stored. Due to specifics related to services such as intangibility, heterogeneity, production-consumption inseparability and perishability, distinctions had to be made so that they would distinguish themselves from products. Thus, the notion of traditional marketing mix (place, price, product, promotion) was adapted for services and specialists introduced the notion of extended marketing mix by adding three new components: people, physical evidence and process. The aim of our paper is to highlight the specifics and analyze the components of the extended marketing mix within the Catalonian business El Celler de Can Roca, the world's best restaurant in 2015, according to the Michelin Guide. The paper's research methodology is literature review.*

***Keywords**: services marketing, extended marketing mix, El Celler de Can Roca, experience marketing, restaurant.*
***JEL Classification**: L83, M31.*

1. Introduction

Marketing represents a key successful factor in any field of activity such as industry, agriculture or services. Marketing-mix has proved to be one of its main tools, a "major theoretical and practical parameter of contemporary marketing" (Constantinides, 2006, p.409) and a paradigm in academic research (Grönroos, 1994). In fact the strength of the 4Ps (product, place, promotion, price) approach resides in the fact that it constitutes "a memorable and a practical framework for marketing decision making" (Mucai, Mbaeh and Noor, 2013, p.692). As services marketing has become a topic of interest for both theoreticians and practitioners since 1960s its marketing-mix has evolved into the 7Ps by adding three additional Ps (people, physical evidence, process).

The aim of our paper is to highlight the specifics and analyze the components of the extended marketing mix within the Catalonian business El Celler de Can Roca, the world's best restaurant in 2015, according to the Michelin Guide. The paper's research methodology is literature review.

The structure of our paper is as follows: the next section is dealing with the theoretical framework. The paper ends with conclusions.

2. Theoretical framework

In order to reach a definition of the extended marketing mix (marketing mix in services), a presentation of the definitions of the marketing and services concepts is needed. The main reason for the occurrence of the marketing mix tool lies in the fact that, by merging the two fields (marketing and services), implicitly by applying marketing principles and techniques to the services sector a new marketing domain has emerged and developed, namely services marketing

(Figure no. 1). The occurrence of the extended marketing mix was a natural consequence of the evolution of services marketing. It was an intrinsic condition that this area developed its own specific instruments.

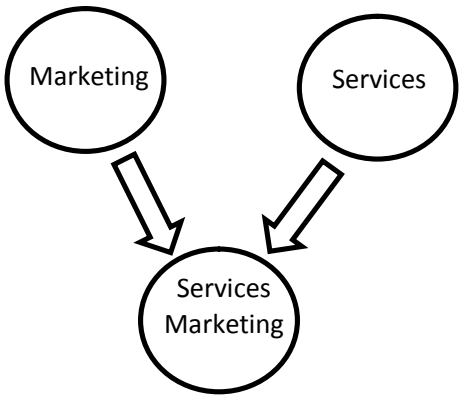


Figure no. 1. The two key factors of the emergence of services marketing

Marketing is defined as "the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large." (American Marketing Association – AMA, 2013). There are several definitions of the concept of services (Table no. 1).

Table no. 1. Definitions of the concept of services

American Marketing Association	"Activities, benefits or satisfactions which are offered for sale, or are provided in connection with the sale of goods." (AMA, 1960, p. 1)
Christian Gronroos	"A service is an activity or series of activities of more or less intangible nature that normally, but not necessarily, take place in interactions between customer and service employees and/or physical resources or goods and/or systems of service provider, which are provided as solutions to customer problems." (Gronroos, 1990, p. 27)
Keith J. Blois	"An activity offered for sale which yields benefits and satisfactions without leading to a physical change in the form of a good." (Blois, 1974, p.154)
Leonard Berry	"Acts, deeds and performances" (Berry, 1980)
Philip Kotler	"A service is any act or performance that one party can offer to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything. Its production may or may not be tied to a physical product." (Kotler, 2001, p. 428)
Robert C. Judd	"Marketed service – a market transaction by an enterprise of an entrepreneur where the object of the market transaction is other than the transfer of ownership (or title, if any) of a tangible commodity." (Judd, 1964, p. 59)
Thomas Peters	Separately identifiable, essentially intangible activities which provide

	want satisfaction, and are not necessarily tied to the sale of a product or another service. Producing a service may or may not require the use of tangible goods. However, when such use is required, there is no transfer of title to these tangible goods. (Peters, 1982, p. 33)
Valarie Zeithaml	Services are deeds, performance and effort. (Zeithaml, 1996, p. 5)

From the above mentioned definitions several services characteristics emerge: intangibility (not being palpable or material), heterogeneity (difficulty in standardizing services), inseparability (production and consumption occur simultaneously), and perishability (the unavailable option of storing or stockpiling services) (Moeller, 2010, p.362).

As a consequence, services marketing places "a heavy emphasis on employees as marketing tools and on the interactions between employees and customers as key determinants of marketing success. In the services marketing arena, the traditional 4P's of marketing are often expanded to include three more: people, process and physical evidence" (Baker, 2016, p.1512)

3. The marketing mix at EL CELLER DE CAN ROCA.

The world's best restaurant in the world in 2015 according to the Michelin Guide was El Celler de Can Roca. The exquisite Catalonian dining experience started to take shape in Can Roca, the establishment owned by the parents of "The Roca brothers" (Figure no. 2). The bar situated in a neighborhood at the outskirts of Girona is where Josep, Joan and Jordi kindled their passion for cooking. The foundation for learning how to cook and never lose sight on their roots was instilled by their mother and grandmother. They managed to shift towards a more academic type of cooking after completing a course at the Girona Catering School. In brief, this is how Joan (in the kitchen) and Josep (in the dining room) opened next to their parent's bar, in August 1986, El Celler the Can Roca. Their youngest brother Jordi joined their midst (in the kitchen) in 1999. The emplacement was revamped in 1996, and relocated to Can Sunyer in 2007. Their efforts were rewarded Novemer 25th, 2009, when they were granted their third Michelin Star (Table no. 2). El Celler is still regarded as being amongst the best restaurants in the world in nowadays renowned rankings (Table no. 3).

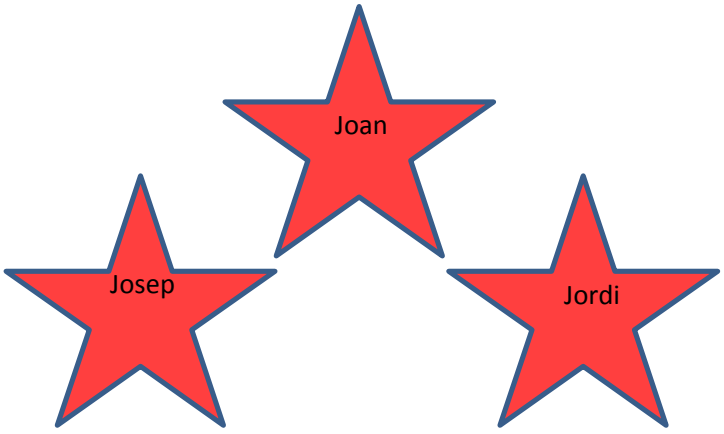


Figure no. 2. Three rocks, three Rocas.

Table no. 2. El Celler de Can Roca Michelin Star awards

Award type	Year
1st Michelin Star	1995
2nd Michelin Star	2002
3rd Michelin Star	2009

Source: http://www.worldluxurycompanies.com/property/best-luxury-restaurants-in-barcelona-el-celler-de-can-roca/ [Accessed: 28.10.2016]

Table no. 3. Worldwide rankings of El Celler de Can Roca

Name of the award / entity awarding it	Rank	Year
English Restaurant Magazine – „World's 50 best restaurants"	5th	2009
English Restaurant Magazine – „World's 50 best restaurants"	4th	2010
English Restaurant Magazine – „World's 50 best restaurants"	2nd	2011
English Restaurant Magazine – „World's 50 best restaurants"	2nd	2012
English Restaurant Magazine – „World's 50 best restaurants"	1st	2013
English Restaurant Magazine – „World's 50 best restaurants"	2nd	2014
English Restaurant Magazine – „World's 50 best restaurants"	1st	2015
English Restaurant Magazine – „World's 50 best restaurants"	2nd	2016
Lo Mejor de la gastronomia	1st (same score for the first three restaurants: 9,75/10)	2016
90plus.com The World's Best Restaurants	1st (same score for the first two restaurants: 99/100)	2016
Repsol	3 Suns	2016

Source: http://www.theworlds50best.com/TheList-2016/1-10/El-Celler-de-Can-Roca.html, http://www.lomejordelagastronomia.com/en, http://90plus.com/restaurant-list

One of the key factors that led to this performance was the creative use of the marketing mix, which is closely linked to their rules of success (Figure no. 3, 4).

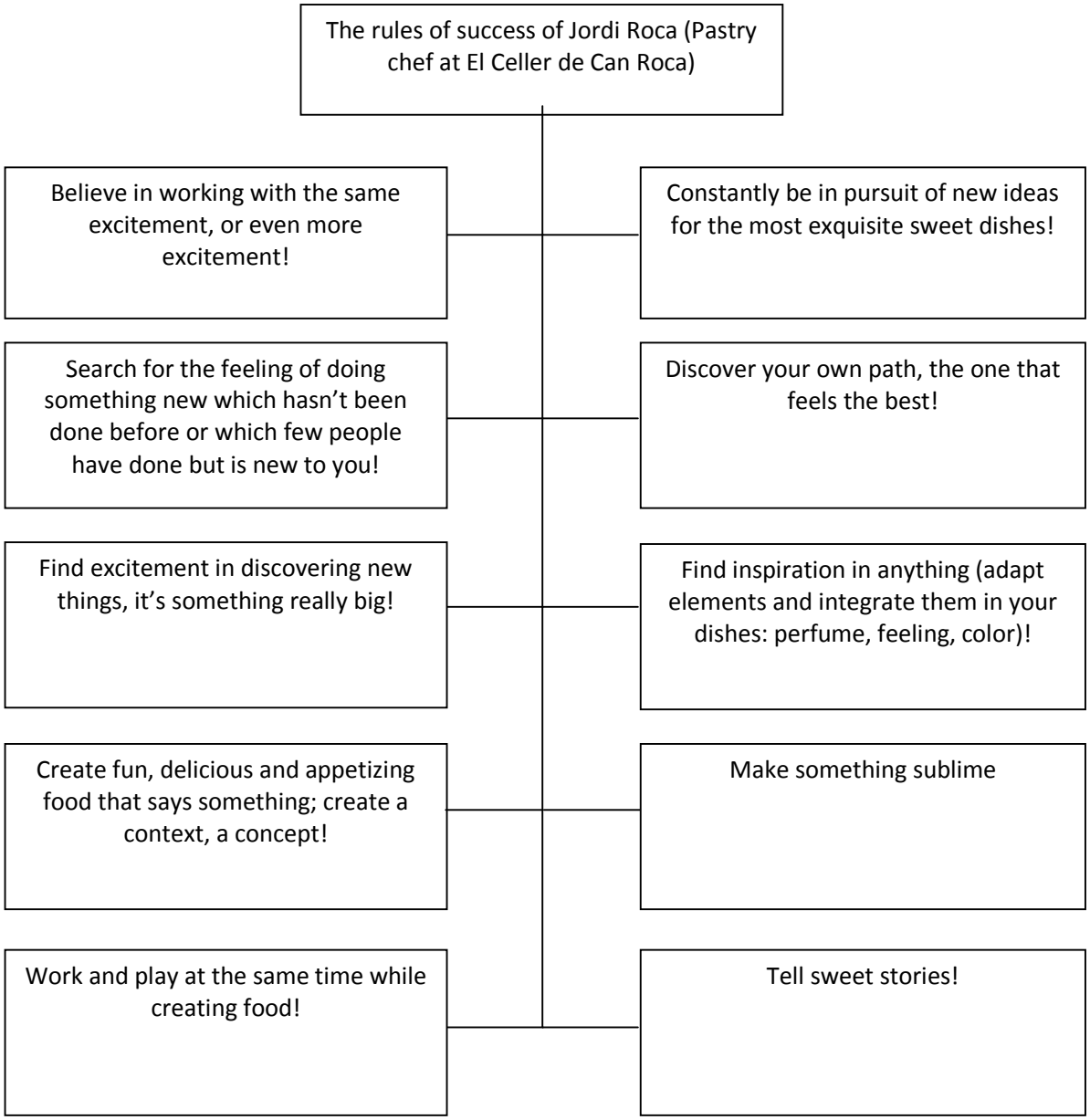
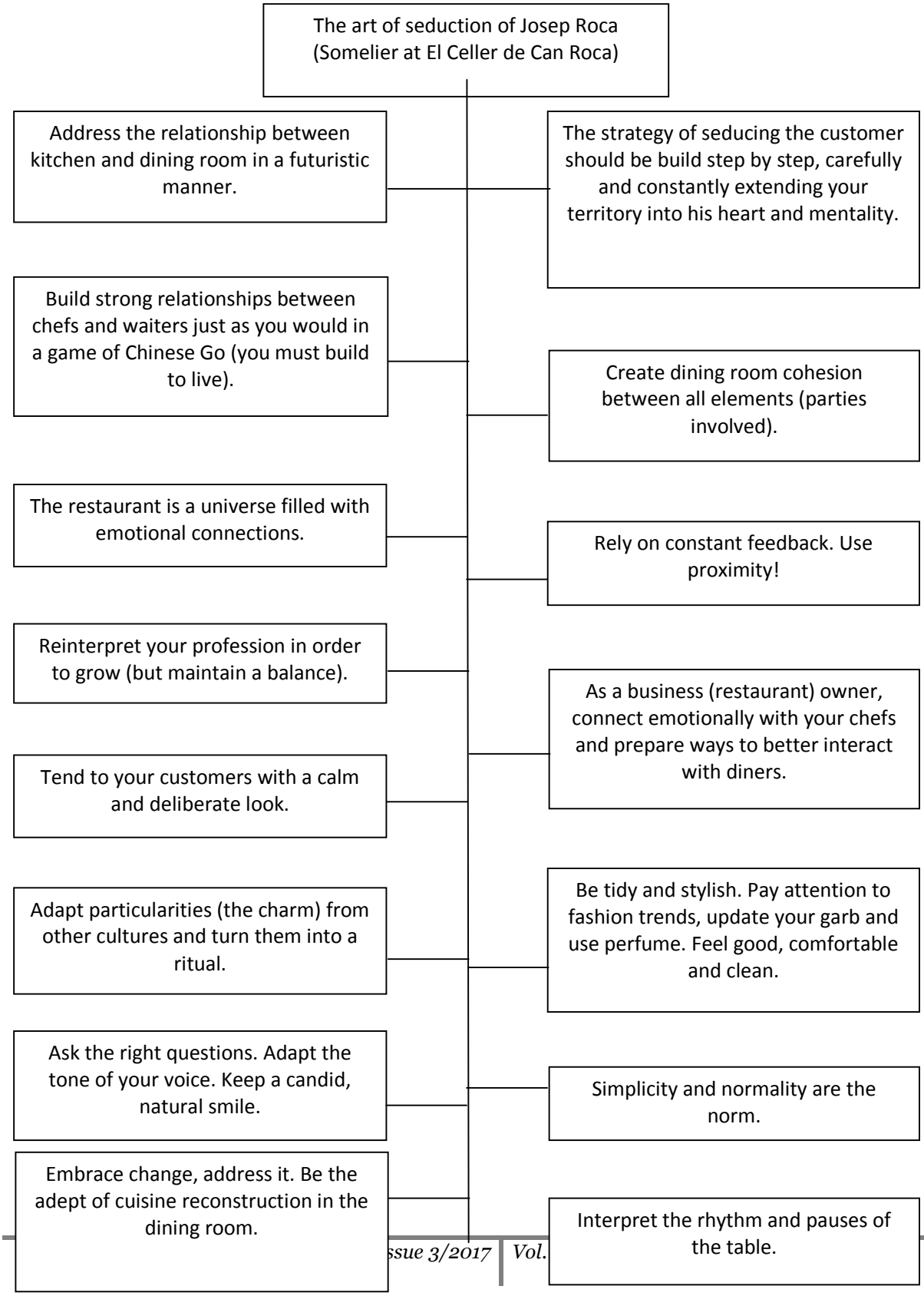


Figure no. 3. The rules of success of Jordi Roca
Source: adapted from the BBC film http://www.bbc.com/news/magazine-19053230 [Accessed: 27.10.2016]


The art of seduction of Josep Roca
(Somelier at El Celler de Can Roca)
Address the relationship between kitchen and dining room in a futuristic manner.
The strategy of seducing the customer should be build step by step, carefully and constantly extending your territory into his heart and mentality.
Build strong relationships between chefs and waiters just as you would in a game of Chinese Go (you must build to live).
Create dining room cohesion between all elements (parties involved).
The restaurant is a universe filled with emotional connections.
Rely on constant feedback. Use proximity!
Reinterpret your profession in order to grow (but maintain a balance).
As a business (restaurant) owner, connect emotionally with your chefs and prepare ways to better interact with diners.
Tend to your customers with a calm and deliberate look.
Adapt particularities (the charm) from other cultures and turn them into a ritual.
Be tidy and stylish. Pay attention to fashion trends, update your garb and use perfume. Feel good, comfortable and clean.
Ask the right questions. Adapt the tone of your voice. Keep a candid, natural smile.
Simplicity and normality are the norm.
Embrace change, address it. Be the adept of cuisine reconstruction in the dining room.
Interpret the rhythm and pauses of the table.

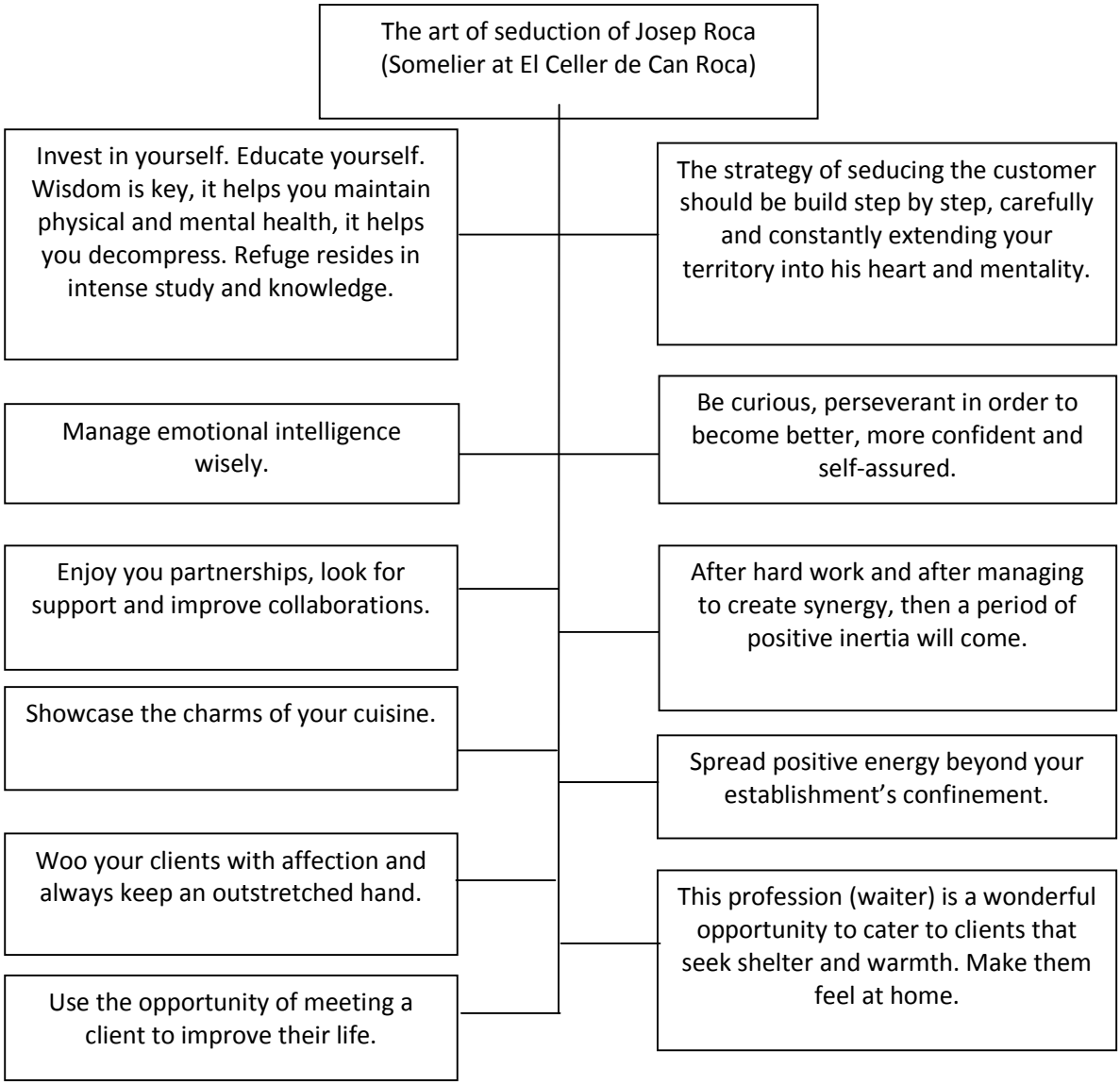


Figure no. 3. The rules of success of Josep Roca
Source: adapted from http://cellercanroca.com [accessed 05.11.2016]

The marketing mix at El Celler de Can Roca is highly inspired by the implementation of the experience marketing it uses:

A. Product & services:

- Experimental kitchen.
- They provide a sophisticated and varied menu.
- Mixture between traditional dishes with surrealist nuances that produce special emotions to guests.

- They also sell perfumes, books and hold cooking classes.

B. Price:
   - They provide only two menus: "Classic" (a selection of dishes priced at 155€) and "Feast" (14 creative sample courses priced at 190€). If you want to choose from their broad (matching) wine selection, you will have to pay an extra 90€. (De Felipe, E., 2015, [online] Available at: http://holafoodie.com)

C. Promotion & Communication:
   - They put in place a story, a fable of dining.
   - They promote a free spirit and style that still manages to be faithful to the memory of past generations of the family that devoted to this trait.
   - People are joining all the senses for a complete dining experience.
   - Constant dialogue with stakeholders: chefs, clients, students, manufacturers, critics.

D. Place:
   - All operations are conducted within the premises of the restaurant located in Girona.

E. People:
   - High caliber personnel.
   - Refined customers.

F. Physical evidence:
   - Custom-made dishes, created taking into account the dialogue between cuisine and science (physics and chemistry).
   - The use of new gastronomic techniques and creative techniques for plating.
   - The use of technology (e.g., video projectors).
   - They ensure comfort using a generous yet intimate and pleasant space.

G. Process:
   - They obtain synergy between new technologies, food, musical pieces composed expressly to link these pieces into a complete image (projecting images directly over the food dishes making it seem like it is coming to life).
   - The use of multisensory interactions between food, music and art.

4. Conclusions

The extended marketing mix is one of the most important tools in services marketing. Our paper shows that unlike traditional marketing, services marketing emphasize the role played by human resources in the carrying out of the services process.

Restaurants represent the place in which the extended marketing mix finds its best application. In this respect, El Celler de Can Roca proves to be a valuable example in successfully implementing of the extended marketing mix.

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SUSTAINABILITY AND PERFORMANCE IN TRADE SECTOR

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Abstract: *Today's economic conditions, financial and competitive constraints, and especially changing consumer attitudes, make businesses adopt new management policies that lead to sustainability-based on economic performance. Business performance perceiving (both from owners or investors and from consumers point of view) goes through a change, which should not be ignored. Creating sustainability value is already a condition of survival. Sustainability in the commercial sector (perhaps) is not as obvious as in the primary or secondary sector of the economy, but its importance can not be neglected at all. This is also demonstrated by the study made of trade companies in Hungary and Romania, two East-European countries, where in both cases the share of the enterprises in commerce is the highest share in the NACE classification. The study includes a comprehensive analysis of this companies net earnings, based on their Financial Statements for a period of 5 years.*

Key words*: sustainability, responsibility, performance, trade.*
JEL Clasification: F18.

1. Introduction

The sustainability issue is increasingly discussed both in literature and practice. Enterprises from all sectors of national economy are trying to apply, implement sustainable policies, that are going to lead to value creation and thus to economic performance. On the other hand, both the governments and the European Union are trying, through different means, to support these policies. In industry and construction area, these policies, actions, investments in sustainability are obvious, they can also be seen by "ordinary people". Sustainable policies aim primarily at protecting the environment by reducing pollution, using "green" building materials, etc. Sustainability includes many other elements such as health, environment and healthy nutrition, corporate social responsibility, organizational culture, waste reduction, recycling, renewable resources, innovative technology implementation, and so on. Unfortunately, the implementation of such policies, the investments made in this respect, or even the lack of interest of the enterprises in this field, are not quite visible. Customers, consumers, suppliers, business partners, credit institutions, state institutions, employees, etc. should receive information about the sustainability and social responsibility elements of the companies. This can be achieved through a more efficient communication of the enterprises to the external environment or by including this informations in the Financial Situations, situations which can be accessed by the external environment also.

Böcskei, Fenyves, Zsidó and Bács (2015) in their paper, named "Expected Risk Assessment - Annual Report Versus Social Responsibility" (Sustainability, 2015) point out the importance of introducing real elements of enterprise behavior and sustainability into the Financial Situations (Annual Reports) of enterprises. The authors believe that the mandatory introduction and signing of reports with some (positive, negative or neutral) ratings such as the "Annual Report with Socially Responsible Behavior" (based on several elements in these Annual Reports) could be beneficial and would constitute an advantage for those businesses that focus on social responsibility.

Tarnóczi et al (2015) ask whether Financial Statements submitted by companies can be trusted? This question leads to the issue of ethics in the economy. Does effective trade leave place

for ethics? Zsolnai László (2004) believes that "ethics must manifest itself at all levels of economic activity, from individual behavior to the work of enterprises at the social and global level. But, to keep in mind that ethical behavior does not automatically lead to economic performance and better results" (Zsolnai, 2004).

The Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) recommends the inclusion in the Financial Statements of 35 indicators covering the economy (EC), the environment (EN), human rights (HR), society (SO) and labor practices (LA) (Bircea, 2015). In 1999, S & P Dow Jones Indices and RobecoSAM offer for investors the so called Dow Jones Sustainability Index (DJSI), witch can be a quantification index for the sustainability of companies. Each year, over 3,000 listed companies are invited to participate at Corporate Sustainability (Bircea, 2015).

These elements are mainly aimed at large businesses, while responsible behavior should target all companies regardless of their size. Beside the responsible behavior, economic performance is just as important for all companies.

2. The importance of trade sector in national economies

Analyzing the sectors of national economys, commerce always had, it has even today and will have a great importance in the future too. With the development of global (terrestrial, maritime and airline) infrastructure, the division of labor, with the help of industrial revolutions, the development of monetary systems, commerce has gained increasing importance. In order to highlight the importance of trade, we analyzed the share of enterprises with trade activity (as number) in the total enterprises in all the economy sectors of two national economies, namely Hungary and Romania (Table no.1).

Table no. 1: Structure of enterprises by NACE activity (Classification of National Economy Activities) in 2014 in Romania and Hungary

National economy activities (NACE)	**Active businesses in 2014 in Romania (pcs)**	**Share of economy activity (%)**	**Active businesses in 2014 in Hungary (pcs)**	**Share of economy activity (%)**
Extractive industry	1.112	0,23%	398	0,10%
Manufacturing industry	48.090	9,95%	41.760	10,99%
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	1.503	0,31%	646	0,17%
Water supply; sewerage; waste managment and remediation activities	3.160	0,65%	1.387	0,36%
Construction	47.814	9,90%	31.490	8,29%
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	**176.202**	**36,47%**	**85.342**	**22,46%**
Transporting and storage	39.666	8,21%	12.188	3,21%
Accommodation and food service activities	25.111	5,20%	15.966	4,20%
Information and communication	19.499	4,03%	25.137	6,16%
Real estate activities	13.844	2,86%	32.169	8,47%
Professional, scientific and technical activities	56.886	11,77%	72.660	19,12%
Administrative and support service activities	19.406	4,01%	20.088	5,28%
Education	3.772	0,78%	8.224	2,16%

Human health and social work activities	10.093	2,09%	17.198	4,52%
Human health and social work activities	5.758	1,19%	7.634	2,01%
Other services activities	11.150	2,30%	7.600	2,00%
TOTAL	483.066	100%	379.887	100%

Source: Own edited, based on Romanian Statistical Yearbook 2015 and the data provided on the official website of the National Institute of Statistics Hungary

The data speaks for itself: most of enterprises in the two analyzed national economies (Romania and Hungary) are operating in the trade field. Their share exceeds the other activities, namely 36.47% and 22.46% of the total number of enterprises, the main activity domain, section G (Wholesale and retail, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles).

In addition to the statistical data aiming the number of companies with trade activity in the national economy, another indicator that underlines the importance of trade is the value of commerce in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Figure no. 1).

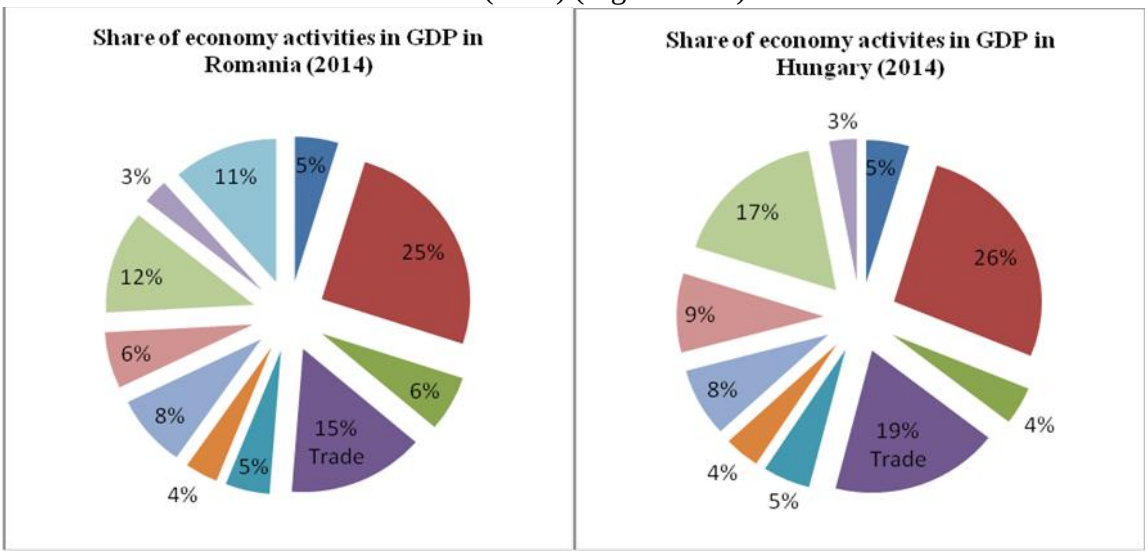

Figure no. 1: The share of national economy activities in GDP in Romania and Hungary in 2014

Source: Own edited, based on the data provided from National Institute of Statistics from Romania and Hungary

From the above data, it follows that trade is a sector of the national economy with major interest, which must be followed closely and the implementation of responsible behavior, and the issue of sustainability in this field should be a priority.

3. Sustainability in trade

The responsibility of traders for sustainability and social responsibility is not negligible. Sustainability in trade has two sides, it can be analyzed from two points: one that targets consumers, but we can also talk about sustainable policies that target suppliers. One of the 2003 United Nations Environment Programs highlights the fact that traders could influence and have

different means of influencing people's and business's behavior in terms of sustainable development, product packaging and, above all, offering goods (United Nations Environment Program, 2003). Retailers should therefore behave responsibly, assisting clients and suppliers in their responsible behavior (Wiese, Zielke and Toporowski, 2015).

The most important / obvious elements related to the sustainability of commerce are: the marketing of quality products, the behavior towards healthy consumption, the consumption of more healthy products such as fish against the health-damaging products, the removal of plastic bags from commerce, the reduction of waste, the issue of recyclability, the exclusion of artificial ingredients as far as possible, the issue of carbon dioxide refrigeration, the diversification of supply with more sustainable, environmentally friendly products, the motivation of consumers towards more responsible, more sustainable behavior, the more careful pursuit of manufacturing processes, the introduction of chains, short supply, merceological aspects, supplier selection etc.

According to some studies carried out by Forum for the Future (2009), traders across Europe have understood the importance of sustainability in the field of commerce and looking for ways to achieve their financial goals in parallel with the creation of values in these activities. Among the top traders' priorities in Europe, carbon emissions are the first, followed by packaging, waste, healthy eating, refrigeration, etc.

Specialty literature deals extensively with these sustainable issues in commerce. For example, Bezawada and Pauwels (2013) analyze the long-term effectiveness of organic products trading with conventional products. Monnot, Parguel and Reniou (1990) in their paper entitled "Consumer responses to the elimination of overpackaging on private label products" focus on packaging issues. The authors believe that the disposal of unnecessary packaging can have significant effects on the environment. Several authors address the issue of entrepreneurs, managers saying that traders could have a more responsible behavior with more positive influences on suppliers and consumers. For example, IKEA has implemented a policy according to which, each newly opened shop must be more sustainable than the last one open. In this case, sustainability refers not only to building materials, waste management or energy efficiency but also to social issues (IKEA, 2013).

According to annual studies (Retailer Scorecard, 2016) produced by the World Wild Fund (WWF) organization, in the study of environmental performance on the Romanian food market in 2016, optimistic results are presented, meaning, there was shown a strong tendency to the sustainability of traders, especially with regard to marketed products. The study included 11 food retailers in Romania: Auchan, Billa, Carrefour, Cora, Kaufland, Lidl, Mega Image, Metro, Penny Market, Profi and Selgros. Among the most significant results we can list: the presence on the shelves of all 11 retailers of MSC certified products (certificate from the Maritime Protection Council), more than half of the laundry detergents with organic certification on shelves, the presence of FSC certified products (Forest Stewardship Council) or recycled, increased the number of retailers offering organic products and those who offer Romanian vegetables and fruits, etc.

A positive initiative and hopes for the future had the Romanian Parliament by adopting the Law of the short supply chain 150/2016 which amends and completes the Law 321/2009 on the marketing of food products. Unfortunately, the methodological norms for the application of Law 150/2016 were not adopted until now, although its deadline was January 15, 2017. The law would have favored domestic producers and would have had a positive effect on Romanian products. According to the definition in the aforementioned law (Official Monitor, 2016), short supply chain

means: "a supply chain involving a limited number of economic operators engaged in cooperative and local economic development activities as well as geographical and social relations Gathered between producers, processors and consumers" (Official Monitor No. 534, 2016).

Analyzing the trade sector's opportunities, first of all, a particular importance is attributed to the offer. Merchant offer can teach them to make consumers aware of existing sustainable products. In addition to conventional products, step-by-step introduction of new sustainable product offerings can lead in the near future towards eliminating products of the poorest quality. Of course, we have to take into account the significant differences in the price of these products, knowing that consumers are very price sensitive. However, efficient communication, product presentations, tasting events can improve this price sensitivity. Just as the traditional saying goes that "the cheap product costs more", a policy against poor quality products could direct consumers to higher quality products. The benefits of customer satisfaction are almost immeasurable. It is the best policy that could be implemented. Customers are satisfied if their needs are met to the fullest. Satisfied customers can become loyal customers. Loyal customers can be influenced by the range offered. Of course, besides these qualitative aspects, the sides and economic processes also have a special importance. In order to implement these strategies (in terms of sustainability), businesses need to have efficient inventory management, an adequate cash flow, and acquisition costs that allows for pricing policies according to objectives). Taking care of these elements, the company will be able to respond to market demands. The unpredictable change in consumer needs and demands, the increasingly fierce competition requires flexibility from managers. Organizational culture also appears as a strength and an opportunity to achieve the objectives and economic performance set. Organizational culture embraces a multitude of elements that will highlight the behavior and attitude of our employees. Employees, in retail, have a direct and decisive relationship with consumers. When employees can identify themselves with the enterprise's goals, they can positively influence consumers in the desired direction!

4. The evolution of financial results (net earnings) after the economic crisis of 2008-2010 for commercial enterprises with predominant food sales

Commerce companies have been seriously affected by the economic crisis, not only in Romania but also at European level. Numerous units have been closed, many firms have gone bankrupt, and the rest have tried to survive. At the moment, there is a positive evolution of companies in this area.

5. Databases and analysis methods

In this study, we included all the companies from Cluj (Romania) and Hajdú-Bihar (Hungary) county, economically and socially comparable, witch had the main activity "Retail trade in non-specialized stores with predominant sales of food "and the establishment of the enterprises was made before January 2011. Thus, the database includes the financial statements of these enterprises for 5 consecutive years. The selection of the enterprises was based on the financial statements submitted to the Regional Public Finance Directorate Cluj-Napoca (DGRFP Cluj Napoca), as well as the OPTEN database (Hungary). The financial statements were transmitted on the one hand by DGRFP Cluj Napoca, on the other hand they were downloaded from Hungary's e-financial statements, the official website of the Ministry of Justice (Elektrónikus Beszámoló Portál, http://e-beszamolo.im. gov.hu). From this primary database, during the period

under review, several companies were eliminated because of their bankruptcy due to the closure of the activity or incomplete situations. Thus, 1,020 firms from Cluj (Romania) and 246 companies from Hajdú-Bihar (Hungary) county remained in the data processing.

The analysis of the results of these companies was carried out with Microsoft Excel and the SPSS program, through various statistical methods and economic analysis.

6. Retail companies net earnings evolution from 2011-2015 period

The purpose of this study was to analyze the outcome (net earnings) of the company's for 2011-2015 period, the years after the economic crisis. The analysis is limited to the size and comparison of the results of the two countys, a more extensive and more detailed analysis of the economic performance of these enterprises is the subject of another study, which will soon be finalized.

According to this study, the results of the analysis show signs of optimism regarding the performances of the commercial enterprises in Cluj and Hajdú-Bihar county (Figures no. 2 and 3).

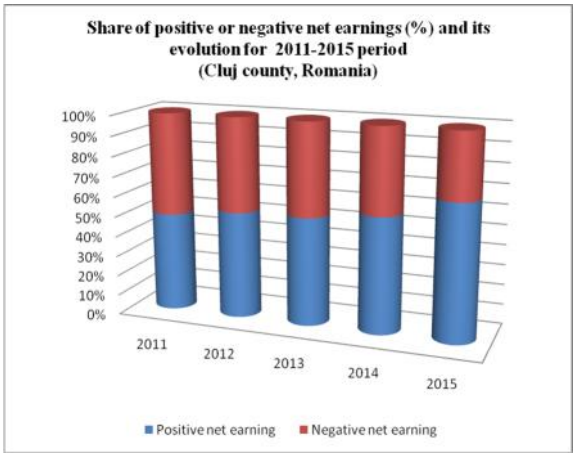

Figure no. 2: Net earnings and its evolution for companies with field of activity 4711 – Retail sale in non-specialized stores with food, beverages and tobacoo predominating, Cluj county, 2011-2015 period

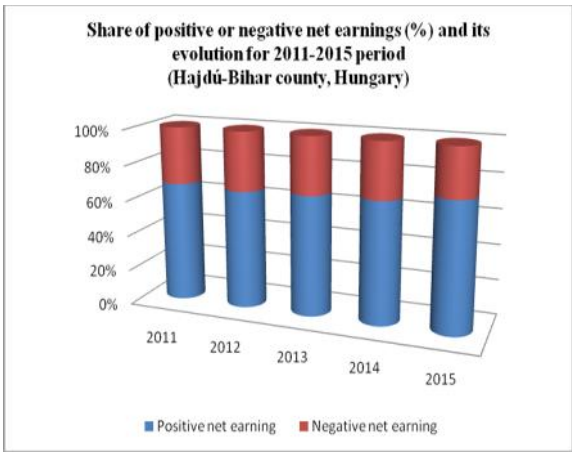

Figure no. 3: Net earnings and its evolution for companies with field of activity 4711 – Retail sale in non-specialized stores with food, beverages and tobacoo predominating, Hajdú-Bihar county, 2011-2015 period

In both cases, there is a tendency to increase from year to year those firms that make a profit (positive result). Starting from 49.31% in 2011 of the companies with a positive result in Cluj, in 2015 the weight of these companies increased to 67.54%, which means an increase of 18.24%. Similarly, in Hungary, the share of companies that recorded a positive result increased from 67.88% in 2011 to 72.76% in 2015.

In order to be able to compare net earning values from Hajdú-Bihar (HU) and Cluj (RO) county, we have changed national currency (RON and HUF) in EURO, based on official exchange rates (Table no.2).

Table no. 2: Official exchange rates

Official exchange rate (EUR)	**30.12.2011**	**28.12.2012**	**31.12.2013**	**31.12.2014**	**31.12.2015**
HU	311.13	291.29	296.91	314.89	313.12
RO	4.3197	4.4287	4.4847	4.4821	4.5245

Source: own edited, based on Romanian and Hungarian National Bank's Annual series (http://bnr.ro/Cursul-de-schimb-3544.aspx; http://mnb.hu/arfolyam-lekerdezes)

Database had included a few outliers, so, we used Scatter Graphs to eliminate them. In both cases, outliers had positive values greater then 150.000 Euro and negative values close to -100.000 Euro. For Cluj county we had more negative then pozitive outliers, exception year 2012, when we had a huge pozitive value close to 800.000 Euro.

In the next step, the population was clustered in 5 cluster (SPSS program, K-Means Cluster method) and we analized net earning indicator based on different statistical indicators: mean, standard deviation, relative standard deviation, kurtosis, skewness and number of cases (Table no. 3 and 4). The cluster number (5) was chosed based on relative standard deviation values got from different cluster number calculations (relative standard deviation values got from analysing the population with 2,3 and 4 cluster were higher).

Comparing the financial results in the two analyzed countys, there are significant differences between them:

- the average value of the financial result in Cluj county records negative values in the first four years and exceeds the zero threshold in the last year of analysis, while the average values in Hajdú-Bihar county are positive and significant each year, with a growing tendency, reaching an average result of 5.059 Euro in 2015 (average value of the financial result in Cluj county in 2015 was 1.522 Euro)
- relative st. deviation values are quite high (in both cases), which means that the elements of the collectivity are very different
- although the most significant outliners have been eliminated, there are clusters whose average values differs greatly from the average values of the entire community (cluster no 4 from Hungary and cluster no 2 and 4 from Romania)
- in both cases, the values of the most numerous clusters are close to the average values of the entire community, so we can generalize.

Table no. 3: Net earning values, based on different statistical indicators for Hajdú-Bihar county, entire, and clustered population, 2011-2015 period (Euro)

Population	Statistical indicators	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Entire population	Mean	2.763	3.228	3.283	4.116	5.059
	St. deviation	15.200	17.078	16.400	16.080	16.817
	Relative st. deviation	550%	529%	499%	390%	332%
	Kurtosis	14,4	14,5	16,7	18,7	25,2
	Skewness	3,03	3,05	3,19	3,31	3,87
	Nr of cases	243	241	243	243	240
1.Cluster	Mean	13.756	18.578	25.744	25.250	21.134
	St. deviation	5.951	8.817	7.110	9.082	8.064
	Relative st. deviation	43,26%	47,45%	27,61%	36,96%	38,15%
	Kurtosis	-0,2	-0,1	-0,6	-1,0	-1,1
	Skewness	0,8	1,0	0,1	0,5	0,6
	Nr of cases	30	18	16	26	33
2.Cluster	Mean	47.351	58.482	65.144	66.992	51.021
	St. deviation	12.405	9.247	10.935	1.765	10.099
	Relative st. deviation	26,19%	15,81%	16,78%	2,63%	19,79%
	Kurtosis	-2,1	-0,3	-1,5	0	4,6
	Skewness	0,47	0,46	0,28	0,09	2,03
	Nr of cases	8	7	5	3	6
3.Cluster	Mean	-13.949	-30.630	-29.076	-16.731	-21.144
	St. deviation	8.105	11.280	8.818	9.087	9.793
	Relative st. deviation	58,1%	36,8%	30,3%	54,3%	46,3%
	Kurtosis	8,9	3,7	1,0	1,6	0,5
	Skewness	-2,7	-1,6	-0,4	-1,4	-1,1
	Nr of cases	29	7	8	20	10
4.Cluster	Mean	88.585	98.902	107.200	110.368	126.874
	St. deviation	3.768	4.573	3.881	16.918	20.157
	Relative st. deviation	4,2%	4,6%	3,6%	15,3%	15,8%
	Kurtosis	0	0	0	0	0
	Skewness	-0,8	-1,6	0	0	0
	Nr of cases	3	3	2	2	2
5.Cluster	Mean	108	-232	370	1.337	890
	St. deviation	2.409	4.305	4.520	3.564	3.791
	Relative st. deviation	2.230%	1.855%	1.221%	266%	425%
	Kurtosis	1,1	1,1	1,0	1,4	0,7
	Skewness	-0,8	-0,7	-0,4	0,6	-0,2
	Nr of cases	173	206	212	192	189

Source: own edited

Table no. 4: Net earning values, based on different statistical indicators for Cluj county, entire, and clustered population, 2011-2015 period (Euro)

Population	Statistical indicators	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Entire population	Mean	-1.325	-1.084	-1.017	-353	1.522
	St. deviation	10.207	8.473	8.534	10.843	13.577
	Relative st. deviation	770%	781%	839%	3.071%	892%
	Kurtosis	46,22	30,59	15,07	36,62	40,50
	Skewness	-2,2	-1,0	0,1	2,6	3,5
	Nr of cases	1.019	1.019	1.018	1.019	1.019
1.Cluster	Mean	17.016	13.938	13.797	22.469	43.414
	St. deviation	8.427	7.333	5.284	10.908	19.831
	Relative st. deviation	49,52%	52,61%	38,29%	48,54%	45,67%
	Kurtosis	1,45	2,9	-0,05	-0,1	-0,07
	Skewness	1,3	1,6	0,8	1,0	1,0
	Nr of cases	49	66	63	43	33
2.Cluster	Mean	-100.905	-67.937	-35.511	-48.537	-78.224
	St. deviation	21.181	16.432	9.707	14.385	19.286
	Relative st. deviation	20,99%	24,18%	27,33%	29,63%	24,65%
	Kurtosis	0	-4,0	1,7	0,4	2,6
	Skewness	-1,7	-0,1	-1,4	-1,0	1,6
	Nr of cases	3	4	19	11	4
3.Cluster	Mean	-1.540	-599	-267	96	1.481
	St. deviation	3.908	2.430	1.982	2.451	4.288
	Relative st. deviation	253%	405%	742%	2.553%	289%
	Kurtosis	3,1	0,6	1,1	3,1	5,9
	Skewness	-1,5	-0,3	0,1	1,1	2,3
	Nr of cases	944	848	776	830	843
4.Cluster	Mean	74.245	68.803	42.598	91.585	136.087
	St. deviation	17.973	9.417	11.773	18.176	7.081
	Relative st. deviation	24,2%	13,6%	27,6%	19,84%	5,2%
	Kurtosis	0	0	-1,6	-1,7	0
	Skewness	-0,9	0	0,6	-0,5	1,7
	Nr of cases	3	2	9	5	3
5.Cluster	Mean	-32.508	-13.967	-9.314	-10.229	-9.015
	St. deviation	14.233	6.798	3.742	5.033	6.443
	Relative st. deviation	43,78%	48,67%	40,17%	49,20%	71,46%
	Kurtosis	0,8	3,0	0,8	2,6	7,5
	Skewness	-1,2	-1,7	-1,1	-1,6	-2,5
	Nr of cases	20	99	151	130	136

Source: own edited

7. Conclusions, recommendations

Based on statistical data at national level (the number of enterprises with trade activity and their contribution to GDP), and based on the results obtained by the companies analyzed, we can undoubtedly say that trade activity has a particular importance in the national economy. The issue of sustainability in commerce is, and in the future will be even more accentuated by consumers and traders too.

The results of the enterprises prove the renewal capacity of this sector of activity after the economic crisis. At the same time, the need for constant and sustainable economic performance

will cause traders to think and invest in the long term in creating social values and thus to achieve their economic goals.

The communication of social interest activities, sustainable policies implemented and traders' commitment to sustainable and ethical trade will become more important and why not a demand from consumers.

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FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT SOFTWARE AND PLANNING SECURITY

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Abstract: *Financial Management Software is a financial consolidation and reporting application built with advanced Web technology and designed to be used and maintained by the finance team. It provides financial managers the ability to rapidly consolidate and report financial results, meet global regulatory requirements, reduce the cost of compliance and deliver confidence in the numbers. Your organization can improve its consolidation process and reporting as well as reduce inconsistent data and regulatory compliance risk. Accounting means to assign the correct numbers to the correct accounts in the correct time period. Consolidation means to combine the accounts of several entities according to accounting rules.In this case an extremely important is to ensure security. Application security is the security within an application. Security prevents two types of errors: intentional and accidental.*

Keywords: *Financial Management, business process.*
JEL Classification: *L86, L96, M15.*

1. Introduction

Financial Management Software, is a comprehensive, web-based application that delivers global financial consolidation, reporting, and analysis in a single, highly scalable software solution. Financial Management enables highly efficient collection and consolidation of data from diverse sources. It includes the following features:

- Process management for tight control of the review and approval process
- Data validation
- Currency translation to support multiple local currencies
- Automatic eliminations for intercompany transactions.

Financial Management is designed for large-scale, centralized web deployment. We can use it to consolidate data from diverse general ledger systems and locations around the globe. Advantages of financial Management are: reduces consolidation and reporting cycles by days or weeks; enables in-depth analysis of key performance and operational metrics; delivers accurate and timely reports to both internal management and external regulatory bodies; uncovers sources of profitability and cash flow at the company, product, brand, and customer levels; consolidates data with multiple consolidation paths. It enables user provisioning and sharing of metadata among Financial Management applications or between Financial Management and other products Financial Management can be integrated with the following products: Enterprise Performance Management System (EPM System); Enterprise resource planning (ERP) systems; Business Intelligence Suite, Enterprise Edition, and Financial Management Analytics for interactive dashboards and real-time reports; Data management applications. Financial Management uses a multitier architecture that includes a client tier, a middle tier, and a database tier.

Figure no. 1 illustrates **the three tiers** as well as external services that integrate with Financial Management.

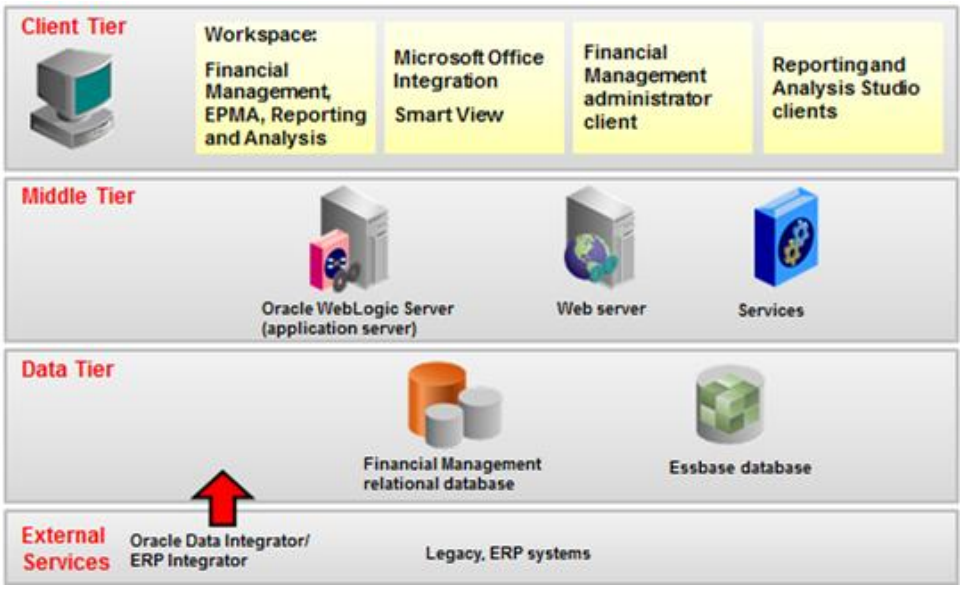

Figure no. 1. Financial management architecture

On the ***client tier***, Financial Management administrators and users enter data, perform approvals tasks, manage users and security, launch business rules, copy versions, develop data forms, work with Financial Reporting, and perform other administrative tasks. We can also manage Financial Management applications and metadata in the Financial Management administrator client. In the ***middle tier***, the web server can be on a separate machine or on the same machine as the Financial Management application server. The web server enables you to access Financial Management applications from a web client through a browser. The web server uses HTTP as the communications protocol. The ***data tier*** consists of the relational and optional Essbase databases. The following components require a relational database: Shared Services, Financial Management, Performance Management Architect, Calculation Manager and Reporting and Analysis. The ***External Services*** are to load metadata and data into Financial Management applications.

The ***Financial Management business process*** includes the following steps:

- *Load or enter data* - We enter data directly into Financial Management through data forms or Smart View grids, or you can load data through text files, FDM, or ERP Integrator.
- *Calculate data* - We calculate data from data grids and data forms on the desktop or on the web. We can also calculate data from the Process Control module on the web. Finally, we can use or create rules to calculate data.
- *When we calculate data*, calculation rules run for the selected scenario, year, period, entity, and value. In addition, all prior time periods within the same year that were not previously calculated are calculated. For example, if we calculate data for June, data that was not previously calculated for January through May is calculated.
- *Adjust data* - Journals enable you to make adjustments to accounts after the data is loaded or entered. They provide an audit trail of changes that were made in the application, and indicate the affected accounts, entities, and periods.

- *Translate and consolidate data* - Translation converts values from one currency to another. We can translate data from the entity's input currency to any other currency that was defined in the application. Currencies are not associated with a parent-child entity pair, so you can translate data on demand, separately from the consolidation process. Consolidation is the process of gathering data from dependent entities and aggregating the data to parent entities. After entering or loading data into base-level entities, you run a consolidation for a selected scenario and period to aggregate the data through the organization. As data is consolidated, the system performs the necessary currency translation and intercompany eliminations, as well as equity adjustments or minority ownership calculations if needed.
- *Review and approve data* - We review and approve data by using process management. Process management is the management of the review and approval process of financial data. We can use process management to submit budget plans, have them approved efficiently, and transfer ownership of data. In a centralized environment, we can also use process management to provide review control and to ensure data privacy. A process unit is the combination of data for a specific Scenario, Year, Period, Entity, and Value dimension. During the review cycle, we use process management to review, submit, promote, approve, reject, or publish process units.
- *Run and publish financial reports* - After entering, calculating, adjusting, and reviewing Financial Management data, we use Financial Reporting to depict the results in static or dynamic reports in HTML or in PDF.

With ***Financial Reporting***, we can graphically design and present analytic data. We can design traditional financial report formats, such as cash management reports, profit and loss statements, and balance sheets. We can also design nontraditional formats for financial or analytic data that include text and graphics. Figure 2 illustrates financial reporting functionality: Book and batch creation for similar reports; Scalable, cross-platform, server-based report generation; Flexible range of output options, like PDF and HTML; Annotation creations; Guided analysis; Reusable objects across multiple reports; Conditional formatting; Access by defined security; Grids and charts; Graphical report creation with access to multiple data sources; Dynamic scheduling that enables automated reporting.

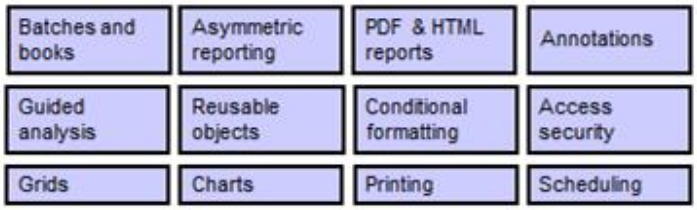

Figure no. 2. Financial reporting functionality

2. Aplication security

Accounting means to assign the correct numbers to the correct accounts in the correct time period. Consolidation means to combine the accounts of several entities according to accounting rules. When creating users, the administrator specifies how each user is authenticated when the user logs on to Financial Reporting and what actions they can perform. For example, your administrator can define which users can design reports and which users can only view reports. The tool enables administrators to control access at the member level. The limits to the security

filters are capped only by the administrator's creativity. While the security model is robust, managing the filters for extremely large dimension can be a daunting task. Security for Planning is managed through two applications: Shared Services: controls the security groups and user assignments; Hyperion Planning: controls the assignments of groups to dimension members.

After creating objects in the repository, the administrator sets permissions that define which users can view or modify the objects. **Users, groups**, and **roles** are part of the security system. The administrator assigns roles to users to determine the type of user and actions. A *role* is specific to a product's application and is defined based on product functions. A *group* is a collection of related users with similarities, such as geographical location or department within an organization, or who need to share information. A user can belong to multiple groups. You can assign roles through groups. The users in a group inherit the roles that you assign to the group.

Managing security is a balancing act and even more so. On the one hand, the administrator must satisfy management's requirements that only users who need to see the data will have access to the data. On the other hand, the administrator must find a way to ensure the security model can be managed and maintained. These two requirements don't often go hand in hand: Management, of course, wants to implement security on every area of the planning cube. After all, it is natural for management to demand strict secrecy in a planning application. Planning data is extremely sensitive since it describes the future of the company. Management is correct to require complex security rules and segregation of information.; Managing multiple groups along multiple dimensions can be a daunting task. Keeping track of which users go in what group along with the applicable filters requires careful consideration and special attention to details. It is an administrator's nightmare. Administrators often have to rely on spreadsheets to maintain master lists of users, groups, filters, roles, etc.

To help make this task easier, here are a few hints on what does and doesn't work: *Nesting groups within groups* – This method can save a lot of time when setting up the groups. However, it is hard to maintain because individual users do not appear directly in the group.; *ExportSecurity.cmd and ImportSecurity.cmd* – Managing filters in Planning by using the security features in Workspace is cumbersome and slow. Using the ImportSecurity.cmd is easy, quick and efficient. In addition, the source file used to upload the security information can be used for back-up and documentation.; *File system in Shared Services* – Using this utility to make changes to Groups and Users provides the same benefits described in the above item.; *Define groups that mimic the dimension structure* – It is tempting to create a group for every function or team. Using this approach will lead to having a very large number of groups. Mimicking the dimension structure allows the administrator to take advantage of the 'intersection' concept of multi dimensional databases.; *'Super Groups'* – A super group is a group that has all users in it. We can use these groups to control access to the Planning dimensions such as account, version and scenario. Since the Planning dimensions must have security enabled, they may also share the same access for all users.; *Consistent naming conventions* – For clarity and ease of use, it is important to maintain a consistent naming convention.; *Group descriptions* – Make sure to write a clear description of the group when it is set up. This will help later for back-up and documentation.; *Demonstrate the impact of security filters* – Show management the impact of increasing the number of security filters. Making the impact available to management may pay dividends in the future. It will help management to come up with reasonable levels of access.

3. Conclusion

Application security is the security within an application. Security prevents two types of errors: intentional and accidental. Intentional errors are rare, the majority of errors are unintentional or accidental. A large public corporation normally consists of several small entities. The accounting numbers will more likely be correct if accountants are prevented from making unintentional errors by only having the minimum access needed to do their job. As with most of mathematics, Shared Services security is built on set theory. There are two applicable sets: users and metadata. The goal is to associate the users to the metadata and to the application through a role. There are two type of roles: application roles and metadata roles. Application roles provide access to the application through application defined roles. Metadata roles are based on the dimensions, these roles provide access to the data. Each metadata dimension member has an attribute called SecurityClass. This attribute is used to group dimension members for access to data. Although each metadata dimension member has the SecurityClass attribute, security is often only on the Entity dimension. Remark, security is a double edged sword: fine grained security will require more security administrator effort. Windows active directory groups are often used to group users. The advantage to group users is that more than one user will have access in the case of vacations or other absence. As long as there are people in corporations, there will be personnel movement in corporations. Therefore EPM administrators will be kept busy with security changes.

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