

STRATEGII MANAGERIALE

MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

**Revistă editată de
Universitatea „Constantin Brâncoveanu”
Pitești**

Anul VIII, nr. III (29) / 2015

**Editura
Independența Economică**

COLECTIV EDITORIAL:

Prof. univ. dr. Alexandru Puiu – Fondatorul revistei și Președinte al consiliului științific,
Fondatorul Universității „Constantin Brâncoveanu”

Consiliul științific:

Raymundas Kalesnykas – International School of Law and Business, Vilnius, Lituania
Vergil Voineagu, ASE București
Dumitru Miron, ASE București
Viorel Lefter, ASE București
Victor Manole, ASE București
Ovidiu Puiu, Universitatea „Constantin Brancoveanu”
Ion Scurtu, Universitatea „Constantin Brâncoveanu”
Marius Gust, Universitatea „Constantin Brâncoveanu”
Dumitru Ciucur, Universitatea „Constantin Brâncoveanu”
Iuliana Ciochină, Universitatea „Constantin Brâncoveanu”
Radu Pârvu, Universitatea „Constantin Brâncoveanu”
Elena Enache, Universitatea „Constantin Brâncoveanu”
Mihaela Asandei, Universitatea „Constantin Brâncoveanu”
Silvia Dugan, Universitatea „Constantin Brancoveanu”
Nicolae Grădinaru, Universitatea „Constantin Brancoveanu”
Dorian Rais, Universitatea „Constantin Brâncoveanu”
Camelia Vechiu, Universitatea „Constantin Brâncoveanu”
Sebastian Ene, Universitatea „Constantin Brâncoveanu”

CONSILIUL EDITORIAL:

Redactor Șef:

Dan Micudă

Redactori:

Cristina Șerbanică
Cristian Morozan
Razvan Decuseară

Georgiana Mândreci (Referent limba engleză)
Cristinel Munteanu (Referent limba română)

**Autorii își asumă deplina responsabilitate
în ceea ce privește materialele publicate.**

© Editura „Independența Economică”, 2015
Pitești, Calea Bascovului nr. 2A
Tel./Fax: 0248/21.64.27

Editură acreditată de către C.N.C.S.I.S.

Niciun material nu poate fi reprodus fără permisiunea scrisă a Editurii.

ISSN 2392 – 8123
ISSN–L 1844 – 668X

CUPRINS

THE INFLUENCE OF GOVERNMENT SPENDING, FINANCIAL, MONETARY AND FISCAL POLICIES ON THE GDP. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS ROMANIA – LITHUANIA	5
Sebastian George Ene, Dănuț Chilarez	
THE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE ARGES COUNTY AFTER 1989.....	15
Constantin Nicolescu	
EVOLUȚIA ECONOMICĂ A JUDEȚULUI ARGEȘ DUPĂ 1989	27
Constantin Nicolescu	
EFFECTS OF THE EUROPEAN ENERGY UNION FOR NATURAL GAS MARKET IN ROMANIA.....	39
Mihaela Ionescu-Sas	
EFECTE ALE FORMĂRII UNIUNII ENERGETICE EUROPENE PENTRU PIAȚA DE GAZE NATURALE DIN ROMÂNIA.....	45
Mihaela Ionescu-Sas	
HUMAN FACTOR ANALYSIS IN ROMANIAN PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS	51
Diana Elena Șerb, Nicoleta Camelia Cicioc	
ANALIZA FACTORULUI UMAN ÎN INSTITUȚIILE PUBLICE ROMÂNEȘTI.....	57
Diana Elena Șerb, Nicoleta Camelia Cicioc	
DETERMINANTS OF CONSUMERS' PERCEPTION TOWARDS PIRATED PRODUCTS; THE CASE OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS AND MARKETERS IN MUSIC INDUSTRY	64
Ayodotun Ibidunni, Taiye Borishade, Joy Dirisu, Olaleke Ogunnaike	
BUILDING AND DEVELOPING THE CHANGE CAPACITY OF AN ORGANISATION	75
Iuliana Talmaciu	

THE INFLUENCE OF GOVERNMENT SPENDING, FINANCIAL, MONETARY AND FISCAL POLICIES ON THE GDP. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS ROMANIA – LITHUANIA

Sebastian George, Ene¹
Dănuț, Chilarez²

Abstract

The analysis of the way in which the economic growth is achieved represents one of the fundamental problems of economics. Recent research is based on the econometric models based on multiple regression.

This research aims to analyze how government spending, fiscal, monetary and financial policies influence the dynamics of the GDP. In this sense, it is constructed an econometric model in which the dependent variable is the gross domestic product and the independent variables are: fiscal freedom, government spending, monetary freedom and financial freedom.

A comparative analysis between two former communist countries of different sizes, with different economic features, is performed in order to capture and analyze the phenomenon better. They used data characterizing the period 2000 – 2012. The model of multiple regression shows the way in which the independent variables influence the economic growth in the two countries.

Keywords: economic growth, determinants of the economic growth, econometric model, the influence of variables on the economic growth, comparative analysis.

JEL classification: C13, E 42, E63

1. Introduction

The economic growth and its underlying theories have known over time a significant development in terms of interpretations and the analyses of the determinants, researchers trying to explain this phenomenon from a multiple perspective. Currently, the World Bank defines the economic growth as “... *the quantitative growth or expansion of an economy. The economic growth is measured conventionally by the percentage increase of the gross domestic product or the gross national product over a period of one year.*” (World Bank, 2012). Undoubtedly, the fundamental indicator that measures the economic growth is the gross domestic product. The recent theories and analyses attempts to capture the different models, links between this indicator and the factors that contribute substantially to its change in time (Kormendi and Meguire, 1985; Knight, Loayza and Villanueva, 1993; Easterly and Rebelo, 1993; Zhang, 1999; Moudatsou, 2003; Barro, 2003, Bruneckiene, J. and Paltanaviciene, D. 2012). Most models use in the analysis the regression equations whose dependent variable is the gross domestic product, and the independent variables are considered various determinants of the economic growth.

The objective of this research is to create a model that highlights the following determinants of the economic growth: fiscal freedom, government spending, monetary freedom and financial freedom. The comparative analysis is performed between two EU member states, former Communist countries, with economies showing distinct features. The four independent variables included in the model capture the most important aspects of fiscal policy, government spending, monetary and financial policies. They make up the Index of Economic Freedom, calculated annually by the Heritage Foundation.

Fiscal freedom is a measure of the tax burden imposed by the government. It includes direct taxes, in terms of the top marginal tax rates on individual and corporate incomes, and

¹ Senior Lecturer, Faculty of Finance, Constantin Brancoveanu University of Pitești, Calea Bascovului no. 2A, Pitești, România; e-mail: george_sene@yahoo.com

² Ph.D. CAFR member

overall taxes, including all forms of direct and indirect taxation at all levels of government, as a percentage of GDP. Thus, the fiscal freedom component is composed of three quantitative factors: the top marginal tax rate on individual income; the top marginal tax rate on corporate income and the total tax burden as a percentage of GDP (Heritage Organization, 2013).

Government spending – this component considers the level of government expenditures as a percentage of the GDP. Government expenditures, including consumption and transfers (Heritage Organization, 2013).

Monetary freedom combines a measure of price stability with an assessment of price controls. Both inflation and price controls distort market activity. Price stability without microeconomic intervention is the ideal state for the free market (Heritage Organization, 2013).

Financial freedom is a measure of banking efficiency as well as a measure of independence from government control and interference in the financial sector. State ownership of banks and other financial institutions such as insurers and capital markets reduces competition and generally lowers the level of available services.

In an ideal banking and financing environment where a minimum level of government interference exists, independent central bank supervision and regulation of financial institutions are limited to enforcing contractual obligations and preventing fraud (Heritage Organization, 2013).

The aim of this research is to analyze the impact of the mentioned determinants on the gross domestic product, the correlations existing between the variables and to explain the differences between the two countries.

The methodology of research comprises: the exploratory research of the literature, the quantitative literature, the qualitative research, the creation of the model and the interpretation of the data obtained.

2. Theories and concepts regarding the economic growth and the determinants of economic growth

The economic growth is influenced by many factors. A first analysis of the growth and the factors that influence it was achieved by A. Marshall (1890) showing that “*the industrial and social progress and development..... depends on numerous factors that influence this process*”. Subsequently, the analyses related to the economic growth and its implications have been captured by a growing number of economists. Colin Clark (1947) considers that “*the first element of the economic growth is that of the real income received by a worker in an hour of work,*” the economic growth being thus explained by the theory of labor productivity. K. E. Boulding (1953) explains this phenomenon of the economic growth with the help of the phenomenon “butterfly” – economies grow and are developed like a butterfly from being a larva and then an insect. Hicks (1956) explains the economic growth through utility – utility maximization leads to the economic growth.

The analysis of the different types of relationships between the economic growth and its potential determinants is highlighted by various models created by economists over time. J. M. Keynes (1936) highlights the relationship between income (V), consumption (C) and investment (I).

$$V = C + I \quad (1)$$

If in the Keynesian model we look at the overall income (V) as an indicator of the economic development, its modification is based on the following relationship:

$$\Delta V = \Delta C - \Delta I, \quad (2)$$

It would result that an increase of the investment leads to the increase of consumption and thus of the income. Keynes also explains the impact created by investments on the

income and implicitly on the economic growth. The investment multiplier (K) is the indicator that allows the quantification of these effects:

$$K = \Delta V / \Delta I, \quad (3)$$

This shows how income changes if investments increase by one unit. Another well-established pattern of the economic growth is developed by R. Solow (1956). It reveals how two fundamental factors – labor and capital – affect growth. Through a function of the type Cobb – Douglas it generates the production function:

$$Y = F(K, L), \text{ so } Y = AK^a L^{1-a}, \quad (4)$$

where: Y – represents the global production, A – the technological contribution, K – money capital (can be viewed as an investment in achieving production), L – labour (human resources used in production).

The second specific equation that goes into the model developed by Solow is the accumulation of capital:

$$K = sY - dK, \quad (5)$$

where: sY is the gross investment, and dK is the depreciation incurred by the capital.

Important contributions to the identification and explanation of the links between growth and its determinants were also brought by the creators of the endogenous growth models such as Paul Romer (1990, 1994) that conceived the AK model which demonstrates the link between production of a country and the capital it has, showing the proportionality between the two elements.

Another established model is the model “Human Capital Accumulation” (HCA) of Lucas (1988). It puts the spotlight on the accumulation of human capital as the basis for economic growth. In this case, the production function has become:

$$Y = AK(uhL), \quad (6)$$

where: Y – global production, A – technological contribution, K – money capital (can be viewed as an investment in achieving production) L – labor (human resources used in production). $0 < a < 1$, u – the time spent working, and h – stock of human capital.

The role of human capital in the economic growth is further highlighted by other economists (Levine and Renelt, 1992; Benhabib and Spiegel, 1994; Topel, 1999; Hanushek and Kimko, 2000, Krueger and Lindahl, 2001; Pritchett, 2001).

Along with the determinants presented in the previous models, there were identified other factors that contribute to the economic growth. Levine and Zervos (1993) show that countries with higher enrollment rate in secondary education have a higher growth rate than those with a lower rate, demonstrating a direct link between the formation of the new generation and growth. Borensztein, De Gregorio and Lee (1998), Hermes and Lensink (2000), Lensink and Morrissey (2006), demonstrate the close relationship existing between foreign direct investment and economic growth. Khan and Kumar, (1997), Knack and Keefer, (1995) examine the way in which public and private investment influence the economic growth, capturing significant differences between the two factors. The fact that investments are the fundamental determinant of the economic growth is highlighted in numerous research studies (De Long and Summers, 1991, Levine and Renelt, 1992, Mankiw, 1992, Auerbach et al, 1994, Barro and Sala – I – Martin, 1995, Bond et al, 2001; Podrecca and Carmeci, 2001).

Hall and Jones (1998), Rodrik D. (2000) believe that a great influence on the economic growth is held by public institutions and government policies, the state being, through the policies developed, a decisive factor influencing the economic growth.

Ulku (2004) highlights the implications that innovation and research-development have on the economic growth, demonstrating that a country that invests in research, development and innovation generates higher economic growth than the countries that do not show such a trend or not give importance to this aspect.

R.J. Barro(1991, 1999, 2000, 2003). pays particular attention to the determinants of the economic growth in various studies and analyses. He analyzed the effects on the economic growth: human capital, demographic growth, government consumption, rule of law, terms of trade, regional variables and investment ratio.

Willa Boots J. Tolo (2011) considers that fiscal policies, external developments, political stability and reform indicators have a determinant role in development.

3. Model and empirical research

The analysis of the determinants analyzed on GDP as an indicator reflecting growth involves the following steps:

Step 1. the identification of the categories of variables that compose the model;

Step 2. the construction of the econometric model to make the impact assessment;

Step 3. the empirical research by the introduction and validation of the time using the model built;

Step 4. the interpretation of the obtained quantitative results.

Step 1. Identification of the variables that compose the model

For this research, the dependent variable Y is represented by the GDP as an expression of the economic growth. The independent variables Xi are the variables that are used in the model to characterize the influence they have on the independent variable. The independent variables helping to analyze the impact on the Gross Domestic Product are: fiscal freedom (FF), government spending (GS), monetary freedom (MF) and financial freedom (FIN.F).

Step 2. Construction of the econometric model to make the impact assessment;

The construction of the model expresses the gross domestic product as a dependent variable in accordance to the independent variables. In this context:

GDP= (the selected dependent variables); GDP= (fiscal freedom, government spending, monetary freedom and financial freedom).

In this context one can use a multiple regression function to characterize the phenomenon.

$$Y_t = a_0 + a_1X_{1t} + a_2X_{2t} + \dots + a_kX_{kt} + e_t, \quad (7)$$

t = 1, 2, ..., n where: a_0 – is the constant value, $a_1 - a_k$ equation parameters, and $x_{1t} - x_{kt}$ variables of the function, e_t – standard error.

In our case the function is written:

$$GDP = a_0 + a_1(FF) + a_2(GS) + a_3(MF) + a_4(FIN.F) + e_t \quad (8)$$

In these circumstances we can quantify the influence of each indicator on GDP in each country that was analyzed.

Step 3. The empirical research

The empirical research was conducted for a period of 13 years between 2000-2012. The statistical data used in the analyses were taken from the official website of the national banks of the two countries in the case of the dependent variable, the gross domestic product, and from the official website of the Heritage Foundation in the case of the independent variables: fiscal freedom, government spending, financial freedom and monetary freedom. To produce no redundancy in the model and to make it statistically representative, we proceeded to the logarithms of all the absolute values used in the model. The tables 1 and 2 present the logarithmic values obtained.

Table 1: Logarithmic values of the dependent variable and the independent variables in the case of Lithuania for the period 2000-2012.

LITHUANIA					
YEAR	GDP	fiscal freedom	government spending	monetary freedom	financial freedom
2012	10,63217	1,971275849	1,620136055	1,899273187	1,903089987
2011	10,49079	1,69019608	1,935003151	1,872156273	1,903089987
2010	10,44264	1,662757832	1,927370363	1,850033258	1,903089987
2009	10,42576	1,681241237	1,942504106	1,879669206	1,903089987
2008	10,51073	1,681241237	1,936010796	1,894869657	1,903089987
2007	10,45847	1,681241237	1,937016107	1,909020854	1,903089987
2006	10,38209	1,662757832	1,918554531	1,95616843	1,954242509
2005	10,32158	1,672097858	1,918030337	1,954724791	1,954242509
2004	10,26114	1,681241237	1,918030337	1,954724791	1,954242509
2003	10,21948	1,681241237	1,896526217	1,944975908	1,84509804
2002	10,17993	1,612783857	1,869818208	1,942999593	1,698970004
2001	10,13497	1,579783597	1,851258349	1,928395852	1,698970004
2000	10,09513	1,477121255	1,848189117	1,859138297	1,698970004

Source: author calculation using Eviews 5 and data from National Bank of Lithuania

Table 2: Logarithmic values of the dependent variable and the independent variables in the case of Romania for the period 2000-2012.

ROMANIA					
Year	GDP	fiscal freedom	government spending	monetary freedom	financial freedom
2012	11,27875	1,941511433	1,741151599	1,870988814	1,698970004
2011	11,11835	1,938519725	1,760422483	1,871572936	1,698970004
2010	11,09457	1,933487288	1,776701184	1,865103975	1,698970004
2009	11,0726	1,939519253	1,84509804	1,875061263	1,698970004
2008	11,1454	1,932473765	1,850033258	1,860338007	1,698970004
2007	11,09597	1,933993164	1,851258349	1,843232778	1,77815125
2006	10,99012	1,942008053	1,838219222	1,823474229	1,698970004
2005	10,90201	1,845718018	1,838219222	1,796574333	1,698970004
2004	10,78579	1,844477176	1,873901598	1,754348336	1,698970004
2003	10,7208	1,839478047	1,79518459	1,705863712	1,698970004
2002	10,68677	1,808885867	1,770115295	1,668385917	1,477121255
2001	10,65664	1,760422483	1,901458321	1,617000341	1,477121255
2000	10,60907	1,765668555	1,80140371	1,580924976	1,698970004

Source: author calculation using Eviews 5 and data from National Bank of Romania

The empirical research was carried out by following the steps specific to the quantitative analysis methodology: descriptive statistical analysis, analysis of correlations between this phenomenon and the influence factors and the analysis of the resulted regression equations.

The statistical analysis indicates a very small standard deviation in both countries, such as the dependent variable and the independent variables. The values are close to zero, showing a slight dispersion to mean. The other two important elements of the statistical analysis, skewness and kurtosis indicating the distribution and degree of flattening of the variables, in the case of Lithuania, show negative values for the GDP, government spending, monetary freedom and financial freedom, indicating a distribution oriented to the right, with extreme values to the left, while the value of the independent variable fiscal freedom is positive, and the inclination of the distribution is to the left. In the case of Romania, all values are negative, so the distribution is skewed to the right. Regarding the degree of flattening, values higher than the significant threshold “three” are met in the case of Lithuania at the independent variables fiscal freedom and government spending, indicating a leptokurtic distribution. The dependent variable and the other independent variables have values less than three, so they have a platikurtic distribution. In the case of Romania, all variables except the variable designating financial freedom have values smaller than three indicating a leptokurtic distribution.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics for Lithuania – Calculations based on table 1

LITHUANIA	GDP	FISCAL FREEDOM	GOVERNMENT SPENDING	MONETARY FREEDOM	FINANCIAL FREEDOM
Mean	10.35038	1.671922	1.886034	1.911242	1.863329
Median	10.38209	1.681241	1.918030	1.909021	1.903090
Maximum	10.63217	1.971276	1.942504	1.956168	1.954243
Minimum	10.09513	1.477121	1.620136	1.850033	1.698970
Std. Dev.	0.162852	0.108199	0.086223	0.038344	0.098173
Skewness	-0.055712	1.263615	-2.459025	-0.211573	-0.980356
Kurtosis	1.950577	6.293953	8.227840	1.605820	2.341538
Jarque-Bera	0.603256	9.336716	27.90532	1.149845	2.317228
Probability	0.739613	0.009388	0.000001	0.562749	0.313921
Sum	134.5549	21.73498	24.51845	24.84615	24.22328
Sum Sq. Dev.	0.318250	0.140483	0.089214	0.017643	0.115655
Observations	13	13	13	13	13

Source: author calculation using Eviews 5

Table 4: Descriptive statistics for Romania – Calculations based on table 2

ROMANIA	GDP	FISCAL FREEDOM	GOVERNMENT SPENDING	MONETARY FREEDOM	FINANCIAL FREEDOM
Mean	10.93514	1.878936	1.818705	1.779452	1.670930
Median	10.99012	1.932474	1.838219	1.823474	1.698970
Maximum	11.27875	1.942008	1.901458	1.875061	1.778151
Minimum	10.60907	1.760422	1.741152	1.580925	1.477121
Std. Dev.	0.220598	0.070485	0.048117	0.104231	0.088733
Skewness	-0.143955	-0.541924	-0.029657	-0.763352	-1.627175
Kurtosis	1.617796	1.735497	1.950822	2.122180	4.310762
Jarque-Bera	1.079747	1.502418	0.598158	1.679920	6.667317
Probability	0.582822	0.471796	0.741501	0.431728	0.035662
Sum	142.1568	24.42616	23.64317	23.13287	21.72209
Sum Sq. Dev.	0.583964	0.059618	0.027783	0.130369	0.094482
Observations	13	13	13	13	13

Source: author calculation using Eviews 5

The analysis of the correlation matrix reveals the intensity of the existing links between the dependent and the independent variable. Table no. 3 highlights the links between the GDP and the four independent variables of the model.

Table 5: Matrix of the correlations – Lithuania

LITHUANIA	GDP	FISCAL FREEDOM	GOVERNMENT SPENDING	MONETARY FREEDOM	FINANCIAL FREEDOM
GDP	1.000000
FISCAL FREEDOM	0.787833	1.000000	.	.	.
GOVERNMENT SPENDING	-0.181970	-0.589324	1.000000	.	.
MONETARY FREEDOM	-0.316098	0.056303	0.037351	1.000000	.
FINANCIAL FREEDOM	0.698640	0.550088	0.221130	0.120476	1.000000

Source: author calculation using Eviews 5

Table 6: Matrix of the correlations – Romania

ROMANIA	GDP	FISCAL FREEDOM	GOVERNMENT SPENDING	MONETARY FREEDOM	FINANCIAL FREEDOM
GDP	1.000000
FISCAL FREEDOM	0.938246	1.000000	.	.	.
GOVERNMENT SPENDING	-0.288010	-0.255140	1.000000	.	.
MONETARY FREEDOM	0.947131	0.964374	-0.199483	1.000000	.
FINANCIAL FREEDOM	0.551826	0.615466	-0.097618	0.592241	1.000000

Source: author calculation using Eviews 5

The correlation of the dependent variable GDP with the independent variables included in the model reveals that Lithuania has a strong intensity in the case of the independent variable fiscal freedom, a moderate intensity in the case of financial freedom, and weak ties with the variable monetary freedom and insignificant ties with government spending.

Regarding Romania, the links are more intense. There is a strong link between the GDP and fiscal freedom and between the GDP and monetary freedom, a link of medium intensity with financial freedom and a weak link with government spending.

The regression equations resulting from the application of the model using Eviews 5 are:

$$\text{GDP} = 1.37 * \text{FF} + 0.62 * \text{GS} - 1.70 * \text{MF} + 0.28 * \text{FIN F} + 9.59 \text{ in the case of Lithuania (9)}$$

$$\text{GDP} = 0.94 * \text{FF} - 0.37 * \text{GS} + 1.39 * \text{MF} - 0.07 * \text{FIN F} + 7.50 \text{ in the case of Romania (10)}$$

Table 7: The regression equation – the case of Lithuania

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
FISCAL_FREEDOM	1.371606	0.403781	3.396904	0.0094
GOVERNMENT_SPENDING	0.628976	0.433876	1.445058	0.1864
MONETARY_FREEDOM	-1.701218	0.467582	-3.638332	0.0066
FINANCIAL_FREEDOM	0.285652	0.369371	0.773349	0.4616
C	9.593835	1.256970	7.632512	0.0001
R-squared	0.904459	Mean dependent var	10.35038	
Adjusted R-squared	0.856689	S.D. dependent var	0.162852	
S.E. of regression	0.061650	Akaike info criterion	-2.450959	
Sum squared resid	0.030406	Schwarz criterion	-2.233670	
Log likelihood	20.93123	F-statistic	18.93344	
Durbin-Watson stat	1.321231	Prob(F-statistic)	0.000385	

Source: author calculation using Eviews 5

Table 8: The regression equation – the case of Romania

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
FISCAL_FREEDOM	0.942556	1.303490	0.723102	0.4902
GOVERNMENT_SPENDING	-0.379654	0.504385	-0.752706	0.4732
MONETARY_FREEDOM	1.394966	0.848480	1.644075	0.1388
FINANCIAL_FREEDOM	-0.079467	0.329940	-0.240852	0.8157
C	7.505128	1.557024	4.820175	0.0013
R-squared	0.913039	Mean dependent var	10.93514	
Adjusted R-squared	0.869559	S.D. dependent var	0.220598	
S.E. of regression	0.079673	Akaike info criterion	-1.938057	
Sum squared resid	0.050782	Schwarz criterion	-1.720769	
Log likelihood	17.59737	F-statistic	20.99892	
Durbin-Watson stat	1.317974	Prob(F-statistic)	0.000266	

Source: author calculation using Eviews 5

These show the impact of each independent variable on the GDP dependent variable.

Step 4 Interpretation of the results obtained at step 3

It appears that in the case of Lithuania and Romania, the coefficient of determination (R-squared) is higher than 90% (90.44% in the case of Lithuania and 91.30% in the case of Romania) and adjusted R-squared is 85.66%, respectively 86.95%, so the phenomenon is explained by the regression equations in a very high percentage. In this context, the sample and the variables can be considered representative in making the analysis. In both cases Prob (F – statistic) is lower than 5%, so the regression model is statistically valid.

The interpretation of the coefficients of the regression equations indicate that the modification with one unit of the values of the independent variables produce different effects in the case of the two countries.

In the case of Lithuania, the increase with one unit of the fiscal freedom produces an increase of the GDP with 1.37 units, while in the case of Romania it produces an increase of only 0.94 units. The modification with one unit of government spending is in the same direction in the case of Lithuania (0.62 units), while Romania produces a change in the opposite direction by 0.37 units.

Monetary Freedom produces different effects in the case of the two countries. In the case of Lithuania, the modification produces effects in a different way with an amplitude of 1.7 units, while in the case of Romania, the change produced is in the same direction with an intensity of 1.39 units. A different aspect is observed in the case of financial policies. Their impact produces reverse effects for Romania (0.07 units) while in the case of Lithuania it produces effects in the same direction with a higher intensity (0.28 units).

4. Conclusions

The research carried out shows that the independent variables that compose the model greatly influence the economic growth in the two countries under analysis (the phenomenon is explained in greater proportion of 90% of the four dependent variables). They found correlations and different influences of the analyzed determinants on the economic growth. For both countries, the fiscal policies play an important role in stimulating the economic growth. The effects produced by these policies indicate a higher GDP growth for Lithuania as compared to Romania. However, in Romania, this factor is more strongly correlated with the growth of the GDP than in Lithuania. This is explained as a consequence of the fact that Lithuania has a fiscal system more stable than in Romania, with a lower overall tax. If in Romania the tax system were more coherent, it would achieve a fiscal relaxation especially in the taxation of labor and the GDP could grow faster than in the case of Lithuania. The government spending in both countries indicates negative correlations. They are insignificant in the case of Lithuania, while in the case of Romania they show a weak link. The increase of public spending in the case of Lithuania leads to an increase of the GDP, while in the case of Romania it leads to a lower GDP. The explanations are many, but the way in which funds are spent, the efficiency of these have a significant impact on the GDP. Lithuania compared to Romania is a better administrator of the public funds, as they have a higher efficiency. In Romania the inefficient administration of public funds and public investments creates a negative impact on investor's perception and consequently on the GDP.

Regarding the monetary policies, we observe that in Lithuania there is a correlation with low intensity of the GDP, compared to Romania, where the correlation is 94.7%. The effects produced by price stability over the economic growth are contrary. In the case of Lithuania, the decrease of inflation leads to a real economic growth. In January 2007 – July 2008 there has been a substantial increase in the inflation rate from 4% to over 12%. In this context, the economic growth was affected in real terms. In Romania, price stability was higher, the

inflation rate exceeding 6 %, decreasing from one year to another. According to the model, in Romania, the increase of inflation leads to the growth of the GDP in nominal terms.

Between the financial policies and the GDP in both countries, the correlations present medium intensities. The modifications generated by the access to finance, the degree of independence of the central bank to banks produce relatively small changes in both the case of Lithuania and in the case of Romania. The difference lies in the meaning of these changes. The financial index Freedom, higher in the case of Lithuania, led to an increase of the GDP, while in Romania the effects are on the contrary.

The conducted research shows that between the GDP and fiscal freedom, government spending, monetary freedom and financial freedom) there is a strong connection, the four factors representing determinants of the economic growth. It is also emphasized the different nature of the influences from one country to another. The final conclusion drawn from the research indicates that the more stable and favorable to investment is the tax system, the higher is the impact on the economic growth in the positive way. The increase of government spending does not necessarily mean an increase in the GDP implicitly. If the efficiency of this public expenditure is high, the effect on the GDP is positive. If, on the contrary, the public expenditure increases and the efficiency are low, the GDP has a negative impact. In terms of monetary and financial policies, their improvement produces positive effects on the GDP in real terms.

Bibliography:

1. Auerbach A., Hassett K. and Oliner S. (1994). „Reassessing the social returns to equipment investment”, *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 109, 789-802
2. Barro, J. R. (1999). Determinants of Economic Growth: Implications of the Global Evidence for Chile, *Cuadernos de Economia*, ano 36, No. 107, pp. 443 - 478
3. Barro, J. Robert. (2003). Determinants of Economic Growth in a Panel of Countries, *Annals of Economics and Finance*, No. 4, 231–274 (2003)
4. Barro, R. J. and X. Sala-i-Martin. (1995). *Economic Growth*. MIT Press, Cambridge MA.
5. Barro, R. J.(1991). Economic growth in a cross section of countries. *Quarterly Journal of Economics* May, 407-443.
6. Barro, R. J.(2000) Inequality and growth in a panel of countries. *Journal of Economic Growth* March, 5-32
7. Benhabib J. and Spiegel M. (1994). „The Role of Human Capital in Economic Development: Evidence from Aggregate Cross-Country Data”, *Journal of Monetary Economics*, 34, 143-173.
8. Borensztein E., De Gregorio J. and Lee J. (1998). “How does Foreign Direct Investment affect Economic Growth?”, *Journal of International Economics*, 45, 115-135.
9. Boulding, K.E. (1953). *The Organizational Revolution: A Study in the Ethics of Economic Organization*. New York: Harper and Brothers.
10. Bruneckiene, J. and Paltanaviciene, D. (2012). Measurement of Export Competitiveness of Baltic States by Composite Index. *Inzinerine Ekonomika – Engineering Economics*, 23(1), 50 – 62
11. Clark, C.(1947). *The conditions of economic progress*.Third Edition. London: Macmillan and Co.Ltd.
12. DeLong, J. B. and L.H. Summers. (1991). Equipment investment and economic growth. *Quarterly Journal of Economics* May, 445-502.
13. Easterly, William and Sergio Rebelo. (1993).„Fiscal Policy and Economic Growth: An Empirical Investigation”, *Journal of Monetary Economics*, 32, 3 (December), 417 -535
14. Hall R. and Jones C. (1998). "Why do Some Countries Produce so Much More Output than Others?" *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114,1,83-116
15. Hanushek E. and Kimko D. (2000), “Shooling, Labor-Force Quality, and the Growth of Nations” *American Economic Review*, 90, 1184-1200
16. Heritage Organization. (2013). Index of economic freedom <http://www.heritage.org/index/book/methodology> accessed December 09 2013

17. Hermes N., Lensink, R. (2000), „Foreign direct investment, financial development and economic growth”, *Journal of development studies*, 40,1, 142-163.
18. Hicks, J.R. (1956). *A Revision of Demand Theory*. Oxford: University Press.
19. Keynes, J.M. (2009). *Teoria generală a ocupării forței de muncă, a dobânzii și a banilor*, București:Editura Publica.
20. Khan, M, and Kumar, M. (1997) Public and private investment and the growth process in developing countries, *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 59, 69-88.
21. Knack, S. and P. Keefer (1995) Institutions and economic performance: Cross-country tests using alternative institutional measures. *Economics and Politics* 7, 207-227.
22. Knight, Malcolm, Norman Loayza, Delano ViUanueva. (1993). „Testing the Neoclassical Theory of Economic Growth,” *IMF Staff Papers*, 40, 3 (September), 512–541.
23. Kormendi R. and Meguire, P. (1985), „Macroeconomic determinants of growth: cross-country evidence”, *Journal of Monetary Economics*,16, 4, 141-63.
24. Krueger A. and Lindhal M. (2001). „Education for Growth: Why and For Whom?” *Journal of Economic Literature* 39(4), 1101-36.
25. Lensink W. and Morrissey O. (2006), „Foreign Direct Investment: Flows, Volatility and the Impact on Growth”, *Review of International Economics*, 14, 3, 478-493.
26. Levine, R. and S. Zervos. (1993). *Looking at Facts: What We know about Policy and Growth from Cross-Country Analysis*. World Bank Policy Research Papers, WPS 1115.
27. Levine, R. and D.Renelt.(1992). A Sensitivity Analysis of Cross-Country Growth Regressions. *American Economic Review*, 82(4), pp. 942-963.
28. Lucas, R.(1988). On the Mechanics of Economic Development. *Journal of Monetary Economics* no.22, pp.3-42.
29. Mankiw, N. G., D. Romer, and D.N. Weil.(1992). A contribution to the empirics of economic growth. *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 107, 2, 407-437.
30. Marshall, A. (1890).*Principles of Economics*. Vol.I. London: Macmillan and Company.
31. Moudatsou, A. (2003). Foreign direct investment and economic growth in the European Union, *Journal of Economic Integration*, 18(4), 689-707.
32. Podrecca E. and Carmeci G. (2001). „Fixed Investment and Economic Growth: New results on Causality.” *Applied Economics* 33, 177-182.
33. Pritchett L. (2001). „Where has all the education gone?” *World Bank Economic Review*, 15, 367-91.
34. Rodrik D. (2000). „Institutions for High-quality Growth: What they are and How to Acquire them”, *Studies in Comparative International Development*, 35, 3-31.
35. Romer, P. M.(1990). Endogenous technological change. *Journal of Political Economy* October, part II, S71-S102.
36. Romer, P.(1994). The Origins of Endogenous Growth. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, Volume 8, Number 1, Winter, pp.3-22.
37. Solow, R. M. (1956). A Contribution to the Theory of Economic Growth. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, February, pp. 65-94.
38. Topel R. (1999). „Labor Markets and Economic Growth,” in *Handbook of Labor Economics*, ed. By O. Ashenfelter, and D. Card. Amsterdam: Elsevier, 2943-2984.
39. Ulku H.(2004). „R&D Innovation and Economic Growth: An Empirical Analysis”, *IMF Working Paper* 185.
40. Willa Boots J. Tolo. (2011). *The Determinants of Economic Growth in the Philippines: A New Look*. International Monetary Fund
41. Zhang, H. (1999). FDI and economic growth: evidence from ten East Asian Economies, *Economia Internazionale*, 7(4), 17-535.

THE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE ARGES COUNTY AFTER 1989

Constantin, Nicolescu

Abstract

The Arges County of today continues the tradition of his predecessors, developing both the economy, the agriculture and services for the local population, but also the spiritual life, maintaining a distinct area within Romania, being a bridge between the past, present and future, between Romania and Europe. Arges was and will remain one of the most important places in the history of the Romanian people, its culture and spirituality, a county where history and intelligence have given during the ages significant personalities of Romania. Analysis of statistical data available in the database TEMPO ON- LINE (National Statistics Institute) and the Arges Department of Statistics generated important information about the current economic situation of the counties in the country and Arges county and allowed me to base a series conclusions related to the economic development of Arges and conduct a case study comparing the counties of South Muntenia Region. The research was conducted on the following criteria: economic results; research, development and innovation; value of agricultural production; living comfort and equipment planning; business statistics; tourist accommodation capacity; foreign direct investment; execution of local budgets; absorption of European funds.

Keywords: local economy, Arges county, statistical analysis, socio-economic development

JEL Codes: O1, R1

1. Introduction. economic results of arges county

Analysis of statistical data available in the database TEMPO ON- LINE (National Statistics Institute) and the Arges Department of Statistics generated important information about the current economic situation of the counties in the country and of Arges county. The significant volume of productive assets created during the centralized economy and attracting strategic investors allowed the Arges county record in post-revolutionary period, the economy (GDP / capita) higher than those achieved at national level (Table 1).

Table 1 - GDP / capita in Romania and in Arges

Year	GDP/capita – lei, current prices	
	National level	Arges County
1995	336,77	363,49
1996	502,48	550,61
1997	1130,54	1234,16
1998	1644,99	1748,64
1999	2454,20	2339,14
2000	3606,45	3607,97
2001	5258,29	4927,43
2002	6962,56	6999,92
2003	9084,00	9371,84
2004	11413,48	12092,14
2005	13362,77	14878,39
2006	15967,60	18261,07
2007	19315,41	21012,33
2008	23934,59	26033,07
2009	23341,42	27377,58
2010	24435,91	25974,37

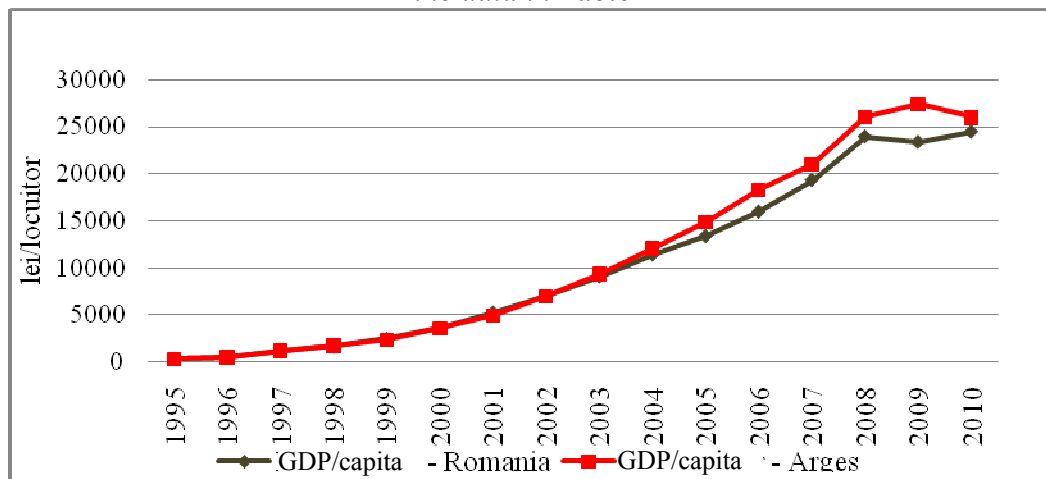
Source: Department of Statistics - ARGES and database TEMPO ON-LINE, the National Statistics Institute

In the analyzed period (1995 - 2010), GDP/capita per Arges is higher than GDP/capita at national level (the difference is statistically significant $p = 0.00549 < 0.05$ significance threshold - t test and $t_{\text{calculated}} 2.90 \geq 1.75$ t critical).

Between 1995 - 2010, GDP/capita in Arges County average annual increase of 32.92 % (the Arges county placing 6th in the country).

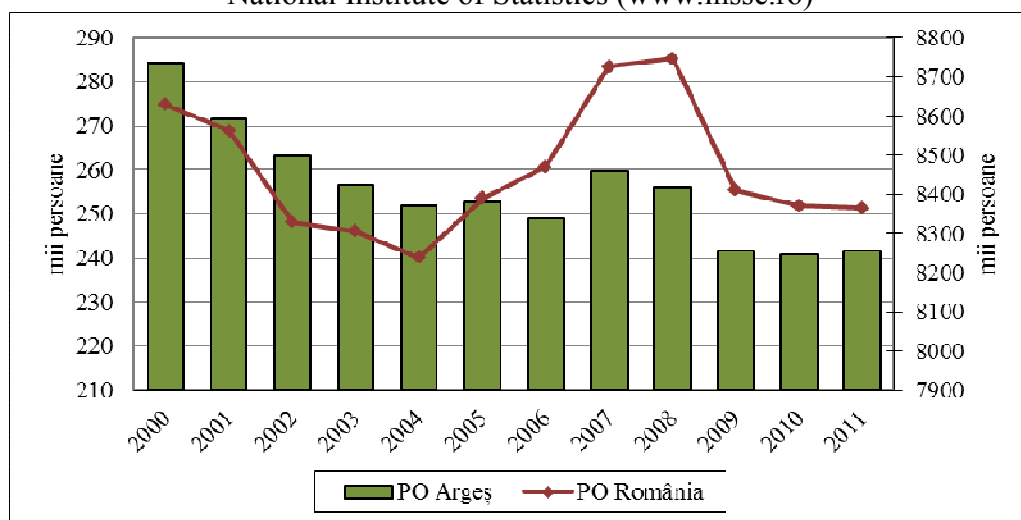
The analysis of GDP/capita (euro/inhabitant) reveals that the effects of the international economic crisis were felt in Arges county a year later (2009 versus 2008), which demonstrates the economic strength of the county (Figure 1).

Figure 1 - Evolution of GDP/capita in the period 1995-2010, graphic performed on the data in Table 1



Amid economic restructuring, the number of employed persons in Arges county decreased between 2000-2011, but the evolution of this phenomenon has followed the national trend, as can be seen in Figure No. 2.

Figure 2 - Evolution of employment (PO) in the county of Arges and Romania, graphic performed on the data from Department of Statistics Arges (www.arges.insse.ro) and the National Institute of Statistics (www.insse.ro)



In the Arges county, during 1991-2011, there were 1873 companies with foreign participation, representing 1.07% of the total number of companies with foreign participation

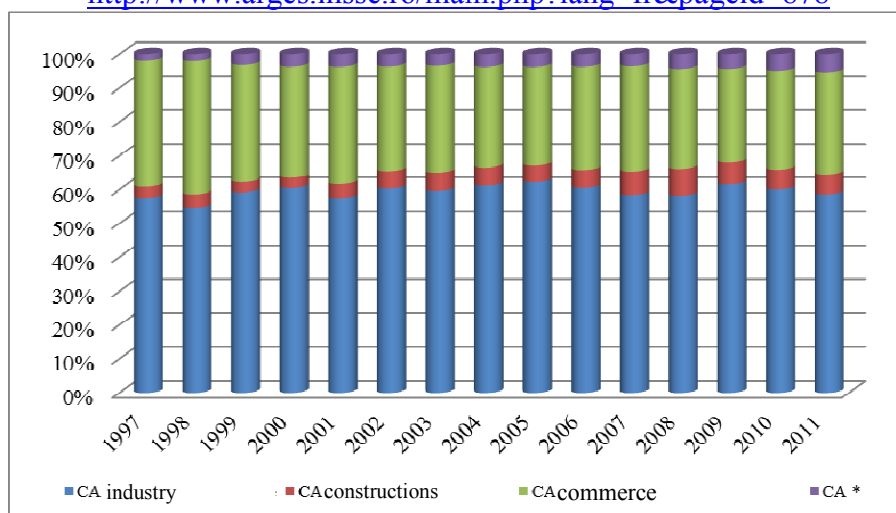
registered at national level. At their subscribed capital of 706 628 a thousand euros, representing 2.35 % of the total share capital subscribed foreign national.

The Arges county, although has a relatively small number of companies with foreign participation (1873), who ranks 17th in this view, is ranked 8th in value of the subscribed capital, according to the National Trade Register Office.

Between 2002-2011, the number of companies increased by 43.16 % active, small businesses accounting for the highest share in the total active companies (85%). By 2010 the share of small businesses had an upward trend (average 0.25 percentage points annually). In 2011 compared to 2010, the share of small businesses decreased by 2.53 percentage points for medium-sized enterprises and enterprises with more than 50 employees. The turnover of the companies' active in Arges county is nearly 40% of the turnover of the companies active in the South region showing an upward trend during 1997-2011 (Department of Statistics ARGES).

Companies operating in industry recorded the largest share of total turnover in Arges County (55 %) followed by those engaged in commerce (30 %). The level of industrialization in Arges county is higher than in South - Muntenia (where the share of turnover recorded by companies active in the industry is less than 50 % in total) or in the Romanian economy (mainly turnover registered by commercial entities in the industry is less than 30 % total)(Figure 3).

Figure 3 - Evolution of turnover by main economic activity in the county of Arges, graphs made on the basis of Arges County Department of Statistics, available <http://www.arges.insse.ro/main.php?lang=fr&pageid=878>



*CA is the turnover in the transport, storage, post and telecommunications

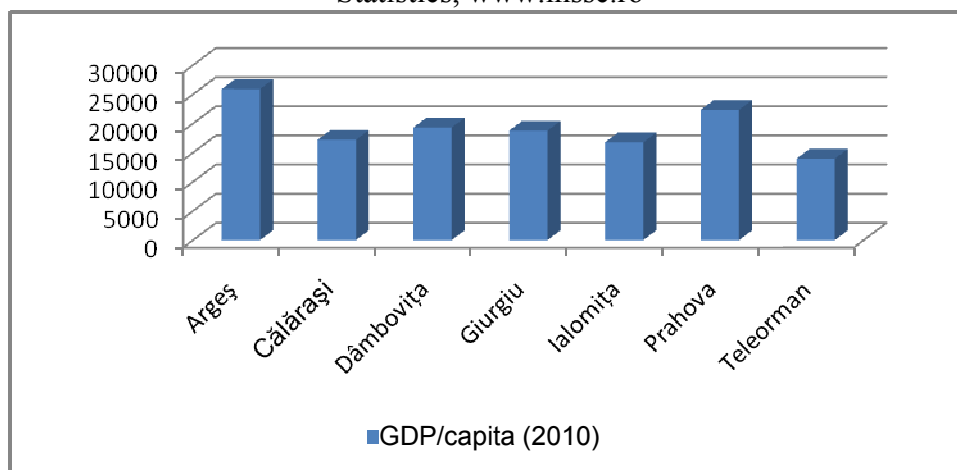
As a result of favorable economic results during the period 1991-2011, the revenues and expenditures of the county Arges local dynamics have been frequently superior to national level.

In conclusion, the profile and overall performance of Arges county economy can be summarized by:

- High level of industrialization compared with the average for the rest of the region or nationally;
- Increased investment attractiveness level than the rest of the region or at the national level media;
- Economic results much better than those recorded at national level;
- Enough labor available;
- Accelerated growth in the number of enterprises;
- Volume of financial resources at local level above the national average.

In 2010, the region's economic development level 3 South Muntenia Arges county is ranked first in terms of economic performance (Figure 4).

Figure 4 GDP/capita (2010), figure achieved by processing data of the National Institute of Statistics, www.insse.ro

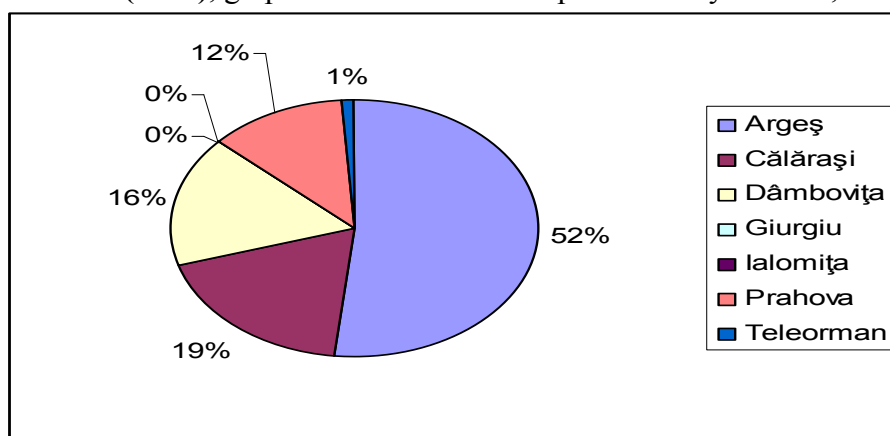


An indicator of the level of economic development of a county is the number of new registrations of road vehicles for passenger and goods transport. In the car category, Arges county ranks first with more than one third of all registered South Muntenia Region and in the category of road vehicles for the carriage of the 2nd position after Prahova County (data from the Statistics Directorate for Driving Licences and MAI available at <http://www.drpciv.ro/info-portal/displayStatistics.do?resetForm=true>).

2. Research-development and innovation in arges county

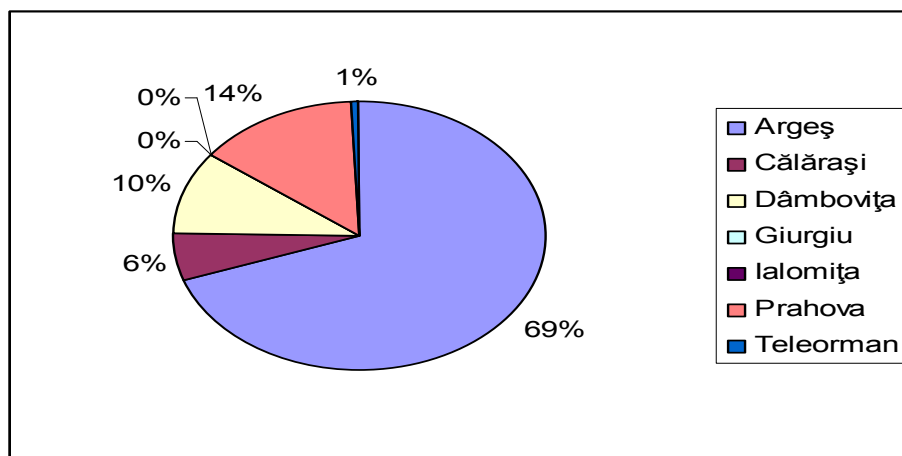
At the level of the South Muntenia Region, Arges county recorded the highest expenditure on research and development in 2011. Arges county owns 51.71 % of total employees in the research and development level of the South Muntenia (Figure 5).

Figure 5. Distribution by county employees in research and development in the region of South Muntenia (2011), graphic based on the data processed by the INS, www.insse.ro



As regards researchers, they are concentrated in Arges county in the proportion of 69.57%. Also, Arges county is ranked first in terms of number of employees in research and development to 10,000 civilians employed by a percentage is well above the regional average (Figure 6).

Figure 6. Distribution counties of researchers from research and development in the region of South Muntenia (2011), graphic based on the data processed by the INS, www.insse.ro

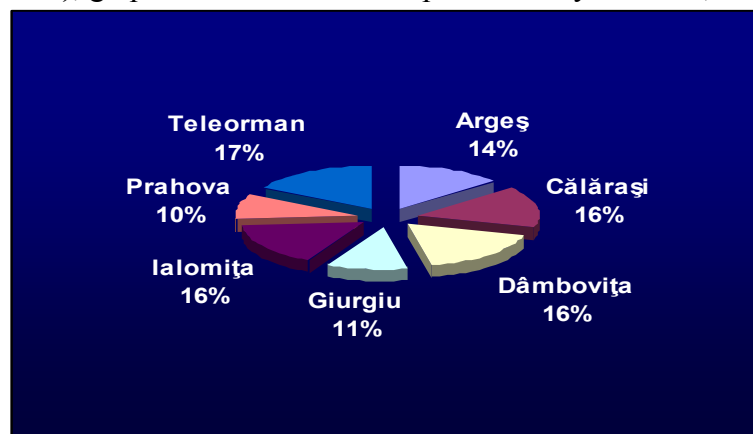


We can observe from the situations described the Arges county's great potential of research and development, the main research centers being: the Institute of Nuclear Research Mioveni, Research and Development Institute for Fruit Growing Pitești Mărăcineni and Dacia Renault .

3. Value of agricultural production

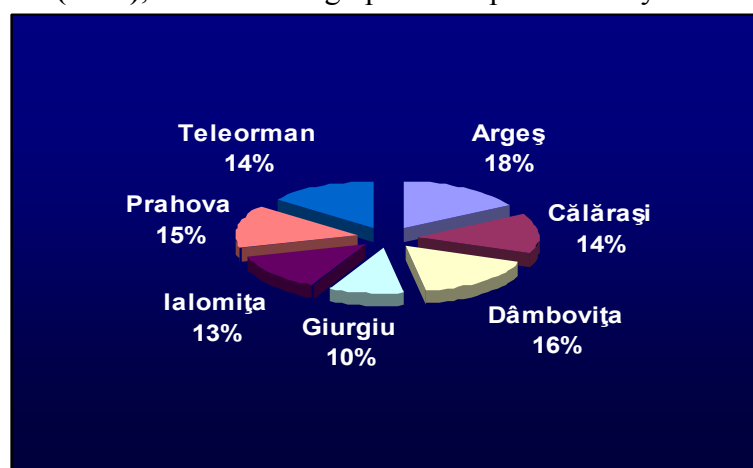
Overall, in agriculture, Arges county ranks 5 and differences from other counties are not high. It should be kept in mind that Arges county has a landscape that is divided approximately equally between mountains, hills and plains, unlike southern counties that have only plain relief. The percentage of high production achieved by individual holdings in Arges county, and in Dambovita and Teleorman demonstrating low investment in private agricultural sector. Graphically, distribution districts in total crop production value of agriculture in the South Muntenia is as follows (Figure 7):

Figure 7. Distribution counties total value of crop production on farming in South Region (2011), graphic based on the data processed by the INS , www.insse.ro



Regarding livestock production, overall agriculture in the South Muntenia Region, Arges county achieved the highest production compared to other counties, accounting for 18% of the region (Figure 8).

Figure 8. Distribution counties the total value of livestock production agriculture in the South Muntenia (2011), based on the graphic data processed by the INS, www.insse.ro

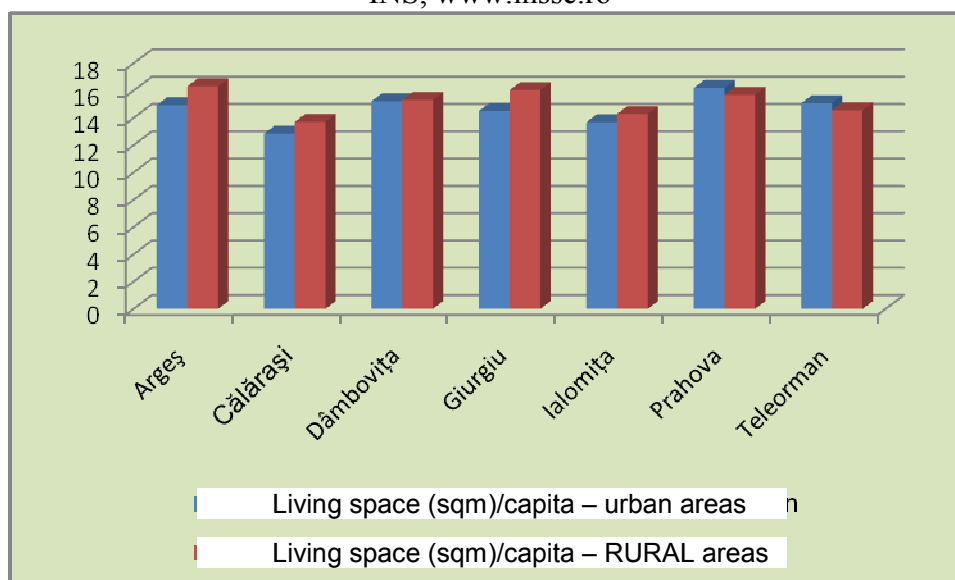


4. Comfort housing and equipment of the territory

In the South Muntenia region, the comfort of living as measured in terms of surface/inhabitant, the highest level recorded in the county of Prahova, Arges County followed (all by residence). Considering only the rural areas, the Arges County has the largest housing comfort level in the region. About 30 % of rural localities in Arges benefit of natural gas distribution networks.

Arges County has the largest network of public roads, representing more than 35 % of the existing level of the South Muntenia.

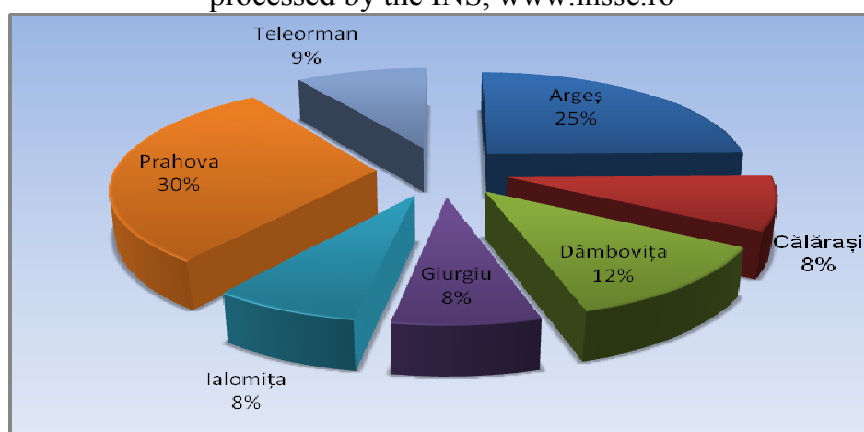
Figure 9. Living space (sqm)/capita in 2011, graphic based on the data processed by the INS, www.insse.ro



5. Business statistics

Of the 49 587 active businesses in the South - Muntenia, Arges County has 12271 active companies (24.75 %) (ranked 2 in the region) and from the 51,442 active local units, 12,710 units (24.71 %) are in the Arges County (No. 2 in the region) (Figure 10).

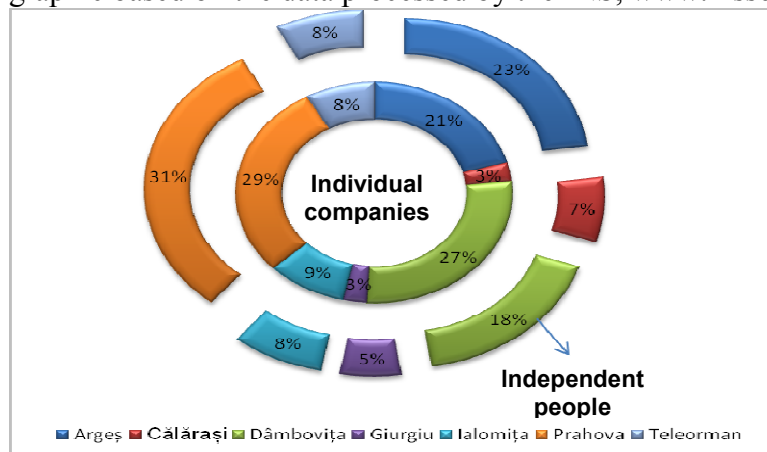
Figure 10. Active companies in the South- Muntenia (2011), graphic based on the data processed by the INS, www.insse.ro



Approximately 21 % (463 family businesses) of family businesses in the South - Muntenia are operating in Arges County. Of the 32009 people employed in the South - Muntenia 7336 independent persons (23 %) are in Arges County, according to the National Trade Register Office.

Arges County is ranked 3rd in the region in terms of family businesses and 2nd if we talk about independent people (Figure 11).

Figure 11. Number of private entrepreneurs in types of entrepreneurs and counties (2011), graphic based on the data processed by the INS, www.insse.ro



In the Arges county, active businesses operating in the fields of agriculture, forestry and fisheries represent 15.09 % of the total active businesses registered in South Muntenia. Active local units in Arges county represent 14.83 % of the 2806 local unit of South- Muntenia active. Arges County is 4th place in the region, both for businesses and for active local units active in agriculture, forestry and fisheries.

Both active enterprises and local units active in the county Arges which operate in the mining industry represents about 20% of active enterprises and local units of the South-Muntenia active. In terms of number of undertakings active in the extractive industry, Arges County ranks 2 after Prahova.

In the Arges county there are 1397 active enterprises and 1458 active local units by activity in manufacturing, in both cases representing 29 % of the total. Depending on the number of enterprises and local units active in the field of activity in manufacturing, Arges County ranks 2 in the South - Muntenia Region.

Of the 4949 companies with the scope of construction, 23.28 % are operating in Arges County. About 23 % of local units with activity in the construction field operate in Arges County. Arges County ranks 2nd in the construction field.

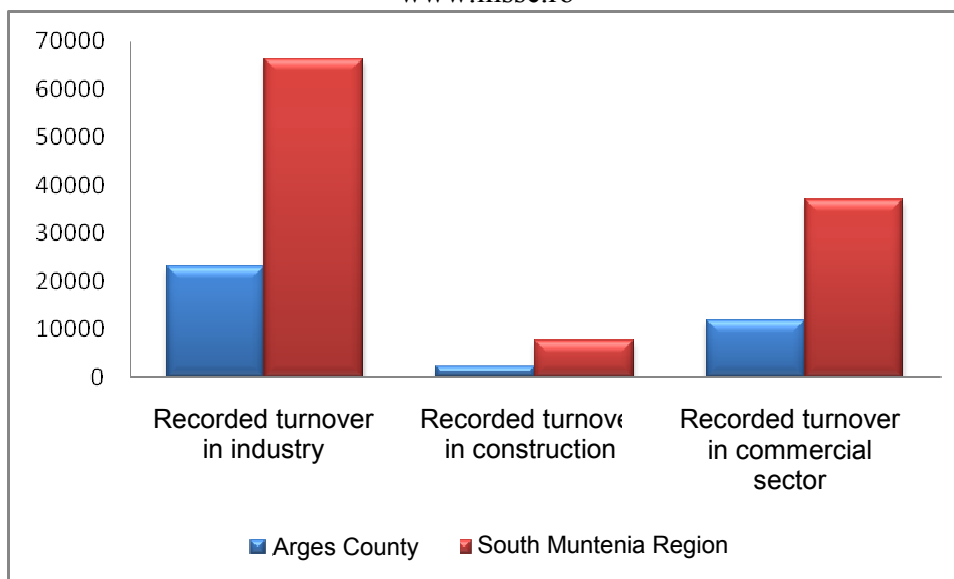
In the Arges county there are 4916 enterprises with the scope of commerce representing 23.88 % of the South- Muntenia enterprises and local units by activity in trade is 23.91 % (5130 local units), according to the National Trade Register Office.

Arges county records 27.22 % of active enterprises with the scope of transport. In transport, Arges County ranks first in the region. Local units active in Arges county , with the scope of the transport account for 27.02 % in the region.

In the Arges county there are about 28 % of active enterprises in hotels and restaurants, ranking 2nd in Region Muntenia Sud, after Prahova County .Arges county has the same position from the point of view of financial sales and insurance (National Trade Register Office).

More than a third of the turnover achieved by companies in the South - Muntenia comes in Arges County. The turnover of companies with activities in industry represents 37 % of the turnover of companies in South Muntenia (Figure 12).

Figure 12. Turnover of companies (2011), graphic based on the data processed by the INS, www.insse.ro



6. Tourism capacity

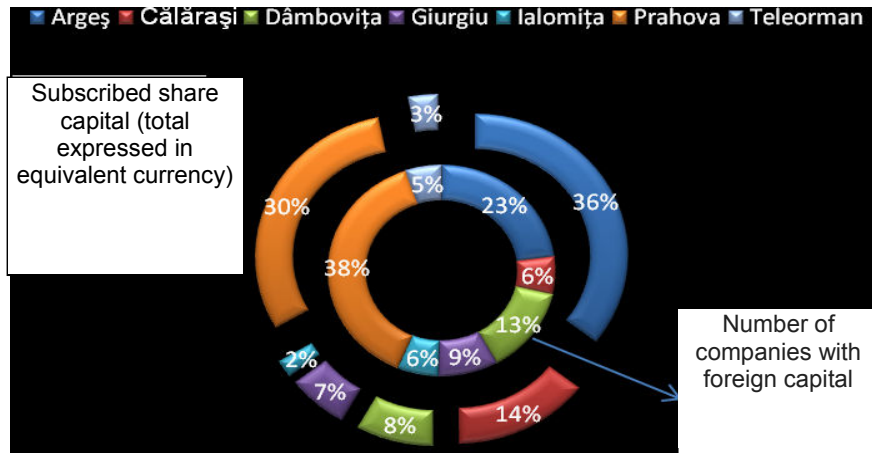
Arges county has a great tourism potential, but failure of the urban road infrastructure in the north of the county (highlands) has delayed capital inflows of investment in this area.

Capacity of tourist accommodation in Arges county is only about half of the county Prahova. The situation is good, given that, in terms of tourism, Prahova Valley is the most attractive tourist region Romanian mountain area.

7. Foreign direct investment

Arges county was an important destination for foreign direct investments, which were located mainly in the car industry (Figure 13).

Figure 13. Companies with foreign participation and subscribed share capital during 1991 – 2011 balance at December 31, 2011, Graphic data processing conducted by NTC available at www.onrc.ro

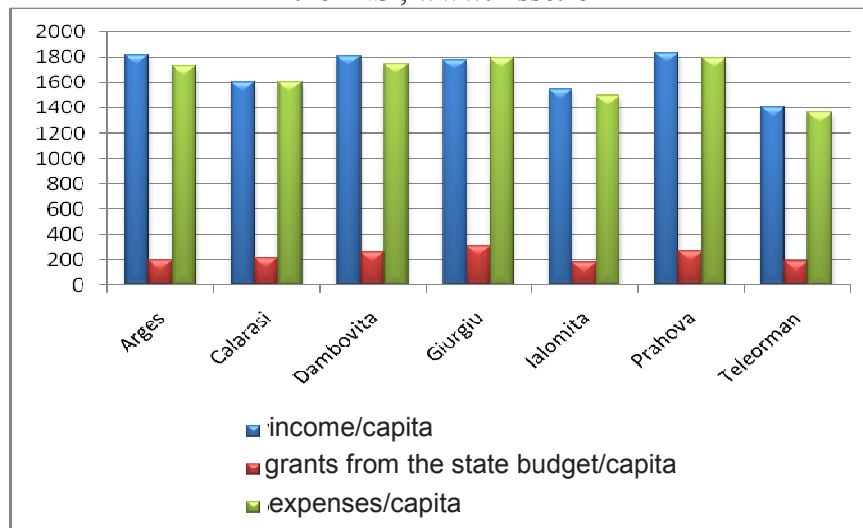


Given the amount of subscribed capital (total in currency) by companies with foreign capital participation, Argeş county ranks first in the South Muntenia Region, ahead of Prahova County.

8. Execution of local budgets

The execution of local budgets provide important information on the possibilities of local authorities to meet the needs of local communities, according to their responsibilities and duties.

Figure 14. Execution of the local budgets (2011), graphic based on the data processed by the INS , www.insse.ro



From the point of view of the local budget / inhabitant, Prahova County ranks 1 followed by Argeş County, on a very small difference (20 lei / capita).

In the South Muntenia Region, Argeş County recorded the largest surplus, which demonstrates that public authorities use public resources prudently and in terms of efficiency.

9. European funds

Essential in Arges county 's economic development has been the absorption of European funds. Through the National Rural Development Program were contracted a total of 38 projects with a total value of 11,520,270.43 lei, as follows:

- Measure 3.2.2. Development of villages - 17 projects - 8,188,547.55 lei
- Measure 3.1.3 Rural tourism - 8 projects - 316,011.55 lei
- Measure 1.2.5. Development of agriculture and forestry - 13 projects - 3,015,711.33 lei

Through the Regional Operational Program were contracted a number of 72 projects with a total value of 653,540,139.25 lei as follows:

- Priority Axis 1 sustainable development of cities - 12 projects - 170,668,142.91 lei;
- Priority Axis 2 Improving transport infrastructure - 5 projects - 162,916,497.02 lei
- Priority Axis 3 Improvement of social infrastructure - 26 projects - 139,102,182.26 lei
- Priority Axis 5 Sustainable development and tourism promotion - 29 projects - 180,853,317.06 lei

"Integrated management of solid waste in Arges County ", financed in two phases:

1. Stage I measure financed by ISPA - 2005 completed on 31.12.2011.

- The project = EUR 33,136,303 .

2. Stage II (funded by FADR)

- The project = 20,325,386 euros, in progress.

10. Conclusions

Given the research criteria used, it is noted that Arges County is in the first place to the following indicators: GDP/capita, R&D and innovation, the value of animal production, the comfort of living in urban areas, public roads the number of enterprises for storage and transport branch, the subscribed share capital (on currency) by companies with foreign participation and local budget surplus value. For most other indicators analyzed, Arges II ranks after Prahova County. In terms of statistical criteria enterprises, the differences between the two counties are low. Although in terms of number of enterprises ahead of Arges county Prahova County, the turnover of the companies active in Arges county is nearly 40% of the turnover of the companies active in the South region, hovering Arges County is the first position in this regard.

Companies operating in industry recorded the largest share of total turnover in Arges County (55 %) followed by those engaged in commerce (30 %). The degree of industrialization in Arges county is higher than in South- Muntenia (where the share of turnover recorded by companies active in the industry is less than 50 % in total) or in the Romanian economy (mainly turnover registered commercial entities in the industry is less than 30 % total).

From the point of view of economic development level (given the many facets: material prosperity - GDP / capita, the situation entrepreneurial environment, attractiveness to foreign investors, the state of infrastructure, the level of household income, etc.) , there are discrepancies between the two counties polarizing northern region (Arges and Prahova) and southern counties (Calarasi, Ialomita and Teleorman), characterized by very low levels of the indicators on the development and economic potential. Poor development of technical infrastructure of the affected counties affect the overall development of the communities, including the business environment and quality of life.

The current composition of the South Muntenia must change, because in the seven years of economic development of the county was not uniform.

Special economic problems existing in the counties of southern region (where the risk of poverty or social exclusion than the national average) generates a distinctive approach to regionalization.

It requires the creation of smaller regions of economic development that ensures a better adaptation of projects to local communities' needs through flexibility. These regions must be 'mixed', that include highly developed counties, the average developed counties and poor counties.

By developing tourism in the area will create important outlets for agricultural producers in southern counties - counties with mainly agricultural economies, whose products could be further refined through a competitive and efficient agricultural productivity. Higher incomes generated by industrial activities in Arges and Dambovită counties creates prerequisites for creating the necessary financial resources for financing projects for the appropriate technical equipment and effective exploitation of the natural resources of the area counties .

Foreign direct investment in the car industry in Arges county can have a multiplier effect on the economies of neighboring counties (as demonstrated by the experience related Dambovită County), and the university center of Pitesti offers a wide range of specializations in humanities, polytechnic, economics, law, sports, theology, mathematics and computer science etc., so Arges County resident can provide all categories of skilled labor .

Arges county is at the intersection of corridors road transport very important and with the completion of infrastructure projects of national interest : the Pitesti , Craiova and the Pitesti - Sibiu , city of Pitesti could become the second road junction in the country after Bucharest . Therefore, Arges county business opportunities have very good prospects and Pitesti city's position as a pole of economic development will be strengthened in the future.

County and the region's economy depends mainly on the Dacia -Renault factory activity in Mioveni, the company is the first in recent years among the largest Romanian exporting over 90 % of its production to foreign markets taking the road. Moreover, only in Arges County are more than 40 companies supplying parts for Dacia vehicles, and the number of employees exceeds 10,000 people (*Ziarul financiar*, [http://www.zf.ro/zf-24/cum-arata-economia-din-arges-capitala-exportului-romanesc-judetul-cu-un-pib-per-capita-de-7-450-deeuro-cu-9-pestes-medie-12058302](http://www.zf.ro/zf-24/cum-arata-economia-din-arges-capitala-exportului-romanesc-judetul-cu-un-pib-per-capita-de-7-450-deuro-cu-9-pestes-medie-12058302)). 12 of the largest 20 companies in Arges county or working in the automotive and auto components suppliers are among the Dacia-Renault.

The car factory itself works 13 719 people and the factory gate between week 1,900 trucks parts and raw materials and other 550 trucks leave the factory loaded with vehicles at the same time, most crossing the Olt Valley to West border. The road Pitesti - Sibiu has become in recent years the busiest in the country, imposing the necessity and quickly build a highway on route, so expected with interest by Dacia-Renault Group and, moreover, the economy whole area.

In the 2020 European vision (http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/index_ro.htm), increased European Union will be a smart one, placing a special emphasis on research - development and innovation. Rank 1 in the Arges county occupies in the South- Muntenia in this area will help to explore and amplify the strengths of qualifying region whose development pole will be, thus creating economic foundation that supports quality of life of the region.

The high volume of industrial activities in the county Arges will have an important role in the economic welfare of the region, contributing to sustainable growth and providing high quality jobs.

In a brief SWOT analysis Arges county, given its position in the region and the country, we should note the following:

Strong points

- The existence of a dynamic business environment at regional level, especially the county, being the main export pole of Romania, but extremely powerful chapter added value;
- The existence of a favorable investment climate for both local businesses and for foreign ones;
- The existence of important private companies with majority foreign capital, which distinguishes importance of Dacia-Renault Group and its economic partners.

Weaknesses

- Difficult access to finance, particularly in rural areas, but this shortcoming is characteristic of the entire Romanian economy.

Opportunities

- The possibility of increasing foreign direct investment;
- The possibility to easily adapt to changes in the economic environment most companies;
- Development of entrepreneurship as a means of increasing production indicators and the employment rate of the labor force;
- Modernization of Arges County, particularly in rural areas, following the completion of administrative and financial decentralization.

Threats

- The vulnerability of most companies Arges (Romanian and, in general) to competition in globalized markets, but also in the contemporary context of increasing consumer demand .

So, with a population of over 600,000 inhabitants and a GDP per capita of 7,450 euros, 9% higher than the national average (*Ziarul financiar*, <http://www.zf.ro/zf-24/cumarata-economia-din-arges-capitala-exportului-romanesc-judetul-cu-un-pib-per-capita-de-7-450-de-euro-cu-9-pesto-medic-12058302>), Arges county has the resource potential to develop further, focusing on the building industry car, contribution to export the main branch of the county and the added value it generates.

Bibliography:

1. Bari, Ioan, „Globalizarea economiei”, Editura Economică, București, 2005
2. Berinde, Mihai; Giurgiu, Adriana, „Aderarea României la Uniunea Europeană”, Editura Universității din Oradea, 2005
3. Stănciulescu, Gabriela; Micu, Cristina, „Economia turismului”, Editura Universității din Pitești, Pitești, 2009
4. *** Agenția de Dezvoltare Regională Sud Muntenia, „Analiza Economică a Regiunii Sud Muntenia”, Călărași, februarie 2013
5. *** MADR, Programul Național de Dezvoltare Rurală 2007-2013, București, martie 2009
6. *** Strategia de dezvoltare teritorială a României, Studii de fundamentare, 2014
7. www.insse.ro
8. www.onrc.ro
9. www.adrmuntenia.ro
10. www.arges.insse.ro
11. www.cjarges.ro
12. www.finantearges.ro
13. www.jurnalul.ro
14. www.zf.ro
15. www.aoaarges.ro
16. www.bnr.ro
17. http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/index_ro.htm

EVOLUȚIA ECONOMICĂ A JUDEȚULUI ARGEȘ DUPĂ 1989

Constantin, Nicolescu

Rezumat

Argeșul de astăzi continuă tradiția înaintașilor săi, dezvoltând atât economia, agricultura și serviciile pentru populație, dar și viața spirituală, menținându-se ca o zonă distinctă a României, o punte de legătură între trecut, prezent și viitor, între România și Europa. Argeșul a fost și va rămâne unul dintre cele mai importante leagăne ale istoriei neamului românesc, ale culturii și spiritualității sale, un județ în care istoria și inteligența au dat de-a lungul veacurilor personalități de seamă ale României. Analiza datelor statistice disponibile în Baza de date TEMPO ON-LINE (Institutul Național de Statistică) și la Direcția de Statistică Argeș a generat informații importante cu privire la situația economică actuală a județelor țării și a județului Argeș și ne-a permis să fundamentăm o serie de concluzii legate de evoluția economică a Argeșului și să realizăm un studiu economic, făcând comparații și cu județele învecinate, componente ale Regiunii de Dezvoltare Economică 3 Sud Muntenia. Cercetarea a fost realizată pe următoarele domenii: rezultate economice; activitatea de cercetare-dezvoltare și inovare; valoarea producției agricole; confortul locuirii și echiparea teritoriului; statistica întreprinderilor; capacitatea de cazare turistică; investiții străine directe; execuția bugetelor locale; absorbția fondurilor europene.

Cuvinte cheie: economie locală, județul Argeș, analiză statistică, dezvoltare socio-economică

Clasificarea JEL: O1, R1

1. Introducere. Rezultatele economice ale județului Argeș

Analiza datelor statistice disponibile în Baza de date TEMPO ON-LINE (Institutul Național de Statistică) și la Direcția de Statistică Argeș a generat informații importante cu privire la situația economică actuală a județelor țării și a județului Argeș.

Din perspectivă economică, volumul important de mijloace fixe productive create în perioada economiei centralizate și atragerea unor investitori strategici au permis județului Argeș să înregistreze în perioada post-decembristă rezultate economice (PIB/locuitor) superioare față de cele obținute la nivel național (Tabelul 1).

Tabelul 1 – PIB/locuitor în România și în Județul Argeș

Ani	PIB/locuitor – lei, prețuri curente	
	Nivel național	Județul Argeș
1995	336,77	363,49
1996	502,48	550,61
1997	1130,54	1234,16
1998	1644,99	1748,64
1999	2454,20	2339,14
2000	3606,45	3607,97
2001	5258,29	4927,43
2002	6962,56	6999,92
2003	9084,00	9371,84
2004	11413,48	12092,14
2005	13362,77	14878,39
2006	15967,60	18261,07
2007	19315,41	21012,33
2008	23934,59	26033,07
2009	23341,42	27377,58
2010	24435,91	25974,37

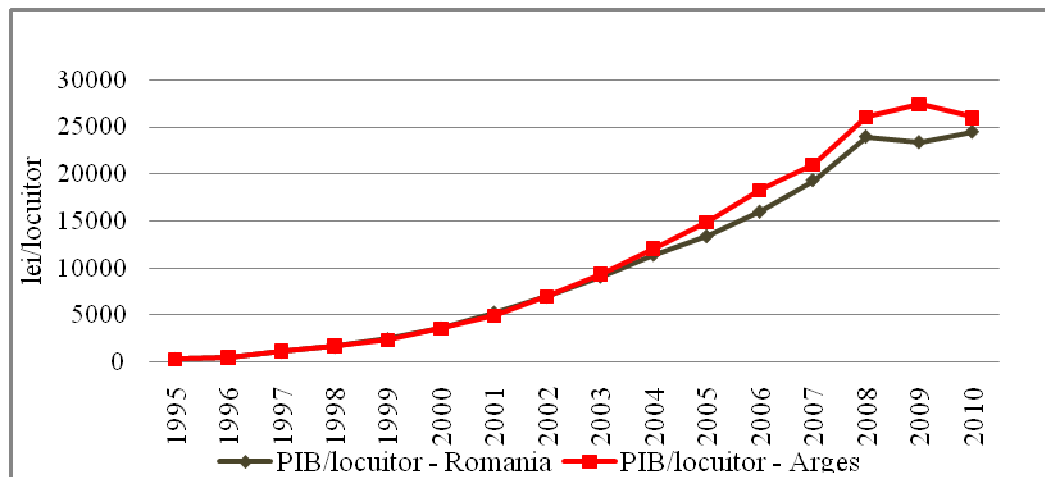
Sursa: Direcția Județeană de Statistică - ARGEȘ și Baza de date TEMPO ON-LINE, Institutul Național de Statistică

În perioada analizată (1995 – 2010), PIB/locuitor pe Argeș este mai mare decât PIB/locuitor la nivel național (diferența este semnificativă din punct de vedere statistic $p = 0,00549 < \text{pragul de semnificație } 0,05 - \text{testul } t \text{ iar } t_{\text{calculat}} = 2,90 > t_{\text{critical}} = 1,75$).

În perioada 1995 – 2010, PIB/locuitor în județul Argeș crește în medie anual cu 32,92% (situând județul Argeș pe locul 6 în țară).

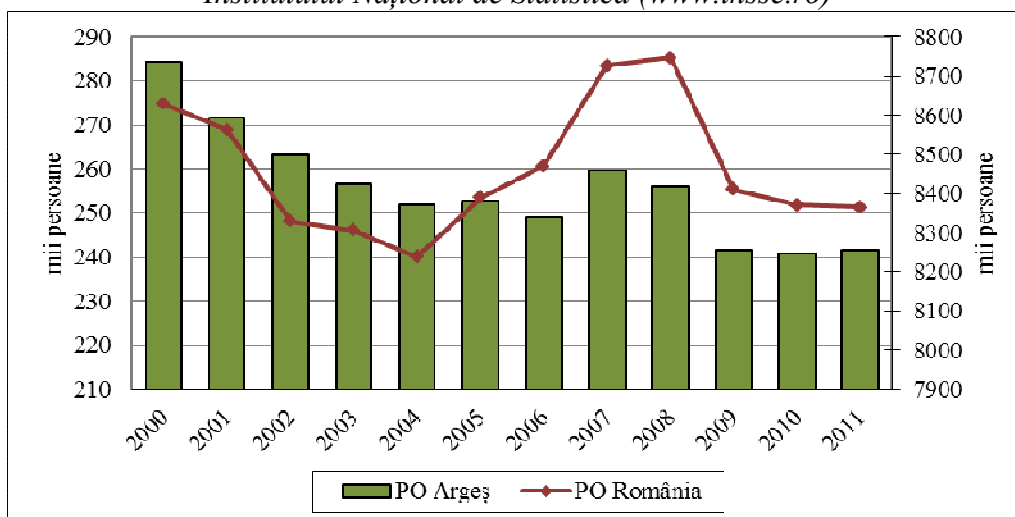
Analiza evoluției PIB/locuitor (lei/locuitor) pune în evidență faptul că efectele crizei economice internaționale s-au resimțit în județul Argeș cu un an întârziere (2009 față de 2008), aspect care demonstrează forța economică a județului (Figura 1).

Figura 1. Evoluția PIB/locuitor, în perioada 1995 – 2010, grafice realizate pe baza datelor din Tabelul 1



Pe fondul restructurărilor economice, numărul persoanelor ocupate din județul Argeș a scăzut în perioada 2000-2011, însă evoluția acestui fenomen a urmărit trendul național, așa cum se poate observa în figura nr.2.

Figura 2 – Evoluția populației ocupate (PO) în județul Argeș și în România, grafice realizate pe baza datelor de la Direcția Județeană de Statistică Argeș (www.arges.insse.ro) și Institutului Național de Statistică (www.insse.ro)



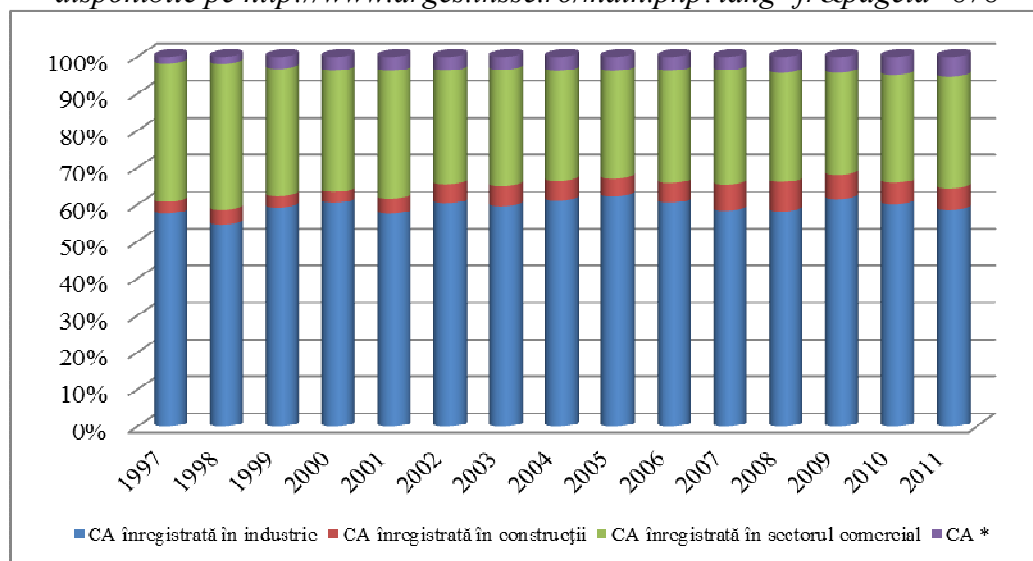
În județul Argeș, în perioada 1991-2011, au fost înregistrate 1873 de societăți comerciale cu participare străină la capital, reprezentând 1,07% din numărul total de societăți comerciale cu participare străină la capital înregistrate la nivel național. La dispoziția acestora s-a subscris un capital social de 706.628 mii euro, reprezentând 2,35% din totalul capitalului social străin subscris la nivel național.

Județul Argeș, deși are un număr relativ redus de societăți cu participare străină la capital (1873), care îl plasează pe locul al 17-lea din acest punct de vedere, ocupă **locul al 8-lea** ca valoare a capitalului social subscris, conform datelor disponibile la Oficiul Național al Registrului Comerțului.

În perioada 2002-2011, numărul societăților comerciale active a crescut cu 43,16%, întreprinderile mici deținând ponderea cea mai ridicată în totalul societăților comerciale active (peste 85%). Până în 2010 ponderea întreprinderilor mici a avut un trend crescător (în medie anual cu 0,25 puncte procentuale). În anul 2011 față de 2010, ponderea întreprinderilor mici a scăzut cu 2,53 puncte procentuale în favoarea întreprinderilor mijlocii și a întreprinderilor cu peste 50 salariați. În același timp, cifra de afaceri înregistrată de societățile comerciale active din județul Argeș reprezintă aproape 40% din cifra de afaceri înregistrată de societățile comerciale active din regiunea Sud-Muntenia, prezentând un trend crescător în perioada 1997-2011 (Direcția Județeană de Statistică ARGES).

Societățile comerciale care desfășoară activități în industrie au înregistrat cea mai mare parte din cifra de afaceri totală din județul Argeș (peste 55%) urmate de cele care desfășoară activități în comerț (circa 30%). Nivelul de industrializare în județul Argeș este mai mare decât cel înregistrat în Regiunea Sud-Muntenia (unde ponderea cifrei de afaceri înregistrată de societățile comerciale cu activități în industrie este mai mică de 50% în total) sau în economia românească (unde ponderea cifrei de afaceri înregistrată de societățile comerciale cu activități în industrie este mai mică de 30% în total) (Figura 3).

Figura 3 – Evoluția cifrei de afaceri pe principalele activități economice în județul Argeș.
 Calcule proprii de pondere realizate pe baza datelor Direcției Județene de Statistică Argeș,
 disponibile pe <http://www.arges.insse.ro/main.php?lang=fr&pageid=878>



* Cifra de afaceri înregistrată în sectorul: transport, depozitare, poștă și telecomunicații

Ca urmare a rezultatelor economice favorabile, pe parcursul perioadei 1991-2011, veniturile și cheltuielile bugetului local al județului Argeș au înregistrat frecvent o dinamică superioară față de nivelul național.

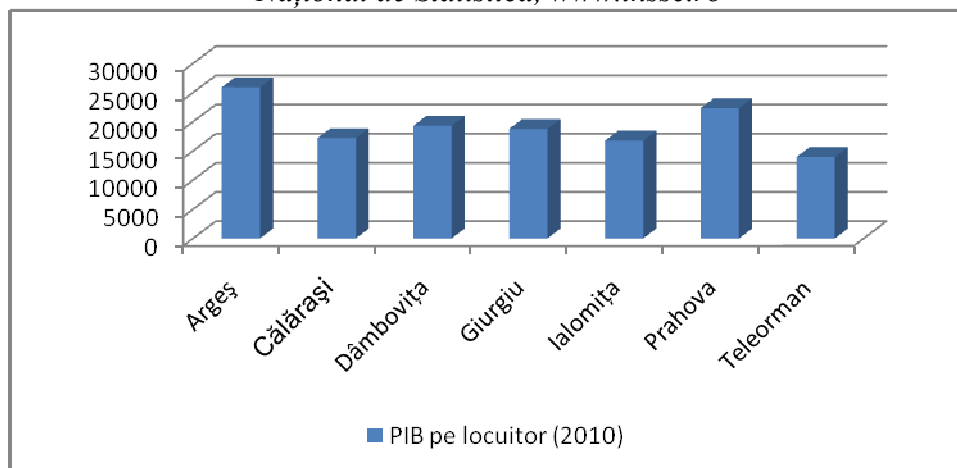
Prin urmare, profilul și performanța generală a economiei județului Argeș se pot sintetiza prin:

- nivel de industrializare ridicat, comparativ cu restul regiunii sau cu media înregistrată la nivel național;
- grad de atractivitate investițională sporit față de restul regiunii sau media înregistrată la nivel național;
- rezultate economice mult mai bune decât cele înregistrate la nivel național;

- disponibil suficient de forță de muncă;
- dinamica accelerată a numărului de întreprinderi;
- volum de resurse financiare publice la nivel local peste media națională.

În anul 2010, la nivelul regiunii de dezvoltare economică 3 Sud-Muntenia județul Argeș se situa pe primul loc din punctul de vedere al rezultatelor economice.

Figura 4 – PIB/locuitor (2010), figură realizată după date prelucrate ale Institutului Național de Statistică, www.insse.ro

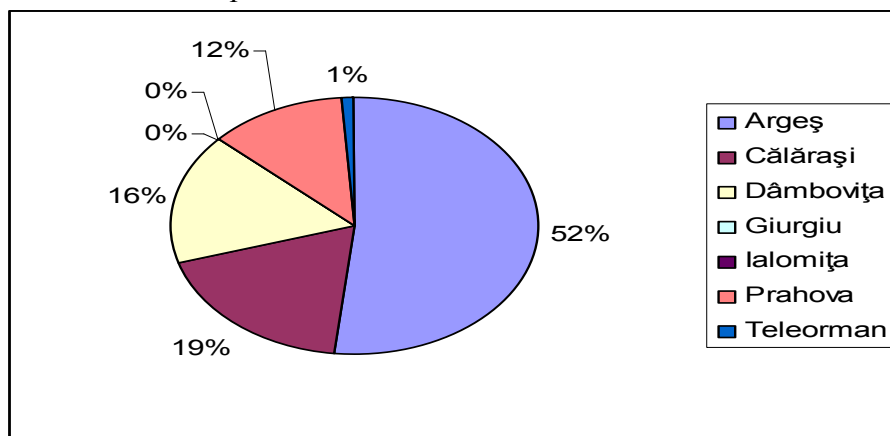


Un indicator relevant al nivelului de dezvoltare economică a unui județ este numărul de înmatriculări noi de vehicule rutiere pentru transportul pasagerilor și pentru transportul mărfurilor. La categoria autoturisme, județul Argeș ocupă prima poziție cu mai mult de o treime din totalul înregistrat la nivelul Regiunii Sud Muntenia, iar la categoria vehicule rutiere pentru transportul mărfurilor poziția a 2-a, după județul Prahova (date prelucrate după statistica Direcției Regim Permise de Conducere și Înmatriculare a MAI, disponibile pe <http://www.drpciv.ro/info-portal/displayStatistics.do?resetForm=true>).

2. Activitatea de cercetare-dezvoltare și inovare în județul Argeș

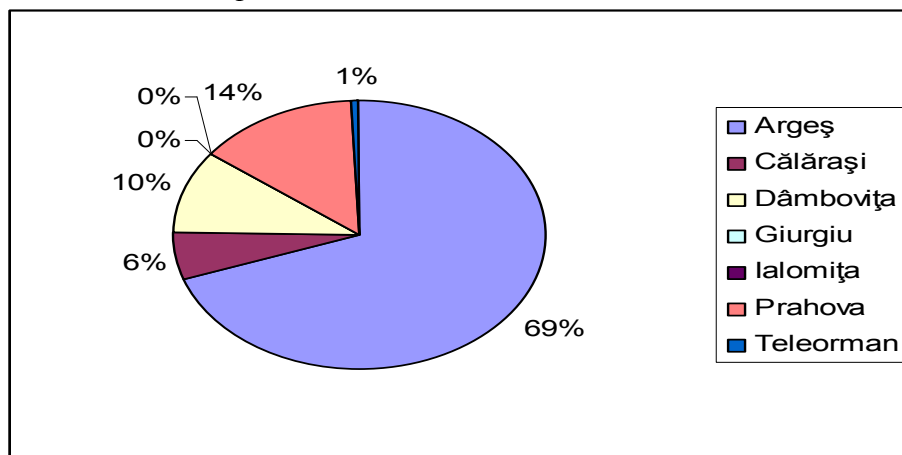
La nivelul Regiunii Sud Muntenia, județul Argeș a înregistrat cele mai mari cheltuieli pentru activitatea de cercetare-dezvoltare în anul 2011. Județul Argeș deține 51,71% din numărul total de salariați în activitatea de cercetare-dezvoltare la nivelul Regiunii Sud Muntenia (Figura 5).

Figura 5 – Distribuția pe județe a salariaților din activitatea de cercetare-dezvoltare la nivelul regiunii de dezvoltare Sud Muntenia (2011), grafic realizat pe baza datelor prelucrate de la INS, www.insse.ro



În privința cercetătorilor, aceștia sunt concentrați în județul Argeș în proporție de 69,57%. De asemenea, județul Argeș se află pe primul loc și în privința numărului de salariați în activitatea de cercetare-dezvoltare la 10000 persoane civile ocupate cu un procent aflat cu mult peste media regiunii (Figura 6).

Figura 6 – Distribuția pe județe a cercetătorilor din activitatea de cercetare-dezvoltare la nivelul regiunii de dezvoltare Sud Muntenia (2011), grafic realizat pe baza datelor prelucrate de la INS, www.insse.ro

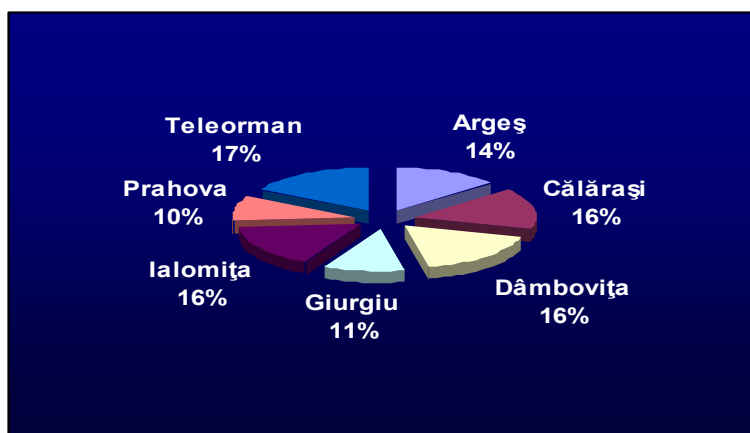


Se observă din situațiile prezentate potențialul mare al județului Argeș în domeniul cercetării și dezvoltării, principalele centre de cercetare fiind: *Institutul de Cercetări Nucleare Mioveni*, *Institutul de Cercetare și Dezvoltare Pomicolă Pitești- Mărăcineni* și *Uzina Dacia Renault*.

3. Valoarea producției agricole

Pe total agricultură, județul Argeș se situează pe locul 5 în România, dar diferențele față de celelalte județe nu sunt semnificative. Trebuie ținut cont de faptul că județul Argeș are un relief care se împarte în mod aproximativ egal între munți, dealuri și câmpie, spre deosebire de județele din sudul regiunii de dezvoltare care au numai relief de câmpie. Este de remarcat ponderea mare a producției obținute de exploatațiile individuale din județul Argeș, dar și în județele Dâmbovița și Teleorman ceea ce demonstrează investiții scăzute în sectorul privat al agriculturii. Grafic, distribuția pe județe a valorii producției vegetale pe total agricultură din Regiunea Sud Muntenia se prezintă astfel (Figura 7):

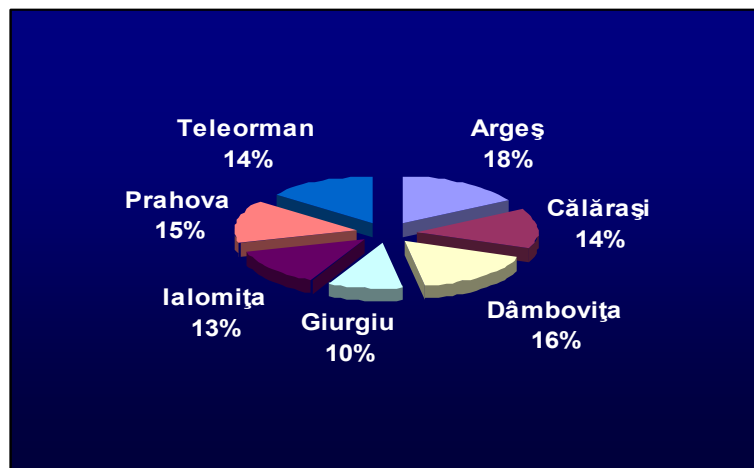
Figura 7 – Distribuția pe județe a valorii producției vegetale pe total agricultură din regiunea Sud Muntenia (2011), grafic realizat pe baza datelor prelucrate de la INS, www.insse.ro



În privința producției animale, pe total agricultură la nivelul Regiunii de dezvoltare Sud Muntenia, județul Argeș realizează cea mai mare producție comparativ cu celelalte județe, având o pondere de 18% din producția regiunii (Figura 8).

Figura 8 – Distribuția pe județe a valorii producției animale pe total agricultură din Regiunea Sud Muntenia (2011), grafic realizat pe baza datelor prelucrate de la INS,

www.insse.ro

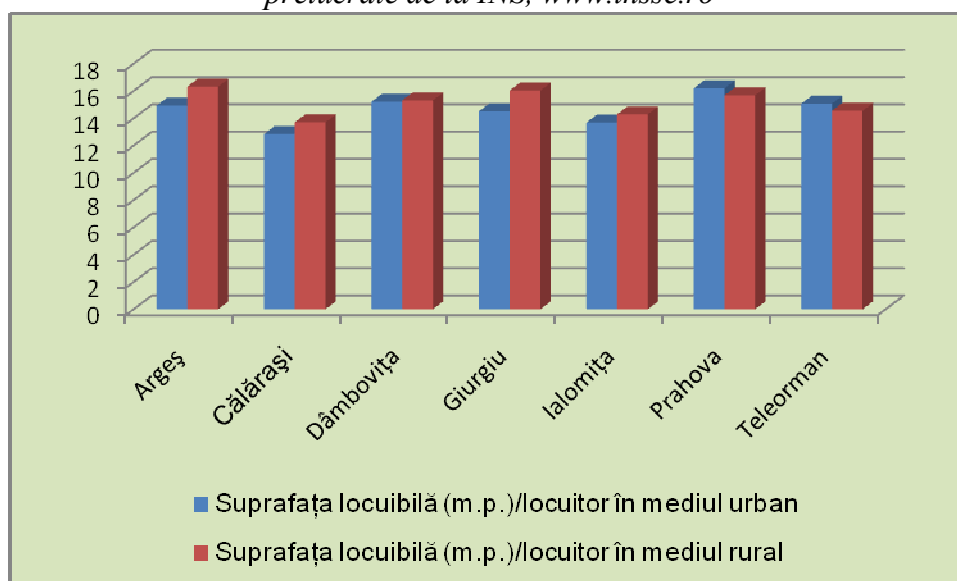


4. Confortul locuirii și echiparea teritoriului

La nivelul Regiunii Sud Muntenia, confortul locuirii, apreciat în funcție de suprafața locuibilă/locuitor, înregistrează cel mai ridicat nivel în județul Prahova, urmat de județul Argeș (pentru toate mediile de rezidență). Având în vedere numai mediul rural, confortul locuirii prezintă cel mai ridicat nivel în județul Argeș. Circa 30% din numărul localităților argeșene din mediul rural beneficiază de rețele de distribuție a gazelor naturale.

Județul Argeș dispune de cea mai extinsă rețea de drumuri publice, reprezentând mai mult de 35% din totalul existent la nivelul Regiunii Sud Muntenia.

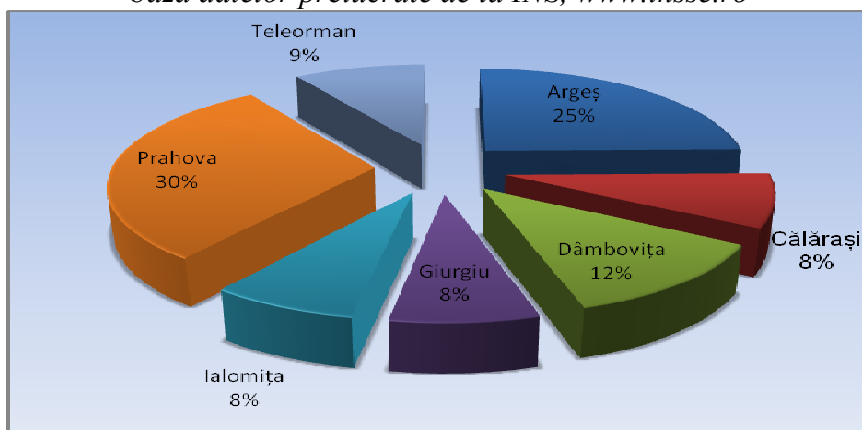
Figura 9 – Suprafața locuibilă (m.p.)/locuitor în anul 2011, grafic realizat pe baza datelor prelucrate de la INS, *www.insse.ro*



5. Statistica întreprinderilor

Din cele 49587 de întreprinderi active din Regiunea Sud-Muntenia, în județul Argeș se găsesc 12271 întreprinderi active (24,75%) (ocupă locul 2 în regiune), iar din cele 51442 unități locale active, 12710 unități (24,71%) sunt în județul Argeș (locul 2 în regiune).

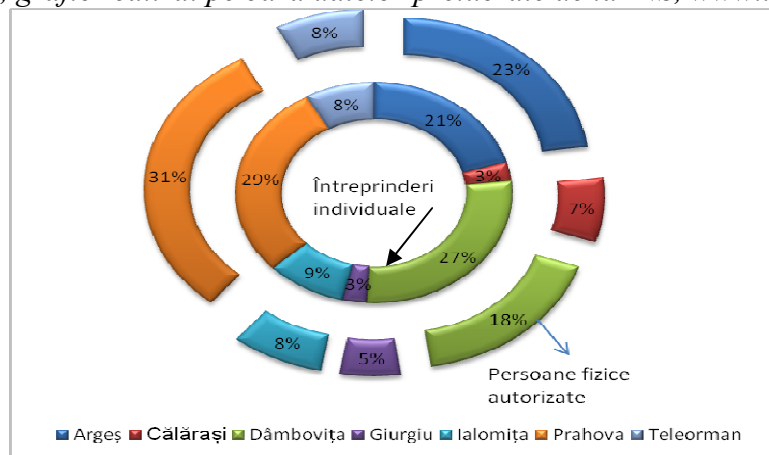
Figura 10 – Întreprinderi active în Regiunea Sud-Muntenia (anul 2011), grafic realizat pe baza datelor prelucrate de la INS, www.insse.ro



Aproximativ 21% (463 întreprinderi familiale) din întreprinderile familiale din Regiunea Sud-Muntenia își desfășoară activitatea în județul Argeș. Din cele 32009 persoane independente din Regiunea Sud-Muntenia, 7336 persoane independente (23%) se găsesc în județul Argeș, conform datelor disponibile prin Oficiul Național al Registrului Comerțului.

Județul Argeș ocupă locul 3 în regiune în ceea ce privește întreprinderile familiale și locul 2 în cazul persoanelor independente (Figura 11).

Figura 11 – Numărul întreprinzătorilor privați pe tipuri de întreprinzători și județe (anul 2011), grafic realizat pe baza datelor prelucrate de la INS, www.insse.ro



În județul Argeș, întreprinderile active care își desfășoară activitatea în domeniile agricultură, silvicultură și pescuit reprezintă 15,09% din totalul întreprinderilor active înregistrate pe Regiunea Sud-Muntenia. Unitățile locale active din județul Argeș reprezintă 14,83% din cele 2806 unități locale active ale Regiunii Sud-Muntenia. Județul Argeș ocupă locul 4 în regiune atât în cazul întreprinderilor active cât și în cazul unităților locale active din agricultură, silvicultură și pescuit.

Atât întreprinderile active cât și unitățile locale active ale județului Argeș ce își desfășoară activitatea în industria extractivă, reprezintă aproximativ 20% din întreprinderile

active și unitățile locale active ale Regiunii Sud-Muntenia. În ceea ce privește numărul de întreprinderi active din industria extractivă, județul Argeș ocupă locul 2 după județul Prahova.

În județul Argeș se găsesc 1397 întreprinderi active și 1458 unități locale active cu domeniul de activitate în industria prelucrătoare, reprezentând în ambele cazuri 29% din total. În funcție de numărul de întreprinderi și unități locale active cu domeniul de activitate în industria prelucrătoare, județul Argeș ocupă locul 2 în Regiunea Sud-Muntenia.

Din cele 4949 întreprinderi cu domeniul de activitate în construcții, 23,28% își desfășoară activitatea în județul Argeș. Aproximativ 23% din unitățile locale cu domeniul de activitate în construcții își desfășoară activitatea în județul Argeș. Județul Argeș ocupă locul 2 în domeniul construcțiilor.

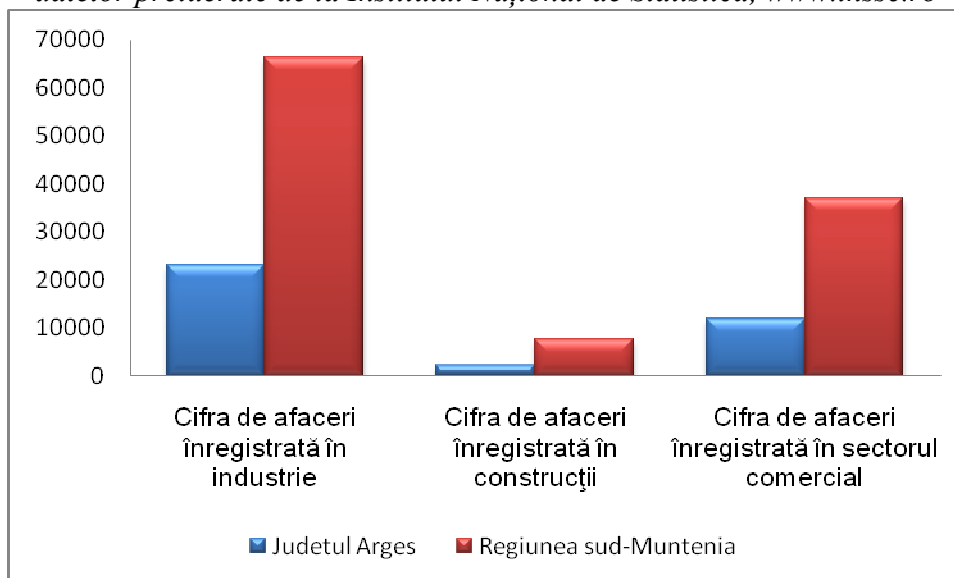
În județul Argeș se găsesc 4916 întreprinderi cu domeniul de activitate în comerț reprezentând 23,88% din întreprinderile Regiunii Sud-Muntenia, iar unitățile locale cu domeniul de activitate în comerț reprezintă 23,91% (5130 unități locale), conform datelor disponibile la (Oficiul Național al Registrului Comerțului).

În județul Argeș se înregistrează 27,22% din întreprinderile active cu domeniul de activitate în transport. În domeniul transporturilor, județul Argeș ocupă primul loc în regiune. Unitățile locale active, din județul Argeș, cu domeniul de activitate în transport au o pondere de 27,02% în regiune.

În județul Argeș se găsesc aproximativ 28% din întreprinderile active în domeniul hoteluri și restaurante, ocupând locul al 2-lea la nivelul Regiunii Sud Muntenia, după județul Prahova. Județul Argeș ocupă aceeași poziție și din punctul de vedere al activității în domeniul Intermedieri financiare și asigurări (Oficiul Național al Registrului Comerțului).

Mai mult de o treime din cifra de afaceri realizată de către societățile comerciale din Regiunea Sud-Muntenia provine din județul Argeș. Cifra de afaceri realizată de societățile comerciale cu activități în industrie reprezintă 37% din cifra de afaceri realizată de societățile comerciale din Regiunea Sud-Muntenia (Figura 12).

Figura 12 – Cifra de afaceri a societăților comerciale (anul 2011), grafic realizat pe baza datelor prelucrate de la Institutul Național de Statistică, www.insse.ro



6. Capacitatea de cazare turistică

Județul Argeș are un potențial turistic însemnat, dar insuficiența infrastructurii rutiere din nordul județului (zona muntoasă) a întârziat fluxurile de capital investițional în acest domeniu.

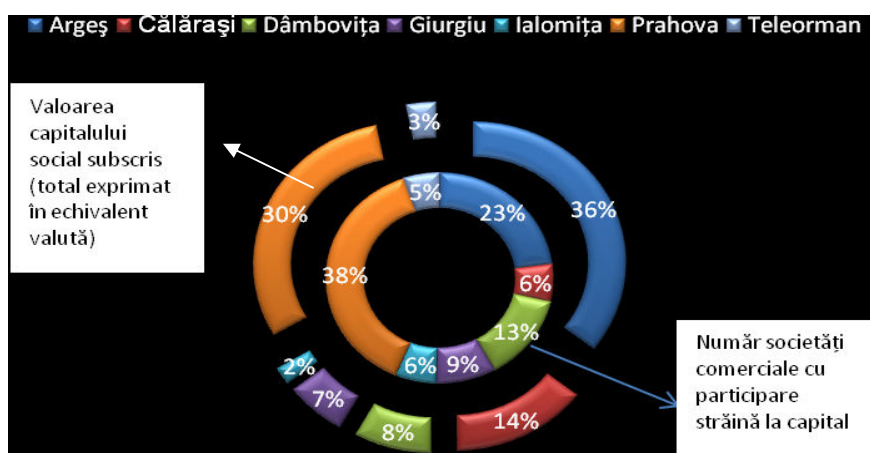
Capacitatea de cazare turistică din județul Argeș reprezintă doar aproape jumătate din cea a județului Prahova. Situația este bună, având în vedere că, din punct de vedere turistic, Valea Prahovei este cea mai atractivă regiune turistică din spațiul montan românesc.

7. Investiții străine directe

Județul Argeș a reprezentat o destinație importantă a investițiilor străine directe, care s-au localizat cu predilecție în industria construcțiilor de mașini (Figura 13).

Având în vedere valoarea capitalului social subscris (total exprimat în echivalent valută) de către societățile comerciale cu participare străină la capital, județul Argeș se situează pe primul loc în cadrul Regiunii Sud Muntenia, devansând județul Prahova.

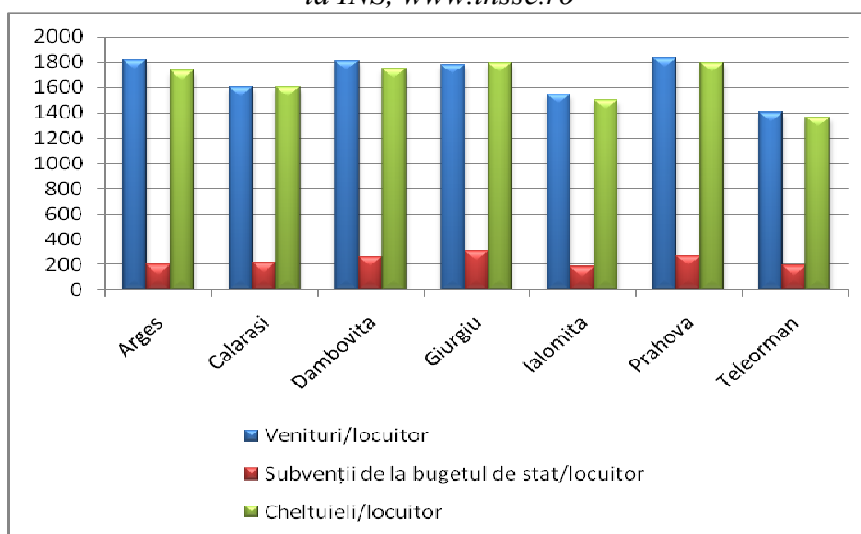
Figura 13 – Societăți comerciale cu participare străină la capital și valoarea capitalului social subscris, în perioada 1991 – 2011, sold existent la 31 Decembrie 2011, grafic realizat prin prelucrarea datelor ONRC, disponibile pe www.onrc.ro



8. Execuția bugetelor locale

Execuția bugetelor locale oferă informații importante despre cu privire la posibilitățile autorităților publice locale de a satisface nevoile comunităților locale, în conformitate cu responsabilitățile și atribuțiile lor (Figura 14).

Figura 14 – Execuția bugetelor locale (2011), grafic realizat pe baza datelor prelucrate de la INS, www.insse.ro



Din punctul de vedere al veniturilor bugetului local/locuitor, județul Prahova ocupă locul 1, urmat de județul Argeș, la o diferență foarte mică (20 lei/locuitor).

În cadrul Regiunii Sud Muntenia, județul Argeș a înregistrat cel mai mare excedent bugetar, fapt ce demonstrează că autoritățile publice utilizează resursele financiare publice cu prudență și în condiții de eficiență.

9. Fonduri Europene

Esențială în evoluția economică a județului Argeș a fost absorbția fondurilor europene. Prin **Programul Național pentru Dezvoltare Rurală** au fost contractate un număr de **38 de proiecte**, cu o valoare totală de **11.520.270,43 lei**, astfel:

- Măsura 3.2.2. Dezvoltarea satelor - **17 proiecte - 8.188.547,55 lei**
- Măsura 3.1.3 Turism rural - **8 proiecte - 316.011,55 lei**
- Măsura 1.2.5. Dezvoltarea agriculturii și silviculturii - **13 proiecte - 3.015.711,33 lei**

Prin **Programul Operational Regional** au fost contractate un număr de **72 de proiecte** cu o valoare totală de **653.540.139,25 lei** astfel:

- Axa Prioritară 1 Sprijinirea dezvoltării durabile a orașelor - **12 proiecte - 170.668.142,91 lei;**
- Axa Prioritară 2 Îmbunătățirea infrastructurii de transport - **5 proiecte - 162.916.497,02 lei**
- Axa Prioritară 3 Îmbunătățirea infrastructurii sociale - **26 proiecte - 139.102.182,26 lei**
- Axa Prioritară 5 Dezvoltarea durabilă și promovarea turismului - **29 proiecte - 180.853.317,06 lei**

„Managementul integrat al deșeurilor solide în județul Argeș”, finanțat în 2 etape:

1. etapa I finanțată prin Măsura ISPA – 2005, finalizată la 31.12.2011.

• Valoarea proiectului = **33.136.303 euro.**

2. etapa a II-a (finanțată de FADR)

• Valoarea proiectului = **20.325.386 euro, în curs de realizare.**

10. Concluzii

Având în vedere criteriile de cercetare utilizate, se observă faptul că județul Argeș se situează pe primul loc în regiunea din care face parte în cazul următorilor indicatori: PIB/locuitor, activitatea de cercetare-dezvoltare și inovare, valoarea producției animale, confortul locuirii în mediul urban, rețeaua de drumuri publice, numărul de întreprinderi pentru ramura transport și depozitare, valoarea capitalului social subscris (exprimat în echivalent valută) de către societățile comerciale cu participare străină la capital și valoarea excedentului bugetului local. Pentru majoritatea celorlalți indicatori analizați, județul Argeș ocupă locul al II-lea în regiune, după județul Prahova, dar la valori peste media națională. Chiar dacă din punctul de vedere al numărului de întreprinderi județul Prahova devansează județul Argeș, cifra de afaceri înregistrată de societățile comerciale active din județul Argeș reprezintă aproape 40% din cifra de afaceri înregistrată de societățile comerciale active din regiunea Sud-Muntenia, județul Argeș situându-se pe prima poziție din acest punct de vedere.

Societățile comerciale care desfășoară activități în industrie au înregistrat cea mai mare parte din cifra de afaceri totală din județul Argeș (peste 55%) urmate de cele care desfășoară activități în comerț (circa 30%). Gradul de industrializare în județul Argeș este mai mare decât cel înregistrat în Regiunea Sud-Muntenia (unde ponderea cifrei de afaceri înregistrată de societățile comerciale cu activități în industrie este mai mică de 50% în total) sau în economia românească (unde ponderea cifrei de afaceri înregistrată de societățile comerciale cu activități în industrie este mai mică de 30% în total).

Din punctul de vedere al nivelului de dezvoltare economică (având în vedere multiplele fațete ale acesteia: prosperitatea materială - PIB/locuitor, situația mediului antreprenorial, atractivitatea pentru investitorii străini, situația infrastructurii, nivelul veniturilor populației etc), există discrepanțe importante între cele două județe polarizante din nordul Regiunii (Argeș și Prahova) și județele din sudul Regiunii (Călărași, Ialomița și Teleorman), caracterizate prin valori foarte scăzute ale indicatorilor privind nivelul de dezvoltare și potențial economic. Slaba

dezvoltare a infrastructurii tehnico-edilitare din județele respective afectează dezvoltarea generală a comunităților, inclusiv a mediului de afaceri, precum și calitatea vieții.

Actuala componență a Regiunii Sud Muntenia trebuie să se modifice, deoarece în cei șapte ani de existență nivelul de dezvoltare economică al județelor nu s-a uniformizat.

Problemele economice deosebite existente la nivelul județelor din sudul Regiunii (unde riscul de sărăcie sau de excludere socială depășește media națională) generează o abordare distinctă a regionalizării. Se impune crearea unor regiuni de dezvoltare economică mai mici care asigură o adaptare mai bună a proiectelor la necesitățile comunităților locale, prin flexibilitate. Aceste regiuni trebuie să prezinte un caracter „mixt”, adică să includă județe puternic dezvoltate, județe dezvoltate la nivel mediu și județe sărace.

Prin dezvoltarea turismului în zonă se vor crea debușee importante pentru producătorii agricoli din județele sudice - județe cu economii preponderent agricole, ale căror produse ar putea fi valorificate superior printr-o productivitate agricolă competitivă și eficientă. Veniturile mai mari generate de activitățile industriale din județele Argeș și Dâmbovița creează premisele constituirii resurselor financiare necesare pentru cofinanțarea proiectelor pentru dotarea tehnică corespunzătoare și exploatarea eficientă a resurselor naturale ale județelor din zonă.

Investițiile străine directe din industria construcțiilor de mașini din județul Argeș pot avea un efect multiplicator asupra economiilor județelor învecinate (aspect demonstrat prin experiența aferentă județului Dâmbovița), iar centrul universitar Pitești oferă o gamă largă de specializări în domenii umaniste, politehnice, economice, drept, sport, teologie, matematică-informatică etc., astfel încât reședința județului Argeș poate furniza toate categoriile de forță de muncă specializată.

Județul Argeș se situează la intersecția unor coridoare de transport rutier foarte importante, iar odată cu realizarea unor proiecte de infrastructură de interes național: autostrada Pitești-Craiova și autostrada Pitești-Sibiu, orașul Pitești ar putea deveni al doilea nod rutier al țării, după București. Prin urmare, oportunitățile de afaceri în județul Argeș au perspective foarte bune, iar poziția orașului Pitești ca pol de dezvoltare economică se va întări în perioada următoare.

Economia județului și a regiunii depinde decisiv de activitatea uzinei Dacia-Renault de la Mioveni, companie care se află în ultimii ani pe primul loc în topul celor mai mari exportatori români, peste 90% din producția acesteia luând drumul pietelor străine. Mai mult, numai în județul Argeș sunt peste 40 de companii care furnizează piese pentru autovehiculele Dacia, iar numărul de angajați al acestora depășește 10.000 de persoane (Ziarul financiar, <http://www.zf.ro/zf-24/cum-arata-economia-din-arges-capitala-exportului-romanesc-judetul-cu-un-pib-per-capita-de-7-450-de-euro-cu-9-peste-medie-12058302>). 12 dintre cele mai mari 20 de firme din județul Argeș lucrează în industria auto sau a componentelor auto și se regăsesc printre furnizorii Dacia-Renault. La fabrica de autoturisme propriu-zisă lucrează 13.719 oameni, iar pe poarta uzinei intră săptămânal 1900 de camioane cu piese și materii prime, iar alte 550 de autocamioane pleacă din fabrică încărcate cu vehicule în același interval de timp, cele mai multe traversând Valea Oltului către granița de Vest. Astfel, drumul Pitești-Sibiu a devenit în ultimii ani cel mai aglomerat din țară, impunându-se cu necesitate și rapiditate construcția unei autostrăzi pe această rută, lucru așteptat cu mult interes de către grupul Dacia-Renault și, de altfel, de către economia întregii zone.

În viziunea Strategiei Europa 2020 (http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/index_ro.htm), creșterea Uniunii Europene va fi una inteligentă, punându-se un accent deosebit pe activitatea de cercetare - dezvoltare și inovare. Locul 1 pe care județul Argeș îl ocupă la nivelul Regiunii Sud-Muntenia în acest domeniu va contribui la exploatarea și amplificarea punctele forte de care beneficiază Regiunea a cărei pol de dezvoltare va fi, creând, astfel, fundamentul economic care susține calitatea vieții cetățenilor regiunii.

Volumul ridicat al activităților industriale înregistrat la nivelul județului Argeș va avea un rol important în asigurarea bunăstării economice a Regiunii, contribuind la creșterea durabilă și reprezentând o sursă de locuri de muncă atractive.

Într-o succintă analiză SWOT a județului Argeș, ținând cont de poziționarea acestuia la nivelul regiunii și al țării, ar trebui remarcate următoarele:

Puncte tari

- existența unui mediu de afaceri dinamic la nivel de regiune, dar mai ales de județ, fiind principalul pol de export al României, dar și extrem de performant la capitolul valoare adăugată;
- existența unui climat investițional favorabil atât pentru agenții economici autohtoni, cât și pentru cei străini;
- existența unor societăți private reprezentative, cu capital majoritar străin, dintre care se distinge ca importanță Grupul Dacia-Renault și partenerii săi economici.

Puncte slabe

- acces dificil la finanțare, în special în mediul rural, acest neajuns fiind însă caracteristic întregii economii românești.

Oportunități

- posibilitatea sporirii investițiilor străine directe;
- posibilitatea adaptării ușoare a majorității firmelor la schimbările mediului economic;
- dezvoltarea antreprenoriatului, ca mijloc de creștere a indicatorilor de producție și a ratei de ocupare a forței de muncă;
- modernizarea județului Argeș, și în special a zonelor rurale, în urma finalizării procesului de descentralizare administrativă și financiară.

Amenințări

- vulnerabilitatea majorității firmelor argeșene (și românești, în general) la competiția pe piețele globalizate, dar și în contextul sporirii exigențelor consumatorilor contemporani.

Așadar, cu o populație de peste 600.000 de locuitori și un PIB per capita de 7.450 de euro, cu 9% mai mare față de media națională (Ziarul financiar, <http://www.zf.ro/zf-24/cum-arata-economia-din-arges-capitala-exportului-romanesc-judetul-cu-un-pib-per-capita-de-7-450-de-euro-cu-9- peste-medie-12058302>), județul Argeș are potențialul de resurse de a se dezvolta în continuare, cu accent pe domeniul industriei constructoare de mașini, principala ramură contribuatoare la exportul județului și la valoarea adăugată pe care acesta o generează.

Bibliografie:

1. Bari, Ioan, „Globalizarea economiei”, Editura Economică, București, 2005
2. Berinde, Mihai; Giurgiu, Adriana, „Aderarea României la Uniunea Europeană”, Editura Universității din Oradea, 2005
3. Stănciulescu, Gabriela; Micu, Cristina, „Economia turismului”, Editura Universității din Pitești, Pitești, 2009
4. ***Agenția de Dezvoltare Regională Sud Muntenia, „Analiza Economică a Regiunii Sud Muntenia”, Călărași, februarie 2013
5. ***MADR, Programul Național de Dezvoltare Rurală 2007-2013, București, martie 2009
6. ***Strategia de dezvoltare teritorială a României, Studii de fundamentare, 2014
7. www.insse.ro
8. www.onrc.ro
9. www.adrmuntenia.ro
10. www.arges.insse.ro
11. www.cjarges.ro
12. www.finantearges.ro
13. www.jurnalul.ro
14. www.zf.ro
15. www.aoaarges.ro
16. www.bnr.ro
17. http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/index_ro.htm

EFFECTS OF THE EUROPEAN ENERGY UNION FOR NATURAL GAS MARKET IN ROMANIA

Mihaela, Ionescu-Sas¹

Abstract

This paper is the second part of a study on the European Energy Union formation on the energy market in Romania. This second analysis refers to the natural gas market. The author addresses the issue of security of gas supplies to EU countries, dependence on one supplier and the difference in gas import price. A more detailed analysis will be carried out on the interconnection of natural gas markets in the European Union and Romania. Finally highlights the main effects which these interconnections generates gas on the domestic market.

Keywords: Energy Package; supplier of natural gas; energy independence; interconnection; market transparency

JEL Classification: F21, O13

1. Introduction

To form the internal energy market in the European Union, during the period 1996 - 2009 were adopted three successive legislative package of measures which address market access, transparency and regulation, consumer protection, supporting interconnection and adequate levels of supply. The first package (Directive 96/92 /EC concerning common rules for the internal market in electricity and Directive 98/30 /EC concerning common rules for the internal market in natural gas) was replaced in 2003 by a second package that allowed the entry of new suppliers of gas and electricity markets of Member States and has enabled consumers (industrial consumers from 1 July 2004 households from July 1, 2007) to choose their own suppliers of gas and electricity. In April 2009, it was adopted a third package of legislative (TPE), which amends the second package aims to increase transparency of energy markets and the interconnection of national and regional markets in order to create a single European market.

2. Need formation European Energy Union

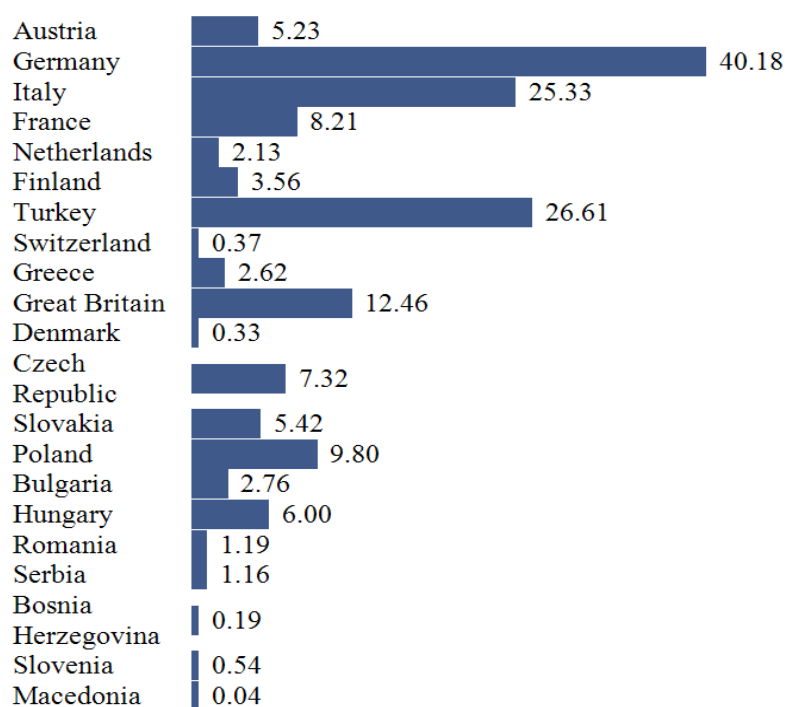
The European Union, the second largest economy in the world, consumes one-fifth of the energy produced worldwide, but has very few reserves. Energy supply is one of the main challenges facing Europe today. The prospect of a sharp increase in prices and increasing dependence on energy imports questioning the security of energy supply and threaten our entire economy.

In 2014 the European Commission proposed the European Energy Union Building which is actually the application of the Third Energy Package. It provides for transposition into national legislation of member countries of Directive 2009/72 / EC concerning common rules for the internal market in electricity and Directive 2009/73 / EC concerning common rules the internal gas market. All EU countries have been virtually obliged to act together and coordinated energy (EC, 2015).

Some EU countries depend on gas imports from one major supplier. Diversification of sources and providers is an essential way of improving energy security. In 2013 the energy supply to EU member states (European Union) in Russia represented 27% of EU gas consumption (Figure 1).

¹ PhD student at the University of Oradea, Graduate School of Social Sciences, Department of Economics, ss_mihaela@yahoo.com

Figure 1: Gas supplied by Gazprom in 2013 (bcm)



Source: Gazprom

In the 2014 Communication (COM, 2014) on European energy security strategy, the European Commission indicates that six Member States depend on Russia as the sole external supplier of gas imports and three of them use natural gas for more than a quarter of energy. Except for countries that have no other source of gas figures change every year, imports in 2013 were at a record level.

To create European Energy Union is necessary to increase the degree of interconnection between Member States, encouraged the Community objective by providing financial support more consistent and better targeted. This will be the consequence of a nearby energy prices.

3. Connecting gas markets in the European Union

Natural gas market in the European Union is fragmented due to insufficient interconnections between national energy networks and suboptimal use of existing energy infrastructure.

Europe accelerates interconnection projects and it is proposed construction of a functional gas market in Europe within a few years. Since 2009, when natural gas transit through Ukraine was halted two weeks working intensively on the North-South corridor to reduce dependence on Russian gas central European countries in general and the throughput via Ukraine, in particular.

Directive 2009/73 / EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 13 July 2009 concerning common rules for the internal market in natural gas provides an interconnected internal energy market to be competitive and functional. But the conflict in Ukraine in Eastern Europe and abuse of dominant position of Gazprom, could mean higher prices of imported gas curtailment periods or shorter or longer time.

We have made investments in interconnection, they were strengthened national networks and were built underground storage facilities in Central European countries, which significantly increased competition in the natural gas market in these countries, while increasing energy security. Interconnections and liberalization have led to competition for consumers and increase security of supply even in countries which a few years ago were heavily dependent on Russian

gas, such as Lithuania, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia. The EU made its first financial contribution towards the construction of infrastructure Central and South-Eastern Europe from the crisis Ukrainians in 2009 (Regulation EC 680/2007) which demonstrated the region's high vulnerability to disruptions of Russian gas transit flows through Ukraine.

In 2009, the EU established the European Energy Programme for Recovery (PEER) (Regulation EC 663/2009) which € 3.8 billion would be invested in various energy projects of which € 1.36 billion was designated for gas infrastructure. A significant portion of this funding was granted regional investment projects in Central and South-east, allowing the flow of „reverse” existing unidirectional gas interconnections with the construction of new interconnectors between countries where they were previously absent.

Many interconnection projects have already been completed within the PEER, including: Hungary, Croatia, Romania, Hungary, Czech Republic, Poland, Bulgaria and Romania; several projects to strengthen the domestic gas networks, which allow reverse flows have been completed in Austria, Poland, Latvia, Lithuania, Czech Republic and Slovakia. I'm almost finished interconnections Greece-Bulgaria and Slovakia-Hungary to be put into service in 2015. Some projects have experienced significant delays, reverse flow project in Romania, which includes connection of the "transit" system national natural gas (COM, 2013). PEER has also contributed towards the creation of bi-directional pipeline network in Europe and therefore a better connection between western and eastern Europe.

Russia-Ukraine crisis in 2009 gave a powerful impetus to the development of new EU legislation aimed at strengthening the security of natural gas: Security of Gas Supply Regulation (EU Regulation 994/2010) entered into force in late 2010 and Regulation on guidelines for trans-European infrastructure (EU Regulation 347/2013). It introduced minimum standards supply, placing an obligation to ensure gas supplies to protected customers in the following cases: extreme temperatures during a seven-day peak period, any period of at least 30 days of exceptionally high gas demand and for a period of at least 30 days in case of disruption of the single largest gas infrastructure (CEER, 2013). Given that additional investments in infrastructure would be needed to meet the standards of regulations in legally (although some exceptions were granted), the EU has established regular budget through the Connecting Europe Facility (CEF) to co-finance the construction of this Infrastructure € 9.1 billion earmarked for this purpose for 2014-2020. Infrastructure Regulation (EU Regulation 1316/2013) introduced a category of projects (infrastructure) of common interest (PCI), which would be eligible for funding (CEF) and has established a procedure for selection of PCIs (EU Regulation 347/2013).

4. Connecting gas market in Romania

Romania is the country with the lowest dependency on imported natural gas. Favorable geostrategic position, newly-revealed resources in the Black Sea shows that Romania could play a role in the region.

In 2014, Romania has imported a quantity of usable natural gas of 447.400 tonnes of oil equivalent (toe), 61.5% (714.100 toe) lower than the amount reported in 2013, according to data centralized by the National Statistics Institute. In this context natural gas transmission infrastructure is probably the most important factor and Romania should develop - in the shortest time possible - natural gas transport corridors that would ensure the required degree of interconnectivity at European level and sufficient transport potential valorisation of natural gas for the domestic market and on the regional. By liaising between different sources of natural gas supply and European market listed investment projects (Table 1) achieve the desires of the European Union.

Table 1: Major projects comprising Romania

No.	The Project	Importance of the project
1.	Development in Romania of the National Gas Transmission System Corridor Bulgaria-Romania-Hungary - Austria	Upon completion of the project will be a capacity to transport gas to Hungary mld.mc/an 4.4 or 1.5 mld.mc/an to Bulgaria.
2.	Development in Romania Southern Corridor Transportation for taking natural gas from the Black Sea shore	The importance of the project at EU level is the possibility to managing offshore natural gas to Bulgaria and Hungary through existing interconnectors Giurgiu - Ruse (Bulgaria) and Nădlac - Szeged (Hungary).
3.	Interconnection of the national transport system with natural gas transport pipelines International Investment worth EUR 35.5 million are found in the Central Corridor development project.	
4.	NTS Developments in the North - East of Romania to improve gas supply to the area and to ensure transmission capacity to Moldova	This project will be a capacity to transport 1.5 mld.mc/an the interconnection point between the transmission systems of Romania and Republic of Moldova
5.	Development in Romania Central Corridor natural gas transport to take over the Black Sea.	Depending on increased production from offshore Black Sea envisages further development of the network: A secondary route through the center of Romania and a new interconnection with Hungary.

Source: Transgaz

Reverse flow projects (especially Arad-Szeged), and completing the Iasi-Ungheni pipeline to export maximum capacity have been delayed several years.

Natural gas transportation infrastructure is probably the most important factor, while Romania is facing a major challenge: developing - as soon as possible - a natural gas transportation corridors that would ensure the required degree of interconnectivity at European and potential transport enough gas for the domestic market and exploitation of resources on the regional (Table 1).

The projects presented in Table 1 on the list of Projects of Common Interest (PCI) are considered for possible funding by applying to the grant program „Connecting Europe Facility 2014-2020”.

It is very important infrastructure improvements designed to take gas by pipeline from the Black Sea to the National Transmission System, as well as functional interconnections with neighboring countries and international transit pipelines (National Energy Strategy, 2015). For these investments Romania must fulfill the conditions for accessing European funds available for energy infrastructure projects and connecting markets.

5. Conclusion

Romania is the country with the natural gas market developed. Adding to this landscape, in addition to favorable geostrategic position, newly-revealed resources in the Black Sea, Romania could clearly play a role in the region.

Natural gas transportation infrastructure is probably the most important factor, and Romania is now facing a major challenge: developing - as soon as possible - a natural gas transportation corridors that would ensure the required degree of interconnectivity in Europe and sufficient potential for harnessing gas transmission resources on the regional and national market.

Amid significant dependence on the European market of energy resources imports from Russia and Middle East, the role of recently discovered natural gas reserves in the Black Sea is undoubtedly the major energy security of Romania to strengthen Romania's position as an important player in the EU as manufacturer and exporter of energy to the country's inclusion on the major paths of European gas transport and increase economic welfare in the future.

Romania's capability to transform and be ready in the coming years to meet the demands generated with gas resources will be one of the biggest challenges in decades. Ability to execute this investment program will not only ensure exploitation of economic resources essential for the welfare of Romania in the near and distant future but it will be an incentive to attract foreign investors with investment projects estimated at 1.51 billion euros, projects which will result in the creation of new transport corridors essential not only to capitalize on the local and regional markets recently discovered gas resources in the Black Sea, but also for Romania on major cross-border routes of Southeast Corridor / Northwest Europe.

Acknowledgment

This paper has been financially supported within the project entitled „SOCERT. Knowledge society, dynamism through research”, contract number POSDRU/159/1.5/S/132406. This project is co-financed by European Social Fund through Sectoral Operational Programme for Human Resources Development 2007-2013. Investing in people !

Bibliography:

1. CEER, *Annual Report on the Results of Monitoring the Internal Electricity and Natural Gas Markets* 2013.
2. European Commission. 2015 *European Energy Security Strategy*.
3. *Council Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions - prices and energy costs in Europe*, (COM, 2014), Brussels, 23 January 2014.
4. European Commission 2013, *Commission Regulation of 14.10.2013 amending Reg. (EU) No 347/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council on guidelines for trans-European energy infrastructure in the Union list of projects of common interest*.
5. *The European Commission Regulation 347/2013 on guidelines for trans-European energy infrastructure*, OJ L 115, 25.4.2013.
6. *The European Commission Regulation 1316/2013 establishing the Connecting Europe Facility*, OJ L 348, 12.20.2013.
7. *EU Commission (2013). The 2013 PCI list 'The which includes many of the Projects, particularly interconnections, already supported under the EERP, is available at http://ec.europa.eu/energy/infrastructure/pci/doc/com_2013_6766_en.pdf*.
8. *Projects EEP* see [http://ec.europa.eu/energy/eepr/projects/Report from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council, On the Implementation of the EEP, COM \(2013\) 791 final, 11.18.2013](http://ec.europa.eu/energy/eepr/projects/Report from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council, On the Implementation of the EEP, COM (2013) 791 final, 11.18.2013).
9. *Package 3 - Energy Directive (Directive 2009/72 / EC, Directive 2009/73 / EC, Regulation (EC) no. 713/2009, Regulation (EC) no. 714/2009, Regulation (EC) no. 715/2009 (TPE)*.
10. *Regulation (EC) No 680/2007 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 20 June 2007 laying down general rules for the granting of Community financial aid in the field of the trans-European transport and energy networks*, Official Journal of the European Union, 22.6.2007, L162 / 1.
11. *Regulation (EC) No 663/2009 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 13 July 2009 establishing a program to aid economic recovery by granting Community financial assistance to Projects in the field of energy*, Official Journal of the European Union, 31.7.2009, L200 / 31.
12. *Regulation (EU) 994/2010 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 20 October 2010 Concerning Measures to safeguard security of gas supply and repealing Council Directive 2004/67 / EC*, Official Journal of the European Union, 12.11.2010, L295/1.
13. *Regulation (EU) 347/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 April 2013 on guidelines for trans-European energy infrastructure and repealing Decision*

No 1364/2006 / EC and amending Regulations (EC) No 713/2009 (EC) No 714/209 and (EC) No 715/2009 Official Journal of the European Union, 04.25.2013, L115 / 39.

14. *Regulation (EU) No 1316/2013* of the European Parliament and of the Council of December 2013 Establishing the Connecting Europe Facility, amending Regulation (EU) No 913/2010 and repealing Regulations (EC) No 680/2007 and (EC) No 67/2010, Official Journal of the European Union, 20.12.2013, L348 / 129.

15. *Strategia Energetică a României pentru perioada 2015-2035*. Departamentul pentru Energie, 2015.

16. Transgaz, *Planul Național de Dezvoltare al Sistemului Național de Transport Gaze-Naturale 2014-2023*.

EFECTE ALE FORMĂRII UNIUNII ENERGETICE EUROPENE PENTRU PIAȚA DE GAZE NATURALE DIN ROMÂNIA

Mihaela, Ionescu-Sas I

Rezumat

Lucrarea reprezintă partea a doua a unei analize privind efectele formării Uniunii Energetice Europene asupra pieței de energie din România. Această analiză secundară se referă la piața de gaze naturale. Autorul abordează problema siguranței în aprovizionarea cu gaze naturale în țările Uniunii Europene, a dependenței de un singur furnizor și a diferenței la prețul de import al gazelor. O analiză mai detaliată va fi efectuată cu privire la interconectarea piețelor de gaze naturale din țările Uniunii Europene și din România. În final sunt evidențiate principalele efecte pe care aceste interconectări le generează pe piața națională de gaze naturale.

Cuvinte cheie: furnizor de gaze naturale, independență energetică, interconectări, pachet energetic, piață transparentă

Clasificare JEL: F21, O13

1. Introducere

Pentru formarea pieței interne a energiei în Uniunea Europeană, în perioada 1996–2009 au fost adoptate trei pachete legislative succesive de măsuri, care abordează accesul la piață, transparența și reglementarea, protecția consumatorilor, sprijinirea interconexiunilor și a nivelurilor adecvate de aprovizionare. Primul pachet legislativ (Directiva 96/92/CE privind normele comune pentru piața internă de energie electrică și Directiva 98/30/CE privind normele comune pentru piața internă în sectorul gazelor naturale) a fost înlocuit în 2003 de un al doilea pachet care a permis pătrunderea unor noi furnizori de gaze și de energie electrică pe piețele statelor membre și le-a permis consumatorilor (consumatorilor industriali începând de la 1 iulie 2004, consumatorilor casnici începând de la 1 iulie 2007) să își aleagă singuri furnizorii de gaze și de energie electrică. În aprilie 2009, a fost adoptat un al treilea pachet legislative (TPE), care modifică cel de-al doilea pachet, urmărește creșterea transparenței piețelor de energie și interconectarea piețelor naționale cu cele regionale în vederea formării unei piețe unice europene

2. Necesitatea formării Uniunii Energetice Europene

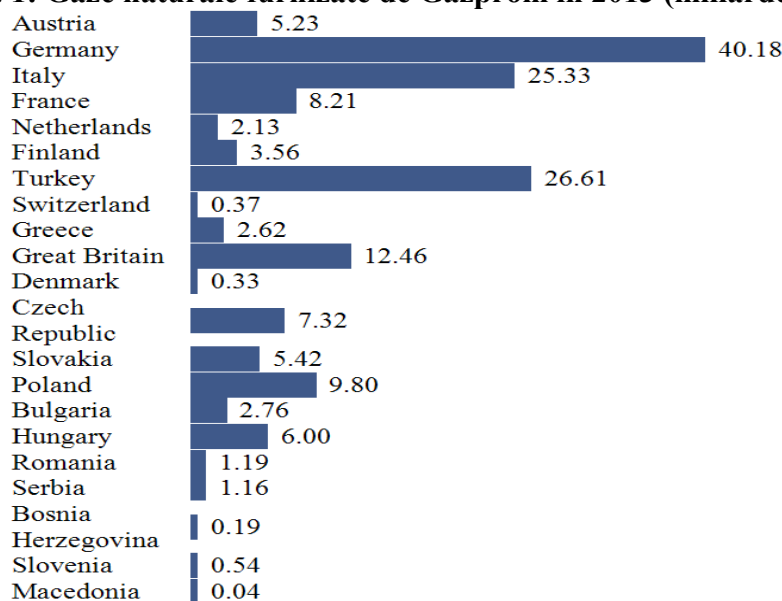
Uniunea Europeană, a doua economie din lume, consumă o cincime din energia produsă la nivel mondial, însă dispune de foarte puține rezerve. Aprovizionarea cu energie este una dintre principalele provocări cu care se confruntă Europa astăzi. Perspectiva creșterii acute a prețurilor și dependența tot mai mare de importul de energie pun sub semnul întrebării securitatea aprovizionării cu energie și ne pun în pericol întreaga economie.

În anul 2014 Comisia Europeană a propus Construirea Uniunii Energetice Europene care reprezintă, de fapt, aplicarea celui de-al treilea pachet energetic. Acesta prevede transpunerea în legislațiile naționale ale țărilor membre a Directivei 2009/72/CE privind normele comune pentru piața internă a energiei electrice, precum și a Directivei 2009/73/CE privind normele comune pentru piața internă a gazelor naturale. Toate țările UE au fost, practic, obligate să acționeze unitar și coordonat în domeniul energetic (CE, 2015).

Unele țări ale Uniunii Europene depind, pentru importurile de gaze, de un singur furnizor principal. Diversificarea surselor și a furnizorilor reprezintă o modalitate esențială de îmbunătățire a securității energetice. În anul 2013 aprovizionarea cu energie a statelor UE (Uniunii Europene) din Rusia a reprezentat 27% din consumul de gaze al UE (figura nr. 1).

¹ Doctorand la Universitatea din Oradea, Școala Doctorală de Științe Sociale, Specializarea Economie, ss_mihaela@yahoo.com

Figura nr. 1: Gaze naturale furnizate de Gazprom în 2013 (miliarde de metri cubi)



Sursa: Gazprom

În comunicarea sa din 2014 (COM, 2014) privind strategia de securitate energetică europeană, Comisia Europeană menționează că șase state membre depind de Rusia ca furnizor extern unic pentru importurile de gaz și trei dintre ele folosesc gaze naturale pentru mai mult de un sfert din necesarul de energie. Cu excepția țărilor care nu au altă sursă de gaz cifrele se schimbă în fiecare an, importurile din anul 2013 fiind la un nivel record.

Pentru a crea Uniunea Energetică Europeană este necesară creșterea gradului de interconectare între statele membre UE, obiectiv încurajat la nivel comunitar prin acordarea unui sprijin financiar mai consistent și mai bine direcționat. Aceasta va avea ca și consecință o apropiere a prețurilor la energie.

3. Interconectarea piețelor de gaze naturale din Uniunea Europeană

Piața de gaze naturale din Uniunea Europeană este fragmentată datorită interconexiunilor insuficiente între rețelele energetice naționale și a utilizării sub nivelul optim a infrastructurii energetice existente.

Europa accelerează proiectele de interconectare și există premisele construcției unei piețe de gaze funcționale la nivel european în decurs de câțiva ani. Încă din 2009, de când tranzitul de gaze naturale prin Ucraina a fost întrerupt două săptămâni, se lucrează intens la coridorul Nord-Sud ca să se reducă dependența țărilor Europei Centrale de gazul rusesc, în general, și de cel tranzitat prin Ucraina, în particular.

Directiva 2009/73/CE a Parlamentului European și a Consiliului din 13 iulie 2009 privind normele comune pentru piața internă în sectorul gazelor naturale prevede o piață internă a energiei interconectată pentru a fi competitivă și funcțională. Însa în estul Europei conflictul din Ucraina și abuzul de poziție dominantă al Gazprom, ar putea însemna prețuri mari la gazele de import sau chiar întreruperea furnizării pe perioade mai scurte sau mai lungi de timp.

S-au efectuat investiții în interconectări, au fost întărite rețelele naționale și s-au construit depozite de înmagazinare subterană în statele Europei Centrale, ceea ce a crescut semnificativ concurența în piața de gaze naturale din aceste țări, crescând totodată securitatea energetică. Interconectările și liberalizarea au dus la concurență în beneficiul consumatorilor și creșterea securității aprovizionării chiar în țări care în urmă cu câțiva ani erau foarte dependente de gazul rusesc, precum Lituania, Ungaria, Polonia sau Slovacia. UE a făcut prima sa contribuție financiară în vederea construcției de infrastructură centrală și sud-est europeană în urma crizei ucrainene

din 2009 (Regulamentul CE 680/2007) care a demonstrat vulnerabilitatea mare a regiunii la întreruperi de tranzit ale fluxurilor de gaze rusești prin Ucraina.

În 2009, UE a înființat Programul energetic european pentru redresare (PEER) (Regulamentul CE 663/2009) în care 3.8 miliarde € urmau să fie investite în diverse proiecte energetice din care 1.36 miliarde € a fost desemnate pentru infrastructura de gaze naturale. O parte semnificativă din această finanțare a fost acordată proiectelor de investiții regionale centrale și de sud-est, care să permită fluxul "invers", al gazelor la interconexiunile unidirecționale existente, împreună cu construirea de noi interconexiuni între țările în care acestea lipseau anterior.

Multe proiecte de interconectare au fost deja finalizate în cadrul PEER, inclusiv: Ungaria-Croația, România-Ungaria, Republica Polonia-Cehia, Bulgaria și România; mai multe proiecte de întărire a rețelelor de gaze pe piața internă și care permit fluxurile inverse au fost finalizate în Austria, Polonia, Letonia, Lituania, Republica Cehă și Slovacia. Sunt aproape finalizate interconexiunile Grecia-Bulgaria și Slovacia-Ungaria care urmează să fie puse în funcțiune în 2015. Unele proiecte s-au confruntat cu întârzieri semnificative, de exemplu proiectul cu flux invers în România, care include conectarea sistemului de "tranzit" pentru sistemul național de gaz natural (COM, 2013). PEER a contribuit, de asemenea, spre crearea rețelelor de conducte bidirecționale în Europa și, prin urmare, o mai bună legătură între vestul și estul Europei.

Criza Rusia-Ucraina din 2009 a dat un impuls puternic spre dezvoltarea de noi acte legislative ale UE care vizează consolidarea securității gazului natural: regulamentul privind securitatea aprovizionării cu gaze (Regulamentul UE 994/2010) intrat în vigoare la sfârșitul anului 2010, precum și regulamentul privind orientările pentru infrastructura trans-europeană (Regulamentul UE 347/2013). Acesta a introdus standarde minime de aprovizionare, plasarea obligației de a asigura aprovizionarea cu gaze a consumatorilor protejați în următoarele cazuri: temperaturi extreme în timpul unei perioade de vârf de șapte zile, orice perioadă de cel puțin 30 de zile de cerere excepțional de mare de gaz, precum și pentru o perioadă de cel puțin 30 de zile în cazul întreruperii infrastructurii unice principale de gaze (ACER, 2013). Având în vedere că investițiile suplimentare în infrastructură ar fi necesare pentru a îndeplini standardele din regulamente din punct de vedere juridic (deși au fost acordate unele excepții), UE a stabilit un buget regulat prin Mecanismul Conectarea Europei (MCE) pentru co-finanțarea construcției acestei infrastructuri de 9,1 miliarde € alocate în acest scop pentru perioada 2014-2020. Regulamentul de infrastructură (Regulamentul UE 1316/2013) a introdus o categorie de proiecte (infrastructură) de interes comun (PCI), care ar fi eligibile pentru finanțare (CEF) și a stabilit o procedură de selecție a PCIs (Regulamentul UE 347/2013).

4. Interconectarea pieței de gaze naturale din România

România este țara cu cea mai mică dependență de gaze naturale din import. Poziția geostrategică favorabilă, recent descoperitele resurse din Marea Neagră, arată că România ar putea juca un rol definitoriu în regiune.

În 2014, în România s-a importat o cantitate de gaze naturale utilizabile de 447.400 tone echivalent petrol (tep), cu 61,5% (714.100 tep) mai mică față de cantitatea raportată în 2013, conform datelor centralizate de Institutul Național de Statistică. În acest context infrastructura de transport gaze naturale devine probabil factorul cel mai important, iar România trebuie să dezvolte - în cel mai scurt timp posibil - culoare de transport gaze naturale care să asigure atât gradul necesar de interconectivitate la nivel european cât și un potențial suficient de transport gaze naturale pentru valorificarea resurselor pe piața autohtonă și pe cea regională. Prin asigurarea legăturii între surse diferite de aprovizionare cu gaze naturale și piața europeană, proiectele investiționale menționate (tabel nr.1) contribuie la realizarea dezideratelor Uniunii Europene.

Tabel nr.1: Proiecte majore din care face parte România

Nr. crt.	Proiectul	Importanța proiectului
1.	Dezvoltarea pe teritoriul României a Sistemului Național de Transport Gaze Naturale pe Coridorul Bulgaria-România-Ungaria – Austria.	La finalizarea proiectului va putea fi asigurată o capacitate de transport gaze naturale spre Ungaria de 4,4 mld.mc/an, respectiv de 1,5 mld.mc/an spre Bulgaria.
2.	Dezvoltarea pe teritoriul României a Coridorului Sudic de Transport pentru preluarea gazelor naturale de la țărmul Mării Negre.	Importanța proiectului la nivelul Uniunii Europene constă în posibilitatea dirijării gazelor naturale offshore spre Bulgaria și Ungaria prin interconectările existente Giurgiu – Ruse (cu Bulgaria) și Nădlac – Szeged (cu Ungaria).
3.	Interconectarea sistemului național de transport cu conductele de transport internațional al gazelor naturale. Investiții în valoare de 35,5 milioane euro se regăsesc și în proiectul de dezvoltare a Coridorului Central.	
4.	Dezvoltări ale SNT în zona de Nord – Est a României în scopul îmbunătățirii aprovizionării cu gaze naturale a zonei precum și a asigurării capacităților de transport spre Republica Moldova.	Prin realizarea acestui proiect, va putea fi asigurată o capacitate de transport de 1,5 mld.mc/an în punctul de interconectare dintre sistemele de transport ale României și Republicii Moldova.
5.	Dezvoltarea pe teritoriul României a Coridorului Central de transport pentru preluarea gazelor naturale de la țărmul Mării Negre.	În funcție de creșterea producției din offshore Marea Neagră se are în vedere dezvoltarea suplimentară a rețelei: O rută secundară prin centrul României și o nouă interconectare cu Ungaria.

Sursa: Transgaz

Proiectele de flux invers (în special Arad-Szeged), precum și finalizarea conductei Iași-Ungheni până la capacitatea maximă de export au fost întârziate câțiva ani.

Infrastructura de transport gaze naturale devine probabil factorul cel mai important, iar România se află în fața unei provocări majore: dezvoltarea - în cel mai scurt timp posibil - a unor culoare de transport gaze naturale care să asigure atât gradul necesar de interconectivitate la nivel european cât și un potențial suficient de transport al gazelor naturale pentru valorificarea resurselor pe piața autohtonă și pe cea regională (tabel nr. 1).

Proiectele prezentate în tabelul nr. 1 cuprinse în lista Proiectelor de Interes Comun (PCI) sunt avute în vedere pentru o potențială finanțare prin aplicarea la programul de finanțare “Connecting Europe Facility 2014-2020”.

Este foarte importantă îmbunătățirea infrastructurii prin conducta menită să preia gazul din Marea Neagră în Sistemul Național de Transport, precum și în interconectări funcționale cu țările vecine și cu conductele de tranzit internațional (Strategia energetică națională, 2015). Pentru realizarea acestor investiții România trebuie să îndeplinească condițiile pentru accesarea de fonduri europene disponibile proiectelor de infrastructură energetică și de conectare a piețelor.

5. Concluzii

România este țara cu piața de gaze naturale cea mai dezvoltată. Adăugând în acest peisaj, pe lângă poziția geostrategică favorabilă, recent descoperitele resurse din Marea Neagră, România ar putea juca în mod evident un rol definitoriu în regiune.

Infrastructura de transport gaze naturale este probabil factorul cel mai important, iar Romania se află acum în fața unei provocări majore: dezvoltarea - în cel mai scurt timp posibil - a unor culoare de transport gaze naturale care să asigure atât gradul necesar de interconectivitate la nivel european cât și un potențial suficient de transport gaze naturale pentru valorificarea resurselor pe piața autohtonă și pe cea regională.

Pe fondul dependenței semnificative a pieței europene de energie de importul de resurse energetice din Rusia și Orientul Mijlociu, rolul rezervelor de gaze naturale recent descoperite în Marea Neagră este fără îndoială major pentru siguranța energetică a României, pentru consolidarea poziției României ca un jucător important în UE, ca producător și exportator de energie, pentru includerea țării pe trasele majore de transport gaze naturale ale Europei și pentru creșterea bunăstării economice a țării în viitor.

Capabilitatea României de a se transforma și de a fi pregătită în anii ce urmează să facă față cerințelor generate de resursele gazeifere va fi una din cele mai mari provocări din ultimele decenii. Abilitatea de a executa acest program de investiții, nu numai că va asigura valorificarea unor resurse economice esențiale pentru bunăstarea României în viitorul apropiat și îndepărtat dar va fi și o motivație pentru atragerea investitorilor străini cu proiecte de investiții estimate la 1,51 miliarde euro, proiecte ce vor avea ca rezultat crearea unor noi culoare de transport esențiale nu numai pentru valorificarea pe piața autohtonă și pe piețele din regiune a resurselor de gaze naturale recent descoperite în Marea Neagră, dar și pentru integrarea României pe marile trasee transfrontaliere ale Coridorului Sud-Est/Nord-Vest al Europei.

Mulțumiri

Lucrarea a beneficiat de suport financiar prin proiectul cu titlul "SOCERT. Societatea cunoașterii, dinamism prin cercetare", număr de identificare contract POSDRU/159/1.5/S/132406. Proiectul este cofinanțat din Fondul Social European prin Programul Operațional Sectorial Dezvoltarea Resurselor Umane 2007-2013. Investește în Oameni!

Bibliografie:

1. ACER (2013), *Annual Report on the Results of Monitoring the Internal Electricity and Natural Gas Markets in 2013*.
2. Comisia Europeană (2015), *Strategia de Securitate Energetică Europeană*.
3. Consiliul Uniunii Europene (COM, 2014) *Comunicare a Comisiei către Parlamentul European, Consiliu, Comitetul Economic și Social European și Comitetul Regiunilor - Prețurile și costurile energiei în Europa*, Bruxelles, 23 ianuarie 2014.
4. Comisia Europeană (2013), *Regulamentul Comisiei din 14.10.2013 de modificare a Reg. (UE) nr 347/2013 al Parlamentului European și al Consiliului privind orientări pentru infrastructuri energetice transeuropene în ceea ce privește lista Uniunii de proiecte de interes comun*.
5. Comisia Europeană, *Regulamentul 347/2013 privind orientări pentru infrastructuri energetice transeuropene*, JO L 115, 25.4.2013.
6. Comisia Europeană, *Regulamentul 1316/2013 de instituire a Mecanismului Conectarea Europei*, JO L 348, 20.12.2013.
7. Commission EU (2013). *The 2013 PCI list' which includes many of the projects, particularly interconnections, already supported under EERP*, is available at http://ec.europa.eu/energy/infrastructure/pci/doc/com_2013_6766_en.pdf.
8. EEPR projects see <http://ec.europa.eu/energy/eepr/projects/Report> from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council, *On the implementation of the EEPR*, COM (2013) 791 final, 18.11.2013.
9. *Pachetul 3 - Energie* (Directiva 2009/72/CE, Directiva 2009/73/CE, Regulamentul(CE) nr. 713/2009, Regulamentul (CE) nr. 714/2009, Regulamentul (CE) nr. 715/2009) (TPE).

10. *Regulation (EC) 680/2007* of the European Parliament and of the Council of 20 June 2007 laying down general rules for the granting of Community financial aid in the field of the trans-European transport and energy networks, *Official Journal of the European Union*, 22.6.2007, L162/1.

11. *Regulation (EC) No 663/2009* of the European Parliament and of the Council of 13 July 2009 establishing a programme to aid economic recovery by granting Community financial assistance to projects in the field of energy, *Official Journal of the European Union*, 31.7.2009, L200/31.

12. *Regulation (EU) 994/2010* of the European Parliament and of the Council of 20 October 2010 Concerning measures to safeguard security of gas supply and repealing Council Directive 2004/67/EC, *Official Journal of the European Union*, 12.11.2010, L295/1.

13. *Regulation (EU) 347/2013* of the European Parliament and of the Council of 17 April 2013 on guidelines for trans-European energy infrastructure and repealing Decision No 1364/2006/EC and amending Regulations (EC) No 713/2009, (EC)

No 714/209 and (EC) No 715/2009, *Official Journal of the European Union*, 25.4.2013, L115/39.

14. *Regulation (EU) No 1316/2013* of the European Parliament and of the Council of 11 December 2013 Establishing the Connecting Europe Facility, amending Regulation (EU) No 913/2010 and repealing Regulations (EC) No 680/2007 and (EC) No 67/2010, *Official Journal of the European Union*, 20.12.2013, L348/129.

15. Strategia Energetică a României pentru perioada 2015-2035. Departamentul pentru Energie, 2015.

16. Transgaz, *Planul Național de Dezvoltare al Sistemului Național de Transport Gaze-Naturale 2014-2023*, http://new.transgaz.ro/sites/default/files/plan_de_dezvoltare_pe_10_ani,2014-2023_14.12.2014.pdf.

HUMAN FACTOR ANALYSIS IN ROMANIAN PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS*

Diana Elena, Șerb¹
Nicoleta Camelia, Cicioc²

Abstract

The human factor plays a fundamental role in any national and international organization regardless of its activity. In present day individual activities represent the work itself, and some activities that years ago were made exclusively by men were gradually taken over by women who engage in all types of activities, and this resulted in a change in the role of women in the XXI century.

The main purpose of the article is to present human resource both in terms of knowledge level and through a research made in DRDP Cluj. The theoretical part of this article is dealing with this concept using both the national and international literature while the opinion of several experts on human resources in an organization is being reviewed.

The practical part consists of a case study that aims to highlight the effectiveness of human resources in an organization. In this part, the human resources are being presented in terms of numbers, the position held, the level of training, and labor productivity. This paper highlights as a conclusion of the research that human resources contribute to the organization's financial results, and this underlines the importance which it must be granted.

Keywords: human factors, human resource management, labor efficiency, labor market

JEL Classification: J 24, M12, A15

Introduction

The organization has no efficiency without labor resources, it practically is a bunch of unnecessary equipment that may be worn out and outdated over time if the human effort doesn't leave its mark. Managers are interested in analyzing their employees in terms of efficiency, but also of labor productivity. An individual who operates in an environment that does not correspond to his desires does not perform well.

The added value of this article is that the approach of human resources in this manner has not been achieved at the national literature level, and on the other hand the data provided by DRDP Cluj was used during the scientific approach in order to support the arguments.

1. Human resources and public institutions - theoretical approach

In cases where employee needs are not accurately identified the human resources management is not effectively done, and it can be mistaken for a difficult time for the HR department. The economic performance of an organization is directly influenced by the quality of human resources. Human resources are one of the most important investments of an organization, the results of which are becoming increasingly apparent over time (Manolescu A, 2002: 17).

Mutations that are occurring lately manifest in terms of human factor in the labor market. The change HR is going through today is the result of rapid changes recorded in the business field due to factors out of which the most important one is globalization. In the global competition and the fact that they're connected to the new world of human resources, they become more complicated everyday (<http://www.sjpub.org/sjbm.html>).

The factors of staff's role growth are the following (Petrescu I, 2008: 40-44):

1. Work content.

2. Control over staff.

3. Macroeconomic factors

Directions of concern in human resources management, according to the matrix below, points out the fact that the manager must put in balance both their employees and customers to find an optimal situation in which none of the interested parties may be impaired.

¹ Doctorand, Universitatea Valahia din Târgoviște, dianaserb10@yahoo.com

² Universitatea Valahia din Târgoviște, alexandraticioc@gmail.com

Figure 1. Employees and customers - a matrix of concerns of personnel management / HRM

Level of preoccupation with employees	High	“spoiled” workforce Very dissatisfied customers Inconsistency of employees in completing tasks/ Serving customers	Motivated workforce Very satisfied customers How good/ How bad
	Low	Minimum motivation of personnel A lot of complaints from customers	Stressed out workforce Satisfied customers
	Level of preoccupation with customers		High
	Low		

Source: Cole G, Personnel Management, Ed. Codecs, Bucharest, 2000, p 4

Jack Halloran and David Cherington stresses that in order to ensure the success or even the survival, organizations must properly resolve the following issues (Manolescu A, 2001: 265):

1. Identifying the skills and qualifications and election or selection of candidates that meet the requirements of new or vacant positions,
2. Identifying and attracting competitive candidates using the most appropriate methods, resources or average recruitment,
3. Complying with the relevant legislation on equal employment opportunities and correcting discriminatory practices or existing imbalances.

Before starting an activity, the manager should establish performance standards and clearly explain what the employee needs to know about assessment and what each qualifier means.

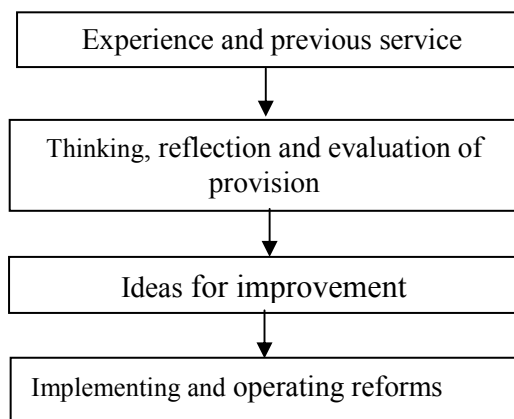
- Assessment methods of efficiency (Chișu V, F Rotaru, 2002: 192):
- Comparative methods, subjective methods,
- Absolute methods, objective methods,
- Management by objectives, objective method.

HRM primordial task is to add value to the strategic use of employees and employee benefit programs in ways that are measurable due to globalization (L Mary O'Neil, 2008). In any society the existence of a public sector whose main task is defining the principles of society function and providing public services of great importance to the public interest, is vital.

Public service is an organizational structure with or without legal personality, formed under the law of the State, community, city or county or by individuals, endowed with adequate material and financial means, performing an activity or a complex set of homogenous activities established by the founding document in order to meet the continuous and permanent interests of a corporation (M Preda, 2005: 11).

There are several steps to improve service delivery (Figure 2).

Figure 2 - Steps to improve service delivery



Source: Grigorescu, Constantin A, Ed. Uranus, Bucharest, 2007, p 176

Characteristics of the quality of public services (Cetin I, Brandabur R, M Constantinescu 2006: 22-23:

- The quality of public services is more difficult to assess than the quality of goods,
- Quality evaluation involves assessing both the final result and the process of performance,
- Quality is the result of comparing consumer expectation with the experience he has during the service delivery,
- Each employee contributes to a greater or lesser extent to the positive or negative perception of quality.

1. Study of human factor in the DRDP Cluj

The methodological framework of the research

Description of the problem

Incomplete information on the effectiveness of human resources within an organization requires carrying out research with the help of DRDP Cluj. Marketing research focused on a case study. Data was provided by representatives of DRDP. Data collection period was 15 September to 10 October.

Research objectives:

1. Finding out the personnel structure by profession,
2. Identifying the number of university graduate personnel,
3. Finding out the work productivity of employees.

Assumptions:

- a. The majority of human resources in the DRDP Cluj are male,
- b. There is a clear difference in terms of numbers between the workers staff and the Tesa staff,
- c. In the DRDP Cluj the majority of staff are high school graduates,
- d. The average annual productivity per employee is increasing.

2.2. Research results

Human resource situation of the DRDP Cluj is shown in the table below.

Table 1. Structure of employees by age, gender and origin

Years	Structured by age					Structured by gender		Structured by backgrounds	
	Over 20 years	30-40 years	40-50 years	60 years	Over 60 years	Female	Male	Urban	Rural
2014	50	652	179	2	1	268	614	720	162
882									

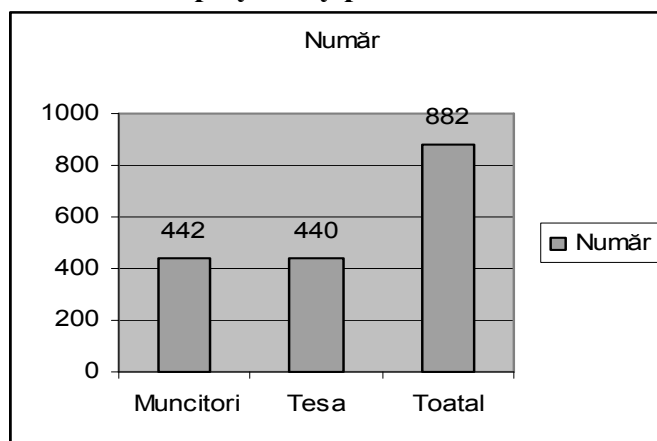
Source: DRDP CLUJ

The analysis of the DRDP Cluj employees at 30 September 2014 reveals that according to gender structure, men are the majority in the organization (614), the age structure shows a majority in terms of numbers of persons in the age range of 30-40 years, and the backgrounds structure shows that most of the staff comes from urban areas.

Table 2 and Figure 2 show a presentation of the organization's human resource structure based on their function. According to the table there is not a big difference between the worker personnel and the personnel in the TESA category.

Table 2 and Figure 3. Structure of employees by position

Profession	Number
Workers	442
Tesa	440
Total	882

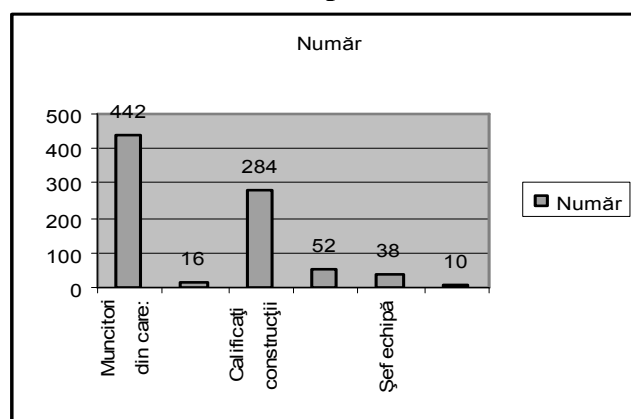


Source: DRDP CLUJ

Out of the workers personnel in the DRDP, the highest number is the personnel qualified in construction-284, while the opposite is the unqualified personnel -16 people. See Table 3 and Figure 4.

Table 3 and Figure 4 The structure of the worker personnel.

Profession	Number
Workers (out of which):	442
Unqualified	16
Qualified for construction	284
Qualified for mechanization	52
Crew chief	38
Serves multifunctional machines	10

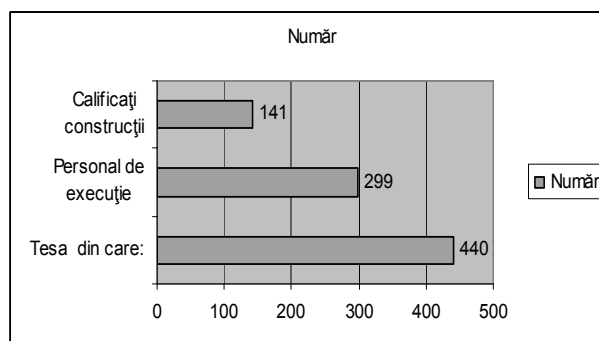


Source: DRDP CLUJ

Out of 440 persons in the Tesa category, the executive staff represents the majority (Table 4 and Figure 5).

Table 4 and Figure 5. The structure of the Tesa staff

Profession	Number
Tesa (out of which):	440
Implementing personnel	299
Qualified for construction	141

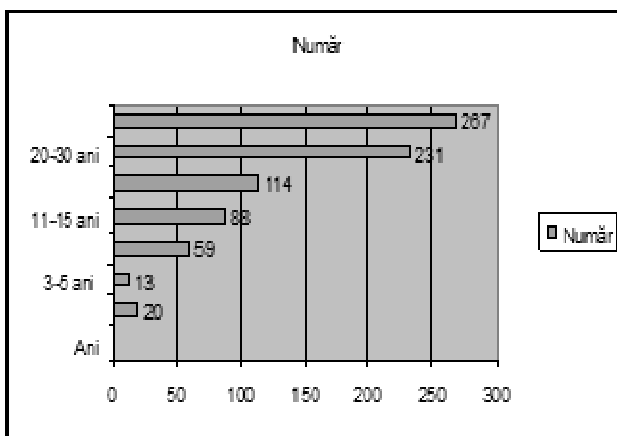


Source: DRDP CLUJ

Employment structure by seniority is presented in Table 5. Thus, according to data presented in the table and provided by DRDP Cluj, the largest number of employees has a seniority of more than 30 years. Only 13 people have a seniority of 3-5 years.

Table 5. and Figure 6. Employee structure by seniority

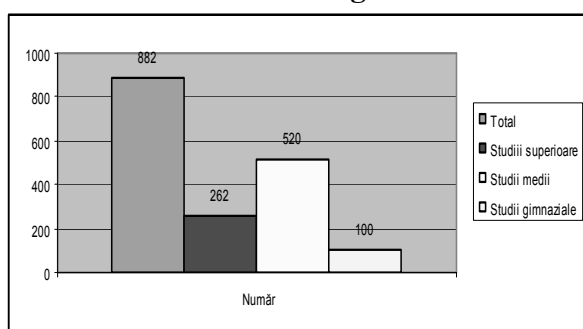
Seniority Years	Number
0-3 years	20
3-5 years	13
5-10 years	59
11-15 years	88
15-20 years	114
20-30 years	231
Over 30 years	267



Source: DRDP CLUJ

Table 6 and Figure 7 are a presentation of personnel structure of DRDP Cluj according to education and training. It appears that the high school graduate staff represents the majority.

Table 6 and Figure 7. Structure of personnel by completed studies.



Education level	Number
Total	882
Higher education	262
High school education	520
Secondary school education	100

Source: DRDP CLUJ

Labor productivity analysis

Table 7 is a presentation of the annual average productivity of human resources at the DRDP Cluj. According to the data there is an increase in the number of employees which determines the evolution of the average annual productivity per employee.

Table 7. The average yield

Indicators	2012	2013
CA (thousand lei)	167087	192893
Nr. RU	836	882
Wa	199,84	218,69

2.3. Research findings

The most important conclusions drawn from the studies carried out in the DRDP Cluj points out that the human factor in the organization corresponds to the position held both in terms of training and seniority.

The situation where the number of men is significantly higher than the number of women is because the activity of the organization itself is specific to men. As a result of the study we notice that only hypothesis number two is rejected while the other hypothesis are accepted.

Hypothesis number two is not acceptable because there is a clearly noticeable difference in terms of numbers between the worker staff and the Tesa category personnel.

In conclusion, the DRDP has the human capacity necessary to carry out its activity, and the human factor meets the requirements and so is fit for the assigned job.

Bibliography:

1. Chișu V Rotaru F (2002), HR specialist Manual, Ed Irecson, Bucharest,
2. Cole G, Personnel Management (2000), Ed. Codecs, Bucharest,
3. Cetin I, Brandabur R, Constantinescu M(2006), Marketing of Services, Ed. Uranus, Bucharest,
4. A Grigorescu (2007), Constantin A, Ed. Uranus, Bucharest,
5. Druță F (2004) The economic motivation - psychological and managerial dimensions, Ed. Economica, Bucharest,
6. Frățilă C (2014) Duică M, Human Resources Management, Ed. Bibliotheca, Targoviste,
7. Manolescu A (2001), Human Resource Management, Ed. Economica, Bucharest,
8. Manolescu A (2002), Human Resource Management, Fourth Edition, Ed. Economica, Bucharest,
9. O'Neil, Mary L (2008), Human Resource Leadership: The Key to Improved results in health. Address: Center for Leadership and Management, Management Sciences for Health, Cambridge, MA, USA, Human Resources for Health, 6:10 doi: 10.1186 / 1478-4491-6-10.
10. Petrescu I (2008) Essential in personnel management, Ed. Tomorrow Foundation Romania, Bucharest,
11. M Preda, Public administration authorities - Romanian Constitutional System, Ed. Lumina Lex, Bucharest, 1999, quoted by Tănăsescu D, Marketing of public services, Ed. Bibliotheca, Targoviste, 2005
12. <http://www.sjpub.org/sjbm.html>.

** This article received financial support through the „Paths of academic excellence in phd and post-phd research – READ” project, co-financed by the European Social Fund, through Sectorial Operational Programme Human Resources Development 2007-2013, Contract no. POSDRU / 159 / 1.5 / s / 137926.*

ANALIZA FACTORULUI UMAN ÎN INSTITUȚIILE PUBLICE ROMÂNEȘTI*

Diana Elena, Șerb¹
Nicoleta Camelia, Cicioc²

Rezumat

Factorul uman are un rol fundamental în cadrul oricărei organizații naționale și internaționale indiferent de obiectul său de activitate. În perioada actuală individul desfășoară activități care reprezintă munca în sine, iar unele activități care cu ani în urmă erau realizate exclusiv de către bărbați au fost preluate treptat și de către femei care se implică în toate activitățile, iar acest lucru a generat modificarea rolului femeii în secolul XXI.

Scopul central al articolului constă în a prezenta resursa umană atât din punct de vedere al stadiului cunoașterii cât și prin intermediul unei cercetări aplicative în cadrul DRDP Cluj. Pe parcursul părții teoretice se abordează acest concept atât la nivel de literatură națională cât și internațională, se face o trecere în revistă a opiniei mai multor specialiști cu privire la resursele umane într-o organizație.

Partea practică este reprezentată de un studiu de caz care urmărește să evidențieze eficiența resurselor umane în organizație. În cadrul acestei părți se prezintă resursele umane din punct de vedere al numărului lor, al funcției ocupate, al nivelului de instruire, dar și al productivității muncii.

Prin intermediul articolului de față se evidențiază ca și concluzie a cercetării faptul că resursa umană contribuie la obținerea rezultatelor financiare ale organizației, iar acest lucru subliniază importanța care trebuie să îi fie acordată.

Cuvinte cheie: factorul uman, managementul resurselor umane, randament în muncă, piața muncii

Clasificarea Jel: J 24, M12, O 15

Introducere

Organizația nu prezintă eficiență fără existența resurse de muncă, este practic o mulțime de echipamente inutile care se pot uza fizic și moral în timp dacă efortul uman nu își pune amprenta. Managerii sunt interesați de analiza propriilor angajați din punct de vedere al eficienței, dar și al productivității muncii. Un individ care își desfășoară activitatea în cadrul unui mediu care nu corespunde dorințelor sale face ca individul să nu dea randament.

Plusul de valoare adus de către prezentul articol constă pe de o parte în faptul că abordarea în această manieră a resurselor umane nu a mai fost realizată la nivelul literaturii naționale, iar pe de altă parte pe parcursul demersului științific în scopul susținerii argumentației s-au folosit date furnizate de către DRDP Cluj.

1. Resursele umane și instituțiile publice-abordare teoretică

În situații în care nu se identifică cu exactitate nevoile angajaților nu se pune problema unei gestionări eficiente a managementului resurselor umane, ci doar de o perioadă mai dificilă cu care se confruntă departamentul de resurse umane. Performanțele economice ale unei organizații sunt influențate în mod direct de calitatea resurselor umane. Resursele umane reprezintă una din cele mai importante investiții ale unei organizații, ale cărei rezultate devin tot mai evidente în timp (Manolescu A, 2002: 17).

Mutațiile apărute în ultima perioadă se manifestă și în ceea ce privește factorul uman pe piața muncii. Transformarea resurselor umane de astăzi este rezultatul unor schimbări rapide înregistrate în mediul de afaceri din cauza unor factori, iar dintre aceștia cel mai important factor este globalizarea. În competiția la nivel global și conectat la noua lume resursele umane devin pe zi ce trece mai complicate (<http://www.sjpub.org/sjbm.html>).

Factorii de creștere a rolului personalului se prezintă astfel (Petrescu I, 2008: 40-44):

¹ Doctorand, Universitatea Valahia din Târgoviște, dianaserb10@yahoo.com

² Universitatea Valahia din Târgoviște, alexandraticioc@gmail.com

1. **Conținutul muncii.**
2. **Controlul asupra personalului.**
3. **Factorii macroeconomici.**

Direcțiile de preocupare în managementul resurselor umane, conform matricei de mai jos, subliniază faptul că managerul trebuie să plaseze în cadrul unei balanțe, atât proprii angajații cât și clienții în vederea găsirii unei situații optime în care nici una din părțile interesate nu poate fi afectată.

Figura 1. Angajații și clienții – o matrice a direcțiilor de preocupare în managementul personalului / MRU

Ridicat	Forța de muncă „răsfățată”, Clienți foarte nemulțumiți	Forța de muncă motivată Clienți foarte mulțumiți
Nivelul preocupării față de angajați	Inconsecvență din partea angajaților în îndeplinirea sarcinilor/ Servirea clienților când mai bună/ când rea	
Scăzut	Motivarea minimă a personalului Multe reclamații din partea clienților	Forța de muncă stresată Clienți mulțumiți
	Nivelul preocupării față de clienți	Ridicat

Sursa: Cole G, Managementul personalului, Ed. Codecs, București, 2000, p 4

Jack Halloran și David Cherington subliniază faptul că pentru a-și asigura succesul sau chiar pentru a supraviețui, organizațiile trebuie să soluționeze în mod corespunzător următoarele probleme (Manolescu A, 2001: 265):

1. Identificarea calificărilor sau a aptitudinilor și alegerea sau selecția candidaților care corespund cel mai bine cerințelor posturilor noi sau vacante,
2. Identificarea și atragerea candidaților competitivi folosind cele mai adecvate metode, resurse sau medii de recrutare,
3. Respectarea legislației în domeniu referitor la oportunitățile egale de angajare și corectarea practicilor discriminatorii anterioare sau a unor dezechilibre existente.

Managerul înainte de începerea unei activități își stabilește standardele de performanță și explică în mod concis și clar angajatului tot ce trebuie să știe despre evaluare și ce presupune fiecare calificativ folosit.

- Metode de evaluare a randamentului (Chișu V, Rotaru F, 2002: 192):
- Metode comparative, metode subiective,
- Metode absolute, metode obiective,
- Managementul prin obiective, metodă obiectivă

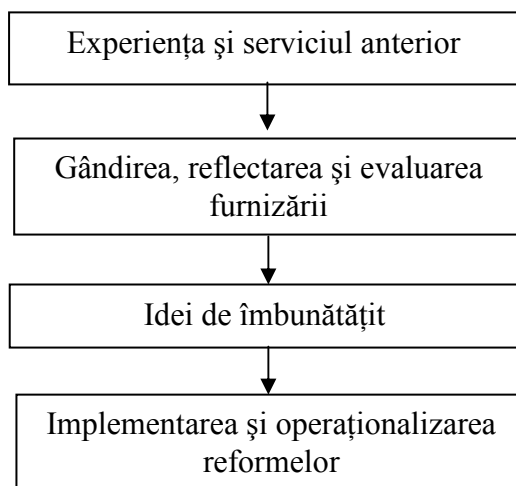
MRU are ca sarcini prioritare să adauge valoare la utilizarea strategică a angajaților și care angajat să beneficieze de programe de impact de afaceri în moduri măsurabile ca urmare a globalizării (O'Neil Mary L, 2008).

În cadrul oricărei societăți este vitală existența unui sector public care are ca și principale atribuții definirea principiilor de funcționare a societății și asigurarea serviciilor publice de o mare importanță pentru interesul publicului.

Serviciul public este o structură organizatorică, cu sau fără personalitate juridică, înființată în condițiile legii de către Stat, comună, oraș sau județ ori de către particulari, înzestrată cu mijloace materiale și bănești corespunzătoare, care desfășoară o activitate sau un complex de activități omogene stabilite prin actul de înființare, în scopul satisfacerii în mod continuu și permanent a unor interese generale ale unei colectivități(Preda M,2005:11).

Există mai mulți pași de îmbunătățire a prestării serviciilor(Figura 2).

Figura 2- Pașii de îmbunătățire a prestării serviciilor



Sursa: Grigorescu A, Constantin A, Ed. Uranus, București, 2007, p 176

Particularități ale calității în serviciile publice(Cetină I, Brandabur R, Constantinescu M, 2006: 22-23):

- ⇒ Calitatea serviciilor publice este mai dificil de evaluat decât calitatea bunurilor materiale,
- ⇒ Evaluarea calității presupune atât aprecierea rezultatului final, cât și a procesului de prestare,
- ⇒ Calitatea este rezultatul comparării așteptării consumatorilor cu experiența pe care acesta o are în timpul prestației,
- ⇒ Fiecare angajat contribuie într-o măsură mai mare sau mai mică la perceperea pozitivă sau negativă a calității.

2. Studiul privind factorul uman în cadrul DRDP CLUJ

2.1. Cadrul metodologic în care se situează cercetarea

Descrierea problemei

Informarea lacunară cu privire la eficiența resurselor umane în cadrul unei organizații face necesară realizarea unei cercetări în cadrul DRDP CLUJ.

Cercetare de marketing axată pe un studiu de caz. Datele au fost furnizate de către reprezentanții DRDP. Perioada de culegere a datelor a fost 15 septembrie-10 octombrie.

Obiectivele cercetării:

1. cunoașterea structurii personalului după profesie,
2. identificarea numărului de personal absolvent de studii superioare,
3. cunoașterea productivității în muncă a angajaților.

Ipotezele:

- a. Majoritatea resurselor umane din cadrul DRDP Cluj sunt de sex masculin,
- b. Există o diferență clar observabilă din punct de vedere numeric între personalul cu funcția de muncitor și personalul Tesa,
- c. În cadrul DRDP Cluj predomină personalul absolvent de studii medii,
- d. Productivitatea medie anuală pe angajat este în creștere.

2.2. Rezultatele cercetării

Situația resurselor umane al DRDP Cluj este prezentată în tabelul de mai jos.

Tabelul 1. Structura salariaților pe vârstă, sex și mediu de proveniență

Ani	Structura pe vârstă				Structura pe sexe		Structura pe medii de proveniență		
	Peste 20 ani	30-40 ani	40-50 ani	60 ani	Peste 60 ani	Feminin	Masculin	Urban	Rural
2014	50	652	179	2	1	268	614	720	162
Total 882									

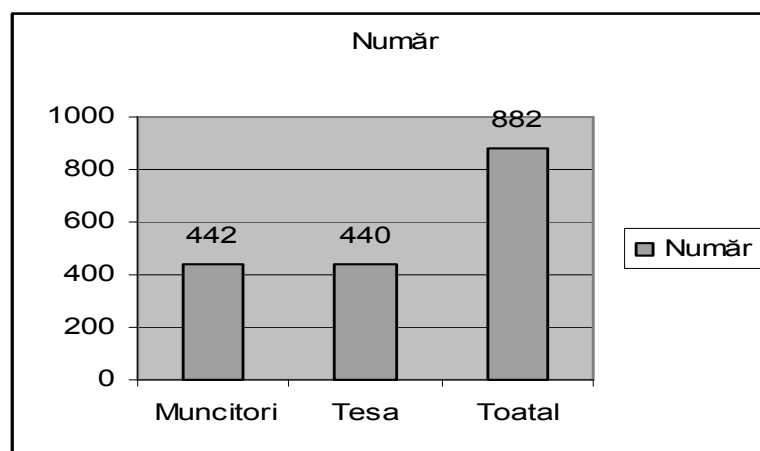
Sursa:DRDP CLUJ

Analiza structurii angajaților DRDP Cluj la 30 septembrie 2014 evidențiază faptul că potrivit structurii pe sex predomină în cadrul organizației bărbații (614), structura pe vârstă arată o dominanță din punct de vedere numeric a persoanelor aflate în intervalul de vârstă 30-40 de ani, iar structura pe medii de proveniență arată faptul că majoritatea personalului provine din mediul urban.

În tabelul 2 și figura 2 este realizată o prezentare a structurii resurselor umane ale organizației după funcția acestora. Potrivit tabelului nu există o diferență mare între personalul cu funcția de muncitor și personalul aflat în categoria TESA.

Tabelul 2 și Figura 3. Structura personalului după funcția ocupată

Profesie	Număr
Muncitori	442
Tesa	440
Toatal	882

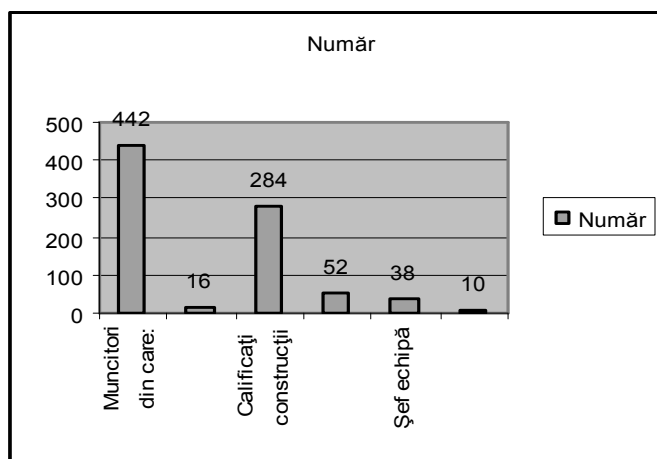


Sursa:DRDP CLUJ

Din totalul de personal cu funcția de muncitori în cadrul DRDP numărul cel mai mare îl ocupă personalul calificat în construcții-284, în timp ce la polul opus se află personalul necalificat -16 persoane . Vezi Tabelul 3 și figura 4.

Tabelul 3 și Figura 3 .Structura personalului cu funcția de muncitor

Profesie	Număr
Muncitori din care:	442
Necalificați	16
Calificați construcții	284
Calificați mecanizare	52
Șef echipă	38
Deserv utilaje multifunct	10

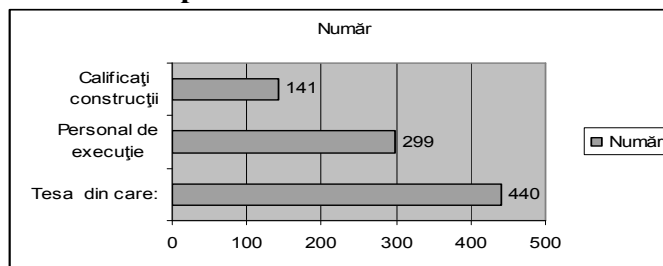


Sursa:DRDP CLUJ

Din 440 de persoane aflate în categoria Tesa personalul de execuție predomină (Tabelul 4 și Figura 4).

Tabelul 4 și Figura 5. Structura personalului Tesa

Profesie	Număr
Tesa din care:	440
Personal de execuție	299
Calificați construcții	141

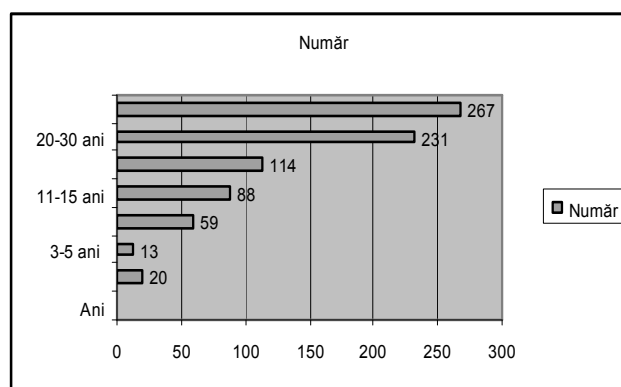


Sursa:DRDP CLUJ

Structura personalului după vechimea în muncă se prezintă conform tabelului 5. Astfel, potrivit datelor prevăzute în tabel și furnizate de DRDP CLUJ cel mai mare număr de angajați au o vechime de peste 30 de ani. Numai 13 persoane au o vechime de 3-5 ani

Tabelul 5 și Figura 6 . Structura personalului după vechime

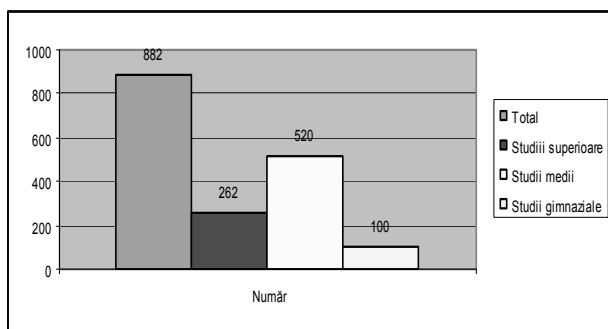
Vechime Ani	Număr
0-3 ani	20
3-5 ani	13
5-10 ani	59
11-15 ani	88
15-20 ani	114
20-30 ani	231
Peste 30 ani	267



Sursa:DRDP CLUJ

În tabelul 6 și Figura 7 este realizată o prezentare a structurii personalului DRDP CLUJ în funcțiile de studiile absolvite. Se constată faptul că predomină personalul cu studii medii.

Tabelul 6 și Figura 7. Structura personalului după studiile absolvite.



Nivelul studiilor	Număr
Total	882
Studii superioare	262
Studii medii	520
Studii gimnaziale	100

Sursa:DRDP CLUJ

Analiza productivității muncii

În tabelul 7 este realizată o prezentare a productivității medii anuale a resurselor umane de la DRDP CLUJ. Potrivit acestor date se constată o evoluție a numărului de angajați care determină și o evoluție a productivității medii anuale pe angajat.

Tabelul 7 .Productivitatea medie

Indicatori	2012	2013
CA (mi lei)	167087	192893
Nr. RU	836	882
Wa	199,84	218,69

2.3. Concluziile cercetării

Cele mai importante concluzii desprinse în urma studiului efectuat în cadrul DRDP CLUJ evidențiază faptul că factorul uman din cadrul organizației corespunde postului ocupat atât din punct de vedere al pregătirii cât și al vechimii în muncă.

Situația în care numărul de bărbați este net superior numărului de femei se explică prin faptul că însăși obiectul de activitate al organizației este specific bărbaților. Drept urmare a studiului efectuat se observă că doar ipoteza cu numărul doi se respinge în timp ce celelalte ipoteze se acceptă.

Ipoteza cu numărul doi nu se acceptă pentru că nu există o diferență clar observabilă din punct de vedere numeric între personalul cu funcție de muncitor și personalul care face parte din categoria Tesa.

În concluzie, DRDP are capacitatea umană necesară desfășurării obiectului de activitate al acesteia, iar factorul uman corespunde din toate punctele analizate și astfel acesta este abt în vederea ocupării unui post.

Bibliografie:

1. Chișu V, Rotaru F (2002), Manualul specialistului în resurse umane, Ed Irecson, București,
2. Cole G, Managementul personalului (2000), Ed. Codecs, București,
3. Cetină I, Brandabur R, Constantinescu M, Marketingul serviciilor, Ed. Uranus, București, 2006,
4. Grigorescu A (2007), Constantin A, Ed. Uranus, București,
5. Druță F (2004), Motivația economică dimensiuni psihologice și manageriale, Ed. Economică, București,
6. Frățilă C (2014), Duică M, Managementul resurselor umane, Ed. Bibliotheca, Târgoviște,

7. Manolescu A (2001), Managementul resurselor umane, Ed. Economică , București,
8. Manolescu A (2002), Managementul resurselor umane, ediția a IV-a, Ed. Economică, București,
9. O'Neil, Mary L (2008), Human resource leadership: the key to improved results in health. Address: Center for Leadership and Management, Management Sciences for Health, Cambridge, MA, USA, Human Resources for Health , 6:10 doi:10.1186/1478-4491-6-10.
10. Petrescu I (2008), Esențial în managementul personalului, Ed. Fundației României de Mâine, București,
11. Preda M (1999), Autoritățile administrației publice – Sistemul constituțional român, Ed. Lumina Lex, București, citat de Tănăsescu D, Marketing în serviciile publice, Ed. Biblioteca, Târgoviște, 2005,
12. <http://www.sjpub.org/sjbm.html>.

* *Această lucrare a beneficiat de suport financiar prin proiectul “Rute de excelență academică în cercetarea doctorală și post-doctorală – READ” cofinanțat din Fondul Social European, prin Programul Operațional Sectorial Dezvoltarea Resurselor Umane 2007-2013, contract nr. POSDRU/159/1.5/S/137926.*

DETERMINANTS OF CONSUMERS' PERCEPTION TOWARDS PIRATED PRODUCTS; THE CASE OF SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS AND MARKETERS IN MUSIC INDUSTRY

Ayodotun, Ibidunni (Corresponding Author)¹

Taiye, Borishade²

Joy, Dirisu³

Ph.D Olaleke, Ogunnaike⁴

Abstract

Music is generally viewed as a platform for preaching and imparting social values. As a result of this, entrepreneurs in music industry seem to have succeeded in branding themselves as social entrepreneurs. They engage business models as well as profit-making strategies in championing and/or promoting societal values. Unfortunately, piracy has been a major clog in their business wheels. The study explored the possible determinants of consumer attitude toward pirated products in music industry. Interviews were conducted to explore these possible determinants and two of these determinants were subjected to hypothetical tests. The study revealed that price of the product and the state of the economy has significant effects on consumer attitude towards pirated products. Based on the findings, it was recommended that government should provide enabling environment for the social entrepreneurs in music industry.

Keywords: Piracy, consumer attitude, social entrepreneurship, marketing, Music industry

JEL Classification: M3

1. Introduction

In recent time, the Nigerian economy has been affected by proliferation of several products in which the menace of substandard products has been a threat to the growth of local industries. The over dependence on importation of products has made standardized products to be compromised, despite the control measures put in place by government through establishment of standard organization of Nigeria (SON). This challenge cuts across all sectors from production to service sectors and also the entertainment industry where intellectual capital is to be honored has become a firsthand victim of piracy and copyright compromise. According to Commission of the European Communities, 1998 at present, counterfeiting and piracy have become a widespread phenomenon with a global impact though it started to grow a great extent since the early 1980s, the development of piracy is affecting the proper carrying out of the market and also nations, societies and individuals are exaggerated by the piracy. It has an indirect consequence not only at the market, economy and social level of a country but also in terms of consumer protection. According to Akinbola, Ogunnaike and Tijani, (2013) entrepreneurial development is not in view if the market hostile to the entrepreneurs. In other word, marketing performance defines the sustainability of any business entity ((Akinbola, Ogunnaike and Ojo, 2014).

Though, sometimes piracy is called a 'victimless crime' (IFPI, 2002). The economic losses due to the piracy is too much. Governments lose hundreds of millions of tax revenues, economies are deprived of new investments, consumers get less diversity product and so on. Though, the government has rigorously enforced several piracy laws. However piracy is a big

¹ Assistant Lecturer, Department Of Business Management, Covenant University, Ota, Ogun State, Nigeria, ayodotun.ibidunni@covenantuniversity.edu.ng

² Assistant Lecturer, Department Of Business Management, Covenant University, Ota, Ogun State, Nigeria, taiye.borishade@covenantuniversity.edu.ng

³ Assistant Lecturer, Department Of Business Management, Covenant University, Ota, Ogun State, Nigeria, joy.dirisu@covenantuniversity.edu.ng

⁴ Senior Lecturer, Department Of Business Management, Covenant University, Ota, Ogun State, Nigeria, olaleke.ogunnaike@covenantuniversity.edu.ng

problem in Africa and the encouraging patronage of these pirated products worsen the case. This hydra-headed monster has eaten deep into the fabrics of broad range of industries such as textiles, sporting goods, toys, consumer goods, pharmaceuticals, music, and software, etc. The enormous potentiality of the Internet and the development of the communication technology also make the distribution of pirated product (such as, software, music, movie, etc.) much easier (Altinkemer and Guan, 2003).

Consumer behaviour is influenced by consumer perception. Thus, an understanding of consumer behaviour is essential in this study. Consumer behaviour is the study of how people buy, what they buy and when they buy. It blends elements from psychology sociology, anthropology and economics. (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2006), It attempts to understand the buyer decision making process both individually and in groups.

This study explored the determinants of consumers' perception towards pirated products. The secondary objectives include;

(1) To identify if pricing has significant effect on consumers' perception towards piracy.

(2) To find out the extent to which the state of the economy has significant effect on consumer's perception towards piracy.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Conceptual Framework

• Definition Of Perception

Perception is a psychological process by which organisms interpret and organize sensations to produce a meaningful experience of the world. Sensation usually refers to the immediate, relatively unprocessed result of stimulation of sensory receptors in the eyes, ears, nose, tongue, or skin. In general perception is gathering information using our senses, which are seeing ,hearing , touching ,tasting, smelling and sensing. Through our senses we can perceive things, events or relations. But as there are so many different stimuli only a small portion of them are noticed and only a smaller portion can reach our attention. Perception on the other hand, better describes one's ultimate experience of the world and typically involves further processing of sensory input. In practice, sensation and perception are virtually impossible to separate, because they are part of one continuous process.

• Overview Of Piracy In Music Industry

Piracy is a severe problem worldwide and the common perception is that it is increasing. However, it is almost impossible to find accurate statistics to substantiate these perceptions because of the clandestine nature of the activity. Consumers who know and still purchase counterfeits may have favorable or positive attitude towards counterfeited goods. They buy counterfeit products just to own certain goods. By owning such products, it makes them belong to a certain social status, because they are unable or unwilling to pay the price for genuine items (Wee et al, 1995). Another perception among consumers who buy pirated goods is that counterfeiting is a soft crime and socially acceptable in 'sharing' principles of Asian region (Cordell et al., 1996).

The most popular pirated goods are entertainment products. This would include Peddlers selling pirated copies of video CDs (VCDs) and CDs and they have been the most targeted in police raids since piracy is intellectual property rights (IPR) infringement and this is a legal issue, as the musicians have also embarked on peaceful rallies to solve this problem. Music and video recordings has been rated the highest pirated products sold. Musicians complain that they spend so much money to do the recording of their songs and even to get beats for song and in return get little or nothing. Piracy of musical CD is so bad that about 25 songs of a musician can be compiled in one CD and sold at a very cheap rate, since consumers are price sensitive they go for the pirated copy and in most cases consumers are aware that they are purchasing pirated musical CD as piracy doesn't come with the intent of deceiving as in the case of counterfeiting.

Consumers will seek the highest value of each market offering. They may value the product in terms of the benefits they gain by using the product relative to the cost of acquiring it. Usually, customers will set the best value which combines some target combinations of price and quality (Cordell, 1991). Customers who are willing to be buyers of counterfeited products of piracy are therefore willing to tolerate the quality issues. These customers may not expect a high quality product of the counterfeit version compared to the original. Therefore, consumers who think themselves as wise shoppers will select a counterfeit product over a genuine product when there is a price advantage (Bloch et al., 1993).

Ang et al (2001) describe this matter as value consciousness. Value consciousness is defined as a concern for paying the lower prices, subject to some quality constraints (Lichtenstein et al., 1990). The significant higher price differential between pirated version and originals seems to be a good reason why consumers prefer to buy pirated products. The pirated products can cost as little as N50 to N100 per copy for a CD or VCD compared to the originals price N300 to N350. Ang et al (2001) suggest that the intention to buy pirated products is also driven by social influence. Peer pressure is one of the determinants of intention to buy counterfeit. The study done by Lin et al (1999), indicates that both executives and colleagues play an important role in influencing information system professionals to commit this crime. According to the study, higher level executives and colleagues' opinions and practices affect the behavior of information system professionals in terms of using the counterfeited version of software.

- *Social Entrepreneurship*

Social entrepreneurship is the practice of entrepreneurship from a social welfare perspective. In an attempt to define the boundaries of social entrepreneurship, some authors have suggested that social entrepreneurship is concerned with not-for profit activities, for example, Boschee (1998). However, Mair and Marti (2005) have argued that social entrepreneurship can take the form of not-for-profit as well as for profit business activities depending on the organization's "relative priority given to social wealth creation versus economic wealth creation". In the opinion of Abu-Saifan (2012) the boundaries that defines the operational scope of social entrepreneurs and social enterprises are divided into two: "Non-profit with earned income strategies" and "For-profit with mission-driven strategies". Under the former scenario, social entrepreneurs are at liberty to earn incomes and profits from their businesses, but such profits must be re-invested to further promote social value. The second scenario explains the financial independence of the social enterprise from the social entrepreneur, as such the social entrepreneur can enjoy from personal financial gains. To further distinguish social entrepreneurs, Dess (1998) observed that social entrepreneurs are basically change agents with specific characteristics such as:

- Adopting a mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value),
- Recognizing and relentlessly pursuing new opportunities to serve that mission,
- Engaging in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning,
- Acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand, and
- Exhibiting heightened accountability to the constituencies served and for the outcomes created

Defining the concept of social entrepreneurship has taken different forms according to distinct perspectives of authors. Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum and Shulman (2009) suggested that it is a value adding activity that engages new or existing organizations in enhancing social wealth. In achieving this, Martin and Osberg (2007) suggest that the social entrepreneur identifies large scale transformational opportunities and projects that impact on a segmented part of or the society at large. In differentiating between the entrepreneur and social entrepreneur, they comment that "Unlike the entrepreneurial value proposition that assumes a market that can pay for the innovation, and may even provide substantial upside for investors, the social entrepreneur's value proposition targets an underserved, neglected, or highly

disadvantaged population that lacks the financial means or political clout to achieve the transformative benefit on its own”. The following table reveals the diverse dimensionality of thoughts and opinions of scholars about the concept of social entrepreneurship

Table 1. Definitions of Social Entrepreneurship

Source	Definition
Leadbeater (1997)	The use of entrepreneurial behavior for social ends rather than for profit objectives, or alternatively, that the profits generated from market activities are used for the benefit of a specific disadvantaged group.
Thake and Zadek (1997)	Social entrepreneurs are driven by a desire for social justice. They seek a direct link between their actions and an improvement in the quality of life for the people with whom they work and those that they seek to serve. They aim to produce solutions which are sustainable financially, organizationally, socially and environmentally.
Dees (1998)	Play the role of change agents in the social sector, by: 1) Adopting a mission to create and sustain social value (not just private value), 2) Recognizing and relentlessly pursuing new opportunities to serve that mission, 3) Engaging in a process of continuous innovation, adaptation, and learning, 4) Acting boldly without being limited by resources currently in hand, and 5) Exhibiting heightened accountability to the constituencies served and for the outcomes created.
Reis (1999)	Social entrepreneurs create social value through innovation and leveraging financial resources...for social, economic and community development.
Fowler (2000)	Social Entrepreneurship is the creation of viable socio-economic structures, relations, institutions, organizations and practices that yield and sustain social benefits.
Brinkerhoff (2001)	Individuals constantly looking for new ways to serve their constituencies and add value to existing services
Mort et al. (2002)	A multidimensional construct involving the expression of entrepreneurially virtuous behavior to achieve the social mission...the ability to recognize social value creating opportunities and key decision-making characteristics of innovation, proactiveness and risktaking
Drayton (2002)	A major change agent, one whose core values center on identifying, addressing and solving societal problems.
Alford et al. (2004)	Creates innovative solutions to immediate social problems and mobilizes the ideas, capacities, resources and social arrangements required for social transformations
Harding (2004)	Entrepreneurs motivated by social objectives to instigate some form of new activity or venture.
Shaw (2004)	The work of community, voluntary and public organizations as well as private firms working for social rather than only profit objectives.
Said School (2005)	A professional, innovative and sustainable approach to systematic change that resolves social market failures and grasps Opportunities

Fuqua School (2005)	The art of simultaneously pursuing both a financial and a social return on investment (the “double” bottom line)
Schwab Foundation (2005)	Applying practical, innovative and sustainable approaches to benefit society in general, with an emphasis on those who are marginalized and poor.
NYU Stern (2005)	The process of using entrepreneurial and business skills to create innovative approaches to social problems. “These non-profit and for profit ventures pursue the double bottom line of social impact and financial self-sustainability or profitability.”
MacMillan (2005)	Process whereby the creation of new business enterprise leads to social wealth enhancement so that both society and the entrepreneur benefit.
Tan et al. (2005)	Making profits by innovation in the face of risk with the involvement of a segment of society and where all or part of the benefits accrue to that same segment of society.
Mair and Marti (2006a)	...a process of creating value by combining resources in new ways...intended primarily to explore and exploit opportunities to create social value by stimulating social change or meeting social needs.
Peredo and McLean (2006)	Social entrepreneurship is exercised where some person or group...aim(s) at creating social value...shows a capacity to recognize and take advantage of opportunities...employ innovation...accept an above average degree of risk...and are unusually resourceful... in pursuing their social venture.
Martin and Osberg (2007)	Social entrepreneurship is the: 1) identification a stable yet unjust equilibrium which the excludes, marginalizes or causes suffering to a group which lacks the means to transform the equilibrium; 2) identification of an opportunity and developing a new social value proposition to challenge the equilibrium, and 3) forging a new, stable equilibrium to alleviate the suffering of the targeted group through imitation and creation of a stable ecosystem around the new equilibrium to ensure a better future for the group and society

Source: Zahra et al (2009), A typology of social entrepreneurs: Motives, search processes and ethical challenges

According to Abu-Saifan (2012) a social entrepreneur is identified by the extent to which he or she is a mission leader, visionary, highly accountable, socially alert, serve as a change agent, emotionally charged, an opinion leader, manager, and a social value creator.

2.2 Typology of Social Entrepreneurship

Zahra et al (2009) proposed three types of social entrepreneurship given the variations in purposes, types and strategies that form the basis of social entrepreneurial ventures. These include: Social Bricoleurs, Social Constructionists and Social Engineers.

Social Bricoleurs are those who utilize resources available with them at a point in time to execute locally identified opportunities. The conceptualization of this idea is drawn from perceptions and explanations of Weick’s (1993) and Baker and Nelson’s (2005) of bricolage. Though social bricoleurs may be perceived as limited in scope, their social relevance cannot be overlooked as they create value to meet their local environments around their scope of operation. Social bricoleurs are distinctively identified with creating new things from nothing, their refusal to be limited by environmental constraints and skillfully improvising best ways out of constraint situations (Domenico, Haugh and Tracy, 2010).

Social Constructionists “build, launch and operate ventures which tackle those social needs that are inadequately addressed by existing institutions, businesses, NGOs and government agencies” (Zahra et al, 2009). These type of social entrepreneurs seek to exploit opportunities with an objective of creating social wealth. Owen (1995) argued that social constructionists emphasize aspects of humanity in relation to their cultural and social welfare. This view is also explained in Andrew’s (2012) view of the subjective and objective views of social constructionism.

Social Engineers are known for identifying and providing revolutionary solutions social problems which existing institutions cannot provide solutions to. Though some authors have identified a faulty use of social engineering in society (for example, Dimensional Research, 2011), others strongly affirm that social engineers improve radical means of creative and innovative thinking that enhance social values (Hadnagy, 2011).

2.3 Theoretical Base of the Study

• Theory Of Planned Behaviour

According to the Theory Of Planned Behaviour (TpB) (Ajzen,1991), human actions are guided by three considerations :beliefs regarding likely outcomes of a behaviour and evaluations of those outcomes (behavioural beliefs), beliefs about the normative expectations of others and the motivation to comply with these expectations (normative beliefs), and beliefs about the presence of factors that may impede performance of a behaviour and the perceived power of these factors (control beliefs). In their respective aggregates, behavioural beliefs produce favorable or unfavorable attitudes towards the behaviour ,normative beliefs cause perceived social pressure or social norms, and control beliefs causes perceived behavioural control. In combination ,attitude towards behaviours ,subjective norms ,and perceptions of behavioural control leads to the formation of behavioural intention .Consequently, individual intention to perform the behaviour in question increase with how favorable the attitude and subjective norm are, as well as the intention of the individual to perform the behaviour in question .Finally, given a sufficient degree of control over the behaviour, people are expected to fulfill their intentions when the opportunity to do arises. From this we can deduce that consumer’s perception is influenced by planned behaviour.

2.4 Empirical Framework

According to Adewole, (2011), piracy, counterfeit, imitation and fake products are all illegal operations done at the lowest cost and offered to consumers at the cheapest price. Their study was to research which variable plays the most important factor in the minds of most consumers. Although most sources say that there is no ending to the word “piracy”, understanding and being aware of why, how, where and when consumers purchase pirated goods will help reduce this menace. Pricing being one of the most essential variable, most producers and creators of original products must come to understand this factor and strive to make original goods affordable .This would be a crucial step in driving consumers away from pirated goods.

According to Jupiter piracy research (2009) on action to stop counterfeiting, it was discovered that piracy impact virtually every product category .The days when only luxury goods were counterfeited, or when unauthorized music CDs and movies DVDs were sold only street corners are long past, Today counterfeiters are producing fake foods and beverages, pharmaceuticals, electronics ,auto parts and every household products. Also, copyright pirates have created multi-million networks to produce, transport and sell their unauthorized copies of music, video and software. Millions of fake products are being produced and shipped around the world to developing and developed countries at an alarming rate. Millions of consumers are now at risk from unsafe and ineffective products, and governments, businesses

and society are robbed of hundreds of billions in tax revenues, business income and jobs. Counterfeiting and piracy has become a global epidemic, leading to a significant drain on businesses and the global economy, jeopardizing investments in creativity and innovation, undermining recognized brands and creating consumer health and safety risks. The drain on the global economy is significant and the longer term implication of the continuing growth in this illicit trade is enormous.

Ramayah and Aafaqi, (2004) in their study explained that there are some specific influences on the purchase of fake copyrights like influences of normative susceptibility, integrity, gender and personal income attitude towards buying of pirated CDs.

3. Research Method

The survey and exploratory research design were employed. The survey research design is considered suitable for the study because it does not attempt to manipulate or control some variables of the research; however it addresses the relationship that exists between these variables as they are. The study adopted purposive sampling technique. The study population includes all film producers, directors and distributors of musical CDs in Lagos, Nigeria. 100 copies of questionnaire were distributed out of which 77 copies of the completed questionnaire were found useable.

The questionnaire comprises of two (2) sections. The first section addresses personal characteristics of respondents while the other section addresses those questions drawn from the statement of research problem and research questions in order to investigate the different opinion and viewpoint of the respondents in relevance to the study.

In addition, series of interview were conducted among the players in music industry. The researchers sought the opinions of the respondents as regards the determinants of consumer perception toward pirated products.

4. Test of Hypotheses and Discussion of Findings

Hypothesis 1:

H₀: pricing does not have effect on consumer's perception towards piracy.

H₁: pricing has effect on consumer's perception towards piracy.

Table 2. Regression Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.011(a)	.000	-.013	1.616

a Predictors: (Constant), price plays a vital role in the purchase of musical CDs.

ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.025	1	.025	.010	.922(a)
	Residual	195.975	75	2.613		
	Total	196.000	76			

a Predictors: (Constant), price plays a vital role in the purchase of musical CDs.

b Dependent Variable: i do not mind purchasing pirated musical CDs.

Interpretation of results

The results from the tables above revealed that the extent to which the variance in pricing can be explained by consumers perception towards piracy is 0.0% i.e. (R square = .000) at .922significance level.

Decision

The significance level below 0.05 implies a statistical confidence of above 95%. This implies that pricing has a significant effect on consumer’s perception towards piracy. Thus, the decision would be to accept the null hypothesis (H₀), and reject the alternative hypothesis (H₁).

Hypothesis 2:

H₀: the state of the economy does not have significant effect on consumer’s perception towards piracy.

H₁: the state of the economy has significant effect on consumer’s perception towards piracy.

Table 3. Regression Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.148(a)	.022	-.018	1.621

a Predictors: (Constant), most people consider the economic consequences of using their money to purchase a musical CD, most people will rather use their money for something else than buy an original musical CD, economic conditions influences the purchase of pirated musical CDs.

ANOVA(b)

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	4.284	3	1.428	.544	.654(a)
Residual	191.716	73	2.626		
Total	196.000	76			

a Predictors: (Constant), most people consider the economic consequences of using their money to purchase a musical CD., most people will rather use their money for something else than buy an original musical CD, economic conditions influences the purchase of pirated musical CDs.

b .Dependent Variable: I do not mind purchasing pirated musical CDs.

Interpretation of results

The results from the tables above revealed that the extent to which the variance in social influence can be explained by consumers perception towards piracy is 2.2% i.e. (R square = .022) at .654 significance level.

Decision

The significance level below 0.05 implies a statistical confidence of above 95%. This implies that social influence has a significant effect on consumer’s perception towards piracy. Thus, the decision would be to accept the null hypothesis (H₀), and reject the alternative hypothesis (H₁).

5. Discussion of Findings

The empirical findings of this study are based on the primary data collected and analyzed as well as the interviews conducted among the distributors of musical CDs.

It was found out that price is the major factor that makes people purchase pirated musical CDs, it was also found that other factors that make people purchase pirated musical CDs are influences of demographic variables such as gender and personal income, it was also gathered that consumers that purchase pirated musical CDs do not expect high quality, and the consumers also possess low value consciousness.

According to Haque, Khaibiti & Rahman (2009) piracy, counterfeit, imitation and fake products are all illegal operations done at the lowest cost and offered to consumers at the cheapest price. Their study was to research which variable plays the most important factor in the minds of most consumers and from this research it was found out that price is one of the major reasons for purchasing pirated products.

According to Ramayah, Siron, Dahlan, and Mohammad (2002) their study explained that there are some specific influences on the purchase of fake CDs like influences of normative susceptibility, integrity, gender and personal income attitude towards buying of pirated CDs ,this study shows that race ,culture and religion as an effect on whether or not people purchase pirated musical CDs.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

In this study, the researcher examined the determinants of consumer's perception towards pirated products using The Nigerian music industry as a case study. The study concludes that price and state of the economy have significant influence on the consumer's decision to purchase a pirated musical CD. Interview conducted for some of these social entrepreneurs also revealed that the consumer personality, social factors as well as the belief and value system were among the determinants of consumer perception towards pirated products.

Based on the findings of the study, the researchers recommend the following;

1. Enabling environment and financial aid should be provided for the entrepreneurs in music industry that will enable them to produce their products at affordable price.

2. There is need to create more awareness on the legal backing, stating that piracy is a criminal offence and all people caught for buying or selling pirated musical CDs should face the legal consequences.

4. Government should geared its economic efforts towards the improvement of standard of living in order to reshape the belief, value system and the perception of the consumers toward pirated products

Bibliography:

1. Abu-Saifan, S. (2012). Social Entrepreneurship: Definition and Boundaries. *Technology Innovation Management Review*, (February 2012), pp. 22-27

2. Abu-Saifan, S. 2012. Social Entrepreneurship: Definition and Boundaries. *Technology Innovation Management Review*. February 2012: 22-27

3. Adewole, A. (2011). Combating Piracy Through Optical Disc Plant Regulation In Nigeria: Prospects And Challenges. *NIALS Journal of Intellectual Property [NJIP]* Maiden Edition, pp. 135-163

4. Ajzen, I. (1991), *The Theory Of Planned Behavior*. *Organizational Behavior And Human Decision Processes*. 50, 179-211 (1991)

5. Akinbola, O. A, Ogunnaike, O. O. and Tijani, A. A. (2013) "Micro financing and Entrepreneurial Development: The Mediating role of Marketing." *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review* Vol 1(6)

6. Akinbola, O.A, Ogunnaike, O.O and Ojo, A.O.(2014) "Enterprise Outsourcing Strategies and Marketing Performance of fast food industry in Lagos State University, Nigeria" *Global Journal of Business Management and Accounting* Vol 3 No.1

7. Alford, S.H., Brown, L.D., Letts, C.W., 2004. Social entrepreneurship: leadership that facilitates societal transformation. Working Paper, Center for Public Leadership. In John F. Kennedy School of Government

8. Altinkemer, K. and Guan, J. (2003). Analyzing Protection Strategies for Online Software Distribution. *J. Electron. Commerce Res.* 4 (1), 34-48

9. Andrews T. (2012), What is Social Constructionism?, *The Grounded Theory Review* (2012), Volume 11, Issue 1, pp. 39-46
10. Ang, S.H., Cheng, P.S., Lim, E.A.C. and Tambyah, S.K. (2001), "Spot the difference: consumer responses towards counterfeits", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 18 No. 3, pp. 219-35.
11. Baker T. and Nelson R. E. (2005), Creating Something from Nothing: Resource Construction through Entrepreneurial Bricolage, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 50, No. 3 (Sep., 2005), pp. 329-366
12. Bloch, P.H., Bush, R.F. and Campbell, L. (1993), "Consumer 'Accomplices' in product counterfeiting; a demand side investigation", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 10 No. 4, pp. 27-36
13. Boschee, J. (1998), Merging Mission and money: A broad member's guide to social entrepreneurship: <http://www.socialent.org/pdfs/MergingMission.pdf>
14. Brinkerhoff, P., 2001. Why you need to be more entrepreneurial — an how to get started. *Nonprofit World* 19 (6), 12–15
15. Cordell V. V. (1991), Competitive context and price as moderators of country of origin preferences, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 19, 2, 123-128
16. Cordell, V. V., Wongtada, N. and Kieschnick Jr., R. L. 1996. Counterfeit Purchase Intentions: Role of Lawfulness Attitudes and Product Traits as Determinants. *Journal of Business Research*, 35, 41 – 53
17. Dees, J.G., (1998). Enterprising nonprofits. *Harvard Business Review*, 76 (1), 55–66.
18. Dimensional Research (2011), The Risk of Social Engineering on Information Security: A Survey of It Professionals, pp. 1-7. Retrieved from http://www.greycastlesecurity.com/resources/documents/The_Risk_of_Social_Engineering_on_Information_Security_09-11.pdf
19. Domenico M. D., Haugh H., Tracey P. (2010), Social Bricolage: Theorizing Social Value Creation In Social Enterprises. *Entrepreneurship Theory And Practice*, 1042-2587, Baylor University
20. Drayton, B., 2002. The citizen sector: becoming as entrepreneurial and competitive as business. *California Management Review*, 44 (3), 120–132
21. Fowler, A. (2000). NGDOs as a moment in history: beyond aid to social entrepreneurship or civic innovation? *Third World Quarterly*, 21 (4), 637–654
22. Fuqua School. 2005. <http://www.fuqua.duke.edu/centers/case/>
23. Hadnagy C. (2011). *Social Engineering: The Art of Human Hacking*. Wiley Publishing, Inc., Canada
24. Haque, A. Khatibi, A. and Rahman, S. (2009). Factors Influencing Buying Behavior of Piracy Products and its Impact to Malaysian Market. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, Vol.5 NO. 2, Pp. 383-401
25. Harding, R., 2004. Social enterprise: the new economic engine? *Business and Strategy Review*, 15 (4), 39–43
26. IFPI (2002). Piracy – A Blight On Culture, A Drain On Economies. IFPI Music Piracy Report, June 2002. Retrieved from <http://www.ifpi.org/content/library/Piracy2002.pdf>
27. Jupiter-Research (2009). Analysis of the European Online Music Market Development and Assessment of Future Opportunities. Study on online Music Piracy and Purchasing Habits IFPI. Retrieved from http://www.ifpi.org/content/library/Jupiter_Research_study_on_online_piracy.pdf
28. Leadbeater, C. (1997). *The rise of the social entrepreneur*. Demos, London
29. Lichtenstein, Donald R., Richard G. Netemeyer, and Scot Burton (1990), "Distinguishing Coupon Proneness from Value Consciousness: An Acquisition-Transaction Utility Theory Perspective," *Journal of Marketing*, 54 (July), 54-67

30. Lin, N. (1999). Social networks and status attainment. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 25: 467-87.
31. MacMillan, I.A. 2005. <http://knowledge.wharton.upenn.edu/index.cfm?fa=viewfeature&id=766>
32. Mair J. and Marti I. (2005), *Social Entrepreneurship Research: A Source of Explanation, Prediction, and Delight*, Working Paper, IESE Business School, Barcelona
33. Martin R. L. and Osberg S. (2007), *Social Entrepreneurship: The Case for Definition*. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*, spring 2007
34. Mort, G., Weerawardena, J., Carnegie, K., 2002. Social entrepreneurship: towards conceptualization and measurement. *American Marketing Association Conference Proceedings* 13, 5.
35. NYU Stern, 2005. <http://w4.stern.nyu.edu/berkeley/social.cfm>.
36. Owen I. R. (1995), *Social constructionism and the theory, practice and research of psychotherapy: A phenomenological psychology manifesto*, *Boletín de Psicología*, 46, 161-186
37. Peredo, A.M., McLean, M., 2006. Social entrepreneurship: A critical review of the concept. *Journal of World Business*, 41, 56–65
38. Ramayah, T. & Aafaqi, B. (2004). Role of self-efficacy in e-library usage among student of a public university in Malaysia. *Malaysia Journal of Library and Information Science*, 9(1), 39-57
39. Ramayah, T., Siron, R., Dahlan, N., & Mohammad, O. (2002). Technology usage among owner/managers of the SMEs: The role of demographic and motivational variables. *The proceedings of The 6th Annual Asian-Pacific Forum for Small Business on Small and Medium Linkages, Networking and Clustering*, 16-18th October, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.
40. Reis, T. (1999). *unleashing the new resources and entrepreneurship for the common good: A scan, synthesis and scenario for action*. Battle Creek, MI: W.K. Kellogg Foundation
41. Said Business School. 2005. <http://www.sbs.ox.ac.uk/skoll/>
42. Schiffman, L. G. & Kanuk, L. L. (2006). “Consumer Behavior”. 8th edition, Pearson Prentice Hall, New Jersey
43. Schwab Foundation. 2005. <http://www.schwabfound.org>
44. Shaw, E., 2004. Marketing in the social enterprise context: is it entrepreneurial? *Qualitative Marketing Research: An International Journal*, 7 (3), 194–205
45. Tan, W.-L., Williams, J., Tan, T.-M., 2005. Defining the ‘social’ in ‘social entrepreneurship’: altruism and entrepreneurship. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 1, 353–365
46. Thake, S. and Zadek, S. (1997). *Practical people, noble causes: How to support community-based social entrepreneurs*. London: New Economics Foundation
47. Wee, C., Tan, S. & Cheok, K., 1995. Non-price determinants of intention to purchase counterfeit goods. *International Marketing Review*, 12(6), 19-47
48. Weick K.E. (1993), *The Collapse of Sensemaking in Organizations: The Mann Gulch Disaster*. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38, 4; *ABI/INFORM Global* pg. 628
49. Zahra S. A., Gedajlovic E., Neubaum D. O., Shulman J. M. (2009), A typology of social entrepreneurs: Motives, search processes and ethical Challenges. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 24, 519–532

BUILDING AND DEVELOPING THE CHANGE CAPACITY OF AN ORGANISATION

Iuliana, Talmaciu¹

Abstract

Regardless of their scale, organisational changes are, most often, unpredictable and worrisome. However, organisations must find the most effective ways to adapt to the changes from the environment where they operate.

This article presents the results of identifying and analysing the causes which are the main obstacles to the change management. Based on the study, we identify and express measures for building and developing the change capacity of an organisation. At the same time, we also identify the means by which the change capacity of an organisation can be improved given the research conducted and the analysis of certain works from the literature.

Keywords: organisational change, change capacity, organisational change failure

JEL Classification: M10.

1. Introduction

Michael Jarrett, one of the most renowned specialists in the field of change management, adds to the following very well known American saying: “change is like death and tax – inevitable.” However, the author mentions, “we can choose every time how to answer it: we can accept it or oppose it.” (2011: 23)

The idea of “change – inevitable phenomenon” is also found in Liz Clarke who believes that “change is the very essence of developing a business ... It’s strange that we behave stubbornly in acting according to the deceptive assumption that things will remain unchanged.” (Clarke Liz, 2002: 18)

In the context of a dynamic economic and social environment, of the scientific and technical progress and increased competitiveness, organisational change has become a subject highly debated and analysed by the theorists and practitioners in the field.

Change management is a ubiquitous topic in the literature given that both specific concepts and principles are increasingly integrated in other subjects. (Marge Combe, 2014)

Nevertheless, the failure rate of the organisational change implementation remains high. Experts have identified several causes for this, including: bureaucracy, conservatism of the organisational culture, leadership inefficiency or the organisation members’ resistance to change. (Bennebroek Gravenhorst, Werkman and Boonstra: 2003)

The concept of change consists of “the significant change of a status, of a relationship or of a situation in a political, economic and social context of the organisation, whose elements affect the people working within it.” (Petrescu Marius et. all, 2010: 28)

Buono Anthony and Kerber Kenneth (2009) consider it important to distinguish between the concept of “preparation for change”, which represents the ability to implement a specific change, and the “change capacity”, which means the ability of an organisation to change not just once, but as a normal course of events, as a response to anticipating the internal and external changes.

In our opinion, no organisation can develop unless it wishes to be open to all that is “new” and unless it succeeds in adapting itself. Therefore, a careful analysis of the change capacity of an organisation should be made and then identify some tools for building and developing it. We believe that this will lead to improving the efficiency of change management as well.

¹ Ph. D. Lecturer, Constantin Brancoveanu University of Pitești, Calea Bascovului no. 2A, Pitești, România; e-mail: iuliana_talmaciu@yahoo.com

2. The main causes of the failure to implement the organisational changes

“Organisations are faced with frequent changes in the market sphere, in the individual preferences and in the socio-economic context. Therefore they must react quickly in order to survive. Unfortunately, many of them fail to do this, the statistics showing that the average lifespan of a company does not exceed 40 years; on the contrary it is reduced because of the organisation’s inability to transform and adapt itself fast enough. For this reason, tackling change has become an essential aspect of the competitive advantage.” (Clarke Liz, 2002: 12)

The research conducted by Scott Keller and Carolyn Aiken (2009) found that approximately 70% of the attempts to implement organisational changes fail. The two authors mention that the low rate of success of the change management is caused by two main elements: the employees' attitude and the management’s behaviour. (McKinsey Quarterly Report, April 2009)

The studies in the field conducted by Prosci Company (2012) identify five main obstacles in the change management:

1. ineffective support from the leaders. Approximately 80% of the change initiatives that have benefited from effective support from the leaders have met or even exceeded the targets set. Among the problems identified in this area, we include:

- poor or conflicting involvement, low commitment towards change from the initiators of the change process;
- lack of alignment between the objectives of the change process and the organisational objectives, which creates confusion among employees;
- lack of authority from the initiators.

2. insufficient resources. The process of change is made difficult when the organisation’s management does not really support the change initiative, and the human, material, financial, etc. resources are insufficient or inadequate;

3. resistance to change from the employees, middle managers or top managers;

4. inefficient and weak communication.

The people’s reactions towards change in general and the organisations they are part of, in particular, are marked both by positive and negative aspects. Among the positive aspects we mention enthusiasm, challenge, acquiring new skills, enhancing knowledge and getting rewards. Clarke Liz (2002)

The negative reactions towards change are usually marked by fear, mistrust, anger, stress, disorientation, loss of the sense of belonging to a group, lack of concentration, conflict, resistance, etc.

Among the causes of resistance to change from the employees we identified the following:

- the lack of understanding regarding the need for change;
- employees who are close to retirement or who do not want to learn something new;
- the feeling of insecurity when faced with change;
- unpleasant experiences related to previous change processes;
- employees involved in too many change initiatives.

The resistance to change from managers is caused by the following reasons:

- managers do not support the change initiative because they do not understand or do not accept the need for change;
- insecurity when faced with change and the fear of losing control and/or the place of work;
- lack of knowledge and skills in the field of change management;
- lack of time to properly manage the change process;
- lack of confidence in themselves, based on negative experiences regarding the implementation of previous changes.

Furthermore, clear, transparent and honest communication regarding the need and impact of change is essential for the success of the initiative. In addition, the person who

transmits messages must have sufficient authority in the organisation so that the communication has the desired impact. It is important for the communication process to focus more on the need to change and less on the details of the implementation, so that people do not lose sight of the main objective during the implementation of the change process. (www.manageranticriza.ro)

3. The need for building and developing an organisation's capacity to change in the current social-economic context

According to Michael Jarrett (2011: 19), "the great managerial challenge is not that of understanding the need for change (this, though a crucial moment in the process of change, is only the first step), but to make the actual change."

Marge Combe (2014: 14) believes that in order to have positive results from the implementation of the change management, sufficient attention must be paid to the question "how could change management be effective if the organisation is not ready for change?"

Why do some companies manage to successfully implement an impressive number of change initiatives, while others fail in such projects? What is the difference between the organisations that manage to implement the change and those who fail? We agree with the experts' opinion that the difference lies in the "change capacity" of the organisation. This reflects the attitude and the essential internal capacities, as well as their dynamics, which helps them adapt to the changes from the external environment.

The literature presents some models that try to assess how ready an organisation is for change, but, as Weiner Bryan (2009: 29) said, "as opposed to preparing individuals for change, that of the organisations has not yet been the subject of some in-depth theoretical research or of empirical studies."

Bennebroek Gravenhorst, Werkman and Boonstra (2003) consider that in order to assess the change capacity of an organisation, six aspects should be considered: the objectives and strategy of the organisation, the structure, the culture, the technology, the employment characteristics and the power relations. Following their analysis one can identify the means by which the change capacity of the organisation can be developed.

4. Means of improving the change capacity of an organisation

A certain resistance to change is inevitable and we consider it as being even welcome in some cases, but we should consider measures for compensating it. At top management level this can be achieved by increasing the level of understanding regarding the need for change (or its foundation), the elaboration of its implementation plan and the analysis of the possible results both on short and medium or long term.

At middle management level it is recommended to highlight the way in which change affects the people in the organisation, direct and transparent communication with those affected by the change and the involvement of the employees in the process of change.

Change management does not only involve implementing the change itself but it must include actions that can achieve the organisation's adaptation to change.

We consider that they should be carried out continuously and not be undertaken only when the need for change has already been identified. The change capacity of an organisation is built and developed over time and it requires the involvement of all its members. These actions concern the following:

- adapting the organisational structure to the innovation elements introduced;
- rethinking the strategy from the new perspective of change;
- readapting the management systems of the organisation, namely the information system, the decision making one, etc.

- promoting a management style that not only fosters change, but also attracts the members of the organisation towards change and towards expressing their creative potential;
- the action on the organisation's human resources from the perspective of improving the qualification and re-qualification of the organisation's members, rethinking their position in the organisation, along with remodelling their behaviour (attachment, loyalty, promotion of the organisation's interests, etc);
- shaping new qualities of the organisation corresponding to the changes made and to the ones to come;
- rethinking the system of values that must underpin the organisation's orientation (production of clean goods, increase the quality of after-sales service, etc.).

Ovidiu Nicolescu and Ion Verboncu (2008: 345) consider that "in the current economic environment, managers are increasingly faced with the issue of learning, of preparing for change."

This involves the following:

- clarity of objectives at all levels of the organisation;
- planning the actions and involving the managers and specialists in resolving the relevant issues;
- empowering employees to support the change initiatives;
- assessing the performance and providing certain answers;
- capitalising the ideas of the organisation's entire staff;
- becoming aware of the fact that the change is a learning process.

The degree of attention towards the human resources involved in the change process triggers the success or failure of the change initiatives.

The experts in change management propose a set of four conditions required for a successful organisational change, considering the nature of the organisation's human resource, including its irrational and unpredictable dimensions (www.manageranticriza.ro, April 2014)

- development of attractive incentives;
- providing a behavioural model;
- strengthening the change implementation and support mechanisms;
- building the organisational capacity for change.

The experts in change management and scholars have analysed some contextual conditions affecting the organisational readiness for change (Weiner J Bryan, 2009). Jones RA, Jimmieson NL, Griffiths A (2005) argue that an organisational culture that includes innovation, risk-taking and learning supports the organisational readiness for change. They also emphasise the importance of some flexible organisational policies, the role of the organisational environment in promoting the organisational change and the previous positive experience that can stimulate the willingness to support the organisational transformations.

5. Conclusions

The organisation that does not accept the change as an efficient and competitive process will no longer be competitive; it will no longer be able to meet the new requirements of the market and it will gradually lose its customers. The change can bring both improvements and deterioration in the performance of an organisation, which is why determining the timing for its initiation is one of the most important responsibilities of the managers. The role of managers does not stop only at the stage of identifying the need for change and the timing for starting the process of organisational change.

Since change means both threat and opportunity, the way in which the organisation's members perceive it is important and this is where the managers' talent has an essential role in paying attention in the long run to the attitudes and internal behaviours for developing the change capacity of the organisation.

The building and developing process of the change capacity of the organisation is a multi-faceted one, on long-term, and it involves the use of some important resources and the risk management. That is why we consider that one of the most important qualities of a change manager is his/her capacity to take responsibility for the risk. Each organisational change, regardless of its nature, is accompanied by a series of risks that must be understood and assumed by all the members of the organisation, but especially by the managers.

The development of an organisation involves constant changes; therefore it also needs to increase its capacity to adapt to the conditions dictated by the increasingly dynamic economic, social and political environment.

In our opinion, in order to be able to talk about developing the change capacity of an organisation, more attention should also be given to the evaluation process of the change, in order to analyse the way in which the measures required by the change have been implemented, in order to identify the possible deviations from achieving the set objectives, but also in order to identify new directions of developing the organisation.

Acknowledgement

This work was supported by the project “ Excellence academic routes in the doctoral and postdoctoral research –READ” co-funded from the European Social Fund through the Development of Human Resources Operational Programme 2007-2013, contract no. POSDRU/159/1.5/S/137926.

Bibliography:

1. Bennebroek Gravenhorst M. Kilian, Werkman A. Renate, Boonstra J. Jaap - *The Change Capacity of Organisations: General Assessment and Five Configurations*, Applied Psychology: an International Review, 52(1), 83 –105, 2003
2. Buono F. Anthony, Kerber W. Kenneth - *Building organisational change, capacity*, Management Consulting Division International Conference, Vienna, Austria, 2009
3. Clarke Liz - *Managementul schimbării – Ghid practic privind producerea, menținerea și controlul schimbării într-o firmă sau organizație [Change Management - Practical guide regarding the production, maintenance and control of change in a company or organisation]*, Teora Publishing House, Bucharest, 2002
4. Combe Marge - *Change readiness: focusing change management where it counts*, Project Institute Management, www.pmi.org/learning/~media/PDF/Knowledge%20Center/Focusing-Change-Management-Where-it-Counts.ashx, 2014
5. Jarrett Michael - *Gata de schimbare – de ce unele companii se pot transforma cu succes – iar altele nu [Ready for change – Why can some companies successfully transform – and others can not]*, Publica Publishing House, Bucharest, 2011
6. Jones RA, Jimmieson NL, Griffiths A, *The Impact of Organisational Culture and Reshaping Capabilities on Change Implementation Success: The Mediating Role of Readiness for Change*, Journal of Management Studies, 2005
7. Gravenhorst Bennebroek M. Kilian, Werkman A. Renate, Boonstra J. Jaap, *The Change Capacity of Organisations: General Assessment and Five Configurations*, Applied Psychology: an international review, 52 (1), 83-105, 2003
8. Nicolescu Ovidiu; Verboncu Ion - *Fundamentele managementului organizației [The fundamentals of organisational management]*, University Publishing House, Bucharest, 2008
9. Petrescu Marius, Stegăroiu Ion, Năbârjoiu Neculae, Duică Anișoara, Popa Eliza - *Managementul schimbării și riscului [Change and Risk Management]*, Bibliotheca Publishing House, Târgoviște, 2010
10. Weiner J Bryan - *A theory of organisational readiness for change*, <http://www.implementationscience.com/content/4/1/67>, 2009
11. ****Managementul schimbării – de ce eșuează inițiativele de schimbare [Change Management – Why do the change initiatives fail]*, www.manageranticriza.ro, aprilie 2014
12. ***www.prosci.com