

- ◆ KAJ BODO POČELE BANKE  
BREZ KREDITOV?

*Velimir Bole, Jože Mencinger, Franjo Štiblar, Robert Volčjak*

- ◆ THE FIRST DECADE OF ACCESSION  
TO THE EU – A POLITICAL  
ECONOMY PERSPECTIVE OF  
CEE COUNTRIES

*Ozren Pilipović, Meta Ahtik, Nenad Rančić*

- ◆ STATISTIČNA PRILOGA



EIPF

# **GOSPODARSKA GIBANJA**

**473**

Ljubljana, november-december 2014

---

## UREDNIŠKI ODBOR:

**Meta Ahtik**, Pravna fakulteta UL, Ljubljana;

**Wilfried Altzinger**, Wirtschaftsuniversität, Wien, Avstria;

**Jani Bekő**, Univerza v Mariboru, Maribor;

**Velimir Bole**, EIPF, Ljubljana;

**Enrico Colombatto**, Universitá di Torino, Italija;

**France Križanič**, EIPF, Ljubljana;

**Jože Mencinger**, EIPF, Ljubljana – urednik;

**Žan Oplotnik**, Univerza v Mariboru, Maribor;

**Steve Pejovich**, University of Texas, ZDA;

**Franjo Štiblar**, EIPF, Ljubljana;

---

**GOSPODARSKA GIBANJA** objavlja rezultate raziskovanj EIPF o tekočih gospodarskih dogajanjih. Prva številka je izšla junija 1971, od novembra istega leta pa izhajajo redno vsak mesec (z eno dvojno številko v letu). Do novembra 1974 so objavljala rezultate raziskovanj EIPF za Jugoslavijo in so bila pisana v srbohrvaščini. Od novembra 1974 do oktobra 1991, ko so prenehala izhajati, so rezultate raziskovanj za Jugoslavijo objavljala PRIVREDNA KRETANJA JUGOSLAVIJE, GOSPODARSKA GIBANJA pa so se omejevala na Slovenijo. Publikacijo od 2009 sofinancira Javna agencija za knjigo RS.

**Pogoji naročila:** Naročilo začenja z dogovorno določenim mesecem, naslednja leta se samodejno podaljšuje, konča pa z decembrom tistega leta, v katerem je bilo pisno odpovedano.

© 2014 EIPF, Ekonomski institut d.o.o., Ljubljana, p.p.1722, Prešernova 21,

Tel: (01) 2521688, 2518776, 2518704; Fax: (01) 4256870;

Elektronska pošta: INFO@EIPF.SI,

Domača stran: WWW.EIPF.SI

ISSN številka: 0351-0360

Zaščita vključuje vsako reproduciranje, kopiranje, mikrofilmanje, ne glede na tehniko, celote in posameznih delov.

Tiskala tiskarna CICERO v 400 izvodih.

Oblikovanje in priprava za tisk: Rogač RMV, d.o.o.

# KAZALO

---

<b>KAJ BODO POČELE BANKE BREZ KREDITOV?</b>	<b>6</b>
<i>Velimir Bole, Jože Mencinger, Franjo Štiblar, Robert Volčjak</i>	
1. Veliki pozitivni učinki neto izvoza na BDP in povečan optimizem potrošnikov	12
2. V začetku jeseni 2014 se rast izvoza in pozitivnih saldov nadaljuje	13
3. Gospodarska klima ob koncu leta relativno ugodna	15
4. Industrijska produkcija še raste	16
5. Rahel upad gradbeništva	17
6. Nekoliko manjša brezposelnost	17
7. Slovenija blizu, nekaj evropskih držav pa v deflacji	19
8. Nadaljevanje stagnacije in zmanjševanja plač; ceno krize so plačali delojemalci	22
9. Solidna rast javnofinančnih prihodkov	24
10. Se bo bančni sistem sesul kar sam?	25
11. Oktobrski presežek na tekočem računu je rekorden	26
<b>THE FIRST DECADE OF ACCESSION TO THE EU – A POLITICAL ECONOMY PERSPECTIVE OF CEE COUNTRIES</b>	<b>29</b>
<i>Ozren Pilipović, Meta Ahtik, Nenad Rančić</i>	
1. Political economy of CEE since 1991	31
2. Transition in Central and Eastern Europe: Some general features	32
3. EU and Eastern enlargement	40
4. Conclusion: Political Economy of CEE countries 10 years later	46
<b>STATISTIČNA PRILOGA</b>	<b>51</b>

# KAJ BODO POČELE BANKE BREZ KREDITOV?

Velimir Bole, Jože Mencinger, Franjo Štiblar, Robert Volčjak

*Novih podatkov o domačem trošenju ni. Tudi v oktobru se je nadaljevala hitra rast izvoznega povpraševanja; kaže, da se bodo pozitivni učinki menjave s tujino na gospodarsko rast nadaljevali tudi v četrtri kvartal. Decembske ocene potrošnikov in njihova pričakovanja je mogoče oceniti za optimistična. Zaupanje potrošnikov in ocena finančnega stanja sta precej manj negativna kot decembra 2013, pričakujejo tudi, da se jim bo finančno stanje v naslednjih dvanajstih mesecih popravilo. Tudi ocene gospodarskega stanja in ocene za prihodnjih dvanajstih mesecev so boljše; pričakovanja o inflaciji so nespremenjena, pričakovanja o brezposelnosti se izboljšujejo. Manj potrošnikov kot leto prej zavrača pomisel na nakupe, manj jih zavrača možnost večjih nakupov in več kot polovica finančno stanje svojega gospodinjstva ocenjuje za dobro.*

*Blagovna menjava kaže ugodno dinamiko: hitrejšo rast izvoza od uvoza ter pozitiven saldo v skupni menjavi in v menjavi z nečlanicami EU; primanjkljaj v menjavi s članicami EU postopno izginja. Slovenija je med uspešnejšimi, saj njena menjava raste, v EU28 in v evro območju pa pada.*

*Gospodarska klima v decembru je bila relativno ugodna. Ustvarjale so jo višja raven zaupanja v predelovalnih dejavnostih, nekoliko zmanjšana raven v storitvenih dejavnostih, popravljeno zaupanje v gradbeništvu in nižja raven zaupanja v trgovini na drobno. Gospodarska klima se je novembra 2014 v primerjavi z enakim obdobjem v letu 2013 v celotni EU28 nekoliko popravila, poslovni optimizem pa je nekoliko splahnel.*

*Industrijska produkcija, še posebej predelovalna dejavnost, se je v medletni primerjavi popravila. V oktobru 2014 je bila industrijska produkcija v EU28 in na območju evra le malo večja kot septembra, manj kot odstotek večja je bila tudi v primerjavi z oktobrom 2013.*

*Gradbena aktivnost je oktobra zaostala za septembrsko in tudi oktobrsko v letu 2013. Skupno število turističnih prenočitev se je znižalo, spet predvsem zaradi zmanjšanja števila domačih gostov, ki pa se mu je pridružil tudi šibkejši padec tujih. Zračni potniški prevoz se še naprej močno krepi, dobro je šlo tudi v Luki Koper, cestni mestni prevoz pa je malo zastal.*

*Na trgu dela se je stanje oktobra spet malo popravilo; nekoliko se je povečalo število aktivnih, delovno aktivnih, zaposlenih pri pravnih in fizičnih osebah ter samozaposlenih.*

*V novembru se je število iskalcev dela zmanjšalo, manj jih je bilo tudi v primerjavi z novembrom 2013; število na novo prijavljenih iskalcev se je zmanjšalo, največ se jih je prijavilo, ker se jim je iztekla zaposlitev za določen čas. Med nekoliko večjim številom tistih, ki so zapustili zavode za zaposlovanje, je večina našla zaposlitev ali pa se je samozaposlila. Stopnja brezposelnosti na območju evra je oktobra ostala nespremenjena, v primerjavi z oktobrom 2013 pa se je znižala; še bolj se je znižala v EU28. Kar tri četrtine brezposelnih v EU je s področja evra, najvišja je brezposelnost v Grčiji in Španiji, najnižja v Avstriji in Nemčiji.*

*December ni prinesel sprememb v bolj dolgoročna gibanja cen v Sloveniji ali v evro področju. V letu dni (od decembra 2013) so cene življenjskih potrebščin v Sloveniji rahlo zrasle, blago se je pocenilo storitve podražile. V novembru so cene na drobno padle v vseh članicah EU razen v Nemčiji in Avstriji, kar kaže na pospešeno približevanje medletni deflacijski v EU in še hitreje v evro območju. Medtem ko je bila v letu 2012 novembska inflacija v evro območju še nad ciljno dve odstotno, se je v letu 2013 znižala pod odstotek, lani pa na le 0.3 odstotke. Deflacijsko na letni ravni so v novembru 2014 že imele Bolgarija, Grčija, Španija in Poljska.*

*Cene industrijskih proizvajalcev so se novembra 2014 znižale za proizvode namenjene domačemu in tujim trgom; bile so enake kot novembra 2013, v letu dni so se proizvodi namenjeni domačemu trgu pocenili, proizvodi, namenjeni prodaji na tujih trgih pa so se podražili. Cene uvoženih proizvodov so bile v novembru nižje kot v oktobru; pocenili so se proizvodi iz držav evrskega območja. Cene surovin se niso spremenile, močno pa sta se pocenila surova nafta in zemeljski plin.*

*Povprečna bruto in neto plača je bila oktobra višja predvsem zaradi večjega števila delovnih ur kot v septembru, saj so se plače na uro v večini sektorjev znižale. Večja izjema so le plače v finančni dejavnosti, ki so močno zrasle tudi na uro. Najbolj so se znižale plače v oskrbi z elektriko, plinom in paro, precej pa so se mesečne in urne plače znižale v šolstvu.*

*Da breme krize nosijo predvsem delojemalci ne pa delodajalci in »delodajalci«, kaže spremenjanje deleža dela in kapitala v BDP. V Sloveniji se je delež dela od četrtega kvartala 2008 do četrtega kvartala 2013 zmanjšal s 53,2 odstotkov na 50.7 odstotkov, medtem ko se je v nemškem gospodarstvu povečal s 55.2 na 55.8 odstotkov. Krizo so plačali predvsem delojemalci obrobnih evropskih gospodarstev in novih članic EU, kjer so se že sicer nizki deleži dela še dodatno močno zmanjšali.*

*Javnofinančni prihodki so bili novembra 2014 manjši kot oktobra, a večji kot novembra 2013. Impulzni trend se je obrnil navzdol. Prispevki za socialno varnost so ostali malone nespremenjeni, tudi obe največji blagajni socialne varnosti, zdravstvena in pokojninska, sta novembra dobili približno toliko kot oktobra. Kumulativno so javnofinančni prihodki v enajstih mesecih za 659 milijonov evrov presegli prihodke iz 2013; k temu so največ*

*prispevali prihodki od davka na dohodke pravnih oseb, nekaj pa tudi dohodnina in DDV po obračunu, manj pa je prinesel DDV od uvoženega blaga.*

*SURS je primanjkljaj države v treh četrtletjih 2014 ocenil na 4.5 odstotke BDP. Levji delež v treh četrtletjih povečanih prihodkov je šel za plačilo obresti, nekaj pa za večje investicije v osnovna sredstva. Primarni primanjkljaj je SURS ocenil na 1.3 odstotka BDP, precej manj kot v letu 2013, javni dolg pa na 78.1 odstotka BDP. Na strukturo izdatkov po namenih je v letu 2013 močno vplivala sanacija bank, saj se je delež izdatkov za ekonomsko dejavnost uvrstil takoj za deležem izdatkov namenjenih socialni varnosti.*

8

*Veliko oktobrsko zmanjšanje kreditov je posledica ponovnega prenosa slabih terjatev na DUTB, a novembra so se krediti ponovno zmanjšali. Depoziti podjetij, ki so oktobra nekoliko porasli, so se v novembru zmanjšali, depoziti prebivalstva pa povečali. Nenehno krčenje kreditov vse bolj postavlja vprašanje, kaj bodo, oziroma kaj nameravajo banke početi v prihodnosti. Velika proizvodna izvozna podjetja njihovih storitev očitno ne potrebujejo, mala storitvena podjetja, ki pa kreditov ne morejo dobiti, pa banke zamenjujejo s ponudniki denarja na sivem trgu in s prehajanjem na blagovno menjavo. Da v vzdušju, kakršno vlada v Sloveniji, noben bankir ne upa reprogramirati kreditov ali za dlje zadržati zaplenjenih delnic nefinančnih družb, je razumljivo; če ne naredi ničesar, ne bo postal »kriminalec«. Toda banke, kljub izredno nizkim depozitnim obrestnim meram, tudi same ne bodo mogle preživeti od vse bolj raznovrstnih stroškov, ki jih zaračunavajo za opravljanje plačilnega prometa in hrambe depozitov, saj jim bo dodatne stroške povzročila nova kontrolna oblast.*

*Obrestne mere ECB se od septembra niso spremenile; nenavadno je le, da ECB po dolgoletni krizi ne ugotovi, da so njene obrestne mere postale povsem irrelevantne tako za uravnavanje inflacije oziroma preprečevanje deflacji in še bolj za ozivljjanje gospodarstva. Pasivne in aktivne obrestne mere na nove vloge in posojila različnih ročnosti se zmanjšujejo, novih dolgoročnih vlog in posojil pa malone ni.*

*Oktobrski plačilnobilančni rekord potrjuje, da ostaja menjava s tujino ključen dejavnik rasti BDP v 2014. Od ustvarjenega BDP je Slovenija v oktobru neto izvozila kar desetino BDP, kar kaže na tipično zategovalno politiko, vsiljeno od EU, in na odrekanje porabi za poplačalo starih dolgov. Z nadaljevanjem podobne dinamike v zadnjih dveh mesecih 2014 je mogoče pričakovati letni presežek tekoče plačilne bilance prek 6% BDP.*

*V desetih mesecih dosežen večji presežek tekočega računa v 2014 v primerjavi z 2013 je rezultat velikega blagovnega presežka, nekoliko skromnejšega storitvenega presežka, večjega primanjkljaja v dohodkih faktorjev in manjšega primanjkljaja v tekočih transferih. Finančni presežek ustvarjajo priliv neposrednih naložb, priliv kapitala prek izdaje vrednostnih papirjev in odliv kapitala prek ostalih naložb. V bruto zunanjem dolgu vse bolj prevladuje garantirani javni dolg.*

# WHAT WILL BANKS DO WITHOUT CREDITS?

Velimir Bole, Jože Mencinger, Franjo Štiblar, Robert Volčjak

9

*There are no new data on domestic demand. Continued rapid growth in export demand in October indicates that the positive effects of international trade on economic growth might continue in the fourth quarter. Consumers' evaluation and their expectations can be considered optimistic. Consumer's confidence and assessment of their financial situation is less negative than it was in December 2013 and more of them expect that the financial situation in the next twelve months will improve. The estimates of the economic situation and the assessment of the economic situation in the next twelve months are also better; inflationary expectations are unaltered, the expectations of unemployment are improving. Less consumers than a year before are rejecting potential purchases in next twelve months, fewer reject the possibility of major purchases, and more than half of them consider financial situation of their households as good.*

*International trade exhibits positive dynamics: faster growth of exports than imports, and a positive balance in total trade and trade with non-EU countries, while the deficit in trade with EU Member States is gradually disappearing. Slovenia is among the most successful EU Member States, as her foreign trade is growing while trade in the EU28 and in the euro area is falling.*

*The economic climate in December was relatively good. It was created by higher level of confidence in the manufacturing sector, slightly reduced level of confidence in the service sector, upward adjusted confidence in the construction sector and lower level of confidence in the retail trade. The economic climate in November 2014 compared to the same period in 2013 across the EU28 improved slightly, but business optimism worsened.*

*Industrial production in the annual comparison restored, especially in manufacturing. Industrial production in the EU28 and the euro area was in October 2014, only slightly larger than in September, and it increased less than one percent compared with October 2013.*

*Construction activity lagged behind the levels in September and in October 2013. Total number of tourist overnight stays decreased, again mainly due to a decrease in the number of domestic visitors, which was joined by weaker drop of foreign visitors. Air passenger transport continued to grow strongly, activity was good in the Port of Koper, urban transport slowed slightly.*

*In the labor market, the situation improved again; there was a slight increase in the number of active population, employees, and self-employed. In November, the number of job seekers was lower than in November 2013; the number of newly reported unemployed persons decreased, most of them occurred due to the termination of temporary employment. Among the slightly larger number of those who left employment services, majority found job or became self-employed. The unemployment rate in the euro area and in the EU28 remained unaltered in October, but decreased compared with October 2013. More than three-quarters of the unemployed in the EU are in the euro area, the highest unemployment is in Greece and Spain, and lowest in Austria and Germany.*

10

*December brought no change to more long-term price movements in Slovenia and the euro area. In a year (December 2013), consumer prices rose slightly in Slovenia, commodity prices decreased, prices of services increased. In November, retail prices fell in all EU Member States except in Germany and Austria, suggesting accelerated convergence to yearly deflation in the EU and even faster in the euro area. While in 2012, inflation in the euro area was above the target of two percent, it fell below one percent in 2013 and to only 0.3 percent in November 2014. Bulgaria, Greece, Spain and Poland already face deflation on an annual basis.*

*Industrial producer prices in November 2014 decreased for products for the domestic and foreign markets; the prices of industrial products are equal to the prices in November 2013; the prices for products for the domestic market decreased, while the prices of the products for foreign markets went up. Import prices were lower in November than in October; the products from the euro area became cheaper. Raw material prices have not changed a lot except for lower prices of crude oil and natural gas.*

*The average gross and net earnings in October were higher mainly due to higher number of working hours than in September, hourly wage in most sectors decreased. The only exceptions are salaries in financial activities, which increased substantially both in a month or for an hour. Wages in the supply of electricity, gas and steam providing sector decreased most; the monthly and hourly wages declined in education, as well.*

*That the burden of the crisis hit employees rather than employers and “employers” is shown by the evolution of labor and capital shares in GDP. In Slovenia, the share of labor from the fourth quarter of 2008 decreased from 53.2 percent to 50.7 percent, while in the German economy the share rose from 55.2 to 55.8 percent. The crisis was mainly paid by employees in the peripheral European economies and new EU member states.*

*Fiscal revenues in November 2014 were lower than in October but higher than in November 2013. Social security contributions remained almost unchanged, the two largest social security funds, health and pensions, in November received about the same amounts as in October. Cumulatively, fiscal revenues in the first eleven months exceeded corresponding revenues in 2013 by 659 million €. This was mainly contributed by revenues from the tax*

*on corporate income, income tax, domestic VAT while revenues of VAT on imported goods were lower.*

*Statistical office of the Republic of Slovenia estimated the deficit in three quarters of 2014 to be 4.5 percent of GDP. The lion's share of the increased revenues went to pay interest and for investment in fixed assets. The primary deficit is estimated at to 1.3 percent of GDP, half of what it was in 2013, while public debt is estimated at 78.1 percent of GDP. The structure of expenditure by function in 2013 was strongly influenced by the rehabilitation of banks; the share of expenditure on economic activity was placed after the share of expenditure allocated for social protection.*

11

*Though tremendous decrease in loans in October is due to the re-transmission of bad debts, loans continued to shrink in November 2014. Deposits of non-financial companies decreased, while deposits by households increased. Constantly shrinking credit activity raises the question of what the banks intend to do in the future. Large successful export companies do not need their services while small companies in the service sector cannot get loans; they are thus forced to seek loans on the gray and get engaged in barter trade. In the atmosphere faced in Slovenia, bankers apparently do not dare to reprogram loans or keeping confiscated shares of non-financial companies for a while. This is understandable; if you do not do anything, you will not become a "criminal". However, the banks will not be able to survive, despite the extremely low deposit interest rates, invention of new costs charged for the payment services and guarding deposits. Particularly, because they face additional costs of the newly invented control by ECB.*

*Since September ECB interest rates have not changed; it is but unusual that the ECB after many years of crisis, does not find out that its interest rates have become completely irrelevant both to control inflation or deflation and to speed up economic recovery. The interest rate of new deposits and loans of different maturities are diminishing, new long-term deposits and loans almost do not exist.*

*The balance of payments data in October confirm that foreign trade remains a key in the growth of GDP in 2014. Namely net exports in October amounted to 10 percent of GDP, reflecting the typical austerity policy imposed by the EU, and a lot of pain of Slovenian population to reimburse old debts. By continuing with similar dynamics in the last two months of 2014, one can expect full-year surplus of the current account balance of payments of over 6% of GDP, which is too high both in terms of lack of imports of technology and compression of spending.*

*The surplus in balance of payments in comparison with 2013 is the result of a large surplus in goods, somewhat more modest surplus in services, a larger deficit in primary incomes, and a lower deficit in current transfers. Financial surplus is generated by the inflow of direct investment, inflow of capital through investments in securities and capital outflow through other investments. Gross external debt is increasingly dominated by guaranteed public debt.*

## AGREGATNO POVPAŠEVANJE IN PRIČAKOVANJA

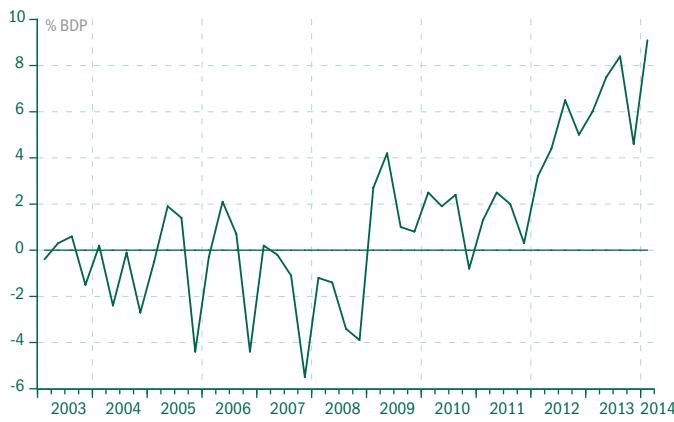
### 1. Veliki pozitivni učinki neto izvoza na BDP in povečan optimizem potrošnikov

Novih podatkov o domačem trošenju ni. V tretjem kvartalu 2014 je domače trošenje avgusta zanimalo navzdol, septembra pa navzgor, skupno domače trošenje v tretjem kvartalu je bilo z 7460 milijoni evrov za 2.59 odstotka višje kot leto prej. Tudi v oktobru se je nadaljevala hitra rast izvoznega povpaševanja; izvoz blaga je bil v oktobru največji doslej, oktobrskega iz leta 2013 je presegel za 8.4 odstotke. Ker je bil uvoz manjši in tudi povečanje v primerjavi z oktobrom lani manjše, kaže da se bodo pozitivni učinki menjave s tujino na gospodarsko rast nadaljevali tudi v četrtem kvartalu.

12

Po SURS-ovi oceni je bil BDP v tretjem četrtletju 9617 milijonov evrov, kar je za 3.2 odstotka več kot leto prej, domača poraba je bila z 8758 milijoni evrov za 1.9 odstotkov večja kot v enakem kvartalu 2013, medtem ko je neto tuje povpaševanje prispevalo 859 milijonov evrov; izvoz blaga in storitev se je v letu dni povečal za 6.8 odstotka, uvoz pa za 5.5 odstotkov. Od sestavin domačega trošenja so se najbolj za 7.2 odstotka povečale investicije, trošenje prebivalstva je bilo večje le za 0.8 odstotka, trošenje države pa je bilo enako trošenju v tretjem kvartalu 2013.

Prispevek neto izvoza k BDP



Vir: Eurostat

V proizvodni strukturi BDP se je za 10.1 odstotek povečal BDP v gradbeništvu, a pri tem gre upoštevati, da se je v tretjem kvartalu 2013 BDP gradbeništva še krčil. Za 5.1 odstotek se je povečal BDP v predelovalnih dejavnostih, za 3.5 pa BDP v trgovini. V primerjavi s tretjim kvartalom 2013 so se krčile finančne storitve.

## Ocene in pričakovanja potrošnikov

	2014/12	2013/12	dolgoletno povprečje
Kazalec zaupanja potrošnikov	-18	-32	-28.7
Finančno stanje v zadnjih 12 mesecih	-29	-43	-38.7
Finančno stanje v prihodnjih 12 mesecih	-12	-25	-22.1
Razlika	+17	+18	+16.5
Gospodarsko stanje v zadnjih 12 mesecih	-40	-70	-65.7
Gospodarsko stanje v prihodnjih 12 mesecih	-11	-33	-29.0
Razlika	+29	+37	+36.7
Gibanja cen v zadnjih 12 mesecih	+12	+34	+36.4
Gibanje cen v prihodnjih 12 mesecih	+11	+15	+27.3
Razlika	-1	-19	-9.1
Raven brezposelnosti v naslednjih 12 mesecih	+23	+40	+38.8
Primernost trenutka za večje nakupe	-20	-47	-39.3
Večji nakupi v prihodnjih 12 mesecih	-17	-20	-20.3
Primernost trenutka za varčevanje	-14	-23	-11.8
Varčevanje v prihodnjih 12 mesecih	-26	-31	-24.6
Sedanje finančno stanje v gospodinjstvu	+14	+12	+12.7

Vir: SURS, lastni izračuni

13

Decembske ocene potrošnikov in njihova pričakovanja je mogoče oceniti za optimistična. Zaupanje potrošnikov je precej manj negativno kot je bilo pred letom in v povprečju zadnjih štirih let. Potrošniki svoje finančno stanje ocenjujejo za manj negativno kot pred letom in tudi manj negativno kot v zadnjih štirih letih. Poleg tega pričakujejo, da se jim bo finančno stanje v naslednjih dvanajstih mesecih popravilo. Tudi ocene gospodarskega stanja, pri katerih so potrošniki izredno kritični, so manj negativne, kot so bile pred letom in manj negativne od povprečja zadnjih štirih let. To velja tudi za oceno gospodarskega stanja v prihodnjih dvanajstih mesecih; zdaj le še enajst odstotkov ocenjevalcev meni, da bo gospodarsko stanje slabše, decembra 2013 je bilo takšnih 40 odstotkov. Med zdajšnjimi ocenami gibanja cen v preteklih in v prihodnjih dvanajstih mesecih ni velikih razlik. Manj kot pred letom jih ocenjuje, da se bo brezposelnost povečala. Manj kot lani jih meni, da trenutek ni primeren za večje nakupe, manj kot lani tudi nima v mislih večjih nakupov v prihodnjih dvanajstih mesecih. Manj kot lani jih meni, da trenutek ni primeren za varčevanje, približno toliko kot decembra 2013 jih ne namerava varčevati. Končno več kot polovica vprašanih finančno stanje gospodinjstva ocenjuje za dobro.

## 2. V začetku jeseni 2014 se rast izvoza in pozitivnih saldov nadaljuje

Tudi v jesenskih mesecih kaže blagovna menjava ugodno dinamiko: hitrejšo rast izvoza od uvoza ter pozitiven saldo v skupni menjavi in v menjavi z nečlanicami EU, medtem

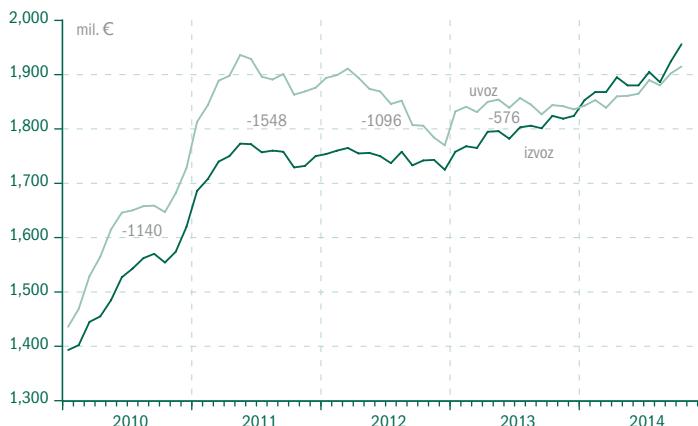
ko primanjkljaj v menjavi s članicami EU postopno izginja. Slovenija kaže medletno rast menjave, medtem ko v celotni EU28 in tudi v evro območju le-ta pada. V izvozu je Slovenija med petimi članicami EU28 z največjo medletno rastjo.

14

Oktobra 2014 je bil skupni izvoz 2162 milijonov € (kar je 9.0% več kot pred letom), skupni uvoz 2057 milijonov € (2.5% več kot oktobra 2013), kar da presežek 105 milijonov € oziroma 105.1% pokritje uvoza z izvozom. Pri tem je bila odprema blaga v EU 1665 milijonov € (kar 10.3% več kot leto prej), prejem blaga iz EU 1599 milijonov € (5.4% več kot leto prej), kar pomeni presežek 66 milijonov € oziroma 104.1% pokritje uvoza z izvozom. Izvoz v nečlanice EU je znašal 496 milijonov € (4.8% več kot leto prej), uvoz 458 milijonov € (6.5% manj kot oktobra 2013), kar pomeni presežek 38 milijonov € oziroma 108% pokritje uvoza z izvozom.

V desetih mesecih 2014 je bil skupni izvoz 19206 milijonov € (6.3% več kot leto prej), skupni uvoz 18837 milijonov € (2.2% več), kar pomeni presežek 369 milijonov € oziroma 102.0% pokritje uvoza z izvozom. V okviru skupne blagovne menjave je znašala odprema blaga v EU 14688 milijonov € (8.3% več kot leto prej), prejem blaga iz EU 14717 milijonov € (1.3% več kot oktobra 2013), kar da primanjkljaj le 29 milijonov € oziroma 99.8% pokritje prejema z odpremo v menjavi z drugimi članicami EU. V menjavi z nečlanicami EU je bil desetmesečni izvoz 4718 milijonov € (0.4% več kot v enakem obdobju 2013), uvoz 4120 milijonov € (5.8% več), kar da presežek 398 milijonov € oziroma 109.7% pokritje uvoza z izvozom.

Trgovinska menjava



Vir: SURS, impulzni trend, lastni izračuni

V EU28 je po desezoniranih podatkih oktobra 2014 glede na september 2014 izvoz padel za 0.7%, uvoz za 1.4%, v evro območju pa sta bila padca 0.3% v izvozu, 1.3% v uvozu. Nasprotno je, nedesezonirano, med obema mesecema slovenski izvoz porasel za 0.4%, uvoz za 2.8%. Tako kot EU28 in evro območje (EU18) tudi Slovenija ohranja skupno blagovno bilanco in blagovno bilanco z nečlanicami pozitivno.

V devetih mesecih skupaj dosega Slovenija med EU28 tretjo do peto mesto po rasti izvoza in deseto do trinajsto mesto po rasti uvoza. Z blagovno bilanco v absolutnem znesku je bila Slovenija v prvih devetih mesecih 2013 dvanajsta, v enakem obdobju 2014 pa enajsta najuspešnejša članica EU28.

15

V menjavi z nečlanicami EU je po desezoniranih podatkih dosegla Slovenija med EU28 v oktobru 2014 glede na september 2014 enajsto največjo rast v izvozu in šesti največji padec v uvozu. Z negativno bilanco v tej menjavi je bila septembra estnajsta najslabša (-0.2 milijardi €), v oktobru pa petnajsta najslabša (-0.1 milijarda €).

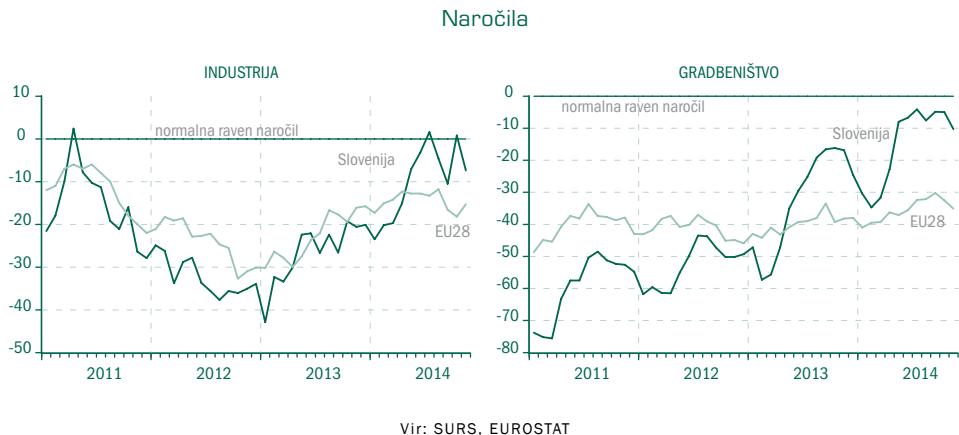
### **3. Gospodarska klima ob koncu leta relativno ugodna**

Razvoj gospodarske klime je v decembru relativno ugoden. Po anketi Statističnega urada Republike Slovenije (SURS) o gospodarski klimi je bila vrednost njenega kazalnika v decembru 2014 na enaki ravni kot novembra, od decembra 2013 je višja za 12 odstotnih točk, hkrati pa je njegova vrednost za tri odstotne točke višja od dolgoletnega povprečja.

Vrednosti kazalnika zaupanja v predelovalnih dejavnostih je bila decembra za dve odstotni točki višja kot novembra 2014, glede na december 2013 je bila njegova vrednost višja za 4 odstotne točke, glede na dolgoletno povprečje pa za 6 odstotnih točk. Po SURS-ovih podatkih so se vrednosti kazalnikov stanj in pričakovanj za naslednje tri mesece v primerjavi s predhodnim mesecem večinoma zvišale, znižali sta se le vrednosti kazalnikov pričakovano zaposlovanje in zaloge.

Raven zaupanja v storitvenih dejavnostih je bila decembru 2014 enaka kot predhodni mesec in hkrati za 2 odstotni točki nižja od dolgoletnega povprečja, v primerjavi z decembrom lani pa je bila njegova vrednost višja za 21 odstotnih točk.

Zaupanje v gradbeništву se je še popravilo, saj je bila vrednost kazalnika zaupanja v tem sektorju v decembru 2014 za odstotno točko višja kot predhodni mesec in za 6 odstotnih točk višja kot decembra 2013. Poudariti velja, da so se vrednosti vseh kazalnikov pričakovanj za naslednje tri mesece v gradbeni dejavnosti v primerjavi s predhodnim mesecem večinoma zvišale, znižale pa so se vrednosti kazalnikov tehnične zmogljivosti, obsega gradbenih del in pričakovana skupna naročila.



Ankete SURS-a kažejo, da je bila vrednost kazalnika zaupanja v trgovini na drobno v decembru glede na predhodni mesec nižja za 7 odstotnih točk, glede na december 2013 pa je bil kazalnik višji za 14 odstotnih točk. Pri tem je na znižanje vrednosti kazalnika zaupanja vplivala predvsem nižja vrednost kazalnika prodaje.

Gospodarska klima se je novembra 2014 v primerjavi z enakim obdobjem v letu 2013 v celotni EU28 v splošnem nekoliko popravila, za 1,8 odstotne točke nižji je le poslovni optimizem. Mesečna primerjava kaže, da so se v gradbeništvu po podatkih Eurostata v novembru 2014 naročila glede na mesec poprej znižala za 2,6 odstotne točke, glede na november 2013 so višja za 2,9 odstotne točke. Glede na oktober so se v novembru za 2,6 odstotne točke zvišala pričakovanja v trgovini na drobno, pričakovanja v predelovalnih dejavnostih so se v enakem obdobju izboljšala za 2,6 odstotne točke.

## GOSPODARSKA AKTIVNOST IN ZAPOSLENOST

### 4. Industrijska produkcija še raste

Industrijska produkcija se je v medletni primerjavi popravila. Po originalnih (nedesezoniranih) podatkih SURS-a je bila industrijska produkcija v oktobru 2014 za 3,2% višja kot v enakem mesecu leta 2013. Impulzni trend kaže, da se je v oktobru industrijska produkcija zviševala po stopnji 0,41%.

Dejavnost rudarstva se je po originalnih (nedesezoniranih) podatkih SURS-a v oktobru v primerjavi z oktobrom 2013 zmanjšala za 0.8%. Impulzni trend pa kaže, da se je v oktobru dejavnost rudarstva zniževala po stopnji -4.19%.

Produkcija predelovalnih dejavnosti se je po originalnih (nedesezoniranih) podatkih SURS-a v oktobru v primerjavi z oktobrom 2013 povišala za 5,3%, impulzni trend pa kaže, da se je v oktobru dejavnost predelovalne industrije povečevala po stopnji 0,48%.

Desezonirani podatki Eurostata kažejo, da je v mesecu oktobru 2014 glede na september industrijska produkcija tako v EU28 kot tudi na območju evra (EA18) porasla za 0,1%. Glede na oktober lani pa je v letošnjem oktobru industrijska produkcija v EU28 porasla za 0,8%, na območju evra pa za 0,7%. Med državami članicami, za katere so dostopni podatki, je industrijska produkcija v oktobru glede na mesec poprej najbolj porasla na Irskem (9,0%) in v Litvi (5,0%), najbolj pa je upadla na Madžarskem (-2,7%) ter v Franciji in na Nizozemskem (-0,9%).

17

## 5. Rahel upad gradbeništva

Po podatkih SURS-a je bila vrednost gradbenih del oktobra 2014 za 0,9% nižja od vrednosti gradbenih del, opravljenih v septembru, vrednost opravljenih gradbenih del v oktobru v primerjavi z istim mesecem 2013 se je zmanjšala za 2,4 odstotka.

Skupno število turističnih prenočitev se je v zgodnji jeseni znižalo. Septembra 2014 jih je bilo za 4,7% manj kot v enakem mesecu leta 2013, po impulznem trendu pa se je skupno število prenočitev v devetem mesecu 2014 zniževalo po mesečni stopnji -0,12%. Pri tem je prišlo do upada domačega turističnega povpraševanja, saj je v septembru število turističnih prenočitev domačih gostov padlo za 5,8% glede na september 2013. Število prenočitev tujih gostov se je v enakem časovnem intervalu zmanjšalo za 4,2%. Impulzni trend prenočitev domačih gostov v septembru 2014 kaže krčenje po stopnji 1,61%, impulzni trend prenočitev tujih gostov pa rast po stopnji 0,2%.

Podatki SURS-a o transportu za oktober 2014 kažejo, da je bilo v zračnem prevozu prepeljanih za 18% več potnikov kot oktobra 2013, število opravljenih potniških kilometrov je bilo v zračnem prevozu prav tako več in sicer za 31%. V cestnem mestnem prevozu je bilo oktobra prepeljanih za 3% manj potnikov kot v istem mesecu 2013. V luki Koper je bil blagovni promet v oktobru za 10% večji kot oktobra 2013.

## 6. Nekoliko manjša brezposelnost

Na trgu dela se je stanje nekoliko popravilo. Število aktivnih prebivalcev se je po podatkih SURS-a v mesecu oktobru 2014 povečalo na 922325 oziroma za 4242, glede na oktober 2013 pa se je število povečalo za slabih 6 tisoč oseb oziroma 0,6 odstotka. V oktobru 2014 je bilo v Sloveniji 806424 delovno aktivnih prebivalcev. Glede na september se je število delovno aktivnih povečalo za 90, glede na oktober 2013 pa se je to število povečalo za

dobrih 8 tisoč oseb ali 1,1%. Med zaposlenimi osebami jih je bilo v oktobru slabih 93% zaposlenih pri pravnih osebah, njihovo število pa se je od oktobra 2013 povečalo za 1,4%. Število zaposlenih pri fizičnih osebah se je glede na oktober 2013 povečalo za 0,5%. Med samozaposlenimi pa je bilo 62% samostojnih podjetnikov posameznikov, njihovo število se je v oktobru povečalo za 539, od oktobra 2013 pa za 2809 oziroma 5%.

18



Vir: ZRSZ

Po zadnjih podatkih ZRSZ je bilo v Sloveniji konec novembra 2014 registriranih 115411 brezposelnih oseb, kar je za 490 oseb oziroma 0,4% manj kot ob koncu oktobra, v primerjavi z novembrom 2013 pa je bilo brezposelnih za 3,3% manj. V novembru se je na Zavodu za zaposlovanje na novo prijavilo 7646 brezposelnih oseb, kar je dobrih 41% manj kot v oktobru in za 16,2% manj kot novembra 2013. Med novo prijavljenimi je bilo 1466 iskalcev prve zaposlitve, 1232 trajno presežnih delavcev in stečajnikov ter 3850 brezposelnih zaradi izteka zaposlitev za določen čas. Odliv iz brezposelnosti je novembra 2014 znašal 8136 brezposelnih oseb, med njimi se jih je zaposlilo oziroma samozaposlilo 4955, kar je 21% manj kot oktobra in 4,6% manj kot novembra 2013.

Po podatkih Eurostata je bila oktobra 2014 stopnja brezposelnosti na območju evra (EA18) 11,5%, kar je enako kot mesec prej ter 0,4 odstotne točke manj kot oktobra 2013. V celotni evropski osemindvajseterici (EU28) je bila stopnja brezposelnosti v oktobru 10,0% in se je glede na enak mesec v 2013 zmanjšala za 0,7 odstotne točke. Po Eurostatovih ocenah je bilo oktobra v EU28 24,4 milijona brezposelnih oseb, od teh 18,4 milijona na območju evra. Med posameznimi članicami EU so tudi v oktobru 2014 najnižjo stopnjo brezposelnosti imeli v Avstriji (5,1%) in Nemčiji (4,9%), najvišjo pa v Španiji (24,0%) in v Grčiji, za katero avgustovski podatek znaša 25,9%.

## CENE IN PLAČE

### 7. Slovenija blizu, nekaj evropskih držav pa v deflaciji

December ni prinesel sprememb v bolj dolgoročna gibanja cen v Sloveniji ali evro področju. V Sloveniji so cene v decembru v primerjavi z novembrom padle za 0.5 odstotka. K padcu so največ prispevale pocenitve naftnih derivatov ter obleke in obutve, pocenili pa so se tudi osebni avtomobili, telefonske in internetne storitve, hrana in brezalkoholne pijače, medtem ko so se podražili dopolnilno zdravstveno zavarovanje ter počitnice v paketu.

V novembru so cene na drobno v primerjavi z oktobrom v Sloveniji padle za 0.1 odstotek, za 0.2 odstotka so padle v EU28 in v evro področju; znižale so se v vseh članicah EU in evro območja z izjemo Nemčije in Avstrije. Več kot za pol odstotka so se znižale v Bolgariji, Estoniji, Grčiji, na Hrvaškem, na Nizozemskim, na Cipru in na Malti. Gre za približevanje dolgoročnejši deflacijsi, to je deflacijsi na letni ravni.

V letu dni (od decembra 2013) so cene življenjskih potrebščin zrasle le za 0.2 odstotka, pri tem se je blago pocenilo za odstotek, medtem ko so se storitve podražile za 2.8 odstotka. K tako nizki medletni inflaciji so največ prispevale več kot dve odstotne pocenitve prevoza in komunikacij ter več kot eno odstotna pocenitev hrane, stanovanj in stanovanjske opreme. Istočasno so se za več kot štiri odstotke podražile alkoholne pijače, rekreatijske in kulturne storitve ter raznovrstno blago in storitve.

Po Eurostatovemu harmoniziranem indeksu, ki omogoča primerjave med članicami EU, so se življenjski stroški v Sloveniji decembra znižali za 0.7 odstotka, od decembra 2013 do decembra 2014 pa za 0.1 odstotka; k znižanjemu so tudi tu največ prispevale pocenitve hrane, prevoza, komunikacij in stanovanjske opreme, zmanjševale pa so jih podražitve alkoholnih pijač, rekreacije in kulture ter raznovrstnega blaga in storitev.

## Medletna dinamika harmoniziranih cen živiljenjskih potrebščin

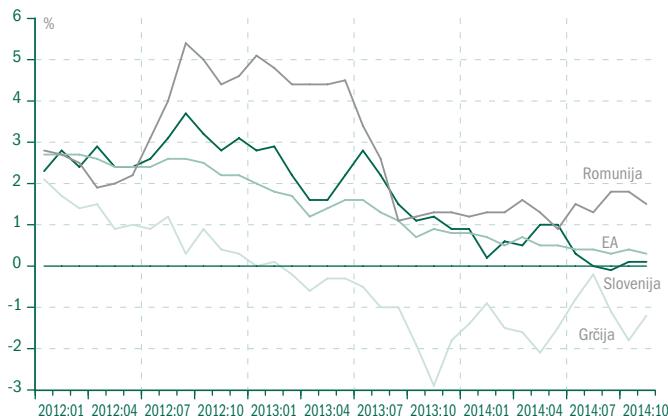
20

članica/čas	2012m11	2013m11	2014m11	Povprečje (2012-2014)	Standardni Odklon
EU	2,4	1,0	0,4	1,61	0,88
EA	2,2	0,9	0,3	1,47	0,87
Belgija	2,2	0,9	0,1	1,52	0,93
Bolgarija	2,7	-1,0	-1,9	0,45	1,84
Češka	2,8	1,0	0,6	1,82	1,36
Danska	2,2	0,3	0,2	1,10	0,96
Nemčija	1,9	1,6	0,5	1,55	0,58
Estonija	3,8	2,1	0,0	2,72	1,67
Irska	1,6	0,3	0,2	0,96	0,79
Grčija	0,4	-2,9	-1,2	-0,34	1,23
Španija	3,0	0,3	-0,5	1,33	1,28
Frančija	1,6	0,8	0,4	1,31	0,73
Hrvaška	4,1	0,7	0,3	2,03	1,66
Italija	2,6	0,7	0,3	1,66	1,35
Ciper	1,4	-0,8	0,0	1,13	1,71
Latvija	1,5	-0,3	0,9	1,01	1,09
Litva	2,8	0,5	0,4	1,56	1,32
Luksemburg	2,7	1,1	0,2	1,84	0,92
Madžarska	5,3	0,4	0,1	2,56	2,43
Malta	3,6	0,3	0,6	1,70	1,27
Nizozemska	3,2	1,2	0,3	1,97	1,22
Avstrija	2,9	1,5	1,5	2,08	0,52
Poljska	2,7	0,5	-0,3	1,59	1,62
Portugalska	1,9	0,1	0,1	1,06	1,34
Romunija	4,4	1,3	1,5	2,70	1,46
Slovenija	2,8	1,2	0,1	1,75	1,11
Slovaška	3,5	0,5	0,0	1,75	1,65
Finska	3,2	1,8	1,1	2,25	0,82
Švedska	0,8	0,3	0,3	0,53	0,38
Velika Britanija	2,7	2,1	:	2,38	0,62

Vir: Eurostat, lastni izračuni

Medletne novembrske (decembrskih podatkov še ni) rasti harmoniziranega indeksa cen v zadnjih treh letih kažejo bolj dolgoročno in sistematično približevanje deflacji v EU, ki je v evro območju še nekoliko hitrejše. V osmih državah je bila povprečna inflacija v zadnjih treh letih višja od 2 odstotkov, v osemnajstih je bila med 1 in 2 odstotkoma, v dveh med 0 in 1 odstotkom, v Grčiji pa je bila negativna. Medtem ko je bila v letu 2012 novembrska inflacija v evro območju še nad ciljno dve odstotno, se je v letu 2013 znižala pod odstotek, lani pa na le 0.3 odstotke. Deflacijsko letni ravni so po teh podatkih do novembra 2014 imele Bolgarija, Grčija, Španija in Poljska.

## Harmonizirana medletna inflacija 2012/1-2014/11



Vir: Eurostat, lastni izračuni

21

Cene industrijskih proizvajalcev so se novembra 2014 v primerjavi z oktobrom znižale za 0.2 odstotka, proizvodi za prodajo na domačem trgu so se pocenili za 0.1 odstotek, proizvodi za tuje trge pa za 0.4 odstotke; pri tem so se proizvodi namenjeni trgom v evrskem področju pocenili za 0.2 odstotka, proizvodi za trge izven EU pa za 0.8 odstotkov.

Novembra 2014 so bile cene industrijskih proizvodov enake kot novembra 2013, v letu dni so se proizvodi namenjeni domačemu trgu pocenili za 0.9 odstotka, proizvodi namenjeni prodaji na tujih trjih pa so se podražili za 0.8 odstotka. Najbolj, za 10 odstotkov, se je v letu dni pocenila oskrba z električno energijo.

Harmonizirani indeks konkurenčnosti, ki temelji na gibanjih cen na drobno, in ki ga objavlja ECB, kaže, da se je konkurenčnost Slovenije v novembру poslabšala za 0.1 odstotek, v letu dni pa izboljšala za 1.2 odstotka; v evro območju se v novembru ni spremenila, v letu dni pa se je izboljšala za 3.6 odstotke.

Cene uvoženih proizvodov so bile v novembru 2014 za 0,3 odstotke nižje kot v oktobru; proizvodi iz držav v evrskem območju so se pocenili za 0,4 odstotke, proizvodi uvoženi iz držav zunaj evrskega območja pa za 0,2 odstotka. Cene surovin se niso spremenile, močno, za 7 odstotkov sta se pocenila surova nafta in zemeljski plin. Cene uvoženih proizvodov stagnirajo ali padajo že od julija 2013. Od novembra 2013 do novembra 2014 so se znižale za 0,9 odstotkov, dobave iz evrskega območja so se pocenile za 2 odstotka, proizvodi, uvoženi iz držav zunaj evrskega območja, pa so se podražili za 0,6 odstotka.

## 8. Nadaljevanje stagnacije in zmanjševanja plač; ceno krize so plačali delojemalci

Povprečna plača 1543,66 evrov je bila oktobra za 1,6 odstotka višja (na plačano uro pa za 1,8 odstotkov nižja) kot septembra in za 1,1 odstotek višja kot oktobra leta 2013, neto plača 1007,24 evra pa je septembrisko presegla za 1,3 odstotka, neto plačo iz oktobra 2013 pa za 0,7 odstotka.

Večina povečanj plač v oktobru je posledica večjega števila delovnih ur kot septembra, plače na uro so se v večini dejavnosti znižale. Izjema so plače v finančni dejavnosti, ki so se zvišale kar za 10,8 odstotkov, na uro pa za 6,7 odstotkov. V kmetijstvu so mesečne plače porasle za 3,1 odstotek na uro pa za 0,4 odstotke, v prometu in skladiščenju pa za 3,8 in 0,6 odstotka. Najbolj so se znižale plače v oskrbi z elektriko plinom in paro, kjer so se znižale za 2,3 odstotka, na uro pa za 5,8 odstotkov, v javni upravi so se znižale za 1,2 odstotka, na uro pa za 4,9 odstotkov. Dosti bolje ni šlo zaposlenim v šolstvu, plače so se jim v znižale za 0,3 odstotka, na uro pa za 4,4 odstotke.

22

### Povprečne plače v oktobru 2014

	Bruto plače			Neto plače		
	na mesec (€)	na uro (€)	2014.10/ 2013.10	za mesec (€)	na uro (€)	2014.10/ 2013.10
Skupaj	1543,66	8,81	101,1	1007,24	5,75	100,7
kmetijstvo, gozdarstvo, ribištvo	1347,49	7,71	102,3	899,60	5,15	101,4
Rudarstvo	2079,64	12,08	99,8	1326,99	7,71	99,1
predelovalna dejavnost	1481,04	8,34	102,7	973,95	5,48	102,1
oskrba z elektriko, plinom in paro	2304,65	12,77	97,8	1434,07	7,95	98,7
oskrba z vodo, skrb za odpadke	1502,58	8,36	102,3	993,07	5,52	102,2
gradbeništvo	1212,81	6,95	100,1	816,78	4,68	99,7
trgovina in vzdrževanje vozil	1394,00	8,06	101,0	911,64	5,27	100,6
promet in skladiščenje	1481,77	8,45	100,4	966,21	5,51	99,0
gostinstvo	1072,05	6,48	98,8	733,98	4,44	98,9
informacijske dejavnosti	2081,38	11,75	101,7	1302,25	7,35	100,7
finančne storitve	2348,16	13,45	107,5	1438,17	8,24	106,1
poslovanje z nepremičninami	1465,02	8,52	98,2	956,04	5,56	97,9
strokovne, znanstvene storitve	1736,46	10,09	102,4	1103,22	6,41	101,8
javna uprava in obramba	1746,83	9,75	100,8	1143,98	6,39	100,8
izobraževanje	1626,92	9,36	100,6	1073,10	6,18	100,5
zdravstvo in socialna varnost	1673,54	9,41	101,1	1080,21	6,07	100,8
kultura in rekreacija	1596,59	9,16	98,6	1050,41	6,02	98,7
druge dejavnosti	1368,90	8,13	98,2	904,68	5,37	98,7

V letu dni so se bruto plače povečale za 1,1 odstotka, neto pa za 0.7 odstotka; najbolj za 7,5 in 6,1 so zrasle plače v finančnih storitvah, za 2,3 in 1,4 odstotka so se povečale v kmetijstvu in gozdarstvu, za 2,7 in 2,1 v predelovalni dejavnosti, za 2,4 in 1,8 pa v sektorju strokovnih, znanstvenih in tehničnih storitev. V širšem javnem sektorju (javna uprava, izobraževanje, zdravstvo) in so bila medletna povečanja manj kot 1 odstotna. Tako bruto kot neto plače so zaostale za plačami oktobra 2013 v rudarstvu, v oskrbi z elektriko plinom in paro, v gostinstvu, v poslovanju z nepremičninami, v kulturi in rekreaciji ter v drugih dejavnostih.

Dinamika mesečnih plač



23

Da z zniževanjem bruto plač in enotnih stroškov dela, kar neprestano trdijo delodajalci in »delodajalci«, ni mogoče zagotavljati večje konkurenčnosti slovenskega gospodarstva, kažejo podatki o spreminjanju dohodkovne strukture BDP (za primerljivost so uporabljeni podatki iz začetka krize to s konca 2008 in konca 2013). V zadnjem kvartalu 2008 je bil delež bruto plač v slovenskem gospodarstvu 53,2 odstotka BDP, v zadnjem kvartalu 2013 pa 50.7 odstotkov, v najbolj konkurenčnem nemškem gospodarstvu pa je se delež bruto plač povečal s 55.2 na 55.8 odstotkov, v celotni EU je delež plač upadel s 50.9 na 50.6 v evro območju pa se je povečal s 51,8 na 51,9 odstotkov BDP. Da so krizo plačali predvsem delojemalci obrobnih evropskih gospodarstev in novih članic EU, kažejo podatki o deležih in spremembah deležev dela in kapitala. Tako se je v desetih »novih« članicah že tako nizek delež dela zmanjšal s 44.8 na 40.7 odstotkov BDP, delež kapitala pa povečal s 44.1 na 47.8 odstotkov. Podobna je bila preraazdelitev v obrobnih južnih članicah EU, kjer se je delež dela zmanjšal s 44.7 na 42.5 odstotka, delež kapitala pa povečal s 41,3 na 44,0 oziroma za 2.7 odstotka. Največje preraazdelitve v škodo dela in v korist kapitala so bile v treh baltiških članicah in v Romuniji.

## FINANČNA GIBANJA

### 9. Solidna rast javnofinančnih prihodkov

Javnofinančni prihodki so bili novembra 2014 za 47 milijonov evrov (4.1 odstotka) manjši kot oktobra, a za 37 milijonov evrov večji kot novembra (3,3 odstotka) 2013. Impulzni trend se je obrnil navzdol. Pri tem so bili prihodki od neposrednih davkov za 15 milijonov evrov večji kot oktobra in za 23 milijona večji kot novembra lani. Kljub temu se je impulzni trend obrnil navzdol, medletna stopnja pa se je znižala na 3 odstotke. Posredni davki, DDV in trošarine, so bile novembra kar za 62 milijonov evrov manjši kot oktobra, impulzni trend se je močno obrnil navzdol, medletna stopnja pa se je iz oktobrske negativne spremenila v 3.7 odstotno pozitivno. Prispevki za socialno varnost so s 477 milijoni ostali malone nespremenjeni, medletna stopnja se je s 4.4 odstotne zmanjšala na 2.1 odstotno. Tudi obe največji blagajni socialne varnosti, zdravstvena in pokojninska, sta novembra dobili približno toliko kot oktobra, prva 192 milijonov evrov, 3.2 odstotka več kot novembra 2013, druga 282 milijonov evrov, oziroma 3.6 odstotkov več kot novembra 2013.

24

Kumulativno so javnofinančni prihodki v enajstih mesecih znašali 12216 milijonov evrov; prihodki iz enakega razdobja 2013 so presegli za 659 milijonov oziroma za 5.4 odstotke. Kar 200 milijonov evrov več kot leta 2013 so prinesli prihodki od davka na dohodke pravnih oseb, 42 milijonov več dohodnine, 187 milijonov več DDV po obračunu, le 1,4 milijona več trošarine in kar 30.6 milijona evrov manj DDV od uvoženega blaga in storitev.

SURS (Informacije 30. decembra 2014) je primanjkljaj države v treh četrtletjih 2014 ocenil na 1254 milijone evrov oziroma 4.5 odstotke BDP, v enakem obdobju 2013 pa na 1691 milijonov evrov ali na 6.3 odstotke BDP, brez dokapitalizacije bank pa na 1264 milijone evrov ali 4.6 odstotke BDP. Levji delež v treh četrtletjih povečanih prihodkov je šlo za plačilu obresti (892 milijonov evrov, oziroma 3.2 odstotka BDP) in večjim investicijam v osnovna sredstva. Primarni primanjkljaj (brez obresti in dokapitalizacije bank) v treh četrtletjih je SURS ocenil na 362 milijonov oziroma 1.3 odstotka BDP, v tretjem četrtletju pa le na 8 milijonov evrov; primarni primanjkljaj v letu 2013 je znašal 586 milijonov oziroma 2.2 odstotka BDP. Javni dolg je konec tretjega četrtletja 2014 znašal 28933 milijonov evrov ali 78.1 odstotek BDP.

Po podatkih SURS-a (Informacije 30. decembra 2014) je na strukturo izdatkov po namenih (COFOG klasifikacija) močno vplivala sanacija bank. Še naprej je bilo v letu 2013 sicer največ javnofinančnih izdatkov - 18.7 odstotkov BDP namenjenih socialni zaščiti, na drugo mesto so se s 14.5 odstotki uvrstili izdatki za ekonomsko dejavnost, s 6.9 odstotki so sledili izdatki za zdravstvo, tem pa s 6.7 odstotki izdatki za javno upravo in 6.5 odstotki izdatki za izobraževanje. Za javni red je bilo namenjenih 2.2 odstotka BDP (sem so vštete tudi odškodnine na izbrisane), za rekreacijo in kulturo 1,8, za obrambo 1 odstotek, za prostorski razvoj in okolje pa 0.7 odstotka BDP.

## 10. Se bo bančni sistem sesul kar sam?

Oktobra so se krediti gospodarstvu zmanjšali kar za 913 milijonov evrov, kar pa je posledica prenosa slabih terjatev A banke na DUTB, novembra pa so se krediti nefinančnim družbam zmanjšali še za 142 milijonov evrov. Od umika slabih terjatev na DUTB, to je v enajstih mesecih so se krediti nefinančnim družbam v bankah (upoštevaje oktobrski prenos) zmanjšali za 15.4 odstotke; medletno stopnja krčenja nekaj nad 30 odstotkov je ostala podobna oktobrski. Še naprej stagnirajo ali pa se počasi zmanjšujejo tudi krediti gospodinjstvom, pa tudi krediti nedenarnim finančnim institucijam.

Depoziti podjetij, ki so oktobra nekoliko porasli, so se v novembru zmanjšali za 50 milijonov evrov, depoziti prebivalstva pa so se povečali za 36 milijonov evrov. Medletna stopnja rasti depozitov prebivalstva se je v novembru znižala na 4.1 odstotka, depozitov podjetij pa je kljub velikemu novembrskemu padcu kreditov ostala na ravni prek 10 odstotkov.

25

Nenehno krčenje kreditov vse bolj postavlja vprašanje, kaj bodo oziroma kaj nameravajo banke početi v prihodnosti. Velika uspešna izvozna podjetja storitev bank očitno ne potrebujejo, mala storitvena podjetja, ki pa kreditov ne morejo dobiti, pa banke zamenjujejo s ponudniki denarja na sivem trgu in prehajanjem na blagovno menjavo. Da v vzdušju, kakršno vlada v Sloveniji, noben bankir ne upa tvegati, reprogramirati kreditov ali za dlje zadržati zaplenjenih delnic nefinančnih družb, je razumljivo; če ne naredi ničesar, ne bo postal kriminalc. Toda banke, kljub izredno nizkim depozitnim obrestnim meram, tudi same ne bodo mogle preživeti od vse bolj raznovrstnih stroškov, ki jih zaračunavajo za opravljanje plačilnega prometa in zaračunavanj čuvanja depozitov, saj jim bo dodatne stroške povzročila nova kontrolna oblast (bančna unija), ki bo z vse bolj nesmiselnimi pravili in enačbami že sama ogrozila obstoj bančništva. Premišljevanje o sistemskih bankah bo postalo odveč, banke v Sloveniji bodo bolj ali manj nepomembne lokalne podružnice.

Kreditojemalce je mogoče razvrstiti v tri skupine; v prvi so tisti, ki s tokovi dohodkov lahko servisirajo kredite, v drugi tisti, ki lahko odplačujejo obresti, ne pa glavnice, v tretji pa tisti, ki ne morejo plačevati niti obresti. Ob krčenju kreditov se vse več kreditojemalcev iz druge skupine seli v tretjo, iz prve pa v drugo in tretjo. Kreditni krč je namreč vgrajen v sistem, v katerem večina podjetij, pri nas več kot drugje, kreditov ne rabi le za »razširjeno«, ampak tudi za »enostavno reprodukcijo«. Tudi del prebivalstva, pri nas manj kot drugje, kreditov ne uporablja le za premoščanje razlik med tekočimi dohodki in nakupi trajnih potrošnih dobrin, ampak za tekoče trošenje. Vse več novih kreditov je zato potrebnih za odplačevanje zapadlih; na koncu so novi krediti potrebni že za plačevanje obresti. Entropija kreditov, to je njihova vse manjša sposobnost ustvariti gospodarsko rast, se povečuje; vsak nov evro kredita je šibkejši od prejšnjega.

Obrestne mere ECB se od septembra niso spremenile; mejna depozitna ostaja -0.20 odstotkov, mejna posojilna 0.30 odstotna, obrestna mera glavnega financiranja pa je 0.05

odstotna. Nenavadno je le, da ECB po dolgoletni krizi ne ugotovi, da so njene obrestne mere postale povsem irrelevantne tako za uravnavanje inflacije oziroma preprečevanje deflacji in še bolj za oživljjanje gospodarstva. Eurobor se je od januarja do novembra znižal za vse ročnosti, za eno leto, na primer, od 0.56 na 0.33 odstotka. Obrestna mera na nove vloge do 1 leta (teh je največ) so, na primer, od januarske 1.36 odstotne stopnje padle na 0.81 odstotno, za vloge do 2 let z 2.56 na 1.56 odstotno, novih depozitov nad 2 leti pa praktično ni. Posojilne obrestne mere za nova posojila so se prav tako znižale, za okvirna (teh je daleč največ) in revolving posojila od 5.83 na 5.10 odstotkov, za posojila do 250 tisoč do treh mesecev od 5.14 na 4.52, do enega leta od 6.14 na 5.35, dolgoročnejših posojil pa praktično ni, posojilna obrestna mera za posojila nad enim milijonom do enega leta s 3.92 na 3.35 odstotkov. Novih bolj dolgoročnih posojil praktično ni.

## 11. Oktobrski presežek na tekočem računu je rekorden

Oktobrski plačilnobilančni rekord 300 milijonov € potrjuje, da ostaja menjava s tujino v neto znesku ključen dejavnik rasti domačega BDP v 2014. Od ustvarjenega BDP je Slovenija v oktobru neto izvozila kar 10% (torej porabila le 90%), kar kaže na tipično zategovalno politiko, vsiljeno od EU, in veliko odrekanje slovenskega prebivalstva, da bi poplačalo stare dolgove. Z nadaljevanjem podobne dinamike v zadnjih dveh mesecih 2014 je mogoče pričakovati celoletni presežek tekoče plačilne bilance prek 6% BDP, kar je preveč tako z vidika pomanjkanja uvoza tehnologije kot stiskanja potrošnje prebivalstva.

Oktobra 2014 je znašal presežek tekoče bilance 299.9 milijonov €, medtem ko je bil v enakem mesecu 2013 179.8 milijonov €. Pri tem je presežek blagovne bilance 196.7 milijonov € (oktobra 2013 je bil 68.3 milijonov €), presežek storitvene bilance 131.3 milijonov € (131.7 milijonov €), primanjkljaj bilance primarnih dohodkov dela in kapitala -61.3 milijonov € (-19.3 milijonov €) in presežek bilance sekundarnih dohodkov 33.2 milijonov € (leto prej je bil primanjkljaj -1.0 milijon €). Celoten skok iz presežka tekoče bilance v oktobru 2014 glede na že oktobra 2013 velik presežek gre na račun večjega presežka blagovne menjave. V storitvah sta v oktobru 2014 glede na oktober 2013 porasla tako njihov izvoz kot uvoz.

V desetih mesecih 2014 je bil tako dosežen presežek tekoče plačilne bilance 1806.8 milijonov €, kar prvič v 2014 za 80.7 milijonov € ali 4.6% presega že sicer velik presežek iz prvih 10 mesecev 2013. Pri tem je bil blagovni presežek kar 1157 milijonov € (v desetih mesecih 2013 je bil 783.3 milijonov €), storitveni presežek 1416.7 milijonov € (leto prej 1548.2 milijonov €), primanjkljaj v primarnih dohodkih faktorjev 514.8 milijonov € (bistveno več kot 260.2 milijonov € leto prej, predvsem zaradi skoka v plačanih obrestih na zunanji dolg), in primanjkljaj v sekundarnih dohodkih -252.0 milijonov € (-345.1 milijonov €).

**Plačilna bilanca**  
(milijoni evrov)

	januar-oktober		oktober	
	2013	2014	2013	2014
I. Tekoči račun	1.791,7	1.840,8	187,3	310,4
1. Blago	681,2	1.099,2	59,0	182,5
2. Storitve	1.723,9	1.547,8	150,6	159,6
- transport	559,6	607,1	54,50	59,70
- potovanja	1.152,7	1.086,2	116,70	117,90
3. Dohodki	-505,4	-731,1	-24,1	-71,8
- od dela	284,8	320,2	31,3	31,3
- od kapitala	-790,2	-1051,3	-55,4	-103,1
4. Tekoči transferi	-108,0	-75,2	1,8	40,1
- državni	36,6	44,1	8,3	52,3
II. Kapitalski in finančni račun	-2.705,2	-2.377,2	-445,6	-135,1
A. Kapitalski račun	54,9	-5,2	22,0	21,9
B. Finančni račun	-2.760,0	-2.372,0	-467,7	-156,9
1. Neposredne naložbe	-450,2	860,3	232,1	70,6
Domače v tujini	204,6	-20,2	49,9	-42,4
Tuje v Sloveniji	-654,8	880,5	182,2	113,0
2. Naložbe v vrednostne papirje	1.781,7	3.823,0	-24,5	-408,7
4. Ostale naložbe	-4.034,3	-6.982,1	-670,8	177,7
4.1. Terjatve	-2.505,3	-4.712,6	-500,8	76,3
4.2. Obveznosti	-1.529,0	-2.269,6	-170,0	101,4
5. Mednarodne denarne rezerve	-35,0	-77,5	0,7	14,3
III. Neto napake in izpustitve	913,4	536,4	258,4	-175,3

Vir: Banka Slovenije

Medtem ko kapitalski račun ne kaže velikih premikov (v 10 mesecih 2014 saldo -5.2 milijon €, v 2013 presežek 54.9 milijonov €), kaže finančni račun presežek 2399 milijonov € (leto prej 2717 milijonov €). Pri tem je v neposrednih naložbah zaradi odtujitve nekaterih podjetij neto priliv 186.4 milijone € (v enakem obdobju leto prej le 71.9 milijonov €). Izredno so narasle naložbe v vrednostne papirje (-3819.9 milijonov € proti -1778.1 milijonov € leto prej), zato pa se je povečala zadolžitev iz neto ostalih naložb na 7333.0 milijonov € (leto prej 4510 milijonov €). Ključna je dodatna državna zadolžitev. Znatne ostajajo kljub zmanjšanju v oktobru 2014 neto napake in izpustitve (598.3 milijonov € proti 936.7 milijonov € leto prej), kjer gre v veliki meri za nerazporejene dobičke tujih lastnikov.

Podatki iz Biltena BS december 2014 kažejo, da je konec oktobra 2014 bruto zunanji dolg Slovenije znašal 44036 milijonov €, od česar je bilo samo še 40.7% ne-garantiranega zasebnega dolga, ostalo je bil garantirani javni dolg. Neto zunanji dolg je oktobra 2014 znašal 11.774 milijonov €, najmanj v zadnjih letih in se znižuje proti znesku s konca 2008. Mednarodne rezerve Banke Slovenije so novembra 2014 znašale 846 milijonov €, kar je 40 milijonov € več kot mesec prej, kar je posledica porasta deviznih rezerv.

# THE FIRST DECADE OF ACCESSION TO THE EU – A POLITICAL ECONOMY PERSPECTIVE OF CEE COUNTRIES

Ozren Pilipović, Assistant Professor, Faculty of Law, University of Zagreb,  
Meta Ahtik, Adviser, Bank of Slovenia & Assistant Professor, Faculty of Law, University of Ljubljana  
Nenad Rančić, Assistant Professor, Faculty of Law, University of Zagreb

29

## ***Abstract:***

*Countries in Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) are related, in large part, to a common political and economic history that has regularly been conditioned by their membership in various multinational political communities in which they usually had a subordinate role. After the collapse of the socialist system in which they were submerged by the end of the Second World War until the last decade of the twentieth century, CEE countries have stepped in the way of not only economic but also of societal transition to market economy and democracy, as shown in the first part of this paper. This was reflected in their approach to regional economic, political and military associations, especially the EU and NATO, where they saw the possibility of realizing its security and development aspirations. At the same time the older member states of the EU and NATO, each in their own way, recognized those future partners with which it is opportune to develop mutually advantageous political, military and economic relations, as shown in the central part of this paper. After 25 years of transition and 10 years of membership in the EU, in conclusion, the authors point out certain benefits, from higher levels of military security and a better negotiating position with third countries, through higher standards of living, to the political stability and the stability of the institutions which have been developed in the process of accession and later participation of 8 CEE countries in the EU.*

***Key words:*** EU integration, CEE Countries, regional economic integrations, transition

# PRVO DESETLETJE ČLANSTVA V EVROPSKI UNIJI – POLITIČNO EKONOMSKA ANALIZA DRŽAV VZHODNE IN SREDNJE EVROPE

30

## **Povzetek:**

*Države srednje in vzhodne Evrope imajo v veliki meri skupno politično in gospodarsko zgodovino, ki jo je v veliki meri določalo njihovo članstvo v različnih večnacionalnih političnih skupnostih, v katerih so običajno imele podrejeno vlogo. Po padcu socialističnega bloka, v katerega so bile vključene po drugi svetovni vojni, so države srednje in vzhodne Evrope stopile na pot ekonomske in socialne tranzicije k tržnemu gospodarstvu in demokraciji. To se je kazalo v njihovem približevanju regionalnim ekonomskim, političnim in vojaškim povezavam, zlasti EU in NATU, v katerih so videle možnosti za uresničitev svojih varnostnih in razvojnih teženj. Istočasno so članice EU in NATA, vsaka na svoj način, priznale bodoče partnerice, v katerih so videle potencial za krepitev političnih, ekonomskeh in vojaških odnosov, ki bi bili v korist obema stranema. Po petindvajsetih letih tranzicije in desetih letih članstva v EU je mogoče razbrati nekatere koristi, ki jih zaradi članstva uživajo države srednje in vzhodne Evrope. Med njimi so zlasti višja raven vojaške varnosti, boljši pogajalski položaj v razmerju do tretjih držav, višji standard življenja, politična stabilnost in stabilnost institucij, ki jih je osmerica razvila tokom približevanja in kasneje članstva v Evropski uniji.*

**Ključne besede:** Evropska unija, države srednje in vzhodne Evrope, regionalne ekonomske povezave, tranzicija

## 1. Political economy of CEE since 1991

After the overthrow of Communism in 1991 the political and economic landscape in CEE countries changed dramatically. The return of democracy and of capitalism was a lot easier to imagine than to implement. Every one of the 8 CEE had its own unique agenda in its goals to pursue at its domestic and international front. From the stand point of international political economy, we can broadly identify two goals in foreign polices of these 8 countries:

1. Join the EEC (later EU).
2. Join the NATO.

In years 1989-1991 the communist regimes of Central and Eastern Europe fell. All of them were toppled by their disillusioned citizens who no longer believed that these regimes could deliver on their promises of “better life and fairer society”. All of these states started to look for inspiration westwards and they aimed to become a normal European state. That was an idea whose time had come. Elites and citizens of Central and Eastern European states generally thought of impending economic and political transitions as conditions which had to be met in order to “return to Europe”. Even those who argued that one could not “return” to a place (Europe) that one had never left still acknowledged the need for radical changes.<sup>1</sup> Somehow a consensus between elites and citizens came into being that their states should join the European Union (EU) and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). Those two goals had a great impact on economic, political and social transitions in these countries.

Yet, the real question raised here is why the political elites of these 8 countries after centuries of foreign rule be it by Habsburgs, Hohenzollern, Romanovs or Soviets, decided to trade their newly acquired political independence in order to join EU and NATO? We presume that the incentives for these kinds of behaviour came from two sources. The EU as we will see has learned its lesson well from the demise of Yugoslavia and offered a vague promise of a distant membership to CEE countries as a way to lock in transitional reforms, but crucially it also provided some material assistance to these countries. The second incentive for these countries to join EU came from their citizens. Television is a powerful media and the pictures of material abundance in the West, actually created a want in the heads of the citizens of these countries to live as well as the citizens in the West.

Some of the political and economic goals of the EU membership were:

- Return to the Western cultural and political space to which these countries belonged for majority of their history;
- Locking in desired political and economic reforms;
- The possibility to attract fresh stock of capital, especially FDI, since the loans from governments, due to newly implemented policy of *hard budget constraints* were no longer an option in the 1990s;
- Building stronger trade links with the developed countries in Western Europe, which were needed to substitute for the loss of trade links with the former USSR;
- Defensive reasons.

The standard of living in the EEC and Western Europe obviously played the most important attraction for the citizens of CEE countries for their countries to join EEC/EU. Simply having better standard of living and being able to consume more goods was the most important reason for the support the EU enjoyed in CEE countries. To put it bluntly after consumption needs and wants were realized the ideas of human rights, democracy etc played the second most important part in the thinking of the average CEE citizen.

NATO on the other hand was the logical expression of the will of these countries to escape the Russian political, economic and military sphere of influence<sup>2</sup>. Russia had been dramatically weakened by the demise of the USSR. The New time of troubles began in

32

Russia in 1991 after the country became independent again. Russian political and economic transitions have been so badly mismanaged that they became almost proverbial. The fall in the GDP and the redistribution of national wealth which took place from 1991-1997 became almost legendary examples of crony and predatory capitalistic systems. Under the leadership of president Yeltsin Russia became a laughing stock of Europe and the World, a dangerous thing for a country, which has nuclear weapons. The Russian inability to deal with the ethnic and religious problems in the Caucus region from 1994 onwards weakened Russia even further in the eyes of the international community. The politicians and the elite in CEE states were actually quite aware that the Russian weakness is probably only a temporarily condition at best of times. With their experience of centuries of Russian rule and danger they were able to establish that this happy state of affairs (for CEE Europe) will not last forever and that Russia with its abundant mineral wealth is sooner or later going to reposition itself as, at least, a regional player. Indeed the history of Russia is one of rise and falls. If some of the elder politicians in CEE country during the early 1990s lived their youth in the inter-war years where USSR has been treated as almost a second rate power which managed to lose its one international war to much smaller Polish state in 1921, they spent their mature and some of their twilight years living in countries which were little more than satellites of USSR. The new weakness of Russia was to be exploited and used as an opportunity to leave Russian sphere of influence for quite some time. This reasoning of the CEE elites proved to be more than rational since resurgent Russia under the President and later Prime Minister Putin managed to impose its will on its near abroad (Chechnya, parts of Georgia, now Ukraine seems to be on the menu with Crimean peninsula already being made part of Russia).

## **2. Transition in Central and Eastern Europe: Some general features**

The transition from the socialist economic system to the capitalistic economic system was going to be a hard time for any country in Central Europe (well perhaps not for all, East Germans had the advantage of being reunited with their Western brethren, which had the functioning capitalistic economy and thus it was excepted from them to know what to do, but even this transition went harder than anybody expected).

What was to be done? Central Eastern Europe seemed to be buzzing with different ideas

in those magical years from 1989-1992, who had only two things in common. One; the communist system had to be reformed and done with, and two; it had to be replaced with capitalistic economic system with democratic political system. Everything else was left for imagination and implementation to domestic political and economic elites.

If elections are indicators of political and economic ideologies changing with the change of the political elites then we can identify two distinctive groups of CEE countries. The first one would be the Baltic states plus Slovenia and the second group would be the original Vyshegrad member states of Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia and Hungary. In the words of Bohle and Gerskovits<sup>3</sup>:

33

‘Over the whole period following the collapse of state socialism, centre-right parties and governments enjoyed broad support and uninterrupted hegemony in Estonia and Latvia. Slovenian politics exhibited no less continuity. However, in that country it was the centre-left that remained in power for a long period. In turn, politics in the Vyshegrad countries has been marked by the regular alternation of right-wing and left-wing parties in power with incumbents usually voted out by the electorate. In Poland (and Hungary until 2006), no incumbent was able to govern for more than one term. In the Czech and Slovak Republics the left-right alternation occurred in two-term long intervals with the second term usually bringing about a weakened minority government of the left or the right’

Polish economist Kowliak sums up the agreed guidelines for transformation of the Polish economy and society reached by the round table negotiations in 1989 like this:

‘They declared: abandonment of administrative planning in favour of steering the economy by mainly economic levers, a far reaching liberalization of prices, a possibility of privatization of state firms, constitutionally guaranteed, equal treatment of different forms of ownership and even creation within two years the Warsaw Stock Exchange.’<sup>4</sup>

The Hungarian experience<sup>5</sup> was almost the same. The main objects of economic transitions, according to Balcerowicz<sup>6</sup>, were:

(1) *Liberalization*

- Microeconomic liberalization of prices (elimination of price controls)
- Currency convertibility and removal of all major quantitative restrictions on foreign trade; removal of external barriers to entry
- Removal of internal barriers to entry (i.e. to developing and setting up new private enterprises)

(2) *Macroeconomic stabilization policies*

- (3) *Institutional reform* (changes in existing institutions; privatization of state enterprises, reorganizing the state administration, reform of the tax system, financial system reform. (Balcerowicz, 1995, p. 239).

Balcarowicz's objects of economic transition should not be neglected since in his capacity as the Polish minister of finances he was faced with all the problems of the transitional process. There were certain core questions<sup>7</sup> the reformers in transitional economies have been faced with:

- *Internal price liberalization* - It focused entirely on the removal of administrative prices and price controls and the phasing out of state procurement at non-market prices, and excludes utility tariffs;
- *External liberalization* – abolishing multiple exchange rate policy, as well as majority of administrative restrictions (tariffs and quotas), with agriculture being a typical exception and applying for the membership in the World Trade Organization (WTO);
- *Competition policy* - Unrestricted entry to most markets; competition and anti-trust institutions and legislation; break-up of monopolies;
- *Large-scale privatization* - The progress was measured by the percentage of large-scale enterprise assets being transferred to private owners, with 25 per cent, 50 per cent and 75 per cent being used as threshold levels for assessment; the subsequent criterion is the quality of governance of these enterprises;
- *Small-scale privatization and freedom of market entry* Complete privatization of small companies resulting in ownership rights that can be transferred with no restriction, effective tradability of ownership rights for land, freedom of market entry for new enterprises;
- *Governance and enterprise restructuring* - 'Hard' budget constraints: tight credit and subsidies policies, enforcement of bankruptcy legislation; effective corporate governance provided by capital markets and banks; active owners and investors, well-functioning markets for corporate control; evidence of efficient restructuring and investment;
- *Bank reform and interest rate liberalization* Full interest rate liberalization, no preferential access to cheap refinancing; banking laws and regulations consistent with Bank for International Settlements (BIS) standards related to capital requirements, supervision and market discipline, availability of a full set of banking services; significant provision of lending to private enterprises, privatization of banks;
- *Securities markets and non-bank financial institutions (NBFI)* - Fully developed NBFI (collective investment schemes, private insurance and pension funds, leasing companies), substantial market liquidity and capitalization of the stock exchange, substantial issue of securities by private enterprises, convergence of securities laws, regulations and practice with international standards set by the International Organization of Securities Commissions, protection of minority shareholders and, generally, all other customers of financial services; fair, efficient and transparent organization of financial markets, minimizing systemic risk, secure clearance and settlement procedures.

The real question in transitional economies was: Should they opt for a slower transition from socialism to capitalism (the so called gradual approach) or for a quicker transition (the so called big bang or the shock therapy approach)? Both of these approaches had their good and bad sides. Balcerowicz was the champion of the big bang or the shock

therapy approach. Poland favoured the big bang approach to economic transition, while Slovenia favoured gradualist approach to economic transition, all the other countries fall somewhere in between these two examples (though there were elements of the gradualist transition present in Poland especially in reference to the shipyards in Gdansk and Gdyna, while some elements of the big bang approach were certainly favoured by some Slovenian economists). Mencinger, on the other hand, offers this critique of the classification of the transition models of big bang therapy and gradualism. In his words:

35

‘The dichotomization of transition patterns into “shock therapy” and “gradualist” models is inadequate for the classification of transition economies for two reasons. First, the observed patterns of transition were rather chaotic mixtures of systemic changes and changes in economic policies, some of which could be considered elements of a gradualist approach whereas others could be viewed as elements of shock therapy. Second, what was a shock for one country, for example, price and trade liberalization, was an element of a gradualist approach or even of initial conditions in another. What really mattered for the choice of tools and for the outcomes of transition were initial conditions.’<sup>8</sup>

### **The moral dilemma of privatization**

The first question Central European countries had to answer was how they were going to treat the nationalized property of their present day citizens, as well as those who held certain property in the recent past and have lost their citizenship, not to mention the Catholic Church property (Latvia and Estonia had no such problems with the Catholic church property since these two countries are predominantly Protestant)? The Czechs, for example, decided to return the property to Jewish minority, but refused to return the property to German minority. They also slowly returned the nationalized property to Catholic Church. Hungarians also decided to return property to Catholic Church, but in order to be eligible for restitution of property the Jews had to have residence in Hungary. In Poland Jeffreis<sup>9</sup> writes that:

‘Only a limited amount of partial compensation was to be available to certain former owners. A draft law was to be submitted to the Sejm in May 1995. Only property confiscated between 1944 and 1962 in violation of the law at the time would be covered. Compensation would be in the form of ‘privatization coupons’, with no restitution in kind: *Transition*, 1995, vol. 6, no. 3, p. 18. Restitution may only be enforced if the original nationalization law provided for compensation and none was paid...’

In Slovenia, for example, the Restitution and Denationalization Law of 1991 was passed in order to curry favour from the Catholic Church. By this law the claimants for restitutions had to be Yugoslav citizens as of 9<sup>th</sup> May 1945. But there was a general hostility to this law and these measures. The foreign press viewed the initial Slovenian hesitation to hand over

the nationalized property to Germans, Austrian and Italians as signs of nationalism. Over the past years a number of Italian, Austrian and German families whose estates had been expropriated in the 1940s have lodged claims for restitution. Worried at the prospect of the return to private hands of another 15 per cent or so of the country's woodlands, prime minister Janez Drnovšek's ruling Liberal Democracy of Slovenia 'has encouraged popular fears that the old landed aristocracy would get back their lands for nothing ... Generally there is public hostility to the idea that the landed grandees might turn the budding bourgeois state back into a plutocracy.'<sup>10</sup> Slovakia for example had problems with the Hungarian minority and the Slovak government was reluctant to return the nationalized property to the Hungarians. The same could be said of the Baltic countries, which decided not to return the nationalized property to the Russian minority (luckily for them the majority of this minority population was settled to the Baltic countries after the 1945 so there was relative little to confiscate and later to return to their owners). These were the so called "moral" restitution dilemmas faced by the transition countries governments. As we have seen there were some favoured recipients of the restituted property (Catholic church e.g.), while on the other hand historical animosity prevented certain, primarily foreign, citizens to receive their property back (usually Germans, but also Jews, Hungarians, Austrians, Russians etc).

36

Privatization was the earliest sources of the FDI for these countries. The objectives of privatization in Central European countries were many such as increasing efficiency and productivity of privatized firms and of the economy as whole, improving the quality of goods and services, reducing the role of the state in the economy and managing and reducing the governments fiscals deficit, raising more revenue, creating a critical mass of private firms which would eventually put the economy on the healthy bases, promoting foreign direct investment and increasing the level of overall private investment, creating and deepening domestic equity markets and boosting public participation and confidence in a market economy.

Two dominant strategies of privatization came into being in the Central Europe. The first was the gradual privatization, where government first restructured the enterprise and later sold it, and the privatization went case by case. In the second model, the mass privatization, everything was sold almost at the same time. Slovenia and Hungary favoured the gradual approach to privatization, while Czech Republic was seen as the champion of the mass privatization. The other countries fall somewhere between these two examples. Poland followed no less than five privatization strategies and other countries changed between different types of privatization strategies.

The major form that the FDI took was the "brown field investment" that is the foreign companies bought existing industrial facilities. The governments wanted to attract the green field investments so they offered variety of incentives in order to lure the FDI to their respective countries. How successful were they? According to Neuhaus: 'In absolute values, the net inward stock of FDI in the transition countries increased almost eightfold -

from 20 billion US dollars in 1994 to 155 billion US dollars in 2002. Measured as a share of GDP, it rose from 6.9% to 31.8% over the same period.<sup>11</sup> Besides our eight countries Neuahus used data for Bulgaria, Macedonia, Romania and Albania, nonetheless the data, taken from the World Bank survey of these countries is impressive. A five times increase in the FDI stock in Central Europe could mean only one thing, these countries did not have their own capital needed for transition, so they had to finance the transitional development form the external sources.

## Regional economic arrangements in CEE prior to EU

37

Also, trade liberalization had to be accomplished, but this meant that domestic firms faced strong foreign competition from the more developed “western” firms, while at the same time losing their traditional export markets of the former COMECON countries. In order to safeguard their economic interests and making themselves more appealing for the FDI the Central European countries, having in mind the obvious benefits enjoyed by EU member states, formed their own free trade areas.

The smaller of these free trade areas was the Baltic free trade area established between the Lithuania, Estonia and Latvia in order to prepare them for the eventual membership of the EU. It has been argued that this free trade area has been made more at the insistence of EU, than of its member countries, which were more interested in gaining foothold at the EU market than trading with each other. BAFTA agreement was signed on 13<sup>th</sup> September 1993, and came into effect on 1<sup>st</sup> of April 1994. In 1997 the agreement was expanded to cover the free trade in agricultural products as well. BAFTA ceased to exist in 2004 when its member states became members of the EU. The cooperation between Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia went on at several levels: regular meetings of the Heads of the States, Ministers of Foreign Affairs (The Baltic States Council), parliamentary delegations (The Baltic Assembly), meeting of the three Baltic Prime Ministers (The Baltic Council of Ministers).<sup>12</sup> In this they were wholeheartedly helped by the Nordic states which granted visa free access to Baltic States citizens in 1994. This political and economic cooperation was followed by the military cooperation from 1995. They established multilateral security projects such as BALTBAT (Baltic Peacekeeping Battalion), BALTRON (Baltic Naval Squadron), BALTNET (Baltic Airspace Surveillance Network), and BDC (Baltic Defence College). There were a couple of factors which forced the Baltic States to cooperate as they did in BAFTA and in other regional integration projects. The number one factor was the fear of Russia. All of the Baltic countries have a sizeable Russian minority (30% of the Estonian population is made of ethnic Russian who still do not have basic citizen's rights). The other factor is that they were living together in some form of the Empire ever since the Middle Ages. Indeed Lithuania was the strongest of these countries and was the only one to achieve domination over the other two (15-17<sup>th</sup> century). The third factor which enabled cooperation between these states was the prospective membership in the EU, and EU was

keen to prepare its potential members for its membership by promoting cooperation among the applicant countries. Zajedova rightly identified a big factor which prevented a closer integration between these countries. In her words:

‘The main factors which hinder Baltic co-operation is the factor of sovereignty. For a long time the Baltic states have struggled for their identity and independence. Therefore, all questions related to these matters are still very sensitive. This explains the reluctance of the Baltic States to delegate even a part of their sovereignty to a joint power of supranational nature.’<sup>13</sup>

38

But no such objections were raised when the Baltic states joined EU in 2004. CEFTA, on the other hand, was a far more ambitious undertaking. The three largest transitional countries Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia signed a Krakow declaration forming CEFTA on 21<sup>st</sup> December, 1992. The agreement entered force in July 1994. After the break-up of Czechoslovakia in 1993, CEFTA membership “increased” to four member countries. In 1996 Slovenia joined CEFTA, followed by Romania in 1997, Bulgaria in 1998, and Croatia in 2003 (membership of CEFTA today is made by all the states formed after the break-up of the former Yugoslavia, minus Slovenia and Croatia, and plus Moldova and Albania). In order to become the member of original CEFTA the country according to Poznan declaration had to fulfil the following criteria:

- 1). WTO membership;
- 2). EU Association agreement with provisions for future full membership;
- 3). Free Trade agreements with all the current CEFTA member states.

The objectives of the CEFTA agreement were<sup>14</sup>:

- a. to promote through the expansion of trade the harmonious development of the economic relations between the Parties and thus to foster in the Parties the advance of economic activity, the improvement of living and employment conditions, and increased productivity and financial stability.
- b. to provide fair conditions of competition for trade between the Parties,
- c. to contribute in this way, by the removal of barriers to trade, to the harmonious development and expansion of world trade.

CEE countries hoped to distance themselves from the lingering shadow of former USSR and make decisive step towards regional co-operation based on shared history and aspirations, as well as their combined population of approximately 65 million that would give them a stronger voice in Brussels and create a respectable common economic area with almost 65 million consumers.

Unfortunately, during the first phase of the agreements’ existence, in the mid 1990s, the particular interest of some state’s hampered the development potential of CEFTA. Slovakia under the prime minister Vladimir Meciar steered the country in the form of anti-Western

isolationism, while his Czech counterpart Vaclav Klaus, feared that the other members of CEFTA were a burden to Czech aspirations to join EU as a first the Eastern bloc country. Luckily the cooler heads prevailed in the late 1990s and all the four original member states plus Slovenia entered EU in 2004. The value of CEFTA in the terms of economic development for its member countries is significant, but more importantly CEFTA was and still is a sort of “prep school” for the full membership of EU, because it puts great emphasis on cooperation in many fields between the member countries and thus prepares them for the membership in EU.

Certainly no two transitional countries started from the same position, each of them faced their own problems, which were similar in many of these countries, but not the same. Slovenia and Czech Republic had the best starting positions, and are accordingly placed as the two economically most developed countries of central Europe, which joined EU in 2004. They are closely followed by Slovakia, Poland and Hungary, while Estonia, Lithuania and Latvia lag somewhat behind. The reasons for the Slovenian and Czech successful economic transformation (in Slovenia a gradualist approach was the norm, while in Czech Republic a somewhat of a big bang/shock therapy took place) are many. The institutional heritage of these two countries is strikingly similar. First of all Slovenia was part of Yugoslavia, which had a rigid communist economic system only for a short period of time (1945-1950). Czech Republic on the other hand was the only Central European country to vote communists to power in free elections of 1948, and therefore Czech communists were a bit more liberal than the rest of them. Both of these countries were parts of the Habsburg hereditary lands, and were left with the inheritance of the good civil service, and good and harmonized legal codification in the past, not to mention excellent educational system (after all Prague university was one of the top three universities in Austro-Hungarian monarchy, the other two being Vienna and Lvov). Czechs and Slovenians were the two Slavic nations which had the greatest experience of the Reformation in the 16<sup>th</sup> century, and thus protestant virtues and protestant world view was made part of the national identity (thanks to the efforts of Jan Hus in the 15<sup>th</sup> century Bohemia, and Primož Trubar in the 16<sup>th</sup> century Slovenia, Bible was translated into Czech and Slovenian which helped the literacy to spread). Both Czechs and Slovenians had a similar experience in the fight for the national freedom, and both did it in the most of the peaceful ways with the enlightenment of the masses. Not to mention that the Czech Republic was the industrial heartland of the Habsburg Empire, while Slovenia was more backward in this respect. But the greatest benefit to Slovenia came when it joined the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenians in 1918, because from one of the industrially most underdeveloped parts of the Austrian Empire, it became industrially the most advanced part of the newly formed state. Baltic countries were on the other hand an important part of the Russian and then Soviet empires as their windows to the West, and thus were able to profit from the commercial and manufacturing activity there, not to mention that their agricultural production was advanced compared to the other Russian regions, but they were never the manufacturing heartland of the Russian empire and thus were forced to implement economic strategies for drawing FDI early on. Yet they were left

with the worst possible legacies in the economic institutions of the Soviet regime. They had to rebuild their nations and their political elites decided it was time for them to rejoin the European family<sup>15</sup>. Building national identity by political means produced exclusionary democracies in the Baltics. Latvia and Estonia introduced extremely restrictive citizenship laws in the early 1990s. Both countries limited citizenship granting to pre-1940 citizens and their descendants. This measure excluded all those Russians who had arrived under the Soviet era<sup>16</sup> 28 per cent of the Estonian and 32 per cent of the Latvian population. Moreover, both laws made it very difficult for minorities to acquire citizenship (a similar thing happened in Slovenia with “*Izbrisani*”). Under the pressures from EU these countries had to liberalise their citizenship laws, but still a significant portion of Estonian residents has Russian citizenship, due to the fact it is not allowed to take Estonian one, a fact well publicized by Kremlin during the Russian-Estonian tensions in 2007. Not to mention that Russian minority suffered the worsted during the transition years, since its members were mainly employed in the old Soviet industries.

A number of factors contributed to the different paths of transition chosen by these respective countries. Drahokoupil<sup>17</sup> as well as Bohle and Gerskovitsc<sup>18</sup> make the following three distinction of capitalism emerging in the CEE countries: a neoliberal type in the Baltic states, an embedded neoliberal type in the Vyshegrad states, and a neo-corporatist type in Slovenia. During the whole of period from 1991 to present moment in the Baltic countries a reincarnation of economic liberalism as neoliberalism has been pursued in a rather radical and uncompromising fashion. The Vyshegrad countries Poland, Slovakia and Czech Republic are distinguished by their search for compromises between market and a kind of social protection.<sup>19</sup> They arrived too late to the globalising European economy to implement the dominant post-World War II Western regime of protective industrial policies and generous welfare states.<sup>20</sup> But even in Vyshegrad countries social protection and social security are losing ground to the market forces which aim for competitiveness in attracting FDI and making them desirable location for investment in general. Slovenia’s neo-corporatist regime is characterised by a firmly institutionalised balance between marketisation and both kinds of social protection, whereby business, labour, and other social groups are accepted as partners in shaping that balance.<sup>21</sup> But even in Slovenia from financial crisis onwards the political economic model of neo-corporatist regime is being slowly but surely dismantled and Slovenia will soon resemble the Vyshegrad countries group.

### **3. EU and Eastern enlargement**

EC (later EU) was faced with a great dilemma in the early 1990s. While Western Europe was in fact integrating, the former Soviet bloc and the former Yugoslavia were actually disintegrating. The question was what to do with the Central and Eastern Europe? Should the countries there be admitted to EU? If so how it should be done, since these states were economically and politically backward regarding the EU member countries? These countries have just started the transition from the communist (one party) political system

to parliamentary democracy, and the transition from the planned economy to the market economy. The issue of readiness of CEE countries for the EU membership was strongly debated. Before and during previous enlargements, the accession of Greece (1981), and later Spain and Portugal (1986) were also faced with similar troubles, since all of these countries were ruled as dictatorships, at least for some time, before the accession to the EC. Actually it was the accession to the EC which locked in the political and economic reforms in these countries. It was also hoped that the same thing could occur in the Central and Eastern Europe, just at a slower pace. What to do with the Central Europe remained the main question, which had to be answered by the institutions of EC, and by the member states governments of the EC. As O'Brennan<sup>22</sup> puts it nicely:

41

'Even at this early stage, however, a division between EC/EU 'drivers' (advocates) and 'brakemen' (obstructionists) was in evidence. On one side British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher unashamedly made the case for an EC commitment to enlarge. French President Francois Mitterrand, for example, declared in Prague that it would be several decades before the CEE states could become members of the Community. The Commission for its part took a middle path at this time, urging closer links but seeking to deflect the question of membership.'

The striking differences between the French and the British policy towards the enlargement were amazing. British were always keen supporters of the EC/EU enlargement since this would make the functioning of the Community a bit more difficult, and more space would be given for the manoeuvres of the national governments, whether in the area of the international economic or political relations. To put it simply the British were championing the "Europe of nations" rather than the federalist concept of Europe so dear to France and Germany (although the ideal of "L'Europe des patries" was actually French idea, or to be more precise the idea of De Gaulle). British were right to hope that they would be given support for this idea by the potential members from the Central Europe, which having so recently regained their freedom, most of them seemed to favour a Union of sovereign states rather than a highly centralized Europe (Federalist view). President of Poland, Alexander Kwasniewski probably expressed the views of many eastern European leaders when he said: 'Polish experience speaks in favour of respect for the national factor, for building a Europe of fatherlands'.<sup>23</sup> France, on the other hand, was starting to champion a federalist view of Europe, which was so dear to their Western German counterparts, which in this way found an identity worth emulating. France wanted to sort things out in Europe by ordering its institutional framework, before embarking on another round of enlargement. The position of Germany is more difficult to comprehend here. On one hand, the first part of central Europe to be integrated in the EC was the East Germany, following the reunification of Germany in 1990. This was viewed as an internal question of Germany by the EC members<sup>24</sup>. Germany has also been a dominant political and economic force in the Central Europe, since its unification in 1871, and considered Central Europe to be its own political and economic backyard. Not to mention that there were many possible areas of conflict between the now

reunified Germany and its Eastern neighbours, which no longer could count on the Soviet help in their dealings with the Western Germany, while East Germany was actually member of their club and was not perceived as a potential threat. Germany had some disputes over border with Poland and the Czechoslovakia. With Poland it was the “Nysaa-Oder” border which was forced on Germany by the victorious USSR as means of compensating Poland for the territorial losses in the East<sup>25</sup>. Also with the Czechoslovakia and Poland there was a dispute over the expelled German minority following the end of the WW II.

For majority of the Central European countries, the dramatic events of 1989 were seen in the light of their departure from the Soviet “captivity” (Brezhnev doctrine was still valid until the party leader of the USSR Mikhail Gorbachev decided to abandon it in the face of the reforms in the Soviet “allied” countries), and rejoining the European family, which they have been forced apart from by the events of the WW II and some of the events prior to it. Their citizens wanted prosperity and human rights and they saw EU membership as providing both. The question that was asked in EU at that time was: ‘How should the Community respond to the CEE states’ stated desire for membership of the club. For the first time, Article 237 of the Treaty of Rome, which simply stated that ‘any European State can apply’ for membership of the Community, began to be scrutinized’.<sup>26</sup>

The European Commission, on the other hand, took some practical steps in order to help the Central European countries. The Community removed long-standing import quotas on a number of products and extended the General System of Preferences (GSP) to the CEE countries. Then the Commission began a major assessment of the progress of economic and political reform in the Region to see what could be the potential help given to these countries. The resulting Trade and Cooperation Agreements (TCAs) would, by October 1990, be signed by all of the former Warsaw Pact states in Central and Eastern Europe.<sup>27</sup> But the financial help to Central Europe was not yet forthcoming. EU had its own problems with its own peripheral countries.<sup>28</sup>

Of all financial aid and technical support schemes offered to the CE countries PHARE programme was the most successful one. The prime missions of PHARE, as seen by the then EC Commission, were the support for the process of economic transformation, with a focus on core areas such as industry, agriculture and energy, and to provide the financial support for CE efforts to reform and rebuild their economies and political systems. The programme also included food and humanitarian aid, balance of payments help and access to European Investment Bank (EIB) loans. PHARE soon became the biggest assistance programme in CEE with funding increasing from an initial amount of €500 million in 1990 to €1600 million in 1995. In total, the PHARE programme allocated €4.2 billion for the period 1990–94; this increased to €6.693 billion for the period 1995–99, with another €4.7 billion provided between 1999 and 2002. The focus of PHARE would change in time from demand-driven support for transition-related restructuring, developing in parallel with the pre-accession strategy, into an entirely accession-driven instrument.<sup>29</sup>

The European Investment Bank (EIB) and the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD) were used to provide finance and advice to governments in Central and Eastern Europe. The EIB received guarantees by the EU and it made project-based loans in production and infrastructural projects, given at the competitive interest rates. EIB loans were almost crucial for the transitioning countries in the early 1990s, because at the time their access to investment capital was negligible and many of them were faced with the debt crisis, and were thus prevented from taking loan at the capital markets. Investment would later be directed on trans-European infrastructure projects like building the motorways, which many of the member countries from CE still lack. The EBRD was founded at the initiative of the French government and its aim was to help with the balance of payments problems, currency convertibility, and aid in instituting programmes in technology, training and development (it was launched in 1991).

The Association Agreements (or Europe Agreements as they were popularly known) were described as ‘second-generation’ agreements, and were the symbol of the second stage of relations between the EC and CEE countries. The first such Agreements were signed on 18 December 1991 with Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia<sup>30</sup>, and came into being 1 March 1992. The European Commission defined the Agreements as ‘a legal, political and economic framework for the relationship of the signatory CEE countries with the EU’<sup>31</sup>. These agreements provided the framework for bilateral relations between the EC (later the EU) and its member states with the partner countries. The Agreements were viewed by the EC as a positive contribution to the CE countries efforts to reduce the economic disparities with the EU member state, because they covered trade, political dialogue, legal approximation and other areas of cooperation, including industry, environment, transport and customs. The aim was to progressively establish a free trade area between the EU and the associated countries over a period of time, on the basis of reciprocity, but applied in an asymmetrical manner. According to the Commission, the Agreements were ‘based on shared understanding and values’ and prepared the way for economic and political convergence.<sup>32</sup> These agreements were viewed by the political leaders of the CEE countries as being quite one sided, not to mention protectionist towards less competitive sectors of the EC countries economies such as agriculture, textiles and coal and steel production. The reasoning of the EU was not unfounded since it was perceived that Poland and Hungary with their strong agricultural sector which was to be reconstructed in the economic transition were to pose serious threat to EU agriculture. Not to mention the fact that all of these countries had quite strong “heavy industry” sectors (even if these were kept alive on government subsidies) and their textile industry was quite developed because it was labour intensive and thus provided employment for the emerging urban proletariat. The Commission was aware of this, and in a 1992 paper, it advised the member states that their eastern neighbours had needs that went beyond the Europe agreements. They wanted to be treated as ‘equal partners in the dialogue concerning Europe’s future’.<sup>33</sup> As Delors then a president of European Commission pointed out: ‘You cannot shed tears of joy for the people of Eastern Europe one day and the next tell them that you will not buy their products’.<sup>34</sup>

The European Council made a very important and central statement after the Copenhagen summit in June 1993 which said that associated countries in Central and Eastern Europe that so desire shall become members of the European Union. Accession will take place as soon as an associated country is able to assume the obligations of membership by satisfying the economic and political conditions required. This statement was actually preceded by the joint memorandum of the governments of Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia, which was presented to European Commission in October 1992. The memorandum stated:

44

‘Our three countries are convinced that stable democracy, respect for human rights and continued policy of economic reforms will make accession possible. We call upon the Communities and the member states to respond to our efforts by clearly stating the integration of our economies and societies, leading to membership of the Communities is the aim of the Communities themselves. This simple, but historic statement would provide the anchor which we need.’<sup>35</sup>

The conditions that an applicant country must fulfil were as follows:

- 1) Stability of institutions (= political criteria) consisting of democracy, rule of law, human rights, and respect for and protection of minorities.
- 2) Functioning market economy and capacity to cope with competitive pressure and market forces within the European Union (= economic criterion).
- 3) Adoption of the *acquis communautaire* (= *acquis* criterion). As Community law is not only to be adopted, but also applied and enforced, the Madrid European Council in December 1995 added another criterion: Expansion of administrative structures for effective adoption of the *acquis*. Besides the applicants, the European Union itself must fulfil one criterion<sup>36</sup>.

The next phase in the relations between the EU and the CE countries started in July 1997. At this time European Commission gave the evaluation of the potential candidate chances of joining the EU in 2002. It was a departure from the usual practice of evaluating the candidate countries based on their up to date performance. The Commission recommended beginning accession negotiations with Poland, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Slovenia, and Cyprus. This was a major step forward for those countries. The Commission also recommended beginning negotiations with Slovakia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Bulgaria, and Malta, “as soon as they have made sufficient progress” in meeting the Copenhagen criteria for membership, thus encouraging them in their reform efforts by offering them the carrot of the EU accession talks. The Commission found that six of the candidate countries namely: Poland, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Estonia, and Slovakia qualified as market economies or came close to doing so. Poland and Hungary were praised as top reformers, and were seen as being able to compete successfully in the EU in 2002. The Czech Republic, Slovakia, and Slovenia could compete successfully in the EU according to the commission’s opinion if they increased their reform efforts, and Estonia was regarded as close to meeting this standard.

In November 1998 foreign ministers of CEE countries started formal negotiation about the entry of their countries in the EU with the negotiations on a few of the least controversial issues. The main activity for the first year of negotiations consisted of screening each of the thirty chapters of Accession treaty that had to be negotiated in order for prospective members to join the club. These chapters represented the main components of the body of EU laws and policies, known as the *acquis communautaire*. From 1997, the Commission assessed the process of harmonisation in its annual Progress Reports. EU developed a set of pre-accession instruments, the so-called conditionality documents, which included the White Paper and the Accession Partnerships. These instruments were developed in order to assist the candidate countries in their adaptations to the *acquis*, providing at the same time a basis for the Commission's supervision over the meeting of the obligations.<sup>37</sup> Albi points out: 'It is interesting to note that the pre-accession strategies were specifically designed for the eastward enlargement. According to the Commission, these are unnecessary should, for instance, Switzerland or Norway want to become EU members, since they 'already meet all of the membership criteria'.<sup>38</sup> The negotiation process was carried out by senior representatives of the candidate countries and members of the Commission's Task Force for the Accession Negotiations. The Commission made it clear that the candidates had to acquire all of *acquis* as in their national legislation. Theoretically speaking a candidate country could request a transition period in which to bring its system into compliance with EU rules, but this would require negotiation and prolonged the Accession of that country to the EU, and even then EU was unlikely to agree to a transition period of more than a few years. On the other hand, EU members could also request a transition period before certain rights or privileges (such as the free movement of labour) would apply to the candidates.

The French and German elections in 2002 were the key element that allowed EU heads of government (led by France and Germany of course) to adopt common negotiating positions on farm subsidies and structural (regional) aid at a special summit in October 2002. The terms EU leaders decided to offer the applicants were in general in accordance with the guidelines set by the Commission. The agricultural aid provisions were especially hard. The EU leaders decided that when candidates joined in 2004, they would receive 25 percent as much farm aid as the other fifteen members were receiving. The support payments would then increase annually until 2013, at which time the new members would receive the same amount of aid as the older member states. This was a harsh treatment of the new members many of which were left out in the cold in their efforts to reform their agricultural sector. Structural and cohesion funds in the amount of 23 billion Euros would be divided among the candidate countries.

Finally the 1<sup>st</sup> of May 2004 arrived and the 8 CEE countries joined the EU club.

#### 4. Conclusion: Political Economy of CEE countries 10 years later

All of CEE countries have better living standards now than at the beginning of the of their EU membership, not to mention at the beginning of the political and economic transition. To quote Nič and Swieboda:

"Central Europe has never in its history been more free, secure and prosperous. Czechs, Hungarians, Poles and Slovaks have benefited hugely from the events and transformation of the past 25 years, as have their direct neighbours including Austrians. The enlargement of the European Union in May 2004 has been an unquestionable success. Our region has embraced democracy, the rule of law and market economics. It has flourished thanks to the dramatic increase in trade with and investment from the rest of Europe"<sup>39</sup>.

46

Slovenia, Slovakia, Estonia and Latvia joined the eurozone during this period; Lithuania follows in 2015, while Poland, Czech Republic and Hungary might follow their lead. If we can talk about one country that has had it real good during these 10 years it would be Poland. The following table shows GDP per capita in terms of purchasing power parity for the selected countries from 2001 to 2012. We can see that all of them are much better off than at the moment of EU accession with the exception of Slovenia which remained almost the same but which conventional wisdom blames on the lack of structural reforms.

Table 1  
Levels of Economic Development

GDP/capita	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Slovenia	80	83	84	87	87	88	89	91	86	84	84	84
Hungary	58	61	63	63	63	63	62	64	65	66	67	67
Slovakia	53	54	56	57	60	63	68	73	73	74	75	76
Czech Republic	73	74	77	78	79	80	83	81	83	81	81	81
Poland	48	48	49	51	51	52	55	56	61	63	65	67
Lithuania	42	45	50	52	55	58	62	64	58	62	68	72
Latvia	39	41	44	47	50	53	57	59	54	55	60	64
Estonia	47	50	55	58	62	66	70	69	64	64	69	71

Source: Eurostat, in PPPs 2001, EU 28 =100

Vysegrad countries have also changed profoundly. In Poland, prime minister Tusk was the first prime minister who managed to secure the reelection in 2012. That was something that has not happened in Poland since communist times. Poland has also become more hawkish in creating the EU's Eastern policy together with Sweden. It is no wonder that one of the EU representatives, at 2014's talks between Yanukovich and the opposition in Ukraine,

was polish foreign minister Radek Sikorski. Poland wants EU to give more perspective to Eastern European and Caucasus countries like Ukraine and Georgia who would eventually be admitted to EU membership. On the home front the human rights and minority rights enjoy a high level of protection and the economic boom helps safeguard the relative peace and calm in Poland (after all Poland was the only EU economy that has managed to grow in 2009). At EU level Poland lobbies hard and tries to protect its own interests.

**Table 2**  
**GDP Dynamics**

GDP growth %	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Slovenia	3,8	2,9	4,4	4	5,8	7	3,4	-7,9	1,3	0,7	-2,4	-1,1
Hungary	4,5	3,9	4,8	4	3,9	0,1	0,9	-6,8	1,1	1,6	-1,7	1,1
Slovakia	4,6	4,8	5,1	6,7	8,3	10,5	5,8	-4,9	4,4	3	1,8	0,9
Czech Republic	2,1	3,8	4,7	6,8	7	5,7	3,1	-4,5	2,5	1,8	-1	-0,9
Poland	1,4	3,9	5,3	3,6	6,2	6,8	5,1	1,6	3,9	4,5	2	1,6
Lithuania	6,8	10,3	7,4	7,8	7,8	9,8	2,9	-14,8	1,6	6	3,7	3,3
Latvia	7,1	7,7	8	10,1	11	10	-2,8	-17,7	-1,3	5,3	5,2	4,1
Estonia	6,6	7,8	6,3	8,9	10,1	7,5	-4,2	-14,1	2,6	9,6	3,9	0,8

Source: Eurostat

Hungarian story is a bit different. In 2010, after the disastrous left wing government who stayed in power due to increase in government spending in form of higher public sector salaries which Hungary could ill afford, right wing populist Viktor Orban was elected as the Hungarian prime minister. Orban who was already in power from 1998-2002 became a sort of *l'enfant terrible* of the EU. Under Orban freedom of information has been dramatically lowered since a lot of Hungarian media have become government owned. Also there happened a great turn to the right in Hungarian politics with Orban's Fidesz going ever more right and the right wing Jobbik party which is openly anti-Semitic and made of hardcore Hungarian nationalists become a solid third party in the 2014 elections<sup>40</sup>. Orban also restricted the independence of Hungarian Central Bank, in spite of ECB's protests<sup>41</sup>. All of this, coupled with the excessive budgetary deficit and nationalistic economic policy did not endear Hungary to EU. At one point even economic sanctions against Hungary have been considered due to lowering the central bank independence.

Slovenia during the last decade experienced slow economic growth and was the hardest hit by the financial crisis. Still prevalent crony capitalism and lack of transparent large scale privatization process coupled with hostility towards FDI, as well as inadequate and inefficient public sector management are popularly considered as the main reasons for recent poor performance. Additionally Slovenia experienced political instability with changes of the governing party at every election with the interchange of central right and central left parties.

Slovakia experienced stable and substantial economic growth based primarily on FDI attraction in manufacturing industry. Slovakia now produces the most automobiles per capita in the World<sup>42</sup>. Its political scene remains divided with central left and right parties winning and losing elections. Also, there are some problems with the status of the Roma minority and sporadically nationalistic clashes with Hungary over the treatment of Hungarian minority in Slovakia.

Baltic countries of Lithuania, Estonia and Latvia can be viewed together, since their political economy is one of liberal reforms no matter which party is in the office there. Their biggest problem, except the economic growth rates which should deliver more prosperity to everyone, remains the relationship with Russia. This is particularly true of Estonia and Latvia which have a big Russian minority living there.

48

How did EU profit from its greatest enlargement in 2004? First of all, it gained around 60 million citizens and consumers. Only three countries in EU opened up their labour market to workers from new member states unconditionally in 2004, namely Sweden, UK and Ireland. Other countries feared large immigration of workers from new member states and closed their labour markets to CEE workers for a transition periods of couple of years. This emigration may have even benefited new member states, at least in the short run, since it eased the pressure on their labour markets and worker remittances helped to improve their balance of payments and standard of living in general.

Regarding FDI, the EU accession did help FDI attraction to CEE countries and opened up new investment possibilities for companies from old EU member states who could outsource part of their production to CEE countries<sup>43</sup>.

By accepting CEE countries EU took not only their hopes but also their fears. EU-Russia relationship has changed profoundly from 2004 onwards with EU member states from CEE (especially the Baltic states and Poland) advocating a far stronger EU position towards Russia. With recent Russian expansion in Ukraine these fears were reawakened.

Accession of CEE countries to EU had a great converging effect on political economy of CEE. Without their efforts to implement all necessary political and economic reforms and to work on the harmonisation with their more developed partners in EU, today CEE countries would perhaps be even more divergent. Some of them, such as the Baltic states are probably even more market-radical and politically and socially more exclusive; the Vyshegrad states less macroeconomically stable, and Slovenia even more xenophobic and protectionist.<sup>44</sup> We can conclude this article with a question: Can we really divide Europe into Old Member States (members prior 2004) and New Europe (member states since 2004)? Or is the division into North and South more subtle? Perhaps it is too soon to answer this question since only ten years have passed since accession of CEE countries to the EU.

## Notes

- 1 Wade Jacoby, *The Enlargement of the European Union and NATO: Ordering from the Menu in Central Europe*. (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge 2004) p. 1.
- 2 Slovenia being the exception of course, since former Yugoslavia said its own farewell to USSR in 1948.
- 3 Dorothee Bohle and Bela Gerskovits, 'Neoliberalism, Embedded Neoliberalism, and Neocorporatism: Towards Transnational Capitalism in Central-Eastern Europe' [2007] 30, *West European Politics*, pp. 449-450.
- 4 Paul Dragos Aligica and Anthony John Evans, *The Neoliberal Revolution in Eastern Europe: Economic Ideas in Transition from Communism* (Edward Elgar, Cheltenham 2009) p. 51.
- 5 See Aligica and Evans (n 13) p. 52.
- 6 Leszek Balcerowicz, *Post-Communist Transition: Some Lessons (Thirty-First Wincott Lecture)*, (Institute of Economic Affairs, London 1995)
- 7 See Mickiewicz (n 2) pp. 27-28.
- 8 Mojmir Mrak, Matija Rojec and Carlos Silva Jarugei, *Slovenia* (World Bank Publications, New York 2009) p. 80.
- 9 Ian Jeffries, *Eastern Europe at the Turn of the Twenty-First Century: A Guide to Economies in Transition* (Routledge, London – New York 2002) pp. 278-279.
- 10 Ian Jeffries, *Former Yugoslavia at the Turn of the Twenty-First Century: A Guide to Economies in Transition* (Routledge, London 2002) p. 379.
- 11 Marco Neuhaus, *The Impact of FDI on Economic Growth: An Analysis for Transitional Countries of Central and Eastern Europe*. (Physica Verlag, Heidelberg 2006) p 1.
- 12 Iivi Zajedova, 'Baltic regional co-operation' [2008] 8 (1) *Slovenská politologická revue*, pp. 51-62.
- 13 Zajedova (n 21) p. 60.
- 14 Central European Free Trade Agreement, (Krakow, 21.12.1992) article 1.
- 15 Although the Baltic political elites did surprisingly well under the rule of the Russian tsars, where the so called "Baltic Germans" dominated the political life of the Russian state in the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries.
- 16 The Russians were encouraged to settle in Latvia and Estonia to make them more reliable. Two important naval bases of the Soviet Baltic fleet were located in these two countries, namely Talin and Riga.
- 17 Jan Drahokoupil, *Globalization and the State in Central and Eastern Europe – The Politics of Foreign Direct Investments* (Routledge, London 2009)
- 18 See Bohle and Gerskovitsc (n 12)
- 19 See Drahokoupil (n 26)
- 20 See Bohle and Gerskovitsc (n 12)
- 21 Bohle and Gerskovitsc (n 12) p. 446.
- 22 John O' Brennan, *The Eastern Enlargement of the European Union* (Routledge, London 2006) p. 14.
- 23 Peter A. Poole, *Europe unites: The EU's Eastern Enlargement* (Praeger, Westport 2003) p. 13.
- 24 Poole, for example, claims that: 'In many ways, however, East Germany's transition to democracy and a free market economy has been just as difficult as that of the other candidates, and the heavy costs have been borne mainly by taxpayers in western Germany, making them less willing to pay such a disproportionate share of the EU's expenses.' Poole (n 32), p. 7.  
But the real problem of Germany's unification for EU was the extension of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) to farmers in eastern Germany which proved to be such a drain on the EU budget that it caused the first major reform in CAP. Poole (n 32).
- 25 Poland lost most of its Eastern provinces to USSR, while it gained Silesia with Wroclaw, and Pomerania, which as parts of Germany were economically more advanced than any of its lost eastern territories.
- 26 O'Brennan (n 31) p. 14.
- 27 O'Brennan (n 31).
- 28 In 2002 Poland would receive €67 per capita, Hungary €49, Slovenia €41, and the Czech Republic €29

*in the period up to the end of the 2006 financial framework. By contrast, in 2000, Greece received €437 per capita, while Ireland got €418, Spain €216 and Portugal €211. Further, it was stipulated that aid to individual CEE states was not to exceed the imposed ‘absorption capacity’ figure of 4 per cent of GDP. This threshold was set much lower than had been the case in previous enlargement rounds. The point is further put in perspective when one considers that Ireland, although already by 2000 one of the richest states in the Union, was still in receipt of almost six times more aid than was envisaged for Poland.*

*Germany has spent far more money on the help for former DDR. In 1993 the amount of transfers to East amounted to \$5900 per capita. O’Brenan, (n 31) p. 17.*

29 O’Brennan (n 31) pp. 17-18.

30 It should be noticed that these were the three early reformers of the former Soviet bloc, whose economies were in the best shape and best prepared for the economic transition. Although quite advanced by the standards of the soviet bloc, at that time they were lagging behind the economy of the former Yugoslavia.

50

31 O’Brennan (n 31) p. 19.

32 O’Brennan (n 31) p. 19.

33 Poole (n 32) p. 37.

34 O’Brennan (n 31) p. 23.

35 O’Brennan (n 31) p. 13.

36 In their joint declaration the European leaders stated: “Membership requires that the candidate country has achieved stability of institutions guaranteeing democracy, the rule of law, human rights and respect for and protection of minorities, the existence of a functioning market economy as well as the capacity to cope with competitive pressures and market forces within the Union. Membership presupposes the candidate’s ability to take on the obligations of membership including adherence to the aims of political, economic and monetary union” Poole (n 32) p. 38.

37 Anneli Albi, *EU Enlargement and the Constitutions of Central and Eastern Europe* (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge 2005)

38 Albi (n 46) p. 39.

39 Milan Nič and Paweł Świeboda eds.: *Central Europe fit for the future: 10 years after EU accession* (Report) <<http://www.cepolicy.org/publications/central-europe-fit-future-10-years-after-eu-accession>> accessed 30.5.2014.

40 Kester Eddy, ‘Critics question Hungarian PM Viktor Orbán’s economics claims’ *Financial Times* (Ft.com, April 2, 2014) <<http://www.ft.com/cms/s/0/9b9aa140-b59d-11e3-a1bd-00144feabdc0.html#axzz33SRS2Zgb>> accessed 2.6.2014

41 Sakari Suoninen, ‘ECB warns Hungary yet again to honor its central bank’s independence’ *Reuters* (Frankfurt, February 6, 2014) <<http://www.reuters.com/article/2014/02/06/us/ecb-hungary-centralbank-idUSBREA151KE20140206>> accessed 2.6.2014

42 Slovak Investment and Trade Development Agency, ‘Automotive industry’ <[http://www.sario.sk/sites/default/files/content/files/automotive\\_industry\\_0.pdf](http://www.sario.sk/sites/default/files/content/files/automotive_industry_0.pdf)> accessed 6.6.2014.

43 On FDI flows between EU15 and CEE countries see more in O Pilipović, ‘Politička ekonomija regionalnih ekonomskih integracija’ (PhD thesis, University of Zagreb, Faculty of Law, Zagreb, 2011)

44 See also Bohle and Gerskowits (n 12) p. 456.

	Prebivalstvo	Investicije v osn. sredstva						Širša država						Skupno		
		mio. €	letni porast	mesečna rast	mio. €	letni porast	mesečna rast	mio. €	letni porast	mesečna rast	mio. €	letni porast	mesečna rast	mio. €	letni porast	mesečna rast
Leto																
2007	17205	7.8	0.73	9631	21.0	0.99	2212	6.7	1.16	29048	11.8	0.87				
2008	19243	8.8	0.00	10405	9.78	0.87	2526	14.18	1.35	32174	9.50	0.87				
2009	18852	-2.30	-2.78	8369	-22.11	-23.57	2512	-0.57	2.56	29732	-8.70	-9.29				
2010	19578	0.74	3.64	7651	-9.69	-5.79	2512	-0.10	-1.79	29741	-2.24	-1.78				
2011	20675	2.80	1.19	6694	-6.62	-0.96	2443	-2.77	-5.99	29812	0.07	-0.11				
2012	20452	-1.08	-0.43	6157	-8.03	-6.99	2363	-3.27	-4.63	28972	-2.82	-2.26				
2013	19524	-1.76	2.62	6304	0.47	-0.76	2237	-5.32	-6.49	28066	-1.56	-2.54				
2013/1	4445	-4.23		1447	-1.68		559	-4.80		6452	-3.72					
4	1615	-1.37	0.08	527	0.70	1.35	198	-8.09	1.00	2340	-1.52	0.51				
5	1622	-3.67	-0.28	527	-3.23	-0.76	194	1.40	0.95	2344	-3.17	-0.24				
6	1711	-1.55	0.09	539	-1.74	-0.19	174	-8.43	-1.40	2425	-2.12	-0.02				
II	4948	-2.20		1594	-1.45		566	-5.16		7108	-2.27					
7	1665	-2.85	-0.16	531	-0.80	-0.58	198	0.14	1.03	2384	-2.16	-0.11				
8	1664	-1.87	0.37	496	-2.15	-0.64	161	-17.19	-3.63	2320	-3.17	-0.14				
9	1674	0.09	-0.55	563	0.14	0.66	167	7.14	-0.06	2405	0.56	-0.02				
III	5003	-1.55		1590	-0.90		527	-4.00		7119	-1.59					
10	1779	-0.19	0.57	605	15.71	2.05	173	-19.65	-1.63	25557	1.45	0.72				
11	1615	-0.15	0.34	596	10.22	1.73	183	-12.59	-1.06	2394	1.12	0.55				
12	1734	2.56	0.44	472	-8.70	-2.62	230	11.65	-1.23	2435	0.93	-0.40				
IV	5128	0.74		1673	5.85		586	-7.10		7386	1.17					
2014/1	1489	0.26	1.23	501	4.87	0.54	176	-10.66	-0.72	2166	0.28	0.84				
2	1358	1.13	0.14	555	4.78	1.35	184	18.30	2.66	2097	3.40	0.62				
3	1595	3.48	0.05	686	5.28	0.85	171	-17.27	-0.15	2452	2.18	0.25				
I	4442	1.66		1742	5.00		531	-5.06		6715	1.93					
4	1669	4.93	1.24	644	8.25	1.91	183	-7.36	-0.40	2496	4.74	1.27				
5	1588	-0.89	-0.52	630	6.53	0.16	165	-14.90	-1.03	2383	0.19	-0.38				
6	1667	-1.44	-0.46	617	1.77	-0.52	190	8.78	2.15	2473	0.07	-0.29				
II	4924	0.81		1890	5.49		538	-4.97		7352	1.52					
7	1719	4.71	0.24	657	8.82	0.50	207	4.61	3.00	2584	5.72	0.52				
8	1580	-3.76	-1.52	607	7.79	0.13	170	5.32	-1.01	2357	-0.39	-1.10				
9	1686	1.45	-0.60	665	5.13	0.02	169	0.80	2.16	2520	2.35	-0.23				
III	4985	0.80		1930	7.20		546	3.61		7460	2.59					

	Izvoz Slovenije*			Izvoz Slovenije izven EU27**			Izvoz EU27**			Izvoz Slovenija**			Izvozne cene Slovenija**			Izvozne cene EU27**	
	Leto	mil. €	letni porast	meseca rast	mil. €	meseca stopnja	mil. €	medletna stopnja	mil. €	medletna stopnja	indeks	medletna stopnja	indeks	medletna stopnja	indeks	medletna stopnja	
2007	19387	15.7	0.85	6740	15.3	1237251	6.7	105.7	2.1	104.9						1.5	
2008	19724	1.74	-0.68	7407	9.90	1308960	5.4	109.3	3.4	108.0						2.9	
2009	16006	-18.85	-21.86	5773	-22.07	1090939	-16.6	107.3	-1.82	107.0						-0.84	
2010	18251	14.02	16.09	6359	10.16	1338504	22.63	110.3	2.75	112.7						5.27	
2011	20458	12.10	13.22	7255	13.87	1530880	13.47	117.6	6.57	117.7						4.45	
2012	20884	2.08	1.60	7827	7.89	1685277	10.09	124.2	2.90	124.7						4.80	
2013	21620	2.65	1.85	6447	3.02	1733123	2.97	107.2	-0.27	108.7						-0.88	
2013/II	55220	2.15		1648	0.46	450120	6.61	107.2	0.34	109.1						-0.12	
7	1917	7.81	1.28	586	3.19	155302	4.33	107.4	-2.01	107.7						-2.09	
8	1518	-2.54	0.21	462	-8.61	1333537	-4.42	110.0	0.92	108.3						-2.70	
9	1892	5.06	-0.32	537	1.38	141106	3.07	105.7	0.38	108.4						-1.99	
III	5327	3.71		1585	-1.13	429946	1.05	107.7	-0.25	108.1						-2.26	
10	1994	3.92	1.44	565	-1.67	153699	1.67	106.9	-0.28	108.4						-1.36	
11	1870	-0.60	-0.27	544	-3.34	1422288	-2.87	108.1	2.37	108.4						-1.45	
12	1642	9.89	0.35	553	9.44	1382024	4.12	107.7	-0.09	108.5						-1.45	
IV	5506	4.00		1662	1.18	434191	0.88	107.6	0.66	108.4						-1.42	
2014/1	1817	8.73	2.06	487	4.66	130449	-0.99	107.5	1.80	107.6						-1.56	
2	1779	4.60	0.68	532	4.96	135816	1.01	108.9	3.42	107.4						-1.47	
3	1993	5.17	-0.14	604	4.05	142783	-6.47	106.9	-0.83	107.5						-1.47	
I	5588	6.12		1623	4.53	409047	-2.34	107.8	1.44	107.5						-1.50	
4	1965	2.28	1.34	614	2.92	138938	-7.76	108.9	0.93	107.1						-2.10	
5	1834	1.69	-0.85	520	-3.27	141035	-8.78	107.2	-1.47	107.7						-1.01	
6	1946	8.42	-0.03	591	14.99	141701	-2.18	104.8	0.00	108.6						-0.46	
II	5746	4.08		1725	4.66	421694	-6.32	107.0	-0.19	107.8						-1.19	
7	2023	5.54	1.32	589	0.60	151479	-2.46	108.5	1.02	108.8						1.02	
8	1545	1.75	-1.00	457	-0.95	123239	-7.71	107.5	-2.27	109.0						0.65	
9	2153	13.83	2.02	586	9.07	150659	6.77	110.0	4.07	109.4						0.92	
III	5722	7.40		1632	3.02	425377	-1.06	108.7	0.90	109.1						0.86	
10	2162	8.41	1.64	601	6.34	156899	2.08	109.7	2.62	107.9						-0.46	

	Uvoz Slovenije*			Uvoz Slovenije izven EU27 **			Uvoz EU27 * *			Uvozne cene Slovenija **			Uvozne cene EU27 ** *		
	Leto	mil. €	letni porast	mesečna rast	mil. €	medetra stopnja	mil. €	medetra stopnja	mil. €	medetra stopnja	indeks	indeks	medetra stopnja	indeks	medetra stopnja
2007	21236	16.0	0.87	6050.0	41.4	1422211	5.2	120.2	3.9	111.7	0.6				
2008	22648	6.65	-0.05	7240.0	19.7	1550276	8.12	128.0	6.8	121.8	8.7				
2009	16773	-25.94	-28.77	5527	-23.65	1198313	-22.70	117.8	-7.96	108.9	-10.53				
2010	19504	16.29	1744	7292	31.94	1482947	23.70	128.0	8.65	123.8	13.65				
2011	21954	12.56	14.40	8250	13.06	1681150	11.40	138.7	8.33	137.2	10.80				
2012	22051	0.44	-0.51	8166	-1.02	1782930	6.05	141.1	4.58	146.5	6.26				
2013	22180	0.46	-0.64	7525	7.89	1683261	-6.39	108.3	-3.50	114.4	-3.65				
2013/II	5673	0.93		1843	2.99	419705	-5.53	109.8	-1.26	114.7	-2.71				
7	1889	3.06	1.00	647	18.86	144807	-2.09	106.7	-5.24	113.0	-3.99				
8	1581	-7.31	-0.62	604	7.99	136149	-11.86	106.9	-7.20	114.3	-5.93				
9	1866	4.20	-1.08	652	17.98	141655	-6.54	106.8	-7.77	115.2	-5.11				
III	5336	0.12		1903	14.90	422610	-6.90	106.8	-6.75	114.2	-5.02				
10	2013	1.02	0.96	793	34.58	1495894	-7.31	107.2	-3.34	113.2	-4.71				
11	1965	4.70	-0.01	653	7.26	139221	-6.86	105.5	-7.37	111.4	-5.35				
12	1739	3.19	-0.31	581	13.28	130038	-3.77	106.5	-6.08	112.2	-4.92				
IV	5717	2.93		2027	18.48	418843	-6.09	106.4	-5.62	112.3	-4.99				
2014/1	1782	-4.40	0.80	623	104	144065	-3.83	107.0	-2.90	113.0	-2.75				
2	1783	0.71	0.56	605	13.99	131107	-2.00	107.0	-2.64	113.3	-2.58				
3	1914	1.80	-0.94	641	5.86	1388948	0.23	106.5	-4.05	112.8	-3.26				
I	5479	-0.64		1869	6.63	414020	-1.91	106.8	-3.20	113.0	-2.86				
4	1903	-0.29	1.11	673	0.22	1380564	-3.24	106.1	-4.16	110.6	-4.66				
5	1917	-1.61	-0.03	719	15.55	140462	0.16	104.8	-3.94	110.9	-2.72				
6	1856	5.70	0.19	664	20.94	1388943	1.57	105.1	-4.11	111.7	-2.02				
II	5676	1.13		2056	11.57	417459	-0.54	105.3	-4.07	111.1	-3.14				
7	1941	2.77	1.35	612	-5.44	1500017	3.60	105.7	-0.94	111.1	-1.68				
8	1635	3.42	-0.54	612	1.32	132068	-3.00	106.6	-0.28	111.4	-2.54				
9	2000	7.19	1.16	747	14.69	148038	4.51	104.1	-2.53	111.8	-2.95				
III	5577	4.51		1971	3.60	430123	1.78	105.5	-1.25	111.4	-2.39				
10	2057	2.18	0.69	726	-8.49	149289	-0.20	106.5	-0.65	112.0	-1.06				

\* podatki SURS, \*\* podatki Eurostat

Leto	Gospodarska aktivnost in brezposelnost v EU		Gradbeni delavnosti				Trgovina na drobno				Anketna stopnja brezposelnosti		
	Industrijska producija EU27	mediterna stopnja indeks	Predelovalna dejavnost EU27	mediterna stopnja indeks	Gradbeni aktivnosti EU27	mediterna stopnja indeks	Trgovina na drobno EU27	mediterna stopnja indeks	EU 27	EU 15	Slovenija		
2007	111,61	3,3	113,04	3,9	111,27	3,7	107,73	3,5	7,1	7,4	4,9		
2008	109,13	-2,2	108,05	-4,4	103,33	-7,1	111,06	3,1	7,0	7,2	4,4		
2009	91,18	-16,2	91,31	-15,2	93,35	-9,6	107,76	-3,0	8,9	9,0	6,0		
2010	97,38	6,5	97,93	7,3	88,85	-4,4	110,34	2,1	9,6	9,5	7,2		
2011	101,15	3,40	103,14	4,80	89,89	0,07	111,85	1,30	9,6	9,7	8,1		
2012	98,73	-2,1	100,59	-2,2	87,09	-5,9	113,96	1,1	10,5	10,6	8,9		
2013	100,32	3,6	101,69	1,1	92,27	5,9	102,89	-9,8	10,9	11,14	10,21		
2013/11	100,55	-11	103,27	-0,9	93,40	-4,1	101,28	0,4	10,9	11,1	10,4		
7	100,15	-1,7	102,98	-1,6	96,02	-0,4	105	1,3	10,5	11,5	9,6		
8	87,15	-10	88,18	-11	83,79	0,3	100,82	1,4	10,5	11,5	9,4		
9	104,44	0,7	108,3	0,8	101,84	0,7	101,23	1,0	10,7	11,7	9,2		
III	97,25	-0,6	99,82	-0,6	93,88	0,2	102,35	1,2	10,6	11,6	9,4		
10	105,88	0,8	108,75	1,1	104,4	-0,8	105,13	0,7	10,6	11,9	9,6		
11	106,83	2,8	108,39	3,2	101,48	-1,3	106,14	2,6	10,7	12,0	9,6		
12	97,32	1,2	96,17	1,7	97,46	0,7	127,7	0,8	10,6	11,8	9,9		
IV	103,34	1,6	104,44	2,0	101,11	-0,5	112,99	1,4	10,6	11,9	9,7		
2014/1	97,31	2,0	96,2	3,4	78,69	7,3	97,42	1,9	11,0	12,4	10,9		
2	99,32	2,2	99,95	4,0	84,8	6,3	90,94	2,0	11,0	12,4	11		
3	108,46	0,5	110,86	2,4	94,39	6,4	101,49	1,4	10,8	12,1	10,5		
I	101,70	1,5	102,34	3,2	85,96	6,6	96,62	1,8	10,9	12,3	10,8		
4	100,89	2,4	103,73	3,7	94,08	7,1	102,53	3,1	10,4	11,8	9,8		
5	101,08	1,2	104,33	1,8	95,35	4,0	103,6	1,0	10,2	11,5	9,3		
6	103,88	0,8	108,31	1,3	99,73	0,3	104,36	1,7	9,9	11,0	8,9		
II	101,95	1,4	105,46	2,2	96,39	3,7	103,50	1,9	10,2	11,4	9,3		
7	101,97	1,7	105,91	2,7	95,37	0,2	105,78	0,6	9,7	11,0	8,7		
8	86,97	-0,2	88,57	0,5	82,6	-0,8	103,02	2,1	9,7	11,0	8,6		
9	105,28	0,6	109,84	1,2	100,91	0,3	101,94	0,7	9,8	11,3	8,4		
III	98,07	0,8	101,44	1,5	92,96	-0,1	103,58	1,1	9,7	11,1	8,6		
10	106,81	0,8	110,35	1,4	105,19	1,5	106,77	1,5	9,9	11,5	8,7		

Naročila, pričakovanja in poslovni optimizem v EU							Postovni optimizem EU28	
	Poslovna klima EU28		Naročila, predelovalna dejavnost EU28		Naročila, gradbeništvo EU28		Trgovina na drobno pričakovanja EU28	
Leto	ocena stanja	meditna spremembra	ocena stanja	meditna spremembra	indeks naročil	meditna spremembra	ocena stanja	meditna spremembra
2008	-0,38	-1,67	-15,51	-8,47	-17,24	-9,17	-3,58	-17,69
2009	-2,55	-2,17	-53,00	-37,49	-45,33	-28,09	-13,12	-9,54
2010	0,45	2,92	-24,36	28,65	-43,25	2,08	6,02	19,12
2011	0,60	0,16	-11,68	12,70	40,31	4,12	-0,64	-6,85
2012	-0,70	-1,30	-24,07	-12,39	-41,17	-0,86	-5,45	-4,81
2013	-0,44	-0,20	-22,78	1,30	-39,82	1,35	-0,70	4,76
2013/II	-0,8	-0,4	-27,1	-5,7	-41,1	-1,7	-2,8	-3,9
7	-0,5	0,3	-22,2	0,0	-38,6	-1,6	-11	7,2
8	-0,3	0,5	-16,7	8,0	-37,5	1,6	5,4	13,2
9	-0,2	0,7	-17,5	8,0	-33,1	7,3	7,8	16,0
III	-0,3	0,5	-18,8	5,3	-36,4	2,4	4,0	12,1
10	0,0	1,2	-19,3	13,4	-39,0	6,1	5,8	11,5
11	0,3	-0,6	-16,0	15,0	-38,0	6,9	0,9	2,1
12	0,3	-0,5	-15,6	14,5	-37,8	8,1	3,3	12,5
IV	0,2	0,0	-17,0	14,3	-38,3	7,0	3,3	8,7
2014/1	0,2	1,2	-17,3	12,9	-41	2,0	4,3	17,8
2	0,4	1,1	-15,1	11,3	-39,5	4,7	9,6	13,0
3	0,4	1,2	-14,1	13,7	-39,2	1,8	9,1	13,3
1	0,3	1,2	-15,5	12,6	-39,9	2,8	7,7	14,7
4	0,3	1,3	-12,2	17,8	-36,4	6,8	17,8	23,2
5	0,4	1,1	-12,8	14,7	-37,1	3,5	14,4	15,5
6	0,2	0,9	-12,5	11,0	-35,6	3,5	9,7	11,6
II	0,3	1,1	-12,5	14,5	-36,4	4,6	14,0	16,8
7	0,2	0,7	-13,3	8,9	-32,4	6,2	7,2	8,3
8	0,2	0,5	-11,9	4,8	-32,1	5,4	8,4	3,0
9	0,0	0,2	-16,6	0,9	-30,2	2,9	4,1	-3,7
III	0,1	0,5	-13,9	4,9	-31,6	4,8	6,6	2,5
10	0,1	0,1	-17,9	1,4	-32,5	6,5	6,2	0,5
11	0,2	-0,1	-15,3	0,6	-35,1	2,9	8,8	7,9



Industrijska producija										Osnovna [el., plin, voda]
	Rudarstvo			Prehrambena industrija			mesečna rast			letni porast
Leto	indeks	letni porast	mesečna rast	indeks	letni porast	mesečna rast	indeks	letni porast	indeks	mesečna rast
2007	131,3	6,2	0,56	119,2	3,6	0,69	132,4	7,5	0,65	115,2
2008	129,1	-1,7	-0,06	117,3	-1,6	-0,32	130,2	-1,7	-0,03	116,2
2009	107,6	-16,7	-1,64	113,7	-3,1	-0,29	107,1	-17,7	-1,77	107,5
2010	115,3	7,1	0,78	127,5	121	1,00	115,3	7,6	0,84	107,8
2011	104,4	-9,5	-0,4	118,7	-7,7	-0,73	105,1	2,7	-0,45	89,1
2012	104,1	0,0	-0,15	110,7	-6,6	-0,86	103,6	-1,0	-0,19	98,7
2013	99,6	-4,3	0,31	88,2	-10,4	0,82	97,6	-5,8	0,35	120,1
2013/II	101,1	-1,3	-	79,4	-7,9	-	100,5	-1,6	-	108,8
7	101,9	1,8	1,31	95,0	3,7	0,94	100,4	1,8	1,41	117,1
8	84,3	-5,7	-0,36	95,0	0,5	1,43	80,8	-6,7	-0,44	116,5
9	104,2	1,5	-0,47	79,5	-20,2	-3,25	103,4	1,4	-0,37	115,5
III	96,8	-0,6	-	89,8	-5,7	-	94,9	-0,9	-	116,4
10	108,1	-0,8	0,85	97,9	-8,0	1,30	106,4	-1,5	0,85	124,9
11	104	0,5	-0,42	101	6,0	0,26	102,2	0,6	-0,38	120,8
12	93	8,0	0,02	111,6	74,1	9,94	88,3	7,9	-0,18	134,8
IV	101,7	2,2	-	103,5	16,8	-	99,0	1,9	-	126,8
2014/1	95,7	-0,7	1,08	87,3	31,1	6,83	94,7	1,7	1,08	105,5
2	95,5	-2,1	0,70	74,1	-0,3	2,31	95	0,2	0,97	103,2
3	106,5	3,1	0,08	60,6	-30,1	-4,4	106,9	5,6	0,07	109
I	99,2	0,2	-	74,0	-2,5	-	98,9	2,6	-	105,9
4	102,9	1,2	1,74	138,4	73,2	11,27	102,2	1,1	1,33	99,9
5	101,2	0,2	-0,08	93	18,0	0,60	101	0,2	-0,42	102,4
6	105,5	6,1	0,57	82,2	9,3	-3,25	106,7	8,3	0,59	95,2
II	103,2	2,5	-	104,5	34,1	-	103,3	3,2	-	99,2
7	106,8	5,4	1,69	74,8	-20,3	-7,05	106,7	7,0	1,8	110,8
8	83,1	-1,4	-1,16	67,9	-27,4	-9,03	81,7	1,1	-0,97	98,9
9	108,4	4,7	0,27	93,3	19,6	4,72	109,1	6,3	0,41	101,2
III	99,4	3,2	-	78,7	-11,0	-	99,2	5,1	-	103,6
10	110,7	3,2	0,41	97,1	-0,8	-4,19	111,2	5,3	0,48	105,4

		Gradbeništvo			Nočištve domaćih gostova			Nočištve tujih gostova			Skupaj nočištve		
		letni porast	mesečna rast	v 1000	letni porast	mesečna rast	v 1000	letni porast	mesečna rast	v 1000	letni porast	mesečna rast	
Leto	tisoč ur												
2007	39383	10,9	0,80	3394	4,9	0,46	4867	8,4	0,74	8261	6,9	0,62	
2008	43591	10,7	0,86	3543	4,4	0,39	4809	-1,2	-0,08	8352	1,1	0,11	
2009	41929	-3,0	-0,92	3777	4,8	0,12	4526	-7,0	-0,42	8303	-2,0	-0,20	
2010	36901	-12,0	-1,01	3848	-4,2	-0,35	4923	0,7	0,03	8772	-1,5	-0,13	
2011	31765	-13,9	-0,91	3867	0,5	0,21	5373	9,1	0,67	9240	5,3	0,47	
2012	28965	-8,8	-1,07	3679	-4,9	-0,58	5678	5,7	0,70	9355	1,2	0,16	
2013	27521	-5,0	0,04	3554	-3,4	-0,06	5833	2,7	0,02	9387	0,3	0,01	
2013/II	7043	-8,1	-	798	-5,3		1380	0,9		2178	-1,5		
7	2676	-1,3	1,9	486	0,7	-0,95	968	4,8	2,35	1454	3,4	1,40	
8	2524	-6,0	0,29	528	-4,6	-0,52	1140	5,8	2,19	1668	2,2	1,57	
9	2520	2,8	-0,14	261	-3,5	-0,88	616	6,4	1,65	877	3,2	1,18	
III	7720	-1,6		1276	-2,4		2724	5,6		4000	2,9		
10	2426	-1,2	1,29	250	4,3	0,88	384	3,8	-0,49	634	4,0	0,10	
11	2434	-4,7	-0,66	209	-2,3	0,18	265	-4,0	2,18	475	-3,2	0,99	
12	2162	2,8	-0,23	230	-0,9	1,29	255	1,1	-0,48	485	0,1	-0,06	
IV	7022	-1,3		690	0,5		905	0,7		1594	0,6		
2014/1	1694	-0,7	0,61	201	6,9	-1,7	313	4,3	-3,4	515	-0,4	-2,83	
2	1817	-1,3	-0,45	302	-5,7	-0,28	221	-0,2	-1,73	523	-3,4	-1,75	
3	2185	-0,2	-0,59	260	2,4	0,55	285	-5,8	-1,38	545	-2,1	-0,87	
I	5695	-0,7		764	-3,4		820	-0,6		1583	-2,0		
4	2287	1,7	0,44	217	-3,6	-1,61	387	15,5	-0,71	603	7,8	-1,13	
5	2422	-0,7	-0,20	257	1,0	1,8	468	4,9	1,16	725	-2,9	1,47	
6	2495	5,9	0,36	315	-1,3	-0,88	598	8,3	1,59	913	4,8	0,79	
II	7204	2,3		788	-1,2		1454	5,3		2242	2,9		
7	2696	0,8	1,23	449	-7,7	-1,23	931	-3,8	0,48	1380	-5,1	0,06	
8	2460	-2,5	-0,91	483	-8,7	-2,01	1163	2,1	1,74	1646	-1,3	0,73	
9	2633	4,5	1,22	246	-5,8	-1,61	591	4,2	0,2	837	4,7	-0,12	
III	7789	0,9		1177	-7,7		2685	-1,4		3862	-3,4		

	Leto	Letalski			Cestni			Železniški			Luški		
		PKM mio.	letni porast	mesečna rast	tkm	letni porast	mesečna rast	tkm mio.	letni porast	mesečna rast	tisoč T	letni porast	mesečna rast
2008	1349	13,8	1,49		16262	18,4	1,50	3520	-2,3	-1,22	16554	4,5	0,45
2009	1194	-11,5	-1,16		14762	-9,2	-0,78	2668	-24,2	-0,85	13356	-19,3	-1,70
2010	1224	2,5	0,19		15931	7,7	-0,36	3421	28,2	-1,42	14591	9,2	0,66
2011	1219	0,2	-0,90		16440	3,2	0,54	3752	9,7	0,08	16201	14,0	1,20
2012	1055	-13,5	-0,48		15888	-3,4	-0,69	3740	-7,5	0,02	16907	4,4	0,11
2013	1061	0,56	0,30		15915	1,6	0,39	3799	9,5	-0,01	17185	1,6	0,39
2013/1	171	-3,6	-		4104	-2,7	-	881,1	-0,1		4192	3,1	-
4	77	-6,9	2,12		1362	-1,8	-0,17	300,1	0,4	0,99	1334	-4,0	-1,62
5	91	-0,4	1,09		1345	-1,8	-0,33	296,3	0,4	0,53	1483	-5,8	-0,67
6	114	4,0	1,33		1370	-1,8	-0,49	301,8	0,4	-0,67	1508	-2,2	3,06
II	282	-0,6			4078	-1,8	-	898,3	0,4		4325	-4,0	
7	144	1,7	-0,83		1348	3,9	0,65	336,1	13,4	1,40	1511	0,8	2,97
8	147	8,6	0,49		1092	3,9	0,67	272,4	13,4	0,95	1277	9,3	-1,58
9	106	-5,4	-2,46		1351	3,9	0,69	336,9	13,4	0,15	1466	-2,9	3,87
III	397	2,0	-		3791	3,9	-	945,4	13,4		4255	1,9	-
10	84	2,5	-1,72		1399	1,8	0,16	381,1	24,9	1,00	1623	29,9	0,27
11	65	-8,5	1,23		1379	1,8	-0,02	375,7	24,9	-0,38	1444	2,8	-0,15
12	63	18,0	4,07		1164	1,8	-0,23	317,1	24,9	-1,82	1346	-10,5	-1,67
IV	211	2,7			3942	1,8		1073,9	24,9		4412	6,1	
2014/1	60	7,8	2,16		1145	-9,7	-2,19	307,9	13,0	-3,02	1541	11,4	-0,16
2	56	7,7	0,81		1226	-9,7	-2,22	329,6	13,0	-0,80	1548	6,5	3,98
3	66	4,9	0,46		1333	-9,7	-2,09	358,3	13,0	-2,92	1512	11,5	0,65
I	182	6,7			3704	-9,7		995,9	13,0		4601	9,7	
4	85	10,8	1,13		1393	2,2	0,13	347,3	15,7	1,45	1097	-77,8	-5,79
5	96	5,5	0,46		1375	2,2	0,53	343,0	15,7	-0,80	1537	3,6	-1,45
6	120	5,5	0,70		1400	2,2	0,81	349,3	15,7	-1,09	1539	2,0	0,33
II	302	6,9			4168	2,2		1039,6	15,7		4172	-3,5	
7	140	-2,3	-2,08					347,8	3,5	1,28	1692	12,0	2,98
8	160	8,7	1,32					281,8	3,5	-0,71	1247	-2,3	-1,62
9	129	21,7	1,05					348,7	3,5	0,63	1432	-2,3	0,46
III	429	8,2						978,3	3,5		4371	2,7	
10	110	31,0	4,08								1790	10,3	4,92

	Zaposlene osebe						Samozaposlene osebe			Iskalcizi zaposlitve			Skupaj	
	v podjetjih in organizacijah	Letni porast pri samoz. osebah	Letni porast	podjetniki in poklici	Letni porast	število	Letni porast	aktivno prebivalstvo	Letni porast	Skupaj	Letni porast	Letni porast	Letni porast	
2007	696116	31	69933	51	53303	3.5	71336	-16.9	925334	1.6				
2008	717564	31	72300	3.4	55442	4.0	63216	-11.4	942473	1.9				
2009	699435	-2.5	67937	-6.0	58507	5.5	86353	371	944524	0.2				
2010	685733	-2.0	61461	-9.5	59824	2.2	100504	16.4	935543	-1.0				
2011	671812	-2.0	57238	-7.0	61258	2.0	110692	10.0	934658	0.0				
2012	662552	-1.4	54491	-4.8	60823	-0.7	110183	-0.5	920184	-1.5				
2013	647584	-2.2	51139	-6.1	61395	0.9	119827	8.8	913423	-0.7				
2013/1	645270	-3.0	50260	-7.7	60302	-1.9	124258	7.2	912969	-1.6				
2	645833	-3.0	50001	-7.7	60381	-1.7	124066	7.8	912929	-1.5				
3	646399	-3.2	50455	-7.9	60552	-1.3	122630	10.6	912702	-1.4				
4	647029	-3.1	51137	-7.5	60799	-0.6	121332	11.2	914337	-1.3				
5	648744	-2.8	51547	-7.0	60885	-0.1	118576	11.0	913978	-1.1				
6	649724	-2.5	51756	-6.5	60713	0.0	116603	10.4	913064	-0.9				
7	648013	-2.2	51779	-5.8	61259	1.4	11743	9.6	911502	-0.6				
8	647018	-2.1	51586	-5.7	61329	1.8	116600	9.9	909844	-0.5				
9	648646	-1.8	51864	-5.2	61701	2.2	114669	8.8	910192	-0.4				
10	649675	-1.4	52030	-4.6	62525	3.0	118721	7.1	916685	-0.1				
11	649860	-1.2	51689	-4.1	63026	3.7	119313	7.0	917545	0.1				
12	644805	-0.5	49565	-4.0	63269	5.0	124015	5.0	915338	0.5				
2014/1	643055	-0.3	48456	-3.6	63191	4.8	129843	4.5	911404	-0.2				
2	644829	-0.2	48161	-3.7	63376	5.0	129764	4.6	913040	0.0				
3	647810	0.2	49096	-2.7	63680	5.2	126730	3.3	914384	0.2				
4	651008	0.6	49814	-2.6	63916	5.1	123636	1.9	920237	0.6				
5	653568	0.7	50424	-2.2	64124	5.3	119670	0.9	919754	0.6				
6	654659	0.8	50958	-1.5	64190	5.7	117352	0.6	919441	0.7				
7	654106	0.9	51035	-1.4	64206	4.8	116199	-0.8	918034	0.7				
8	653569	1.0	51292	-0.6	64360	4.9	114784	-1.6	916508	0.7				
9	656447	1.2	51715	-0.3	64824	5.1	112560	-1.8	918083	0.9				
10	658616	1.4	52274	0.5	65389	4.6	115901	-2.4	922325	0.6				
11							115411	-3.3						

	Cene življenjskih potrebuščin										Goniva	
	Življenjske potrebuščine			Osnovna inflacija			Blago			Storitve		
Leto	indeks	letni porast	mesečna rast	indeks	letni porast	mesečna rast	indeks	letni porast	indeks	letni porast	indeks	letni porast
2007	106,39	3,6	0,43	105,07	3,5	0,37	105,29	3,2	108,45	4,8	112,10	3,4
2008	112,33	5,7	0,28	110,19	5,1	0,37	111,28	5,7	114,26	5,3	122,64	9,5
2009	113,12	0,72	0,06	112,40	1,90	0,05	110,85	-0,37	117,96	3,24	117,13	-4,02
2010	115,20	1,80	0,17	112,58	0,15	0,02	113,73	2,60	119,34	1,18	133,46	14,01
2011	117,29	1,81	0,19	113,47	0,79	0,12	117,29	3,12	119,37	0,03	145,09	8,84
2012	120,34	2,60	0,22	115,36	1,67	0,17	121,36	3,46	121,21	1,55	158,19	8,96
2013	122,45	1,77	0,09	117,14	1,55	0,08	123,48	1,76	123,93	2,24	161,06	1,86
2013/III	122,96	2,1	-	117,46	1,9	-	122,17	1,6	124,45	-	163,09	-
10	123,35	1,3	0,06	118,48	1,5	0,07	123,71	0,7	122,39	2,6	161,14	-0,3
11	123,20	1,3	0,01	118,51	1,2	0,25	123,82	1,1	121,70	1,7	160,27	1,8
12	122,13	0,7	-0,04	117,50	0,8	-0,02	122,89	0,7	120,31	0,6	161,44	2,7
IV	122,89	1,1	-	118,16	1,2	-	123,47	0,8	-	-	160,95	-
2014/1	121,36	0,8	-0,12	116,50	1,1	0,24	120,97	0,4	122,09	1,8	159,89	11
2	121,48	0,1	-0,11	116,73	1,0	0,20	121,11	-0,6	122,17	1,7	159,12	-3,4
3	122,44	0,6	-0,13	117,84	1,4	0,16	122,39	-0,1	122,42	2,0	159,34	-3,0
I	121,76	0,5	-	117,02	1,2	-	121,49	-0,1	122,23	-	159,45	-
4	123,05	0,4	-0,18	118,23	1,1	-0,12	123,02	-0,3	122,98	2,0	159,85	-1,7
5	123,78	0,7	-0,01	118,92	1,3	0,04	123,86	0,1	123,49	2,1	160,75	0,6
6	123,92	0,8	0,11	119,13	1,4	0,04	123,53	0,1	124,67	2,2	161,52	0,9
II	123,58	0,6	-	118,76	1,3	-	123,47	0,0	123,71	-	160,71	-
7	122,56	0,0	0,24	117,81	0,4	0,04	120,88	-0,6	126,16	1,3	161,94	-0,3
8	122,56	-0,3	0,20	118,17	0,6	0,06	120,63	-0,9	126,71	1,0	159,99	-2,0
9	122,88	-0,3	0,00	118,46	0,4	-0,08	122,06	-0,9	124,55	1,0	159,24	-2,6
III	122,67	-0,2	-	118,15	0,5	-	121,19	-0,8	125,81	1,1	160,39	-1,7
10	123,17	-0,1	-0,05	118,72	0,2	-0,05	122,78	-0,8	123,92	1,3	159,32	-1,1
11	122,89	-0,3	-0,05	118,79	0,2	-0,05	123,17	-0,5	122,16	0,4	158,65	-1,0

Harmonizirani indeksi cen v Sloveniji [podatki Eurostat-a]							
	Skupni indeks		Blago		Storitve		Energija
Leto	indeks	letna rast	indeks	letna rast	indeks	letna rast	indeks
2007	106,39	3,76	105,31	3,19	108,56	4,87	105,07
2008	112,28	5,53	111,28	5,66	114,26	5,25	110,32
2009	113,25	0,86	110,85	-0,40	117,96	3,23	112,40
2010	115,62	2,09	113,73	2,60	119,33	1,16	112,58
2011	118,03	2,09	117,29	3,13	119,37	0,00	113,47
2012	121,35	2,81	121,36	3,47	121,21	1,54	115,36
2013	123,68	1,92	123,47	1,74	123,93	2,24	117,14
2013/1	121,84	2,83	121,58	3,36	122,20	1,81	115,24
/2	122,69	2,95	122,79	3,58	122,35	1,72	115,62
/3	123,05	2,22	123,33	2,39	122,38	1,88	116,19
/4	123,76	1,59	124,13	1,38	122,91	2,02	116,97
/5	124,08	1,57	124,36	1,18	123,41	2,36	117,36
/6	124,13	2,25	124,15	2,13	123,95	2,45	117,48
/7	123,74	2,79	122,53	2,48	125,88	3,32	116,95
/8	124,02	2,23	122,63	1,70	126,53	3,21	117,45
/9	124,51	1,41	124,10	1,07	125,15	2,21	117,98
/10	124,45	1,14	124,20	0,36	124,77	2,58	118,48
/11	124,29	1,21	124,27	0,82	124,18	1,93	118,51
/12	123,62	0,89	123,63	0,55	123,47	1,34	117,50
2014/1	122,93	0,89	122,04	0,38	124,42	1,74	116,50
/2	122,89	0,16	121,89	-0,74	124,58	1,82	116,73
/3	123,81	0,62	123,12	-0,18	124,93	2,08	117,84
/4	124,37	0,49	123,70	-0,35	125,45	2,07	118,23
/5	125,28	0,97	124,67	0,25	126,23	2,29	118,92
/6	125,36	0,99	124,43	0,22	126,94	2,41	119,13
/7	124,11	0,30	122,01	-0,04	127,82	1,54	117,81
/8	124,03	0,00	121,62	-0,82	128,29	1,39	118,17
/9	124,39	-0,10	122,91	-0,96	126,95	1,43	118,46
/10	124,53	0,06	123,41	-0,64	126,43	1,33	118,72
/11	124,38	0,07	123,69	-0,47	125,51	1,07	118,79

Harmonizirani indeksi cen v evro območju										
	Skupni indeks			Blago			Storitve			Energija
Leto	indeks	letna rast	indeks	letna rast	indeks	letna rast	indeks	letna rast	indeks	letna rast
2007	104,4	2,1	104,2	1,9	104,5	2,5	103,6	2,0	110,5	2,6
2008	107,8	3,4	108,2	4,0	107,2	2,5	106,1	2,5	122,9	11,6
2009	108,1	1,0	107,3	-0,9	109,4	2,0	107,6	1,4	112,2	-8,7
2010	109,8	1,5	109,1	1,6	110,8	1,3	108,6	0,9	120,3	7,2
2011	112,8	2,7	112,8	3,4	112,8	1,8	110,5	1,7	134,4	11,9
2012	115,6	2,5	116,2	3,0	114,8	1,8	112,5	1,8	144,9	7,9
2013	117,2	1,4	117,8	1,4	116,5	1,5	114,0	1,3	145,9	0,7
2013//1	115,73	1,98	116,02	2,22	115,27	1,64	112,23	1,57	146,91	3,90
/2	116,16	1,85	116,43	2,05	115,70	1,54	112,52	1,51	148,61	3,92
/3	117,53	1,73	118,47	1,67	116,19	1,84	114,13	1,67	147,69	1,67
/4	117,43	1,18	118,57	1,25	115,72	1,10	114,11	1,23	146,98	0,09
/5	117,49	1,37	118,52	1,35	116,08	1,42	114,32	1,36	144,22	-0,04
/6	117,61	1,55	118,48	1,67	116,43	1,41	114,38	1,35	144,39	1,41
/7	116,99	1,55	116,65	1,73	117,55	1,36	113,65	1,34	145,64	1,43
/8	117,14	1,28	116,57	1,18	117,88	1,45	113,86	1,35	146,33	-0,06
/9	117,71	0,58	118,43	0,77	116,79	1,39	114,54	1,25	147,26	-1,11
/10	117,56	0,68	118,45	0,38	116,43	1,13	114,61	1,06	145,42	-1,90
/11	117,47	0,85	118,29	0,44	116,38	1,44	114,61	1,15	144,05	-1,11
/12	117,88	0,85	118,48	0,76	117,07	0,98	114,88	0,90	144,86	-0,02
2014/1	115,57	-0,00	116,51	0,07	116,60	1,15	113,32	0,97	144,84	-1,40
/2	116,92	0,70	116,70	0,23	117,19	1,28	113,77	1,11	144,92	-2,49
/3	118,02	0,42	118,45	-0,01	117,42	1,15	115,10	0,85	144,42	-2,21
/4	118,20	0,66	118,65	0,05	117,58	1,60	115,33	1,06	144,30	-1,82
/5	118,07	0,49	118,57	0,04	117,38	1,12	115,22	0,80	144,20	1,14
/6	118,20	0,50	118,38	-0,01	117,93	1,28	115,36	0,85	144,53	0,09
/7	117,43	0,37	116,20	-0,04	119,02	1,25	114,58	0,82	144,19	-0,01
/8	117,57	0,34	116,18	-0,34	119,37	1,20	114,89	0,90	143,39	-2,00
/9	118,08	0,28	118,04	-0,33	118,10	0,99	115,40	0,75	143,64	-2,46
/10	118,01	0,38	118,10	-0,29	117,86	1,22	115,41	0,70	142,33	-2,12
/11	117,80	0,28	117,86	-0,37	117,68	1,11	115,33	0,63	140,37	-2,56

	Leto	indeks	letni porast	Skupaj		Oprema			Repromaterial			Industrijske cene			Življenjske potrebščine
				indeks	meseca rast	indeks	letni porast	meseca rast	indeks	letni porast	meseca rast	indeks	letni porast	meseca rast	
2007	108,00	5,5	0,53	101	0,9	0,01	-	111,55	7,6	0,65	104,78	3,2	-	0,39	
2008	114,03	5,6	0,38	104,72	3,6	0,50	-	117,98	5,8	0,32	110,67	5,6	-	0,39	
2009	113,58	-0,4	-0,16	102,96	-1,6	-0,43	-	116,68	-1,1	-0,17	110,25	-0,4	-	-0,15	
2010	115,90	2,0	0,17	102,58	-0,4	-0,03	-	120,07	2,9	0,25	111,36	1,0	0,08		
2011	120,28	3,78	0,24	103,19	0,59	0,05	-	126,30	5,20	0,29	114,12	2,5	0,19		
2012	121,50	1,01	0,10	104,14	0,93	0,04	-	127,30	0,79	0,08	115,71	1,40	0,16		
2013	121,86	0,30	-0,04	103,96	-0,17	0,01	-	127,33	0,03	-0,09	116,80	0,94	0,01		
2013/III	121,91	0,1	-	104,08	-0,2	-	-	127,27	-0,3	-	117,01	1,0	-		
10	121,82	-0,2	0,04	103,88	-0,1	-0,04	-	127,05	-0,6	-0,01	117,07	0,3	0,08		
11	121,65	-0,3	0,18	103,71	-0,3	0,08	-	126,87	-0,6	0,15	117,00	0,1	0,11		
12	121,37	-0,3	-0,05	103,63	-0,2	0,05	-	126,49	-0,6	0,07	116,79	0,1	0,04		
IV	121,61	-0,3	-	103,74	-0,2	-	-	126,80	-0,6	-	116,95	0,2	-		
2014/1	121,36	-0,3	-0,04	103,65	-0,5	0,08	-	126,47	-0,9	-0,05	116,81	0,7	-0,01		
2	120,42	-1,1	-0,29	103,34	-0,3	-0,22	-	124,63	-2,1	-0,27	116,63	0,1	-0,01		
3	120,37	-1,5	-0,36	103,21	-0,7	-0,33	-	124,51	-2,8	-0,35	116,63	0,2	-0,02		
I	120,72	-1,0	-	103,40	-0,5	-	-	125,20	-1,9	-	116,69	0,3	-		
4	120,26	-1,5	-0,37	103,18	-0,9	-0,21	-	124,52	-2,6	-0,37	116,38	-0,3	-0,20		
5	120,23	-1,5	-0,35	103,32	-0,8	-0,31	-	124,51	-2,3	-0,34	116,26	-0,7	-0,27		
6	120,49	-1,2	-0,33	103,30	-0,7	-0,16	-	124,70	-2,2	-0,31	116,72	-0,1	-0,11		
II	120,33	-1,4	-	103,27	-0,8	-	-	124,57	-2,3	-	116,45	-0,4	-		
7	120,55	-1,0	-0,04	103,90	-0,3	0,11	-	124,86	-1,8	-0,21	116,40	-0,3	-0,17		
8	120,51	-1,2	0,06	103,87	-0,2	0,17	-	124,99	-1,8	-0,13	116,11	-0,9	-0,12		
9	120,66	-1,1	0,13	104,00	0,0	0,21	-	125,37	-1,5	-0,04	115,90	-1,0	-0,12		
III	120,57	-1,1	-	103,92	-0,2	-	-	125,07	-1,7	-	116,13	-0,8	-		
10	120,63	-1,0	0,18	103,93	0,0	0,15	-	125,28	-1,4	0,01	115,96	-0,9	-0,10		
11	120,54	-0,9	0,25	103,98	0,3	0,20	-	125,06	-1,4	0,10	116,04	0,8	-0,05		

	Povprečne plaće						BTO plaća za plaćano uro					
	Skupaj bruto			Skupaj neto			Število plaćanih ur			BTO plaća za plaćano uro		
	Letnji porast	€	Letnji porast	€	Letnji porast	mesecna rast	število	Letnji porast	mesecna rast	€	Letnji porast	mesecna rast
Leto												
2007	1284,20	5,9	0,53	834,17	7,9	0,64	170	0	-0,02	7,55	5,7	0,54
2008	1391,14	8,3	0,67	899,65	7,8	0,63	170	0,0	0,0	8,19	8,5	0,56
2009	1439,26	3,5	0,11	930,16	3,4	0,12	168	-1,2	-1,2	8,58	4,9	0,59
2010	1494,89	3,9	0,31	966,69	3,9	0,33	168	0,3	0,0	8,87	3,5	0,16
2011	1524,56	2,0	0,09	987,34	2,2	0,10	167	-0,7	-0,7	9,08	2,3	0,02
2012	1526,26	0,1	-0,09	991,47	0,4	-0,05	168	0,6	0,6	9,08	0,1	0,04
2013	1523,14	-0,2	0,06	996,98	0,6	0,11	168	0,0	0,0	9,08	0,0	-0,04
2013/11	1511,97	-0,4	-	991,00	0,3	-	167	-0,4	-	9,04	-0,1	-
7	1510,02	0,8	0,23	990,88	1,4	0,25	175	2,9	-	8,61	-2,5	-0,27
8	1506,88	-0,4	-0,03	989,52	0,4	0,03	170	-3,4	-	8,86	2,9	-0,36
9	1495,28	-0,2	-0,05	983,30	1,1	0,02	164	3,8	-	9,14	-2,9	-0,20
III	1504,06	0,1	-	987,90	1,0	-	170	1,1	-	8,87	-0,8	-
10	1526,11	0,7	0,32	999,99	1,3	0,31	175	0,0	-	8,70	0,6	-0,23
11	1617,19	0,3	-0,30	1044,89	1,0	-0,27	164	-3,0	-	9,87	3,7	-0,23
12	1544,85	0,7	0,04	1007,65	0,7	0,00	169	3,0	-	9,13	-2,8	-0,20
IV	1562,72	0,6	-	1017,51	1,0	-	169	0,0	-	9,23	0,5	-
2014/1	1534,54	0,7	0,25	1005,75	0,8	0,17	175	0,0	-	8,78	0,7	-0,17
2	1520,88	1,6	0,20	994,34	1,2	0,08	157	0,0	-	9,67	1,6	1,90
3	1526,36	0,4	-0,03	996,97	0,3	-0,11	163	0,0	-	9,36	0,5	0,02
I	1527,26	0,9	-	999,02	0,8	-	165	0,0	-	9,27	0,9	-
4	1531,56	1,0	0,24	1001,03	0,8	0,13	169	0,0	-	9,06	0,9	-0,05
5	1531,66	0,5	0,05	1000,69	0,4	-0,01	170	-2,9	-	9,03	3,8	-0,19
6	1521,38	1,7	0,12	995,64	1,3	0,07	164	3,8	-	9,30	-1,6	-0,25
II	1528,20	1,1	-	999,12	0,8	-	168	0,3	-	9,13	1,0	-
7	1535,66	1,7	0,39	1002,75	1,2	0,30	175	0,0	-	8,75	1,6	-0,30
8	1516,93	0,7	-0,10	992,94	0,3	-0,10	164	-3,5	-	9,25	4,4	-0,27
9	1519,32	1,6	0,08	994,31	1,1	0,13	169	3,0	-	8,97	-1,9	-0,17
III	1523,97	1,3	-	996,67	0,9	-	169	-0,2	-	8,99	1,4	-
10	1543,66	1,1	0,20	1007,24	0,7	0,19	175	0,0	-	8,81	1,3	-0,12

Prihodki javnega sektorja											
	Skupaj			Neposredni davki in ostali prihodki			DDV in trošarine			Carine	
Leto	mio. €	letni porast	mesečna rast	letni porast	mio. €	mesečna rast	letni porast	mio. €	mesečna rast	letni porast	meseca na rast
2007	13421,12	8,3	0,99	8992,07	6,3	0,88	4312,16	11,1	1,09	116,89	128,9
2008	14682,00	9,4	0,54	9958,52	10,7	0,73	4604,16	6,8	-1,39	120,09	2,77
2009	13734,30	-6,1	-0,45	9194,90	-6,9	-0,64	4448,90	-2,8	0,01	90,50	-24,0
2010	13652,60	-0,4	0,2	8986,77	-2,2	0,0	4575,15	4,3	0,5	90,68	5,5
2011	14318,09	4,8	-0,85	9490,15	5,3	-0,01	4721,80	5,2	-0,3	10614	17,9
2012	13924,47	0,6	-0,10	9200,75	4,9	0,26	464118	-10	-0,12	82,55	-190
2013	13497,42	-3,1	0,17	8708,92	-5,4	-0,19	471104	1,5	1,18	77,47	-6,2
2013/II	33337,91	-5,0	-	2173,28	-8,9	-	1141,78	1,7	-	22,86	5,6
7	1125,83	0,4	1,88	619,94	-2,5	-0,42	499,29	4,2	5,49	6,60	11,7
8	1119,11	-4,4	0,25	728,72	-5,4	0,04	384,12	-2,5	0,76	6,27	12,0
9	1141,11	9,5	1,93	739,70	2,2	0,55	396,12	27,0	5,37	5,29	-16,6
III	3386,05	1,9	-	2088,35	-1,9	-	1279,53	9,6	-	18,17	2,4
10	1219,07	-5,1	6,43	727,63	-7,6	8,83	485,63	-0,9	3,91	5,82	-23,1
11	1142,22	-6,2	-0,57	754,64	4,2	1,13	381,46	-9,6	-3,22	6,11	-18,8
12	1281,81	8,5	-1,92	817,77	4,0	-4,23	458,96	416	4,55	5,08	-6,2
IV	3643,10	-0,9	-	2300,04	-5,3	-	1326,05	10,3	-	17,01	-16,0
2014/1	1197,40	4,6	0,82	746,52	2,8	0,87	445,89	8,0	0,56	4,99	-5,1
2	1055,29	3,9	1,08	744,89	4,3	1,08	303,16	2,6	1,14	7,24	15,3
3	1031,96	6,4	-1,88	692,90	-2,0	-0,69	332,18	30,1	-4,28	6,87	-12,9
I	3284,65	5,0	-	2184,31	1,7	-	1081,24	13,6	-	19,11	-0,9
4	1246,54	11,3	0,87	824,90	32,8	2,40	415,01	-15,4	-1,97	6,64	-20,2
5	1290,90	19,0	2,90	879,34	20,7	3,88	405,84	16,4	0,66	5,72	-24,4
6	1196,77	5,6	0,30	803,03	-2,5	-0,33	387,07	27,9	1,69	6,67	-4,3
II	3734,21	12,0	-	2507,26	17,0	-	1207,92	9,6	-	19,03	-16,3
7	1103,60	-2,0	-0,10	636,18	2,6	-0,09	461,25	-7,6	-0,63	6,17	-6,6
8	1118,07	-0,1	-1,36	754,57	3,5	-0,65	357,55	-6,9	-3,16	5,95	-5,2
9	1227,52	7,6	2,02	771,86	4,3	-0,06	449,34	13,4	6,20	6,32	19,3
III	3449,19	1,8	-	2162,62	3,5	-	1268,14	-0,4	-	18,43	2,5
10	1226,72	0,6	1,27	762,51	4,8	2,93	457,35	-5,8	-1,22	6,86	17,9
11	1179,69	3,3	-1,51	777,40	3,0	-0,74	395,63	3,7	-3,25	6,66	-0,19

	Prispevki za socialno varnost										Zaposlovanje			
	Skupno					Zdravstveno zavarovanje					Pokojninsko zavarovanje			
	mio. €	letni porast	mesečna rast	mio. €	letni porast	letni porast	mesečna rast	mio. €	letni porast	letni porast	mesečna rast	mio. €	letni porast	meseca rast
2007	4972,19	8,4	0,79	1968,62	8,0	0,76	2979,11	8,6	0,81	24,45	9,0	0,95		
2008	5496,23	10,5	0,78	2169,86	10,2	0,82	3300,93	10,8	0,77	27,11	10,9	1,18		
2009	5597,70	2,01	-0,26	2221,80	2,58	-0,24	3347,60	1,58	-0,27	28,30	4,8	1,42		
2010	5690,63	1,7	0,3	2263,68	1,9	0,3	3399,24	1,5	0,3	27,70	-2,0	-1,6		
2011	5781,44	1,1	-0,1	2302,45	1,3	0,0	3451,02	0,9	-0,2	27,97	1,8	0,6		
2012	5720,63	8,4	-0,13	2268,25	5,7	-0,25	3425,95	-0,1		26,34	-0,1	-		
2013	5604,85	-2,1	0,36	2237,89	-1,3	4,54	3340,17	-2,5	6,17	26,79	1,7	-		
2013/11	1406,59	-3,2	-	560,55	-3,0	-	839,42	-3,4	-	6,63	-14,9	-		
7	461,85	-2,1	0,35	182,97	-0,8	0,34	276,60	-3,6	0,57	2,28	383,4	-		
8	458,55	-5,2	0,41	185,12	-6,5	0,57	271,13	-7,6	0,33	2,30	-129,9	-		
9	457,97	4,3	0,27	183,73	17,6	0,62	272,05	-3,4	0,21	2,19	125,9	-		
III	1378,36	-1,0	-	551,82	3,4	-	819,78	-4,9	-	6,77	126,5	-		
10	459,31	-8,3	8,84	183,88	-15,6	6,67	273,29	-2,7	10,70	2,14	-4,1	-		
11	467,02	23,0	1,62	186,42	25,2	1,97	273,21	31,3	1,61	2,40	-87,3	-		
12	508,08	-1,6	-5,42	200,85	0,1	-5,10	304,77	-1,9	-5,55	2,46	-52,9	-		
IV	1434,41	4,4	-	571,14	3,3	-	856,27	8,9	-	7,00	-48,1	-		
2014/1	470,42	1,0	-0,87	188,36	1,4	-0,50	279,74	0,8	-1,30	2,32	6,5	-		
2	481,80	5,0	0,29	192,76	4,1	0,25	286,57	5,4	0,22	2,47	29,7	-		
3	436,27	-5,4	-2,35	157,69	-14,1	-4,09	276,11	0,3	-1,28	2,46	6,1	-		
1	1388,48	0,2	-	538,81	-2,8	-	842,43	2,2	-	7,25	14,1	-		
4	505,86	6,6	1,27	222,57	18,2	3,68	280,84	-1,2	-0,41	2,45	12,2	-		
5	472,62	1,4	-0,04	191,53	2,9	0,45	278,55	0,3	-0,42	2,54	14,6	-		
6	473,18	1,5	0,09	191,30	2,7	0,55	279,41	0,7	-0,30	2,47	11,0	-		
II	1451,66	3,2	-	605,40	8,0	-	838,80	-0,1	-	7,46	12,6	-		
7	476,03	3,1	0,60	192,41	5,2	1,10	281,16	1,6	0,14	2,45	7,6	-		
8	471,39	2,8	0,15	190,65	3,0	0,04	278,27	2,6	-0,17	2,46	6,8	-		
9	469,36	2,5	0,81	189,47	3,1	1,93	277,44	2,0	-0,03	2,45	12,1	-		
III	1416,78	2,8	-	572,54	3,8	-	836,87	2,1	-	7,37	8,8	-		
10	479,66	4,4	4,23	193,64	5,3	2,08	283,51	3,7	5,89	2,51	17,4	-		
11	476,95	2,1	2,91	192,43	3,2	3,09	282,07	1,4	3,62	2,45	2,1	-		

	Krediti podjetjem			Krediti prebivalstvu			Depoziti podjetij			Depoziti prebivalstva		
Leto	mio. €	letni porast	mio. €	letni porast	mio. €	letni porast	mio. €	letni porast	mio. €	letni porast	mio. €	letni porast
2006	11784	22.8	4871	25.8	3299	6.9	10940	6.0				
2007	15292	29.8	6117	25.6	3647	10.5	12003	9.7				
2008	19438	28.0	7443	22.4	3735	2.4	13237	10.3				
2009	20790	0.93	8413	7.49	3868	1.79	14362	4.55				
2010	20827	0.07	9282	10.33	4038	4.40	14897	3.73				
2011	20091	-3.53	9454	1.85	4016	-0.54	15151	1.71				
2012	18682	-7.02	9267	-1.98	3823	-4.83	15114	-0.24				
2013	14191	-23.88	8918	-3.77	4247	11.06	14613	-3.32				
2013/1	18584	-7.96	9191	-2.44	3795	-3.80	15225	-0.10				
2	18439	-8.46	9160	-2.46	3763	-3.51	15289	-0.27				
3	18341	-8.57	9159	-2.69	4202	6.41	15148	-0.88				
4	18193	-9.22	9141	-2.55	4144	5.39	14864	-2.92				
5	18091	-9.46	9107	-2.91	4214	6.66	14781	-3.30				
6	18021	-9.16	9099	-2.80	4230	7.33	14802	-3.08				
7	17837	-9.51	9050	-3.12	4269	7.97	14841	-2.89				
8	17828	-9.36	9059	-3.07	4257	5.84	14800	-2.25				
9	17724	-9.34	9051	-3.07	4262	7.68	14748	-1.95				
10	17322	-10.94	9031	-3.32	4341	7.82	14651	-1.96				
11	17146	-10.65	8996	-3.46	4259	5.63	14643	-2.15				
12	14135	-24.18	8917	-3.78	4247	11.06	14613	-3.32				
2014/1	13951	-24.93	8879	-3.39	4201	10.70	14761	-3.05				
2	13840	-24.94	8849	-3.40	4159	10.52	14926	-2.37				
3	13773	-24.91	8853	-3.34	4407	4.88	14886	-1.73				
4	13735	-24.50	8849	-3.19	4356	5.12	14863	-0.01				
5	13628	-24.67	8835	-2.99	4428	5.08	14927	0.99				
6	13371	-25.80	8810	-3.18	4680	10.64	15025	1.51				
7	13201	-25.99	8808	-2.67	4674	9.49	15140	2.01				
8	13098	-26.53	8814	-2.70	4723	10.95	15259	3.10				
9	12978	-26.78	8813	-2.63	4718	10.70	15207	3.11				
10	12065	-30.35	8807	-2.48	4747	9.35	15205	3.78				
11	11923	-30.47	8791	-1.42	4696	10.26	15241	4.08				







