

ESSAY

ECONOMIC PARADOXISM AND MESON ECONOMICS

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Please cite this article as:

Săvoiu, G. and Dinu, V., 2015. Economic paradoxism and meson economics. *Amfiteatru Economic*, 17(39), pp. 776-798

Abstract

The structure of the paper brings together three major sections, following the general approach to the impact of paradoxes in economic theory. The first section describes a necessary investigation in the synthesized universe of paradoxes, to capitalize on Quine's paradox taxonomy, and to reveal the importance of really paraconsistent paradoxes, defining, in a relative and innovative manner, *economic paradoxism* in the sense of excess of creative capitalization of paradoxes in the area of science, as initiated by mathematician and logician Florentin Smarandache. The second section turns into an original exposition of economics theory and the third section reveals the concept of *meson economics* and the principles of that economy, completed with some final remarks, some of which are conclusive, and some others interrogative, aligned to the paradox of knowledge, in keeping with which human beings are looking for answers, and finally find more and more questions.

Keywords: economic paradoxism, meson economics, economic theory and paraconsistent paradoxism

JEL Classification: B23, B40, B51, B53, C50, D01, E30, N10, P10

Introduction

Theory, as a fundamental scientific concept, springs from Plato's ideas and dialogues, being defined primarily by being instantaneous and unstable, lity, as *a mere glance at the world*, as *speculation or contemplation*, although there are some generalizing and lasting references to the term *theorizing*, regarded as *contemplative life*, with multiple origins, which seem to belong to certain older civilizations and traditions, reborn with Pythagoras. In the early Greek culture and science, theory was structured, through a dual approach, as *techne* or *science* (essentialized by Demiurgos into trades), and *episteme* or *knowledge*; it

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original meaning was amplified by Aristotle, as the main activity of the *first moving (principle)*, and finally dilated maximally, into the broadest sense of ancient spirituality, to wholly enter the concept of soul with Plotinus, where even *work* or *praxis* defines the *degraded form of contemplation*. In the meaning circumscribed to the immaculate spirit of Greek antiquity, more fecund through its aspirations than today's spirit, theory brought happiness to one's fellow humans, and man could approach the divinity by its agency; creative acts and creation were its main results, and creative character delimited it from anything else; it was *theorizing* that naturally degenerated into *creative activity* with Plotinus. Theory capitalized on *logos* or analytical (rational) explanation, it included and explained *Nomos*, usually perceived as a custom or convention (law), it integrated paradigms or models, it validated assumptions and, once become virtue of knowledge by definition, with Socrates, it would continue its civilizing assault, up to purification into concreteness, with the same Plotinus (Săvoiu, 2011). The opposition between theory and practice has the same ancient roots; Aristotle was among the first the orists who operated a clear distinction between *theoretical* and *practical wisdom*, thus generating a long process of discrimination of sciences (or *epistemes*), as *techne* (applied science), with its shades, *poietike* (productive science) or *practike* (practical science), and *theoretike* (theoretical knowledge), thus giving birth to a first taxonomy, extended and opposed to all shades and gradations presented before Aristotelian thought.

Various theories also coexist in the universe of contemporary knowledge, some of which have already become classical sciences of top usefulness, whereas many more failed to become generally explanatory sciences, with a high level of prediction, although the contribution of their specific thinking is important in the contemporary universe of scientology. Economics, one of the sciences that have shaped an ongoing, systematic and well-argued dialogue, seems to have been in an involutive situation, owing to the inability of the theory of classical economics to take a step towards a *unifying* science such as physics is considered (Penrose, 1989). If physics has brought together, by dint of its complex theory, a growing number of proving observations and experiments and has exceeded logic or mathematics, in terms of unifying ability and capacity of, hence resulting specific value of predictive knowledge in the world of scientific research, economics has evolved prudently yet upwardly, and has endeavoured to enter the class of useful theories, appealing to paradoxes and paradoxism as the theory of using paradoxes (Smarandache and Dezert, 2007) in the field of scientific creation in mathematics, logic, physics, economics, philosophy, etc., which accelerates the processes of analysis and interpretation.

Approached in its inner micro-universe, every science, and especially the last century's economics, has evolved dually, through successive restructurings and alliances. Thus economics has excessively segmented its object of study, its analysis patterns and its specific theory, into a series of compartments that are separated relatively or even tightly closed, by a breakdown focused either on the principle of activity branch (economics in agriculture, the industry, transport, banking, taxation, tourism, etc.), or the principle of aggregation degree (microeconomics and macroeconomics and local, regional, national, international economics), or even on the principle of objective subordination in relation to other sciences (thus ecology generating eco-economics, the science of entrepreneurship creating entrepreneurial economics, etc.); and each microscientific area thus divided has become increasingly difficult to reassemble and recorelate into a single taxonomic system. The complications that occurred immediately had to do, and still have to do, with language, but also with the major laws and methods applied, and a further proof of excessive

amalgamation through segmentation is the difficulty that has occurred in the attempt to reassemble sub-economic sciences, and the growing difficulty in the possibility of a dialogue, today, between a banking expert and a specialist in the field of agricultural economics, between a supporter of the more recently emerging fields of eco-marketing (Levinson and Horowitz, 2010) and e-management of the economy (Iorga Simăn and Săvoiu, 2012), etc.

All through its evolution, economic theoretical thinking has multiplied through alliances, exploiting two forms of creative and efficient operation (Guilford, 1972; 1975): the first of a *convergent* type, which has reduced the diversity of the study object by means of uniformity and unity (generating coherent pictures, naming generalizations, classes, relations through a specific language, compressing semantic structures in parallel with exposing the correlative formal notions, and ending with bringing about a better prediction capability, drawing better established conclusions, having a homogenized information source, etc.), and a second, *divergent* type, characterized by successive multiplication of the approaching strategies and the solutions to the real confrontations as a result of which much more diversified final situation can be reached (practically expanding exploration capability, the relevance of possible functional uses of known methods or models, and emphasizing the systemic and relational approach, etc.). The alliances of economics, built through the agency of converging operability, have started with those caused by the object of study (from agrarian economics to financial economics), continued with those connected with the common use of certain methods (from economic statistics to socioeconomic), multiplying by divergent approaches, and thereby enhancing its degree of prediction and creativity through common modelling (from financial econometrics to neuroeconomics, econophysics, sociophysics, or even quantum economy).

In the present paper, the entire approach, both the theoretical one, and that emerged from the economic praxis, captures two stages that naturally follow an introduction to the general topic. The first part innovatively outlines paradoxism, as originally enunciated by mathematician Florentin Smarandache, applied as an effective investigation solution to the synthesized world of paradoxes in economics. The second part is an original presentation of *Mesoneconomics* (Săvoiu, 2001), an innovative concept, with special focus on its principles, and the conclusions, some of which have an interrogative nature, define the tortuous process of adaptation of humanity as a species to the terrestrial environment through an approach of a holistic nature. Some of the final remarks are aligned with the paradox of knowledge, in accordance with which the human being *is looking for answers and eventually comes across new questions...*

1. Paradoxes and paradoxism in economics

The *paradox* in economics has a fairly long history and a relatively heterogeneous conceptual content, covering a broader semantic area, from a simple antinomy, to a more nuanced contradiction; it has Greek philosophical origins related to the maturation of rational thinking, in the famous complex arguments and Zeno of Eleas's or Eubulides of Miletus' counterexamples (Huggett, 2010), about motion, continuum, the opposition unity vs. plurality, or truth vs. falseness, gradually emphasizing the impossibility of the existence of the third solution, in the Middle Ages, and amplifying its importance in the context of a speedy evolution of logic, in the early twentieth century. According to its general

conceptualization, a paradox *is a statement that seems to contradict itself, but also could be true* (Cantini, 2014). The most famous paradoxes are still the logic ones, remarkable through the difficulty and the invalidity of the arguments, still considered valuable in promoting critical thinking in general; but equally exciting are the paradoxes of physics or mathematics. Since the eighteenth century, modern economics has generated more and more varied exceptions or anomalies from its laws, that are combined as an economic theory of an initially classical type, which gradually germinates economic paradoxes and their specificity. Since its beginnings, the economic paradox has been defined as a situation of invalidating the theory, where the variables fail to observe the principles and assumptions generally established by the economic laws, and behave in an opposite manner, i.e they give rise to effects, associations, correlations of opposite sense, being connected micro- and macroeconomically, with a dominant intensity on welfare and economic development. The contemporary significance of the economic paradox has not changed significantly, so it continues to describe a situation in which the facts are apparently in conflict with established theories or models, or mostly accepted in economics; however, modern classification shifts emphasis from the micro- and macro-economic structural criterion on the typology of theoretical paradoxes and empirical anomalies (Panchamukhi, 2000), as well as the regional paradoxes, or paradoxes with national characteristics (Săvoiu, 2013), etc.

Today's universe of economic paradoxes brings together many forms, from the purely economic paradox (the paradox of economic value described by the value relationship between diamonds and water, in which, although undeniably more useful, water is much cheaper), to the derived multidisciplinary paradox (the paradox of a mixed type, demographic and economic, where nations or populations possessing a much higher GDP have a much smaller family compared to those with a much smaller GDP), from the paradox defined by purely geographical areas (the European paradox, perceived as a failure in transposing scientific advances into really marketable innovations), to the paradox of a purely mythological origin (Icarus' paradox, whereby some businesses and companies cause their own collapse in the long-term by generalizing their short-term success), from the paradox which strictly refers to economic laws of partial coverage (the paradox of savings, which points to the fact that, when the process of saving grows during recessions, first aggregate demand will be reduced, and finally even total savings), to the paradox that describes over-employment in recession (the paradox over-employment, which appears when everyone is trying to work in times of recession, and lower wages reduce prices, leading to deflation, which finally results in there being fewer jobs, in a typical spiral), from paradox centred on productivity (the paradox of reduced productivity, although technological improvements have taken place), to the paradox centred on services (the paradox of recovery through services, when repairing a defective product leads to greater satisfaction on the part of the consumer, than when the product was not defective), or on abundant resources (the resource curse paradox, according to which countries with abundant natural resources, and especially resources of the type of non-renewable resources – minerals, fuels – usually have a lower economic growth than those that do not have such resources), and reveals a growing conceptual evolution with a profound impact on economic theories.

Paradoxism, announced as a sense of non-sense by the Romanian writer, mathematician and logician Florentin Smarandache as early as 1983, represents a semantic derivative of the paradox: *"We started from mathematics. In fact, I had been wondering: why are there*

paradoxes in mathematics? The most exact science, the “Queen of Sciences” – as Gauss called it, admits of things that are false and true at the same time? Everything is possible”(Smarandache, 1983). Paradoxism reveals and permanently extends a theory aiming at establishing a school of investigative intentions by excessively using paradoxes in creation, and is accepted as an international avant-garde movement even in science, based on the excessive use of paradoxes, antinomies, contradictions, abnormalities, parables; methodical expansion in the field of scientific research is revealed by bringing together original and contradictory, antinomic features, apparently unmixable, which still manage to generate together methods and theories through contradictory experiments, but more especially through creation in a contrary-sense, counter-temporal, counter-spatial, counter-structural, etc. manner. Via the experiments based on paradoxes, and implicitly on paradoxes applied to increasingly diverse sciences, from physics to philosophy, from information fusion to cybernetics, from robotics to aviation and aeronautical technologies, from medicine to logic, from set theory to probability theory and statistics, from geometry to multispatial and multi-structural theory, from crossdisciplinarity to multidisciplinary, from interdisciplinarity to transdisciplinarity, have been transferred, and have gone as far as even creating “new terms in science, innovative procedures and methods, algorithms of creation of certain originality” (Smarandache, 2012; 2013).

Naturally present in economics, *paradoxism* starts as a conceptual or applied abnormality, progressing to an antinomy, which overcomes a self-contradictory result, through a correct or appropriate exploitation of an accepted or acceptable manner of economic reasoning, only to mature and gradually become verisimilar, through developing a set of truths of economic theory, permanently positioned in the opposite sense or direction, the statement of the economic theory sometimes becoming a kind of *dialetheia*, i.e. alogizing of a principle that is true and false at the same time and in the same sense, which prevents the extension and the applicability of an economic law, virtually limited or unable to become a truly universal law, such as there is a “generalized” law in physics, if we simply set out from the example of the law of relativity.

The classification of paradoxes made by Willard Van Orman Quine is the most appropriate to economic paradoxes, which it stratifies into four major classes of paradoxes (Quine, 1976): a) *plausible or truthful* paradoxes (paradoxes that seem false or absurd, but prove true, at the end of the reasoning); b) paradoxes *lacking truthfulness or plausibility* (paradoxes that not only seem to be false, but, because of an error in reasoning or related to the demonstration, are actually false); c) mere *irrelevant antinomies* (paradoxes resulting from a self-contradictory content, caused by the lack of rigour of the accepted way of reasoning in that economic theory; they seem false and remain false in the end); d) *paraconsistent* paradoxes (paradoxes fully matured in terms of economic logic, genuine economic *dialetheia*, which seem true and also prove to be true in the end, ultimately challenging the applicability or even the substance of certain economic regularities).

The intention of the ensuing enumerative and summarizing approach lies in identifying some of the really *paraconsistent* paradoxes, which can favour the emergence of the concept of *meson* economics, whose content and principles are described, in a relative more detailed manner, in a section directly derived from it.

The *behavioral relativization of economic subjects* has generated the *paradox of thrift*, often referred to as the paradox of *debt*, which, since 1936, has owed its ever-increasing visibility to John Maynard Keynes, although it was anticipated as early as the ancient times

(Nash and Gramm, 1969). This major macroeconomic paradox stresses the fact that, in times of crisis and economic recession, everyone is trying to increase their savings (actually saving more money and generating a higher nominal amount), which will lead to a reduction in aggregate demand, and finally to lower actual total savings of the population, due to both the decrease in consumption and the reduction of economic growth. The paradox of thrift is a *behaviour paradox of good intentions*, when total savings can decrease even when individuals have the honourable intention to raise them (to be able to pay their debt in the future), their growth becoming detrimental both individually, when it can lead to lower wages, and for an entire economy, when its aim is a lower employment of labour, which also reveals a *part-to-whole paradox* (while individual savings can be good, collective thrift can become bad for an aggregate subject such as the economy as a whole). A shade of detail known by the name of the *paradox of debt redemption* or *Minsky's paradox*, shows that precautions, which are apparently perfect for individuals and businesses, essential for an economy to return to a normal state, actually increase the danger within the same macroeconomic framework (Eggertsson and Krugman, 2011).

Paradoxism debunks, in economics as well, the myth of the laws or theories which enjoy widespread applicability, reducing the group of its classical theories, up to identifying and making best use of a number of more efficient models (own or borrowed) of this science, which is still in an ascending evolutionary process in terms of incorporated areas of reality and multiplicatively, in point of theorizing cases, by expanding the processes of methodologization and modelling. The Giffen paradox (Marshall, 1895; Jensen and Miller, 2007) and the Veblen paradox interrupt, for distinct areas (subsistence goods and luxury income, and for restricted survival behaviour and manifested predatory instinct, respectively), the classical indirect correlation between demand and price, originally drawing limits or impact bands, and later challenging the universality of the laws of supply and demand.

Paradoxism contradicts the idea of natural well-being as a result of human welfare and identifies the completely opposite trends setting out from the micro-economic level, to get to the macroeconomic level via aggregation; these trends lead to adverse effects, albeit in intensity, and thus capture a relative truth, in accordance with which, in a broader expression, not everything that is true in microeconomics will be necessarily true in macroeconomics, as often there appear completely reversed associations. An illustration are the apparently negative trends at the micro-economic level, which are manifested by macroeconomic aggregation in strongly positive developments, is given by the Mandeville paradox, where the microeconomic speculative action ultimately benefit the whole economy and society (Schneider, 1987). The productivity paradox is also the more attenuated expression of an evolution, positive–negative this time, from the microeconomic level to the macroeconomic level; its analysis and visibility are due to Erik Brynjolfsson, who commented on the apparent contradiction by the evolution, which is not associated in intensity, between the remarkable progress of computational techniques and computers at the level of companies and the relatively slow growth of productivity in the economy of the world. This finding is basically derived from the Solow paradox, which is expressed by the weak association between the massive inputs of the information technology and the lesser value outputs in point of intensity and dynamism (Solow, 1987; Brynjolfsson and Hitt, 1998). Within the same general type of abnormality is to be found *the curse of plenty* or *the paradox of resources*, which emphasizes that, while one can identify regional advantages related to the existence of a high volume and a wide variety of natural resources (non-

renewable, such as minerals and especially fossil fuels), the latter will not materialize in a higher economic growth compared to countries with fewer natural resources, but rather in a smaller growth, one of the hidden causes being an implicit decrease in the competitiveness of other sectors or activities that are not related to the abundance of natural resources (Lynn, 1997).

Paradoxism also reveals dilemmas of time translation in the economy, some truths that are valid in the short term losing their long-term validity, and vice versa. The Triffin dilemma or paradox relates to the part played by the US dollar as a reserve currency in the Bretton Woods system, and reflects its incoherence and mismatching, as well as the conflict of economic interests arising between the international long-term objectives of an internal market and the short-term objectives, when a national currency (the dollar, globally, or the euro in the European region, five decades later) serves as a world reserve (Triffin, 1960; Moghadam, 2010). Similarly, the Icarus paradox, or Miller paradox, named after its author, refers to bankruptcy or failure caused by excessive and long-term extrapolation of the elements that have led to the short-term success with regard to businesses or entrepreneurs (Miller, 2010). But the most interesting economic paradox remains the Easterlin paradox, which emphasizes that, although a short-term high income is a factor that significantly contributes to happiness and is strongly associated with it, it no longer correlates with increasing happiness, in the long run (Easterlin, 1974), which shows that where well-being or welfare is high, the strategy and meaning of the economy should focus on life satisfaction or gross national happiness, as a quantified indicator, rather than on GDP per capita (Easterlin et al., 2010).

Paradoxism identifies and groups decision-making inconsistencies and elective abnormalities manifested in the selection of thee economic alternatives. Many of these describe a contradictory reality (Săvoiu, 2012a; 2012b; 2013), being mostly defined as dilemmas or paradoxes by the very name of the author that founded them; within this category, one can detail some of the paradoxes already considered famous, such as: a) Allais (the result, true in several different alternatives, affects people's choices, which is inconsistent with the economic theory of expected utility); b) Arrow (the paradox of the information, which becomes before the decision to sell it); c) Bertrand (the decision to ensure the Nash equilibrium does not generate a profit); d) Braess (the decision to supplement capacity reduces performance, or fails to provide further capacity); e) Downs-Thomson (the decision to increase road capacity at the expense of public transport has opposite effects in relation to those expected); f) Edgeworth (the decision related to capacity constraints does not generate a steady state in the end); g) Ellsberg (the decision to expose adversity in relation to ambiguity runs counter adversity in relation to risk); h) Jevons (the decision to increase efficiency brings about surprisingly higher demand); i) Leontief (the decision on the export of labour-intensive goods can be compensated by importing other goods, which are capital-intensive); j) Metzler (the decision to impose a tariff on imports can relatively reduce the price of that good in the domestic market); k) Saint Petersburg (the lottery decision on the compensation of a variable of expected and apparently infinite value will get only a modest payment currently, based on the probability that no actual individual person would be willing to consider or to predict a course of action accurately); l) Tullock (public choice becomes a punitive system, which leads to legal punishment, by ballot, of those politicians seeking bribes for economic facilities, which brings increasing political bribery in the economic field), etc.

At the end of this section, we can notice an increase in the manifestation of paradoxes in the economic area, still a development evolving specifically, mainly in line with structural transition (from entity to system, from micro- to macro-, from individual to population, etc.), or with temporal translation (from short-term phenomenology to long-term phenomenology), or with selection and decision (from inaccuracies to contradictions), and less with self-reference (exemplified by generalizing the new way of thinking, as *new economics*, which could be defined paradoxically as an original theory, which states that all economic theories so far have a serious component of falseness or inability to estimate) and vicious circularity or infinite regress (like the ineluctable inflationary spirals), leading ultimately, by dilemma shattering and theoretical debunking of applicative generalization, and through procedural repeatability, to a perpetual relativization of economic behaviour, and even the nature of science that could benefit from a high degree of utility and forecasting capacity of economics itself.

2. The overall evolution of economic theory

The overall evolution of economic theory is always marked, like his paradoxes, by extreme approaches, when economic science exults simultaneously with its emergence profit- and efficiency-oriented, when it becomes questionable in relation to resources and restrictions, or the clarity of its forecasts. Thus, the optimism according to which the economic theory outlined a useful economic science dilated the impact and early importance of economic growth in the evolution of human society, resulting in slightly forced shaping the first schools of thought in Athens or Rome, where the ethical, moral element of emergence of economics was in fact dominated by other sciences. This first exaggeration of the importance of economic growth persists in the Middle Ages, too, when the economy is attached to the idea of economic growth in a temporal manner and in waves, according to the statements of a remarkable Arab thinker, scholar and historian, Ibn Khaldun, in 1377, appearing in *Muqaddimah* or *Prolegomena*: “*When a civilization [population] increases, the available labour force is also subject to new increases. In turn, the need for luxury items increases in correspondence with the growing earnings, as well as the habits and needs relative to luxury items. The trades are designed to get luxury items. The value realized by the latter results in further increases, the earnings are again multiplied in cities, even more than before... And so there occurs an increase in the second and third levels.*” (Khaldun, 1967). The accumulation of gold, silver and other precious metals, along with the study of money / currency as special goods, made possible the emergence of the school in Salamanca, whose main founders (Martín de Azpilicueta and Tomás de Mercado) create a first extended theory, namely the quantitative theory of money, in the sixteenth century, exaggerating the role of all that. About one and a half centuries later, and a new school, called the *physiocrats* (Rothbard, 2006), exaggerated the role of the analytical and taxonomic approach and structurally suggested a paradigm of political macroeconomics, completed by an aggregation in François Quesnay’s now famous economic picture, a first coherent scheme of the functioning of the economic system, where wealth circulated between the productive class (farmers), the idle or sterile class (artisans and merchants) and the class of the landowners and proprietors (nobility, clergy and state officials). The impact of politics on economics proclaimed a natural order governed by the right to property, the right to economic freedom and the right to security for those who enjoy those freedoms. For nearly half a century, economic theory came under the influence of a reactive pessimism,

under the double domination of the *positive school*, which stressed the bold outlines of economic reality that was under the concrete impact of political factors, and the *normative school*, developed as an explicit proposal of economic policies aimed at changing the same existing reality, and frequently exaggerating economic interventionism at all costs. Classical economic theory became mature with the foundation of the phenomenon of growth, and would be formulated in a practical manner by the thinkers of the Scottish Enlightenment School (David Hume and Adam Smith). The appearance of Adam Smith's *The Wealth of Nations* completed the process of maturation of the new science into a classical economic theory, in 1776; industrial production was declared essential, and the state should refrain from intervening in the market. The same Adam Smith was considered the father of modern economics, through the major points of emphasis being placed on economic policy, and implicitly the economic strength focused on incentives and less on constraints and restrictions; however, he exaggerated the importance of geoeconomics, which would virtually replace even geopolitics in the twentieth century (Nye, 2010). Malthus and Ricardo, two of Adam Smith's important disciples, later on discovered the limits of growth in the economy, the former taking support on demographic positions, and the latter in the field of the revenues correlated to the subsistence of the population. David Ricardo, in his 1817 *Principles of Political Economy and Taxation*, discovered and then overestimated the need for the full freedom of movement and the exchange of any kind of property as a factor of economic growth. With Malthus and his beliefs, which became *Malthusian* projections for nearly two centuries, economics has become a science of gloomy or ominous contours.

Later, Karl Marx, a disciple of Ricardo, living through the first major crisis of industrial capitalism in the 1830s, expanded the importance of profit, overevaluated as the sole motor of capitalist economy, the cause of periodic crises, which in the long run turned into recession, turning the theory of market economy into a *lugubrious science*, by widening the significance and omnipresence of the imbalances generating disasters. The predictions of Marxism drew an equally artificial projection of the approach of economics, from a creation of profit considered dystopian into a utopian or profitless one, with intrusions focused on relative scientific truths, redrawing the projection of the real economic system, considered unable to survive through a forced change of market economy to a communist economy, in an exaggerated manner featuring emphasis on destructive economic policies, initiated practically in underdeveloped nations rather than in developed countries, which generated transition back to capitalism via socialism. Socialism and socialist economy were developed as a theory and practice of *political economics* and *economic policy*, defining a science misguided through the excess property or absenteeist property coming from everywhere and belonging to everybody, to be abandoned, after 1990, by the socialist technostructure, who acted according to their own logic, that of a desire to achieve re-privatization (Săvoiu and Sulescu, 2011). The theoretical current of Marginalism, called Neoclassicism, was born in Vienna around 1870, driven by the *Austrian school of economics* around Carl Menger, author of *Principles of Economics*, went on through the *school in Lausanne*, whose mentor was Leon Walras, and became famous in the *British school* through William Stanley Jevons, author of *The Theory of Political Economy*. All these schools and theories reinforce the importance of marginal cost, marginal utility and balance of markets, as resulting from the analysis of the producers' and consumers' behavior, in an attempt to maximize benefits and usefulness, which finally gives a general balance. Marginalism represents the moment when economics was recognized as a

scientific discipline, thanks to the support of the first modern textbook of economics, developed based on pedagogical criteria; the manual was authored by Alfred Marshall, in 1890, and was entitled *Principles of Economics*; it is also the first stage of a forced mathematization of economics, called the period of *mathematical deductivism* in economics (Păun, 2011). Veblen shaped a new theory exaggeration, called *the theory of institutional economics*, by overstressing the outlines and the importance of traditions and customs and their essential role in shaping the economic behaviour of consumers and entrepreneurs.

After 1936, by the publication of the book *General Theory of Labour, Interest and Money*, J. M. Keynes profoundly influenced the economy, both during the Second World War and in the early postwar decades, the *Keynesian theory* thus generated being a new attempt to explain crises by the dynamics of the decision-making imbalance between savings and investment, amplified by the decisions to save belonging to the individuals and the decisions of investment of the entrepreneurs, combined with favourable or positive expectations, resulting in economic growth, or with unfavorable expectations, generating crisis or recession. State involvement in the economy appears as a postulate, and the government can prevent a serious decline in demand by increasing its own spending. Once again political economy functioned by distorting the reality, declared previously objectively scientific, and the governments of industrial countries found justification for government intervention by increasing spending and the role of the public sector, and so the Keynesian theory became the new paradigm of all universities in market economies. A growing number of modern economists tried to combine Marx's and Keynes's economic ideas or to identify significant differences between the Marxist option and the Keynesian perspective on capitalism and market economy, placing themselves between the *pros and cons to the Keynesian theory*. Realizing the normative shade, *the monetarist school* or *Chicago school*, with its mentor Milton Friedman, criticized the new distortion of economic reality, as demonstrated by the crisis in the 1970s, when the Keynesian economic policies no longer worked as remedies, while the economy faced inflation and unemployment simultaneously, which changed the assumptions linked to the new monetarist theory. Exaggerations have led, and still lead, to an increased crossdisciplinary or methodological intervention, or even of the interdisciplinary or transdisciplinary intervention into the body of economics, through the stage of *mathematical descriptivism*, where this time the abuse of the econometric type (at once mathematical and statistical), originally generates econometric modelling considered a necessary and consistent phenomenon, which then leads to the fanaticism of modelling, providing solutions that are distorted in relation to reality, "namely modeling indices and aggregates that have very little relation to the individual and his action, and factorially describe a community of individuals who never act aggregately" (Păun, 2011). The solutions continued to multiply permanently in an economy that is increasingly under the impact of political aspects, and the *new Keynesian theory*, the *post-Keynesian theory*, the *neoclassical theory*, etc. are just other names for the same political economy, exacerbating further explanatory factors discovered within the outline of the residual variable of econometric modelling. Economics enters the stage of the most fragile cognitive relation with mathematics during a phase of pluri-connexions, or of permanent multi-correlation, and amplifies, alongside the dimensions of modelling, the illusion that, through criteria of minimization and maximization, through minimum regrets, through nuancing and optimization of the systems of equations, formulas of generalized equilibrium in the economy will arise. The econometric model is positioned above the economic reality, and it even manages to dislodge economics from its classical theoretical

foundations – namely those of a science of high potential utility (Săvoiu, 2012a; 2012b). In the 21st century, the financial and monetary crises that affected the nations of the world, by regions or continents, culminating in the global crisis of bank credits in 2008, thus became inescapable consequences of the contagion and instability inherent in the functioning of capital markets or financial markets. The prolonged crisis, turned into global recession, has blurred the scientific nature of modern economics and has exposed it to the precariousness of the models, the new realities being able to demonstrate that neither the monetarist school, nor any other school of economics, which is or is not under the impact of politics, can practically, completely and correctly identify the factorial complexity of the real economic phenomena, nor can they estimate future developments that are credible in point of the level of statistically acceptable error. *“It is not by accident that responsibility and private property are associated with economics, more than with anything else...Economics has also remained concerned with the birth of a certain order or state of relative balance between the relationships, or in more simple words, between human interactions. The worse thing today seems the fact that, in some economic activities, we do not know what needs to meet or from what sources we get things.”* (Hayek, 2002).

The essential idea that emerges from this brief contextualization of the development of economics is that of a perpetual projective indeterminism, in the critical situations of the tissue of real economy transactions, where it is almost impossible to completely isolate a variable, and especially when the intention is to model in order to identify, specify and parameterize general or objective laws. Economic theory, very much like other useful scientific theories, has frequently come across empirical limitations caused by contradictory hypotheses, initially considered as validated, and the example of the efficient market hypothesis (EMH), always in contrast with the hypothesis of behavioural finance, is revealing in this respect.

However, there are some coexisting limits that are specific only to classical or modern economics, and implicitly to its models, its methods and even its theories, which were derived from relatively imprecise knowledge, from the observation, processing, analysis and incomplete validation, and the high-error prediction or simulation of the realities defined through characteristic phenomena and processes. These limitations are described below, and they define the practitioner or supporter of this science, often with a little irony, namely the young economist or specialist who can find causal or factorial explanations that can be validated in any of the *phenomena anticipated*, especially *post factum*, and rarely *ante factum* (Săvoiu, 2011; Săvoiu and Răducu, 2013):

- economics can establish no completely objective law, meaning an unwritten law (agraphosnomos), similar through its clarity to the divine law (kosmos), and therefore no final, definitive law (like the natural laws of physics), because arbitrariness dominates the market, and a new unidentifiable factor, placed within the broad content of the residual variable, can always influence a particular event or economic phenomenon;
- in economics it is almost impossible to isolate one variable (*caeteris paribus*) to define specific or general laws by validating the hypothesis concerning the isolated variable;
- economic theory is considered either gloomy or sad (Thomas Carlyle) with respect to Malthusian beliefs, a theory that introduced and promoted universal deficit, or depressing or gloomy by the ubiquitous imbalances, crises and recessions, or else one of the most relative and uncertain contemporary scientific approaches, by its lack of reliability, analyzed by confrontation with physics or biology;

- economics does not allow experiments common to other sciences, the economic model contains too many testable variables, and that number is increasing continuously, associated with the growing complexity of the phenomena, thus limiting both the quality of the predictions and the truthful explanatory character of the reality, modelled even econometrically using the residual variable, the famous epsilon (ϵ), which encloses in its little universe an infinite number of factors, which are temporarily and relatively compensated;
- in an attempt to abandon the quagmire of the explanatory variables of its so very controversial phenomena, economics stumbles upon another obstacle, that of oversimplification;
- the too often invoked self-interest, the classic motor of Adam Smith's economics, the support of individualism as sanctification of the individual, fails to bring about the optimization of general economic reasoning, instead it paradoxically threatens the very survival of the economics;
- economic theory cannot practically justify, nor does it abandon the oversimplification of the premise of the rationality of *Homo Oeconomicus*;
- h) the concepts, language and investigative methodologies that are built or borrowed by economics induce an implicit kind of rationality, based on either starting from rational expectations, or, contrary-wise, from rational choice;
- the economic investigating model of desired final estimation or forecasting of reality has unpredictable final errors that permanently generate discussions about its scientific quality and robustness;
- classical and contemporary economics hardly admit cooperation with other sciences such as the *useful* ones (e.g. biology) or those called *superb* (e.g. physics), although they exist in practice and do have their own novel, fresh models and theories, originally applied in interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary interstices (bioeconomy or econophysics, etc.);
- biological periodicity cannot be accepted consistently in economics, being anticipated too late and incorrectly, as the prophecy of the oscillatory component provides pseudoprognoses in this science, instead of truths having practical utility (economics is permanently placed on a path of praxis which can never reach *aletheia* in the medium or long term);
- the time and space of economics, though conducive to the concepts of inflation and unemployment, do not generate rigorous modelling, nor do they involve a specific systemic approach, and especially a holistic approach;
- structural investigation and concentration and diversification analyses fail to cover, adequately in terms of structural changes, the phenomena or tissue of transactions in the economy, etc.

Even the new way to think of this science, known as *new economics* and characterized by a theoretical reaction to the enormous waste of resources used for military purposes or otherwise, threatening life on Earth, through the consumerist mimicry of the new market economies, does not identify solutions to facilitate and simplify the necessary process of transforming economics into a useful science, instead it is a mere trend that emerged from a set of older ideas, supported by the economists trained at Cambridge, namely J. Robinson, P. Sraffa, L. Pasinetti, along with many other economists who have joined their ideas. Waste and excessive consumption are declared the major harmful final aims, generating imbalances; those aims can even lead to the extinction of the human race unless their

characteristic approach is not abandoned as soon as possible. To make this revival of economic thought possible, what it takes is faith in survival, discernment and rigour in using resources and, especially, the disappearance, through evolution and maturation, of the hallucinating veblenian entrepreneur characterized by a predatory consumption attitude (Săvoiu and Sulescu, 2011).

3. The content and principles of meson economics

The concept of meson economics that the authors of the present paper propose is focused, as emerging from the title as well as the constructive principles, on a paradox, one attributed to Titus Petronius, in keeping with which *moderation is necessary in all things, including moderation...* Economists, who can become *holders of the possibility of civilization*, as John Maynard Keynes would have desired and imagined, can place themselves along the complex itinerary of a permanent search of the Hellenic *meson*, while constantly being exposed to paradoxism or paraconsistent paradoxes, and their impact in shaping a kind of *mesoneconomics*. The benchmarks of meson economy can be described in a synthetic manner through a set of principles meant to find solutions aiming to ensure balance between opposite terms. *Meson* economy recovers, for the benefit of economics in general, an apparently forgotten, though fundamental Pythagorean sense, that of *right measure*, as defined by the dictionary under *meson (mesotes)*, a central concept in ancient Greek culture, expressed in old Greek.

The first landmark of meson economics is based on the principle of permanent placement between antinomies, in their simplified meaning, often specific to antonyms in common language, which defines paradoxes, where being economic becomes tantamount to thinking and acting in a mesonic manner and means being permanently placed between interest and disinterest, rational and irrational, advantages and disadvantages, usefulness and uselessness, value and non-value, certainty and uncertainty, stability and instability, etc. Economic thinking of the mesonic type works in the spirit of economic living, and thus its real products become valuation and devaluation, balance and imbalance, supply and demand, import and export, inflation and deflation, surplus and deficit, profit and nonprofit, etc., while meson action resumes cyclically, revalues and redevalues, rebalances and reunbalances, capitalizes and de capitalizes, etc. The object of economic reflection of the mesonic type the relationship, initially spiritual and theoretical, and eventually scientific and applied, between limit states, limit concepts, limit realities. Actually, it is not so much postulating the existence of those essentially different elements that are specific to paradoxism, as the *right measure* holding between them that turns into “*esse*” and “*cogitare*”, a typical manner of “being” and “pondering” in economic terms, in a specifically meson manner. A typical example of this new way of economic reasoning is revealed and confirmed by actual developments in the world of profit over the last and a half centuries, where looking for the golden mean or middle course, under the maximal-type limiting pressures of entrepreneurial interest, and the minimal-type pressures of survival and business growth, cause an oscillating trend, yet visibly decreasing, of the average value of the global rate of return as percentage, from 40-45% to 18-22% (Figure no. 1).

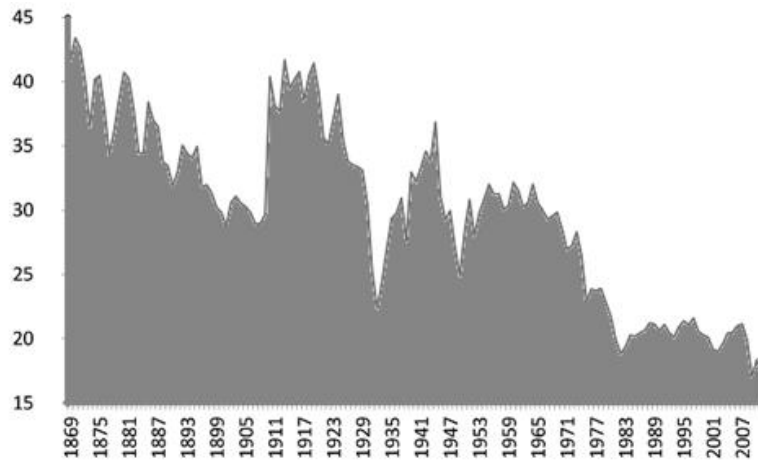


Figure no. 1: The average global rate of profit in the last century and a half (%)

Note: USA, Germany, the Netherlands, Japan, England and Sweden are considered together as generators of the general trend of the profit rate in the world.

Source: Maito, 2014, p. 12

At the same time, according to a global assessment made on the basis of available data and the solutions able to ensure their temporal and spatial comparability for the period 1900-2006, GDP growth per capita sees a real upward trend, comparable to a multiplier that reaches a rather high value, i.e. circa 6/1 (Figure no. 2)

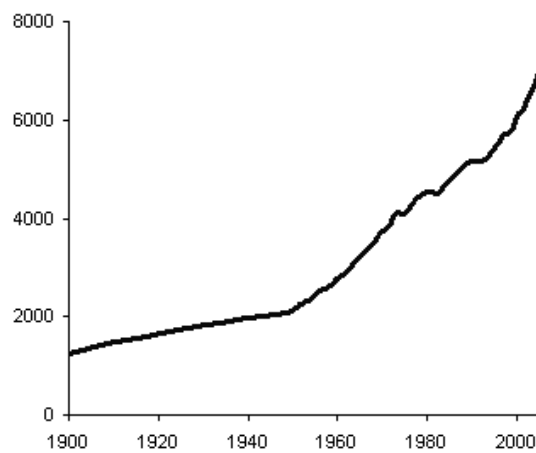


Figure no. 2: Real GDP, worldwide and per capita, in the period 1900-2006 (in dollars)

Data source: Maddison, 2008

Synchronicity describes another important milestone, which turns into the principle of the multiple synchronous and compensated interferences, generating cyclicalities tending to moderate the factors of negative impact that are characteristic of meson economy. Various distinct economic actions, facts, events, phenomena or processes occur at the same time,

reciprocally and relatively compensating one another through opposite actions. Similar or opposite, directly or indirectly associated or correlated, incidental or necessary, all events are transformed, through economic *epagog*, or Aristotelian induction, into meanings, connections, regularities and, finally, economic laws, events that are resumed, in a cyclical or pulsating manner, at compensated intensities and rather moderate evolutions of the factors of negative impact from a time interval to another, specific to the complexity of the pulse or the duration of the cycle in practically all the processes that generate biological adaptation loops, and hence sociological learning loops. As part of meson economics, classical theories become synchronous with the world of contemporary economic ideas through Platonic dialectics, being jointly present in the approach of knowledge from thesis to antithesis, ineluctably ending as synthesis, from ascending to descending, only to end through moderation and compensation.

Overcoming sensitive reality and entering the state of *synchronism*, by some factors and, at the same time, by some of the factors with significant yet opposite actions, arise from synthesis and coexistence of developments and principles (very much like the theoretical, and also practical, coexistence of the principle of Adam Smith’s invisible hand, and the principle, contextually generated by the action of the splendid Veblenian concepts of absentee ownership and the predatory goals of the savage entrepreneur).

The principle of the multiple synchronous interferences, relatively compensated, which generate cyclicalities tending to moderate the action of negative factors, is the principle that places the investigation of meson economics into a full and objective temporal contraction of errors, into a constant resizing of the cycle and macroeconomic dynamics, as also shown by the moderation focusing on the qualitative reducing of contraction, compensated in parallel to dilation of expansion, specific to the cycle of US economy, which is treated here as a case study (Table no. 1).

Table no. 1: Mean values of the duration of contraction phases (crisis and recession) and expansion phases (boom and economic growth) over the last century and a half in the US economy (in months), and their shares (in%)

	Average duration in months		Average duration of economic cycle	Average percentage share	
	Contraction	Expansion		Contraction	Expansion
1854-1919 (16 cycles)	21.6	26.6	48.2	44.8	55.2
1919-1945 (6 cycles)	18.2	35.0	53.2	34.2	65.8
1945-2009 (11 cycles)	11.1	58.4	69.5	16.0	84.0
1854-2009 (33 cycles)	17.5	38.7	56.2	31.1	68.9

Data source: National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER), 2010

The secular analysis undertaken by meson economics, based on the specific example of the US economy during one and a half centuries, and taking support on comparable data, identifies a scissors of the naturally and contradictorily structured trends, via the relative increase in *economic expansion* from 55.2% to 84.0%, due to a much faster and more severe decrease in the rate of *economic contraction*, from 44.8% to 16.0%, with an end that was relatively expected, namely a continuous increase in the *general economic cycle*, from 48.2 months in the first half of the century, first to 53.2 months, in the latter half of the

century, to reach, at the end of the analysis, 69.5 months in the third half (the analysis periods were structured in a manner that was largely and not randomly coincidental with the duration of the Kondratiev cycles in the general timeline of the history of the economy), as can be seen in Figure no. 3:

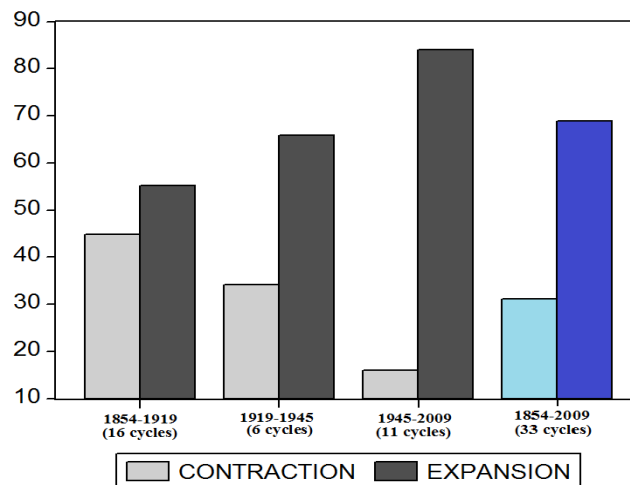


Figure no. 3: Structural trends offset in the cyclicity of US economy in the last one and a half centuries (%)

Sources: National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER), 2010; Săvoiu, 2009; Săvoiu and Manea, 2014

Another landmark of its specific knowledge is given by the inability of mesonic economics to be final and immutable, to make up a system of dogmatic or eternal laws, with the young economist this time placed in a continuous process of questioning: he/she asks the others and is asking himself/herself, he/she presents, depicts, formulates and reformulates, rather than incinerating, using the logic of phenomenological visibility by means of the investigation cycle in economic research, and applying the evidence or the sociologically proved truth that, *when you ask a question, you enlighten the things* (Noica, 1996), which implies the very ability of paradoxism to *enlighten* realities by a perennial contrast.

The principle of the successive alternation of the interrogative and investigative cycles focusing on paradoxism is a feature of the analyses and researches in the mesonic type of economics. Thus, at the end of the second millennium, as can be seen in Figure no. 4, a revenue multiplier of about 6/1 brought about an increase in average life expectancy of about 18 years, so economic welfare meant prolonging human life by the *duration of someone's coming of age*, under the circumstances of maximum contrast or maximum amplitude of standard income classes (Gwartney and Lawson, 1997).

Simultaneously, the incomes, polarized to their limits, have for a long time been generating a phenomenon of severe inequality, generating macroeconomic costs for the flattening of that phenomenon, which is to say a necessary attempt at *smoothing* inequality as a factor of disturbance of decisions and trends in any economy (Ostrý et al., 2014). A scientific investigation drawn from the interrogation related to the negative impact of the phenomenon of inequality, which has already become *strikingly obvious* (Wade, 2014),

highlights an measures, in econometric terms, through tendential modeling, the fact that the countries having a larger gap of inequality tend to experience a lower and more volatile economic growth, in stark contrast with the nations with lower levels of inequality, which tend to experience higher and less volatile growth, in conditions where the other residual factors are maintained at acceptable levels. Once again, the evolution of economic phenomena can be noted that appears as essentially paradoxical, or in the mesonic spirit of a new, useful, necessary types of economics.

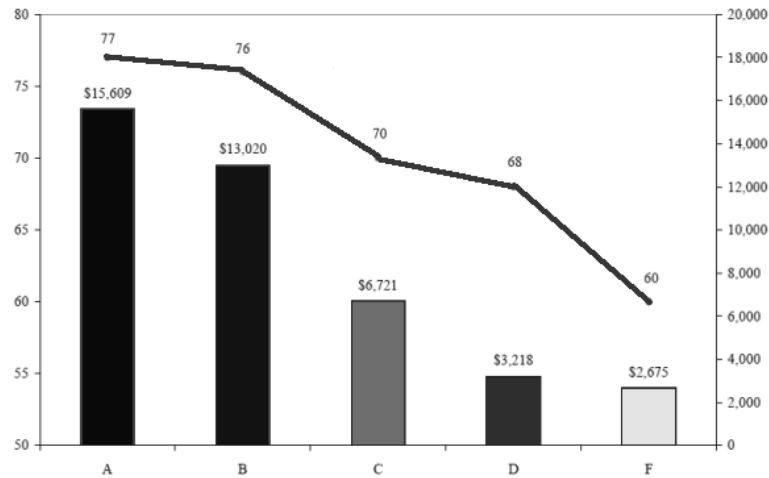


Figure no. 4: The graphic correlation between the five income classes of the standard income and life expectancy related to them

Note: Life expectancy, in years, appears on the left side scale, shown in waveforms, and GDP per capita in \$ appears on the right side scale, transposed in the chart by columns
Source: Gwartney and Lawson, 1997; Population Reference Bureau, 1999

The theory resulting from the analysis of the cohesion or inequality impacting on excessive polarization has gone out of the sphere of classical and modern economics, and tends to more clearly belong to meson economics, which demands, be it only in an interrogative manner, a compromise between growth and redistribution (Piketty, 2014); although the vast majority of contemporary economists (Wade, 2014) consider it rather a problem concerning the political sciences, and even economically inappropriate. In this respect, a true theory of the *unified field of inequalities* is stated and then assimilated to Albert Einstein’s unsuccessful attempt, namely the *unified field theory*, through which the genius physicist tried to reunite the theory of *general relativity* (comparable, in terms of economics, to the capital and labour income distribution) and the theory of *quantum mechanics* or *quantum physics* (which can be assimilated with the distribution of wealth and incomes among individuals).

Through specific mechanisms and instruments, economics makes assumptions and predictions, and can demonstrate them through arguments, but the agency of ‘praxis’ can validate or invalidate them. *Praxis*, or effective action, provides another landmark, which in turn gives a better guarantee to the viability of the concept of *meson economics*, and implicitly actual validity to its assumptions, and even greater credibility to its predictions. This principle can be expressed theoretically through a both *holistic and systemic* approach,

which is specific to *meson economics*, placing it, slowly but surely, among the other sciences or systems of truths and statements about integrative reality, along with the so-called hard sciences, together with which inter-, trans- and multidisciplinary models can be designed (ranging from biology to physics, from sociology to sociophysics, from financial econometrics to the sciences of complexity, etc.).

The investigation models of meson economics have a number of synthetic fundamental characteristic features, which can also reflect their right measure (Săvoiu, 2001):

- *memorizing the original in the model*, or the obligation to permanently keep alive the nature of the primary phenomenon in the thinking of the model;
- the *interrogative and investigative tridimensionality* of the model, in a universe described by means of time, space and structures that are constantly changing;
- *verity by means of methodological and instrumental judgment*;
- the *strongly descriptive demarcation of the boundaries of modelling, at once static and dynamic* prior to its construction;
- *turning to account a common matrix*, accepting the integration of the thinking characteristic of any other experimental and logical science with the implementation of the models;
- *association and circular concatenation of the explanatory factors*, in order to help the specific model to get into the darkroom of economic phenomena (Maurice Kendall);
- the *primordial character of information and information energy* (Octav Onicescu);
- *form-observant conjugation, in-depth prediction and simulation*, aimed at avoiding exaggerations, like a real *ars conjectandi*, which, in Bernoullian terms, signifies developing and turning to account possible scenarios and combinations;
- *nuance-oriented refinement focusing on optimal solutions, scenarized probabilistically and progressively* under uncertainty and risk;
- *the penchant for cross-disciplinarity, or the creative application of new methods* belonging to the corpora of other sciences in understanding, deepening and forecasting economic phenomena, etc.

An econometric model of classical or modern economics, be it early multidisciplinary involving demography, can only split the economic reality in the absence of a systemic and holistic architecture. Thus, partitioned – or rather dismantled – modeling, with fan-like groups of models of the effects of financial incentives on fertility, by age and education, as well as in keeping with the family, along with the rank and sex of newborn children in the context of pre-existing configuration of the children (boy-boy, boy-girl, girl-girl), generates significant ambiguities and differentiated conclusions that are difficult to translate into decisions, i.e. increased fertility resulting from financial incentives becomes stronger for the third child, and almost double compared with the first two children (Laroque and Salanié, 2014). It can be easily seen from this example that, out of the desire to achieve maximum adequacy of the model to the economic reality of a complex type, the econometric modelling multiplies its products, in seemingly endless mirrors, going as far as creating even variables that ruin a systemic or holistic model, in an effort of analytical and taxonomic knowledge that drives economics away from identifying emerging solutions with an obviously systemic, as well as holistic character. The cause also becomes multiple,

bringing together the current inability of the econometric model to become *systemic and holistic* simultaneously, and the aversion of classical and modern economics to cooperate with other sciences that have proven their usefulness as modeling science, and also the low capacity and the insufficiently developed partnership spirit, unable to collaborate in an inter-, trans-, and multidisciplinary manner, in the case of the young economist of today.

For an economics of the *meson* type, making recourse to *the inter-, trans- and multidisciplinary model* (whose profile nears the *systemic and holistic* one) is still a *requirement of suitability to the complex reality* through the agency of a tool for better understanding, given the requirement of inner structuring of the system and its constant appetite for holistic variation and its systemic resonance. The systemic approach is unifying (it brings together the interactions into increasingly complex variables), modelling (mainly with decision-making purposes, and also with simulating or estimating purposes), much closer to exhaustively evaluating the effects, and with a much more advanced overall perception (changing groups of variables simultaneously, integrating time and certain compensatory processes, ensuring validation through disaggregation and analysis in direct proportion to reality), it amplifies complex multidisciplinary in the knowledge specific to meson economics, and easily reveals emergent properties, which are impossible to detect in any of its components (the per subsystem analysis of the system leads to the loss of emerging properties, which belong to the sum total of the parts in the Aristotelian sense, or the organization of the economic system itself). Opening, interactivity and nonlinearity are considered the basic characteristics of complex systems, and the new economic reality is replete with such features with respect with most of its phenomena and processes. The systemic model is the best adjusted to the evolution of theories in classical economics as well as modern economics. The practical application of new theories in economics embodies the circularity between theories and the economic reality (jointly generating a theory-economic reality system that has never been analyzed in all its depth), which has however failed to simplify prediction, nor has it increased its accuracy, in absence of holism and inter-, trans- and multidisciplinary (Săvoiu, 2011). The holistic model can be discussed here by illustrating it in its version referring to ensuring the health of economic reality. Holism, as a comprehensive, exhaustive approach, is primarily characterized by excessive focus on the overall situation, in any apparently minor and partial imbalance, redefining a unifying vision of all interacting components. It is on the health model of the holistic approach that meson economics substantially draws: holistic medical practice claims that all the aspects concerning people's needs, be they psychological, physical or social, should be considered and *addressed as a whole*. A sick economy (i.e. in crisis or recession) is considered as the permanent result of an imbalance, both physical (quantitative, such as resources, flows, balances, etc.) and emotional (attitudes, expectations, individual behaviour – aggregated or not), both spiritual (traditional cultural matrix) and environmental (ranging from integrity to self-destruction by pollution), therefore inter-, trans- and multidisciplinary modelling becomes obviously necessary, supplementing the systemic approach, and especially the holistic approach.

A good illustration of an improved degree of phenomenological and factorial coverage specific to a meson economy today is revealed by the way to address crisis, and even recession, as a state of prolonged crisis in the medium term. Crisis is a concept that has a lot of meanings: a) *in economic theory* it is characterized by stagnation and disruption of economic life; b) *in communication theory*, it overlaps the idea of an event, disclosure, charge or set of domestic and external problems that threaten the integrity, reputation or

existence of an organization or an individual; c) *historically*, it coincides with an imbalance that occurs among the components of a society, caused by social dynamics, the increased military power of one state, the strengthening of technology, etc.; d) *sociologically*, it describes a social inequity, decreased motivation and initiative, rebellion against authority, the decline of family, community, civic and religious heritage; e) *in political science*, it is synonymous with a failure of political leadership, ungovernability, inconsistency and incoherence of the political system, political parties being unable to resolve social conflicts; f) *in organizational theory* it identifies an unexpected situation, which that calls into question the responsibility of the organization to the public, threatening its ability to continue normal activities, etc. The highest degree of being able to face and cover crisis as an economic phenomenon is within the sphere of inter-, trans- and multidisciplinary modeling, which is systemic and holistic simultaneously, as demonstrated by the latest global crisis transformed into global financial recession.

Conclusions

Paradoxism debunks, in economics and the economy, as well, the myth of the law or theory of generalized applicability, it contradicts the idea of overall welfare as an effect of individual welfare, and destroys the meaning of excesses, it highlights dilemmas of temporal translation in the economy; some valid truths in the short term lose their long-term validity and vice versa, it identifies and groups together decision-making inconsistencies and elective abnormalities manifesting in selecting economic alternatives, etc. The complex paradoxism of lower profit share in parallel with the increase in revenue and against the background of inequality and heightened polarization, contradictory in relation to economic development, in a climate of continuous dissolution or disintegration of classical and modern econometric models, which gradually descend to the level of phenomenological species and subspecies, in the sphere of the real economy, as taxonomy is also unable to keep up with modern fragmentation, or the mirror duplication of the same models.

Economics, both conventional and modern, has faced and is still facing a paradox of the lack of popularity, especially in the face of economic crisis, with a tension between the growing demand for books of economics in contrast to the almost universal opinion that economy cannot forecast the imbalances, preventing crises, nor can it explain the hidden facet and the temporary and apparent failure of the economy of a country, region, continent, or even worldwide (Coyle, 2014).

The future of economics belongs, according to the authors, to a meson alternative of development, which should be placed under the aegis and influence of a complex multidisciplinary emerging towards inter- and transdisciplinarity, within a systemic and holistic context. To end a paradoxist manner, we can say that, however, the paradox of exception will not be able to work in an economic system of a mesonic type, which does not tend to reductionist maximization or the excess of the lack of rules. *In an economy exposed to the paradox of exception, virtually turned into an economy free of rules, there should be at least one rule, a final rule against all the rules*, which would annul the *right measure*, and, with it, the conceptual essence of the meson economic theory.

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