Fourth Biennial International Scientific Conference

ECOLOGICAL AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE

Lviv, Ukraine, October 24-25, 2017

Львівський національний університет імені Івана Франка
Великотирновський університет ім. св. Кирила і св. Мефодія (Болгарія)
Інститут дослідження ринку, споживання та бізнес-циклів (Польща)
Варшавський університет наук про життя – SGGW (Польща)

ЕКОЛОГО-ЕКОНОМІЧНІ ПРОБЛЕМИ У МІЖНАРОДНІЙ ТОРГІВЛІ

Матеріали IV міжнародної наукової конференції

м. Львів, 24-25 жовтня 2017 р.

За ред. д-ра екон. наук,
проф. Ігоря Грабинського

Львів – 2018

Ivan Franko National University of Lviv (Ukraine)
St. Cyril and St. Methodius University of VelikoTarnovo (Bulgaria)
Institute for Market, Consumption and Business Cycles Research (Poland)
Warsaw University of Life Science – SGGW (Poland)

ECOLOGICAL AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE

Summaries of the
4th Biennial International Scientific Conference

October 24-25, 2017

Edited by
Prof. Dr. Ihor Hrabynskyi

Lviv – 2018

УДК 339.9.012.23:330.15 JEL: F18
ББК 65.5
E45

Reviewers:

Prof. Dr. Anna DĄBROWSKA
(*Institute for Market, Consumption and Business Cycles Research, Warsaw, Poland*);
Prof. Dr. Dobrinka PETKOVA ZLATEVA
(*St. Cyril and St. Methodius University of Veliko Tarnovo, Bulgaria*);
Prof. Dr. Ivan MYKHASIUK
(*Ivan Franko National University of Lviv, Ukraine*).

Language Editors:

Doc. Dr. Ihor BYK, Doc. Dr. Antokhiv-Skolozdra O., Doc. Dr. Bekhta T., Doc. Dr. Dmytrasevych R., Dr. Dolinska N., Dr. Hrabelska O., Doc. Dr. Kashchyshyn N., Doc. Dr. Kopchak M., Doc. Dr. Kozak T., Doc. Dr. Kuchyk H., Doc Dr. Losyeva I., Doc. Dr. Luchuk O., Dr. Olkhovych-Novosadyuk M., Doc. Dr. Sholota Kh., Doc. Dr. Tkhorovska S., Dr. Tolochko O., Doc. Dr. O. Zaruma.

E45 **Ecological and Economic Problems of International Trade:** Summaries of the Fourth Biennial International Scientific Conference, Lviv, Ukraine, October 24-25, 2017 / Edited by Prof. Dr. Ihor Hrabynskyi. – Lviv: Ivan Franko National University of Lviv, 2018.– 213 p.

ЗМІСТ / TABLE OF CONTENTS

Секція 1

ЕКОЛОГІЧНІ, ЕКОНОМІЧНІ
ТА СОЦІАЛЬНІ ВИКЛИКИ
СТАЛОГО РОЗВИТКУ

Session 1

ENVIROMENTAL, ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CHALLENGES
OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Ihor Hrabynskyi
Prof. Dr., Head of the Department of
International Economic Relations
Ivan Franko National
University of Lviv
e-mail: ihor.hrabynskyi@lnu.edu.ua

RESEARCH ON ECOLOGICAL AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS IN INTERNATIONAL TRADE: HISTORY OF ESTABLISHMENT OF SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL AT LVIV UNIVERSITY

Although the communist ideologists tried to deny the possibility of the existence of environmental problems in the Soviet Union, these problems, however, became known. The proof of this werev numerous man-made accidents and catastrophes, the largest of which was the accident at the Chernobyl nuclear power plant.

Since the late 1970s ecological issues have become increasingly popular in the Ukrainian economic science and shortly the research centres whose aim was to study certain ecological problems became the basis for the formation of three research schools. Sumy School conducts researches on the damage and loss assessment methodology and the environmental management efficiency (Prof. Dr. O. Balatsky, Prof. Dr. L. Melnyk). Odessa School studies regional economic and ecological problems and market development (Prof. Dr. B. Burkynskyy) and Lviv School of Ecological Economy headed by its founder Prof. Dr. Yu. Tunytsia. Today Lviv School is represented by 60 scientists: Prof. Dr. Yu. Tunytsia, Prof. Dr. M. Malskyy, Prof. Dr. I. Hrabynskyi, Prof. Dr. T. Tunytsia, Dr. H. Stebliy, Dr. I. Shehynsky, Dr. L. Ukrainets, Dr. I. Pinchuk, Dr. Yu. Fedun, Dr. D. Khodyko, Dr. M. Hnatyshyn and others.

The above mentioned researches have contributed to the solution of the ecological and economic problems of the world economy by their works in which they study and scrutinize ecological and economic problems of the world economy and international economic relations (I. Hrabynskyi, T. Tunytsia, L. Ukrainets, I. Pinchuk, Yu. Fedun, M. Hnatyshyn, D. Khodyko). I, personally, introduced such terms as "environmental quality" (1982), "environmental quality indicator"

(1983), “ecological threshold of economic development/growth” (1994), a model of the world economy as a closed ecological and economic system (1982), a model of a national economy as an open ecological and economic system (2000), “comparative (absolute and relative) ecological and economic benefits in foreign trade” (2000), etc.

A research of a country’s foreign trade efficiency is incomplete if the environmental management is not taken into consideration as today’s exhaustion of natural resources endangers industrial production in future.

A controversy between the rapid economic development and the environmental protection has raised the problem of ecological and economic efficiency of foreign trade. Consequently, it is necessary to define country’s ecological and economic benefits in foreign trade in order to form the most reasonable foreign trade structure.

For the last fifteen years, the staff of the Department of International Economic Relations have implemented five research projects (research supervisor Prof. Dr. I. Hrabynskyi). The aim of the first project “The concept of the sustained ecological and economic development of Ukraine under conditions of its integration into the European Union” was to work out the concept and efficient economic tools and mechanisms which ensure the maintenance of sustained development standards in the process of Ukraine’s integration into the European Union.

Having conducted the research we have created a formalized dynamic model of the national economy as an ecological and economic system; identified and analysed factors hindering sustained economic development; elaborated a concept of Ukraine’s sustained ecological and economic development in compliance with national interests and the European Union standards; analysed possible influences on ecological indicators; revealed the consequences of each instance of influence on the dynamics of main macroeconomic indicators; developed an indicator of sustained economic growth and its calculation methods; calculated a reasonable value of the indicator of economic growth sustainability and possibilities of its achievement.

The second project “Theoretical basis of identifying the ecological and economic benefits in Ukraine’s foreign trade” was devoted to the creation of a formalized dynamic model of the national economy as an ecological and economic system; identification of the factors hindering sustained economic development; finding out the possibility of influence on foreign policy ecologization in the framework of the WTO; forming a scientifically substantiated concept of absolute and relative ecological and economic benefits of a state in foreign trade; elaboration of absolute and relative ecological and economic benefits in foreign trade; establishing a reasonable (with regard to ecological efficiency) state's foreign trade structure and possibilities of its achievement.

The task of the third project "Theoretical basis of determination and analysis of an innovative factor of Ukraine's economic growth in the process of foreign policy liberalization" was to determine and analyse innovative factors of Ukraine's economic growth in the process of foreign policy liberalization.

The research paper «Foreign trade ecological and economic benefits in the process of globalization of world economy» became the fourth project in this direction. This research revealed the main transformations in the nature of comparative ecological and economic advantages in international trade under the conditions of globalization of world economic relations.

The research paper «Ecological factors of economic growth in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe» became the fifth project, and now the staff and PhD students of the department are working on a new one, the sixth research paper – «Political and economic prospects for the establishment and development of the world market of alternative energy sources».

Our researchers have published 12 scientific monographs, and over 250 articles on ecological and economic problems of world economy and international economic relations. The Department initiated regular international economic conferences "Ecological and economic problems in international trade and investments" the first of which was held on September 28, 2011, second – on October 15-16, 2013, third – on October 20-21, 2015, and fourth – on October 24-25, 2017.

Thus, we can state that for the last ten years an informal scientific group uniting the scientists who collectively work out formulated research problems and who justly claim to be called a scientific school researching ecological and economic problems of the world economy has been formed at the Department of International Economic Relations.

References

1. Hnatyshyn M. A. Osoblyvosti ekoloho-ekonomichnykh naslidkiv liberalizatsii zovnishnoi torhivli / Hnatyshyn M. A. // Ekonomichnyi prostir. – 2010. – № 43. – S. 13–22.

2. Hrabynskyi I. Doslidzhennia ekoloho-ekonomichnykh problem svitovoho hospodarstva u Lvivskomu universyteti // Visnyk Lviv. un-tu. Ser. mizhn. vidn. – 2012. – Vyp.30. – S.254-265.

3. Hrabynskyi I. M. Zovnishnoekonomichnyi chynnyk u modeli natsinalnoi ekoloho-ekonomichnoi systemy / Ihor Hrabynskyi // Visnyk Lviv. un-tu. Ser. mizhn. vidn. – 2000. – Vyp. 2. – S. 464-470.

4. Hrabynskyi I. M. Model natsionalnoi-ekoloho-ekonomichnoi systemy / Ihor Hrabynskyi // Formuvannia rynkovoi ekonomiky v Ukraini : nauk.zb. – Lviv : Intereko, 1999. – Vyp. 5. – S. 365–370.

5. Hrabynskyi I. M. Svitova ekonomika yak hlobalna ekoloho-ekonomichna systema / Ihor Hrabynskyi // Visnyk Lviv. un-tu. Ser. mizhn. vidn. – 2002. – Vyp. 7. – S. 82–90.

6. Hrabynskyi I. M. Sotsialno-ekonomicheskie problemy kachestva okruzhaiushchei sredy v sfere agropromyshlennoho kompleksa : avtoref. dyss. ... kand. ekon. nauk : 08.00.01 / Hrabynskyi I. M.; Lvov. gos. un-t im. I.Ia.Franko. – Lvov, 1986. – 16 s.

7. Pinchuk I. V. Ekolohichna efektyvnist zovnishnotorhovelnoi polityky Ukrainy / Iryna Pinchuk // Visnyk TNEU. – 2010. – № 5-2. – S. 326–333.

8. Svitove hospodarstvo i mizhnarodni ekonomichni vidnosyny: Pidsumky roboty Spetsializovanoi vchenoi rady D 35.051.21 u 2011-2013 rokakh: Zvit holovy … d-ra ekon. nauk, prof. Hrabynskoho I.M. / LNU im. Ivana Franka. – Lviv, 2014. – 40 s.

9. Ukrainets L. A. Zovnishnotorhovelna polityka krain - chleniv YeS v umovakh ekolohizatsii ekonomichnoho rozvytku : avtoref. dys. ... kand. ekon. nauk : 08.00.02 / L. A. Ukrainets; NAN Ukrainy. In-t svit. ekonomiky i mizhnar. vidnosyn. – Kyiv, 2007. – 19 s.

10. Fedun Yu. B. Shliakhy zabezpechennia staloho ekoloho-ekonomichnoho rozvytku Ukrainy / Yu. B. Fedun // Visn. NU "Lvivska politekhnika". Menedzhment ta pidpryiemnytstvo v Ukraini. Etapy stanovlennia ta problemy rozvytku. – 2009. – № 657. – S. 229–234.

11. Fliud I. V. Ekoloho-ekonomichna efektyvnist zovnishnoi torhivli Ukrainy / I. V. Fliud // Aktualni problemy ekonomiky. – 2010. – № 8 (10). – S. 218–223.

Maria Hnatyshyn
PhD, Associate Professor
Faculty of economics
Ivan Franko National
University of Lviv
email: hnatyshyn.maria@gmail.com

Trade implications for parties and non-parties to the Paris Agreement

The Paris Agreement (the PA) does not make direct reference to trade policies. Parties to the agreement are not obliged to take trade measures in achieving their NDCs but may choose to do so.

Trade can support climate change mitigation and there are many paths to perform this role. Trade can contribute to the PA through:

1) tariff removal on environmental goods and services, trade restrictions on some goods;

2) the elimination of fossil fuel subsidies, green subsidies implementation;

3) the emissions permits trading schemes;

4) using trade as an instrument of pressure.

1) Trade can open new global markets for environmental goods and services, encourage investment and growth in green industries. When appropriate environmental policy is implemented trade can foster transition to a green economy. In the UN agenda *Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development* international trade is named as one of the key and cross-cutting means of reaching the Sustainable Development Goals. UNDP estimates global trade in environmental goods at USD 1 trillion annually and it is projected to grow to USD 2-3 trillion by 2020 [1].

For a few years already, the 18 WTO members (46 countries) are negotiating an Environmental Goods Agreement (EGA) seeking to eliminate tariffs on a number of important environment-related products (e. g. products generating clean and renewable energy, improving energy and resource efficiency, controlling air pollution, managing waste, treating waste water, monitoring the quality of the environment, combatting noise pollution etc.). The participants to these negotiations account for the majority of global trade in environmental goods. If negotiations succeed the benefits of the EGA will be extended to all WTO members [2]. The EGA constitutes a small step in improving access to less costly goods, including those that generate renewable energy and will particularly serve to the benefit of developing countries.

2) The reform of fossil fuel subsidies has a significant potential in reaching PA aim. Another option is permitting some clean energy subsidies. So there are two reasons why subsidies play an important role in the NDCs implementation:

- green subsidies foster clean energy investments and production;
- existing fossil fuels subsidies create incentives for carbon-intensive production and consumption.

The reforms in this sphere could have a significant impact on reducing greenhouse gas emissions. The removal of fossil fuel subsides could contribute an average of 11% in national emissions reductions across 20 countries or between 6-10% reductions in global emissions [3]. The elimination of fossil fuel subsides can be extended further to more goods and services (e.g. limiting subsidies to fisheries).

3) Under the PA there are no officially established emissions permits trading schemes. Nevertheless, the possibility is foreseen for countries to cooperate in achieving environmental goals. "Parties recognize that some Parties choose to pursue voluntary cooperation in the implementation of their nationally determined contributions…" Article 6.1 and "The use of internationally transferred mitigation outcomes to achieve nationally determined contributions under this Agreement shall be voluntary and authorized by participating Parties." Article 6.3 [4]. The possible reason for not officially establishing the emissions permits trading schemes is that even in the EU – the world's largest carbon market – a carbon price has been both volatile and too low to provide forceful incentives to a low-carbon transformation [5]. In general, according the PA countries can use emissions permits trading schemes to decrease the costs of adaptation to the more stringent environmental demands if they choose to do so.

4) This path of reaching the PA aim includes implementation of trade restrictions (note that the PA does not include any trade measures in itself). It is rather not the international trade itself that contributes to the goal but the exclusion from it. Countries may be forced to join the

green initiatives of the leading countries if they want to enjoy the benefits of international trade.

Within few years we will see whether such measures will be officially or unofficially taken concerning the PA. According to the White House, president Donald Trump plans to withdraw the United States from the Paris climate agreement. The only chance to stay are the changes in the terms of the Agreement so that they become more favorable to the US [6]. Actually, there are only two UNFCCC member states out of 197 that have not signed the Agreement – Syria and Nicaragua. 166 countries have ratified (approved or accepted) the Agreement. EcoWatch warns that the consequences of withdrawal from the Paris agreement would probably be much more significant than those of pulling out of Kyoto Protocol and may lead to diplomatic isolation. The US refusal to cooperate in the framework of the PA can create competitive distortion in international trade. The EU (as the main proponent of the PA) and other countries may therefore take it into account during trade negotiations. Trading partners could use carbon tariff to offset the possible advantage of U.S. manufacturers not having to abide by Paris climate goals. Withdrawal from the PA can in fact limit access to the world market.

To sum up, trade can foster the achievement of Paris goals through becoming more green and through helping to decrease losses through emissions permits trading schemes. But besides that trade can become an instrument of pressure on countries setting too low environmental goals or refusing to sign the PA.

References

1. Environment and Trade Hub (2017). UNEP. Retrieved from http://www.unep.org/greeneconomy/what-we-do/environment-and-trade-hub

2. Environmental Goods Agreement (2016). WTO. Retrieved from https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/envir_e/ega_e.htm

3. Wooders P., Merrill L. (2015) Fossil Fuel Subsidy Reform: Big at the Climate Talks and in the Agreement?. IISD. Retrived from https://www.iisd.org/gsi/news/fossil-fuel-subsidy-reform-big-climate-talks-and-agreement

4. Paris Agreement (2017). United Nations Convention on Climate Change. Retrieved from http://unfccc.int/files/essential_background/convention/application/pdf/english_paris_agreement.pdf

5. Andresen P., Skjærseth J. B., Jevnaker T., Wettestad J. (2016) The Paris Agreement: Consequences for the EU and Carbon Markets? Politics and Governance. Volume 4, Issue 3, p. 188-196.
6. C.N.464.2017.TREATIES-XXVII.7.d (Depositary Notification)". United Nations. Retrieved from https://treaties.un.org/doc/Publication/CN/2017/CN.464.2017-Eng.pdf

Stepan Holubka
Prof. Dr., Department of Finance,
Banking and Insurance
University of Banking
e-mail: holubkas@ukr.net
Kyiv, Ukraine
Ruslan Biloskurskyy
PhD, Associate Professor
Dean of Faculty of Economics,
Yuriy Fedkovich Chernivtsi National University
e-mail: r.biloskurskyy@chnu.edu.ua
Chernivtsi, Ukraine

ENVIRONMENTAL GLOBALIZATION AND ITS IMPACT ON THE NATIONAL ECOLOGICAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Human development in our times is quite dynamic. Meanwhile, the current situation makes us rethink already established approaches in organizing social life and assurance of economic growth. Ukraine has not yet been able to establish itself as an emergent society due to being in difficult and rather uncertain conditions. Our country declares its openness in the economic, social, political, informational, and cultural areas, which makes it accept a number of requirements of civilizational development (sustainable development, social development, informational, etc.), including the harmonization of environmental and economic interests. The landmark for ensuring effective ecological and economic development will allow our state not only to establish itself on the international scene as a competitive and productive innovation's entity, but also to accept the requirements of the international community in the field of rational nature management.

This research is carried out in order to find out the essence of ecological globalization and its impact on the priorities of ecological and economic development of Ukraine. The research was carried out based on materials of scientists, such as V. Basil'evich [1], E. Borschuk [2], I. Zholobchuk [2], V. Zagorsky [2], V. Kobilyansky [3], V. Kulishov [4], S. Sichko [5], V. Frolov [5].

As environmental problems become more threatening to the further existence of humanity, leading international states are initiating cooperation in the field of ecology. This caused the emergence of ecological globalization. As it is known, globalization affects practically all spheres of social life, including economics, politics, ideology, social sphere, culture, ecology, security, lifestyle, as well as the conditions of human existence themselves [4, p. 21]. From the point of view of rational nature use, globalization has a major impact on the spreading of the phenomenon of internationalization. Because of this, there is an increase in the advantage of powerful international companies with hidden means of exploiting natural resources, a strong lobby in power structures. The negative effects of internationalization determine the urgent need to form a single global, international, economic, legal, informational and cultural space for the free and effective business activities of all business entities; the creation of a single planetary market for goods and services, capital, labor, economic approaching and fusing of seperate countries into a single world economic complex [4, p. 23]. In the midst of the development of the internationalized global economic space, it is necessary to take into account environmental interests.

Ecological globalization is a process of integration and unification different states' mechanisms in order to consolidate efforts in solving global and local environmental problems and avoiding the global environmental crisis.

Ecological globalization develops under the influence of several basic determinants (Illustration1). The first one is the need to consolidate efforts. As V. Frolov and S. Sichko wrote in their works, an effective strategy for solving global problems leads the society to new frontiers of development, more specifically, to the level of awareness of the need to unite the efforts of all nations and states to overcome global problems [5]. It is impossible to escape a global ecological crisis without close international cooperation in the most diverse spheres of human life; in particular such cooperation is needed in the field of environmental education, including the integration of efforts to develop its philosophical and methodological foundations [3, p. 26].

Ecological globalization is actualizing the need to influence the activities of international companies, particularly in the developing countries. According to V. Frolov and S. Sichko, in order to counteract the actions of the developed countries and transnational corporations, economically underdeveloped countries are turning to a policy of protectionism; thus creating a term "ecological protectionism" – which as a state policy is aimed at the prohibition and restriction of production, sale and usage of environmentally hazardous products and the importation into the country of technologies and goods that are harmful to the environment and endanger the health of the population [1, p. 615; 5].

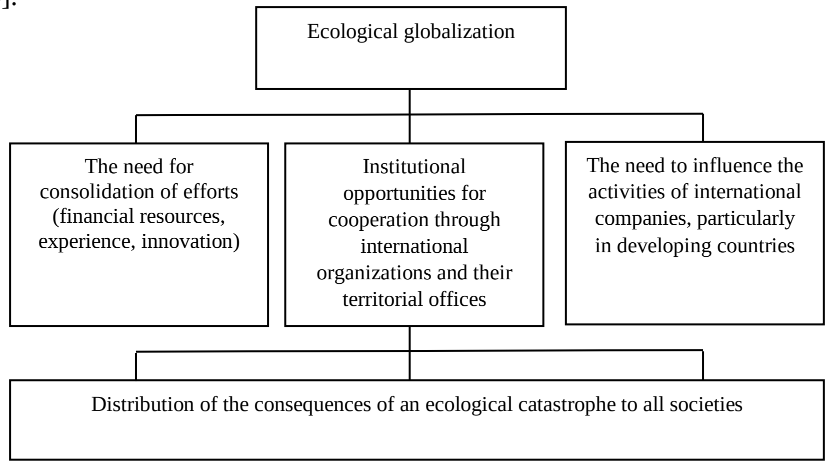


Illustration 1. Basic determinants of ecological globalization
* Source: author's development

Ecological globalization involves different ways of cooperation of states in solving global and local environmental problems: institutionalization of the international concept of the use of environmental resources, identifying key issues and giving them a global status; support of international security against the use of chemical weapons, other influences on the future of mankind and possibilities of renewal of environmental resources; formation of the international legal and regulatory framework in the field of using the resources of the natural environment; stimulation of the effective usage of environmental resources, production of resource-replacement technologies, environmental investments and innovations, as well as the development of environmental business; the functioning of the international trade market for emission quotas, environmental innovations, etc.

Table 1

Influence of global environmental problems
on national ecological and economic development

	Global environmental problems	The priority of ecological and economic development of Ukraine
	Increase in production capacity with the increasing dependence of social and economic development of countries on the use of resources of the natural environment	- Qualitative, ecologically oriented structural changes in the economy with the increasing importance of the service sector and the emergence of an ecological economy. - Reorientation of foreign trade activity from raw materials
	Basis of production processes on the exploitation of resources without full utilization	- Development of ecological enterprise, including in the field of waste management - Development of the secondary raw materials market
	Deepening of the bundle of society in the conditions of uneven distribution of income from the use of resources of the environment	- Formation and implementation of protectionist policies - Support for levers of public control - Interstate cooperation and integration with the aim of coordinating measures of rational nature management

* Source: author's development

It is clear that Ukraine cannot stand aside processes of ecological globalization. Therefore, the ways of ensuring its ecological and economic development should be determined by taking into account global initiatives. As cliché as it sounds, the question rests on global environmental problems. Although they contradict the restrictive principle of ecological and economic development, they determine the initial needs for the search for opportunities to meet commercial interests while solving environmental problems. Specialists identify the following main risks of preserving existing trends in the use of environmental resources [2]: if in the future the tendency of constant increase of production capacity will persist, in the short term the resource component of production will completely exhaust its capabilities; at the present stage, the trends of pollution and destruction of the natural environment have become global and have a significant impact on the overall direction of social and economic development; existing trends in the development of industrial technologies can lead to environmental catastrophe; industrialization and economic growth are caused by such negative phenomena as environmental pollution, industrial noise, discharge to the atmosphere, general deterioration of the cities’ exteriors, etc.

Based on these risks, the priorities of ecological and economic development vary between qualitative structural changes with the emergence of the ecological economy and the support of various forms of environmental control as the result of the development of civil society (Table 1).

The global situation and global environmental problems are to some extent imperative in relation to the substantiation of the ways of Ukraine's ecological and economic development. The global level in the use of environmental resources is more oriented towards the goals of sustainable development, within which the environmental and economic interests are being harmonized. On the other hand, our society has the right to adopt its own approach to ensuring ecological and economic development while preserving the orientation towards sustainable development. The experience of other countries and the practice of international organizations are a guideline for choosing the most effective means. Therefore, one should understand the variability of the concept of environmental and economic development policy, which will be the direction for further research.

References

1. Bazylevych V. D. Ekonomichna teoriya: Politekonomiya : Pidruchnyk / V. D. Bazylevych. – 6-e vyd., pererob. i dop. – K. : Znannya-Pres, 2007. – 645s.

2. Zahors'kyy V. S. Sotsial'no-ekolohichni faktory staloho rozvytku natsional'noyi ekonomiky / V. S. Zahors'kyy, Ye. M. Borshchuk, I. M. Zholobchuk // Demokratychne vryaduvannya. – 2014. – Vyp. 13 [Elektronnyy resurs]. – Rezhym dostupu : http://nbuv.gov.ua/UJRN/DeVr_2014_13_16

3. Kobyilyanskiy V. A. Globalizatsiya i ekologiya: novyiy podhod k sozdaniyu osnov obschey teorii ekologii / V. A. Kobyilyanskiy // UchYonyie zapiski ZabGU. Seriya : Filosofiya, sotsiologiya, kulturologiya, sotsialnaya rabota. – 2009. – # 4. – S. 25-33

4. Kulishov V. V. Osoblyvosti svitovoyi hlobalizatsiyi v suchasnykh umovakh / V. V. Kulishov // Derzhava ta rehiony. Ser. : Ekonomika ta pidpryyemnytstvo. – 2013. – # 2. – S. 21-24.

5. Frolova V. Yu. Hlobalizatsiya yak chynnyk vplyvu na stan navkolyshn'oho seredovyshcha / V. Yu. Frolova, S. M. Sichko : Publishing house Education and Science s.r.o. [Elektronnyy resurs]. – Rezhym dostupu : http://www.rusnauka.com/6_PNI_2012/Economics/16_102460.doc.htm

Maria Parlińska
Dr. Hab., professor
Katedra Ekonomiki Rolnictwa i Międzynarodowych Stosunków Gospodarczych
KERiMSG, WNE, SGGW
e-mail: maria_parlinska@sggw.pl

GRAWITACYJNY MODEL HANDLU ZAGRANICZNEGO - TEORIA A PRAKTYKA

Abstract

W tradycyjnym modelu grawitacji wartość wymiany handlowej między dowolnymi dwoma krajami jest proporcjonalna do iloczynu PKB tych krajów oraz odwrotnie proporcjonalna do odległości dzielącej te kraje. W współczesnym procesie globalizacji jest wiele innych czynników działających na wielkość przepływów handlowych między krajami. W równaniu grawitacji zaproponowanym przez Tinbergena, te czynniki uznane zostały jako alternatywa dla fizycznej odległości między państwami. W globalnej gospodarce fizyczna odległość między państwami nie stanowi o braku wymiany międzynarodowej, więc odległość w modelu grawitacji można potraktować jako stopień podobieństwa handlujących gospodarek. W przedstawianej prezentacji i artykule autor dokonuje próby oceny modeli grawitacji, wskazuje na ich ewaluację i różne ich implementacje.

Słowa kluczowe: handel zagraniczny, model grawitacyjny, globalizacja

Gravity model of foreign trade - theory and practice

Abstract

In the traditional gravity model, the value of trade between any two countries is proportional to the product of GDP of those countries and inversely proportional to the distance dividing these countries. In the contemporary globalization process there are many other factors affecting the volume of trade flows between countries. These factors are considered as an alternative to the physical distance between countries in the equation of gravitation proposed by Tinbergen. In the global economy, physical distance between states is not a lack of international exchange, so the distance in the gravity model can be treated as a degree of similarity between trading economies. The author attempts to evaluate gravity models, indicates their evaluation and various implementations in the presentation and article.

Key words: foreign trade, gravity model, globalization

Tetiana Buchynska
кафедра міжнародного менеджменту та маркетингу
Тернопільський національний економічний університет
e-mail: t.buchynska@tneu.edu.ua

EMPLOYEE'S UNIVERSAL SKILLS IN THE GLOBAL ECONOMIC COMPETITIVENESS

Until recently, the main criterion companies paid attention to during the search for employees was the availability of a diploma, indicating a narrow professional specialization. A programmer had to be able to create programs, a journalist - to write reports, and an accountant - to keep an account. Everything else was considered positive, but not obligatory. Today the situation has changed dramatically. Technical skills are those relating specifically to a profession. But nowadays in the global economic competitiveness employers are trying to find specialists with the universal skills to be applied to all jobs.

Very often universal skills are called soft skills. They are opposed to the rigid - special narrow skills (hard skills), because they have no unambiguous rigid binding to a particular one. Universal skills help to "fit" into a society and not be "socially disabled", let professional self-realize.

Modern employees should have good communication skills, leadership qualities, positive attitude, ability to analyze and to evaluate, display acceptance of responsibility, high standard of performance, flexibility and adaptability. Thus this list should not be limited. A highly-qualified worker, willing to self-development, has always been the most precious resource in the global economic competitiveness.

Thus it should be underlined that modern employees must be well developed in three main competency areas. The first one is narrow professional competencies or hard-skills, this is what we are taught in high schools, such as Programming, English, Mathematics, Economics, Philology, Medicine, etc. i.e. specialized knowledge and skills required in certain professions. The second one - personal competencies, that is how we make decisions, how we organize our activities, how we build the logic of our activities, how we deal with time, critical thinking. And the third is so-called universal competencies. They include communicative skills, conflict management skills, ability to work in a team, as well as the knowledge of human nature and human behavior.

Nowadays the list of most demanded universal skills according to the Davos Economic Forum 2017 are: complex problem solving, critical thinking, creativity, people management, coordinating with others, emotional intelligence, judgment and decision making, service orientation, negotiation and social flexibility.

Taking into consideration all the above it should be emphasized that universal skills are skills that are the most important in the global economic competitiveness. They refer to the ability to manage changes, emotions, correct communication, and reconciliation of conflicts that are the features of a modern competitive employee. Old clichés and standard outputs from conflict situations no longer work in a modern globalized world. On the foreground are interpersonal relationships, understanding interpersonal relationships, and understanding the inner world of a person, the ability to creatively and individually approach to each situation separately.

Iryna Yeleyko
PhD, Associate Professor
International Economic Relations
Ivan Franko National
University of Lviv
e-mail: iryna.yeleyko@lnu.edu.ua

INFLUENCE OF THE ENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR ON MIGRATION PROCESSES IN MODERN WORLD ECONOMY

Activity of a person has caused the appearance of a number of environmental problems: disturbance of the ozone layer and the energy balance of the Earth, active deforestation and respectively devastation of territories, pollution of the atmosphere and hydrosphere. Nowadays extensive droughts and flooding have become a usual thing. As a result problems of political, economic or social character have appeared or become much sharper. This problem load has a huge impact on the inhabitants of the territories, forcing them, in the end, to move to new territories with more favorable climate and nature. So-called "environmental" migrants and refugees have appeared, who move from the regions of natural disaster or the regions disposed to it.

A definition of the environmental migration was generally accepted in 1996 at the Conference in Geneva. According to this definition "environmental migrants" are people who were forced to leave their places of permanent residence and move within the borders of their own country or cross its borders because of a sharp deterioration of the state of environment or environmental disasters [4].

The change of the environment will probably cause the increase in the number of forced migrants in case people have little possibility or don't have it at all to remain in the regions of their permanent residence. For example, 17 million people were forced to migrate due to the natural disasters in 2009, 42 million people changed their place of residence for the same reason in 2010. Such a forced resettlement of population has a significant influence on the economic growth, safety of people and their social protection [3].

The necessity of a quick solution of the problem of environmental migration and the assessment of the value of the environmental factor was stressed at the conference in Boston devoted to the problem of population migrations, related with the change of the environment state in 2008. At this conference the following types of environmental migrants were distinguished:

- extraordinary migrants who flee from dangerous environmental impacts for the sake of life;
- forced migrants who leave their place of permanent residence to avoid inevitable and serious consequences of the environment degradation;
- motivated migrants, who have a possibility to leave the territory of their permanent residence with environmental situation that constantly deteriorates, to find a better place of living.

Considering the causes which forced environmental migrants to change their place of residence or stay we can distinguish the following causes of environmental migration.

1. The natural environmental incident that reached the scale of a large regional environmental disaster. Hurricane Catherine in 2005 took away lives of more than several thousand people. More than 800 thousand people remained without electricity and telephone connection and half a million people left their houses. Many of them have left their homes forever. Data show that for five years by 2010 the population of New Orleans had decreased by more than 25%, while in Taxes, neighboring with Louisiana, more than 250 thousand new inhabitants had appeared [1].

2. The man-caused environmental incident. It is necessary to indicate in its structure two sub-types of such catastrophes that are characterized first of all by the approaches to the removal of the consequences of the environmental impact. The first of them does not cause continuous and serious change in the state of the environment (natural gas explosion in buildings, explosion of ordinary explosion matters, fires, etc).

The second sub-type of the man-caused environmental incident does not necessarily demonstrate itself on large territories but reaches the signs of a natural disaster with:

- protracted chronic local effects and impacts on the neighbor territories;
- impacts on ecosystems of biodiversity and health of people inconsistent with life and reproduction of the future healthy generation;

- requires the development and realization of long-term and expensive programs on the removal of an environmental incident.

The breakdown at Chornobyl nuclear power plant and tragedy in Indian town Bhopal are the everlasting memorials of human carelessness and errors.

3. The deterioration of the environment in a living place, caused by the irrational use of nature and thoughtless activity of people.

4. The change of environmental conditions not directly related with the activity of a person. Recently more and more attention is being paid to so-called climate migration.

As David Thomas from Oxford University has noted: "environmental migration is a part of solving the problems that will arise as a result of climate change" [2]. When considering the drought in Africa in the 1980s, deaths of millions of people in the countries to the north from the Sahara were caused by non-willingness and impossibility to run away from the approaching desert.

5. Timely announcement of population about a possibility of natural cataclysm.

So, the slow but unceasing in time change of the environment and the living conditions of a human being can lead to the increasing number of migrants. For example, the world is now facing an acute problem of water crisis. At the 6th World Water Forum held in Marseille in 2012, the UN experts announced that the world is at the edge of water catastrophe. Each 10th person on the Earth lacks drinking water and this amounts to 700 million people (40% of which live in Africa to the South from the Sahara). More than 1 billion inhabitants of our planet have no constant and safe source of consumer water supply. If our fear as to the global warming will be realized and the level of droughts increases, the whole region of the Mediterranean Sea, the region of the Persian Gulf, countries of the Central and partly Southern and Easter Asia will meet a catastrophic water deficit, that will push people to move outside the borders of their countries. Lack of water in desert and semi-desert regions will cause mass migration of population. About 700 million people will feel the impact [4].

In other words, environmental problems of the modern world are tightly related with the problems of environmental migration and acquire great importance. A study of possible dangers of environmental migration and prevention of their causes are becoming the most topical

References

1.Евтушенко В. Экологическая миграция: понятие, виды, место в отечественной правовой системе[Електронний ресурс] / В. Евтушенко – Режим доступу до ресурсу: http://justicemaker.ru/view-article.php?id=24&art=950.

2.«Экологическая миграция» — это часть решения проблем, которые возникнут в результате климатических изменений[Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу до ресурсу: http://demonhost.info/novosti-mira/6977-yekologicheskaya-migraciya-yeto-chast-resheniya-problem-kotorye-vozniknut-v-rezultate-klimaticheskix-izmenenij.html.

3.Миграция и глобальные изменения окружающей среды. Вызовы и возможности будущего. Краткий обзор. [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу до ресурсу: http://www.bis.gov.uk/assets/foresight/docs/migration/12-571-migration-and global-environmental-change-summary-russian.

4.Файфура В. Міграції населення в контексті екологічних викликів[Електронний ресурс] / В. Файфура – Режим доступу до ресурсу: http://dspace.tneu.edu.ua/bitstream//316497/24158/1/Файфура В.pdf..

Viktor Yakimtsov
Ph.D in economics, Associate Professor
of department of enterprise economics
Ukrainian National Forestry University
e-mail: yakimtsov@nltu.edu.ua

USE OF SYNERGETIC APPARATUS IN SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND ECOLOGY SYSTEMS

Modern development of society's productive forces is happening in conditions of ecological and social crisis. The resource exchange between and nature and society has reached a large scale, all natural and production-socioeconomic components of human activity have become increasingly interrelated and that interaction between various natural components may lead to unpredictable consequences.

The evolution of social development showed that market-driven economy, which formed the consumer attitude to the environmental resources, proved incapable of either evading or tackling global ecological problems. In this regard, the criticism of the basic concepts of classic macroeconomics is becoming more and more justified. The underlying postulates of such criticism extend beyond modern economic relations.

The late XX – early XXI centuries are characterized by quite a difficult situation in the development of economic science. Despite more than 300 years of development, economic disciplines continue to focus on finding short-term responses to long term problems. But in practice such an approach *has not yielded* any *positive and effective results.* This is proved by recurring global economic crises , the breakdown of certain *financial markets* , national economies and at the world economy at large.

Currently, the shortcomings of the existing cognitive models, their incompleteness, make them outdated and incapable of offering effective *solutions.* People's *perceptions* of how the *world* works are undergoing changes expanding and new approaches and models need to be sought to improve their economic wellbeing and promote economic stability. To solve various problems people need new problem solving methods with regards to the challenges facing the changing society.

The *scholars* in quantitative and *natural sciences* and the reasearchers engaged in mathematical modeling, in particular, felt the drawbacks of such methods and attempted to solve a wide range of problems starting with the problems of the strategic stability of the projects of economic reforms and ending with particular physical processes or technical constructions. Euphoria that is caused by the opportunities of modern computers in working on the ways to stimulate economy gave way to the understanding of how limited are the possibilities to get correct answers merely due to the ability to ask relevant questions, to accurately assess the problem and and to make a correct search request. Intensive development of nonlinear methods of investigation of complicated systems and the findings and conclusions made as a result of this process motivated researchers from *various fields* of *scientific* study to make a conclusion that the generalization of knowledge, multidisciplinary perspectives in different research areas and scientific directions as well as new knowledge synthesis are necessary. The new interdisciplinary *science named synergetics*, proposed by *Haken* (1978) – and defined as *the science of collective static or dynamic phenomena in closed or open multi component systems with cooperative "interactions" occurring between the units of the system* originated this way.

Theoretical justification of these changes was shown in the new approaches: theory of economic growth, theory of business cycles and synergetic economy.

Synergetic approach in the investigation of economic processes determines the creation of efficient models of revival, which raises the possibility of the search of universal principles of self-organization and evolution of complicated economic systems (formulation of laws of self-preservation and evolutionary development) (Osipov 2001).

Synergetics is used as the generalized name of a scientific filed, which investigates the processes of self-organization and evolution, ordered behavior of the complicated nonlinear systems.

Synergetics, which originated as interdisciplinary scientific approach, which creates methods of investigation of open systems and their components' complicated behavior, is one of the effective approaches to the general problems of the description of complexity, characteristics of self-organization phenomena. Some systems of physics, chemistry and biology provide the simplest examples of self-organization, studied better than in other fields . The things are moving in them not only in time, but also in space. This is one characteristic that unites them.

The ideas of new science, which was later called «synergetics», were originally formulated in the science *fiction story* of a famous American fantasy writer Ray Bradbury «A Sound of Thunder» in 1963. One of the election campaign managers goes to the time journey after his candidate's victory in this story. Company that organizes this travel offers the dinosaur hunt, these dinosaurs are going to die soon. In order not to disrupt the complicated cause-and-effect relations and not to change the future, it's necessary to follow the special way. However, the character couldn't fulfill this condition and he accidentally crushed the golden butterfly. Turning back, he sees that the atmospheric composition, the spelling rules and the result of the selection campaign changed. Barely visible motion stroke down the domino tiles, they stroke down the bigger tiles, and the fall of giant tiles led to the disaster. Small creature – golden butterfly managed to cause the enormous consequences. Upsetting the equilibrium (slightly, in the small values) in one place will become the big chaos in due course – dynamic chaos. Mathematicians called these properties of the event «butterfly effect» - sensitivity to the benchmark data. Chaos theory, which was originated due to this principle-effect, testifies that butterfly's wing beat on one part of the globe might cause the hurricane on another. (Bradbury 1999).

New economic theory forms the notion of the essence of economic processes on the basis of nonlinear dependences and the loss of equilibrium state. Modern investigations illustrate the development of economic processes as the ones based on the processes of self-organization and openness, which show that complicated systems, which include the economic systems that have the characteristics of self-organization and openness, are the dissipative structures. These structures are able to reproduce their actions and further existence based on the internal potential that needs certain conditions to be implemented, are created naturally or as a result of regulatory activity.

The researchers focus on the system's behavior in the points, which are far from the equilibrium state, and on the system's transit capability for some time, which results in the fact that the system shows the sensibility to the possible case scenario and has the choice preference to the path with the best characteristics.

The obtained results formed a powerful basis for further research in the area of economic science in the field of synergetics. Its main pillars are the elements of estimation and determination of the components of forming economic mechanisms as an integral concept of transition between the equilibrium state and maintaining the position of stable development; search for synergetic potential in the internal structure of the economic processes and the possibility of its reproduction by means of the external revolts; the formation of the factors, counteracting in the economic space, which ,in turn, results in the fact that economy acquires the characteristics of nonlinearity and instability etc.

Our world is a complicated system. At the same time, scientists can describe and understand it at the primary level and this provides at least minimal representation. Why these quite simple and primitive models are working? In our opinion, self-organization can be the answer to this question, which the nonlinear science offers us. The knowledge of universe details turned out to be the great power.

Nonlinear science, which is sometimes thought to be postnonclassial, is based on a less solid basis: the results of computer modeling and theoretical analysis of unusual phenomena in physics, chemistry, biology, social sphere. Many experiments, new algorithms, fundamental theories more and more often are based on the images and methods of nonlinear world.

However, the pursuit of the future power isn’t the only thing that explains the resonance in the culture and social conscience, which is connected to nonlinear science. In our opinion, the new cognitive model is being formed in nonlinear science.

Modern world becomes more and more complicated, it’s opening wider and wider due to the modern investigation, which goes beyond classical disciplines and approximates the nonlinear complicated forms and models, the existence of this or that phenomenon. People should think, learn to live and carry on business according to the principles of complexity of existence of various conditions of development of nature, environment, new ideas, principles and needs of people, interaction perspectives between humans and Universe and between humans themselves (internal relations etc.).

Such an approach provides positive changes in all spheres of human life including the change in the modes of thinking in terms of attitude of an individual and humankind at large to the environment.

First of all, the problems need to be solved in real-time, which isn't new in the theory of investigations. This dynamic approach needs the consideration of the time factor in nonlinear models, which in its turn makes them more complicated and suitable, real and fair (Yakimtsov 2017).

Thus, it becomes possible and necessary to foresee the future after a certain period of time. Such a forecast is called «outrunning reflection» in science. On the basis of these arguments, science finds the investigation of nonlinear world in time and space necessary, because it is here, where the specific model can be found, this model will provide the opportunities to construct for itself the variety of structures, which are currently relevant. In constructing these nonlinear models, the connection with space and time becomes possible. Thus, the opportunities of this or that modern phenomenon, connected to the time factors, are the predictable opportunities of the development of this phenomenon.

In modern science, this gives the opportunity to use the laws of social development anew, i.e. with the perspective of construction, modeling of the future. Creating the future by means of complex nonlinear systems isn't the only approach and the search for the correct solution and way is the special and perspective task for the investigators.

References

1. Haken, G. Synergetics / G. Haken. translation. M. : Mir, 1980.- 406 p.

2. Osipov, Yu. M. Eschatology of new world / Yu. M. Osipov // Economy philosophy. 2001. - №6(18). - P. 11-19.

3. Ray Bradbury. The golden apples of the sun. Published 1999 by Earthlight in London. 168 p.

4. Yakimtsov V.V. Methods of synergetic analysis and fundamentals of complicated systems modeling. Journal L'Association 1901 «SEPIKE», Edition 17. Association 1901 "SEPIKE", France – 2017. – p. 146–151

Iryna Pasinovych
PhD, Associate Professor
Faculty of Financial Management and Business
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv

SPECIAL ECONOMIC ZONES: FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC EXPERIENCE

Ukraine is in search of effective ways and tools for boosting investment activity, boosting economic growth. For this, the implementation of world experience, which proved to be successful, may be useful in Ukraine, but with the fullest possible consideration of specific domestic realities. One of controversial tools for revitalizing the economic development is the creation of special economic zones (hereinafter referred to as SEZs).

Discussions about the feasibility and effectiveness of SEZ functioning are ongoing, but it is undeniable that SEZs are increasingly becoming a hallmark of the global economy, and dozens of free zones are created annually in different countries of the world.

In practice, SEZs are enclaves in which exporters and other investors have tax, tariff and regulatory preferences. Experience has shown that SEZs increase exports to countries in which they are located, as well as to others that supply intermediate goods or components. The World Trade Organization allows the SEZ to operate despite the fact that many of them violate its rules on subsidies.

Despite the fact that SEZs have negative effect on competition, distort the business landscape to a certain extent and result in budget deficits, they are gaining popularity in countries that are trying to revive trade and increase investment. According to T. Farole, a senior economist at the World Bank, "every country that did not have [SEZ] 10 years ago now either already has, or is planning to open it."

By the mid-1990s, according to World Bank studies, there were already 500 free zones operating in 73 countries of the world. The largest expansion of SEZs took place in the 1980s when they began to appear in China after the successful experience of creating a zone in Shenzhen, which over the past 30 years turned the fishing village into a city with 14 million inhabitants. Most successfully SEZs oprerated in the OAU, South

Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines. In the Dominican Republic SEZ contributed to the creation of a powerful production sector, overcoming dependence on agriculture.

Today there are more than 4 thousand SEZs located in 135 countries. In the near future, a significant increase in their number is expected. According to the functional feature of the SEZ, there may be free trade, export processing zones, industrial parks, free economic zones, bonded logistic parks, urban enterprise zones. For example, today South Korea and Thailand are building eco-industrial parks.

In the countries of Central and Eastern Europe the creation of SEZs began in the 1960s in Yugoslavia, and in the 1980s this process intensified in Hungary (1982) and Bulgaria (1987). In Bulgaria and Romania SEZs were created on a state-owned basis; in Poland - at joint stock companies; in Hungary - at mixed ones. Since the beginning of the 1990s, SEZ began to appear in the former Soviet republics, in particular, in the Russian Federation, Ukraine, Belarus, Latvia, Lithuania, and Moldova. It happened due to the gradual refusal of post-socialist governments from self-sufficiency with the beginning of international integration. In case of Poland, Ukrainian neighbour, SEZs became a catalyst for structural changes and economic recovery during the period of market transformation.

Special economic zones, as tools for promoting entrepreneurship, were created in Poland as a part of the government program "Entrepreneurship in the first place". The main objective of SEZ is accelerated and even development of regions through attracting new investors and creating new jobs.

In the early 1990s, a foreign investment law was passed in Poland, which abolished restrictions on the share of foreign citizens in the share capital of enterprises, and also granted tax incentives to foreign investors (in regions with high unemployment benefits were more substantial). In 1995-2001, 15 free economic zones were established, 14 of which still work. By the end of 2015, 34 billion dollars had been invested in free economic zones (in the average rate of 1995-2015). During the last 20 years, 2,700 investment permits were issued, and 300 thousand people were employed.

Companies with work permits in the Polish SEZs receive substantial privileges, including tax benefits. The size of the tax exemption for covering new investment and job creation amounts to 50%

of capital investment, for large enterprises, 60% for medium-sized enterprises and 70% for capital investments incurred by small enterprises. Another advantage for working in a SEZ is the opportunity to receive cash assistance from the state when starting up a business.

A positive experience is the functioning of a SEZ in Serbia, which was created to stimulate economic development. The main attraction of free zones for investors is preferential customs and tax regimes and simplified administrative procedures, in particular:

- free, without the use of quotas, export / import permits and other restrictions, import of goods and services in the zone and export of goods and services from them;

- exemption from VAT, customs duties and other payments related to the import of raw materials and materials intended for the production of goods and their subsequent export, as well as imported equipment, machinery and building materials for conducting economic activity in the zone;

- all types of goods imported into free zones are exempt from payment of customs duties. In case goods made in a free zone partly from Serbian materials are sold on the local market, the fee is paid only on foreign components of this product;

- free transfer of profits received in the free zone;

- rapid customs clearance of import / export through customs service established in each zone.

Today in Serbia there are 14 free zones. The feature of SEZs of Serbia is that they are focused on revitalization of production. For example, one of the leading free zones of Serbia, Pirot zone (established in 1998) specializes in the production of automobile tires (Michelin company) and other rubber-technical products, sports goods, cosmetics. Free Zone "Subotica" specializes in the production of power equipment (Concern "Siemens"), components for automotive industry; the zone "New Garden" specializes in the manufacture of fabrics, threads, clothing, leather goods, metal products, electrical and office equipment, automotive.

Unfortunately, it has to be noted that Ukraine, which has experience in the functioning of SEZ, could not use it to solve socio-economic problems and accelerate development. In October 1992, the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine adopted the Law of Ukraine "On General Principles of the Establishment and Functioning of Special (Free)

Economic Zones". Today Article 401 of the Commercial Code of Ukraine defines a special (free) economic zone as "a part of the territory of Ukraine, which has a special legal regime of economic activity, a special procedure for the application and operation of the legislation of Ukraine."

By granting SEZ the right to "preferential customs, tax, currency, financial and other conditions of entrepreneurship of domestic and foreign investors," the government expected that they would help attract foreign investment, stimulate the development of separate territories and export goods and services, attract new technologies and accelerate socio-economic development of the entire country.

In 1992-2005, 12 SEZs were created in Ukraine, but from the late 1990s only UAH 1.2 billion of foreign direct investment was attracted. Most of the SEZs were created either to promote the development of tourism and recreational activities, or import-export operations, facilitating the transit of goods through Ukrainian territory. Only three SEZs (Donetsk, Azov and Kharkiv) were created to support industry development. In 2008-2009, "special economic zones" as an economic phenomenon completely discredited themselves in Ukraine, as they were associated with tax privileges, which resulted in significant losses in budget revenues, along with corruption and false entrepreneurial activity. With the adoption of the Tax Code for Ukraine in 2010 tax breaks previously applied to economic entities in SEZ were actually abolished.

Today, enterprises that operate within SEZs work according to the general rules of taxation and do not have any privileges or preferences from the state. Thus, the creation of SEZs as an investment policy tool has failed. And while other countries successfully use it and create new SEZs, Ukrainian analysts calculate losses from their long-term functioning in our country.

Consequently, the losses of the budget from the creation of most SEZs considerably exceed the tax benefits SEZs received. SEZs in Ukraine had neither a positive economic nor social effect. Only the SEZ and the territory of priority development, created in the Donetsk region, caused direct losses of the budget in the amount of UAH 4225.6 billion.

Thus, despite the recognized negative features, SEZ is an effective tool for attracting investment and solving a number of problems in the economies of the countries. Foreign experience shows that there are no two identical SEZs in the world - each one is unique. In order to ensure the success of SEZ granting preferences to potential investors is a necessary but not sufficient condition. The creation of a SEZ requires the investment of significant funds in the construction of local infrastructure. Corruption, distrust in the judiciary, unpredictable exchange rate and currency regulation, instability of the financial system in the state as a whole are a significant barrier to doing business. So the most attractive tax and other preferences introduced in a SEZ cannot change the situation.

The successful SEZ experience in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, first of all in Poland, as well as the experience of adapting their rules to European standards can be useful for Ukraine. Ukraine should understand the reasons of failure of domestic SEZs, draw conclusions, clearly distinguish between objective and subjective (first of all, political and corruption) factors and develop efficient mechanisms for the creation of SEZs.

Юлія Башинська
молодший науковий співробітник
ДУ «Інститут регіональних досліджень
імені М.І.Долішнього» НАН України
м. Львів, Україна
e-mail: yu.bashynska@ukr.net

ВИРІШЕННЯ ПРОБЛЕМ СТАЛОГО РОЗВИТКУ ГІРСЬКИХ ТЕРИТОРІЙ НА ПРИКЛАДІ АЛЬП

Mountainous area is composed of territories with contrasted demographic, social and economic trends and a great cultural and linguistic diversity. This diversity goes along with a great variety of governance systems and traditions. Both the common specificities of mountainous area and its variety and diversity call for cooperation. An Alpine macro-regional strategy provides an opportunity to improve cooperation in the Alpine States as well as identifying common goals and implementing them more effectively through transnational collaboration.

Гірські території характеризуються низкою проблем у соціально-економічній сфері, пов'язаних з природно-ландшафтними особливостями та системами управління, тому важливим є пошук альтернативних та інноваційних рішень для сталого розвитку таких місцевостей. Альпійський регіон є прикладом успішного стратегічного планування вирішення соціальних, економічних, екологічних, рекреаційних та ін. проблем сталого розвитку гірських територій.

Альпійський регіон є унікальною територією, яка має великий потенціал для розвитку, але стикається з сучасними проблемами, такими як:

економічна глобалізація, яка вимагає, щоб територія відрізнялася як конкурентоспроможна та новаторська, розвиваючи науку та інформаційне суспільство;

демографічні тенденції, що характеризуються, зокрема, спільними наслідками старіння та нових моделей міграції;

зміни клімату та їх негативного впливу на навколишнє середовище, біорізноманіття та умови життя її мешканців;

енергетичний виклик у європейському та світовому масштабах, який полягає у виробництві та забезпеченні енергією на засадах надійності, доступності та безпеки;

специфічне географічне положення в Європі транзитного регіону, а також як територія з унікальними географічними і природними особливостями, які потребують провадження ефективної політики сталого розвитку [2].

Головним завданням для Альпійського регіону є збалансованість розвитку та захисту шляхом використання новаторських підходів, які зміцнюють цю територію, розташовану в центрі Європи, як життєвий простір для людей та природи, а також поле для економічної та соціальної діяльності.

Підвищення привабливості та конкурентоспроможності Альпійського регіону, а також зменшення соціальних та територіальних диспропорцій для ефективного, сталого і всеохплюючого зростання регіону - це індивідуальний внесок у зростання регіону відповідно до цілей Стратегії ЄС-2020.

Цілі та завдання соціально-економічного розвитку Альпійського регіону окреслені в Альпійській макрорегіональній стратегії. Ця Стратегія поширюється на 7 країн, з яких 5 країн-членів ЄС (Австрія, Франція, Німеччина, Італія та Словенія) і 2 країни, що не є членами ЄС (Ліхтенштейн та Швейцарія) та 48 регіонів [1].

З метою підвищення економічного потенціалу Альпійського регіону, дійові групи Стратегії працюють над виявленням ключових альпійських економічних секторів, які мають найбільші переваги на макрорегіональному рівні для зміцнення економічного та соціального середовища.

Основні завдання:

• Створити умови для налагодження контактів та співпраці підприємств різних галузей.

• Подолати розрив між різними політиками та заходами, щоб стимулювати трансформацію промислової структури на створення нових робочих місць та економічне зростання.

• Краще використовувати кластерні ініціативи.

• Забезпечити справедливий доступ до робочих місць, спираючись на високу конкурентоспроможність регіону.

• Сприяти та заохотити розробку та реалізацію конкретних проектів у стратегічних секторах Альпійського регіону.

Визначено три тематичні пріоритети для розвитку:

біоекономіка,

деревина з Альпійського регіону,

оздоровчий туризм [2].

Що стосується соціальних проблем, то на гірських територіях найбільш гостро постає проблема зайнятості населення. У демографічній ситуації, в якій надмірне старіння та депопуляція гірських територій є важливими проблемами, залучення молоді до ринку праці є основною темою. Європейські країни з низьким рівнем безробіття серед молоді, як правило, є країнами, які прийняли активну політику ринку праці, а також форму подвійного професійного навчання як основи своєї економічної системи. Система подвійного професійного навчання альпійських країн дуже відрізняється за діями учасників, змістом та структурою. З метою покращення транскордонної співпраці та забезпечення обміну найкращими практиками, довгострокова мета проекту полягає у створенні спільного макрорегіонального освітнього простору, в якому визнаються професійні дипломи (спеціалізація) та відповідні сертифікати.

Важливою перевагою Альпійської макрорегіональної стратегії є комплексний підхід до вирішення актуальних проблем та залучення потенціалу усіх країн-учасниць для підвищення рівня соціально-економічного розвитку регіону. В рамках даної стратегії була налагоджена тісна співпраця між країнами Альпійського регіону, реалізовується низка проектів, які мають на меті полегшити доступність населення до громадських послуг (транспорт, освіта, охорона здоров’я та ін.). При цьому, акцент робиться на розвитку місцевого підприємництва, використанню локальних ресурсів на засадах сталого розвитку.

Досвід Альпійського регіону є цінним у розв’язанні соціально-економічних й екологічних проблем для України. Частина її державних кордонів проходить через гірські масиви Карпатських гір і таким чином має спільні особливості розвитку гірських територій з сусідніми країнами ЄС. Розвиток рушійних сил Карпатського регіону повинен базуватися на раціональному використанні наявного та майбутнього соціально-демографічного потенціалу, активізації діяльності суб’єктів праці в різних сферах суспільного життя [3, 34].

Гірські території України мають ще глибші соціально-економічні проблеми, ніж Альпійські країни, тому їх необхідно вирішувати за участю усіх зацікавлених сторін як на регіональному, національному рівні, так і на транскордонному.

Список використаних джерел

1. Учасники Стратегії Європейського Союзу для Альпійських регіонів [Електронний ресурс] // Офіційний сайт Стратегії Європейського Союзу для Альпійських регіонів. – Режим доступу: https://www.alpine-region.eu/node/22

2. Дійова група № 2 Стратегії Європейського Союзу для Альпійських регіонів [Електронний ресурс] // Офіційний сайт Стратегії Європейського Союзу для Альпійських регіонів. – Режим доступу: https://www.alpine-region.eu/action-group-2

3. Карпатський регіон: актуальні проблеми та перспективи розвитку : монографія : у 8 т. / НАН України. ІРД ; наук ред. В.С.Кравців. – Львів, 2013. – Т. 2. Соціально-демографічний потенціал / відп. ред. У.Я. Садова. – 2013. – 456 с. – (Серія: Проблеми регіонального розвитку).

Секція 2

СОЦІАЛЬНІ ТА ЕКОЛОГІЧНІ ПРОБЛЕМИ ЗОВНІШНЬОЇ ТОРГІВЛІ

Session 2

SOCIAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN TRADE

Anna Dąbrowska
Mirosława Janoś-Kresło
Szkoła Główna Handlowa w Warszawie

SINGLES AS A CHALLENGE FOR CONTEMPORARY MARKETING

Abstract

Singles, particularly young, are the market segment which attracts more and more attention of the entities offering goods and services destined only for them. The aim of this article was to seek for answers to the questions concerning evaluation of the service offer for singles. It is assumed that singles are persons aged 25-45 with higher education, setting up a single person household, residents of big towns and cities, financially independent. The author made use of the selected findings of an empirical research carried out in 2017 among metropolitan singles (N=501). In the opinion of the interviewees, the offer of tourist services is adjusted to the lowest degree, compared to the cultural and catering offer, to the expectations of singles.

Introduction

Population surveys in various countries, including Poland, show a growing number of people who live as singles and form a single person household. Also in the Polish language, customarily those people are named by the term originating from English, singiel (singular, masc.), singielka (singular, fem.), and single (plural).

Though singles have been in recent years more often the subject of surveys, there is lack in the literature the definition which would have unambiguously indicated the group of individuals referring to. The literature overview indicates that the term ‘singles’ is referred to individuals of different age, with a different level of education or social status; therefore, it is a highly diversified group. As A. Żurek writes, “While adopting a wide definition of singles, one must remember that within this social category one may distinguish several subcategories connected, for instance, with age, professional activity, local milieu or even gender” .

Very often the subject of research is young individuals, well educated, financially independent, and living in big urban agglomerations. This segment of consumers is attractive not only for researchers but also marketers. In the opinion of the authors of the report Wielkomiejski singiel [The Metropolitan Single], singles are ideal consumers – not only they have thick wallets but also they like shopping, they more often buy more expensive, branded goods, they spend much on cosmetics and personal care products. Moreover, they like travelling abroad, though they are also fond of week-end trips .

For the purposes of the research project Zachowania singli na rynku dóbr i usług – uwarunkowania, tendencje zmian [Singles' Behaviour in the Market for Goods and Services. Conditions and Tendencies for Changes] there was carried out in 2017 an empirical research survey where it was assumed that singles were individuals aged 25-45, with higher education, living in big towns and cities (Warsaw, Wroclaw, Krakow, Poznan, and Gdansk), financially independent. The survey was conducted with 501 individuals.

Use of services by singles

Services, their share in the consumption pattern and the role in meeting needs are becoming more and more important. Services allow for an attractive leisure, triggering that leisure, meeting ludic needs related to one's self-development, good health maintenance, etc. Use of services and frequency of that use are connected with one's financial condition; in case of metropolitan singles it is good and often very good. Therefore, we had asked the respondents of their use of the selected services compared to that in the years 2015-2016.

More than 1/5 of singles declare that more often than in the years 2015-2016 they use catering, recreation-sport, and cultural services; they also to a higher degree than previously arrange their tourist trips independently. On the other hand, they more seldom use tourist services organised by travel agencies as well as of educational services (Table 1).

Table 1. Use of services in 2017 compared to that in the years 2015-2016, in %

Specification	Now I use more often	Same as ever - I use as often as in previous years	Now I use more seldom for financial reasons	Now I use more seldom for other reasons	I did not use and I do not use now (no need)
Educational (courses, training)	13	34	14	16	23

Specification	Now I use more often	Same as ever - I use as often as in previous years	Now I use more seldom for financial reasons	Now I use more seldom for other reasons	I did not use and I do not use now (no need)
Private health care	17	44	12	6	22
Cultural (theatre, cinema, concerts)	21	47	15	13	5
Catering (restaurants, pubs)	29	45	14	9	4
Domestic help (housekeeping, cleaning, laundry, window cleaning, etc.)	6	18	5	4	66
Tourist, organised by travel agencies	10	25	13	17	36
Tourist, organised completely on one's own	23	44	11	11	11
Hotel	18	40	12	13	18
Recreation and sports (e.g. swimming pool, tennis, gym)	22	36	12	15	15
Insurance (life, property, individual insurance)	13	49	9	6	23

Source: own research, 2017

The respondents ordered/used also e-services. For this purpose they used multimedia devices such as a laptop/computer, whereas a smartphone/tablet attracted minor interest. The most often ordered services via Internet were hotel, tourist, and cultural services. It is worthwhile to add that the facilities rendering these services have as a rule effectively operating websites where booking/purchasing is no problem.

The interviewed singles are generally satisfied with the use of services. The highest level of satisfaction is observed in case of the services connected with independently arranged tourism (75% of respondents indicated the answer Very satisfied or Rather satisfied, of which 1/3 were indications of the answer Very satisfied). We may assume that the choice of the visited places or the form of journey is satisfaction of one's desires and self-actualisation. The interviewees were also satisfied with cultural services (similarly: 73% and 23%). The lowest level of satisfaction was noted in case of the services related to domestic help (similarly: 9% and 33%), and insurance services (similarly: 7% and 40%). The greatest per cent of dissatisfied singles is in the group of those who use private health care (14%, of which 10% are Rather dissatisfied, 4% - Very dissatisfied); in the remaining types of services, negative indications do not exceed 10% of those who avail themselves of those services.

Service offer – singles' expectations

Interesting were the responses related to adjustment of the offer of the selected services: cultural, catering, and tourist to singles' expectations. Taking into account only the responses Yes and No, the highest per cent of positive answers was obtained by the offer of cultural services, the lowest – tourist services. It is proper to pay attention to the per cent of undecided respondents. Every fourth interviewee does not utter his or her opinion on the adjustment of the cultural offer to the singles' needs and expectations and every third has difficulty with evaluation of the tourist offer (Figure 1).

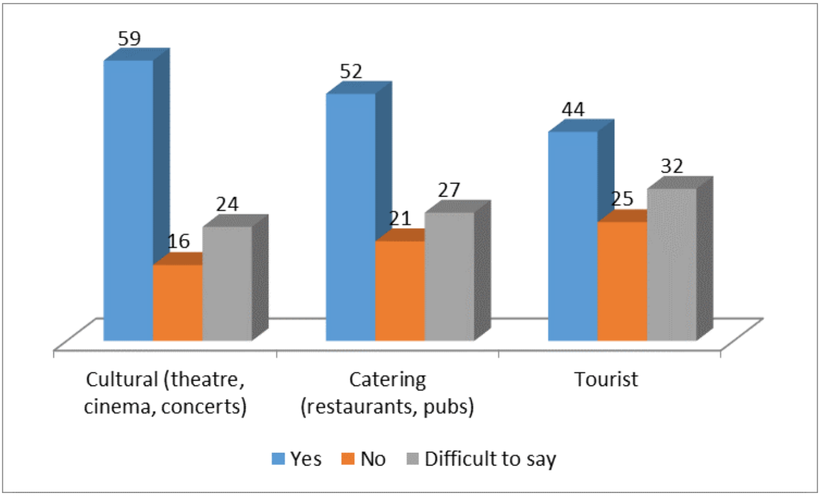
The respondents, who answered that particular offers were unadjusted to their needs, indicated primarily the following:

- as regards cultural services: lack of promotions and discounts, arguing it with an additionally frequent occurrence of promotions for couples and families; too high prices of isolated services (tickets, entries, ticket booklets); lack of a special offer;

- as regards catering services: lack of single tables, lack of promotions and discounts for singles, too large portions;

- as regards tourist services: lack of single rooms and the obligation to pay a surcharge to the single room; lack of promotions and discounts; lack of a special offer

Figure 1. Services adjustment to singles' needs



Source: own research, 2017.

.

In the opinion of every third interviewed single, the offer of goods and services addressed to this group of consumers has changed positively - now there are more offers addressed to singles. Every twelfth interviewees is of the opposite opinion – 8% of them allege that now the offer for singles is inferior and every fourth respondent (26%) does not notice changes.

Summary

The young, educated and well off, living alone, i.e. singles are an attractive segment of the market. They lead an active mode of life, they have time for fulfilment of their interests, more frequently use culture services, go to eating places, travel.

Only every fourth respondent has encountered the offer dedicated to singles – the same percentage of them allege that the offer is insufficient, despite the fact that every third person of them thinks it has recently increased. More than one half of respondents believe there should be organised cultural event only for singles and the tourist offer should be more diversified and cheaper and destined only for this group of consumers. The tourist services are the area which in the first instance should be subjected to modifications to better respond to the needs of singles.

Singles – this is still a challenge for the contemporary marketing as they wait for the offer which will be better matched to their expectations.

References

1. Dąbrowska, A., Janoś-Kresło, M., Single jako konsumenci usług rynkowych ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem usług turystycznych, ”Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Szczecińskiego. Problemy Zarządzania, Finansów i Marketingu”, 2011, No. 22.

2. Dąbrowska, A., Konsument na rynku usług, IBRKK, Warszawa 2013.

3. Lubelska, K., Pojedynczo, ”Polityka” 21.10. 2006, www.archiwumpolityka.pl

4. Zachowania singli na rynku dóbr i usług – uwarunkowania, tendencje zmian. Raport z badania, Zakład Badań Zachowań Konsumentów w Instytucie Zarządzania SGH, Warszawa sierpień 2017.

5. Żurek, A., Single - kategoria społeczna i styl życia, ”Acta Universitatis Lodziensis” Folia Sociologica 51, 2014.

Світлана Писаренко
професор кафедри міжнародних економічних відносин Львівського національного університету імені Івана Франка
email: prosvetka0@gmail.com

ЕКОЛОГІЧНА СКЛАДОВА ЗОНИ ВІЛЬНОЇ ТОРГІВЛІ УКРАЇНА – ЄС

Угода про асоціацію між Європейським Союзом (ЄС) і Україною – це комплексний договір, який охоплює політичні та економічні відносини України з ЄС. Торговельна частина Угоди передбачає створення Поглибленої і Всеохоплюючої зони вільної торгівлі (ПВЗВТ).

В Угоді про ПВЗВТ визначено 15 основних напрямів співпраці,серед яких важливе місце відводиться не тільки питанням зовнішньої торгівлі України з ЄС, але й екологічним її аспектам [1].

Починаючи з 1973 року в процесі європейської інтеграції були сформовані основні цілі, принципи екологічної політики , механізми її реалізації, а також екологічний вимір торговельних угод.

Договір про заснування ЄС визначив мету та завдання щодо необхідного дотримання стану пріоритетних сфер навколишнього середовища, який повинен був базуватися на взаємній підтримці торгівельної і екологічної політики та заходах її забезпечення. З часу підписання Маастрихтського договору ЄС поступово перетворився в «екологічний союз».

В ЄС були визначені конкретні пріоритетні дії, направлені на інтеграцію вимог до зовнішньої політики ЄС щодо захисту навколишнього середовища, включаючи торгівлю і співробітництво; досягнення взаємної підтримки між торгівлею та охороною навколишнього середовища;забезпечення екологічної складової в оцінках впливу багатосторонніх торгівельних угод на екологічний розвиток [2].

В Угоді про асоціацію між Україною та ЄС (глава 6 статті 360; стаття 363) чітко прослідковується інтеграція розвитку зовнішньої торгівлі і вирішення екологічних питань[1].

Найбільшими проблемами у міжнародній торгівлі протягом усього часу переговорів про створення зони вільної торгівлі між Україною та ЄС вважалися нетарифні бар`єри (технічні стандарти, пов`язані з випробуванням і сертифікацією, якістю продукції, безпекою споживача) .

Це було визначено тим, що в більшості галузей національної економіки Україні спостерігається невідповідність санітарних та фітосанітарних стандартів відповідним стандартам ЄС. Наприклад, показник невідповідності стандартів, пов`язаних з охороною довкілля, в окремих галузях коливався від 32 до 50 % (Табл.1).

Таблиця 1. Співвідношення стандартів охорони довкілля з існуючим її станом в галузях національної економіки України [3]

Галузь економіки	Невідповідність українських стандартів стандартам ЄС		Невідповідність продукції технічним вимогам, розробленим на основі директив ЄС
	пов`язаних з охороною довкілля,%	санітарним і фіто санітарним,%	
АПК	34,0	16,5	44,7
Харчова промисловість	50,6	49,8	31,9
Легка промисловість	32,1	24.0	38,3
Хімічна промисловість	42,2	13,8	32,8
Машинобудування	38,4	10,3	62,5
Металургія	34.0	16,5	44,7

Недостатня відповідність продукції експортерів України гармонізованим екологічним, санітарним, фіто-санітарним стандартам ЄС, а також відсутність сертифікатів на продукцію,що реалізується,є перешкодою розширення зони вільної торгівлі Україна – ЄС.

У теперішній час українські компанії-експортери при відповідності їх продукції стандартам ЄС можуть отримати європейські сертифікати, звернувшись до лабораторій країн – членів ЄС.

Важливим елементом Угоди про асоціацію УКкраїни та ЄС у контексті створення ВПЗВТ є положення про співпрацю у сфері охорони довкілля - поступове наближення законодавства України до політики та законодавства ЄС. Окремим додатком до Угоди визначаються відповідні конкретні директиви, а також встановлюються часові рамки їх адаптації.

Це пов’язано з тим, що більшість країн-членів ЄС, на підставі європейського екологічного права, вводять спеціальні технічні стандарти та екологічне маркування товарів, які підтверджує їх екологічну чистоту. Для України такі нетарифні бар`єри створюють реальну перешкоду для розвитку експорту товарів. Їх дотримання вимагає високих технологічних стандартів умов виробництва та необхідність використання екологічно-чистої сировини, що призводить до високої собівартості експортної продукції, впливаючи на її конкурентоспроможність[4].

У зв’язку з цим Україна поступово буде впроваджувати Європейські стандарти (EN) як національні стандарти. Перші кроки в напряму адаптації у сфері охорони довкілля були зроблені в грудні 2012 року, коли Міністерство природи затвердило Базовий план адаптації екологічного законодавства України до законодавства ЄС (Базовий план апроксимації) (Наказ № 659). який передбачає перелік директив ЄС у сфері охорони довкілля, до яких повинно адаптуватися українське законодавство [1].

Необхідно також наближення законодавства України та ЄС на основі прийняття відповідного національного законодавства та визначення уповноваженого органів. Це відноситься також і до законодавчих актів ЄС про генетично модифікованих організмів(ГМО) і відповідного acquis ЄС, що стосуються ГМО, а також забезпечення відповідності продуктів, розміщених на ринку, встановленим вимогам маркування та пакування [1,с. 21].

Угодою передбачається імплементації Регламенту Ради (ЄС) про органічне виробництво та маркування органічної продукції і забезпечення її контролю, умови імпорту органічних продуктів з третіх країн , а також співробітництво щодо захисту споживачів (Регламент про співробітництво щодо захисту споживачів).

Забезпечення імпорту продуктів тваринного походження вимагає попереднього схвалення переліку переробних підприємств, який подається країною – експортером з відповідною супровідною документацією.

Директиви відносно промислових викидів (всеохоплююче запобігання і контроль забруднень), прийняття національного законодавства та визначення уповноважених органів мають бути впроваджені Україною протягом 2 років з дати набрання чинності Угоди.

Україна також зобов'язується наблизити своє законодавство щодо санітарних та фітосанітарних норм та утримання тварин до норм та стандартів законодавства ЄС. Для проведення контролю за дотримання відповідних норм та стандартів буде створений підкомітет, який стане майданчиком для розв'язання проблем у цій сфері.

Україна також повинна приєднатися до регламентів ЄС , їх імплементації про: органічне фермерство; органічне виробництво, маркування та контролю органічної продукції; про умови імпорту органічних продуктів з третіх країн; принципи розвитку національних стратегій та застосування найкращих практик вирощування генетично модифікованих зернових задля забезпечення їх співіснування з зерновими традиційного і органічного виробництва.

Україна повинна також приєднатися до програми ЄС щодо збереження, збору та використання генетичних ресурсів у сільському господарстві; стандартів торгівлі рослинами, насінням рослин, продуктами, отриманими з рослин, фруктами та овочами; встановлення максимального рівня ерукової кислоти в рослинних маслах та жирах, призначених для споживання в їжу, та в харчових продуктах, які містять добавки масла та жирів. стандартів торгівлі живими тваринами та продуктами тваринництва.

Україна поступово повинна досягати відповідності з технічними регламентами ЄС та його системами стандартизації, метрології, акредитації, робіт з оцінки відповідності та ринкового нагляду. Вона зобов'язується дотримуватися принципів та практик, викладених у рішеннях та регламентах ЄС.

Таким чином, для підвищення якості, конкурентоспроможності продукції України, формування її позитивного іміджу на світових ринках значна увага повинна приділятися екологізації зовнішньої торгівлі, визначенню шляхів гармонізації українських стандартів та норм відповідних стандартів і норм, діючих в ЄС, засобам скорочення наявних нетарифних бар`єрів у торгівлі між Україною і країнами- членами ЄС.

Майбутня імплементація Угоди про оцінку відповідності торгівлі екологічним стандартам ЄС забезпечать торгівлю між Україною та ЄС на таких самих умовах, як і між країнами - членами ЄС.

Список використаних джерел

1. Офіційний сайт Верховної Ради України [Електронний ресурс] / Угода про асоціацію між Україною, з однієї сторони, та Європейським Союзом, Європейським співтовариством з атомної енергії і їхніми державами-членами, з іншої сторони від 27.06.2014 – Режим доступу: http:// rada.gov.ua.

2. Микієвич М.М. Європейське право навколишнього середовища : Навчальний посібник / М. М. Микієвич, Н. І. Андрусевич, Т. О. Будякова ; Львівський нац. ун-т ім. І. Франка . – Львів : Екоправо, 2004 . – 255 с.

3. Вплив створення зони вільної торгівлі з ЄС на економіку України. Аналітичне дослідження/ Міжнародний центр перспективних досліджень – Київ, 2013. – 197 с.

4. М. Емерсон, В.Мовчан, Поглиблення відносин між ЄС та Україною. – К. – 2016, Центр європейських політичних досліджень та політичних консультацій. – 255с.

Alina Bokhan
PhD in Economics, Associate professor
Department of International Economics
Kyiv National University of Trade and Economics

DIPLOMATIC RESOURCES AND POTENTIAL «SOFT POWER»

In the context of global economic transformations, the world development policy and strategy is changing. The influence of new factors on market relations, entrepreneurial actions, public opinion and cultural ties in the world is growing. But environmental problems change their manifestation format through: risks, threats, safety, resources, capital, opportunities [1]. The role of diplomacy in the development of strategic, partner and business relations between countries is changing.

Very volatile geopolitical changes combine with the established trends of power devolution and the digital revolution, the accelerated global rebalancing underway means that governments and diplomats will need the full spectrum of foreign policy tools operating at peak performance. The necessity to strengthen the international ecological responsibility is very complicated process, as while supporting the ecological initiatives at the international level, countries may endanger the existence of the natural reserves of the highest level of protection if it is at the national or regional levels. Interregional competition for obtaining the ecological resources infringes the interests of both neighbor countries and investors, who can represent the interests of the third party.

The scientific research on these problems will be likely to concentrate on the revealing of the competitive interactions specificity and their potential in the sphere of the spatial economy ecologization, the nature rational management. Thus, the international character of the world economy of environmental management requires the marketing environment diplomacy process, where the economic relations: between manufacturers and consumers (have to be oriented at the ecological self-regulation); among competitors (at the efforts consolidation for the ecologically-safe and resources balance) [2].

Within diversifying scenarios of partnership development, eco-diplomacy – some very important environmental problems which transgress our national boundaries, require international environmental cooperation; assisting the countries' scientific and technical potential development in providing them with ecological competitiveness at the world markets.

Just because the report and analysis of 2017 Soft Power 30 index provides new insights into both the current global balance of soft power resources, and practical considerations for how to best develop and use those resources. «The 2017 Soft Power 30» – focus from the theoretical debates around soft power and digital diplomacy, exploring the practical issues associated with both. These are the contributions from experts and practitioners around the world to give a set of global perspectives on the current state of soft power and a look at trends in different regions. The report includes practical issues with two new chapters: one featuring case studies based on non-state actors, and another focused on supporting practitioners working in public and digital diplomacy.

This research project allows to compare the set of 30 countries according to their soft power assets. The results do not provide a ranking of overall global influence, but rather captures the potential for influence. The objective data is drawn from a range of different sources and is structured into six categories, with each category functioning as a sub-index with an individual score. The six sub-indices are: government, culture, global engagement, education, digital, and enterprise. Figure 1 below illustrates the six sub-indices that constitute The Soft Power 30 index. The Government sub-index is designed to assess a state's political values, public institutions, and major public policy outcomes. By including measures like individual freedom, human development, violence in society, and government effectiveness, the Government sub-index gauges the extent to which a country has an attractive model of governance and whether it can deliver broadly positive outcomes for its citizens. Potential partners for international collaboration are more likely to be drawn to states with well-functioning systems of government [3].

When a country's culture promotes universal values that other nations can readily identify with, it makes them naturally attractive to others. The reach and volume of cultural output is important in building soft power, but mass production does not necessarily lead to mass influence. The Global Engagement sub-index aims to measure a country's diplomatic resources, global footprint, and contribution to the international community. Essentially it captures the ability of states to engage with international audiences, drive collaboration, and ultimately shape global outcomes. The Global Engagement sub-index includes metrics such as the number of embassies/high commissions a country has abroad, membership in multilateral organizations, and overseas development aid [3].

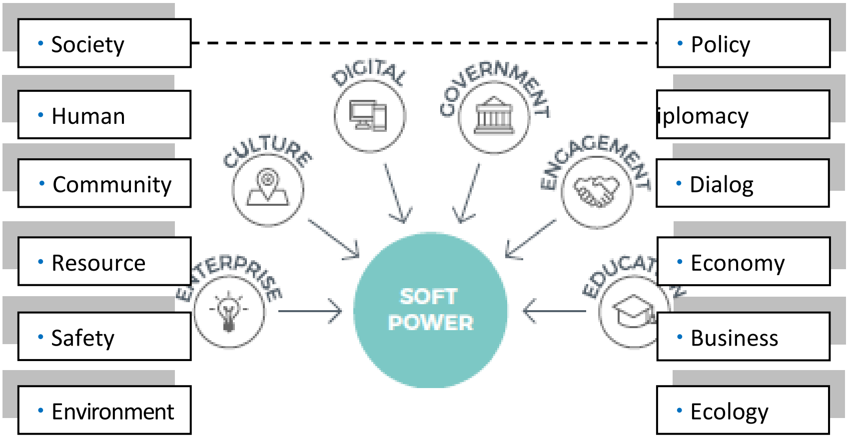


Figure 1. Elements of eco-diplomacy in «soft power»

The diplomatic resource includes innovative, informational, communication and other progressive elements in the development of international relations.

Diplomatic initiatives should promote the broad participation of all social groups in decision-making and the implementation of ecological transformations. For «green growth» to really fulfill its promise, it also needs to focus on eco-prosperity.

References

1. Mazaraki A. (2010) Economic security of Ukraine in conditions of globalization challenges. KNTEU 718 p.
2. Bokhan A. (2016) Consolidating diplomacy in ecologization of competitive relations. Herald KNTEU. vol. 6. pp. 5-16.
3. Global Ranking of Soft Power 2017. – Portland. USCC Center on Public Diplomacy. – URL: www.softpower30.com

Sofiya Cherepanych
PhD student
Faculty of International Relations
Ivan Franko Lviv National University

EXPORT CREDIT AGENCIES AND THEIR ROLE IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF FOREIGN TRADE ACTIVITY

Taking into accountthe current trends in the development of international relations,characterized by the expansion of foreign trade relations and the increase in foreign trade turnover, foreign trade is a significant factor in the country's economic growth. However, at the same time, countries face threats and risks.

World experience shows that through export credit agencies, as an institutional mechanism for the financial support for exports, it is possible to provide a system for risk reduction, guarantee, crediting and insurance of export operations,as well as to ensureexport development.

At present, export credit agencies function in more than 70 countries of the world as the most effective tool to support and stimulate exports and are separate insurance agencies, banks or departments of ministries implementing public policiesto support export by insuring export political and commercial risks and offering guarantees for the purpose of providing competitive conditions for the promotion of products/services of their companies into international markets,as well as stimulate and ensure investment guarantees abroad [3].

According to world experience, ECAs can operate under two schemes: 1) a loan is provided to a domestic bank to finance a target contract of a domestic exporter; 2) a foreign bank creditor provides a direct loan to a domestic exporter under the guarantees of a domestic bank.

The choice of a particular scheme depends on either the bank or the exporting company generates more confidence in the bank and the ECA.

The purpose of export credit agencies is to eliminate or reduce the risks of export credits, create new jobs, counteract bankruptcy of enterprises, increase the competitiveness of domestic enterprises on the international market, raise investment attractiveness, support international trade, develop modern financial instruments in foreign trade and mechanisms for state support of export.

The functioning of export credit agencies is an indispensable financial mechanism that promotes national export development and protects the interests of domestic and foreign participants in foreign economic transactions. According to experts, in developed countries, an average of 0.35% of GDP is spent on financial support for exports [1].

The four basic functions of ECAs are as follows: redistributive, compensatory, risk, informational (Table 1).

Table 1

Functions of Export Credit Agencies

Redistributive	Compensatory	Risk	Informational
Offering credits to subjects of foreign economic activity	Providing partial compensation of interest on the loan to the exporter	It appears while insuring export credits through compensation of losses to subjects of foreign economic activity when taking risks	Providing information and consulting services to subjects of foreign economic activity

Source: based on [1].

Instruments that support the export of ECAs include: crediting foreign trade operations, providing state guarantees for export credits, insuring export credits and agreements against risks, offering organizational and information-analytical support.

Attracting export financing through ECAs is beneficial, and the main advantages of such financing are the following:

1) Low interest rates. As a rule, the lending interest rates of ECAs are much lower than the ones of commercial banks;

2) Export credit agencies help importers circumvent the restrictions that exist on the national markets of private crediting and financing;

3) Exporters, in their turn, receive payment for products with no delays, which positively affects their turnover capital;

4) ECAs fund any type of export, even the one that is difficult to get finance for from private financial institutions;

5) Reputation risks are reduced.

The attraction of funding through ECAs facilitates export-import trade relations for both the seller of the product and the buyer [2].

Credit agencies around the world have common economic and financial goals. The list of basic economic goals includes: developing exports of goods and services in the private sector; supporting export financing regardless of the size and destination; complementing, rather than competing with commercial banks; improving trade balance and increasing employment; promoting product diversification and external markets for operators that have started exporting; improving the skills and qualifications of exporters in the field of credit risk management for foreign buyers; improving the knowledge base on export credits in banks; encouraging domestic insurance companies to cooperate; supporting domestic economy exports [4].

In the context of globalization and integration, export credit agencies play an increasingly important role in enhancing the state's economic potential. Firstly, these agencies are an effective tool in supporting exports, which is important for the development of the national economy. Secondly, they ensure comprehensive coverage of foreign economic risks. With regard to Ukraine, as a state with an export-oriented market economy, the presence of this institution will create the basis for increasing the competitiveness of Ukrainian products on world markets, allow to improve the production capacity of national enterprises, bring institutional and organizational aspects of foreign trade activity to world standards, and play a significant role in raising the confidence of foreign businesses and investors in Ukrainian companies.

References

1. Volosovych S Export-credit agencies as an institution of development / Volosovych // Foreign Trade: Economics, Finance, Law. - 2017. - No. 4.- p. 98-107

2. Lomiichyk V. Export-credit agencies. Why are they important for Ukraine [Electronic resource] / V. Lomiichuk // Access mode: http://www.eurointegration.com.ua/experts/2015/04/21/ 7033079 /

3. Sydyachenko V. Implementation of financial instruments for export development in Ukraine taking into account the experience of the Polish Export

Lending Insurance Corporation [Electronic resource]. - Access mode: http://www.tpp.lviv.net/zek/Numbers/1_2002/Sydiachenko.htm

4. DorożyńskiT., DorożyńskaA. The growth and role of export credit agencies in export support \T. Dorożyński, A. Dorożyńska \\ International Business and Global Economy 2016.- № 35/2.-pp. 147–161

Lyudmyla Chernyaha
PhD, Associate Professor
International Economic Relations
Ivan Franko National
University of Lviv

BENEFITS AND SHORTCOMINGS OF THE DEEP AND COMPREHENSIVE FREE TRADE AREA WITH EU

The Association Agreement and the DCFTA are a complex element of international politics covering a wide range of areas related to trade, institutional regulation, labour market, infrastructure and other aspects of the economy, which is a special topic for assessing the impact, both direct and indirect [3].

As of today, the EU has established economic and political ties with more than 30 countries and political associations of nations of the world. An Association Agreement belongs to the group of external agreements concluded by the EU together with all EU Member States (EU's shared external competence), according to Art. 217 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the EU.

Specific features of an Association Agreement:

1) mutual rights and obligations,
2) joint actions and special procedures,
3) special relations between the EU and a third country,
4) participation of a third country in the EU system,

The signing of an association agreement does not provide for automatic membership of the EU [2].

The Association Agreement was signed in two stages: the first in March 2014 – the political provisions, in June 2016 – the economic ones. The AA's distinctive feature is that it comes into effect in several stages. The first stage started in March 2014, when the provisions of the agreement on political cooperation were signed and entered into force. The second stage was launched on 1 November 2014, when the provisional application of the AA began. The third stage (1 January 2016) is characterized by the introduction of economic provisions and regulations in a deep and comprehensive free trade area.

The importance of the AA for the development of the Ukrainian economy is that the AA becomes a strategic document for the development of the state. It contains a list of systemic reforms that the government should implement to meet European standards.

The Association Agreement consists of a preamble, seven titles, annexes and protocols (Table 1).

Table 1. The structure of the Association Agreement

The Agreement's provisions	Description
Preamble	Agreement's objectives and scope
Title I. General principles	Here the general principles are described: democratic values, respect for human rights, sovereignty, market economy, fight against corruption
Title II. Political dialogue and reform, political association, cooperation and convergence in the field of foreign and security policy	The deepening of political cooperation in order to promote regional stability and security based on the principles of Title I
Title III. Justice, freedom and security	Cooperation on the issues of border management, migration, crime, corruption, terrorism, etc.
Title IV. Trade and trade-related matters	The implementation of the DCFTA
Title V. Economic and sector cooperation	Cooperation in the fields of energy, economic policy, statistics, infrastructure, business-related issues, agriculture, maritime policy, culture and sport, etc.
Title VI. Financial cooperation, with anti-fraud provisions	Financial assistance from the EU, mechanisms for cooperating with donors
Title VII. Institutional, general and final provisions	Institutional provisions for establishing a dialogue between the EU and Ukrainian politicians at different levels of cooperation
Annexes and protocols	Technical details and specific provisions concerning the stages of trade liberalization and implementation of reforms, monitoring of progress, dispute settlement

The issue of trade, the establishment of the DCFTA in particular, is described in Title IV. Titles V-VII deal with economic cooperation, including: corporate law, corporate governance, accounting and auditing, GMO monitoring, development of the energy sector, transport infrastructure, environment, healthcare and security.

Trade-related aspects: cover the traditional aspects of a free trade agreement with a focus on reducing import and export duties (with some agreed exceptions and transitional periods that are mainly related to agricultural products), adoption of initial practice rules in accordance with the Pan-Euro-Mediterranean Convention.

The "deep" aspects of the agreement are focused on eliminating or reducing tariff and non-tariff barriers in bilateral trade. Due to widespread international recognition of EU standards, exports to the EU Member States as well as to other countries of the World are expected to rise. Liberalization of imports will stimulate competition, increase the efficiency of domestic industries, their modernization, lower prices for end users. Introducing more stringent requirements to production concerning food products safety, SPS standards and technical standards will lead to improved quality and safety of products [3].

Approximation of the Ukrainian legislation to EU legislation will help create a more favourable and stable business environment, thereby reducing the cost of doing business and increasing the inflow of FDI. FDI are an important element for expanding the trading sector, which will promote creation of new jobs and stimulate modernization and increase the competitiveness of the national economy. Increasing prosperity and improving the quality of life is, eventually, one of the main issues of the EU's Neighbourhood Policy [3].

The consequences of signing the Ukraine-EU DCFTA agreement are assessed in the short, medium and long-term perspectives. As to the short term perspective, there are implications that could be observed immediately after the signing of the agreement, the medium term – the effects expected after the transition period, and the long-term term – possible outcomes following the transition period (i.e., after 10-15 years, depending on specific articles of the agreement and the speed of its implementation). Most assessments of the effectiveness of the DCFTA are focused on the long-term benefits [5].

Table 2. Benefits of the DCFTA signing

DCFTA		Financial and technical support from the EU		
	Trade-related aspects	Decreasing import tariffs Rules of origin of goods	Reducing the cost of trading operations	Increasing exports
	Deep aspects	Decreasing tariff barriers	Decreasing prices	Increasing imports
	Comprehensive aspects	Approximation of the Ukrainian legislation to EU legislation	Improvement of business climate	

The long-term effects include:

- creation of a global value chain for goods;
- increase in competitiveness and efficiency;
- growth of foreign direct investment;
- reduction of product costs, increased quality and safety as well as diversification of markets;
- growth of production, job creation, productivity increase;
- improvement of welfare and quality of life;
- increasing of tax revenues for the budget.

Specific quantitative results and objectives related to the DCFTA are largely uncertain, while the costs of implementing specific reforms are either not evaluated at all or are not communicated to the public.

The main gain from the establishment of the DCFTA, including from trade liberalization, is expected for light industry, agriculture, food industry, and electrical equipment production. In particular, the calculations of the Institute of Economics and Forecasting show that agricultural production may grow by 40%, and this outcome is mostly not contingent upon Russia's behavior.

Establishing the DCFTA will result in high growth rates of electronic equipment production (an increase of 34.1%). However, this result is very sensitive to changes in the trade regime with Russia. Cancellation of the free trade regime between Ukraine and Russia caused the reduction of production in this sector. It should be noted that, if no serious modernization is carried out, machine manufacturing in general will not benefit from the DCFTA with the EU. This sector has already faced significant competition from imports [5].

The metallurgical sector will also not benefit from liberalization of trade with the EU. This is primarily due to the lack of significant trade barriers for the sector prior to the signing of the agreement since major trade barriers were removed after Ukraine became a WTO member, when the industry was among the important beneficiaries. And correspondingly, the liberalization of trade with the EU creates certain risks for metallurgy, primarily due to increase in the cost of factors of production.

The services sector will receive significant benefits from the DCFTA, especially in such areas as financial activity, telecommunications, real estate transactions, trade, and these benefits will persist even in the event of a rapid deterioration of trade relations with Russia [5].

References

1. Менеджмент європейської економічної інтеграції: підручник / С.М. Писаренко, Н.В. Горін, Л.А. Українець та інш.; за ред.. С.М. Писаренко. – К.: Знання, 2012. – 373 с.
2. Право Європейського Союзу: Підручник / За ред. Р.А.Петрова. – К.: Істина, 2017. – 384с.
3. Amat Adarov, Peter Havlik, Benefits and Costs of DCFTA: Evaluation of the Impact on Georgia, Moldova and Ukraine. - JOINT WORKING PAPER (December 2016, with corrections made in March 2017) by the Vienna Institute for International Economic Studies and Bertelsmann Stiftung. – p.120
4. М. Емерсон, В.Мовчан, Поглиблення відносин між ЄС та Україною. – К. – 2016, Центр європейських політичних досліджень та політичних консультацій. – 255с.
5. Економічна складова Угоди про Асоціацію між Україною та ЄС: наслідки для бізнесу, населення та державного управління. - К.: Інститут економічних досліджень та політичних консультацій, 2013. - 127 с.
6. Що зміниться після підписання Україною Асоціації з ЄС. Інфографіка. – ВолиньPost. – 2014. [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу: http://www.volynpost.com/news/35221-scho-zminytsia-pislia-pidpysannia-ukrainoyu-asociacii-z-ies-infografika

Галина Михайляк
доцент кафедри аналітичної економії
та міжнародної економіки
Львівський національний університет
імені Івана Франка

ПОКАЗНИК ЧИСТОГО ЕКСПОРТУ В ЕКОНОМІЦІ УКРАЇНИ

Зовнішня торгівля є найважливішою складовою міжнародної економічної діяльності для будь-якої країни. Аналіз її показників дає змогу вивчати тенденції її динаміки та структурні зміни. Показником, який відображає результати торгівлі країни товарами і послугами з іншими країнами є чистий експорт, який визначається різницею між вартістю вітчизннях товарів та послуг, експортованих в інші країни та вартістю імпортованих товарів та послуг. Саме показник чистого експорту у цій динаміці вказує на необхідність ефективної структурної перебудови у найближчих перспективах. Збільшення обсягу чистого експорту є джерелом економічного зростання, яке передбачає розвиток торговельних відносин з країнами-партнерами, сприяє міжрегіональному та транскордонному співробітництву, підвищення конкурентоспроможності вітчизняної продукції. Економіка України завжди характеризувалася високим рівенем відкритості економіки, який сягнув свого максивального значення у 2003 році і сягнув 65,6% ВВП. Пізніше його рівень поступово знижувався і в 2016р. становить 49%.

Аналіз тенденцій зовнішньої торгівлі країни показує, що експорт товарів і послуг зростав до 2012 року і сягнув максимального значення 82,4 млрд. дол. США, а вже станом на кінець 2016р. зменшився на 37,3 млрд. дол. США, в тому числі до країн ЄС зменшився на 5,1 млрд. дол. США. Значення показника імпорту теж зменшлось у два рази. Загальний обсяг експорту товарів та послуг до країн СНД у 2011р. становив 32,4 млрд. дол. США, а вже до кінця 2016р. становило менше третини зазначеної цифри.

Загальний обсяг імпорту товарів та послуг за період 2007-2013рр. збільшився на 25,8 млрд. дол. США, в тому числі з країн СНД – на 2,9 млрд. дол. США (ця сума ще на 18% є меншою у порівнянні з 2012 роком) та з ЄС – на 6,2 млрд. дол. США. Але у

2016 році імпорт товарів і послуг становив 44,6 млрд. дол. США, що на 16,2 млрд. дол. США менше ніж у 2014р. проте на 3,6% більше ніж у 2015р. Протягом 2014-2016рр.. вдвічі скоротився обсяг імпорту з країн СНД, натомість імпорт з Євросоюзу скоротився на 19,2%.

Негативне сальдо зовнішньої торгівлі зберігало свою тенденцію протягом 2007-2013 років і становило 8,5 млрд. дол. США у 2013 році, що на 5,3% менше ніж у 2012р. Протягом трьох наступних аналізованих років спостерігалася позитивна динаміка. У 2015 році показник чистого експорту становив 3,8 млрд. дол. США, що на 12,3% більше ніж у 2014 році, проте вже у 2016 році він знизився на 3,3 млрд. дол. США. Нестабільними були обсяги чистого експорту країн СНД. У 2014р. їх показник становив 449,6 млн. дол. США, у наступному році знизився на 85%, та вже у 2016р. зріс до 515,3 млн. дол. США. Щодо показника чистого експорту за країнами Євросоюзу, то він зберігає від´ємну тенденцію.

Протягом останніх років змінилась географія експорту та імпорту України. Помітно розширилось коло ділових партнерів України. Багато років пріоритетним напрямком для українського експорту були країни СНД. З 2014 року структура зовнішньоторговельних звязків України змінюється. Вже у 2016р. зовнішньоторговельні операції Україна здійснювала з партнерами із 226 країн світу. Російська агресія призвела до скорочення обсягів експорту та імпорту, внаслідок чого частка країн СНД зменшилася. Почали збільшуватись обсяги зовнішньої торгівлі з країнами ЄС. У 2016р. частка країн ЄС у порівнянні з 2015 р. збільшилась і становила в експорті 35%, в імпорті – 44% (у 2014 р. – 32% та 40% відповідно).

Україна поступово диверсифікує свою географічну структуру торгівлі: частка СНД знижується. У 2010 вона становила, а в 2016 – 21 %. Одночасно протягом останніх чотирьох років знизилася частка Росії з 29 % у 2012р. до 11,6% у 2016р. Відповідно зростають обсяги торгівлі з іншими країнами.

Протягом останніх років основні позиції українського експорту залишились майже незмінними. У структурі товарного експорту у 2016 р. переважали чорні метали – 19,9% від загального обсягу експорту, зернові культури – 16,7%, жири та олії тваринного або рослинного походження – 10,9%, електричні машини – 5,7%, руди, шлак і зола – 5,4%, механічні машини – 4,3% та насіння і плоди олійних рослин – 4,2%.

У структурі імпорту товарів значна частка традиційно припадала на палива мінеральні, нафту і продукти її перегонки – 20,0%. Імпорт механічних машин складав 11,9%, електричних машин – 8,2%, засобів наземного транспорту, крім залізничного – 7,2%, пластмас, полімерних матеріалів – 5,6% та фармацевтичної продукції – 4,1%.

Утворення негативного сальдо зумовлене перевищенням обсягів імпорту над обсягами експорту товарів. На формування від'ємного сальдо вплинули окремі товарні групи: палива мінеральні, нафта і продукти її перегонки –7,4 млрд.дол. США, механічні машини –3,1 млрд.дол. США, засоби наземного транспорту, крім залізничного –2,7 млрд.дол. США, пластмаси, полімерні матеріали – 1,9 млрд.дол. США, фармацевтична продукція –1,4 млрд.дол. США та електричні машини –1,1 млрд.дол. США.

Найбільші надходження серед країн ЄС здійснювались з Німеччини – 11,0% від загального обсягу імпорту Польщі – 6,9% Франції – 3,9% та Італії – 3,5% серед інших країн – з Російської Федерації – 13,1% Китаю – 11,9% Білорусі – 7,1% та США – 4,3%.

Експорт послуг у 2016 р. становив 9,9 млрд.дол. США, а імпорт послуг – 5,3 млрд.дол., і зменшився на 3,6% та на 16,4% відповідно. Позитивне сальдо зовнішньої торгівлі послугами становило 4,6 млрд.дол. США.

Характеризучи динаміку показника чистого експорту можна зауважити, що причинами скорочення обсягів зовнішньої торгівлі є зниження купівельної спроможності населення України, посилення протекціоніських заходів, загостренням військових конфліктів на територіях промислового виробництва, зниження світових цін сировинні товари, несприятливу кон´юнктуру світового ринку, посилення вимог зовнішніх ринків щодо якості вітчизняної продукції, посилення валютного контролю за імпортними операціями та ін.

Список використаних джерел

1. Зовнішня торгівля України товарами та послугами у 2015 році [Електронний ресурс] / Державна служба статистики України. – Режим доступу: www.ukrstat.gov.ua

2. Зовнішня торгівля України товарами та послугами у 2016 році [Електронний ресурс] / Державна служба статистики України. – Режим доступу: www.ukrstat.gov.ua

Ірина Михайляк
доцент кафедри міжнародних
економічних відносин
Львівського національного університету
імені Івана Франка
email: mykhailiak@ukr.net

ТРАНСФОРМАЦІЯ СТРУКТУРИ ЗОВНІШНЬОЇ ТОРГІВЛІ УКРАЇНИ В УМОВАХ ЄВРОПЕЙСЬКОЇ ІНТЕГРАЦІЇ

Європейський напрям є одним із пріоритетів зовнішньої економічної політики України. Із завершенням чергових етапів розширення Європейського Союзу, у результаті якого визначився майбутній розвиток низки країн Центральної і Східної Європи, окреслюються нові тенденції у відносинах України як із "старими" так і з "новими" членами ЄС.

Зміни у структурі зовнішньої торгівлі України внаслідок розширення ЄС є прогнозованими, об'єктивними і неминучими. У стратегічному плані Україна розглядає розширення ЄС як важливий фактор подальшої загальноєвропейської інтеграції, коли з'являються нові, більш широкі можливості всебічного співробітництва.

Приєднання до ЄС нових країн об'єктивно супроводжується суттєвими змінами в його структурі, внутрішніх і зовнішніх механізмах діяльності, зовнішній торгівлі, що значно впливає на світову економіку й політику і, насамперед, на умови розвитку країн – сусідів розширеного ЄС, а саме України. Аналіз показників торговоекономічного співробітництва з ЄС показує, що загальний обсяг співпраці збільшився із останніми розширеннями ЄС, після входження до нього традиційних торговельних партнерів України. За останні роки змінилися і основні торговельні партнери України як в експорті, так і в імпорті товарів.

Одночасно торговельні відносини України з ЄС наштовхуються на низку перепон конкурентного характеру. Поруч із зростанням загальних обсягів зовнішньоекономічних показників з країнами - членами ЄС, що в цілому можна розглядати як позитивну тенденцію, яка відповідає стратегічним намірам України, зберігається несприятлива тенденція переваги імпорту над експортом у торгівлі.

Товарна структура торгівлі ЄС з Україною в цілому відповідає структурі торгівлі ЄС із країнами, що розвиваються. Україна експортує товари з низьким рівнем оброблення, а імпортує машини і технологічне устаткування, промислові товари і харчові продукти. Серед товарних груп різко збільшився імпорт продукції хімічної та пов'язаних з нею галузей промисловості. Обсяг увезених полімерних матеріалів і пластмас майже в п'ять разів перевищує їх експорт. Україна переважно ввозить готові вироби з соломи, вовну (імпорт перевищує експорт у дев'ять разів), а також вироби з каменю, гіпсу, цементу, кераміки, скла, оброблений пух тощо.

Водночас скорочується експорт виробів готової продукції і в інших галузях промисловості, як наприклад електричних машин і устаткування, залізничних і трамвайних локомотивів, шляхового обладнання, плавучих морських і річкових засобів. Значними темпами зростає імпорт виробів мистецтва і товарів, придбаних у портах. Зростають обсяги ввезених виробів з чорних металів, хоча Україна є експортером металу у понад 130 країн світу.

Вагому частку товарної структури українського експорту до країн ЄС складають енергетичні матеріали, нафта та продукти її перероблення – 18,1 %, чорні метали – 15,1 %, електричні машини і устаткування - 6,6 %, прилади і апарати – 6,4 %, механічне обладнання – 5,5 %.

Найбільші обсяги експорту енергетичних матеріалів, нафти та продуктів її перероблення припадають на Італію, Німеччину, Польщу; чорних металів - на Італію, Німеччину, Нідерланди; електричних машини і устаткування - на Литву, Німеччину, Нідерланди; приладів і апаратів – на Німеччину, Литву, Австрію; механічного обладнання - на Німеччину, Іспанію, Угорщину.

Основу товарного імпорту з країн ЄС складають механічне обладнання – 17,8 %, наземні транспортні засоби, крім залізничних – 11,5 %, електричні машини і устаткування – 8,6 %, полімерні матеріали, пластмаси - 6,6 %, папір та картон – 4,8 %.

Найбільші імпортні надходження механічного обладнання здійснювались з Німеччини, Італії, Чеської Республіки; наземних транспортних засобів, крім залізничних - з Німеччини, Польщі, Франції; електричних машин і устаткування - з Німеччини, Швеції, Австрії; полімерних матеріалів, пластмас - з Німеччини, Італії та Польщі; паперу та картону - з Польщі, Фінляндії, Швеції.

Отже, наявність тенденції до імпорту Україною готової продукції, а експорту □ сировини може свідчити про поступове набуття українською промисловістю сировинного характеру.

Експорт послуг України до країн ЄС також збільшився. Найбільшу питому вагу в загальному обсязі українського експорту до країн ЄС займали транспортні послуги (85,4 %), імпорту – транспортні (20,9 %), державні (10,9 %), різні ділові, професійні та технічні (17,6 %), фінансові (10,2 %) послуги. Головними партнерами, на які припадало більше половини обсягу експорту послуг, є – Сполучене Королівство, Німеччина, Словаччина, Угорщина, Кіпр; імпорту послуг – Сполучене Королівство, Німеччина, Австрія, Польща.

Низька конкурентоспроможність вітчизняних товарів не приваблює покупців з розвинутих європейських країн, а це позначається на українському експорті. Однією із несприятливих тенденцій у зовнішньоторговельних зв□язках з ЄС є поступова втрата Україною позицій експортера традиційних товарів, зокрема, харчової промисловості. Збільшенню українського експорту до ЄС перешкоджали повільні структурні зміни у національній економіці, розвиток "тіньового" сегменту у зовнішній торгівлі, обмежена номенклатура товарів тощо.

Загалом можна дійти висновку, що динаміка торгово-економічних відносин України з ЄС, яка мала вирізнятися стрімким зростанням експорту вітчизняних товарів, нині не відповідає євроінтеграційній стратегії України. Україна вживає заходів для збереження високих загальних обсягів торгівлі з ЄС, при цьому намагаючись стримати стрімке зростання імпорту.

Європейська орієнтація зовнішньої політики України - одне із джерел модернізації економіки, залучення іноземних інвестицій і новітніх технологій, підвищення конкурентоспроможності вітчизняного виробництва, можливості виходу на внутрішній ринок ЄС. Співробітництво з ЄС сприятиме наближенню соціальних умов країни до високих європейських стандартів, підвищенню рівня життя й добробуту населення.

Аналіз тенденцій змін у структурі зовнішньої торгівлі України з країнами ЄС також свідчить про небезпеку входження України у світовий поділ праці як сировинного та ресурсного додатку. Поступове наповнення вітчизняних ринків другосортною продукцією іноземного походження, постачання за кордон за значно заниженою вартістю трудових ресурсів, водночас розміщення на своїй території екологічно забруднених і небезпечних виробництв.

З огляду на негативні тенденції у підтриманні та фінансуванні вітчизняних науково-дослідних робіт, імпорт наукомісткої продукції в Україну значно перевищуватиме експорт, що може призвести до перетворення України на науково-технічну периферію розвинутих країн. Отже, в сучасній ситуації необхідно диверсифікувати зовнішні зв'язки, використовувати можливості двостороннього і багатостороннього співробітництва, виходячи, насамперед, із необхідності забезпечення економічного зростання в Україні.

Список використаних джерел

1. Статистичний щорічник України www.ukrstat.gov.ua.

Olga Sych
PhD, Associate Professor
Faculty of Financial Management and Business
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv
email: olga.sych.lviv@gmail.com

THE EXTERNAL SOURCES OF REVITALIZATION OF POSTINDUSTRIAL CITIES

Sustainable development of regions involves improving the situation in postindustrial areas - both as the part of the big cities and whole city (if it is mono-functional small town). Revitalization involves updating abandoned and unpromising industrial areas of cities in terms of production and functional recovery of those areas of cities that are part of it, but for some reason began to lag behind in development, even degrade. Abandoned industrial zones of large urban centres and many peripheral towns in Ukraine need revitalization. It means combating further degradation of urban space and the deepening crisis in these areas by encouraging their development and qualitative changes, improving the environment, saving cultural and historical heritage and providing the sustainable development. So we can agree with Andreas Billert (Billert, 2005)[1] who treats revitalization as a “complex process of restoring an urbanized area, which space, function and body have undergone the process of structural degradation, causing a state of crisis, making impossible the normal economic and social development of both the territory and the balanced development of the whole town”.

The important sources of funding the rehabilitation are the structural funds of the EU. A prerequisite for attracting such funds is the existing of a partnership between the EU structural funds and the institution in the recipient country, that dispose of at least part of their own financial resources for the project.

The European Regional Development Fund concerns with problems of sustainable urban development. Programs of the European Regional Development Fund should support the development of a common, integrated and sustainable strategy for solving economic, environmental and social problems concentrated in urban areas.

In the Table 1 one can see actual programs of support that are given for Ukraine from the European Union.

Table 1. Projects of support of the European Union for ukrainien the field of decentralisation and regional policy

Title of the program	Financial resources	Purpose
The main projects in the field of decentralization and regional policy		
1. EU Budget Support Program "Support to Regional Policy of Ukraine"	55 million euro - budget support (2014-2018)	The purpose of the program is to provide direct financial support to Ukraine for the implementation of the State Strategy for Regional Development for the period up to 2020. The project's technical assistance will focus on improving the system of local finance administration and fiscal control.
2. EU program "U-LEAD with Europe: local empowerment, accountability and development"	97 million euro (2016-2020)	The purpose of the program is to promote the development of multilevel governance in Ukraine that is transparent, accountable and responsive to the needs of citizens.
II Other support programs, aimed at local and regional development		
1. Direct support of EU non-governmental organizations.	3 million euro	The EU supports 13 projects implemented by non-governmental organizations. The program aimed at solving a wide range of tasks in the area of decentralization and regional development.
2.EU support for the economic recovery of Ukraine	55 million euro (2016-2020)	The program provides at the national level technical assistance and policy advice to complete the existing deregulation processes and create an appropriate information portal for small and medium-sized businesses. At the regional level, the program provides practical consultations for small and medium-sized businesses and the development of entrepreneurial

		skills through a network of business development centers.
3. EU Instrument for the Promotion of Stability and Peace "Support for the strengthening of local governance in controlled areas of Donetsk and Luhansk regions"	10 million euro (2016-2017)	The purpose of the project is to support decentralization processes with mandatory allocation of funds to address specific issues that will arise in specific regions.
4. Eastern European Partnership in the field of energy efficiency and environmental protection.	108 million euro	The EU together with other donors provides local governments with grant support for energy efficiency and drinking water quality improvements.

The biggest part of the support is aimed at solving regional problems of sustainable growth, so it could be used for funding revitalization.

The importance of revitalization could be seen in huge amount of programs that EU supported earlier. Programs URBAN in 2000-2008 and JESSICA (Joint European Support for Sustainable Investment in City Areas) in 2008-2013 helped less developed territories, old industrial and former military territories, as well as poor urban areas to regenerate and improve their social and investment attractiveness.

New programs of the EU give an opportunity to develop governance, fiscal administration, and entrepreneur skills for small and medium enterprises. The main idea is to create the conditions for the growth of employment on these territories, provide them with new functions: economic, social, educational services, health care, leisure, culture or tourism.

Often the implementation of initiatives in the area of urban revitalization cannot attract enough financial resources not because of their inaccessibility, but because of the inability of local authorities to properly prepare a business-plan and to present it and other projects to all stakeholders. The problem is that local authorities do not have the necessary skills to hold presentations and negotiations, as well as knowledge of organizational and financial management.

The world experience gives us the methods of stimulating revitalization at the local level. For example, in the USA local community provides favorable business environment, simplification of licensing procedures, tax benefits and so on [2]. We can summarize that cooperation and participation of the local authorities in the process of revitalizations is the main tool for receiving funding from the EU.

References

1. Billert, A.(2005) The ancient urban center in Zary. Problems, methods and strategies of revitalization. Retrieved from: http://www.zary.pl/PL/39/72/Problemy_rewitalizacji_Centrum_Staromiejskiego_w_Zarach / k / (in Pol.)

2. Schett S. An analysis of shrinking cities / S. Schett // Urban Ecology WS. – no.12. – 2011. – P.9.

Секція 3

ЕНЕРГЕТИЧНА ДИПЛОМАТІЯ

Session 3

ENERGY DIPLOMACY

Roman Moskalyk
PhD, Associate Professor
Department International
Economic Relations
Ivan Franko National
University of Lviv
e-mail:roman.moskalyk@ lnu.edu.ua
Liana Moskalyk
PhD, Associate Professor
Department of International
Economic Analysis and Finance
Ivan Franko National
University of Lviv
e-mail: liana.moskalyk@lnu.edu.ua

PROBLEMS OF LOCALIZATION AND GLOBALIZATION OF INTERNATIONAL TECHNOLOGY DIFFUSION

Introduction

The technology diffusion globally should foster convergence of income levels between countries, and limiting the technology diffusion at the local level only seems to lead to divergence, irrespective of the channels through which technologies are transferred. A separate line of the economic literature considers the international technology diffusion with geographic dimension. The bright researchers of the line are such economists as L. Branstetter, L. Bottazzi, D. Coe, J. Eaton, R. Fisman, C. Foley, E. Helpman, R. Henderson, D. Irwin, A. Jaffe, W. Keller, S. Kortum, P. Klenow, G. Peri, M. Trajtenberg. The advantage of research of international technology diffusion with geographic distance is that geographic element is clearly an exogenous variable in this process. The main question that researchers are trying to find out is whether the technology diffusion is stronger within countries or, conversely, between countries. There are also discussions about the dynamics of localization and globalization of technology diffusion in the long run, and about the various channels of international technology diffusion in this process. In addition, it is important to find out whether international technology diffusion differs between countries depending on their level of development. From the point of view of economic policy, the question is whether one multinational policy approach to all countries of the world, as one group, is appropriate to address the problem of productivity growth in these countries. The scientific problem is to determine whether technology diffusion takes place more at the local level, i.e. within the same country (the union of similar countries), or, conversely, technologies are diffusing globally, i.e. between countries.

Our goal is to identify trends in technology diffusion within the country and between countries, to summarize the results of recent empirical work on the prevalence of localization or globalization of technology diffusion, and to formulate recommendations for further research into this problem. We particularly focus on how technologies and knowledge are transferred from developed countries to developing countries, and whether the level of development of a country is important in the process of absorbing foreign technology and knowledge.

Investigating trends to localization or globalization of technology diffusion

We try to answer the main question whether technology diffusion is stronger within countries or, conversely, between countries. Existing evidence generally supports this first hypothesis, although there are exceptions. In particular, researchers A. Jaffe, M. Trajtenberg, R. Henderson [1] compare the references in patent applications to other foreign patents with references to local patents, in particular, in the United States. The researchers believe that patent applications in the United States are much more likely to refer to other US patents than to foreign patent applications. This result is also confirmed by L. Branstetter, who uses data from research and development patents by American and Japanese firms to calculate foreign research and development spillovers, weighted by bilateral imports [2]. Branstetter believes that within the country spillovers of the country's research and development activities are much stronger than those spillovers between countries. J. Eaton and S. Kortum also provide evidence of stronger technology diffusion within the same country than between different countries. These authors, studying a sample of the five most developed countries, find out that the domestic technology diffusion is about 200 times more than the average international technology diffusion between these five countries [3].

Unlike these studies, Douglas Irwin, Peter Klenow did not find the stronger effects of technology diffusion within the country compared to those effects between countries. Irwin and Klenow analyze technology diffusion issue for high-tech products as semiconductors for the period of 1974-1992, and conclude that the technology diffusion spillovers from one American firm to another US firm, are not significantly stronger than between an American firm and a foreign firm [4].

Further studies have expanded the analysis of the technology diffusion spillovers related to location of the countries and geographic distance of one country to the others. In particular, Wolfgang Keller analyzes relationship between productivity at the industry level in nine small OECD countries to research and development in the G-5 countries (France, Germany, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States of America). Applying this estimation to Australia, for example, with a remote geographic location for the G-5 countries, Keller notes that Australia has very little benefit from the technologies created in the G-5 countries [5, P. 773]. In the same vein, Laura Bottazzi and Giovanni Peri found a strong weakening of the geographic technology diffusion between European regions using a similar framework of the model [6, p. 699]. These studies show that technology diffusion is sufficiently geographically localized in selected regions and countries.

There is another question: is the degree of localization shrinking from year to year, or, conversely, is there an intensification of technology diffusion localization? It is quite plausible that one can expect a reduction of localization because of the globalization of world economic relations, improvement of transport services, innovations in the field of information and communication technology transfer, increase of the level of transnationalization of business and other modern changes. Keller addresses this problem by evaluating various parameters of the attenuation of technology diffusion for the late 1970s and early 1990s [6, P. 134]. His results can be interpreted that the degree of localization of technology diffusion has decreased. From this we can see some signs of the globalizing process of technology and knowledge transfers, and thus the emergence and development of the phenomenon of international technology diffusion itself.

One of the main problems is that the estimated geographic effect of technology diffusion may be erroneous, perhaps due to the not observed heterogeneity across countries. This issue has been addressed to in a number of studies, and while the proposed solutions are clearly inadequate, overall, existing research findings suggest that the geographic location of countries is in fact an important factor for international technology diffusion. There is another problem that may even be more important. It is still not clear what geographic features mean in terms of economic analysis: are they related to the reduction of trade operations, or with the increase of distance? Economic studies show that the volume of international trade is greatly reduced by distance. These questions need to be clarified in further research.

If international technology diffusion grows over time, this means that convergence of incomes occurs. Conversely, the weakening of technology distribution is likely to contribute to divergence of income between countries. However, this conclusion can only be made if the tendency to (or from) the widespread use of technology is global. In other words, this conclusion can only be made if international technology diffusion affects all countries to the same extent. In fact, in the realities of the world economy, we can see the big differences in how effectively different countries absorb foreign technology. Considering that a significant part of new technologies is created in several developed countries, the growth of international technology diffusion may lead to disparities in the distribution of world income: this consequence can be traced again if richer countries, on average, absorb foreign technology better than poorer countries. The alternative point of view can also be discussed that poor countries can get more from better international technology diffusion than richer countries, because even a slight absorption of technology and knowledge can significantly increase the productivity growth rate. However, this problem requires further research in the context of the various groups of developing countries, depending on their level of economic and technological development.

Summary

Having studied the tendencies of domestic and international technology diffusion, summarizing the results of recent empirical work on the prevalence of localization or globalization of technology diffusion, we can conclude that in the past the technologies were mainly diffused within the country or within the regional integration unions. In the recent decades there has been a tendency to increase the technology diffusion between countries. Thus we can talk about importance of international technology diffusion for the economic growth. The growth of international technology diffusion supposes convergence of incomes between the countries. This hypothesis can be considered correctly if international technology diffusion affects countries all over the world to the same extent. This problem requires further research for the various groups of developing countries, depending on their level of economic and technological development.

References

1. Jaffe A. Geographic Localization of Knowledge Spillovers as Evidenced by Patent Citations / A. Jaffe, M. Trajtenberg, R. Henderson // Quart. J. Econ. – 1993. – 108:3. – P. 577–598.
2. Branstetter L. G. Do Stronger Intellectual Property Rights Increase International Technology Transfer? Empirical Evidence from U.S. Firm-Level Panel Data / L. G. Branstetter, R. Fisman, C. F. Foley. – World Bank Policy Research Working Paper no. 3305. – Washington, D.C. : The World Bank, 2004. – 24 p.
3. Eaton J. International Technology Diffusion: Theory and Measurement / J. Eaton, S. Kortum // International Economic Review. – 1999. – 40(3). – P. 537–570.
4. Irwin D. Learning Spillovers in the Semi-Conductor Industry / D. Irwin, P. Klenow // J. Polit. Econ. – 1994. – 102. – P. 1200–1227.
5. Keller W. International Technology Diffusion / W. Keller // Journal of Economic Literature. – 2004. – XLII. – 752-782.
6. Bottazzi L. Innovation, Demand, and Knowledge Spillovers: Evidence from European Patent Data / L. Bottazzi, G. Peri // Europ. Econ. Rev. – 2003. – 47. – P. 687–710.
7. Keller W. Geographic Localization of International Technology Diffusion / W. Keller // American Economic Review. – 2002. – 92. – P. 120–142.

Andriy Pekhnyk
PhD, Associate Professor
Department International
Economic Relations
Ivan Franko National
University of Lviv
e-mail: andriy.pekhnyk@lnu.edu.ua

CLASSIFICATION OF ENTRY STRATEGIES OF TRANSNATIONAL CORPORATIONS

This is an attempt to assess and to improve existing approaches to the classification of entry strategies brought into use by transnational corporations in the process of their expansion into foreign markets.

The key distinctive features of different groups of strategies have been analyzed, as well as the major differences between strategies of different groups and within groups.

The choice of an appropriate entry strategy is the key factor of success in contemporary international business. This is especially true in the case of transnational corporations (TNCs). While ordinary small company has a very limited set of possibilities to choose from, TNCs operate globally and have a full range of resources and instruments to increase and optimize their overall global efficiency. Generally speaking, unlike usual small company with its limited options (and very often no choice at all), TNC is able to chose absolutely any strategy or combination of strategies to achieve its goals and maximize its financial results both in short and long run.

The question of choice of an entry strategy is one of the most important questions in the entire process of international business, because it determines all the following outcomes. Therefore, clear understanding of all possible alternatives gains critical importance. This becomes even more important, as it has been already mentioned, when analysing the transnational corporations.

In the meantime, despite a great amount of researches and publications, the question of such a classification is far from being answered. Nowadays there exist many different types of classification depending on which criteria are defined as the main criteria for classification and differentiation.

The majority of researchers tend to treat different strategies as alternatives (for instance. [1], [2]), though there are some exceptions, for example, A.Shapiro views different strategies as successive but not mutually exclusive steps.[3]

It is often the case that the classification in fact is limited to a simple list of existing strategies – which is more than enough for publications, the goal of which is just to make a review of possible strategies without the necessity for any real in-depth analysis and comparison. This is very often the case for textbooks and educational publications of any kind (see, for example, [4]).

As it has already been mentioned, this is absolutely enough for the needs of a textbook, however, a number of specific strategies are in this case left unattended.

Less justified is another extreme, when strategies fundamentally differing in their level and size are considered within one range. Obviously, there is much more in common between licensing and franchising strategies than, suppose, between licensing and commodity export strategies. Therefore, it would be logical to assume that licensing and franchising strategies will constitute two different subgroups within one group of strategies, therefore, to avoid the above extremes of bringing together some fundamentally different notions, the classification of entry strategies must be a multi-stage one.

The type of resources which must be relocated to the territory of the host country in accordance with a certain strategy should be taken as the basic criterion for entry strategy classification. Therefore, 3 groups of resources can be distinguished. The first group includes finished material products, i.e. in this case the goods sold to a foreign counteragent completely independent of a TNC for final consumption, the use for production purposes or re-sale. This scheme, by all the criteria, falls under the definition of export, therefore all the strategies should be united into a group of export strategies.

Obviously, when export entry strategies are applied, the risk of a TNC is restricted to the cost of the commodity supplied to the foreign counteragent and lost potential profit, therefore this group of strategies is of a relatively low risk. At the same time, contract entry strategies, when the company 'leases' its intangible assets under the respective contract, constitute an attractive alternative of avoiding this risk as well. In a certain sense those strategies are less risky than export ones (all the more – than investment strategies) since they exclude the possibility of tangible losses (but for equipment imported on a temporary basis). At the same time, contract strategies are characterized by a number of specific risks.

Investment strategies should include all the strategies presupposing development of production or assembly capacities of a TNC, that is they should presuppose the investment of certain tangible assets on the territory of the host country (and therefore are the riskiest). Moreover, depending on the level of TNC's control over the investment made we will differentiate between strategies with complete and partial control.

The scheme of entry strategy classification is provided in [5]. This division is rather indicative, since a number of contract strategies, in fact, constitute export of specific company resources, while some of them (in particular, common production/assembly) presuppose export of almost finished commodities. Therefore, the fundamental difference between these two groups should be made depending on whether the fact that the company's finished tangible products cross the border is established. In case the answer is positive, we face one of the export entry strategies; otherwise, we have to deal with a contract or investment strategy. At the same time, contract and investment strategies should be differentiated taking into consideration the fact whether the company's tangible assets cross the border (equipment, machinery, and financial resources).

In case export strategies are included to foreign TNC expansion strategies, one important observation should be made. Though export strategies are a powerful tool in taking on foreign markets for TNCs, they cannot act as exclusive tools of TNCs since by the very definition of TNC a purely export company cannot be regarded as a full-fledged TNC even provided all the output produced is exported. However, since export is frequently a mediatory unit in the process of 'full-fledged' foreign TNC expansion, it cannot be considered side by side with other strategies of taking on foreign markets. Besides that, 'export' within TNCs is guided by the principles which differ from the ordinary export in principle (these differences will be explained in detail a bit later).

Thus, consideration of the specific features of TNC’s export strategies are a matter of principal importance.

Unlike commodity export, contract entry strategies presuppose sales of the company’s intangible assets □ its technological achievements, image, staff skills, etc. Here secondary differentiation can possibly be made depending on which type of tangible assets is ‘provided for use’ by the company. And intangible assets should be divided into: technological assets (inventions, technologies, know-how); marketing assets (company image and trade marks); specific staff skills and abilities.

Respectively, 3 types of contract strategies can be differentiated: those based on technologies (licensing), based on image (franchising) and based on special skills and abilities (some contract strategies belong to this type).

A common feature of investment strategies is the need for capital investment in the target market. And depending on the type of invested resources and volume/share of capital investment (and respectively □ degree of control), strategies with complete and partial control can be distinguished. Strategies with partial control include strategies of establishment of a joint venture (hereinafter referred to as the JV) and strategic alliance (hereinafter – SA), while strategies ensuring complete control include acquisition of existing local company and own company establishment. Characteristics of each of the above strategies should be analyzed separately, however, it should be noted that in strategies with complete control this control is achieved through the increase in the necessary costs (and, respectively, risk), while a certain loss of control over expansion when JV or SA are applied is partially compensated through the reduced necessity of capital investment, reduced risk and certain additional advantages.

One of the most popular investment strategies is the establishment of a JV, that is a legal entity established by several companies for the sake of implementing a joint project, that may presuppose both organization of joint/coordinated production or sales, and joint scientific and research or technical groups. Contribution of each partner into the JV is determined not by capital investment only; technologies, availability of the sales network or experience of work in a certain market constitute a much more important asset. The very capital investment is also not subject to accurate quantitative assessment. The cost of those tangible assets by the methodologies of their assessment in different countries may vary substantially, while assessment of intangible assets is sometimes totally impossible. This fact, as it will be shown later, often provides many opportunities for abuse.

Investment strategies with complete control constitute the most expensive and the riskiest way of entering a foreign market, they are expedient in case the company has serious plans for the foreign market. Establishment of a completely controlled company abroad is possible either via establishment of own company, or via acquisition of a functioning local firm. It should be noted that in case of monopolization after merger the company status often becomes better thanks to consumers, therefore the possibilities of appearance of monopoly formations are strictly limited by the legislation of most countries.

Establishment of a company ‘from scratch’ (the so called ‘greenfield’) is the most complicated and longest entry strategy. It is highly popular among aggressive companies trying to maintain complete control over the activity of the company: in particular, it is highly typical of the car market.

Based on the provided analysis we can assume that the presented three-level model of classification of entry strategies more adequately represents the situation than existing one-level models, therefore it is more suitable for practical purposes.

References

1. Lymbersky, C.: (2008) "Market Entry Strategies", p. 364; Management Laboratory Press, Hamburg
2. S. Carter Global Agricultural Marketing Management – Rome, FAO UNO, 1997.
3. Shapiro A.C. Multinational Financial Management. – 5th ed., Prentice-Hall, 1996.- 690 p.- P.7.
4. Franklin R. Root, Anton Filipenko. International trade and investment. -Kyiv.: Osnovy, 1998. - 743 p.
5. Pekhnyk, Andriy Foreign Investments into the Economy of Ukraine. - Kyïv : Znannia, 2007.

Mykhailo Hrabynskyi
Mgr, PhD student
Department of International Law
Ivan Frako National
University of Lviv
e-mail: mykhailo.hrabynskyi@lnu.edu.ua

INTERNATIONAL ASPECT OF TRADE, ENVIRONMENT AND LAW

International environmental law uses a very specific mechanism to regulate environmental problems. Over the past decades (especially from 2007 to 2017) environmental and economic trials need a more acute and radical solution. One of the best solutions that the international community can offer is the establishment of rigorous and clear rules for dealing with damage to nature and the consolidation of these rules in international law. Therefore, we should now consider the best examples of such regulation with the participation of leading and most democratic subjects of international environmental legal relations.

Little progress was made on environmental issues during the WTO Doha negotiations in 2006 due to a continuing impasse stemming from other issues, in particular, agriculture. In a dispute settlement, Mexico requested consultations of the United States concerning tuna labeling requirements under the Dolphin Protection Consumer Information Act. According to Mexico, these requirements prohibit the labeling of Mexican tuna and tuna products as "dolphin-safe" even when tuna has been vested in compliance with multilateral standards established by the Inter-American Tropical Tuna Commission. Mexico views this as inconsistent with the most-favoured-nation and national treatment obligations of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade as well as provisions of the WTO Agreement on Technical Barriers to Trade [1].

Another interesting example of a legal solution to international environmental problems is solving forest management and timber trade issues between the US and Peru. The most interesting trade and environmental developments in 2008 involved efforts to police illegal logging and trade in timber. These include:

- implementation of innovative provisions on forestry and timber of the 2007 free trade agreement (FTA) between the US and Peru,
- new legislation prohibiting the import of timber and other plants or plant products obtained or exported in violation of foreign conservation laws to the United States, and the announcement of the first bilateral agreement on a Voluntary Partnership Agreement (VPA) under the EU Action Plan on Forest Law Enforcement Governance and Trade (FLEGT) [1; 4].

The U.S.- Peru Free Trade Agreement contains provisions, unique in international law, that obligate Peru to strengthen its capacity to enforce regulations on forest management and timber trade, and to conduct audits and investigations of Peruvian timber producers and shipments upon the request of the United States. Peru established a cabinet-level Ministry of Environment, reinforced an authority responsible for overseeing the conservation and exploitation of certain forest areas and wildlife, and strengthened criminal penalties and regulations concerning timber and wildlife trafficking as well as implementation of CITES. Various aspects of this effort received both criticism and appreciation and Peru's progress toward implementation remained under discussion. In another important development, provisions of the Farm Bill enacted in May 2008 the existing prohibitions under the Lacey Act were expanded to encompass the import, export, transport, or sale of wild plants and plant products, including trees and timber, taken or exported in violation of foreign law. Violations of the Lacey Act may be subject to a civil penalty up to $10,000 as well as forfeiture of seized shipments. Substantial criminal penalties, in some cases including imprisonment of up to five years, may be imposed for such violations [1].

The amendments also require importers of plants and plant products to file a declaration stating the species contained in the importation; the monetary value of the import; the quantity, including a unit of measurement, contained in the import; and the country of origin. The U.S. Department of Agriculture has drafted regulations to implement these requirements and anticipates phasing them in the beginning of 2009. Improved policy of logging and timber trade was also the subject of negotiation on a Voluntary Partnership Agreement (VPA) on Forest Law Enforcement Governance and Trade between the EU and Ghana, the conclusion of which was announced in September

2008. Under the VPA, Ghana committed to develop a system to license or certify timber exports as legally harvested, while the EU agreed to develop an import screening system to verify documentation of timber imports. This was the first conclusion of negotiations on a VPA to be announced under the EU's Action Plan on Forest Law Enforcement Governance and Trade (FLEGT); the EU remains in negotiation with several other countries. Also relating to timber trade, the European Commission proposed in October 2008 that European Union countries should adopt legislation requiring importers of timber to verify its legality "to their best ability" [1; 4].

Other international and regional treaties are also adopted for international legal regulation of environmental issues. Here we should mention (for example) free trade agreements with Colombia, Panama, and South Korea that were renegotiated in 2007 to incorporate unprecedented new environmental requirements that continued to await the approval of Congress. In May 2008, Canada and Peru signed an FTA accompanied by a side agreement on the environment that included statements concerning biological diversity and corporate environmental responsibility. In November 2008, Canada concluded an FTA with Colombia, which was similarly accompanied by a side agreement on environment [1; 2].

During August 2008, the Secretariat, established under an FTA between the United States, Dominican Republic, and five Central American countries (CAFTA-DR) to receive submissions from citizens of CAFTA countries concerning alleged failures to enforce environmental law, issued its first recommendation as to whether a factual record should be prepared concerning the subject of a submission. The Secretariat recommended to the Environmental Affairs Council established under the CAFTA-DR that a factual record be prepared concerning an allegation that the Dominican Republic had failed to enforce certain provisions of its wildlife laws for the protection of endangered sea turtles. The arbitral award of September 2008 rejected the claim under the Energy Charter Treaty by a Cypriot investor against Bulgaria on the grounds that the investor relied on fraudulent misrepresentation in making its investment in an oil refinery. Of special interest was the tribunal's dictum that a change in environmental law that worked to the investor's disadvantage was not a violation of the Energy Charter Treaty's requirement of fair and equitable treatment unless it was directed to the investor and the government made no commitment to "freeze" its environmental law [1].

Also, one of the serious problems in this area is “waste after trade” problem that was raised by WTO during World Environment Day 2017. That is all because every day 10 million tons of material are designated as waste at factories and households around the world. If not properly managed, waste can give rise to serious health and environmental problems, from air, soil, and water pollution to climate change and ocean degradation. The result of this chat means enforcing new regulation of the “trade and trash” duties and obligations [3].

Therefore, because of this it may be concluded that ecological and economic issues are now acutely faced by the international community. International environmental law today is an excellent instrument that directly regulates these issues in a qualitative and efficient manner. Taking example of already existing trade and environment agreements with the participation of the USA, the EU, other countries and international organizations, we can conclude that these agreements are already a good basis for concluding similar agreements with other countries, including Ukraine.

References

1. International Environmental Law / David R. Downes, Joseph Dellapenna, Khouane Ditthavong, Joseph Freedman,Royal C. Gardner, David M. Gravallese, Richard A. Horsch, David Hunter, Jeffrey M.Klein, Thomas Parker Redick and Erica Thorson // The International Lawyer, Vol. 43, No. 2, International Legal Developments inreview: 2008 (SUMMER 2009), pp. 837-860
2. Office of the United States Trade Representative, available at https://ustr.gov/
3. World Environment Day 2017, available at https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/envir_e/envirday2017_e.htm
4. FLEGT Voluntary Partnership Agreements, European Commission, Jan. 30, 2009, available at http://ec.europa.eu/development/policies/9interventionareas/environment/forest/flegt_vpas_en.cfm.

Секція 4

ІННОВАЦІЙНІ СТРАТЕГІЇ ЕКОЛОГО-ЕКОНОМІЧНОГО РОЗВИТКУ

Session 4

INNOVATION STRATEGIES OF ECOLOGICAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Ganna Duginets
PhD in International Economics,
Associate Professor,
Kyiv National University of
Trade and Economics

NEW FORMS OF INTERNATIONAL PRODUCTION NETWORKS IN THE MODERN ECONOMY

The globalization of production at the international level has contributed to the spread of new technologies by increasing the intensity of trade in complex industrial goods. New technologies, in turn, create new markets. For example, the industries of recycling and reusing waste allow to reduce prices for consumer goods and open up new opportunities for investment with greater profitability.

The burden of environmental problems and the fear of an environmental impasse affected the development of technologies of the sixth innovation wave. It is in these technologies that the desire for a lean attitude towards the environment manifests itself, for the technological revolution of the early twentieth century, the transition to alternative energy and to environmentally friendly transport, and the development of nanotechnologies create conditions for a relative and further absolute reduction in the irreversible consumption of natural resources, improvement of the environment, the implementation of a positive noosphere version, and co-evolution of nature and society.

There are two main explanations behind these processes:

Firstly, significant progress in renewable energy technologies makes them attractive to investors who express their interests not only in the developed countries of Europe, America and Japan, but also in China, Taiwan, India and Brazil, contributing to the further progress of these technologies.

Secondly, the problems of global ecology provide the incentive for the qualitative development of the energy industry and many industrialized countries pursue a policy of clean energy sources support. We consider the increasing profitability of business in the sphere of environmentally friendly technologies to be an important factor.

Natural gas was the leading energy carrier during the fifth wave of innovation, but there has been an increase in wind energy, solar, nuclear, geothermal, hydrogen energy during the sixth one. Therefore, the role of gas as an energy carrier is decreasing, yet its value as a raw material for the production is growing.

A new wave of innovation precedes changes in the relations within international production networks. A vivid example is the emergence of the concept of "chemical leasing" in the chemical industry, which was introduced by UNIDO, the UN Department of Industrial Development [1], at the beginning of the 21st century. In 2005, it initiated the World Chemical Leasing Program. Pilot projects utilizing this business model and allowing the industry to reduce the environmental burden, are used by TNCs like Coca-Cola, Henkel, Akzo Nobel, ABB and others.

The essence of this concept is the circulation of chemicals in the production of goods and the provision of material services in which the effectiveness of substances' use is on the increase, instead of the numbers sold.

Manufacturers and suppliers of reagents used to see their only task in filling the consumer's warehouse with their produce, while now they become involved in the technological process – in fact, that's where the chemical substance is used. In other words, in the new system of relations, the producer sells not the substance itself, but its useful properties. At the same time, the increase in the number of chemicals sold does not bring any additional income to the supplier, but increases costs, on the contrary.

The use of chemical leasing in industries has steadily increased from 2004 to 2014 in Egypt, Mexico, Russia, Colombia, Serbia, Sri Lanka (since 2008), as well as in Brazil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Nicaragua, Peru, Uganda and Ukraine (in 2011-2014) (Figure 1). Simultaneously, UNID promotes the spread of the new business model, while its national organization and implementation are carried out by the national institutions in the countries participating in the project.

The new approach encourages both partners to optimize the technological process and ensure continuous and effective control over the turnover of chemicals. This approach also assumes that manufacturers and suppliers of chemicals are primarily interested in reducing the risks associated with their product and reducing its amount necessary for performing certain operations.

Figure 1: UNIDO's Chemical Leasing Programme around the globe [2, p.32]

Also, in addition to producers (suppliers) and consumers of the chemical, co-integrators specializing in waste disposal, equipment suppliers and other partners can participate, thus forming an international production networks focused on reducing the burden on the environment. This is especially true where there is enormous potential for the conservation and recycling of chemicals and life-supporting resources (water, energy, biomass). Such processes include the purification of industrial, agricultural and domestic wastewater, the cleaning of flue gases, the destruction of toxic chemical waste, the washing of contaminated containers, cisterns, containers, degreasing of surfaces and coatings, painting, and desalination of sea water for household and domestic needs.

It should be noted that "chemical leasing" offers new opportunities for industrialization and industrial policy development for developing countries. Instead of building capacity across the full range of industrial activities, countries can focus on getting the corresponding shares in the "chemical leasing". However, if their activity is highly specialized, the lack of diversification and a negative impact on the growth will become the accompanying risks.

Список використаних джерел

1. UNIDO (2011): Chemical Leasing: A global success story. Innovative business approaches for sound and efficient chemicals management. United Nations Industrial Development Organization, Vienna.

2. UNIDO (2016): Global Promotion and Implementation of Chemical Leasing Business Models in Industry – 10 Years. United Nation.

Nataliya Horin
PhD, Associate Professor
Department International
Economic Relations
Ivan Franko National
University of Lviv
e-mail: nataliya.horin@lnu.edu.ua

THE ROLE OF ECO-INNOVATION IN THE FINNISH ECONOMY: EXPERIENCE FOR UKRAINE

Modern innovation policy is becoming more and more environmentally oriented while the development of world economy is characterized by the growth of the environmental pollution that has become a global problem over recent years. Therefore, each country adopts the ecological innovations for environmental protection, sustainable development and for the provision of its international competitiveness.

Currently, Finland is the country with the highest eco-innovativeness level in the world and routinely tops rankings of global eco-innovations.

One of the most promising and popular directions of innovation activity in Finland is the development of "clean technologies" ("CleanTech"). In 2007, the Finnish Government, in cooperation with business, research and financial institutions, introduced a national strategy of the clean technologies cluster development. Thanks to the implementation of this program, Finland's position has been steadily rising in the leading international rankings that evaluate the innovation and technological potential and the condition of the environment.

Figure 1 shows that in 2015, Finland ranked 2nd out of 40 countries in the Global Cleantech Innovation Index and in the composite Eco-innovation Index according to the Eco-innovation Scoreboard for the EU-28, produced by the Eco-Innovation Observatory (EIO).

Eco-innovation Scoreboard displays the eco-innovation performance of a country compared with the EU average and with the EU top performers. Finland demonstrates high performance in terms of eco-innovation. In 2015, Finland was again ranked second in the EU-28 Eco-innovation Scoreboard likewise in 2013, with an overall score exceeding the EU average by 40%. In 2014, Finland was fourth in the ranking.

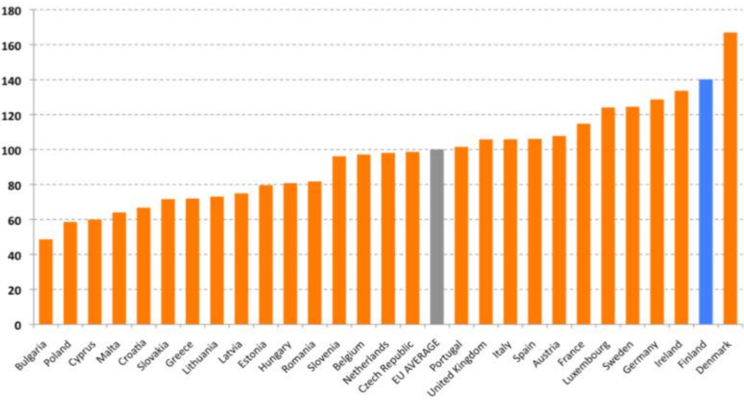


Figure 1. Composite Eco-Innovation Scorebord 2015 [2].

Eco-innovation Scoreboard demonstrates the eco-innovation performance of a country compared with the EU average and with the EU top performers. And Finland demonstrates high performance in terms of eco-innovation

The Eco-innovation Index is based on 16 indicators, aggregated into five components: eco-innovation inputs, activities and outputs, environmental and socio-economic outcomes. Similar to the overall score, Finland has the highest position almost in every component (see Figure 2). It has been largely consistent since 2011, with particular strengths and weaknesses.

Thus, Finland stands out among others with its high score on eco-innovation inputs. The score is 82% higher than the EU average. It also exceeds the EU average by around 70% in the GDP share of public environmental and energy R&D outlays and in the share of R&D personnel and researchers out of total employment (2.1%).

Eco-innovation outputs are also remarkable. For instance, Finland has 2.3 times as many eco-innovation-related patents adjusted to population per year as the EU average, and 2.8 times as many publications related to eco-innovation. The overall output score has increased remarkably from around 150% to nearly 200% of the EU average from 2013 to 2015. The experts indicate that the success in both input and output measures can be partly attributed to the collaborative networks among industry, academia and the public sector in the country, as well as substantive public and private R&D funding [4, p.3-4].

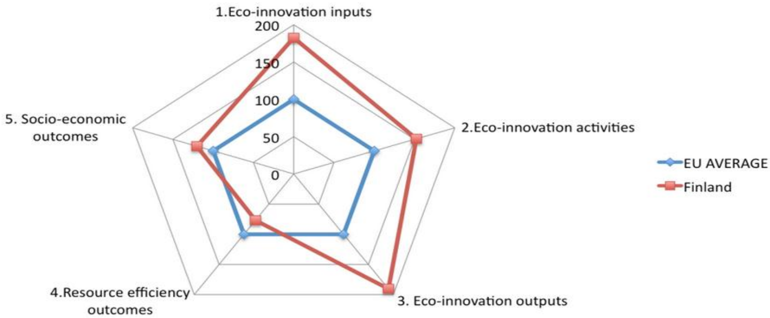


Figure 2. Components of the eco-innovation composite index for Finland 2015 [5].

According to the World Economic Forum's Report Finland is ranked 1st in the Europe 2020 Competitiveness Index and second in the component of environmental sustainability (see Table 1).

Table 1. Europe 2020 Competitiveness Index and its components for Finland, 2015

	Rank out of EU 28	Score
Europe 2020 Index (2015 edition)	1	5.7
Europe 2020 Index (2012 edition)	2	5.7
Smart growth	1	5.8
Enterprise environment	2	4.8
Digital Agenda	1	6.2
Innovative Europe	1	6.1
Education and training	1	6.1
Inclusive growth	2	5.5
Labour market and employment	6	4.7

Social inclusion	1	6.3
Sustainable growth	2	5.8
Environmental sustainability	2	5.8

Source: [5].

Finland's strong showing on the sustainability component (2nd) demonstrates that its economic prowess does not come at the expense of environmentally sustainable practices and outcomes. Thus, clean technology sector is already an important pillar of the Finnish economy. This sector has increased by 15% in 2013 and the total turnover reached 25 billion euros [5].

Nowadays the Strategic Programme of the Finnish Government 2016–2018 includes the following broad objectives for the year 2020 [1]:

1) Finland has already achieved the 2020 climate objectives during the government term. Imported fossil fuel-based energy has been replaced by clean and renewable domestic energy.

2) The growth of cleantech enterprises, the increase in the sustainable use of natural resources, pluriactive rural enterprises and the efficient circular economy have contributed to the creation of new jobs.

The Finnish Ministry of Employment and the Economy also published the Strategy to Promote Cleantech Business in Finland in 2014, which continues to guide policymaking and business initiatives. Additional strategies and programmes relevant to eco-innovations and the circular economy include the Finnish Bioeconomy Strategy (2014), the Finnish Material Efficiency Programme (2014), and the new Circular Economy focus area (2016) in Sitra, the Finnish Innovation Fund. Next, Tekes has set up a Smart Procurement programme for 2013–2016 with the focus on creating smart demand, which will provide the prerequisites for a new market creation and its growth. The main focus areas for the programme include, among others, energy and environment.

Bioeconomy, clean technologies and eco-innovations in general are among the five strategic priorities to support the objectives of the Strategic Programme with €300 million of funding in total.

Five key project areas are specified: 1) towards carbon-free, clean and renewable energy cost-effectively; 2) wood on the move and new products from forests; 3) breakthrough of a circular economy, restoring waters to good condition;4) Finnish food production to be profitable, trade balance on the rise; 5) nature policy based on trust and fair means.

The experts point to the related goal of refining the national Bioeconomy Strategy, especially in the sense of deepening the collaboration among public funding agencies and improving the coordination of different funding instruments.

Despite different levels of eco-innovativeness in Finland and Ukraine our investigation [3, p. 17-21] has shown that the main barriers and drivers to eco-innovation are roughly the same in these countries, including lack of funds, uncertain return from investment and too long payback period for eco-innovation, insufficient access to existing subsidies and fiscal instruments, uncertain demand from the market, etc. From this follows the conclusion that the Finnish experience in the field of eco-innovative development is highly essential and valuable for the Ukrainian science and practice.

It should be emphasized that Ukraine has enormous eco-innovation potential, especially in raw materials savings industries. In spite of overall changes, current trends point to significant economic opportunities in the modernization of production processes, particularly in the most energy- and resource-intensive sectors.

References

1.Action plan for the implementation of the key project and reforms defined in the Strategic Government Programme [Electronic resource]. – Finland: Prime Minister’s Office, Government Publications, 2016. – January. – 104 p. – Mode of access: http://valtioneuvosto.fi/documents/ 10616/1986338/Action+plan+for+the+implementation+Strategic+Government+ Programme+EN.pdf/12f723ba-6f6b-4e6c-a636-4ad4175d7c4e.

2.European Commission. Environment. Eco-innovation Action Plan [Electronic resourse]. – Mode of access: https://ec.europa.eu/environment/ecoap/indicators/index_en.

3.Hrabynskyi, I. Barriers and Drivers to Eco-innovation: Comparative Analysis of Germany, Poland and Ukraine / I. Hrabynskyi, N. Horin, L. Ukrayinets // Economic and Managerial Spectrum. - 2017. - Vol. XI. - Issue 1. - Pp. 13-24.

4.Lastunen, J. Eco-innovation in Finland. EIO Country Profile 2014-15: Finland. [Electronic resourse] / J.Lastunen. – European Commission. Eco-Innovation Observatory, 2016. – 30 p. – Mode of access: https://ec.europa.eu/environment/ecoap/sites/ecoap_stayconnected/files/field/field-country-files/finland_eco-innovation_2015.pdf.

5. World Economic Forum. Finland [Electronic resourse]. – Mode of access: http://reports.weforum.org/europe-2020-competitiveness-report-2014/#section=country-profiles-finland.

Solomiya Ohinok
PhD, Associate Professor
Department International
Economic Relations
Ivan Franko National
University of Lviv
e-mail: ohinok.solomiya@gmail.com

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENVIROMENTAL FRANCHISING IN THE CONDITIONS OF GLOBALIZATION

The modern world economy is characterized by a high level of globalization and integration. State borders and significant differences between the economies of countries are becoming less and less visible and considerable. Internationalization and trans-nationalization promote the convergence of national economies, the formation of economic unions and a common free market zone. Franchising promotes the strengthening of economic relations between countries at this stage of their development, as today it is involved in almost all areas of economic activity and is one of the most effective and democratic ways of transcending national markets. This is exactly what makes the issue relevant to the study. Despite the fact that franchising is considered to be a relatively young kind of activity organization, it is a dominant form of doing business both in the United States and Europe, and its growth rate becomes more and more significant every year [1, p. 38–67].

The high popularity and considerable prevalence of franchising are determined by the fact that it offers real opportunities for the development of goods sales networks both in domestic and foreign markets, attracting relatively little money, and most importantly for a small period of time. In this context of globalization and integration environmental franchising is now becoming both increasingly popular and profitable. The main advantages of this strategy are high speed networking franchises in one or more countries, as well as favorable conditions for entry into large and small markets [2, p. 75].

The role of environmental franchising in Europe is growing every year, as on the basis of the single European market member-countries have received significant benefits connected with the intensification of international production and promotion of small and large companies.

Table 1. Terms of purchase and use of environmental franchises in the EU

Name	Industry	Country of origin	Number of own outlets	Investment/ thousand euro
Super Green Solutions	Energy-saving products	Britain	1400	80 000
Maple Moose	Catering	Britain	30	10 000
Eco Service	Retail	France	210	60 000
Molly Maid	Services for cleaning	Canada	630	85 000
Cartridge World	Production and maintenance of printers	Australia	1205	69 000
Renew Crew	Services for cleaning	USA	33	50 000

Source: Author`s elaboration based on the data [3]

Among all European countries environmental franchising is most widely used in the United Kingdom. The most popular franchises in the UK are EnviroVent, Envirocare, as well as Ecocleen Services and many others [4].

Enviromental franchising is important for the Ukrainian economy because it leads to business democratization, provides and also disseminates the eco-friendly standards of living that are characteristic of countries with higher economic development. The usage of environmental franchising as a mechanism to activate the innovative activity in Ukraine will increase the effectiveness of innovation introduction in the economy. A eco-friendly franchise form of business activity organization will enhance the efficiency of the Ukrainian economy, and increase the competitiveness of national products in the European market (Table 2).

Table 2. Terms of purchase and use of environmental franchises in Ukraine

Name	Year of foundation	Number of own outlets	Number of Franchised Outlets	Minimum Investment/thousand UAH
Eco-Lavka	2012	21	24	150 000
Eco-buffet	2012	2	3	930 000
Eco-shyk	2004	3	1	120 000
Terra Organica	2010	3	3	40 000

Source: Author`s elaboration based on the data [5,6,7,8]

Today environmental issues are becoming increasingly popular all over the world. The main reason for searching the environmental as means of production is introduction of new technologies in agriculture and food industry and franchising could be thriving on this growing trend and substantial customer base. Potential franchising opportunities range from useful services for business to providing the public with cleaner homes and items. Moreover, environmental franchising is the most democratic instrument of doing eco business, as developing its own franchise network the franchisor brings not only his own brand and production methods, but also high standards, which his goods correspond with to new markets and territories. Also it is worth noting that eco-friendly franchising is a very effective method of expanding sales networks in overseas markets since it is an active and very common way of doing business that is going to Ukraine from the European Union.

References

1. Konigsberg A. International Franchising / Alexander Konigsberg. – New York: Juris Publishing, 2008. – 625 c. – (3rd edition).

2. Ziółkowska M. Franczyza Nowoczesny Model Rozwoju Biznesu / Marta Joanna Ziółkowska. – Warszawa: CeDeWu, 2010. – 227 c.

3. International Franchise Association – [Electronic resource]. – Access mode : http://www.franchise.org.
4. List of Green Franchise Business. – [Electronic resource]. – Access mode : http://www.franchisedirect.co.uk/greenfranchises/
5. Eco-Buffet. – [Electronic resource]. – Access mode : http://www.eco-buffet.com.
6. Eco-Lavka. – [Electronic resource]. – Access mode : http://eco-lavca.ua
7. Еко-Шик . – [Electronic resource]. – Access mode : http://www.ecochic.com.ua
8. Terra Organica. – [Electronic resource]. – Access mode : http://terraorganica.com.ua
9. International Franchise Association – [Electronic resource]. – Access mode : http://www.franchise.org.
10. Franchise Direct. – [Electronic resource]. – Access mode : http://www.franchisedirect.co.uk/

Vira Kmit
PhD in Economics,
Associate Professor of Finance,
money circulation and credit
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv

FEATURES OF FUNCTIONING OF INTEGRATED AUTOMATED SYSTEM OF STATE SUPERVISION (CONTROL) IN UKRAINE

Formation of an effective economic policy and its approximation to European standards is impossible without the establishment of an effective system of modern state supervision (control). Such system will change the approach to inspections in Ukraine, the attitude to controllers and reduce the pressure on the business, and prevent violations in business entities.

The current system of state control in Ukraine needs reform. This is particularly relevant in such sections as grounds, procedure for audits of business entities, responsibility of the officials of the supervisory agency, which sometimes act with the excess of their competence.

Consider it worth reminding, current system of state supervision (control) in Ukraine has more than 50 different supervisory agencies, whose activities are regulated by the Law of Ukraine "About the basic principles of the state supervision (control) in the sphere of economic activity" [1] (hereinafter – Law No. 877).

On January 1, 2017, the following Laws become operative "About temporary features of implementation of actions of the state supervision (control) in the field of economic activity" [2] (hereinafter – No. 1728) and "About amendments to the Law of Ukraine", "About the basic principles of the state supervision (control) in the sphere of economic activity" on the liberalization of the system of state supervision (control) in the sphere of economic activity" [3] (hereinafter referred to as Law No. 1726).

Law No. 1728 introduces a restriction (moratorium) on carrying out planned state supervision (control) measures until December 31, 2017. It also been eliminated the ambiguity of defining agencies, which carry out measures of state supervision (control), that was typical of laws that introduced the previous moratorium on inspections.

It is not also allowed to set targets or any other planning regarding bringing business entities to responsibility and applying sanctions to them.

Changes have also been made in the planning of state supervision (control) measures exclusively for the annual period with the abolition of quarterly plans and the establishment of a ban on changing them. The Law No. 877 now clearly sets out the timing of the plan of inspections, as well as the duration of each control measure, its beginning and completion. Thus, by October 15, each year, companies and entrepreneurs should be identified, which are to be verified by state controllers during the next year. Moreover, the deadline for implementation of a planned event can not exceed 10 working days, and for micro, small business entities – 5 business days. In this case, the total duration of all planned activities carried out by the bodies of state supervision (control) during the calendar year on business entities (comprehensive planning action), cannot exceed 30 working days, and for a small business entrepreneur – 15 working days. Also, the number of grounds for implementing unscheduled state supervision (control) measures was reduced; the procedure for notifying business entities about the implementation of such an event was established, business entities, officials of a legal entity were relieved of responsibility for refusing to give testimony or explanation regarding the activities of business entities, and many other innovations are foreseen in order to liberalize state supervision in Ukraine.

The aforementioned innovations provide for the full publicity of the procedure of approval by the State Regulatory Service of Ukraine (hereinafter – the DRSU) and a mandatory requirement for the beginning of public oversight activities to be published on the official web-site of DRSU for their permission.

Accordingly, an entity has the right to prevent officials from the state supervision (control) agency for control and supervision measures, if they are not presented with the approval of the DRSU.

Thus, citizens are provided with the opportunity to protect their rights in case of their violation. At the same time, a mechanism for protecting business from unreasonable inspections by the supervisors (control) is being implemented through the creation of an Integrated Automated System of State Supervision (Control) with information about all measures of state supervision (control) to which the owners of the property will have free access. In our opinion, this will promote protection of economic entities from unnecessary interference of the officials of the controlling agencies in their activities during state supervision (control) measures.

Integrated Automated System of State Supervision (Control) is the only automated system for collecting, accumulation and systematization of information on state supervision measures (control). It is intended for generalization and disclosure of information on state supervision measures (control), coordination of work of state supervision agencies (control) on the implementation of comprehensive state supervision measures, monitoring the effectiveness and legality of the implementation of state supervision (control) measures.

The user of the system is an entity that conducts an appropriate type of economic activity that should be subject to state supervision (control) in accordance with the law. It is a public association represented by its authorized representative.

The body that fills the system is an official of the state supervision agency (control) or the person of the DRSU, who is authorized to enter the information into the system.

This system will store information on legal entities and individual entrepreneurs, types of economic activities that are subject to state supervision, the names of state supervision agencies (control), annual plans for control measures, reports on their implementation, etc. It is important that access to the information of this system is possible through the Internet and all data is open and free. The system is located on the software and hardware complex of the state enterprise, and access of the bodies that fill the system is carried out on the basis of an agreement concluded with the state enterprise.

All bodies that fill the system are represented by individual personal electronic rooms in the system; access to them is made by using the electronic digital signature with the enhanced certificate of public keys on a secured media.

The introduction of such a system will provide functionalities for real-time electronic communication between bodies that fill the system and users. Significant advantage is that the system operates around the clock and works seven days a week. It is also designed to ensure compatibility and compatibility with other information systems and networks, which constitute state information resources. This will guarantee the obtaining of business entities the necessary information from the Unified State Portal of Administrative Services and the United

State Register of Legal Entities, Individual Entrepreneurs and Public Organizations.

It is important to note that the business entities are guaranteed the confidentiality and integrity of the information that will be processed in the system and will be carried out in accordance with the accepted security policy.

We believe that the aforementioned innovations and the established and implemented system will be a significant step towards business. The consequences of these innovations should become a method of preventing unjustified interference of state supervision bodies in the activities of business entities, increasing the level of public confidence in the state, and reducing the tension in society in the course of various inspections.

References

1. Про основні засади державного нагляду (контролю) у сфері господарської діяльності: the Law of Ukraine dated 05.04.2007 №877-V [Electronic resource]. – Access: http://zakon3.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/877-16

2. Про тимчасові особливості здійснення заходів державного нагляду (контролю) у сфері господарської діяльності: the Law of Ukraine dated 03.11.2016 №1728-VIII [Electronic resource]. – Access: http://zakon5.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/1728-19

3. Про внесення змін до Закону України "Про основні засади державного нагляду (контролю) у сфері господарської діяльності" щодо лібералізації системи державного нагляду (контролю) у сфері господарської діяльності: the Law of Ukraine dated 03.11.2016 №1726-VIII [Electronic resource]. – Access: http://zakon3.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/1726-19

Мар'яна Когут
кандидат економічних наук,
старший викладач кафедри
міжнародних економічних відносин
Львівського національного аграрного університету
email: maryana_kohut@i.ua

ПРОБЛЕМИ І ПЕРСПЕКТИВИ УЧАСТІ УКРАЇНИ У МІЖНАРОДНОМУ ТРАНСФЕРІ ТЕХНОЛОГІЙ

Сьогодні для України важливо на основі просування українських компаній на міжнародний технологічний ринок і трансформації вітчизняних підприємств в умовах жорсткої конкуренції знаходити можливості для експансії своєї діяльності не лише на внутрішньому ринку, але і в глобальному масштабі.

Інноваційно-орієнтована політика, що проводилася, наприклад, в Ізраїлі, досить опосередковано відповідає сьогоденним реаліям України, однак Україна може почерпнути корисний досвід з певних її елементів.

Проаналізований досвід Ізраїлю, дає підстави зробити висновки, що досягнення високого рівня конкурентноспроможності на світовій арені неможливе без підвищення інноваційного потенціалу національної економіки. Хоча інноваційна активність підприємств у принципі досить опосередковано залежить від держави, проте, організація ефективного державного регулювання може відігравати суттєву роль у її підтримці.

Ізраїль став міжнародним центром досліджень і розробок у сфері військових та інформаційних технологій, тоді як Тайвань зосередився на кластерному виробництві, наприклад, напівпровідників і електронного устаткування.

Ізраїль також ефективно використовував процеси глобалізації, щоб досягти високого рівня інновацій та підвищення рівня ВВП на душу населення. Ізраїль знайшов можливість реалізувати свої плани в інноваційній продукції і технологічних процесах та в галузях, що вимагають дуже високих технічних знань, відповідно, поступово збільшуючи свою частку в глобальних ланцюжках доданої вартості (GVC), поступово взявши під свій контроль деякі з них.

Україна також бере участь у створенні ланцюжків доданої вартості, однак у цьому напрямі значного прогресу поки що ще не досягнуто. Завдання на майбутнє для України постає так, щоб створити умови до формування великих підприємств, які могли б просунутися в розширенні їх участі в глобальних ланцюжках доданої вартості або ж створити власну мережу в майбутньому, збільшуючи внутрішню додану вартість.

Значному успіху у підвищенні технологічного рівня Ізраїлю, завдячує співпраці з розвиненими країнами, переважно зі США. Американо-ізраїльська співпраця сприяла розвитку ізраїльських компаній у вигляді капітальних інвестицій та передачі знань, головно у сфері організаційних інновацій та маркетингу.

Що ж стосується України, то залучення інновацій з-за кордону, могло б бути значно посиленим завдяки інтенсифікації наукового співробітництва українських технологічних та науково-дослідних установ з іноземними партнерами в ключових інноваційних сферах.

Як уже зазначалося, основними чинниками, які сповільнюють та деформують розвиток міжнародного трансферу технологій в Україні, є, зокрема, недосконалість нормативно-правової бази, відсутність стимулювання та недостатнє фінансування з боку держави, нестабільність і непередбачуваність інвестиційного законодавства, недосконалість та неефективність виконавчої та судової системи у питаннях, пов'язаних із захистом прав інтелектуальної власності, а також високий рівень корупції та надмірна ускладненість реєстраційної та дозвільної систем.

Насамперед Україні необхідно розпочати реалізацію принципово нової стратегії інноваційного розвитку. Головним її критерієм повинен бути критерій реалістичності, щоб полегшити оптимальне співвідношення власних науково-технічних ресурсів із зовнішніми джерелами технологій. Усе це у сучасній світовій економіці стає можливим завдяки глобалізації. Нова стратегія – це стратегія технологічної взаємозалежності. Співпраця і взаємозалежність виступають чинниками для розподілу зростаючих витрат та ризиків інновацій, а також необхідного масиву знань і кваліфікації під час розроблення нового товару.

Ефективна інноваційна політика України має вирізнятися максимально реалістичною і прагматичною моделлю. Її необхідно збалансувати так, щоб забезпечити оптимальне співвідношення власних науково-технічних ресурсів та зовнішніх, залучених технологій.

Отже, для успішного розвитку національної інноваційної системи необхідно об'єднати досвід зарубіжних країн, створити власну модель і адаптувати її до реалій сучасності в Україні. Придбання сучасного обладнання та укладання ліцензійних угод з країнами, що виробляють технології, допоможе Україні підвищити свою конкурентоспроможність на ринку

Ірина Лаврів
кандидат економічних наук,
старший викладач кафедри
міжнародних економічних відносин
Львівського національного аграрного університету

ПІДВИЩЕННЯ РІВНЯ ЕКСПОРТНОГО ПОТЕНЦІАЛУ АГРАРНИХ ПІДПРИЄМСТВ ЗА РАХУНОК ПІДВИЩЕННЯ ЯКОСТІ ЇХНЬОЇ ПРОДУКЦІЇ

Вітчизняні підприємства працюють сьогодні в умовах Однією із основних проблем, які заважають розвитку експортного потенціалу є невідповідність вітчизняної продукції стандартам якості, яких вимагають країни з перспективними ринками збуту.

Саме в умовах постійного розвитку зовнішньоторговельних відносин успіх окремих сільськогосподарських підприємств та галузі АПК загалом на внутрішньому та зовнішньому ринках практично повністю залежить від ступеня відповідності їх продукції стандартам якості. Тому питання забезпечення, а також постійного підвищення якості аграрної продукції на сьогоднішній день є достатньо актуальною.

Перед аграрними підприємствами з постійним розвитком конкуренції на внутрішньому та світовому ринку постали такі проблеми:

1. недосконалість чинних стандартів в Україні;
2. повільні темпи впровадження міжнародних стандартів у галузь сільськогосподарського виробництва;
3. скасування у 2015 році обов’язкової сертифікації на продукти харчування;
4. велика кількість обов'язкових випробувань і перевірок імпортних товарів при доступі на ринок через невідповідність вітчизняної системи стандартизації та сертифікації міжнародній;
5. велика тривалість і висока вартість послуг сертифікації;
6. низький рівень поінформованості сільськогосподарських товаровиробників про стандарти, технічні регламенти та процедури оцінки відповідності та ін.

Досвід провідних агропідприємств переконливо стверджує, що досягнення бажаного та стабільного рівня якості сільськогосподарської продукції можливе лише через запровадження в усі господарські системи управління якістю. Саме виконання підприємствами галузі сільського господарства вимог міжнародних стандартів з якості їх продукції дозволить укріпити позиції на внутрішньому ринку, а також стати рівноправними учасником міжнародному ринку.

Для якнайшвидшого впровадження сертифікації й стандартизації сільськогосподарської продукції в Україні необхідна рутинна робота підприємств у сфері покращення якості й конкурентоспроможності продукції, тісна взаємодія з уповноваженими органами з питань стандартизації та сертифікації в регіонах, широке інформування агарних товаровиробників про стандарти, технічні регламенти та процедури оцінки відповідності.

Зважаючи на інтеграційні процеси, які закладені в зовнішньоекономічній стратегії України постає за необхідність адаптація українських стандартів до європейських. До цього варто доповнити, що запроваджена в Європейському Союзі система безпеки харчових продуктів визнається більш ніж сотнею країн Америки, Африки та Азії і тому це розширяє коло ймовірних споживачів – імпортерів вітчизняної сільськогосподарської продукції. Необхідність пристосування національного законодавства до принципів, вимог та норм нормативно-законодавчої бази ЄС виступає неодмінною передумовою для вирішення проблем інтеграції національної економіки до внутрішнього ринку ЄС загалом та активізації торговельно-економічних відносин, зокрема. У зв’язку з цим однією із найважливіших складових національної законодавчої бази виступає система технічного регулювання. Традиційно до неї включать наступні складові: стандартизація, метрологія, сертифікація, оцінювання відповідності, акредитація органів з оцінки відповідності, державний ринковий нагляд, спеціальні режими контролю виготовленої продукції.

Згідно із останніми даними, із понад 3,4 тис. стандартів стосовно сільського господарства і харчової промисловості України переглянуто біля 1,8 тис. Водночас, кількість міжнародних (ISO) та європейських (EN) стандартів, що відносяться до сільського господарства і харчової промисловості, включає майже 2,1 тис., а чисельність вітчизняних стандартів, які гармонізовані (тобто, з ISO та EN), становить 0,9 тис. Отже, рівень гармонізації вітчизняних нормативних документів по даних галузях загалом становить майже 45%

[3, с. 198].

Розробка стандартів на сільськогосподарську продукцію є справою непростою, оскільки необхідно враховувати вплив біологічних, хімічних, ґрунтових та інших факторів. Якість сільськогосподарської продукції значно залежить від технології вирощування, якості застосування машин і обладнання, добрив, господарських приміщень, а також від якості усіх робіт щодо вирощування, збирання врожаю, зберігання, транспортування, переробки або реалізації продукції. А тому відповідальним технічним комітетом стандартизації необхідно переглянути усі застарілі стандарти на сільськогосподарську продукцію, внести нові вимоги, які дозволяли б оцінити виготовлену продукцію за важливими показниками, за технологічними властивостями з поділом на товарні сорти (класи, групи), залежно від якості, що дасть можливість не лише краще організовувати використання всієї продукції, але й за правильної цінової політики стимулювати її виробництво найвищої якості [1, с. 19].

Діючі в Україні державні стандарти на ряд видів сільськогосподарської продукції значною мірою не збігаються з тими, що діють переважно на ринках зарубіжних країн. Тому в сертифікаті повинні відображатися дані відповідно до умов покупця.

Невисокий рівень гармонізації українських стандартів якості з європейськими породжує ряд перешкод у зовнішній торгівлі сільськогосподарською продукцією, зокрема:

1. підприємства недоотримують виручку, так як багато з них просто не може продати продукцію за вигідними цінами на внутрішньому ринку і водночас не може продавати її на зовнішньому ринку;
2. продукція, яка виробляється для внутрішнього ринку не є високоякісною, тому це впливає на здоров’я населення;
3. звужуються можливості географічної диверсифікації експорту, що зумовлює високий рівень залежності зовнішньої торгівлі від однієї країни чи окремої групи країн.

З метою вирішення вищеназваних проблем необхідно на державному рівні стимулювати сільськогосподарські підприємства до запровадження систем управління якістю.

Уже сьогодні національні виробники, котрі вийшли зі своєю продукцією на міжнародні ринки, пересвідчились, що без упровадження систем управління якістю неможливо знайти торгового партнера, а тим більше завоювати міжнародні ринки збуту й бути там конкурентоспроможними. До позитивних наслідків запровадження системи управління якістю на аграрних підприємствах можемо віднести такі:

• підвищення якості продукції та послуг, рівня задоволеності споживачів;

• розширення кола замовників та ринків збуту, отримання можливості співпраці з іноземними партнерами (при укладанні угод на поставку продукції партнери все частіше вимагають наявність сертифікованої системи управління якістю та безпечністю);

• підвищення ефективності виробництва (система управління передбачає попередження, а не виправлення браку на кінцевій стадії виробництв, і, як наслідок, зниження відсотку браку);

• підвищення ринкової вартості підприємства (за оцінками міжнародних реєстраторів сертифікація системи управління якістю підвищує ринкову вартість підприємства в середньому на 10 %);

• покращення фінансових результатів за допомогою скорочення: відмов процесів або марної витрати матеріалів та часу; браку продукції, витрат на компенсацію за гарантією; втрат споживачів і ринків,

• зміцнення ділової репутації підприємства, підвищення рівня його конкурентноздатності в очах споживачів, замовників, інвесторів;

• можливість отримати переваги в тендерах, у залученні кредитів та інвестицій;

• можливість використання сертифікату в рекламних цілях;

• чіткий розподіл відповідальності та повноважень як в межах підрозділу, так і в межах всього підприємства.

Отже, впровадження та сертифікація системи управління якістю надає можливість підприємствам покращити якість власної продукції та послуг, вийти на новий рівень конкурентоспроможності та зміцнити свої конкурентні позиції на ринках. Керівництво вітчизняних підприємств має розуміти, що, незважаючи на всі фінансові, часові та інші витрати, впровадження та сертифікація систем управління якістю має стати стратегічним рішенням організації з метою розвитку власного бізнесу. А світовий досвід успішних компаній є вагомим аргументом у необхідності запозичення та застосування методів управління якістю на вітчизняних підприємствах, що поліпшить соціально-економічний статус не тільки конкретної господарської одиниці, а й держави в цілому

Список використаних джерел

1. Гуменюк Г. Д. Стандарти на харчові продукти та їх гармонізація з міжнародними і європейськими вимогами / Г. Д. Гуменюк, Ю. В. Слива // Наукові праці Національного університету харчових технологій. - 2015. - Т. 21, № 2. - С. 15-21.
2. Лук'яненко Д.Г. Управління міжнародною конкурентоспроможністю в умовах глобалізації економічного розвитку: Монографія: У 2 т. – Т.I / Д.Г. Лук'яненко, А.М. Поручник, Л.Л. Антонюк та ін.; За заг. ред. Д.Г.Лук'яненка, А.М. Поручника. – К.: КНЕУ, 2006. – 816 с.
3. Сутність та проблеми впровадження системи управління якістю на підприємствах [Електронний ресурс] – Режим доступу до ресурсу: http://www.khntusg.com.ua/files/sbornik/vestnik_107-2/29.pdf.

Секція 5

ІНВЕСТИЦІЙНІ ПРОЦЕСИ В СУЧАСНІЙ СВІТОВІЙ ЕКОНОМІЦІ

Session 5

INVESTMENT PROCESSES IN THE CONTEMPORARY WORLD ECONOMY

Anna Dąbrowska
Institute for Market, Consumption and Business Cycles Research (IBRKK)
Alicja Fandrejewska
Institute for Market, Consumption and Business Cycles Research (IBRKK)

CULTURAL CONDITIONINGS OF POLISH SERVICE COMPANIES IN THE EU MARKETS (RESEARCH FINDINGS)

Introduction

The development of globalisation, Europeanisation and internationalisation in the services sector is facilitated by the conditionings of the single European market, which contributes to the creation of a uniform market of traditional and digital services. The services sector is the area which forms a dominating part of the global added value in each of the Member States; however, it should be noted that its share differs from country to country. Among the EU Member Countries, the highest share of the added value generated by services was recorded in Luxembourg – 87.4%, on Cyprus – 86.7% and on Malta – 83.9%. The services in the countries such as Greece (80.2%), Great Britain (80.2%), France (78.8%) or Holland (78.2%) constitute a large share of the added value in the entire economy. In the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, it reached the level of 59.9% in the Czech Republic, 74.9% in Latvia, and in Poland it constituted 64.2%. The Directive 2006/123/EC of the European Parliament and the Council of 12 December 2006 on the services in the internal market (the so-called Services Directive), liberalizing the services market, supports the operations of enterprises, in particular SMEs, which provide or use the services by removing barriers to trade and services and facilitating cross-border activities. As part of the research project "Liberalizacja usług rynkowych w UE jako czynnik zwiększający innowacyjność i konkurencyjność polskich przedsiębiorstw usługowych" (“Liberalization of the services market in the EU as a factor increasing innovativeness and competitiveness of Polish service companies”) (2015/17/B/HS4/02750) financed with the funds from the National Science Centre (NCN), the authors have also considered the problem of cultural aspects in communication and behaviour related to providing services in international markets.

The importance of intercultural communication in the process of internationalisation of service enterprises

International communication is defined as a social process where information is exchanged across borders (usually on a mass scale i.e. via media) and connects at least two people of different nationalities, acting as senders, recipients and distributors. It is also an element of international marketing, where cultural aspects play a key role in communication processes. Culture-related problems, seen from a global perspective, necessitate the processes consisting in distinguishing, separating and grouping of various types of traditional, modern or mass cultures, its various material, spiritual, social spheres or aspects as well as its relatively distinct political, economic and legal areas. The analysis of the notion of culture comprises different aspects of traditions, patterns, values, conventions, norms, behaviour and actions, which are not acquired but learnt by an individual. Due to the characteristics of the services, in particular, its non-material nature and a specific relation between the provision and consumption of services, before embarking on a service-related business activity in the territory of another country, it is important to become familiar with the culture of potential business partners or consumers, as well as the degree of their expressiveness, which is seen as the aspect which may be useful in making business decisions. As K. Karcz observes, the research into the impact of cultural conditionings on the behaviour in the communication process points to four different culture-related aspects, namely:

1) the influence associated with belonging to a national culture,

2) the influence connected with belonging to a particular ethnic (regional), language or religious group within a given professional group,

3) the influence of culture related to belonging to a particular social and professional or generational (age) group,

4) the influence of organisational culture pertaining to a particular role and position in the workplace.

Cultural barriers in international trade of services in the light of research findings

Culture-related barriers should be taken into consideration when analysing and engaging in marketing communication process in international markets, especially in terms of advertising, public relations, promotion of sales, management of a brand, introducing new products/brands or creating and promoting Corporate Identity in international markets.

In December 2016, for the needs of an implemented research project "Liberalizacja usług rynkowych w UE jako czynnik zwiększający innowacyjność i konkurencyjność polskich przedsiębiorstw usługowych" ("Liberalisation of services market in the EU as a factor increasing innovativeness and competitiveness of Polish service enterprises") the authors carried out a study using a survey questionnaire involving a sample of 400 services enterprises functioning in the EU countries. The services which were the object of the study were divided into six groups: commercial services; construction services; craft services; business services; tourism, accommodation and catering services and educational and information services. The purpose of the research was to study the opinions of entrepreneurs and to discover whether they have encountered any cultural barriers when entering into the markets of the EU countries and providing services to local consumers. Among the barriers considered in the study there were: poor knowledge of a foreign language, difficulty in understanding a speaker (different accents, pronunciation or the use of a specialised language), incorrect interpretation of gestures and body language, different behaviour, norms and standards in the work environment, cultural differences, such as: customs, traditions, religion, stereotypes and prejudice. The findings were presented in Table 1.

It should be emphasised that 2/3 of the respondents declared that their company has not encountered any cultural barriers in its operations. For other companies the greatest problem was poor knowledge of a foreign language. The surprising fact was that this problem was most frequently indicated in the case of large companies employing 250 or more employees - 45% (statistically significant value), those providing business services - 44%; the minor problem related to the knowledge of a foreign language was noted by small companies, i.e. those employing up to 49 employees - 18% (statistically significant value) and providing tourism, accommodation and catering services - 17%.

Table 1. Cultural barriers indicated by entrepreneurs providing services in EU countries

	N=	Poor knowledge of a foreign language	Difficulty in understanding a speaker (accent, pronunciation, specialist language)	Incorrect interpretation of gestures and body language	Different behaviour, norms and standards in work environment	Cultural differences such as customs, tradition, religion	Stereotypes and prejudice	Other	None of the listed items
Total	**400**	**27 %**	**24%**	**18 %**	**20 %**	**14 %**	**13 %**	**0 %**	**66 %**
Size of enterprise									
Small	148	18 %*	17%*	12 %	13 %	11 %	11 %	0 %	77 %*
Medium-sized	137	21 %	21%	16 %	20 %	16 %	17 %	0 %	69 %
Large	115	45 %*	37%	27 %	30 %	16 %	12 %	1 %	48 %*
Services provided in the EU									
commercial services	72	22 %	22%	21 %	21 %	18 %	17 %	0 %	65 %
construction services	77	31 %	25%	14 %	22 %	12 %	9%	1 %	62 %
craft services	58	24 %	22%	17 %	16 %	16 %	16 %	0 %	69 %
business services	75	44 %	41%	28 %	32 %	16 %	15 %	0 %	48 %*
tourism, accommodation and catering services	70	17 %	11%	9%	11 %	9%	10 %	0 %	80 %*
training, education and information services	48	19 %	21%	17 %	15 %	15 %	15 %	0 %	75 %

Source: own research, December 2016.

The second place was taken by the barrier concerning the difficulty in understanding the speaker (various accents, pronunciation or the use of a specialist language). In this case, a similar tendency was observed, the problems were indicated by larger companies - 37%, those providing business services - 41%, the smallest problem with the understanding of a speaker was observed by small companies - 17% (statistically significant value) and those providing tourism, accommodation and catering services - 11%. The third place was taken by entrepreneurs' responses concerning the behaviour, norms and standards in the work environment. Also, in this case, the barrier was indicated more frequently by large companies - 30%, but the discrepancy between enterprises amounted to only seven percentage points, business service providers - 32%, and the difference between enterprises operating in different sectors did not exceed 11 percentage points. The smallest problem with different behaviour, norms and standards in the work environment was recorded in the case of small firms - 13% and those providing tourism, accommodation and catering services - 11%.

Summary

From the perspective of internationalisation and growing interest of Polish entrepreneurs in the service markets in other EU countries, cultural conditionings play an important role with regard to conducting the business activity, including marketing activity. Poor knowledge of a foreign language, difficulty in understanding the speaker (various accents, pronunciation or specialist language used by the speakers), incorrect interpretation of gestures and body language, different behaviour, norms and standards in the work environment, cultural differences, such as: customs, traditions, religion, stereotypes and prejudice tend to hinder the process of building a strong position in the market and affect communication with foreign business partners.

Olena Kozak
Mgr, PhD student
Department of International Economic Analysis and Finance
Ivan Frako National University of Lviv
e-mail: olena.kozak@lnu.edu.ua

THE MECHANISM OF FOREIGN CAPITAL IMPACT ON ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF COUNTRIES

The recent economic transformation and financial globalization have greatly influenced on the economic development of countries. At the same time the process of economic reforms in Post-Soviet countries led to highly dynamic growth of capital flaws. The presence of foreign capital in financial system obviously is the feature of macroeconomic stability, integration in international economy, the level of investor's trust and attractiveness of country. The foreign capital flows intensification provides economy with required costs for investment, but also makes it more vulnerable to external financial shocks.

Over the past decades, the volume of capital international migration has even exceeded the volume of world trade. The main reason for the capital movement is its relative surplus within the country and the willingness of making profit or getting interest. The concentration of capital and searching of new ways for its multiplication and preserving it from inflation were the main factors of intensification of globalization process and expansion of foreign banking institutions in Central and Eastern Europe (CEE).

Foreign capital consists of foreign direct investment (FDI), portfolio investment, official development assistance (ODA) and medium and long term international credits. Foreign investment acts as a powerful economic key driver for many economies. Influence of foreign investment on economic development deserves special attention, since the foreign capital flaws caused such a phenomenon as financial globalization. Moreover, the attraction of FDI can be considered as financial innovation in economic development of post-socialist [1].

The share of FDI in CEE is high enough among all countries of the region. For example, according to UNCTAD World Investment

Report 2017 [10], in the Czech Republic FDI inflows reached USD 6.75 billion in 2016, their second highest level since 2008. FDI Stock (in % of GDP) is 59.7%. FDI inflows to Poland continued to decline in 2016 and stood at USD 11.4 billion (as opposed to USD 13.5 billion in 2015), FDI Stock 39.8% FDI inflows to Poland reflect the international economic situation as well as the economic slowdown in the EU following the Eurozone crisis of 2012-2013. Hungary maintains a high per capita stock of FDI for CEE. However, the 2009-2010 crisis has strongly affected FDI flows to Hungary and since then the volume of inward FDI flows has been lower (except for a peak in 2012). In 2016, divestments outpaced investments, resulting in a negative inflow of USD 5.3 billion (the fifth lowest inflow in the world, UNCTAD). FDI Stock is 61.8%. The 2008-2009 Eurozone crisis had an impact on Slovakia and continue to weigh on foreign investment flows bound for the country. The continued upgrading of national infrastructure since 2012 still presents great opportunities for FDI, and the strategically located country remains attractive to foreign investors. The FDI Stock is 46.5%.

Foreign investment has a significant impact on host country, affecting its domestic markets, being an additional capital for production of goods and services helping different programs realization, transferring new methods of management, creating competitive business environment, infrastructure; enhance enterprise development and contributes to international trade integration; facilitates transfer of modern technology, know-how and skills, innovations of economically advanced countries to developing countries and helps local enterprises to enter foreign markets; promotes human capital formation [3].

Despite an obviously positive association between foreign capital and growth, the empirical researches have not reached a consensus on the direction of this impact however, suggesting that FDI can be either beneficial or even harmful to growth. The analysis of the impact of investment on economic growth of CEE, certainly reduce the effectiveness of the FDI.

There are different points of view on direct foreign investment. Chorn and Siek make conclusion that the foreign capital inflows have positive and significant impacts on economic growth. FDI is seen to be more robust and statistically significant, but the marginal impacts of FDI and ODA are not without constraint. The marginal impact of it on economic growth decreases given the rising level of initial income per head, treating other factors constant [3]. K. Olofsdotter emphasizes that FDI also appears to be one of the major channels for international technology transfer [8].

E. Borensztein suggests that FDI is an important vehicle for the transfer of technology, contributing relatively more to growth than domestic investment. However, the higher productivity of FDI holds only when the host country has a minimum threshold stock of human capital [2].

On the other hand, there are some researches who prove negative impact of foreign capital on economic growth. For example, E. Prasad in his research shows that excessive dependence on foreign capital may have harmful consequences, which can cause the increase of national currency and as a result the decrease of the competitiveness and export of the most important economic sectors. Also, less developed financial system could not promote to effective mediation of foreign capital. Thus, some forms of foreign capital flows should be restrained, but, at the same time, financial openness could be necessary for financial market stimulation [9].

Following O. Onaran, in the short run period, the impact of FDI on wages for CEE countries is positive, stimulated by capital intensive and labor intensive branches of manufacturing industry. However, in the medium-term period, the impact reverses [7].

Also it is interesting to research the mechanism of influence of foreign direct investment on economic growth. In this sense, the experience of the countries of CEE deserves attention, where the role of foreign capital is evaluated quite ambiguously. The high rates of economic growth during the initial stage of the intensive foreign investment inflow have changed with their substantial decline. As the analysis of Y. Bilenko proves, the economic efficiency of FDI eventually declines, but it gives the ability to improve the lifequality, and also contributes to a significant human capital realization which is accumulated in Central and Eastern Europe [1]. So, the foreign capital has positive effect on economic development, but the fiscal balance and banking sector efficiency are the key factors to a significant inflow of FDI.

A. Malay defines that foreign investment contributes to the economic growth on the basis of more effective use of national resources. He allocates two channels of efficiency [5]: first, the entry of foreign companies into the national market leads to substitution or displacement of less effective regional companies, which leads to redistribution of internal resources among more and less profitable companies and promotes medium-level labor productivity increasing; second, the competition among local companies increased due to foreign firms.The activity of the last encourages national firms to work more efficiently. In such a way, they contribute to the rapid transfer of new and advanced technology and improve management of local firms.

According to L. Melnyk and O. Kubatko the FDI in developing economies influenced on economic growth positively, but considers well-developed financial and institutional sectors as important sources of GDP growth and FDI inflows. Also transition and developing economies should pay more attention to the business environment and institutional changes [6].

So, the financial potential strengthening of CEE depends on the efficient use of all available resources. The domestic funds and foreign capital are the main financial sources for economic growth and development. However, in order to avoid dependence on foreign capital and external shocks, the priority task of state policy should be the increase of the financial potential, reduction of the vulnerability of national economies and banking systems, diversification of foreign capital inflows and increase of investment at its own expense.

References

1. Bilenko Y. Macroeconomic and Institutional Factors Attracting Foreign Direct Investment on and their Impact on Economic Growth in Central and Eastern Europe / Y. Bilenko // Visnyk of the Lviv University. Series International Relations. 2012. Issue 31. P. 218–230
2. Borensztein E. How does foreign direct investment affect economic growth? / E. Borensztein, J. De Gregorio, J-W. Lee // Journal of International Economics 45 (1998) 115–135
3. Sophannak Chorn and Darith Siek. The Impact of Foreign Capital Inflow on Economic Growth in Developing Countries. Journal of Finance and Economics. 2017; 5(3):128-135. doi: 10.12691/jfe-5-3-5
4. Hlavacek P. Impact of Foreign Direct Investment on Economic Growth in Central and Eastern European Countries/ P. Hlavacek, B. Bal-Domanska // Inzinerine Ekonomika-Engineering Economics. – 2016. - № 27(3), 294–303
5. Malay A. The Impact of Foreign Direct Investment on Economic Development of Host Country/ A. Malay // Інвестиції: практика та досвід. – 2011.- № 16.

6. Melnyk L. The impact of foreign direct investment on economic growth: case of post communism transition economies / L. Melnyk, Kubatko O., S. Pysarenko // Problems and Perspectives in Management, Volume 12, Issue 1, 2014

7. Onaran O. The effect of FDI and foreign trade on wages in the Central and Eastern European Countries in the post-transitionera: A sectoral analys is for the manufacturing industry / O. Onaran, E. Stockhammer // Structural Change and Economic Dynamics. – 2008. – № 19. – P. 66–80

8. Olofsdotter K. Foreign direct investment, country capabilities and economic growth / K. Olofsdotter // Weltwirtschaftliches Archi. – 1998. – № 134(3). – P. 534–547

9. Prasad E. The paradox of capital / E. Prasad E., R. Rajan, A. Subramanian// Finance & Development. The International Monetary Fund. — March, 2007. — Vol. 44. — P.16—19.

10. Unctad 2017 World investment report - http://unctad.org /en/ Publications Library/wir2017_en.pdf

Михайло Сторонський
Старший викладач кафедри
міжнародних економічних відносин
Львівського національного аграрного університету

ПРОБЛЕМИ ПІДВИЩЕННЯ ІНВЕСТИЦІЙНОЇ ПРИВАБЛИВОСТІ ПЕРЕРОБНИХ ПІДПРИЄМСТВ

Вихід з кризової ситуації, розвиток економічного потенціалу не можуть відбуватися стихійно, без спрямовуючих зусиль держави [2].

У загальному вигляді проблема полягає у тому, що Україна на світовій арені виступає як вагомий постачальник сільськогосподарської продукції у вигляді сировини, тому рівень розвитку її сільського господарства значно впливає на загальний економічний стан держави [6].

Сільськогосподарська продукція являється практично сировиною для усіх галузей народного господарства національних економік, тому країни з розвинутою економікою максимально здійснюють переробку власної сировини і експортують готові товари, адже цим самим країна отримує значно більше виручки - прибутку. Сировинний експорт, наприклад, лісу-кругляка, металобрухту а також аграрної продукції – це шлях країни до бідності, залежності і нових кредитів МВФ.

Інвестиції виступають важливим фактором економічного зростання, а інвестиційна політика – елементом економічної політики держави, спрямованої на економічне зростання.

Рівень інвестиційної привабливості є одним з найважливіших показників загальноекономічної ситуації і перспектив розвитку економіки в цілому. Активізація інвестиційного процесу в виробництві продукції а особливо її переробки, може істотно підвищити загальну конкурентоспроможність бізнесу, певною мірою стабілізувати дисбаланс попиту і пропозиції на продовольчому ринку та ринку праці, сприяти загальній позитивній динаміці рівня життя населення.

Інвестиційний процес є, безумовно, одним із варіантів реанімації галузі виробництва та переробки сільськогосподарської продукції.

Переробна промисловість є однією з найважливіших складових загальнонаціональної системи будь-якої держави, її функція складається в оптимальному задоволенні потреб населення країни якісними, економічно й фізично доступними продуктами харчування при переважному продовольчому самозабезпеченні держави з корективами на участь у глобалізаційних процесах [3].

Більшість переробних підприємств України функціонують на базі потужностей, створених ще за радянських часів. Рівень механізації та автоматизації на переробних підприємствах суттєво різниться. Частина підприємств галузі вже оновили свою техніко-технологічну базу, частина ще ні. Наявна ситуація, коли підприємства з майже однаковою кількістю працівників, аналогічними техніко-технологічними базами суттєво різняться за обсягами переробки, чистим доходом, прибутком [1].

На сьогоднішній день переробні підприємства відносяться до найрентабельніших, а значить і інвестиційно привабливих виробництв. Проте актуальність залучення як вітчизняних, так і іноземних інвестицій продовжує зростати. Це пов’язано з необхідністю великих обсягів фінансування, яке потрібно для впровадження інноваційних технологічних процесів, оновлення основних виробничих фондів, освоєння виробництва нових видів продукції. Тільки при виконанні таких умов національні переробні підприємства становитимуть гідну конкуренцію і повністю відновлять свої позиції на світових ринках.

Сьогодні в Україні в жодній сфері виробництва не стимулюється на державному рівні впровадження нової техніки й технологій. Увесь тягар витрат на закупівлю нового обладнання, впровадження нових технологій несе підприємство. Крім того, не виконує стимулюючої функції в цьому напрямі й амортизаційна політика держави, яка має яскраво виражений фіскальний характер. Для активізації роботи з упровадження новітніх технологій переробними підприємствами необхідна цілеспрямована державна підтримка.

За економічної кризи більшість підприємств України неспроможні власними коштами здійснювати технічне оновлення виробництва. Відтак виникає об’єктивна необхідність розвитку лізингового бізнесу, що робить ефективним залучення інвестицій для фінансової підтримки підприємств.

Для стимулювання інвестиційної діяльності в розвинутих країнах використовують такі методи: прискорена амортизація, раціональна податкова система, кредити та регулювання банківських процентних ставок, заохочення лізингу. Для української економіки важливим є підвищення ефективності використання всіх елементів нагромадження інвестиційних ресурсів на всіх стадіях їх обороту. Обсяг іноземних інвестицій є одним з показників, що характеризують ступінь інтеграції країни у світове співтовариство. Інвестиційна привабливість визначається по загальному інвестиційному клімату в країні, умовам проведення зовнішньої економічної діяльності, у тому числі правовими, митними. Іноземні інвестиції стимулюють темпи зростання національної економіки, надходження сучасних технологій, техніки, обладнання, створюють додаткові робочі місця, посилюють конкуренцію усередині країні.

Перебіг сучасних політичних процесів та практична реалізація встановлених цілей і пріоритетів поліпшення інвестиційного клімату в Україні переважно негативно впливають на інвестиційний клімат і, зокрема, міжнародну інвестиційну привабливість України, підвищують ризики для інвесторів, зумовлюючи тим самим втрати в конкурентній боротьбі за світові інвестиційні ресурси [4].

Нинішнє становище сільськогосподарських підприємств на ринку інвестицій характеризується їх неготовністю до ефективного освоєння засобів, а також неготовністю потенційних інвесторів вкладати капітал в підприємства через високі ризики, пов'язані з незахищеністю права власності, з великою ймовірністю неповернення коштів через менеджмент управління.

Іноземних підприємців не влаштовує неповнота і нестабільність нормативно-правової бази господарської діяльності, чинна система бухгалтерського обліку та звітності, високий рівень оподаткування (недосконалість податкової системи в Україні) і її мінливість, дорожнеча кредитів, корупція чиновників і самоуправство місцевої влади, кримінал в економіці, бездіяльність судової влади, відсутність гарантій безпеки і невідповідність бухгалтерського обліку міжнародним стандартам [5].

Хоча Україні властиві достаток природних ресурсів і стратегічне розташування, на думку багатьох іноземних інвесторів, інвестиційний клімат України перспективний, але все ж нестабільний. Нестабільність супроводжується переважанням ряду негативних факторів, які перешкоджають притоку іноземних інвестицій в країну. В результаті опитування іноземних інвесторів були виявлені основні перепони на шляху припливу іноземних інвестицій в Україну:

1) бюрократія;

2) фінансовий ризик;

3) податковий і фінансовий режим;

4) правова інфраструктура / темпи змін у сфері права;

Фінансовий ризик пов'язаний з інфляцією і коливаннями валютних курсів. Важливо відзначити, що іноземному інвестору важливі не пільгові умови оподаткування, а їх стабільний, передбачуваний і економічно ефективний і для держави і для інвестора стан. Безсумнівно, те, що всі ці фактори пов'язані з загальноекономічної стратегією уряду, тому рішення цих проблем потребує комплексного підходу. Необхідний чіткий орієнтир, програма дій по залученню іноземних інвестицій, і на основі цієї програми необхідно створювати важелі управління, залучення та стимулювання зовнішніх капіталовкладень. Таку думку поділяють багато економістів. Ринковий механізм регулювання зовнішньоекономічної діяльності, адекватний сучасним міжнародним вимогам- простий і зрозумілий для іноземних партнерів, з чітким розподілом функцій.

Україна повинна прагнути створити сприятливий соціальний, фінансово-економічний, правовий режим для діяльності іноземних інвесторів і відповідний їх інтересам інвестиційний клімат, вирішувати одночасно свої проблеми і досягати поставлених цілей. У зв'язку з цим, повинен бути допрацьований закон "Про іноземні інвестиції", який визначає правовий режим іноземних інвестицій в Україні. Правовий режим передбачає гарантії для іноземних інвесторів, основні з яких:

1) національний режим, тобто іноземні інвестори мають право користуватися умовами не менш сприятливими, ніж вітчизняні інвестори;

2) урядові гарантії від імені держави;

3) гарантії від змін законодавства та політичної ситуації;

4) гарантії від експропріації та ін.

За участю іноземного капіталу можна вирішувати такі завдання:

- Підвищити ефективність переробних підприємств в Україні їх експортного потенціалу, подолати сировинну спрямованість економіки країни і розвинути імпортозамінні виробництва;
- Посилити експортну експансію країни і зміцнити її позиції на зовнішніх ринках;
- Провести модернізацію переробних підприємств України, підвищити науково-технічний рівень виробництва на підприємствах за допомогою нової техніки і технологій, методів управління і збуту продукції, здійснити повну механізацію, автоматизацію і роботизацію підприємств;
- Збільшити податкові надходження до державного бюджету;
- Сприяти розвитку відсталих і депресивних районів і створити нові робочі місця в національній економіці;
- Використовувати сучасний виробничий і управлінський досвід через навчання і перепідготовку кадрів.

Таким чином, зовнішнє інвестування виступає як об'єктивно необхідний процес для України, тому що він сприяє подоланню економічної кризи і, одночасно, фінансової стабілізації економіки, вирішує стратегічні і тактичні завдання макроекономічного характеру, такі як боротьба з інфляцією, структурна перебудова, викорінення технологічної та управлінської відсталості економіки.

Список використаної літератури

1. Г.Є. Мєняйлова Проблеми впровадження нових техніки та технології на переробних підприємствах [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу : http:// www.google.com.ua/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0ahUKEwjc2MGI9ZPXAhVJJ5oKHRiiCecQFggmMAA&url=http%3A%2F%2Firbis-nbuv.gov.ua%2Fcgi-bin%2Firbis_nbuv%2Fcgiirbis_64.exe%3FC21COM%3D2%26I21DBN%3DUJRN%26P21DBN%3DUJRN%26IMAGE_FILE_DOWNLOAD%3D1%26Image_file_name%3DPDF%2Feconrig_2014_2_12.pdf&usg=AOvVaw0ZyesQKdChuYEcD-5i4Ymw
2. Голованова М. А. Проблеми підвищення інвестиційної привабливості України / М. А. Голованова, В. І. Мельникова, О. П. Мельникова, О. Г. Мельников // Бізнес Інформ. - 2012. - № 6. - С. 59-62.
3. Лагодієнко В. В. Розвиток переробної промисловості агропромислового сектору південного регіону [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу : http://www.rusnauka.com/9._EISN_2007/Economics/21392.doc.htm

4. Притула Н. М. Сучасний стан та актуальні проблеми розвитку інвестиційної політики в АПК [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу : http://firearticles.com/economika-apk/160-suchasnij-stan-ta-aktualni-problemi-rozvitku-investicijnoyi-politiki-v-apk-pritula-n-m.html

5. Про іноземні інвестиції в українські переробні підприємства [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу : http://www.polpravozhit.in.ua/2016/02/blog-post_19.html

6. Фоміна Т.В. Порядок оподаткування переробних підприємств та виплати компенсацій сільськогосподарським товаровиробникам [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу : http://dspace.kntu.kr.ua/jspui/bitstream/123456789/737/1/43.pdf

Dariya Marushchak
PhD, Associate professor
Department of international economy and business
Cherkasy state technological university
Lilia Hnidenko
Student
Department of international economy and business
Cherkasy state technological university

ВПЛИВ ТРАНСНАЦІОНАЛЬНИХ КОРПОРАЦІЙ НА НАВКОЛИШНЄ СЕРЕДОВИЩЕ

На сучасному етапі головною тенденцією світового розвитку є глобалізація міжнародних економічних відносин, а однією з головних рушійних сил глобалізації стали транснаціональні корпорації.

Транснаціональні корпорації складають основу економік найрозвиненіших країн світу, вони є наймогутнішими суб'єктами світового господарства. Інтенсивний розвиток ТНК дозволяє стверджувати, що ТНК мають величезний виробничий потенціал, на них припадає основна частина прямих іноземних інвестицій, а також вони відіграють вирішальну роль у науково-технічному прогресі.

Так, у 1984 році в Індії сталася одна з найтяжчих хімічних аварій на великій міжнародній корпорації Union Carbide. Як наслідок – у навколишнє середовище потрапило понад 40 тонн отруйного метилового газу ізоціаніду. Тисячі людей загинули одразу ж, а загальна кількість жертв, з урахуванням тих, що померли від хвороб пізніше, перевищила 10000. ТНК відшкодувала індійській державі 470 млн. доларів, але цього виявилось недостатньо тому держава повинна була повернути людям різницю самостійно [1].

Найбільші і найнебезпечніші екологічні катастрофи мають місце саме в країнах, які ще не сформували міцну екологічну законодавчу базу. В розвинених країнах за порушення екологічних норм на ТНК накладають багатомільйонні штрафи, тому ТНК переносять забруднюючі та потенційно небезпечні виробництва в ті країни, де менш жорсткий правовий екологічний й інвестиційний режим. ТНК дозволяють собі чинити екологічні злочини та не нести за це жодної відповідальності, тому для таких приймаючих країн це означає ріст екологічних ризиків. Наприклад, у 1970 р. у Нігерії стався прорив нафти нафтопереробної компанії «Shell», проте корпорації за це так і не відповіла. За словами експертів, розмір компенсації за усі екологічні злочини компанії „Shell" відповідає державному бюджету Нігерії [4].

Проте, поряд виникає й інша доволі негативна практика, коли підприємство позиціонує себе як соціально відповідальне, щорічно оприлюднює соціальні звіти, а в дійсності не здійснює ніяких соціальних інвестицій. Тому, у ряді випадків варто ставити під сумнів достовірність звітів, які надають підприємства про свої соціальні інвестиції.

У випадках, коли корпорації заявляють про екологічну чистоту своєї продукції, не маючи на те підстав, доцільно говорити про «зелений камуфляж» або «greenwashing». «Greenwash» - це дезінформування компаніями з метою створення іміджу відповідального ставлення до навколишнього середовища», що також можна перевести як «відмивання» іміджу [5]. Термін «Greenwash» з'явився в розвинених країнах в 1970-і роки. Особливу популярність дана стратегія набула тоді, коли почався стрімкий ріст суспільної екологічної свідомості.

Ці зусилля ТНК спрямовані на те, щоб позиціонувати себе в очах громадськості як друга та захисника природи і уникнути державних та міжнародних санкцій за свою забруднюючу діяльність і порушення міжнародних та державних екологічних стандартів, підтримки іміджу компанії, отримання політичної підтримки, збільшення продажів.

Дослідження світового лідера екологічного маркетингу TerraChoice показують, що у 98% споживчої продукції, що позиціонується як екологічно чиста, можна виявити порушення [7]. Основні зображено на рис. 1 в порядку зменшення частоти їх використання:

За даними рис.1 можна зробити висновок про те, що виробники зазначають на пакуванні, що його продукт є «біо», «еко» чи навіть «органічним», при цьому не маючи жодних доказів відносно цих тверджень. Намагаються підкреслити якісні показники продукції, застосовуючи несправжні сертифікати. Іноді описують в загальних рисах, недостатньо конкретні екологічні твердження, наприклад «100% натуральний продукт», але деякі небезпечні речовини мають натуральне походження, наприклад, миш'як або нітрат можуть бути дуже шкідливими для здоров'я людини [3].

Незважаючи на недобросовісне ставлення деяких ТНК до навколишнього середовища існують багато компаній, які активно застосовували маркетингові екостратегії на практиці. Адже екологічний фактор у діяльності транснаціональних корпорацій становить особливий інтерес як у пошуку вдалих шляхів виходу із глобальної екологічної кризи, так і з погляду зміни екологічної практики самих ТНК. Зрозуміло, що значення екофактора в їх діяльності буде постійно зростати у майбутньому.

Для охорони навколишнього середовища ОЕСР розробила керівні принципи для багатонаціональних підприємств, відповідно до яких ТНК мають, в рамках законів, інструкцій та адміністративної практики тих країн, де вони ведуть свою діяльність, в належній мірі враховувати необхідність охорони навколишнього середовища, забезпечення здоров'я та безпеки громадян і вести свою діяльність таким чином, щоб сприяти досягненню більш широкої мети сталого розвитку [2].

Рис. 2 Керівні принципи охорони навколишнього середовища для ТНК

Джерело: Складено автором на основі [2]

Отже, попри весь позитивний вплив на екологію міжнародні корпорації залишаються головною причиною погіршення стану навколишнього середовища. Гонитва за прибутком змушує ТНК ігнорувати можливі негативні наслідки їхньої діяльності для суспільства, особливо в тих країнах де чітко не сформована законодавча база. Багато ТНК застосовують «greenwashing», задля створення іміджу відповідального ставлення до навколишнього середовища, як наслідок – дезінформування, замовчування глобальних наслідків та небезпеки для майбутнього. Таким чином, основна причина застосування ТНК «greenwashing» – це бажання самих споживачів мінімізувати негативний вплив на навколишнє середовище.

Чітке виконання керівних принципів ОЕСР щодо охорони навколишнього середовища, допоможуть ТНК досягнути сталого розвитку та значно вплинути на здоров'я нашої планети.

Список використаних джерел

1. Бхопальська катастрофа [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу: http://bigpicture.ru/?p=21101 – Назва з екрану;
2. Керівні принципи для багатонаціональних підприємств ОЕСР / Рекомендації для відповідального ведення бізнесу у глобальному контексті. [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу: http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:KERNnl3KVX0J:www.me.gov.ua/Files/GetFile%3Flang%3Duk-UA%26fileId%3D7a1fc4e7-f326-49ef-b012-ec380facd33b+&cd=8&hl=ru&ct=clnk&gl=ua;
3. Розумний споживач «Екологічне маркування: теорія омани по-українськи». – Електронний ресурс. – Режим доступу: http://www.ecolabel.org.ua/upload/organic-teoriya-omany.pdf;
4. Транснаціональні корпорації – невловимі злодії. [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу: http://politika.org.ua/?p=330 – Назва з екрану;
5. Cambridge dictionary. Визначення терміну «greenwash». [Електронний ресурс]. – Режим доступу: http://dictionary.cambridge.org/ru/%D1%81%D0%BB%D0%BE%D0%B2%D0%B0%D1%80%D1%8C/%D0%B0%D0%BD%D0%B3%D0%BB%D0%B8%D0%B9%D1%81%D0%BA%D0%B8%D0%B9/greenwash?q=Greenwash;
6. Greenwashing – зеленый камуфляж или отмывание бренда [Електронний ресурс] / Информационный ресурс EcologyMD, 2014-01-27. – Режим доступу : http://www.ecology.md/section.php?section=news&id=11413#.VTIkPfA7wxK;
7. TerraChoice [Електронний ресурс] / Greenwashing report, 2010. – Режим доступу http://sinsofgreenwashing.com/index35c6.pdf.

Ivanna Myshchyshyn
researcher,
Department of Regional Environmental Policy
and Natural Resource Management,
State Institution 'The M. I. Dolishniy
Institute of Regional Study
of the National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine'

THE INSURANCE MARKETS OF UKRAINE AND POLAND: COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

The insurance market of the country, as a significant component of the financial market, gets developed under the influence of such factors as social and economic development, special features of the macroeconomic environment, trends in the banking sector's functioning, demographic situation, respective regulatory and legal base, etc. The Ukrainian insurance market has been developing over the recent years under complicated economic and geopolitical conditions which could well become the basis for the development of the direction for considerable improvement of the financial and organizational situation in this segment of the financial market. Thus, on the one hand, there has taken place a noticeable reduction of the financial capacity of insurance service consumers as the result of hryvnia devaluation and economic recession in many key sectors of the economy in 2014-2015. On the other hand, there has been a reform of the banking system, stabilization of the currency exchange rate, improvement of the efficiency of using the targeted international financial aid, introduction of the organizational and legal measures aimed at construction of high-tech industry, the processes of deoligarchisation and anti-corruption constitute positive factors of the insurance market development. The key negative elements in the functioning of the insurance market in the pre-crisis period were capital fragmentation between a large number of insurers and poor level of specificity and poor assortment of insurance products. However, the results of activity of the insurance market in 2016 have shown some positive elements pointing to the reform and financial recovery of the Ukrainian insurance market. In particular, there has been a considerable reduction of the number of insurance companies (from 382 in 2014 to 300 in the 1st quarter of 2017). In Poland the opposite trends could be traced in the insurance market: reduction of the number of insurance companies from 71 in 2005 to 56 in 2014 and increase to 61 in 2016. The downwards tendency as to the number of insurers in the Ukrainian market is a positive feature since it was caused by the commencement of the market reform towards financial recovery [1], [2].

An important characteristic of the insurance market functioning is its structure by the insurance types, which constitutes a kind of reflection of the trends in the development of the country's sectors of economy and macroeconomic environment, as well as attractiveness of insurer's proposals. Among the types of insurance in 2012 the highest were the shares of car insurance (CASCO, obligatory insurance of civil law responsibility, 'Green Card'), property insurance and financial risk insurance, and in 2016 insurance of cargo and baggage added up to those types due to a considerable increase of its share (from 4.93% in 2012 to 12.44 [1].

The above structure constitutes a sign of positive trends in the development of transport and logistic sectors of economy in 2015-2016. Positive changes in the structure of the Ukrainian insurance market also include reduction of the share of financial risk insurance (from 12.10% in 2015 to 10.23% in 2016, which fact testifies to reduced risks in the financial sector of the country [1].

Positive trends, from the point of view of the country's social sphere development, is some growth of the share of medical insurance (standing insurance) from 6.15% in 2012 to 6.70% in 2016, as well as medical costs insurance (from 1.51% to 2.07%, respectively). At the same time, when we compare the structure of the insurance markets of Ukraine and Poland by the types of insurance, one may talk about a considerably higher level of diversification of the latter [1], [2].

Besides that, the Polish group of insurance companies deals with 19 groups of insurance, while Ukrainian insurers provide 14 types of insurance. In the structure of the Polish insurance market a high share is taken by life insurance (32.8% in 2016 against 53.3 in 2012), life insurance in case it is related to the insurance fund (43.3% against 33.1%, respectively). In the insurance market of Ukraine the share of this type of insurance in 2016 made up 7.84% against 8.41% in 2012 [1].

The second place in the structure of the Polish insurance market goes to liability insurance arising as the result of ownership and use of ground vehicles (36.2% in 2016 against 34.0% in 2012), while in

Ukraine this type of insurance takes the first place, with the share of 26.38% in 2016 against 29.07% in 2012 [1], [2].

Due to the changes in the structure of Ukraine's insurance market a conclusion may be drawn that domestic insurance companies are making their first steps towards improved investment attractiveness and revived consumer trust in insurance services. This stage of the insurance market reform has been successfully implemented in Poland and finally promoted considerable involvement of foreign capital, increased financial reliability of insurers and increased amount of financial resources involved in this sector of the financial market. Thus, the share of foreign capital in the Polish insurance market in 2016 made up 65.3% [2].

Therefore, the key prospects of the Ukrainian insurance system may lie in efficient state regulation, the way it was implemented in the banking sector, as well as creation of conditions for capital consolidation and raising in this segment of the financial market.

References

1. Official site of the National Commission for State Regulation of the Financial Services Markets [Electronic resource]. – Access mode: http://nfp.gov.ua/

2. Official site of the Polish Chamber of Insurance [Electronic resource]. – Access mode: http://piu.org.pl

Секція 6

ЕКОЛОГО-ЕКОНОМІЧНІ ПРОБЛЕМИ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИХ РИНКІВ В ГЛОБАЛІЗОВАНІЙ ЕКОНОМІЦІ

Session 6

EVIROMENTAL AND ECONOMIC PROBLEMS OF THE NATIONAL MARKETS IN A GLOBALIZING WORLD ECONOMY

Iryna Prykhodko
PhD, Associate Professor
Department International
Economic Relations
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv
e-mail: iryna.prykhodko2015@gmail.com
Yuriy Zanko
PhD in Economic, Docent, Professor of the
Department of Regional Studies and International Tourism
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv

"GREEN TECHNOLOGIES" AS AN ENVIRONMENTAL MODERNIZATION FACTOR OF UKRAINE

The need of development, improvement and the environmentally friendly production expansion in Ukraine is caused by the priorities defined in the international documents such as: the United Nations Convention on the Environment and Development (1992), the United Nations «Millennium Declaration» (2000), the World Summit Documents about sustainable development in Johannesburg (2002), the Laws of Ukraine "The priority development directions of science and technology" and "The priority development directions of innovation activity in Ukraine", The Decrees of the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine "The Parliamentary Hearings Recommendations on the Environmental Law Requirements Compliance in Ukraine" (2003), and Ukraine's commitments to the requirements implementation of the International Declaration on Cleaner Production, as well as the "National Concept for the Environmentally Friendly Production Implementation and Development in Ukraine" which is presented in the form of the Cabinet of Ministers bill (2005) and the Basic Principles (Strategy) of the State Environmental Policy of Ukraine for the period till 2020 ".

The main principles are to achieve the following strategic goals:

- the level of social ecological consciousness enhancement;
- the ecological situation improvement and the level of ecological safety increase;
- the environmentally safe human health achievement;

- the integration of environmental policy and the integrated environmental management system improvement;

- the reduction of losses of the biological and landscape diversity and the ecological network formation;

- the ecologically balanced nature management provision;

- the regional environmental policy improvement [1].

The rational consumption of natural resources through the environmentally friendly technologies introduction is a main factor of economic growth and competitiveness of Ukraine's economy.

One can determine the ecologically clean technologies as the technologies that provide environmental protection, the minimum level of pollution, the rational use of natural resources, the large part of the waste recycling.

In the sustainable development context, the environmentally friendly technologies are characterized by the number of features:

- the environmental sustainability - the ecosystems and natural resources protection;

- the economic stability – the reducing costs for the production output and environmental pollution control, the market attractiveness of the enterprise increasing;

- the social and cultural certainty - the social and cultural values preservation and enhancement, the working conditions and the health care improvement [2].

According to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) classification, the following green technologies classes are considered in the field of implementation:

- the general environmental management (the air and water pollution reduction, the waste management, the soil restoration, and the environmental monitoring);

- the energy production from the renewable and alternative incombustible sources;

- the utilization with the reducing greenhouse gas emissions facility;

- the climate change mitigation (the capture and the greenhouse gases storage);

- the indirect contribution to the emission reductions (energy saving, hydrogen production, fuel cells);

- the emissions reduction and the efficiency of use of fuel in transport increase;
- the energy efficiency increase in buildings and lighting systems [3, 4].

This classification reflects the green technologies evolution: from the first generation of "the end technology", to the second one - "the prevention technologies" that reduce the environmental consequences, increase the production efficiency, and to the third - "the environmentally sustainable technologies" (integrated systemically to ensure all sustainable development aspects: economic, environmental and social). All of them require business motivation for their implementation.

The clean technologies introduction requires the active participation of the state through:

- the regulatory framework improvement for the reduction of environmental pollution stimulating. In 2015 Ukraine signed the Paris Climatic Agreement and committed to reduce its greenhouse gas emissions by 2030 from the 1990 level: up to 60% - for the «active investment scenario» and up to 45% for the «pessimistic scenario» [5, p. 18].
- the development of environmentally friendly production national programs adoption. In particular, the national energy efficiency action plan implementation for the period up to 2020, which is aimed to reduce the final consumption of energy.
- the stimulation of the environmentally safe enterprises development through the environmentally effective technologies introduction, lending and taxation conditions.

Nowadays, the problem of dealing with solid household waste is especially acute. In Ukraine, there are five types of technologies (burning recycling, composting, heat treatment, garbage disposal and recycling). It is advisable to obtain the additional energy resources from the recycling process.

- the ecological management improvement and control systems in accordance with national and international standards. An important task is to introduce an ecosystem approach to the management and to coordinate its national development strategy with the requirements of the Sustainable Ecological and Economic Development of the EU.

- the environmental certification. In particular, in Ukraine, the area of certified land that are cultivated for the organic products is more than 400 thousand hectares. The share of certified organic areas in the total territory of the country reached 0.66%, in the total amount of agricultural land - 0.97% [5, p. 29].

- the development stimulating and the innovations implementation with a high degree of environmental friendliness and cost-effectiveness. It is necessary to increase the state financing of priority directions of innovation activity. Thus, in 2015, the state budget expenditures for the research and innovation in the "green" areas amounted to 5138.5 million UAH, or only 15.1% of the total budget allocated to the science and innovation [5, p. 41]

- the development of high-tech industries acceleration, and the comprehensive development of domestic information technologies;

- the implementation of sustainable economic mechanisms of nature management. The main pollutants in Ukraine are metallurgical enterprises (27.7% of total amount of CO_2 emissions are from the stationary sources of pollution), as well as production and distribution of electricity, gas and water (54.7% of the stationary sources of pollution).

- the stimulation of the introduction of environmentally safe, energy efficient and resource-saving technologies;

Among the European countries Ukraine takes one of the last places in the "green technologies"attraction. The clean technologies market is at an initial stage. The obstacles to the "green" technologies implementing are: lack of awareness of their effectiveness; the high cost of a new infrastructure, which entails the abandonment of such innovations; high cost and long payback period, which reduces investment attractiveness.

The ecological modernization of Ukraine is possible in case of:

- the implementation of resource-saving and non-waste technologies;

- the production optimization in order to reduce the use of raw materials and natural resources;

- the reduction of volumes of industrial waste and introduction of the innovative methods of their processing;

- the environmental damage prevention;

- the renewable forms of energy and materials introduction;

- the level of environmental education of the population increase;

- the "green investments" attracting as a factor of a new economic development vector.

References

1. About the Main Principles (Strategy) of the State Environmental Policy of Ukraine for the Period till 2020: The Law of Ukraine // Bulletin of the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine. - 2011. - No. 26. - P. 1284.

2. Nikishyna O. V. The environmentally friendly production introduction as a way to increase the competitiveness of enterprises / O. V. Nikishyna, G. S. Korchakovska // Proceedings of Odessa Polytechnic University. - 2007. - No. 1 (27). - P. 283 - 288.

3. Musina L. A. The green technologies and innovations as a factor of economic growth. - STI - 2012. - No. 4. - P. 22 - 28.

4. Shumilova I. Sh. Orientation to the "ecologization" of modern technologies / I.Sh. Shumilova // Technical sciences. - No. 8-9 (54-55) - 2016. [Electronic resource]. - Access mode: http: //www.colloquium-publishing. ru / library / index.php / NU_TECH / article / view / 2189/215

5. Report about Green Transformation in Ukraine based on OECD Green Growth Indicators. - Ministry of Economic Development and Trade of Ukraine, 2016. – 60p.

Stefka Ivanova
Assistant Professor, Department of Finances and Accounting
St. Cyril and St. Methodius University of Veliko Turnovo
Bulgaria
e-mail: stefka_kalcheva@abv.bg'

TRADITIONAL OR ECO-MATERIALS – A CHALLENGE FOR CONSTRUCTION ENTERPRISES

The area of construction requires the use of large amount of materials distinguished by their variety. This corresponds to a complex character of the construction process which includes multiple different types of construction works. One peculiarity of construction, unlike other manufacturing industries, is that a large part of used building materials after being used in the process of construction retain their composition and shape, changing only to a certain extent as a result of being connected with each other during the construction.

Today the environmental situation requires construction enterprises to seek and use more economical and environmentally friendly building materials. However, the problem that arises is the higher price of eco-materials compared to traditional materials. Therefore, construction companies are faced with the challenge to find and use more accessible and at the same time innovative building materials.

Depending on the material composition and the way of production, building materials are divided into:

1. Natural stone materials - roughly processed stone materials (crushed stone, gravel, sand), stone blocks, facing tiles, mosaic and mosaic blocks and others;
2. Ceramic materials - bricks, tiles, ceramic blocks, faience and others;
3. Wood material - beams, boards, parquet, joinery, wooden constructions and others;
4. Metals - steel and its products (fittings, tubes, metal structures), metalwork, sheet metal, non-ferrous metals (copper, zinc, lead, nickel, bronze, aluminum, etc.);
5. Inorganic binders - lime, cement, gypsum;

6. Building solutions - concrete, lime, asphalt;

7. Glassware;

8. Plastics;

9. Organic binders - bitumen, asphalt, roofing and waterproofing materials, emulsions, pastes and others.

In practice, construction enterprises tend to use new, more efficient materials. There are the following options regarding their application in construction :

introduction of new, unused materials;

providing a new, more efficient and effective form of known building materials;

implementation of new technological methods in the manufacturing and use of construction materials.

The new ones refer to those materials that have recently or relatively recently been used in construction. These are, for example, materials used for other purposes and in other industries; wastes from other industries; construction materials with new, altered chemical composition or with new physical structure of the substance.

The second option refers to providing new qualities of the widely used and known at the moment materials through rational changes in their external form, thus achieving certain technical and economic improvements. However, it should be noted that form change of the materials, which can take place both in the production process and after processing, does not affect their substantial composition.

The third option consists in introducing changes in the technology of production and in the use of materials on the construction site, which will help to improve their technical properties and economical efficiency.

It can be summarized that the main objective pursued by the use of new and improved materials is the lowering of the cost of construction works. In practice, this is achieved in different ways. For example, as results of improving the production technology, the value of the materials in their production process may be reduced and also their strength, durability, and quality may increase. In addition, greater material strength increases the durability of the relevant structures in the buildings and facilities that contribute to the maintenance and repair cost reduction. New, more efficient materials mostly imported essential amenities in working with them in the execution of construction operations.

In recent years, the issue of the impact of building materials on the environment has been increasingly discussed. The fact is that traditional building materials have a harmful effect on the environment. Construction companies are faced with the challenge of using materials with minimal negative effect on the environment. Ecological or so-called "green" materials provide an opportunity for creating a green living environment and for optimizing the use of energy and raw material resources. In this sense, the use of "green" building materials must ensure a safe and healthy environment, on the one hand, and a minimal impact on the environment during the construction process, on the other. Environmentally friendly materials are those which result from minimal processing and which are natural products. They can be defined as "green" because of low energy consumption and reduced risk of harmful emissions during their production. They can include materials from wood, agricultural and other plants, natural stone products, clay, etc.

It can be summarized that building materials are considered to be environmentally-friendly in case of the following:

the affect of their production on the environment is minimal;

they are an alternative to similar materials containing chemicals which are considered harmful (toxic);

their use in the construction process contributes to lower level of pollution.

It is known that the production of building materials and the execution of construction works consume considerable amounts of energy. Furthermore, the production processes lead to emission of harmful substances which pollute the environment. The global depletion of natural resources and the presence of toxic elements in building materials are the major reasons for the development of alternative methods in the area of construction, such as: reuse of materials, recycling, use of non-synthetic and non-toxic materials, use of materials with low impact on humans and the environment. In addition, construction companies should avoid using products containing ozone-depleting substances or other harmful substances which can pose ecological or health threats.

Nowadays, in carrying out its activities, construction enterprises are faced with the challenge of using solely eco-materials or in combination with traditional building materials. Their choice must be accompanied by a detailed analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of using both types of materials. Moreover, "green" materials must be able to fully replace traditional ones by function and purpose, and ensure high quality of construction works.

Iliyan Mateev
Dr, Assistant Professor
St. Cyril and St. Methodius University of Veliko Turnovo
Bulgaria

ECONOMIC RELATIONS OF THE EUROPEAN UNION WITH THE REPUBLIC OF KOREA

The Republic of Korea (ROK) is the third most important partner of the European Union in East Asia. POK is the world's eleventh economy with a nominal GDP of $1.41 trillion and Asia's fourth biggest economy after China ($11.20 trillion), Japan ($4.94 trillion) and India ($2.63 trillion).

The continued military dictatorship from 1961 until 1988 was one of the main barriers to the conclusion of formal relations between the European Community and the Republic of Korea in the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s. The transition from a totalitarian to democratic system of governance, which occurred in 1987-1988, allowed the start of dialogue between the EU and the ROK in early 1990s.

The first result of this dialogue was to launch negotiations in 1995, signing of the Framework Agreement for Trade and Cooperation. This was the EU's recognition of the growing role of the ROK in the world economy. The Framework Agreement, together with the political declaration attached to it, was signed in October 1996 but was subject to ratification by all EU Member States, which lagged behind the Asian financial crisis, which began in the summer of 1997. Shortly before, on May 13, 1997, the EU and the ROK signed an Agreement between the European Community and the Republic of Korea on cooperation and mutual administrative assistance in customs matters, which entered into force before the Framework Agreement.

The Asian financial crisis of 1997-1998 has, however, led to significant problems in the face of the newly developed bilateral economic relations. Due to the economic difficulties of the Republic of Korea, whose nominal GDP dropped significantly in 1998: -5.47% (except 1998, in the period from 1960 to 2016, the South Korean economy experienced only one "negative" growth in 1980: -1.70%), Exports to the EU decreased significantly.

Until the beginning of the Asian Financial Crisis, the EU-origin investment was not stimulated by the South Korean governments, as in the 1960s, 1970s, 1980s and early 1990s, the Korean state sought to build its own, relatively independent economic system based on large Korean corporations - the so-called "chaebols" (similar to the Japanese "keiretsu"). The origin of the bulk of foreign investment was American and Japanese. After the crisis, the South Korean government, however, has liberalized its investment policy in the direction of attracting capital from other countries, including the EU, which recently has overtaken the United States and Japan and has become the largest investor in the Republic of Korea.

EU foreign direct investments reached EUR 49.7 billion in 2015, representing more than 20% of the capital inflow into the Republic of Korea. At the same time, South Korean investments in the EU also increased, reaching 20.9 billion Euro in 2015.

The Republic of Korea regained astonishingly fast from the Asian financial crisis - in 1999, the nominal GDP grew by 11.31%, taking a number of lessons that helped later to bear the 2008-2009 World Financial Crisis relatively lightly (in 2008, 2009 and 2010, the nominal GDP of the Republic of Korea increased by 2.83%, 0.71% and 6.50% respectively).

In December 1998 the European Commission presented to the EU Council and the European Parliament a report on the future development of EU-Republic of Korea relations, which was adopted by the EU Council on July 19, 1999. In March 2000, the EU Council adopted decision on the ratification of the signed in October 1996 Framework Agreement on Trade and Cooperation, which entered into force on April 1, 2001. It gave a qualitatively new impetus to the development of bilateral economic and political relations between the EU and the ROK, based on mutual equality. On May 10, 2010, it was supplemented and updated as the new form came into force on June 1, 2014.

Similarly to the EU-China and EU-Japan meetings, EU-South Korea meetings also took place in Asia-Europe meetings. Bilateral relations started to develop more dynamically, which led to the launch of negotiations in 2007 on a Free Trade Agreement (FTA) with Korea. They were expected to end in 2009. Because of a number of disputes, mostly with European motor vehicle Companies (disturbed by the competition of Hyundai-Kia and the South Korean unit of General Motors - Chevrolet), they prolonged a year more. On September 16, 2010 the European Council supported the signing of the agreement, which was realized technically in Brussels on October 6, 2010. This FTA is the first between the EU and an East Asia country. The starting date of its limited application was set for July 1, 2011 as its full implementation was required ratification by member states. After the ratification of the agreement on September 14, 2015 by Italy (the 28th ratified EU Member State), it was ratified by the EU on October 9, 2015 and by the Republic of Korea on October 14, 2015 and entered into force.

In 2016, the European Union was the third most important foreign trade partner of the Republic of Korea, after the PRC and the USA (third in exports, after the PRC and the US, second in imports, after the PRC). Like trade with Japan, this is due to somewhat stronger political ties with the US than with the EU. Especially in the context of the Korean Peninsula tensions.

Table 1. Main Foreign Trade Partners of the Republic of Korea (Top 10)

Partner	Export Mln.USD 2016	Share, 2016 %	Import Mln.USD 2016	Share, 2016 %	Total Trade, Mln.USD 2016	Share, 2016 %
The World (WTO)	495465.6	100.00	406060.0	100.00	901525.6	100.00
P.R. China	124432.7	25.11	86962.0	21.42	211394.7	23.45
USA	66756.0	13.47	43396.4	10.69	110152.4	12.22
European Union	**47284.4**	**9.54**	**51908.7**	**12.78**	**99193.1**	**11.00**
Japan	24356.6	4.92	47454.1	11.69	71810.7	7.97

Vietnam	32650.6	6.59	12495.1	3.08	45145.7	5.01
S.A.R. Hong Kong	32779.5	6.16	1614.2	0.40	34393.7	3.82
Taiwan	12220.7	2.47	16402.1	4.04	28622.8	3.17
Australia	7488.8	1.51	15165.4	3.73	22654.2	2.51
Saudi Arabia	5645.0	1.14	15723.4	3.87	21368.4	2.37
Singapore	12459.2	2.51	6805.7	1.68	19264.9	2.14

Source: www.intracen.org/ - International Trade Centre (Geneva)

In 2016, almost 80% of the Republic of Korea's foreign trade with the EU was due to ten member countries: Germany, Great Britain, Italy, France, the Netherlands, Spain, Belgium, Poland, Sweden, and the Czech Republic.

The five most important export partners of ROK are the United Kingdom (14.64%), Germany (13.63%), the Netherlands (8.08%), Italy (6.69%), and Poland (6.16%).

The five most important import partners of ROK are Germany (36.44%), France (11.26%), Italy (10.45%), the United Kingdom (10.05%), and the Netherlands (8.14%).

Soth Korea exports to the EU mainly include machinery and equipment, transport equipment, electronics and plastics, and imports machinery and equipment, transport equipment, chemicals and pharmaceuticals. In the last few years, the trade balance for the trade of goods is positive for the EU. The EU's trade balance is also positive for the trade of services. In 2014, their exports to the Republic of Korea amounted to $ 13.1 billion, while their imports amounted to 6.6 billion US dollars.

The European Union relations with the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK) are at a significantly lower level than those with the Republic of Korea, with which member states of the Union profess common democratic values.

Table 2. Main Foreign Trade Partners of the Republic of Korea in the European Union (Top 10)

Partner	Export Mln.USD 2016	Share, 2016 %	Import Mln.USD 2016	Share, 2016 %	Total Trade, Mln.USD 2016	Share, 2016 %
European Union	**47284.4**	**100.00**	**51908.7**	**100.00**	**99193.1**	**100.00**
Germany	6445.8	13.63	18916.7	36.44	25362.5	25.57
United Kingdom	6922.4	14.64	5214.6	10.05	12137.0	12.24
Italy	3164.6	6.69	5425.6	10.45	8590.2	8.66
France	2504.1	5.30	5847.4	11.26	8351.5	8.42
Netherlands	3818.6	8.08	4227.8	8.14	8046.4	8.11
Spain	2328.3	4.92	2004.5	3.86	4332.8	4.36
Belgium	2427.7	5.13	1073.2	2.07	3500.9	3.53
Poland	2912.8	6.16	541.3	1.04	3454.1	3.48
Sweden	804.3	1.70	1592.7	3.07	2397.0	2.42
Czech Republic	2175.8	4.60	619.2	1.19	2175.8	2.19

Source: www.intracen.org/ - International Trade Centre (Geneva)

The regular political dialogue between the EU and the DPRK was launched in 1998. The European Union supports the efforts of the international community to achieve lasting peace on the Korean Peninsula.

In May 2001, the European Union concluded diplomatic relations with the Democratic People's Republic of Korea and most of its member states had such diplomatic relations. This allows the situation in North Korea to be directly monitored, especially when it comes to human rights issues.

The DPRK is not a member of the World Trade Organization and its economic links with the EU are at an extremely low level.

In 2016, DPRK exports amounted to $ 2.90 billion (87.6% of it was for the PRC) and imports to 3.13 billion USD (90.7% of it was from the PRC).

References

1. Fwww.consilium.europa.eu/ - Council of the European Union
2. http://ec.europa.eu/trade/ - European Commission - Directorate General for Trade
3. https://eeas.europa.eu/ - European External Action Service
4. http://eur-lex.europa.eu/ - European Union Law
5. www.intracen.org/ - International Trade Centre (Geneva)
6. www.worldbank.org/ - World Bank Group

Grażyna Śmigielska
Cracow University of Economics
Kraków, Poland
e-mail: smigielg@uek.krakow.pl

TENDENCIES IN SUPPLY CHAIN MANAGEMENT - SOME EVIDENCE FROM FMCG MARKET N POLAND

Introduction

The issue of supply chain management (SCM) is very popular. This study highlights the current problems of supply chain development caused by introducing new technologies and growing consumer needs. The stages of SCM development are discussed for the FMCG supply channels. An attempt to identify these stages in Poland is also made.

Supply chains and their management

Supply chains, defined as a series of activities related to planning, coordinating and controlling the flow of materials, parts and final products from suppliers to end buyers, began their rapid development in the 1980s (Stevens, 1989). The idea was rooted in the supply processes of manufacturers.

The establishment of supply chains began as the reaction to increasing competition and consumer demand as well as progressive globalisation processes. In such conditions, product distribution channels, where participants appeared as independent links and competed for a share in the margin whilst pursuing their own goals, were becoming insufficient for effective competitiveness on an increasingly demanding market. Therefore, they were replaced by supply chains aimed at synchronising the flow of materials from suppliers with consumer demands in order to achieve a balance between their goals often regarded as contradictory, i.e. high customer service, low expenditure on supplies and low unit costs.

In the 1990s as a result of these changes in highly developed western countries the old system – called the push up model – in which wholesalers purchased and stocked goods, began to be replaced by the new model – the pull up model. This was noticed by Christopher (2016, p.22), who defined SCM as "the management of a network of organisations that are involved, through upstream and downstream links, in the different processes and activities that produce value in the form of products and services in the hands of the ultimate consumers”. This means that supply chains should react to demand changes in real time (Barczak and Walas-Trębacz, 2011).

This process was stimulated by the emergence and development of information technologies. In the FMCG market, Lowson (2001) distinguishes the four stages of supply chain evolution:

1. Characteristic of a decentralised market, when there is no co-operation between the links of the supply chain.
2. Characteristic of the end of the industrial phase, when mass production and the increased power of retailers led to noting the importance of co-operation and its first attempts.
3. The beginning of the post-industrial phase with electronic data interchange (EDI) bringing together elements of the chain and making it possible to adapt freely to changes in demand.
4. The present stage, when different types of customers have particular needs, which links of the supply chain must respond to by providing value. A buyer continuously needs change over time and organisations are involved simultaneously in a series of value clusters which allow for so-called mass customisation.

This frequently quoted development of the supply chain proposed by R. H. Lowson should be complemented with one more stage, when not only information technologies but also social responsibility practices unite the elements. These are the practices targeted at suppliers such as, for example, supplier training, codes of ethics applied in relations with the suppliers as well some ethical standards as far as product manufacturing and its sale to end consumers are concerned.

Contemporary supply chains must be agile (Christopher, 2000, Rimienė, 2011). “Agility is the ability of a company to profitably exploit market opportunities in a changing market environment, quickly and flexibly respond to the consumers’ needs and, qualitatively suffering minimum cost satisfy them by using innovative solutions and partnership cooperation” (Rimienė, 2011, p. 895). Agile supply chains have many distinctive characteristics, the most distinctive of which include: response, competence, flexibility, speed and responsibility for social and environmental problems (Christopher and Towill, 2001, Yusuf et.al., 1999).

FMCG supply chains managed by retailers – some evidence from Poland

The supply chain can be managed by any of its links. On the FMCG market the chains of mass merchandisers have a strong position and often become integrators. It is also the case in Poland where mass merchandisers hold a powerful position in the distribution channel. Following the socio-economic changes in the early 1990s, the Polish market was very fragmented. There were mostly small- and medium-sized enterprises, which did not develop relationships with suppliers. In the mid-1990s, mass merchandisers (mostly foreign chains) began to develop. They abused their power, often breaking the terms of contracts or forcing producers to sign contracts which were unfavourable for them. Thus, foreign retailers kept most of the margins for themselves whereas Polish producers had problems surviving on the market.

But over time the situation changed a little bit. The results of the research conducted by the Office of Competition and Consumer Protection (UOKiK) and published in 2005 showed that, as far as fresh food is concerned, foreign retail chains preferred Polish suppliers and 40% of them had strategic partners. Mostly the relations were unstable. On the other hand, 60% of the producers surveyed declared that they produced their own brand products which should have stimulated the development of long-term relations with them (Report UOKiK, 2005).

The subsequent stages of supply chain development were approached slowly. They were stimulated by concentration processes, growing competition and consumer expectations. The implementation of new technologies (including EDI) and the development of corporate social responsibility activities targeted at suppliers became the key symptoms of these changes. Information technologies determine the efficiency of logistic operations but they are also considered to be an important marketing tool.

The development of corporate social responsibility was stimulated inter alia by the growing role of own brands (Bilińska-Reformat and Stefańska, 2013). This led not only to the increase of their market share but also changed their positioning, allowing them to compete with national brands not only in price but also in other characteristics. Some of them are positioned as organic and aimed at the so-called health food market sector.

A four-stage supply chain development process could be identified in Poland based on the above description (see Table 1).

Table 1. The stages of SCM development in Poland.

Stages of SCM development	Market characteristics	SCM characteristics
I stage 1989-1994	The structure of the FMCG market is fragmented, “Społem” cooperative	No cooperation in the distribution channel.
II stage 1995-2005	The beginning of the concentration process.	Poor relations, Mass merchandisers change suppliers. In the beginning of XXI c. first attempts at cooperation, due to the development of private brands.
III stage 2006-2010	The competition is growing. On the FMCG the demand for hypermarkets seems to be saturated, the chains of discounters and supermarkets begin to grow, as well as franchise systems. The beginning of marketing orientation.	Retailers operating as chains build logistics centres, introduce IT and develop own brands, which induce more stable relationships.
IV stage 2011-now	Market saturation, hypermarket, supermarket and discounter chains compete heavily.	Mass merchandisers start to develop stable relations with suppliers, introduce CSR standards.

Source: developed by the Author.

These initiatives testify to the growing interest of retail FMCG in developing long-term relations with suppliers. On the other hand, the research conducted in Poland showed that, although the companies in the distribution channel perceived the need for cooperation and its benefits, an exchange of knowledge between retail chains and manufacturers as well as cooperation in the creation of own brands is poorly developed (Kłosiewicz- Górecka, 2011).

Conclusions

The problems of SCM are among the most important nowadays because in fact not companies but supply chains are now competing on a global scale. In some sectors such as FMCG the responsibility for their effective management now often rests on retailers. It is also the case in Poland, where striving for effectiveness they have gone through the same stages as in highly developed countries.

References

1. Barczak B., Walas-Trębacz J. (2011), Uwarunkowania tworzenia relacji partnerskich w ramach sieci dostaw, (Determinants of Creating Partnership Relations in Supply Networks) [in:] Współpraca w łańcuchach dostaw a konkurencyjność przedsiębiorstw i kooperujących sieci, (ed.) Brdulak H., Duliniec E., Gołębiowski T., Warszawa, SGH, Oficyna Wydawnicza., pp. 26-49.

2. Bilińska-Reformat K., Stefańska M. (2013), Cooperation of commercial chains with suppliers in the context of CSR concept, "Вісник Національного університету", no 762, pp. 15-20.

3.Christopher M. (2000), The Agile Supply Chain: Competing in Volatile Markets, "Industrial Marketing Management" 29 (1), pp. 37-44.

4.Christopher, M. (2016). Logistics & supply chain management. Pearson UK.

5. Christopher M., Towill D. (2001), An integrated model for the design of agile supply chains, "Journal of Physical Distribution and Logistics Management", 31 (4)

6. Kłosiewicz-Górecka U. (2012), Współpraca sieci handlowych z dostawcami towarów (Cooperation of trade networks with product suppliers), „Handel Wewnętrzny", January-February.

7. Raport UOKiK (2005), Koncentracja i konkurencja w handlu artykułami spożywczymi i artykułami powszechnego użytku w Polsce, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem sieci handlowych (Concentration and competition in the trade of food articles and common use articles in Poland, with particular emphasis on commercial chains), Warsaw.

8. Lowson R. H.(2001), Retail operational strategies in complex supply chain, "International Journal of Logistics Management", 12, pp. 97-111.

9. Rimienė K., (2011), Supply Chain Agility Concept Evolution, "Economics and Management", no 16.

10. Stevens G. C. (1989), Integrating the Supply Chain, "International Journal of Physical Distribution and Materials Management",19(8), pp. 3-8.

11. Yusuf Y., Sarhadi M., Gunasekaran A. (1999), Agile manufacturing: the drivers, concepts and attributes, "International Journal of Production Economics", 62 (1).

Христина Процевят
аспірант кафедри міжнародних економічних відносин
Львівський національний університет імені Івана Франка

ЕКОЛОГО-ЕКОНОМІЧНІ ПРОБЛЕМИ В РАМКАХ БРІКС

Екологічна ситуація і діяльність з охорони навколишнього середовища в країнах БРІКС мають важливе значення не тільки для сталого розвитку в них самих, але і для планети в цілому. Так, в Росії та Бразилії зосереджено 40% світових лісових масивів. На альянс припадає 33% загальносвітового споживання енергії та 37% сукупного обсягу викидів від спалювання палива [1]. Усвідомлюючи гостроту екологічних проблем на всіх рівнях, від локального до глобального, уряди країн БРІКС працюють над вирішенням не тільки проблем економічного зростання, соціальних проблем таких як боротьба з бідністю, а й над поліпшенням стану навколишнього середовища.

На національному рівні практично у всіх країнах БРІКС здійснюються різні спроби інтеграції принципів сталого розвитку в національну політику. Частково ця діяльність стимулюється міжнародними процесами, проте багато в чому це викликано і усвідомленням важливості проблем для розвитку самих країн, вирішення поточних економічних, соціальних та екологічних завдань і збереження ресурсів для майбутніх поколінь.

Протягом останніх десятиліть уряд Китаю продемонстрував настільки сильну прихильність принципам сталого розвитку та їх реалізації на практиці, що багато експертів говорять про «зелену революцію» в цій країні і перетворення її на світового «зеленого» лідера. У країні розроблена концепція сталого розвитку, де включено всі три його компонента - економічний, соціальний та екологічний. Цілі стратегії відображені у всіх національних планах. Уряд Китаю надає безпрецедентну допомогу переходу до сталого розвитку у вигляді дотацій, субсидій, стимулюючих фондів, пільгових кредитів, гарантій та податкових пільг.

Китай підготував спеціальну доповідь з оцінки наслідків приєднання країни до СОТ на екологічну ситуацію в країні, тим самим сприяючи інтеграції принципів сталого розвитку в торговельну політику.

Індія також досягла великих успіхів в інтеграції принципів сталого розвитку в національну політику. З початку 90-х років принципи сталого розвитку стали включатися в процес економічного планування. У 2000-х роках ця робота отримала додатковий поштовх і принципи сталого розвитку стали враховуватися у всіх наступних п'ятирічних планах, а також у Цілях розвитку тисячоліття. У національному економічному плануванні містяться взаємопов'язані між собою плани, програми та ініціативи, що відносяться до різних компонентів сталого розвитку. В Індії активно використовується державна підтримка, субсидії та інші стимули, наприклад, такі інноваційні інструменти, як схема сертифікатів енергозбереження. Вводиться система «зелених» державних закупівель.

Питанням сталого розвитку та «зеленої економіки» приділяється велика увага і в Південній Африці. У 2008 р Кабінет міністрів затвердив документ «Національні рамки сталого розвитку», який зафіксував нову ідеологію в роботі уряду, спрямовану на вирішення соціальних та економічних питань та збереження природних ресурсів. Пізніше на цій основі був схвалений більш комплексний документ - «Національна стратегія сталого розвитку з планом дій на 2011-2014 роки (НСУР-1)».

Рішення економічних, екологічних та соціальних проблем у їх взаємозв'язку займає центральне місце і в політиці Бразилії. У 2002 р був прийнятий «Порядок денний на 21 століття» для Бразилії, підготовлений на основі широких національних консультацій, хоча документ не отримав статусу офіційного.

У Росії були спроби розробити Стратегію сталого розвитку, але до прийняття офіційного документа справа не дійшла. Тим не менш, в Росії робилося безліч дій на різних рівнях за основними напрямками сталого розвитку [2].

Країни БРІКС беруть активну участь у всіх основних процесах глобального співробітництва – процесі «Ріо», переговорах з питань клімату, збереження біологічного різноманіття та інших.

В останні роки у світі набуває все більшого поширення концепція «зеленої економіки», що означає, за визначенням ЮНЕП (програма ООН з навколишнього середовища), «систему видів економічної діяльності, пов'язаних з виробництвом, розподілом і споживанням товарів і послуг, які призводять до підвищення добробуту людини в довгостроковій перспективі, при цьому не піддаючи майбутні покоління впливам значних екологічних ризиків або екологічного дефіциту ». Для переходу до «зеленої економіки» передбачається використання широкого спектру економічних інструментів, спрямованих на стимулювання діяльності щодо поліпшення стану навколишнього середовища.

З самого початку країни, що розвиваються висловлювали побоювання щодо цієї концепції, що вона буде використовуватися розвиненими країнами як чисто екологічна та обмежуватиме можливості менш розвинених країн здійснювати свої стратегії розвитку, розширювати торгівлю і вирішувати соціальні проблеми, у тому числі вести боротьбу з бідністю.

Країни БРІКС визнають важливість «зеленої економіки» і в цілому підтримують її. Однак вони поділяють і побоювання країн, що розвиваються і вважають, що ця концепція повинна бути уточнена. У зв'язку з цим в Делійський декларації БРІКС 2012 відображена позиція альянсу з приводу концепції «зеленої економіки»: вона повинна трактуватися в ширших рамках сталого розвитку та викорінення бідності і повинна являти собою один із засобів реалізації цих пріоритетів, а не бути самоціллю. Уряди країн, на думку лідерів БРІКС, повинні мати простір для маневру в політиці для того, щоб вони могли самостійно вибирати шляхи для досягнення сталого розвитку з урахуванням специфіки країн [3].

Кількість торгових конфліктів, пов'язаних з охороною навколишнього середовища, постійно зростає.

Так, великий резонанс отримали плани США і ЄС про введення прикордонного вуглецевого податку на товари, вироблені в країнах, які не забезпечують належного регулювання викидів парникових газів. Деякі експерти вважають такі заходи важливими для збереження конкурентних переваг в найбільш «брудних» галузях країн-імпортерів - металургії, хімічній і цементній промисловості. Однак, на думку ряду аналітиків, прикордонні вуглецеві податки насамперед негативно торкнуться країни з динамічною економікою: Бразилію, Китай та Індію [4]. Уряди цих країн зробили ряд різких заяв з цього приводу. Наприклад, Міністерство торгівлі Китаю висловило думку, що «подібна політика буде служити торговим інтересам під виглядом захисту навколишнього середовища».

Таким чином, країни БРІКС зацікавлені в уточненні міжнародних правил з тим, щоб зробити торгівлю двигуном сталого розвитку, а не її гальмом. Альянс зміг би ініціювати нові міжнародні угоди, що сприяють переходу до «зеленої економіки» як у рамках СОТ, так і, можливо, за її межами.

Співпраця в галузі сталого розвитку та «зеленої економіки» представляється важливим напрямком взаємодії між країнами БРІКС. Це допоможе не тільки більш ефективно вирішити економічні, екологічні та соціальні проблеми держав-членів альянсу, а й внести більш вагомий внесок у досягнення глобального сталого розвитку.

Країнам БРІКС необхідно активізувати роботу з обміну досвідом в галузі стратегічного планування сталого розвитку та застосування інструментів «зеленої економіки», у тому числі розробки механізмів її фінансування. Країни можуть багато чому навчитися один в одного в галузі стимулювання використання відновлюваних джерел енергії, ринкових механізмів кліматичної політики і підтримки локальних ініціатив. Важливим напрямком співпраці може стати створення спільної технологічної платформи з розвитку нових джерел енергії.

Список використаних джерел

1. World Economic Outlook: Growth Resuming, Dangers Remain [Electronic resource] / International Monetary Fund, 2012. – Mode of access: http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2012/01/pdf/text.pdf

2. Ушаков И.В. Укрепление международно-политических позиций России в контексте экологической дипломатии в рамках БРИКС. Аналитическая записка. Москва, 2012.

3. Делійська декларація: прийнята за підсумками саміту БРІКС 29 березня 2012р. [Електронний ресурс] // Президент Росії: офіц. інтернет сайт. 2012. 29 березня. – Режим доступу: http://kremlin.ru/ supplement/1189

4. Brazil, India and China : the new leaders of the global economy, for at least the next five years [Electronic resource] / Euler Hermes. – Mode of access: http://www.icic.co.il/upload/File/sectorsemergingeconomies.pdf

5. Annual Report of BRICS Mechanism Development Strategy (2016), Center for China in the World Economy, BRICS Economy Think Tank. December 2016.

Оксана Булик
к.е.н., в.о. доц. кафедри
міжнародних економічних відносин
Львівський національний аграрний університет

ЕКОНОМІЧНІ АСПЕКТИ І ПРОБЛЕМИ СТАНДАРТИЗАЦІЇ ПРОДУКЦІЇ ПТАХІВНИЦТВА В УМОВАХ ЄВРОІНТЕГРАЦІЇ

Визначним чинником розвитку аграрної галузі є Підписання Угоди про асоціацію між Україною та країнами ЄС, а також створення в рамках цієї Угоди Зони вільної торгівлі (ЗВТ) з Європейським Союзом. Адже відкриваються перспективи поступового освоєння ринку країн ЄС вітчизняними компаніями, підвищення рівня якості, безпечності, екологічних характеристик української продукції АПК, покращення стану продовольчої безпеки держави. Тому для України постає завдання вироблення механізмів щодо підвищення ефективності використання наявного потенціалу аграрного сектору економіки, його адаптації до нових умов, у т.ч. з урахуванням можливих ризиків, які виникатимуть внаслідок лібералізації зовнішньо-торговельних відносин з європейськими країнами.

Варто зазначити, що у світі зростає тенденція до глобалізації продовольчих ринків, тому невідповідність в області екологічних стандартів може стати серйозною перепоною для міжнародної торгівлі. Європейський Союз є найбільшим світовим імпортером харчової продукції завдяки 500 млн споживачів із високою купівельною спроможністю і розвинутою торговельною інфраструктурою. Разом із тим, для цього ринку характерними є високі нетарифні бар’єри, внаслідок встановлення вимог імпортувати лише високоякісні та безпечні продукти харчування.

Ситуація для птахівничих підприємств суттєво змін¬лася після підписання договору про зону вільної торгівлі між Україною та ЄС і набуття чинності системи квоту¬вання на безмитну торгівлю, що дає змогу збільшити маржу українських компаній. Договір про зону вільної торгівлі передбачає, що Україна зможе щорічно постав¬ляти в ЄС до 20 тис. т м’яса охолодженої курки і 20 тис. т м’яса замороженої птиці, а також по 3 тис. т яєць і яєч¬них продуктів. При нинішніх цінах йдеться про безмитне ввезення м'яса птиці на суму близько $45–50 млн., яєць і яєчних продуктів – на $15-20 млн [1].

Для цього потрібно було пройти складну і відповідальну процедуру гармонізації стандартів якості відповідно до норм ЄС. Адже здатність вітчизняних товаровиробників адаптуватися до нових умов та користуватися перевагами членства в СОТ залежить від їх спроможності підвищити якість і безпечність продукції відповідно до кон'юнктури міжнародного ринку.

Наразі Україна може здійснювати експорт продукції до країн-членів ЄС зі 100 підприємств – виробників харчової продукції, в тому числі з 7 – м'ясо птиці, з 2 – продукти з м'яса птиці [2].

Сьогодні кожна партія продукції птахівництва, що імпортується до ЄС, проходить через три рівні «фільтрів», які мають забезпечити її якість і безпечність: на рівні країни-експортера, підприємства-виробника і конкретної поставки. При цьому кожна поставка продукції птахівництва повинна відповідати встановленим стандартам і вимогам, які при потребі можуть перевірити контролюючі органи держав-членів ЄС. Адже інтереси європейського ринку та фер¬мерів захищені з боку Євросоюзу. Тому освоєння євро¬пейського ринку є складною проблемою для вітчизняних птахівників.

Адаптація вітчизняного м'ясного птахівництва до вимог європейського економічного простору потребує не тільки закріплення отриманих результатів розвитку, але й забезпечення якісних вимог до продукції.

Вітчизняні товаровиробники можуть конкурувати на світових продовольчих ринках завдяки зміні концептуальних підходів до стандартизації продукції птахівництва. Так, традиційною для України була система перевірки якості і безпечності яєць і м'яса птиці, орієнована на кінцевий результат. Принциповою відмінністю системи НАССР є оцінка причин небезпек, які впливають на продукцію на всіх ланках виробництва, зберігання і реалізації, що гарантує безпеку продовольства. Згідно з одержаним у січні 2013 р. дозволом Імплементаційного Регламенту Комісії (EU) № 88 /2013 на ввезення продукції птахівництва до ЄС імпорт з України до ЄС можливий лише для п'яти категорій продукції: яйця птиці і яйцепродукти, м'ясо птиці (крім страусів), м'ясо страусів, м'ясо пернатої дичини [3].

Розміщення великих спеціалізованих пта¬хівничих комплексів в Україні може зацікавити Європу з точки зору екологічної безпеки, оскільки великотоварне м’ясне птахівництво завжди вимагає утилізації виробни¬чих відходів, послідуі створення умов екологічної без¬пеки виробництва. Тому, одним з об’єктів, які в першу чергу отримали доступ на ринок ЄС, була вертикально інтегрована компанія «Миронівський Хлібопродукт», яка сьогодні представлена підприємствами: ПАТ «Миронівська птахофабрика», «Миронівський м’ясопереробний завод «Легко», ТОВ «Агромарс» і ТОВ «Птахофабрика «Снятинська Нова». У В 2016 році ПАТ «МХП» розпочато впровадження інтегрованої системи управління сільськогосподарським виробництвом GlobalG.A.P., яка охоплює процеси вирощування птиці від отримання яйця до транспортування птиці на забій. Вимоги стандарту ґрунтуються на належній сільськогосподарській практиці (GAP – Good Agricultural Practice), системі аналізу ризиків та критичних точок контролю (Система HACCP), охороні навколишнього середовища, здоров’ї та добробуті працівників, благополуччі тварин [4].

Одним потужних підприємств є ПАТ «Володимир-Волинська птахофабрика», яка займає гідне місце серед українських та європейських підприємств-виробників курячого м’яса. Сертифікація за стандартом ISO 22000 підтверджує, що підприємство виконує стандарти безпеки харчової продукції, безперервно стежить за її якістю. Наявність такої сертифікації дасть можливість у найближчому майбутньому вийти на ринки Європейського Союзу [5]. Сертифікація на цих підприємствах проводиться незалежною міжнародною компанією SGS.

У результаті порівняння умов допуску на ринок ЄС продукції птахівництва встановлено, що законодавством ЄС лише три країни СНД внесені до списків країн, яким дозволено ввозити продукцію птахівництва до ЄС. Проте асортимент продукції, яка дозволена до імпорту, а також умови ввезення продукції з цих країн є різними.

Не дивлячись на те, що Україна отримала більш широкий, порівняно з іншими країнами СНД, обсяг дозволу на ввезення продукції птахівництва в ЄС, практична реалізація цього потенціалу залежить від діяльності конкретних товаровиробників та державних органів влади. Створення передумов для збільшення експорту вітчизняної продукції птахівництва до ЄС дає також можливість вдосконалити маршрути її експорту в інші регіони світу.

Таким чином, для забезпечення гармонізації українського законодавства з європейським необхідно:

вдосконалити практику та процедуру затвердження стандартів, гармонізованих з європейськими аналогами;

підсилити діяльність профільних державних установ щодо гармонізації українського законодавства з європейським;

чітко регламентувати діяльність (аналогічно до практик, що діють в ЄС) контролюючих органів у державній системі контролю харчових продуктів;

створити інтегровану систему державних органів або систему з одним контролюючим органом у державній системі контролю харчових продуктів.

Список використаних джерел

1.Аверчева Н. О. Економічні проблеми і перспективи Європейської інтеграції м’ясного птахівництва України [Електронний ресурс] – Режим доступу до ресурсу: http://www.visnyk-econom.uzhnu.uz.ua/archive/10_1_2016ua/3.pdf.

2.Українські виробники розширюють географію експорту продукції тваринного походження [Електронний ресурс] – Режим доступу до ресурсу: http://agravery.com/uk/posts/show/ukrainski-virobniki-rozsiruut-geografiu-eksportu-produkcii-tvarinnogo-pohodzenna.

3.Дозвіл на ввезення продукції птахівництва з України до країн європейського союзу [Електронний ресурс] – Режим доступу до ресурсу: https://uiamp.org.ua/uk/dozvil-na-vvezennya-produkcyi-ptahivnyctva-z-ukrayiny-do-krayin-yevropeyskogo-soyuzu.

4.Сертифікація як перепустка на євроринок [Електронний ресурс] – Режим доступу до ресурсу: http://www.agrotimes.net/journals/article/sertifikaciya-yak-perepustka-na-evrorinok.

5.Аграрний олімп [Електронний ресурс] – Режим доступу до ресурсу: http://agravery.com/uk/posts/show/volodimir-volinska-ptahofabrika-planue-vijti-na-rinok-es.

Sergii Sardak
Dr, Associate Professor
Professor department of Economics
and National Economy Management,
faculty of International Economics
Oles Honchar Dnipro National University
e-mail: dnus@ukr.net
Konstantin Ustich
Student,
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv
Oles Honchar Dnipro National University
e-mail: ustichk@ukr.net

IMPERATIVES OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN UKRAINE UNDER GLOBALIZATION CONDITIONS

Dynamic changes in the scientific and technical cooperation, economic, political and culture spheres during the process of globalization (emerging of new technologies, the formation of under state institutions in the world economy, the destruction of traditional and the construction of new social structures, the emergence of new countries, redistribution of power and resources, etc.) have determined the main tendencies of humanity in XXI century. At the same time ecological, demographic, migration and cultural problems, together with lack of resources, imbalances in the economic development of countries, the threat of global war, terrorism, human problems, social inequality, the spread of new diseases, as well as the problems of rational use of the depths of the world's ocean, the peaceful and safe development of outer space, etc.), have become the reason for searching positivist conceptual basis of social development.

This problem is considered to be particularly acute in the so called "young" states with a transformational economy. That is why it is necessary to take into account the growing global trends that determine the new conditions of social development and coexistence of countries. Firstly, there is a climate change. It should be noted that the natural orientation of climate development has been greatly accelerated by the negative man-made influence. It is manifested in the increase in air temperature due to the greenhouse effect. In the XXI century the amount of unfit for human residence areas (mainly Southern) and development of new, still unattractive Northern territories will increase under this circumstances. Secondly, this is the preservation of the progressive dynamics of the STP, which leads to an increase in number of new products, technologies, types of economic activity and the expansion of the human life environment in general. In the nearest future, the transition to new technologies of traditional fuel extraction, the identification of new fuels, the elaboration of new medicine and medical technologies, the development of genetic engineering, new transport. Communication construction technologies and assimilation of new territories will become the most significant events all over the world. Thirdly, there is the growth of population. However, it will occur unevenly, it mainly in the Asia-Pacific and African regions. Fourthly, this is the predicted complication of the environmental situation in the world (pollution, growth of ecologically, dangerous food products, lack of qualitative drinking water, emerging of new diseases, etc.). All these complication will cause the health problems for the most people all over the world. Fifthly, this is an increase of population mobility in the form of intensification of migration processes (including the intensification of intellectual migration, illegal, labor, increasing the number of refugees) and tourism (cognitive, recreational, religious). Sixthly, this is extending of influence and system of the inter-government management: globalization, internationalization, integration, homogenization, division of labor, etc. Seventhly, this is the transition of society from post-industrial to informational type, and eventually to post-informational one. The implementation of this tendency will be accompanied by a radical change in the nature of economic relations, mentality, the potential of passionate impulse, etc. The above mentioned seven global trends can cause stratification of society, substantial aggravation of political, economic and social contradictions. Actually, the emergence of new waves of political and economic crisis, the series local military conflicts and attempts to form a new global system of global governance.

Imperatives of sociale-economic development of Ukrain under the exsting conditions of globalization are thoroughly covered in the works of well-known domestic scientists: V. Besedin, O. Bilorus, I. Bondar, A. Galchinsky, V. Gayts, A. Gosha, A. Grishnova, M. Yermoshenko, B. Zyanko, E. Libanova, D. Lukyanenko, L. Melnyk, S.

Mocherny, B. Panasyuk, B. Paton, A. Rudchenko, V. Savchuk, A. Filipenko and others. It can be recognized that Ukraine having obtained in 1991 the status of independent country, did not fully realized its natural resource and economic potential. In addition to this, we have not formed our stable strategic competitive advantages in the world economy yet. That`s why it causes permanent aggravation of the political and socio-economic situation in our country.

The above-mentioned large-scale problem requires further thorough scientific analysis and development of not only long-term socio-economic measures and strategic programs, but also the engineering of a new holistic mechanism of Ukraine's development. There for the structure of society, human values, general civilization achievements and world-wide trends of human development should be taken into account. In this context, the works of world-know scholars and writers who from their own point of view have identified universally recognized and alternative civilizational models of social existence are of great importance. Therefore, the combination of works of modern scholars with the inheritance of scientists from the social and humanitarian and technical sciences can give impact to finding new management mechanisms.

In order to build a competitive national economy under the new challenges of the twenty-first century it is necessary to determine the priority areas of management, and the structure of the national economy to form as derivative. The priorities of socio-economic development of Ukraine in the conditions of globalization are as follows.

1. Formation of tourist and migration centers by means of expanding natural, historical, archaeological, cultural, religious, artistic and recreational uniqueness.

2. Involvement of transit geopolitical potential of the country by restoration and construction of transit roads, terminals, ports, communications, transport, communication facilities.

3. Activation of environmental business, energy and resource-saving technologies in the life of Ukrainian society through expansion of commercial economic activities in the areas of environmental protection and society, improvement and increasing quality of products and services, rational use of natural resources and waste products, prevention and elimination of man-made and anthropogenic pollution.

4. Directing the development of the agro-industrial complex, food industry and trade in the area of production and sale of environmentally friendly and quality goods. This priority requires the positioning of Ukraine in this status through the activation of green marketing and management, the spread of invariantmentalism and consumerism.

5. Construction and reconstruction of cities and towns: territories, buildings, local roads, structures, in accordance with new civil and ecological requirements and standards, the need for which is conditioned by the physical and moral wear of existing facilities and the progress of vehicles, means of communication, communications and public order.

6. Development of scientific potential by means of intensifying cooperation between scientific institutions and educational establishments with enterprises and the state, as well as international cooperation and exchange within the framework of the new state scientific-technical, investment and innovation policy aimed at increasing in number of objects of intellectual property and innovations.

7. Developments of cognitive-adaptive education, which will take into account new social requirements, change of physiological and mental abilities of youth and will provide. The transition from factual to methodological education, combination of theory and practice, obtaining specialized practical skills, informational support; the use of new domestic methodological elaborations, international exchange programs, the construction of the system of national management and public administration.

8. Development of the domestic rocket-space complex through the deepening of specialization and international industrial cooperation.

9. Reforming the health care system through transition to the pay-social insurance basis, deploying a preventive system for disease prevention; forming of a system for promoting the concept of healthy life of the population; intensification of research in the field of genetic engineering; creation of databases and medical banks of repositories.

10. The expansion of the role of sport and physical education in society, which is an opportunity to improve the health of the nation and material well-being of people enhance the image of Ukraine and consolidate Ukrainians and generate income.

The development of mankind and its concrete manifestations in technical, economic or other spheres is always determined by contradictions, uncertainty and the emergence of non-standard circumstances. At the beginning of the third millennium the world is characterized by acceleration of economic dynamics and complication of the mega environment, which requires mastering the realities of the present and the future. Exactly this problem that necessitates the definition of the Concept and priorities of the direction of socio-economic policy in Ukraine and conducting further research in the field of developing the application framework for their implementation. Definition and development of the paradigm of socio-economic development of Ukraine in the XXI century will create an opportunity to reveal socio-economic and human potential.

References

1. Sardak S. E. Potential of economy socialisation in the context of globalisation // S. Sardak, O. Bilskaya, A. Simakhova // Economic Annals-XXI. – 2017. – № 164(3-4). – С. 4 – 8. DOI: https://doi.org/10.21003/ea.V164-01.

2. Сардак С. Е. Періодизація та прогноз глобальної динаміки розвитку людських ресурсів / С. Е. Сардак, В. Т. Сухотеплий // Економічний часопис-XXI. – 2013. – № 3-4. – С. 3 – 6.

3. Сардак С. Е. Управлінсько-регуляторні аспекти розвитку людських ресурсів в умовах глобалізації : моногр. / С. Е. Сардак. – Д. : Вид-во ДНУ, 2012. – 460 с.

Rostyslav Fediv
Assistant-teacher
L'viv National Agrarian University
e-mail: smigielg@uek.krakow.pl

THE CURRENT STATE AND PROSPECTS OF THE CHINA'S "ONE BELT, ONE ROAD" INITIATIVE

The recent years are marked by the growing ambitions of China to contribute to the modernization of the world economic order by its active foreign economic policy of growing trade and investments in countries around the globe. One of the most noticeable are Chinese infrastructure projects abroad especially in the African, Asian and a bit less Latin American countries and regions. In 2013, a vast set of projects have been compiled together by the leadership of the People's Republic of China and henceforth referred to as a grand initiative, which is now more widely known as the New Silk Road or, what was officially announced by the Chinese authorities – One belt, one road.

The People's Republic of China has experienced a high pace of development for the last 30-40 years. The corresponding figures of its economic growth prove that China was evidently an outstanding country among other developing countries in Asia as well as comparing to the rest of the world. As the result of 2014, China's economy reached the top of the world GDP (PPP – by purchasing power parity) list. In spite of that, according to the exchange rate against the US dollar, Chinese GDP amounts to almost 12 trillion USD and, thus, it is the second one preceded only by the United States [5].

The PRC achieved the relatively sustainable and high-speed economic growth in 1990-2010 due to the overwhelmingly increasing exports of its products onto other markets, specifically in the developed countries. The economic development model of the country was largely based on exports and investments, national and foreign ones. However, this situation has been somewhat changing during the recent times. The GDP growth figures were on the downward trend from 10 percent in 2010 to 7 percent in 2014, 6.9 and 6.7 in 2015 and 2016 respectively, even though the indexes of 2017 were a little higher. Though such a pace is still considered as very high, and in absolute figures, it contributes over 30 percent to the global annual GDP growth, the returns from the national and foreign investments are diminishing, and so the high-speed exports growth changed into either more even, or stagnating, or even decreasing [1].

Realizing these tendencies in the economy of China and taking into consideration needs for further exports support, amid national labour force costs getting higher, the country's authorities proceeded with promoting its foreign economic policy internationally. The so-called Fifth generation of the Chinese leadership headed by the President Xi Jinping and the Prime minister Li Keqiang, who reached the power in 2012-2013, appeared to be initiators of a new grand project in foreign economic policy of China.

Xi Jinping announced about the Chinese initiative to revive the legendary "Silk Road" in modern conditions in a way of implementing a projected initiative "One Belt, One Road" (OBOR) while visiting Astana on September 6-8, 2013. Specifically, the OBOR initiative consists of two complementary parts. One is about the land way project named the "Silk Road Economic Belt" (SREB) and the second one deals with the sea and ocean ports and transport lanes infrastructure, known as the "Maritime Silk Road".

It is worth noting that, in the capital of Kazakhstan, Xi Jinping gave a start to land part of the grand initiative, which is the "Silk Road Economic Belt". The "Maritime Silk Road" initiative was first mentioned by the Chinese chairman during his speech at the Parliament of Indonesia in October 2013. In 2014, Chinese and other international experts estimated the scale of the abovementioned ideas to envisage participation of at least 18 Asian countries with the population of 3 billion people and the total area of 50 million sq.km. [7].

In order to implement the projects within the frame of the OBOR initiative, in October 2013, Chinese party proposed that a new Development Bank should be founded for financing the corresponding infrastructure projects in the countries involved. The Frame Agreement on the foundation of the respective Bank was signed in Beijing on June 29, 2015, which has been already acceded by 57 states invited by the PRC to grand initiative realization on the terms of the Asia Infrastructure Investment Bank (AIIB) establishment.

The statutory capital of the AIIB was set to be USD 100 billion. Three quarters of the means should be provided by the participating states from the Asian and Oceanian regions. In compliance with the abovementioned agreement, China was to be solely the largest bank stakeholder, contributing the respective sum of money and obtaining 26 percentage points of voting rights. That secures exclusive veto right for the PRC, since more than three quarters of the votes of the directors' board are needed to be collected to pass any amendment to the decision-making procedure or to make decisions on the specific projects implementation issues.

Eventually, in November 2014, Xi Jinping carried on the measures for further "One Belt, One Road" initiative institutionalization to set a financial gear for its practical implementation and development. Apart from the Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank, the President of the PRC announced plans to establish the Development Fund, or the "Silk Road Fund" of USD 40 billion size. This Fund should act separately and be managed independently of the banking entities, associated with its establishment. The "Silk Road Fund" was set up to support the investments into the projects within the initiative "One Belt, One Road" in December 2014. Particularly, with the purpose of establishing the Fund the following financial agencies of China conjoined their resources: the State Administration of Foreign Exchange, the China Investment Corporation, the Export-Import Bank of China and the China Development Bank [4].

So far, China has announced the plans concerning implementation of the projects of the infrastructure development, which totaled to over 1 trillion Chinese Yuans or USD 160 billion. As to the Chinese and other member-states' proposals and also to experts and analysts' understanding of the corresponding actions, the land component of the "One Belt, One Road" initiative, which is the "Silk Road Economic Belt", is about the realization of projects which can presumably constitute several "belt"- like routes, specifically [2]:

- "The North Belt", which is to cross the territories of Central Asia, Russia, reaching Europe;
- "The Central Belt", which is supposed to go across the very Central Asia and West Asia up to the regions of the Persian Gulf and the Mediterranean, but currently it is being less mentioned because its implementation is impeded by the regional conflict-borne hurdles in Afghanistan, Iraq and Syria;

- "The South Belt", which may be launched in China and go farther into South-East and South Asia and generally along the costs of the regions around the Indian ocean basin.

The last summit of the leaders representing the countries, which had joined the OBOR initiative, gathered in Beijing on May 14-15, 2017. Nearly 70 states have signed up for the infrastructure projects, which ought to facilitate communications and commodities transportation among the countries, while being anyway tied to China. During his speech at the opening of the summit, China's President pledged his country to add $113 billion of extra funding for the initiative implementation. Mr. Xi said that his country is not interested in forming a small group detrimental to stability and just the opposite initiators hope to create a big family of harmonious co-existence [6].

Branded as a "project of a century" by Xi Jinping, One Belt, One Road initiative seems to be like a proclamation for further upgraded globalization at the backdrop of a new US president Donald Trump's policy of "America First". Nevertheless, a lot about China's initiative remains vague and uncertain.

Nowadays, 65 countries are considered to be the participants of the initiative, and though some of them have not confirmed their status as a participant or a contributor, Chinese initiators have been insisting that OBOR will pass through their territories and thus engage them in the affair. Together 64 member-countries plus China account for 62% of the world's population and 30% of its output. However, only 20 of those nations sent their heads of state to the OBOR summit in Beijing. In all, 52 states were represented at some level at the respective forum.

The projects included into the One Belt, One Road initiative are scattered around Eurasia and Africa. Here are examples of the most prominent of them [3]:

- China is carrying on with the realization of the $ 6 billion project of 260 mile (432.1 km) rail line in Laos, from northern parts of the country to its capital city Vientiane. Mountainous terrain complicates the construction on the ground, however, not less important is a financial state or potential solvency of Laos, since the project's estimate amounts to almost half of the country's current GDP.
- One of the most prominent geopolitically as well as economically is a $ 46 billion worth project of the China-Pakistan Economic Corridor (CPEC). It encompasses the projects of building a

deep-water port in southern Pakistan city of Gwadar on the shore of the Arabian Sea. It is supposed to be one of the optimal shortcut in trade between China and Europe bypassing Malacca strait and Indian waters and linking the seashore of Pakistan with the Xinjiang-Uighur Autonomous Region in North-West China by building new roads and rail lines. The problem is that the CPEC crosses the disputed lands of the Jammu and Kashmir state what averts India from sufficiently joining OBOR initiative.

- Africa has been the vastest key continental object of the PRC's investments for the recent years. In line with that, China financed a bulk share of Africa's first transnational electric railway, which was launched this year and runs 466 miles (774.3 km) connecting the capital of a one million coast country of Djibouti and Addis Ababa – the capital of one hundred million country of Ethiopia. Chinese designed the system, supplied the train cars and engineers who built the railway for six years.

- Another China's OBOR project in Africa was implemented in Kenya where a railway line from capital Nairobi to port city of Mombasa was upgraded. This was the first rail line built to Chinese standards outside China, so the PRC will benefit for years from maintenance contracts.

- Finally, an interesting example of the allegedly OBOR-linked projects can be found in Europe. Beijing is currently financing a third of the Hinkley C point nuclear power plant project on the Somerset coast of southwest England. The project's total budget reaches $23.7 billion. This project in the outstanding West European economy is allegedly more about adding up prestige to the OBOR initiative than having some utilitarian meaning for China's New Silk Road [3].

There are other flagship projects within the OBOR initiative like building a 3,000 kilometer high-speed railway connecting China and Singapore, constructing the pipelines from Turkmenistan across Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan and also some lines of them via Tajikistan and Kyrgyzstan to enlarge the gas exports capacities from Ashkhabad to the PRC, and building rail lines from Uzbekistan via Kyrgyzstan to China. All of them show that China has been promoting one's own plans for every participant of the One Belt, One Road initiative.

Since the launch of the OBOR in 2013 Chinese state-owned companies have invested in 1,700 projects within the initiative. The lenders from the PRC are powering the OBOR initiative too. According to Louis Kuijs, head of Asia Research at Oxford Economics, Chinese landing to other OBOR countries approximate to $130 billion annually in recent years, which is an immense sum of money and he highlights that the bulk share of them comes from the commercial entities [6].

However, the trends are divergent in some aspects, because China and other OBOR initiative participants face some constraints in terms of some of its projects financing. They may be caused by macroeconomic trends in China and the world, as well as by the risks of unsatisfactory returns from investments. Year on year, foreign direct investments from China to other OBOR participating nations went down 2% in 2016 and dropped additionally by 18% for two initial quarters of 2017.

Speaking at the Beijing Forum, Zhou Xiaochuan, the governor of the Chinese central bank, pledged to help national banks fund more projects within OBOR initiative, but he also addressed other OBOR nations calling them on to cooperate financially, since China's own resources are limited. Thus, bearing in mind the projects under way the OBOR initiative is currently experiencing the challenges of growth.

References

1. Husna Rida. China GDP Growth Weakest in 26 years [Electronic resource] // R. Husna. TradingEconomics. – 2017. – The mode of access: http://www.tradingeconomics.com/articles/01202017023653.htm.

2. Integrating #Kazakhstan Nurly Zhol, China's Silk Road economic belt will benefit all, officials say [Electronic resource] // Astana Times. – 2016. – The mode of access: https://www.eureporter.co/frontpage/2016/12/10/integrating-kazakhstan-nurly-zhol-chinas-silk-road-economic-belt-will-benefit-all-officials-say/.

3. Jane Perlez. Behind China's $ 1 Trillion Plan to Shake up the Economic Order [Electronic resource] / Jane Perlez, Yufan Huang // The New York Times. – 2017. – The mode of access: https://www.nytimes.com/2017/05/13/business/china-railway-one-belt-one-road-1-trillion-plan.html?_r=1

4. Making Inroads: China New Silk Road Initiative [Електронний ресурс] // Cato Journal, Vol. 37, No 1 (Winter2017). – 2017. – Режим доступу до ресурсу: https://object.cato.org/sites/cato.org/files/serials/files/cato-journal/2017/2/cj-v37n1-10.pdf.

5. World Economic Outlook Database, April 2017. Report for selected countries and subjects. [Electronic resorce] // International Monetary Fund. – 2017. – The Mode of access: http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2017/01/weodata/weorept.aspx ?

6. Zheping Huang. Your guide to understand OBOR, China's new Silk Road plan [Electronic resource] / Zheping Huang // Quarts. – 2017. – The mode of access: https://qz.com/983460/obor-an-extremely-simple-guide-to-understanding-chinas-one

7. Кошовий С. Шовковий шлях Китаю: територія процвітання і розвитку / Сергій Кошовий. // Україна – Китай. – 2014. – С. 39 – 42.belt-one-road-forum-for-its-new-silk-road/

Yuliya Melnyk
Ternopil National Economic University

INTERNATIONAL INVESTMENT IN ART ASSETS: INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK

One of the current trends of the global economic development is the change in the priorities of international investments. The confidence in traditional financial instruments has been in decline since the last economic crisis, therefore there is a need for reliable assets that would enable investors to maintain and increase their wealth. The international art market is one of the most profitable among foreign investors and is considered as a market of alternative investments.

Over the last decade, that market has acquired new features and has turned into a full-fledged investment market with its own infrastructure, intermediaries, types of income, specific risks, pricing and valuation methods [1, p.35-45].

According to the Art & Finance Report 2017 (5th edition by Deloitte and ArtTactic), a large majority of surveyed collectors (86%) buy art for emotional reasons (collecting purpose), also focusing on investment value (versus 79% in 2016). In addition, 54% of wealth managers increasingly see art assets as an alternative way to save value [2, p.23].

Since collectors view art from an investment perspective, it requires a clear institutional framework. Although the art market is one of the oldest investment markets in the world, its institutional support is still in its infancy in many countries. This paper aims at pointing out the main issues of institutional framework for the growing international market of art investment.

Generally, institutional framework is a system of formal laws, regulations and procedures, and informal conventions, customs and norms shaping socio-economic activity and behavior [3]. In terms of a particular market, "institutional framework" refers to a set of formal rules, organizational structures and informal norms for its effective performance. In the general sense, institutes are a collection of formal and informal rules created by people that set limits on the activities of economic actors [4]. The institutional environment of the global art market can be defined as a system of formal laws, regulators and procedures, as well as informal agreements, customs and norms that outline the boundaries of socio-economic activity and the behavior of participants in this market on an international scale.

The idea of the importance of institutional determinants for economic policy dates back to the research findings of J.Commons [5] and R.Coase [6, p.386-405]. The centrality of institutional and legal factors as fundamental features of effective markets has been acknowledged after the last economic crisis (R.Posner, 2009) [7].

The main issue of building an institutional framework for the art market is the fact that art is a quite difficult investment asset. It is not comparable and unique, complicated for tracking trends and very subjective in terms of valuation and pricing. In 1986, W.Baumol has defined the key factors differentiating artworks from financial assets. These are uniqueness, ownership structure, the availability of price information (transparency), and market efficiency [8].

The specific features of art assets define the high level of transactional costs on the international art market. That is why the research of institutional determinants of investment in art should be based on the transactional cost approach. Transactional costs on the global art market are much higher than on traditional investment markets. Such costs are related to: the asymmetry of information on the art market, the monopoly of specific art market participants, legal barriers to buying and selling works of art, the discrepancy of international standards around professional qualifications and art valuation approaches, the underdevelopment of art market infrastructure in many countries etc.

First of all, transactional costs include all commissions, market impact costs and taxes connected with moving an art asset from seller to buyer. Among the highest transactional costs are: buyer's premiums and seller's commissions (up to 30% [10]). The commissions of auction houses vary from 5% (at online auctions) to 20%. Art galleries usually charge investors up to 50% for their mediation. Besides, there are logistics costs (art transportation and storage) and art insurance premiums usually covered by the sellers before the transaction with investors. Art insurance premiums vary from 0.2% to 0.3% of art value and are quite high taking into account the value of art assets (from about $10,000 USD to $100 million). The third type of transactional costs are taxes (such as capital gains tax, the so-called "droit de suite", a resale royalty paid to artists and their heirs) followed by value-added taxes and import duties, increasing the art price.

The main functions of institutional framework for investments in the art market are coordination and distribution. On the one hand, well-known rules on the national or global art market reduce the level of uncertainty in operations, and increase the level of awareness about the probable changes in the environment, thus reducing information asymmetry in the art market. This function is provided by government regulation and self-regulation, institutions providing art market information (public and private statistical institutions, art data and analytics providers). According to Deloitte Luxembourg and ArtTactic, self-regulation is preferred over government intervention by more than 77% of art professional and 76% of collectors to establish trust and credibility on the international art market [3, p.236].

The coordination function of institutional support in the developed countries allows the art market participants to carry out their buying and selling operations with minimal risk and high awareness, reducing their transaction costs. On the other hand, the system of institutions affects the distribution of economic resources in the art market. It refers to the emergence of formal institutions providing the flow of resources under clearly defined rules (art auctions, art funds, art galleries, art dealers, art banking institutions etc.).

In the latest survey of Deloitte Luxembourg and ArtTactic the art market professionals and collectors stated that the key issue of international art market performance is the lack of regulation and transparency. The low transparency problem is related to art market investment risks, art valuation and pricing, national and international standards of art professional skills and qualifications, art market transactions (table 1). Regulation priorities at all the stages of art investment process are given in the table below.

In addition to government interventions and self-regulation of the art market, the institutional problems can be solved with the help of new technological achievements. It is worth paying special attention to the research developments in the field of art price databases, art price indices, primary art market analysis, risk analysis, art valuation, art market and sector reports, blockchain technology, art collection management, authenticity and logistics.

Table 1. Priorities in the global art market regulation

Regulation priorities			
Transparency around object-specific risks	Transparency in valuation and pricing	Transparency around skills and knowledge	Transparency in transactions
Authenticity	Price manipulation	Lack of international standards around professional qualifications	Money laundering
Lack of providence	Undisclosed interest		Lack of title register
Forgery and attribution	Insider trading		Secret commissions
	Auction guarantees		Confidentiality around the buyer's and seller's identity

Source: [2, p.238].

To sum up, all the above mentioned measures to improve institutional framework for art market investments will lead to a reduction in transaction costs of market participants, increase the economic efficiency of the art market and its reputation in the eyes of individual and institutional investors.

References

1. Мельник, Ю. (2009). Зростання інвестицій на міжнародному ринку творів мистецтва як сучасна тенденція світового розвитку, Вісник Тернопільського національного економічного університету, Вип.5, С.35-45.

2. Deloitte Luxembourg and ArtTactic (2017). Art & Finance Report 2017, 5th edition, 270 p.

3. Your Dictionary (2017). Institutional framework. [online]. Available at: http://www.yourdictionary.com/institutional-framework.

4. North, D.C. (1994). Institutions, institutional change and economic performance, Cambridge: Cambridge university press, 164 p.

5. Commons, J.-R. (1924). Legal Foundations of Capitalism. Transaction Publishers, 394 p.

6. Coase, R.-H. (1937). The nature of the firm, Economica, 4, P.386-405.

7. Posner, R.A. (2009). A Failure of Capitalism, Harvard University Press, 368 p.

8. Baumol, W. (1986). “Unnatural Value: Or Art Investment as Floating Crap Game”, American Economic Review, 76:10, P. 10-11.

9. Coslor, E. (2016). The Financialisation of the Art Market. E-International Relations. [online] Available at: http://www.e-ir.info/2016/03/01/the-financialisation-of-the-art-market.

10. Art Market Analysis (2017). Art investing and art market transaction costs. [online] Available at: https://www.artmarketanalyses.com/blog/art-investing-and-art-market-transaction-costs.

Iryna Yasinovska
PhD, associate professor
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv
Sofia Smolinska
PhD, associate professor
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv

THE PROBLEMS OF IMPROVING OF LVIV REGION INVESTMENT PROSPECTS

Investment climate is one of the important factors influencing the volume of attraction of foreign investments into the national economy. Favorable investment climate is a prerequisite for attracting investment for the introduction of the latest technologies, increasing capital assets of enterprises, improving the standard of living of the population, economic growth and restructuring of the country.

Increasing investment activity of regions and reducing investment risks create the necessary conditions for increasing competitiveness of the entire Ukrainian economy. Investments in the regional economy are one of the main sources of economic development throughout the country, and, consequently, the intensification of the process of foreign investment in the regional economy requires a thorough analysis of the investment climate and the definition of the directions of increasing the investment prospects of the regions.

The economic development of the region is determined by numerous factors, among which investment activity plays one of the critical roles. The level of investment completeness of the region is determined by a number of its characteristics, among which complex indicators combining different components are the investment prospects of the region and investment climate. Among the factors that can completely change the uptrend in the volume of investment attraction to different regions there are great economic and political upheavals. The factors that make adjustments and determine the growth rates of the attracted investments include the system of legal, economic, political, socio-cultural and other conditions. The second group contains factors, which form the investment climate of the regions. Among the integral system of factors promoting the investment activity of regions, it is expedient to distinguish two main groups: socio-political, legal and regulatory factors; purely economic factors [2, p. 189].

When deciding whether to enter the Ukrainian market, potential investors consider objective and subjective factors of influence on the invested capital, real opportunities and risks, recommendations of various ratings of investment attractiveness of countries.

In the period from 2013 to 2016, Ukraine managed to significantly improve its position in the field of business environment formation. In 2016, Ukraine ranked 83th in terms of the index of the ease of doing business, improving its position in the ranking, compared with 2012, by 69 positions [1]. Significant progress has been made in improving the state regulatory policy in the field of entrepreneurship, in particular, simplifying the procedure and reducing the timing of business setting up, some improvement of tax system and registering property. However, a significant number of problematic issues, including liquidation of business, connection to power grids, obtaining building permits, remain unsolved.

It is also worth noting that there is a disproportionate division of the volume of attraction of foreign investments into the regions of Ukraine. Eight regions – Dnipropetrovsk, Donetsk, Kharkiv, Kyiv, Odesa, Lviv, Poltava and the city of Kyiv receive the highest investment rate– 88% of all foreign direct investment attracted to the country's economy. These regions today are the most attractive for foreign investors.

Consider the main characteristics of the Lviv region that promote business development and investment attraction in the region: favorable economic and geographical location. The region is located in the west of Ukraine and borders the EU countries. Other factors which are very important for regional investments: a developed network of highways, railways, favorable conditions for agricultural production and the development of the tourist industry, the presence of skilled labor and scientific potential.

The volume of attracted foreign direct investment in the economy of Lviv region as of January 1, 2017 exceeded $ 1 billion. The leader in attracting investments is the processing industry, financial and insurance activities. The largest share of foreign direct investment is from Poland (34% of all investments), Cyprus, Austria, Germany, Switzerland [3].

In modern conditions, the development of foreign trade is a significant factor of the effective functioning of the national economy of any country. The development of a sustainable economic system open to the outside world will contribute to modernizing the Ukrainian economy, attracting foreign investment, new technologies, increasing export volumes on world markets, and increasing the share of Ukraine in the world trade [4, p.36].

The main factors that have a positive impact on the investment prospects of Lviv region are: rich natural resources; tourist potential of the region; the presence of highly skilled personnel able to perceive quickly the latest technologies in production and management; cheap skilled labor; territorial proximity to the EU countries.

Among the main ways to increase the investment attractiveness of regions and the country's economy in general the following should be distinguished: increasing the profitability of enterprises and self-financing opportunities; securities issue for specific projects for the broad attraction of investment funds; expansion of mortgage lending; attraction of financial resources of off-budget and innovative funds, insurance companies, commercial banks, domestic investment loans; capital unshadowing; stimulating the return of Ukrainian capital from abroad; wide use of credit facilities and loans from international financial organizations; political stability of society and national currency stability; development of social partnership of the state and business.

References

1. Doing Business 2016. – Access mode : http://www.doingbpfusiness.org/reports/global-reports/~/media/WBG/Doing Business/Documents/Annual-Reports/English/DB16-Chapters/DB16-Mini-Book.pdf.

2. Kovalchuk S.P. The system of factors of state influence on the investment climate of the regions / S.P.Kovalchuk // Bulletin of the Khmelnitsky National University. Economic sciences. – 2015. – No.1. – P. 189-192 (in Ukrainian).

3. Official site of the Main Directorate of Statistics in the Lviv region. – Access mode : http: // http: //www.lv.ukrstat.gov.ua/

4. Yasinovska I.F. The structure of Ukrainian exports and optimization of Ukraine's export policy / I.F. Yasinovska, S.D.

Smolinska // Socio-economic problems of the modern period. – Lviv, 2015. – Vip. 4 (114). – P. 37-41 (in Ukrainian).

Dariya Marushchak
PhD, Associate professor
Department of international economy and business
Cherkasy state technological university
Anna Tymoshenko
Student
Department of international economy and business
Cherkasy state technological university

РОЛЬ «ЗЕЛЕНОЇ» ЕКОНОМІКИ У ЗАБЕЗПЕЧЕННІ СТАЛОГО РОЗВИТКУ ТА ПРОБЛЕМИ ЇЇ ВПРОВАДЖЕННЯ

В сучасному світі внаслідок розвитку глобалізаційних процесів зростає рівень обмеженості природних ресурсів, оскільки потреби в них все більше і більше перевищують кількість та швидкість їх природного поповнення. Так як дана проблема є глобальною та потребує вирішення, останнім часом часто вживається термін «зелена» економіка. Суть вказаного поняття полягає у веденні такої економіки, яка призведе до підвищення добробуту суспільства, при цьому не створюючи ризиків для довкілля та істотно знижуючи дефіцит екологічних ресурсів. Концепція «зеленої» економіки не може замінить концепцію сталого розвитку, але вона може впливати на розвиток, тому що досягнення сталості більшою мірою залежить від обрання правильної та ефективної економіки.

Загалом для розуміння поняття, проаналізувавши різні визначення, можна сказати, що сталий розвиток – це напрям довгострокового розвитку суспільства, при якому задовольняються потреби нинішнього покоління, надаючи таку можливість і майбутнім поколінням. Для кращого розуміння рівня взаємозалежності даних понять варто проаналізувати їхні риси та функції у основних аспектах їх розвитку, адже перехід на ведення господарства за принципами «зеленої» економіки передбачає зміни в усіх секторах економіки, які між собою тісно взаємопов’язані (див рис.1).

За даними рис.1 можна зробити висновок про те, що процес розвитку та цілі «екологічної економіки» у трьох досліджуваних аспектах співпадає з принципами сталого розвитку та гармонійно їх доповнює. Точніше можна сказати, що впровадження «зеленої» економіки передбачає сталий розвиток як кінцеву мету.

Рис.1. Порівняльна характеристика «зеленої» економіки та сталого розвитку.

Джерело: Складено автором на основі [1]

За даними рис.1 можна зробити висновок про те, що процес розвитку та цілі «екологічної економіки» у трьох досліджуваних аспектах співпадає з принципами сталого розвитку та гармонійно їх доповнює. Точніше можна сказати, що впровадження «зеленої» економіки передбачає сталий розвиток як кінцеву мету.

Проте якщо концепція «зеленої» економіки почала впроваджуватися більше тридцяти років тому, то виникає питання: «Чому світова економіка до цього часу не має бажаного результату?». Якщо поглибитися в це питання, можна побачити, що дійсно ця економіка вже працює, і велика частка країн світу користується нею, але в цей же час існує велика кількість причин, які гальмують її розвиток. Перша з них полягає у неготовності більшості країн світового простору до кардинальних змін ведення господарства, саме тому не можуть створити умови, які б сприяли розвитку екологічної економіки. Адже зрозуміло, що насамперед має бути створені відповідні нормативно – правові документи, сприятлива політика, субсидії та стимули для ведення господарства саме за екологічними принципами. Прикладом такого стимулювання є Південна Корея, яка ввела податок на поліетиленом пакети для чого, щоб зменшити кількість небажаного сміття. В Бразилії близько 95% алюмінієвих банок та 55% пластикових пляшок утилізуються [2]. Наступна проблема полягає у неможливості досягнення балансу суспільних та бізнес – інтересів щодо забезпечення сталого споживання і виробництва. Останньою і найголовнішою проблемою є недосконала система регулювання, що визначає права, які активізують права для «зеленої» економіки.

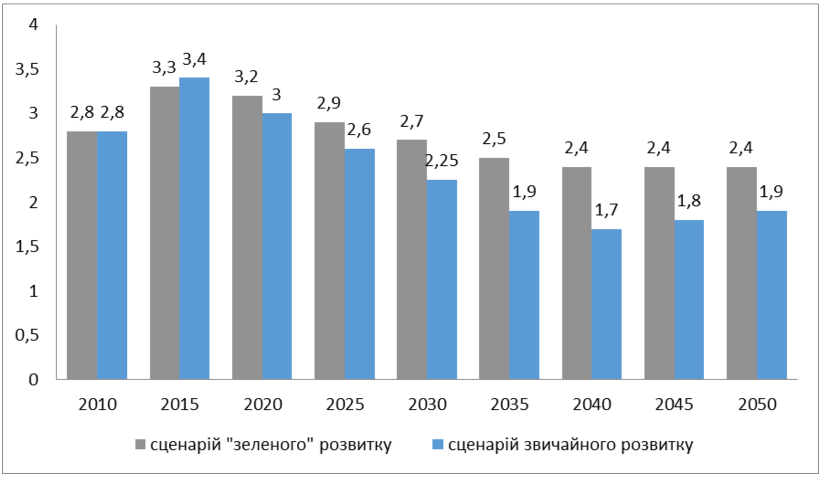


Рис.2. Прогнозовані річні темпи росту ВВП
Джерело: складено автором на основі прогнозу ЮНЕП [3]

Так, звісно, ці проблеми існують, але їх можна подолати, якщо регулярно приймати заходи, які будуть направлені на впровадження розвиток «зеленої» економіки у різних країнах світу. Саме при таких умовах можливий позитивний та сталий розвиток усіх напрямів економіки світу. За прогнозом ЮНЕП при такому розвитку подій на прикладі одного з найважливіших економічних показників – темп тосту ВВП, ми можемо спостерігати вплив екологічної економіки (рис.2).

За даними рис. 2 можна зробити висновок про те, що при сценарії звичайного розвитку, відкинувши принципи ведення екологічного господарства, темпи росту ВВП будуть коливатися в бік зменшення, потім до 2050 року почнуть рости. При сценарії розвитку «зеленої» економіки звісно можуть бути певні зменшення, проте з часом це призведе до стабілізації даного показника.

Отже, процес розвитку «зеленої» економіки є необхідним для сталого та стабільного розвитку світової економіки. Адже, не потрібно жити одним днем, розглядаючи короткострокову перспективу світового розвитку, необхідно насамперед думати про те, які наслідки матимуть наші нинішні дії у майбутньому.

Список використаних джерел

1. Прушківська Е.В. Розвиток «зеленої економіки»: національний аспект БІЗНЕСІНФОРМ [Електронний ресурс] /Е.В. Прушківська, Ю.О. Шевченко. – 2013. – № 3. – Режим доступу : http://business-inform.net/pdf/2013/3_0/186_191.pdf.

2. Key World Energy STATISTICS. [pdf] Paris: OECD, International Energy Agency, 2012. – [Електронний ресурс]. − Режим доступу: http://www. iea.org/publications/ freepublications/publication/ kwes.pdf.

3. ЮНЕП «Навстречу «зеленой» економике» . – [Електронний ресурс]. − Режим доступу: www.unep.org/greeneconomy

Еколого-економічні проблеми у міжнародній торгівлі : Збірник матеріалів IV міжнародної наукової конференції , Львів, Україна, 24-25.10.2017 / за ред. д-ра екон. наук, проф. Ігора Грабинського. – Львів: ЛНУ ім. І. Франка, 2017. – 213 с.

Ecological and Economic Problems of International Trade : Summaries of the Fourth Biennial International Scientific Conference, Lviv, Ukraine, October 24-25, 2017 / Edited by Prof. Dr. Ihor Hrabynskyy. – Lviv: Ivan Franko National University of Lviv, 2017.– 213 p.

До збірника увійшли тези доповідей IV міжнародної наукової конференції “Еколого-економічні проблеми у міжнародній торгівлі”, організованої науковим колективом факультету міжнародних відносин Львівського національного університету імені Івана Франка у співпраці з Великотирновським університетом ім. св. Кирила і св. Мефодія (Болгарія), Інститутом внутрішнього ринку, споживання і кон’юнктури у Варшаві (Польща) та Варшавським університетом наук про життя – SGGW (Польща).

При публікації максимально збережено орфографію, пунктуацію та стилістику запропоновану авторами. За зміст наукових праць та достовірність наведених фактів і статистичних даних відповідальність несуть автори.

Н а у к о в е в и д а н н я

ЕКОЛОГО-ЕКОНОМІЧНІ
ПРОБЛЕМИ У МІЖНАРОДНІЙ ТОРГІВЛІ

Збірник матеріалів
IV міжнародної наукової конференції
Львів, 24-25 жовтня 2017 р.