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ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL SECURITY

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THE EXTERNAL COMPONENT OF NATIONAL ECONOMIC SECURITY

ARTICULATION OF ISSUE

Transformations taking place in the world economic development as well as deteriorated world financial environment and increased geopolitical tensions have enhanced the main risks for development of the world economy in modern conditions. The world trading system is developing from universal liberalization to increased protectionism. First of all, it concerns development of foreign trade relations between countries, which in turn affects the global economic dynamics.

Integration of the countries of the world into the world economy causes a significant influence of the external sector on the development of national economy. The level of openness of the national economy, which is a direct consequence of liberalization policy, is directly related to the field of national interests. Increased import dependence on foreign markets, loss of jobs on the national market have a negative impact on economic dynamics. The foreign trade component provides for development of the competitive mechanism in a country, facilitates rational use of available resource potential and positive structural shift of the national economy.

National governments are extensively using a wide range of tools to ensure economic growth and an appropriate level of competitiveness for their economies while ensuring national security, which is *relevant* for studying the foreign trade component of national security. Foreign trade policy, which is regarded as an appropriate set of implementation principles, methods and tools, directly affects formation of national security of a country.

ANALYSIS OF RECENT RESEARCH

A special role in ensuring national security is given to the economy which serves as a source of military strength, national wealth and defines the conditions of international cooperation of a country (Nanto, 2011: 63). Research into economic security tools and methods has a long history. National market research studies determine the main subject of mercantilistic research. The origins of protectionism have been developing for more than three centuries, and are precisely related to determining the impact of a foreign trade component, which can become a significant source of conflict, on national interests. It is for this reason that the use of the following traditional foreign trade regulation instruments was justified: restrictive instruments of customs tariff regulation of imports, fiscal instruments of export promotion, etc. Unlike mercantilism, the principles of free trade were justified in classical theory by taking advantage of the absolute or comparative advantages of the national economy, since restrictive measures do not contribute to the growth of the wealth of nations. A state must guarantee security, which, in turn, should provide for appropriate values in society (Baldwin, 1997: 15–22), however, methods by which national governments provide national security differ significantly.

The liberal thought has for a long time defined the political course of many countries of the world and international organizations (WTO, IMF, etc.). However, whether the free economy contributes to the growth of welfare in countries remains debatable. Research shows that the level of openness of national economies and their economic growth is positive (Sachs, Warner, 1995; Dollar, Kraay, 2002; Rose, 2002) draws attention to the lack of empirical confirmation of the true effectiveness of trade regimes liberalization underpinning the multilateral mechanism. The complexity of promoting a multilateral mechanism for regulating trade and economic relations under the auspices of the WTO has significantly influenced the search for bilateral regulatory mechanisms, which has influenced the formation of national policies of integrating countries.

In the conditions of instability and crisis phase of the world economic development, protectionism in the implementation of foreign policy is increasing. In order to counteract them, the governing bodies of many countries of the world began to extensively introduce explicit and hidden restrictive measures, the number of which is constantly increasing (Baldwin, Evenett, 2009: 37). This can be explained by profound connection between national economic interests and the desire of countries to apply protectionist measures and tools, since it is the national interests that form the constituents and directions of regulatory policy, an important task of which is to ensure competitive advantage and protect national production. It may result in formation of unequal conditions in relation to a foreign producer (Watson, Sallie, 2013). The answer to deformation of the classic “laissez-faire” liberalism credo is liberal economic patriotism, which aims to the following: to ensure greater independence from resources beyond the control of a country; to achieve a diversified and balanced national economy as a means of improving national well-being; to provide independent planning of national economic development in the modern conditions of a globalization (Reznikova, Panchenko, Bulatova, 2018: 280). Thus,

in modern developments, protectionism is seen as both a restriction on trade and as certain discrimination of international economic relations participants. Liberalization of foreign economic activity has contributed to the economic growth of progressive economies; at the same time, free trade is often seen as one of the drivers for increased inequality in the world. It requires the use of targeted policies by countries, which will provide fairer distribution results (Gunnella, Quaglietti, 2019).

PROBLEM DEFINITION

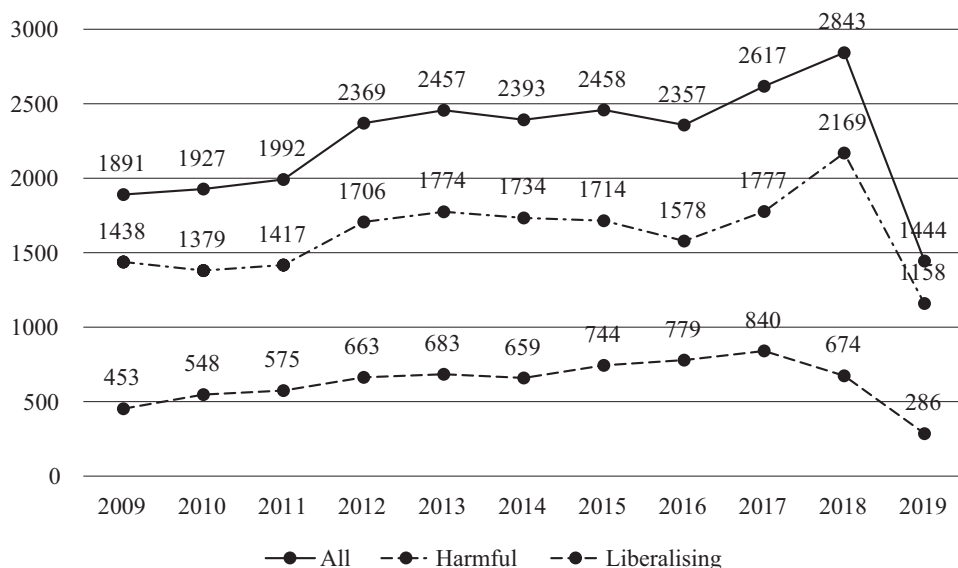
The work is aimed at determining the impact of the foreign trade component on national economic security formation. To achieve the goal, general scientific and specific research methods were used, namely: methods of analysis, abstraction, and synthesis (in the study of protectionism as a policy and practice; tools of neo-protectionism); methods of classification and systematic generalization (to systematize forms of protectionism and neo-protectionism); economic and statistical methods (to assess the impact of the foreign trade component on the development of national economic security).

RESULTS

Challenges related to the effects of the global economic crisis of 2008–2009 have become fundamentally new conditions for shaping a country's economic policy. In order to revitalize economic activity, governments in many countries have implemented appropriate anti-crisis programs and reformatted trade policies with the active use of hidden protectionism tools. Monitoring the trade policies of the countries (UN, 2010) found that, after the global economic crisis, the use of safeguards began to expand rapidly. They were applied by countries with varying levels of social and economic development, with only a multilateral mechanism for regulating trade and economic relations between countries implemented in accordance with WTO rules remaining in practice.

In order to ensure a high level of national producers' competitiveness, national governments are increasingly using various protective, incentive, discriminatory and restrictive tools that affect economic activity. Proliferation of protectionist measures is primarily related to non-tariff tools, including hidden ones, since further liberalization of tariff tools is progressing very slowly and its potential is extremely low, as evidenced by the active use of domestic economic policy instruments, and taxes, environmental and phyto and sanitary standards and norms, etc. The number of new government interventions is increasing every year. Since November 2008, 1,196 discriminatory interventions (*Global Trade Alert*, 2019) have been implemented by governments of different countries, including subsidies (7166), export measures (including export subsidies) (3563), tariff restrictions (2408), etc.

Figure 1. New interventions per year



Source: *Global Trade Alert*, 2019.

Table 1

Policy instrument: harmful and liberalizing

| Policy instrument | Harmful | Policy instrument | Liberalizing |
|--|---------|--|--------------|
| Subsidies (excl. export subsidies) | 7166 | Tariff measures | 2646 |
| Export-related measures (incl. export subsidies) | 3563 | Subsidies (excl. export subsidies) | 1760 |
| Tariff measures | 2408 | Non-automatic licensing, quotas etc. | 700 |
| Contingent trade-protective measures | 1946 | Export-related measures (incl. export subsidies) | 682 |
| Government procurement restrictions | 649 | FDI measures | 385 |
| Trade-related investment measures | 645 | Migration measures | 202 |
| Non-automatic licensing, quotas etc. | 539 | Instrument unclear | 179 |
| FDI measures | 343 | Price-control measures, including additional taxes and charges | 152 |
| Instrument unclear | 244 | Capital control measures | 86 |
| Migration measures | 217 | Government procurement restrictions | 69 |
| Capital control measures | 75 | Trade-related investment measures | 29 |
| Price-control measures, including additional taxes and charges | 69 | Contingent trade-protective measures | 18 |
| G: Finance measures | 17 | G: Finance measures | 8 |
| Intellectual Property | 4 | Intellectual Property | 2 |
| Sanitary and phytosanitary measure | 4 | Technical barriers to trade | 1 |
| Technical barriers to trade | 2 | | |

Source: *Global Trade Alert*, 2019.

Global processes encourage national governments to take deregulatory measures, improve the quality of institutions. On the other hand, economy regulation contributes

to the spread of corruption and deepens the shadowing processes of national economies.

Increased risks for the development of the world economy led to transformation in trade policies, changes in the use of foreign trade regulation instruments, which affects the economic security of countries as a more important component of their national security. Participation of a state in regulating economic processes has become a fact of life (Reznikova, Panchenko, 2017: 105). A wide range of tools used by national governments to ensure the development of national economies and competitiveness of their producers, and stimulate their economic activity defines the essence of modern neo-protectionism, environment of which can be any field, i.e. scientific, technological, industrial, investment, trade, migration, etc. Flexibility of neo-protectionism policy tools helps reduce the asymmetric distribution of benefits from globalization and provide an adequate response to global imbalances.

The modern state has, in fact, lost its monopoly on formulation and implementation of foreign policy. At the same time, the role of non-state actors which actively use various information technologies and numerous communication mechanisms, is increasing. More and more information campaigns are being launched in the world that are aimed at achieving both foreign policy goals and supporting the processes taking place in countries. States, through the use of different models of public diplomacy, influence the behavior of non-state actors. Most countries behave internationally like companies fighting for influence and power complying with international law, treaties and agreements. However, there are cases where the threat of rivalry becomes equivalent to vital national interests, and diplomacy becomes the main instrument through which international cooperation is implemented on a multilateral basis. Herewith, due to public diplomacy, national interests are being promoted at the international level, and countries' security is being strengthened.

The foreign trade component of security depends on the efficiency of a country's foreign trade activity, which, in turn, largely determines conditions for formation of the competitiveness level. It should be noted that a sufficiently high competitiveness level is a provision for a secure environment. Taking into account the competitive advantages and potential directions of their strengthening will make it possible to increase the efficiency level of foreign trade activity, achieve a sufficient level of the economy openness as well as an optimal specialization level thereof in the system of international labor division, which in turn will help to increase the level of foreign trade security of a country.

To estimate the foreign trade component of the national economy development, it is proposed to use an appropriate system of foreign trade indicators that can act as economic security factors. Accordingly, changing the identified indicators (in an appropriate direction) may identify threats (risks) to foreign trade security as a component of a country's economic security. The following system of indicators of impact on foreign trade security is proposed:

- *Exports of goods and services to GDP, %* (I_1) is an important indicator of a country's integration into the world economy. It should be noted that the increase in a degree of openness of the economy (export quota) provides for an increase in the level of involvement of the country in the system of world trade relations, ability

of the national economy to maximize the benefits of foreign economic activity for economic growth, and increase its level of competitiveness. According to the World Bank, if the country's export quota is less than 10%, then such economy is considered relatively closed, from 10 to 25% – moderately open, from 25 to 35% – fairly open.

- *Imports of goods and services to GDP, %* (I_2) determines the degree of dependence of a country on imports (import quota), the significant growth of which determines the risks of dependence on economic partners and the situation on world markets.
- *Balance sheet index, %* (I_3) is defined as the ratio of import export coverage which is a criterion for the effectiveness of foreign trade interaction, characterizing how much foreign exchange earnings from exports cover the cost of import. If a figure is more than 100%, then a country has a positive trade balance. Trade can be considered effective if the balance equals less than 100%, and in fact, this means that the country has a negative trade balance and such foreign trade cannot be considered effective.
- *Exports of goods and services to world exports, %* (I_4) and imports of goods and services to world imports, % (I_5) are important indicators that characterize the position (importance) of a country in the world trade system. Higher values of indicators lead to more influential positions of the country.
- *Foreign trade turnover per capita, USD* (I_6) is an indicator that reflects the level of participation of a country in the world trade system.
- *The coefficient of anticipation of growth of exports over imports, %* (I_7) takes into account the following: first, the nature of the exports dynamics and imports dynamics, acts as an indicator of growth of foreign trade activity), and second, acts as a criterion for the effectiveness of trade cooperation. It is only logical that if this ratio exceeds 100%, then exports growth outstrips the growth rate of imports; if less than 100%, the rate of change of exports is lagging behind the dynamics of imports growth.
- *The trade conditions index* (I_8) acts as an indicator that characterizes the change in the terms of trade for the country and is calculated by the ratio of changes in prices of exports and imports. If the value of this index is more than 100, it can be noted that trading conditions have improved, export prices have increased faster than import prices; if less – then the terms of trade deteriorated, the rise in export prices turned out to be less than the increase in import prices.
- *Export Concentration Index* (I_9) is an indicator of a country specialization level which characterizes the degree of market concentration and makes it possible to determine the degree of narrowness of a country's export range in comparison with the world structure of exports.
- *The Export Diversification Index* (I_{10}) reveals differences between a country's trade structure (group of countries) and the world average export structure.
- *High-tech exports to GDP, %* (I_{11}) is an important indicator of the quality (adaptability) of foreign trade in a country.

The abovementioned indicators can determine the structure of the index of foreign trade component of economic security.

Basing on the methodology of multidimensional (integral) evaluation (OECD, 2008), the following toolkit for the assessment of foreign trade security component is proposed, which involves the implementation of the following steps:

- defining the structure of the integral index (definition of the system of indicators);
- choosing a method of standardizing input parameters for the purpose of bringing them to the comparative form and inclusion in the corresponding integral indices (output indicators (I_j) are standardized depending on their type by the relation with threshold values (I_p), followed by normalization using the function of the standard normal integral distribution:

$$- Z_j = \frac{I_j}{I_{II}} (I_j - \text{stimulant}) \text{ or } Z_j = \frac{I_{II}}{I_j} (I_j - \text{disincentive}) \text{ or } (1)$$

$$- Z_j^{norm.} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{Z_j^2}{2}} \quad (2)$$

- determining importance of the indicators (importance estimated using the method of expert evaluation);
- choosing the form of aggregation of the integral index and carrying out of the corresponding calculations of the integral index with further interpretation.

It is advisable to use geometric aggregation, respectively, the formula for calculating the integral index of foreign trade security component, taking into account the weight of the above indicators will have the following form:

$$SI = I_1^{0,04*} I_2^{0,04*} I_3^{0,11*} I_4^{0,07*} I_5^{0,07*} I_6^{0,11*} I_7^{0,07*} I_8^{0,14*} I_9^{0,11*} I_{10}^{0,14*} I_1^{0,11} \quad (3)$$

Using the official data of the State Statistics Committee of Ukraine, the proposed methodology was tested and the integral index of the foreign trade security component of the Ukrainian economy was calculated.

Table 2

Dynamics of Foreign Trade Indicators and Security Indices of Ukraine

| Years | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | 2018 |
|---|--------|--------|-------|-------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|
| The integral index, SI | 68.03 | 68.83 | 70.27 | 69.26 | 69.43 | 68.58 | 67.84 | 67.83 | 67.93 |
| Exports of goods and services, % of GDP | 47.05 | 49.82 | 47.72 | 42.96 | 48.59 | 52.60 | 49.30 | 48.01 | 45.21 |
| Import of goods and services, % of GDP | 51.09 | 56.43 | 56.37 | 52.19 | 52.10 | 55.21 | 56.22 | 55.70 | 53.81 |
| Balance index, % | 92.11 | 88.29 | 84.65 | 82.30 | 93.27 | 95.27 | 87.68 | 86.20 | 84.02 |
| Exports of goods and services, % to the world | 0.34 | 0.36 | 0.37 | 0.33 | 0.27 | 0.22 | 0.22 | 0.23 | 0.24 |
| Import of goods and services, % to the world | 0.38 | 0.42 | 0.45 | 0.42 | 0.30 | 0.24 | 0.26 | 0.28 | 0.29 |
| Foreign trade turnover per capita, USD | 2915 | 3800 | 4026 | 3851 | 2980 | 2185 | 2203 | 2616 | 2928 |
| Export growth ratio over imports, % | 95.45 | 95.85 | 95.88 | 97.22 | 113.33 | 102.14 | 92.04 | 98.30 | 97.48 |
| Trade conditions index | 100.00 | 104.15 | 92.71 | 92.44 | 89.14 | 81.70 | 81.53 | 82.89 | 82.52 |
| Export Concentration Index | 0.13 | 0.13 | 0.12 | 0.12 | 0.13 | 0.13 | 0.15 | 0.14 | 0.14 |
| Export Diversification Index | 0.57 | 0.57 | 0.60 | 0.61 | 0.67 | 0.68 | 0.67 | 0.68 | 0.65 |
| High-tech exports, % of GDP | 5.00 | 5.00 | 6.91 | 6.71 | 7.53 | 8.52 | 7.22 | 6.25 | 5.41 |

Source: Made by Athors.

Ukraine's export quota for the analyzed period varies within 42.96% (2013) to 52.6% (2015), which is 13% above the EU average and 61% above the world average. The import quota varies in the range of 51.09% (2013) – 56.43% (2011), which is 36% above the EU average and 86% above the world average. In terms of economic openness, Ukraine is quite open and at the same time is dependent on imports. It should be noted that 2/3 of Ukrainian exports are primary products or raw materials in general, while more than half of national imports are finished products. At the same time, protectionist measures are applied against the country in such groups of goods, which have a significant share in the structure of Ukrainian exports: ferrous metal products (504 measures), ferrous metals (278), other metal products (132), cereals (101), etc. Overall, since 2009, nearly 1.4 thousand protectionist measures have been taken against Ukrainian producers in foreign markets, of which 2/3 continue to be effective today. Balance sheet indexes not exceeding 100% indicate inefficiency of Ukraine's foreign trade, a negative balance and have a negative downward trend in recent years (2015–2018). The country has a chronic trade deficit: 2015 – \$ 3.4 billion. US, 2016 – 6.9 billion; 2017 – \$ 9.6 billion.

Indicators of the country's validity in the world trade system are insignificant and are characterized by a tendency to decrease in exports and a slight increase in imports. The per capita foreign trade turnover rate is low (on average over the period \$ 3056 per capita), which is 9.5 times less than the EU average and 2 times less than the world average.

With the exception of 2014–2015, the risk factor for foreign trade security is the rapid growth of imports over exports, but the rate of advance in 2016–2018 is declining. The terms of trade for the country during 2012–2018 are constantly deteriorating, as evidenced by the value of the corresponding index of less than 100%. Despite the fact that the export concentration index is 2 times higher than the EU average, it is insignificant (close to 0), which indicates a sufficiently wide range of exported goods. In terms of the diversification index, it is 3 times higher than the EU average, close to the indexes of developing countries, and shows significant differences in the structure of exports compared to the world structure. The share of high-tech exports in the analyzed period fluctuates within 5% (2011) – 5.52% (2015), which is 3 times less than the world average. Thus, it can be noted that among the main factors of threats to the foreign trade security of Ukraine is a high degree of import dependence, a more intensive pre-emptive growth of import volumes over exports, a negative trade balance, a low level in comparison with European countries of trade intensification, import prices at a faster pace in terms of export prices, significant differences in the structure of exports compared to the world structure, poor quality of exports.

CONCLUSIONS

National governments are actively using a wide range of tools to ensure economic growth and an appropriate level of competitiveness for their economies while ensuring national security. In the context of the new economic reality, trade restrictive measures are actively used by both developed and developing countries. With the worsening

crisis in the global economy, there is an increase in protectionism, both as a restriction on trade and as some discrimination against the participants of international economic relations in order to achieve a diversified and balanced national economy, and which takes on new forms and characteristics.

Basing on the methodology of multidimensional (integral) evaluation, the toolkit for the assessment of the foreign trade security component is proposed, which is tested on official statistics of the Ukrainian economy. It is proved that in modern conditions the main factors of threats to the foreign trade security of Ukraine are a high degree of import dependence, a rapid increase in imports over exports, a negative trade balance, a low level of trade intensity compared to European countries, and a deterioration in prices due to deterioration in prices. the pace of export prices, significant differences in the structure of exports compared to the world structure, poor quality of exports. Ukraine has very limited use of protection tools.

APPENDIX

Table 1

Dynamics of economic openness indicators

| Country | Exports of goods and services, % of GDP | | | | | Import of goods and services, % of GDP | | | | |
|----------------|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|--|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | 2010 | 2012 | 2014 | 2016 | 2018 | 2010 | 2012 | 2014 | 2016 | 2018 |
| Germany | 42.57 | 46.31 | 45.62 | 46.02 | 47.42 | 37.30 | 40.21 | 39.00 | 38.66 | 41.25 |
| United Kingdom | 28.28 | 29.98 | 28.50 | 28.44 | 30.01 | 30.27 | 31.15 | 29.90 | 30.06 | 31.77 |
| France | 26.79 | 29.20 | 29.67 | 30.25 | 31.34 | 28.08 | 30.50 | 30.81 | 30.85 | 32.11 |
| Italy | 25.07 | 28.38 | 29.11 | 29.33 | 31.45 | 26.93 | 27.28 | 26.21 | 26.04 | 28.95 |
| Spain | 25.95 | 31.46 | 33.48 | 33.88 | 35.12 | 26.98 | 29.39 | 30.38 | 29.89 | 32.40 |
| Netherlands | 69.80 | 79.50 | 80.58 | 79.54 | 84.32 | 61.72 | 69.77 | 69.48 | 69.32 | 73.33 |
| Poland | 40.06 | 44.44 | 47.57 | 52.19 | 55.59 | 42.05 | 44.88 | 46.13 | 48.16 | 52.15 |
| Sweden | 44.73 | 45.20 | 43.57 | 43.26 | 45.79 | 39.85 | 40.65 | 40.10 | 39.60 | 43.29 |
| Belgium | 75.85 | 80.40 | 79.80 | 79.38 | 82.58 | 74.15 | 80.34 | 78.98 | 78.18 | 82.74 |
| Austria | 51.26 | 53.97 | 53.39 | 52.45 | 55.76 | 47.76 | 51.18 | 50.12 | 48.62 | 52.03 |
| EU28 | 38.37 | 42.19 | 42.56 | 42.85 | 44.77 | 37.33 | 39.99 | 39.66 | 39.49 | 41.86 |
| Ukraine | 47.05 | 47.72 | 48.59 | 49.30 | 45.21 | 51.09 | 56.37 | 52.10 | 56.22 | 53.81 |
| World | 28.97 | 30.63 | 30.18 | 28.48 | 30.11 | 28.16 | 29.95 | 29.60 | 27.65 | 29.34 |

Source: World Trade Organization [Official website].

Table 2

Dynamics of indicators of trade intensity

| Country | Balance sheet index, % | | | | | Foreign trade turnover per capita, USD | | | | |
|----------------|------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| | 2010 | 2012 | 2014 | 2016 | 2018 | 2010 | 2012 | 2014 | 2016 | 2018 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| Germany | 114.1 | 115.2 | 117.0 | 119.0 | 114.9 | 33560.8 | 37687.4 | 40350.7 | 35717.9 | 42110.2 |
| United Kingdom | 93.4 | 96.2 | 95.3 | 94.6 | 94.5 | 22748.3 | 25524.9 | 27245.2 | 23683.7 | 26172.1 |
| France | 95.4 | 95.8 | 96.3 | 98.0 | 97.6 | 22310.9 | 24387.3 | 25994.4 | 22581.8 | 26213.2 |
| Italy | 93.1 | 104.0 | 111.0 | 112.6 | 108.6 | 18707.4 | 19398.2 | 19773.0 | 17120.5 | 20763.2 |
| Spain | 96.2 | 107.0 | 110.2 | 113.3 | 108.4 | 16022.7 | 17127.9 | 18696.3 | 16848.8 | 20519.9 |
| Netherlands | 113.1 | 114.0 | 116.0 | 114.7 | 115.0 | 66739.0 | 74578.3 | 79142.3 | 68685.6 | 84432.2 |

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Poland | 95.2 | 99.0 | 103.1 | 108.4 | 106.6 | 10267.8 | 11692.2 | 13415.5 | 12469.1 | 16640.1 |
| Sweden | 112.3 | 111.2 | 108.6 | 109.2 | 105.8 | 44617.0 | 49561.4 | 50092.7 | 43444.0 | 49674.2 |
| Belgium | 102.3 | 100.1 | 101.0 | 101.5 | 99.8 | 65950.6 | 71950.0 | 75658.3 | 66060.2 | 78144.0 |
| Austria | 107.3 | 105.5 | 106.5 | 107.9 | 107.2 | 46142.0 | 50636.1 | 53101.7 | 45665.7 | 55194.3 |
| EU28 | 102.8 | 105.6 | 107.3 | 108.5 | 107.6 | 25659.4 | 28294.8 | 30458.1 | 27250.0 | 32606.4 |
| Ukraine | 92.1 | 84.7 | 93.3 | 87.7 | 84.0 | 2915.0 | 4025.5 | 2979.9 | 2203.1 | 2927.9 |
| World | – | – | – | – | – | 5394.0 | 6323.8 | 6469.3 | 5542.9 | 6521.9 |

Source: World Trade Organization [Official website].

Table 3

Dynamics of validity indicators in the structure of world trade

| Country | Exports of goods and services, % to world | | | | | Import of goods and services, % to world | | | | |
|----------------|--|-------|-------|-------|-------|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | 2010 | 2012 | 2014 | 2016 | 2018 | 2010 | 2012 | 2014 | 2016 | 2018 |
| Germany | 7.6 | 7.1 | 7.4 | 7.6 | 7.4 | 6.9 | 6.4 | 6.5 | 6.6 | 6.6 |
| United Kingdom | 3.7 | 3.5 | 3.7 | 3.7 | 3.4 | 4.1 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 4.0 | 3.7 |
| France | 3.7 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 3.6 | 3.5 | 4.0 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 3.7 | 3.6 |
| Italy | 2.8 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 2.6 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 2.4 |
| Spain | 1.9 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.1 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.9 |
| Netherlands | 3.1 | 2.9 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 2.7 | 2.7 |
| Poland | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.2 |
| Sweden | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| Belgium | 1.9 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 |
| Austria | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 1.0 |
| EU28 | 34.5 | 32.2 | 33.6 | 34.7 | 34.6 | 34.6 | 31.5 | 32.2 | 32.7 | 32.8 |
| Ukraine | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 |
| World | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Source: World Trade Organization [Official website].

Table 4

Dynamics of indicators of specialization and concentration of trade

| Country | Export Concentration Index | | | | | Export Diversification Index | | | | |
|----------------|----------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | 2010 | 2012 | 2014 | 2016 | 2018 | 2010 | 2012 | 2014 | 2016 | 2018 |
| Germany | 0.090 | 0.092 | 0.097 | 0.106 | 0.093 | 0.317 | 0.346 | 0.340 | 0.310 | 0.311 |
| United Kingdom | 0.111 | 0.118 | 0.111 | 0.108 | 0.111 | 0.296 | 0.322 | 0.322 | 0.318 | 0.326 |
| France | 0.088 | 0.091 | 0.092 | 0.098 | 0.089 | 0.335 | 0.342 | 0.342 | 0.322 | 0.328 |
| Italy | 0.052 | 0.056 | 0.053 | 0.052 | 0.053 | 0.365 | 0.365 | 0.375 | 0.345 | 0.354 |
| Spain | 0.096 | 0.091 | 0.092 | 0.107 | 0.097 | 0.347 | 0.353 | 0.346 | 0.337 | 0.343 |
| Netherlands | 0.112 | 0.115 | 0.098 | 0.073 | 0.083 | 0.348 | 0.347 | 0.329 | 0.322 | 0.312 |
| Poland | 0.077 | 0.065 | 0.065 | 0.067 | 0.063 | 0.414 | 0.402 | 0.387 | 0.374 | 0.396 |
| Sweden | 0.096 | 0.095 | 0.091 | 0.091 | 0.097 | 0.358 | 0.370 | 0.364 | 0.342 | 0.357 |
| Belgium | 0.097 | 0.098 | 0.104 | 0.095 | 0.096 | 0.362 | 0.378 | 0.376 | 0.368 | 0.388 |
| Austria | 0.059 | 0.059 | 0.060 | 0.061 | 0.068 | 0.341 | 0.346 | 0.337 | 0.334 | 0.334 |
| EU28 | 0.064 | 0.065 | 0.064 | 0.067 | 0.065 | 0.216 | 0.231 | 0.224 | 0.206 | 0.214 |
| Ukraine | 0.130 | 0.121 | 0.127 | 0.146 | 0.140 | 0.569 | 0.597 | 0.669 | 0.666 | 0.651 |
| World | 0.076 | 0.086 | 0.078 | 0.063 | 0.069 | – | – | – | – | – |

Source: World Trade Organization [Official website].

Table 5

Dynamics of terms and quality of trade

| Country | High-tech exports, % of GDP | | | | | Trading Terms Index (base 2010) | | | |
|----------------|-----------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| | 2010 | 2012 | 2014 | 2016 | 2018 | 2012 | 2014 | 2016 | 2018 |
| Germany | 17.01 | 17.36 | 17.28 | 18.06 | 15.74 | 96.43 | 101.09 | 106.32 | 103.19 |
| United Kingdom | 23.55 | 23.80 | 22.47 | 23.98 | 22.30 | 97.44 | 96.74 | 95.81 | 96.60 |
| France | 26.59 | 26.85 | 27.61 | 28.08 | 25.92 | 95.89 | 95.50 | 97.71 | 94.79 |
| Italy | 8.15 | 7.67 | 7.82 | 8.37 | 7.79 | 97.08 | 102.94 | 108.59 | 103.97 |
| Spain | 6.78 | 7.36 | 7.43 | 7.45 | 7.19 | 94.66 | 94.78 | 99.45 | 96.48 |
| Netherlands | 27.78 | 25.50 | 25.79 | 23.90 | 22.70 | 99.47 | 101.30 | 102.75 | 101.70 |
| Poland | 7.72 | 7.89 | 10.25 | 11.04 | 10.60 | 95.94 | 96.77 | 98.66 | 96.25 |
| Sweden | 19.66 | 18.00 | 17.98 | 18.28 | 14.34 | 96.88 | 96.65 | 96.82 | 94.56 |
| Belgium | 11.17 | 11.86 | 13.36 | 13.05 | 10.33 | 96.81 | 97.65 | 99.80 | 97.18 |
| Austria | 13.71 | 14.58 | 15.53 | 14.51 | 11.64 | 95.79 | 96.03 | 96.97 | 94.07 |
| EU28 | 17.58 | 17.45 | 17.40 | 18.21 | 16.27 | 96.83 | 98.67 | 101.61 | 99.19 |
| Ukraine | 5.00 | 6.91 | 7.53 | 7.22 | 5.41 | 92.71 | 89.14 | 81.53 | 82.52 |
| World | 20.56 | 19.03 | 19.09 | 20.04 | 17.87 | 100.25 | 100.44 | 100.61 | 101.37 |

Source: World Trade Organization [Official website].

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to determine the impact of the foreign trade component on the formation of national economic security. Transformations occurring in the world's economic development, the deterioration of the global financial environment, and increasing geopolitical tensions have intensified the main risks to the development of the global economy in today's conditions. Therefore, national governments are actively using a wide range of tools to ensure economic growth and the appropriate level of competitiveness of their respective economies while ensuring national security, which is relevant for the study of the external component of national economic security.

To achieve the aim, general scientific and specific research methods are used, such as methods of analysis, abstraction and synthesis (in the study of protectionism as a policy and practice, instruments of neo-protectionism); methods of classification and systematic generalization (to systematize the forms of protectionism and neo-protectionism); economic and statistical methods (to assess the impact of foreign trade on the development of national economic security).

It is demonstrated that the intensification of the risks to the development of the global economy has led to the transformation of trade policies, changes in the use of foreign trade regulation instruments, which affects the economic security of various countries as a major component of their national security. The modern trade and economic policy toolbox used by various countries to ensure national security is analyzed. A comparative analysis of the development of foreign trade of the EU and Ukraine has been carried out, and the features of the influence of the foreign trade component on the formation of economic security have been determined.

It is demonstrated that, in the conditions of a global economic crisis, hidden forms of protectionism implemented at various levels of economic policy (global, regional, national), have spread. A classification of specific features and forms of neo-protectionism, that distinguish it from protectionism, is proposed. It is substantiated that global processes encourage national governments to implement deregulatory measures and improve the quality of institutions, while regulated economies contribute to the spread of corruption and grey areas in national economies.

Keywords: national security, economic security, trade and economic policy, protectionism, neo-protectionism

ZEWNĘTRZNY KOMPONENT BEZPIECZEŃSTWA GOSPODARCZEGO KRAJU**STRESZCZENIE**

Celem pracy jest określenie wpływu handlu zagranicznego na kształtowanie się bezpieczeństwa gospodarczego kraju. Przemiany zachodzące w światowym rozwoju gospodarczym, degradacja światowego otoczenia finansowego i narastające napięcia geopolityczne potęgują podstawowe zagrożenia dla rozwoju światowej gospodarki w obecnych warunkach. W związku z tym rządy aktywnie wykorzystują szeroką gamę narzędzi w celu zapewnienia wzrostu gospodarczego i odpowiedniego poziomu konkurencyjności swoich gospodarek, przy jednoczesnym zapewnieniu bezpieczeństwa narodowego, co jest istotne dla badania zewnętrznego komponentu bezpieczeństwa ekonomicznego kraju.

Aby osiągnąć cel posłużono się ogólnymi metodami naukowymi i specyficznymi metodami badawczymi, takimi jak: metoda analizy, abstrakcji i syntezy (w badaniu protekcjonizmu jako polityki i praktyki oraz instrumentów neo-protekcjonizmu); metoda klasyfikacji i uogólnienia (w celu usystematyzowania form protekcjonizmu i neo-protekcjonizmu); oraz metody ekonomiczne i statystyczne (ocena wpływu handlu zagranicznego na rozwój bezpieczeństwa gospodarczego kraju).

Wykazano, że nasilenie się zagrożeń dla rozwoju gospodarki światowej doprowadziło do transformacji polityk handlowych i zmian w stosowaniu instrumentów regulacji handlu zagranicznego, co wpływa na bezpieczeństwo gospodarcze krajów będące istotnym składnikiem ich bezpieczeństwa narodowego. Przeanalizowano nowoczesne instrumentarium polityki handlowej i gospodarczej, z którego korzystają państwa w celu zapewnienia sobie bezpieczeństwa. Przeprowadzono analizę porównawczą rozwoju handlu zagranicznego UE i Ukrainy oraz określono cechy wpływu komponentu handlu zagranicznego na kształtowanie się bezpieczeństwa gospodarczego.

Wykazano, że w warunkach światowego kryzysu gospodarczego rozprzestrzeniały się ukryte formy protekcjonizmu, który jest stosowany na różnych poziomach polityki gospodarczej (globalnym, regionalnym, krajowym). Zaproponowano systematyzację specyficznych cech i form neo-protekcjonizmu, które odróżniają go od protekcjonizmu. Udowodniono, że procesy globalne skłaniają rządy krajowe do wprowadzania działań deregulacyjnych i poprawy jakości instytucji, a z drugiej strony regulacja gospodarki przyczynia się do rozprzestrzeniania się korrupcji i rozrostu szarej strefy w gospodarkach narodowych.

Słowa kluczowe: bezpieczeństwo narodowe, bezpieczeństwo gospodarcze, polityka handlowa i gospodarcza, protekcjonizm, neo-protekcjonizm

