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Effects of Poland's Pro-Export Policy Implementation in the Context of the Plan for Responsible Development – a Preliminary Comparative Assessment

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to present the results of a preliminary assessment of Poland's export expansion policy in relation to the export of commodities, which is a result of the Government's Plan for Responsible Development, in the context of existing barriers and the external and internal conditions reported by small and medium-sized enterprises sector (SMEs).

In the latest ranking of its competitive position in the global market for the period 2016–2017, Poland ranked 36th in the world. It should also be stressed that in this most recent world ranking Poland held the 16th position among EU Member States. A positive phenomenon in relation to Poland's foreign trade in 2016, as compared to previous years, was that the value of export exceeded import, which allowed for a turnover surplus of nearly EUR 4.8 billion, i.e. two times higher than in 2015. In 2016 (and also in the first half of 2017) there was a favorable diversification of Polish export, demonstrating an increase in export to non-EU markets of economically developed countries. After two years of relatively slow growth, export to this group of countries in 2016 increased by 5.6% (to EUR 12 billion), i.e. nearly 2.5 times faster than the total export.

Despite the tariff-free and quota-free access to the single European market, there are still limits and barriers to the free movement of goods, and especially services. There are also many internal barriers in small and medium-sized enterprises' export to foreign markets, which limit their export expansion. Despite the gradual increase in export observed in recent years, the internationalization of non-Polish enterprises is still much lower than in Western European countries. As a result, the share of Polish SMEs in the EU market is one third smaller than the EU average.

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JEL: *F13, F14*

1. Introduction

Within the Governmental Plan established in the year 2015 by the Ministry of Economic Development, the following five main pillars will play a crucial role in Poland until the year 2020: reindustrialization; development of innovative companies; capital for development; **foreign expansion**; as well as social and regional development.[1] One of the most important policies related to foreign expansion is the Export Support Policy, oriented toward:

- an increase of Polish exports and its higher geographical diversification to non-European countries
- positive changes in the commodity structures, with special reference to a higher share of innovative and highly processed products.

2. Macroeconomic Aspects of the Importance of Export Expansion for Development of the Country

In economic theory presenting the classical relationships between foreign trade and economic growth, foreign trade is perceived as a „locomotive of development", as growth of exports has a significant impact on the increased demand for domestic means of production and consumption and on services, while stimulating investment and technical progress.[2] The positive role of foreign trade results from

[1] http://www.mr.gov.pl/media/14873/Responsible_Development_Plan.pdf

[2] Thus, a positive balance of foreign trade promotes growth of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), which is a measure of output produced by factors of production located in the country. In turn, the Gross National Product (GNP) is a measure of total income earned by citizens of the country regardless of the location (country) in which services are provided using factors of production (i.e. mainly profits from capital invested abroad). GNP is equal to GDP adjusted for net income from ownership abroad, that is, income resulting from inflow to the home country of production factors located abroad, i.e. capital invested in the form of FDI or portfolio investment, or capital invested in a foreign bank and/or land revenue from abroad, etc. Due to the high imbalance between the inflow of capital to Poland and the outflow of Polish capital in the form of direct and portfolio investments, the GNP of Poland is significantly lower than its GDP. This means a much

its ability to restore economic equilibrium. It also allows for conducting a policy of economic growth. Firms willing to expand their exports gain benefits in the form of an increased scale of production and lower unit costs, which allows them to lower prices and expand in foreign markets, as well as to gain new customers for their goods and consequently to increase their competitiveness. The prerequisite for the so-called *sustainable* competitiveness is ensuring the improvement of innovativeness of products and services (based on the use of research results and their systematic implementation in an enterprise).

The process of trade liberalization and opening of domestic economies to international trade, especially in the age of globalization, has positively influenced economic growth by creating the following mechanisms:

1) building closer economic relations, increasing technology transfers and reducing repetition of similar research;
2) enabling the accumulation of knowledge as a public good, which increases the pace of technical progress;
3) international integration of economic sectors based on exploiting the benefits of increased scales of production, which makes it possible to reduce production costs and prices, attracting new customers and further developing export expansion;
4) opening of the economy, which reduces price disruptions thus leads to more efficient allocation of resources between sectors, as a consequence increasing overall economic efficiency.

The first two mechanisms accelerate economic growth, while the third one sporadically can slow down economic growth if changes in relative price levels cause shifting of resources in the economy, but not to the innovation-inducing R&D sector.

The stimulating role of foreign trade occurs in the following forms:

- GDP rises along with the current benefits of international trade resulting from relative advantages in production costs and improvement of terms of trade;[3]
- A surplus in the balance of trade in goods and services positively influences growth of production and income;
- Increased demand for exported agricultural and industrial products and services results in increased income and increased gross domestic product, which allows for the increase of import opportunities,

higher outflow of profits and other revenues from capital invested by foreign capital investors than the relatively modest inflow of profits of Polish investors investing abroad. This means that Poland is a country "living" mainly from work and not from capital.

[3] *Terms of trade*: the relation between prices received from exports to the prices paid on imports.

- A higher GDP level allows for higher investment expenditures, which has multiplier effect on the increases in production and income, depending on the level of marginal propensity to consume.

Growth of GDP in an open economy depends not only on internal factors of growth associated with domestic investments, but also on external factors influenced by the inflow of foreign direct investment (FDI) complementing domestic sources of capital, and on the increase in exports and the level of the so-called export multiplier, a coefficient that determines the increase in national income resulting from a one-unit increase in exports. Revenues from the growth of exports stimulate an increase in effective domestic market demand, which in conditions of underemployment and under-utilization of production capacity causes a cumulative increase in production, employment, and national income. As a result, the final increase in national income is higher than the original increase in exports by the export multiplier.

The positive impact of foreign trade on economic growth is related to the possibility of export expansion, while an **excessive propensity to import** goods reduces growth of domestic production and income, unless it is investment and/or supplies import, which will contribute to the development of more modern domestic production and/or export. **Although import competition is an important factor stimulating domestic producers to modernize their production and export offer, this can, however, pose the threat of so-called 'excessive import' and/or dumped import, which in the light of World Trade Organization rules, are not allowed. A positive trade balance and a high share of exports in GDP are important indicators of export expansion.**

The government document 'A Strategy for Responsible Development until 2020 (with a vision to 2030)'[4] defines the following tasks which should result in increased export expansion in Poland:

- increase the value of Polish export and improve the competitive position of Poland in the world economy;
- greater geographical diversification of exports;
- increase of export per capita;
- improve of the commodity structure of export in order to increase the share of highly processed products, including also high-tech products.

[4] Strategia na Rzecz Odpowiedzialnego Rozwoju: https://www.mr.gov.pl/strony/strategia-na-rzecz-odpowiedzialnego-rozwoju/, pp. 135–145.

3. Poland's Competitive Position in the World Economy (Against Selected Countries) and Its Position in World Export

The position of Poland in the *Global Competitiveness Reports*, developed annually by the experts of the *Global Economic Forum in Geneva*, has been consistently improving, from 57th place in the rankings before Poland's accession to the European Union; to 46th place in the years 2009–2010; and then to 41st position in the years 2014–2015. In the most recent ranking for the period 2017–2018, Poland reached 39th position in the world. It should also be emphasized that in this latest world ranking Poland was in 16th place among EU Member States. Among the Central and Eastern European (CEE) EU countries, only three countries were ahead of Poland in the above-mentioned world ranking of competitiveness: Estonia (30th position), the Czech Republic (31st position), and Lithuania (35th position).[5]

The share of Poland in global exports in the period 1990–2015 was as follows (in selected years): in 1990 Poland's share in world export amounted to 0.4%; in 2000 – 0.5%, in 2005 – 0.8% and in 2010 and 2015 increased to 1.0% and 1.18% respectively.[6]

Table 1. Competitive position of 50 selected European and non-European countries in the global market

Selected countries	Position 2017–2018*	Position 2014–2015	Position 2009–2010
Switzerland	*1*	*1*	*1*
Singapore	2	2	3
USA	3	3	2
Netherlands	*4*	*5*	*10*
Germany	*5*	*5*	*7*
Sweden	*6*	*9*	*4*
Great Britain	*7*	*10*	*13*
Japan	8	6	8
Hong Kong SAR	9	7	11
Finland	*10*	*8*	*6*
Norway	*11*	*11*	*14*
Denmark	*12*	*12*	*5*
New Zealand	13	16	20
Taiwan, China	14	15	12
Canada	15	15	9
United Arab Emirates	16	17	23
Belgium	*17*	*19*	*18*
Qatar	18	14	22
Austria	*19*	*23*	*17*

[5] *Global Competitiveness Report*, World Economic Forum, Geneva, relevant years.

[6] Own calculations based on the UNCTAD HANDBOOK of STATISTICS 2016, UNITED NATIONS, New York and Geneva, 2016, pp. 2, 8.

Selected countries	**Position 2017–2018***	**Position 2014–2015**	**Position 2009–2010**
Luxembourg	*20*	*20*	*21*
France	*21*	*22*	*16*
Australia	22	21	15
Ireland	*23*	*24*	*25*
Israel	24	27	27
Malaysia	25	18	24
South Korea	26	26	19
Iceland	*27*	*29*	*26*
China	28	28	29
Saudi Arabia	29	25	28
Estonia	*30*	*30*	*35*
Czech Republic	*31*	*31*	*31*
Spain	*32*	*33*	*33*
Chile	33	35	30
Thailand	34	32	36
Lithuania	*35*	*36*	*53*
Poland	*36*	*41*	*46*
Azerbaijan	37	40	51
Kuwait	38	34	39
India	39	55	49
Malta	40	45	52
Indonesia	41	37	54
Panama	42	47	59
Russian Federation	43	45	63
Italy	*44*	*43*	*48*
Portugal	*46*	*38*	*43*
Latvia	*49*	*44*	*68*
Bulgaria	*50*	*54*	*76*
Mexico	51	57	60
Turkey	55	50	61
Romania	*62*	*53*	*64*
Slovakia	*65*	*67*	*47*
Hungary	*69*	*63*	*58*
Morocco	70	72	73
Croatia	*74*	*77*	*72*
Greece	*86*	*81*	*71*
Brazil	81	75	56

** The position of the leading countries in the global rankings are presented in the Table above: The Global Competitiveness Report 2017–2017, World Economic Forum, prof. Klaus Schwab (ed.), (World Competitiveness Report – developed by experts from the World Economic Forum for 138 countries), http://reports.weforum.org/global-competitiveness-index/#topic=highlights, other results in the table come from reports for previous years.*

Source: The Global Competitiveness Report 2018–2017, World Economic Forum, prof. Klaus Schwab (ed.), http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GCR2016–2017/05 FullReport/TheGlobalCompetitiveness Report2016–2017 _FINAL.pdf and The Global Competitiveness Reports – corresponding years, the EU Member States shown in italics.

Table 2 shows that in 2016 six Western European EU countries – Germany, UK, France, Italy, Netherlands and Sweden, and the Czech Republic from Central and Eastern Europe dominated in the geographical structure of Polish export. These countries were recipients of 58% of overall export from Poland. This indicates a high level of export concentration on the markets of Western Europe. However, this indicator in 2015 was higher by 1.8 percentage points for the above-mentioned countries, which may be evidence of actions aimed at a greater diversification of Polish export. Detailed data on the geographical structure of Polish export in 2016 is presented in Table 2.

Finally, we can conclude, that in 2016 (and also in the first half of 2017) there was a favorable diversification of Polish export, demonstrating increased export to non-EU markets of economically developed countries. After two years of relatively slow growth, export to this group of countries in 2016 increased by 5.6% (to EUR 12 billion), i.e. nearly 2.5 times faster than the total export.

Table 2. Value of Polish export to individual countries and their share in total Polish export in 2016 (the data for 2016 are preliminary)

Code	Country	export from Poland	share [%]
000000	Total export of Poland, of which:	203 725 208 690	100.0
DE	*Germany*	*55 696 206 891*	*27.3*
GB	*Great Britain*	*13 440 824 204*	*6.6*
CZ	*Czech Republic*	*13 379 664 968*	*6.6*
FR	*France*	*11 203 980 970*	*5.5*
IT	*Italy*	*9 819 036 787*	*4.8*
NL	*Netherlands*	*9 109 921 582*	*4.5*
SE	*Sweden*	*5 889 615 418*	*2.9*
RU	Russia	5 787 194 484	2.8
ES	*Spain*	*5 548 689 059*	*2.7*
HU	*Hungary*	*5 360 461 418*	*2.6*
SK	*Slovakia*	*5 023 183 573*	*2.5*
US	United States of America	4 810 182 753	2.4
BE	*Belgium*	*4 376 354 528*	*2.1*
UA	Ukraine	3 834 131 797	1.9
RO	*Romania*	*3 646 080 659*	*1.8*
AT	*Austria*	*3 634 294 602*	*1.8*
DK	*Denmark*	*3 566 966 701*	*1.8*
TR	Turkey	3 121 688 903	1.5
LT	*Lithuania*	*2 877 854 453*	*1.4*
NO	Norway	2 479 173 519	1.2
CH	Switzerland	1 913 219 736	0.9
CN	China	1 911 143 149	0.9
FI	*Finland*	*1 651 573 046*	*0.8*
LV	*Latvia*	*1 468 837 618*	*0.7*
CA	Canada	1 385 286 379	0.7
BY	Belarus	1 352 977 352	0.7

Code	Country	export from Poland	share [%]
EE	*Estonia*	*1 128 576 608*	*0.6*
BG	*Bulgaria*	*1 117 061 624*	*0.5*
GR	*Greece*	*893 039 558*	*0.4*
PT	*Portugal*	*818 682 232*	*0.4*
XS	Serbia	774 409 409	0.4
SI	*Slovenia*	*761 692 193*	*0.4*
IE	*Ireland*	*747 963 836*	*0.4*
SA	Saudi Arabia	743 075 985	0.4
IN	India	669 467 824	0.3
HR	Croatia	665 526 995	0.3
AE	United Arab Emirates	658 795 074	0.3
SG	Singapore	632 634 799	0.3
JP	Japan	591 249 949	0.3
IL	Israel	572 396 072	0.3
AU	Australia	559 442 316	0.3
ZA	Republic of South Africa	557 747 142	0.3
MX	Mexico	531 082 207	0.3
KR	The Republic of Korea	506 901 434	0.2
HK	Hong Kong	377 952 964	0.2
EG	Egypt	370 259 470	0.2
BR	Brazil	363 292 683	0.2
MH	Marshall Islands	350 892 270	0.2
BS	Bahamas	337 440 585	0.2
KZ	Kazakhstan	325 821 101	0.2
MA	Morocco	309 232 237	0.2
DZ	Algeria	304 450 803	0.1
LU	*Luxembourg*	*255 450 473*	*0.1*
VN	Vietnam	236 008 939	0.1
BA	Bosnia and Herzegovina	221 640 277	0.1
CY	Cyprus	198 765 757	0.1
TH	Thailand	189 041 260	0.1
AG	Antigua And Barbuda	185 515 117	0.1
LR	Liberia	180 998 049	0.1
IS	Iceland	166 955 123	0.1
MD	Moldova	161 453 034	0.1
TW	Taiwan	153 760 718	0.1
MY	Malaysia	152 684 137	0.1
TN	Tunisia	138 427 799	0.1
NZ	New Zealand	137 659 343	0.1
PK	Pakistan	125 457 719	0.1
JO	Jordan	115 652 177	0.1
GE	Georgia	113 599 818	0.1
ID	Indonesia	109 537 680	0.1

Source: Based on the *Insigos* database, Ministry of Economic Development; the EU Member States are shown in italics.

Table 3 shows a favorable trend in increased dynamics of exports of highly processed products in 2016 compared to previous years. The leading commodity groups were chemicals (dynamic ratio: 145%), weapons, ammunition and their parts (128%) and aircraft, space-crafts and their parts (121%). In addition, ten commodity groups recorded a high export growth rate of over 110–114%, and 11 commodity groups achieved positive export growth rates above 100–107%.

Table 3. Ranking of dynamics indexes of exports of manufacturing products [USD] – 2016 dynamics compared to 2015 (in %; analogous period of previous year = 100%) Data for 2016 are preliminary

Code	Name of the commodity group	Export value in 2016. [USD]	Export value in 2015. [USD]	Dynamics of changes 2016/2015 [%]
,000000	Total export of Poland, of which:	203 725 208 690	200 342 823 617	102
,38	*Miscellaneous chemical products*	*2 242 317 526*	*1 548 204 164*	*145*
,93	*Arms and ammunition, parts and accessories thereof*	*146 861 301*	*114 943 400*	*128*
,88	*Aircraft, spacecraft and parts thereof*	*1 077 544 044*	*892 714 665*	*121*
,61	**Articles of apparel and clothing accessories, knitted or crocheted**	**2 231 419 793**	**1 958 357 631**	**114**
,62	**Articles of apparel and clothing accessories, not knitted or crocheted**	**2 955 351 857**	**2 596 124 037**	**114**
,91	**Clocks and watches and parts thereof**	**86 828 337**	**76 475 315**	**114**
,54	**Man-made filaments**	**227 041 501**	**203 480 572**	**112**
,87	**Vehicles other than railway or tramway rolling stock and parts and accessories thereof**	**24 378 409 612**	**21 698 199 725**	**112**
,32	**Tanning or dyeing extracts, tannins and their derivatives, dyes and other coloring matter, paints and varnishes; putty and other mastics; inks**	**955 013 477**	**863 621 386**	**111**
,33	**Essential oils and resinoids; perfumery, cosmetic or toilet preparations**	**3 006 964 903**	**2 708 476 244**	**111**

Code	Name of the commodity group	Export value in 2016. [USD]	Export value in 2015. [USD]	Dynamics of changes 2016/2015 [%]
,56	**Waddings, felt and non-woven, special yarns, twine, cordage, ropes and cables and articles thereof**	**360 937 026**	**326 211 302**	**111**
,92	**Musical instruments; parts and accessories of such articles**	**33 560 151**	**30 121 979**	**111**
,34	**Soap, organic surface-active agents, washing preparations, lubricating preparations, artificial waxes, prepared waxes, polishing or scouring preparations, candles and similar articles, modelling pastes, 'dental waxes' and dental preparations with a basis**	**1 940 268 130**	**1 766 614 740**	**110**
,36	Explosives; pyrotechnic products; matches; pyrophoric alloys; certain combustible preparations	50 981 272	47 662 999	107
,60	Knitted or crocheted fabrics	113 767 290	106 570 005	107
,63	Other made-up textile articles; sets; worn clothing and worn textile articles; rags	1 063 433 924	991 101 533	107
,58	Special woven fabrics; tufted textile fabrics; lace; tapestries; trimmings; embroidery	54 256 326	51 366 635	106
,59	Impregnated, coated, covered or laminated textile fabrics; textile articles of a kind suitable for industrial use	299 947 320	282 328 351	106
,35	Albuminoidal substances; modified starches; glues; enzymes.	221 920 999	212 047 781	105
,90	Optical, photographic, cinematographic, measuring, checking, precision, medical or surgical instruments and apparatus; parts and accessories thereof	3 042 037 942	2 896 516 219	105

Code	Name of the commodity group	Export value in 2016. [USD]	Export value in 2015. [USD]	Dynamics of changes 2016/2015 [%]
,37	Photographic or cinematographic goods	35 662 037	34 391 286	104
,84	Nuclear reactors, boilers, machinery and mechanical appliances; parts thereof	26 425 801 962	25 737 398 345	103
,51	Wool, fine or coarse animal hair; horsehair yarn and woven fabric.	114 329 552	111 972 308	102
,29	Organic chemicals	1 326 368 376	1 311 464 324	101

Source: Calculations based on statistics from *Insigos,* Ministry of Economic Development.

In general, the internal conditions that determine the correct, effective and rapid development of enterprises are the basis which allows Polish enterprises to focus on expansion abroad and gaining new markets for their goods and services. Any deficiency in the internal system creates difficulties and lowers the ability of Polish firms to compete on the international market.

4. Internal Barriers Limiting the SME Sector Export in the Opinion of Representatives of Enterprises and Entrepreneurs

Out of over 1.8 million enterprises in Poland, 99.8 percent are micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises. They not only make up the highest contribution in creation of Polish GDP, but they also employ as much as 70% of the workforce in Poland. At the same time, about 70 percent of all enterprises that do not carry out international activities and do not plan to launch them are SMEs.

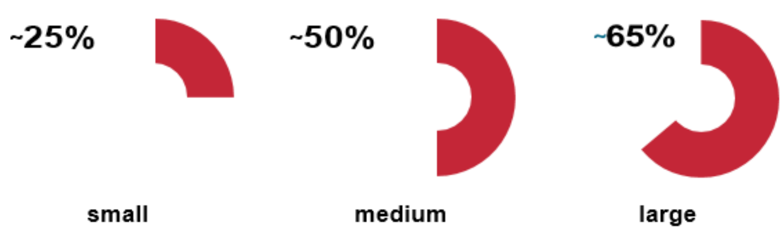

Figure 1. Percentage of Polish enterprises exporting products (by size of enterprise)

Source: Główny Urząd Statystyczny (Central Statistical Office, cited after: *Asy Polskiej Gospodarki*, Instytut Wolności, Warszawa, 2016, p. 23).

Based on the latest report of BZ WBK: „Small and Medium Enterprises in Poland – Barriers and Development" (Małe i średnie firmy w Polsce – bariery i rozwój) one can draw the following conclusions: The share of export sales in enterprises' revenues grows with the size of the enterprise – in small enterprises in 2013 it amounted to 9.6% compared to 21.3% in the case of large enterprises. Despite the gradual increase in export in recent years, the internationalization of Polish enterprises is still much lower than in Western European countries. As a result, the share of Polish SMEs in the EU market is one third lower than the EU average.

Various studies point out the following reasons for limited involvement of Polish SMEs in international expansion:

- ignorance of foreign markets and associated cultural and linguistic barriers as well as the risks associated with international activity and related costs;
- lack of investment in promoting one's own brand in Poland and abroad;
- lack of knowledge about the possibility of obtaining export support, and formal and legal barriers (e.g. difficulties in reclaiming VAT);[7]

Polish entrepreneurs assessing the conditions of conducting business point out numerous barriers which they constantly encounter. Regardless of the size, enterprises also complain about unclear and often changing legislation, excessive bureaucracy, changing tax laws, lack of uniform interpretation, and the limited liability of officials for making improper decisions.[8]

The research carried out by PARP also shows that in 2013–2014 only 7.6% of internationally active companies benefited from public support for their international activity. The most important reasons for this situation were: insufficient information and poor understanding of support possibilities and general distrust of the quality and effectiveness of the available support.[9]

Entrepreneurs also point out that although the current changes in the tax system in Poland and the establishment of the National Tax Administration are moving in the right direction, they should, however, be more focused on the cooperation of tax authorities with business. There is also the problem of the suspension of VAT refunds by tax authorities. This is particularly dangerous in the case of small enterprises, as it can *de facto* deprive them of resources even for their current operations.[10]

The small and medium-sized enterprises' sector questioned by Maison & Partners about the five biggest barriers to doing business pointed in the first instance

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[7] Run by i. a. the Polish Agency for Enterprise Development (PARP) – the results are presented in PARP reports – cf.: Instrumenty wspierania eksportu dla MSP, within the Enterprise Europe Network, PARP, 2015. www.parp.gov.pl

[8] Based on: Asy Polskiej Gospodarki, Instytut Wolności, Warszawa, 2016, p. 20.

[9] Instrumenty wspierania eksportu dla MSP, w ramach Enterprise Europe Network, PARP, www.parp.gov.pl

[10] Cited after the report: *Niebezpieczny Status QUO. Dlaczego małe firmy nie rosną*? Warsaw Enterprise Institute (WEI), chapter 2. Otoczenie prawne, bariery administracyjne, pp. 13–14.

the burden of excessive non-wage labor costs (which discourage hiring new employees; almost one third of gross salaries are contributions and taxes) and the instability of the law, followed by high taxes. Excessive bureaucracy and complex economic law are also particularly discouraging.[11]

5. Global and European Regulations in International Trade

5.1. WTO Regulations After 2010

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is the guarantor of the international trading system. It sets legally binding rules which govern world trade. Established in 1995, the WTO is based on the principles developed by the GATT 47. The most important of them are:

- General Most-Favoured-Nation Treatment principle (except for Free Trade Area Agreements and Customs Unions established in accordance with Art. XXIV);
- prohibition of raising tariffs above the bound rate level (the WTO bound rate is therefore the maximum rate).

The multilateral WTO trade negotiations (*Doha Development Agenda – DDA*) have been suspended since 2010. A failure to reach a compromise in ongoing DDA negotiations has prompted countries to seek solutions in selected areas and enter into specific and sectoral agreements. This tactic led to an agreement at the Bali Ministerial Conference in December 2013 (adoption of the *Trade Facilitation Agreement*)[12] and the revised *Agreement on Government Procurement* – GPA II[13] in Nairobi in December 2015, ITA (*Information Technology Agreement*)[14] and the Agreement on Competition in Export of Agricultural Products.[15] Currently, talks are underway in Geneva aimed at defining a future package of arrangements that could be adopted at the WTO Ministerial Conference in December 2017. The main elements of the future package may be decisions limiting fisheries' subsidies and domestic support that distorts agricultural trade.[16]

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[11] Bariery prowadzenia działalności gospodarczej w Polsce. Badanie przeprowadzone przez Maison & Partners na zlecenie ZPP, Lipiec 2017, cited after the report: *Niebezpieczny Status QUO. Dlaczego małe firmy nie rosną*? (WEI), *op. cit.*, p. 14.

[12] https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/tradfa_e/tradfa_e.htm

[13] https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/gproc_e/gp_gpa_e.htm

[14] https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/inftec_e/inftec_e.htm

[15] https://www.southcentre.int/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/AN_MC10_1_Export-competition.pdf

[16] https://www.slideshare.net/FAOoftheUN/wto-agreement-on-agriculture–76936799; cf. also: http://www.fao.org/3/a-i7310e.pdf (Trade Policy- Technical Notes, WTO Negotiations, No. 16, 2017).

The Public Procurement Agreement – GPA II[17] is a plurilateral agreement concluded by 47 countries, including EU member state countries. It liberalizes access to the public procurement market in GPA II-member countries. The revised agreement entered into force in 2014.

The Trade Facilitation Agreement – TFA entered into force on February 22nd, 2017. It contains provisions accelerating and facilitating cross-border trade (including transit) by introducing simplified customs procedures.

The Agreement on Export Competition in Agriculture was concluded in December 2015. Under this agreement, developed countries had to eliminate all export subsidies provided in their current schedules of concessions, and developing countries had to eliminate their export subsidies by 2018, with the exception of those notified in the past three years (these subsidies are supposed to be eliminated by 2022).[18]

The Information Technology Agreement – ITA was concluded in December 2015 by 53 member countries of ITA II. The agreement extends the scope of the original WTO ITA agreement. Inclusion of goods in the revised list results in a 0% tariff on turnover between signatories. The agreement covers 201 products, and the estimated profit resulting from the tariff reduction is $1.3 trillion and covers about 10% of all commodity turnover.

At the same time, plurilateral negotiations on agreements on trade in services and on trade in environmental goods are underway in Geneva.

The Agreement on Trade in Services – TiSA has been negotiated since 2013 and will cover around 70% of world trade in services and markets in: Australia, Canada, Chile, Taiwan, Colombia, Costa Rica, EU countries, Hong Kong – China, Iceland, Israel, Japan, Korea, Liechtenstein, Mauritius, Mexico, New Zealand, Norway, Pakistan, Panama, Peru, Switzerland, Turkey and the United States. Works on the TiSA Agreement are in their final stage. This agreement is being negotiated by those members of the World Trade Organization which are most interested in further liberalization of world trade in services.[19]

Due to the absence of any US involvement in the TiSA negotiations, no negotiation rounds were held in the first half of 2017 and at this stage the current TiSA achievements, that is the negotiated text of the Agreement and all the sectoral supplements to TiSA that received the most support, have been collected. Without US involvement it is not possible to conclude negotiations on the TiSA Agreement. It is not known when the talks will be continued.

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[17] https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/envir_e/ega_e.htm

[18] https://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/agric_e/negoti_e.htm; cf. also: http://www.fao.org/policy-support/resources/resources-details/en/c/902452/

[19] http://www.international.gc.ca/trade-agreements-accords-commerciaux/topics-domaines/services/tisa-acs.aspx? lang=eng

The Environmental Goods Agreement – EGA

Negotiations on the Environmental Goods Agreement (EGA) started on July 8th, 2014. The parties negotiating the Agreement are comprised of 18 members of the WTO, including the USA, EU, China, Canada and Japan. The purpose of this initiative is to facilitate international trade in goods and technologies that contribute to protection of the environment. In the course of negotiations, the parties seek to lift or reduce tariffs on goods that will be identified as being of key importance to the environment and serving the purpose of, e. g., water and air purification, pollution measurement, renewable energy generation. However, as a result of the negative attitude of the US administration, the talks are currently not being continued and it is not known whether and when the they will be resumed.

The environmental technology and environmental goods and services market belongs to the potentially most promising markets in the modern world economy, and in particular in the European Union.[20] This sector also allows for creating jobs in the „green" sector and makes it possible to maintain GDP growth. It is also characterized by a high pace of development, especially in the transition countries and in developing countries in which, although they still have a relatively small share in this rapidly developing market, the changes observed in these countries in recent years allow for ranking them among its potentially growing participants.

A modern economic model based on constant growth can lead to the depletion of resources available at an acceptable price and to the destruction of the biological

[20] The environmental industry (i. e. the industry performing actions related to environmental protection) has shown an average growth rate of more than 10% over the last 10–15 years. The growth rate in the developed countries has been, however, significantly lower and amounted to only approx. 1.6–2.0%. At the same time, the annual growth rate in developing countries equaled about 7%. According to analysts' previous expectations, the environmental industry and environmental services industry grew to over USD 600 billion until 2012. It is still foreseen that this increase will be characteristic, especially for developing countries and countries undergoing systemic transformation, and that its growth rate in these countries will amount to approx. 8–12%. Compared to other markets, it can be said that although the environmental goods and services market is not as large as the steel agricultural markets, its size is comparable to that of the pharmaceutical and information technology markets. The environmental goods market comprises three main segments: equipment (technical equipment), environmental services, and natural resources. Technical equipment includes, of course, the most advanced technologies, while environmental services include simpler but much more common technologies. The predicted increase of over 15% in sales of environmental services over the last decade means an additional USD 42 billion increase in demand in the world market, generating employment for about 1–2 million people. The largest producers of environmental services are the highly developed countries (USA – about 38% of the world market, Japan – approx. 18%). The position of Germany, Great Britain, France and Italy is also important, but significantly lower. The share of Eastern Europe (including the European part of the CIS) is only about 2%, with Poland accounting for 0.3%–0.4%. Based on: Wysokińska Z., Witkowska J., *Sustainable Development ...*, *op. cit.*, p. 75 and chapter 12. see also: Wysokińska., *Millennium Development Goals / UN Goals and Sustainable Development/ UN as Instruments for Realizing Sustainable Development Concept in the Global Economy*, 'Comparative Economic Research. Central and Eastern Europe' Vol. 20 (2017), No. 1, pp. 101–118.

basis of life, to the extent that humanity will be forced to fight for drinking water or food, and be subject to unpredictable, violent climate change. Many communities, businesses and local governments have begun to take actions to reduce the impact of such a model on health and life on the earth.

So now is the time to look for ways to create products and services that are designed to last as long as possible. It is also important to introduce multiple transformation and recycling of raw materials, excluding toxic materials and technological processes that generate harmful emissions.

A circular or closed-loop economy is an economy in which production and consumption are organized in such a way that the value of products, components, materials and resources is maintained throughout the value chain and product lifecycle. It maximizes resource efficiency and minimizes the extraction of resources and waste.

Poland, as a member of the EU, should actively contribute to the construction of a circular economy model by investing in pro-environmental and low-emission technologies, innovative solutions for water, air and soil treatment and allowing both waste reduction and/or reuse of used materials or their recycling, all of which will contribute to the protection of valuable natural resources and the environment in Poland and will contribute to the dissemination of knowledge in many developing countries, which at the same time need such products and technologies.

The successful implementation of the current Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), adopted by the UN in 2015 and implemented since 2016, depends primarily on the proper (planned) funding. These projects are more likely to succeed than projects realized in previous years, as the current wealth of the richest countries is much higher than thirty years ago. The implementation of the previous Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which were in force until 2015, was financed mainly by the Official Development Assistance (ODA) funds, which were relatively small compared to the actual needs of the world in the field of poverty reduction and solving other pressing problems of the MDGs. The hope for better results of the implementation of the SDGs (as compared to the MDGs) is based on the fact that it involves the inclusion of the business sector and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the implementation of aid programs and public-private partnerships.

The development agenda is more universal and the responsibility for its implementation rests with the international community as a whole: developed countries, developing countries, and international organizations that associate with them. The private sector and non-governmental organizations will also play an important role in implementing the 2030 agenda.

It would be reasonable if Poland decided to increase its Official Development Assistance (ODA) to the required level of at least 0.17% of GNP in the coming years, which would help to make better use of this instrument in pursuit of Poland's foreign policy objectives. Such a decision, though involving additional financial resources (even up to ca. PLN 1.5 billion), would give greater possibilities to influence the overcoming of crises and to stimulate the development of countries in the EU neighborhood. At the same time, increased resources would facilitate, *inter alia*, the more active inclusion of firms in aid activities and in the so-called Tied Aid, including, e.g., launching a large scholarship and training program for people from developing countries or support for the export of green technology thanks to the synergy of development and climate policies. Improved use of these instruments would, however, require more effective inter-ministerial coordination and an improved coherence of external policies in order to adjust ODA to Poland's strategic objectives.

5.2. Cooperation with the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in Relation to Export Activities – OECD Consensus

Poland, as an OECD member state since 1996, is obliged to respect the rules of this organization, including in relation to foreign trade. The basis for this cooperation is the so-called OECD Consensus, specifying the parameters of export credits for importers which can benefit from official support.

The Ministry of Finance is responsible for establishing and developing an official export support financing system based on export credits. Tasks related to this subject are performed by the Guarantee Department.

In Poland, the National Economy Bank (Bank Gospodarstwa Krajowego – BGK) grants credits for foreign contractors (directly or via the contractor's bank) aimed at financing export contracts for the purchase of Polish goods and services. Credits are paid out directly to domestic exporters, and foreign contractors repay the loans after the delivery of goods/services. Export credit insurance is provided by the Export Credit Insurance Corporation (Korporacja Ubezpieczeń Kredytów Eksportowych – KUKE S.A.).[21]

Official support for export credits is based on the principles contained in the OECD document entitled „*The Arrangement on Officially Supported Export Credits* (*OECD Consensus*). This Consensus was incorporated into Community law by decision of the Council of the European Union of April 4th, 1978. The main objective of the Consensus is to create a framework for orderly, non-distorting export credit financing, so that exporters compete via the price and quality of products rather than the financing conditions offered to importers. Official support relates not only to export financing as narrowly understood but also, especially in practice, to providing insurance, guarantees and aid financing.

[21] https://www.bgk.pl/przedsiebiorstwa/wsparcie-eksportu/program-rzadowy-finansowe-wspie ranie-eksportu/

The OECD Consensus defines export credit parameters for importers eligible to receive official support. These include: minimum cash payment, maximum repayment period, minimum interest rates, and in particular:

- The obligation for the foreign buyer to make a cash payment of at least 15% of the value of the contract;
- The export loan repayment period must be at least 2 years, but may not be longer than 8.5 years (in case of exports to rich countries belonging to the so-called Category I – depending on Gross National Income) or 10 years (in case of exports to the poorer countries of the so-called Category II)
- OECD Consensus offers special treatment for officially supported export credits for, inter alia, marine ships, nuclear power plants, airplanes, and renewable energy projects. Separate rules are also applied to credits granted within tied aid.

5.3. Common Trade Policy Rules Applicable to Poland as a Member of the EU

Poland, as a member state of the EU operates, in both EU and non-EU trade, within the framework of the rules and principles of the Common Commercial Policy of the EU and the requirements of the Single European Market.

The Common Commercial Policy (CCP) is based on the principle of tarifffree and quota-free access of goods from Member States to the Single European Market and participation in the Customs Union, the main instrument of which is the Common Customs Tariff and its extended version, the *Integrated Tariff of the European Communities – TARIC*, which has been used in trade with third countries since July 1st, 1968.

The Common Commercial Policy of the European Community is realized on two complementary levels:

- transnational, resulting from membership in the World Trade Organization (WTO);
- bilateral and regional, which means concluding contracts with individual countries or groups of countries forming blocks in different regions of the world.

The EC export support scheme is based on the harmonization of the use of direct export support instruments, which include:

- export credit insurance,
- credit guarantees.[22]

During the nearly 40 years of operation of the European Communities, the uniform rules of the Common Commercial Policy have been mainly related to trade

[22] The basis of the EU system in this area is Council Directive 98/29 / EC of 07.05.1998 on the harmonization of the main provisions on export credit insurance for medium and long-term transactions and Council Decisions on detailed issues of the functioning of the system.

in goods. Since the entry into force of the agreements (i. e. January 1st, 1995) which established the World Trade Organization (WTO), the scope of the CCP has been broadened to include areas of international trade such as trade in services, Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS), and the Trade-Related Investment Measures (TRIMS).[23]

Recently, the scope of the CCP has been broadened, as reflected in its new definition: *"The common commercial policy shall be based on uniform principles, particularly with regard to changes in tariff rates, the conclusion of tariff and trade agreements relating to trade in goods and services, and the commercial aspects of intellectual property, foreign direct investment, the achievement of uniformity in measures of liberalization, export policy and measures to protect trade such as those to be taken in the event of dumping or subsidies"* (Art. 207 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union – TFEU).[24]

Coordination of export policies takes place within the framework of the CCP, but it should be emphasized that the EU does not have a system of full harmonization of export support rules. The existing export support rules partly result from the GATT/WTO rules, including a ban on subsidizing export, with the exception of agriculture (i.e. the export of agricultural goods such as basic raw materials and certain processed products); and partly from the rules established on the OECD forum. The latter mainly regulate issues such as the promotion of export credits by governments (e.g. in the form of subsidizing interest rates on export credits, government guarantees) and export credit insurance.[25]

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[23] More on the regulations and rules governing the TRIMS agreement in: Wysokińska Z., Witkowska J., *Integracja Europejska. Rozwój Rynków*, PWN, Warszawa–Łódź, 2002, pp. 374–375.

[24] More on the new principles of CCP of the EU in: Barcz J, Kawecka-Wyrzykowska E., Michałowska-Gorywoda K., *Integracja Europejska w okresie przemian*, PWE, Warszawa, 2016, chapter 8.

[25] The official support for export credits is based on the principles set out in the OECD document entitled "Arrangement on Officially Supported Export Credits (OECD Consensus). Consensus was incorporated into Community law by decision of the Council of the European Union of April 4th, 1978. The main objective of the Consensus is to create a framework for orderly, non-distorting export credit financing, so that exporters compete with the price and quality of the products rather than offering a level playing field. Official support relates not only to narrowly understood export financing, but also, in practice, first of all to insurance guarantees and, in addition, aid financing.

The OECD Consensus sets out the most favorable parameters for export credits for importers who may receive official support. These include: minimum cash payment, maximum repayment period and minimum interest rates, and in particular:

• The necessity for the foreign buyer to make a cash payment of at least 15% of the value of the contract

• The export loan repayment period must be at least 2 years but may not be longer than 8.5 years (in case of export to rich countries belonging to the so-Category I – depending on Gross National Income) or 10 years (in case of export to the poorer countries of the so-called. Category II)

• The OECD Consensus in particular treats officially supported export credits, among others. marine ships, nuclear power plants, airplanes, renewable energy projects. Separate rules apply also to tied aid.

The EU also applies, in accordance with the Regulation functioning since 1995, the rules allowing to counteract trade barriers used by trade partners that hinder exports of EU companies when these barriers are in breach of their international obligations (WTO, bilateral and other international agreements). This agreement applies not only to the export of goods but also of services (especially cross-border ones). It allows the EU and its Member States to apply for safeguarding measures to restrict import from those countries if these barriers cause 'harm or the threat of harm' to EU industry in the EU market or in third countries' markets.[26]

Despite the lifting of many barriers to trade between EU Member States, new requirements have emerged over the last few years which limit the freedom of providing services and freedom of trade in goods, such as:

- the obligation to know the language of the host country – the so-called Moliere clause obliging construction workers to know the French language;
- the requirement of compulsory accession to collective agreements with trade unions of the sectors concerned, despite the lack of transparent negotiation procedures;
- additional requirements regarding authorization, registration, and prior notification of companies providing cross-border services (in particular in case of such sectors as transport, construction and cosmetic services);
- excessive quality control, and media campaigns discrediting products from other member states;
- the mandatory provision of additional information, e.g. logo on product packaging, etc.[27]

6. Conclusions

The preliminary assessment of the implementation of the Strategy's objectives makes it possible to offer the following conclusions:

- In the latest ranking of the competitive position in the global market for the period 2016–2017 Poland attained the 36th position in the world. It should also be stressed that in this most recent world ranking Poland was ranked 16th among EU Member States;
- A positive phenomenon in relation to Poland's foreign trade in 2016, as compared to previous years, was that the value of export exceeded import, which

[26] Based on: Barcz J Kawecka-Wyrzykowska E., Michałowska-Gorywoda K., *Integracja Europejska w okresie przemian,* PWE, Warszawa, 2016, chapter 8, cf. also: Wysokińska Z., Witkowska J., *Integracja Europejska. Dostosowania w Polsce w dziedzinie polityk*, PWE, Warszawa, 2004, chapter 7.

[27] Based on opinions of entrepreneurs-exporters.

allowed for a turnover surplus of nearly EUR 4.8 billion, i.e. two times higher than in 2015;

- In 2016 (and also in the first half of 2017) there was a favorable diversification of Polish export, demonstrating an increase of exports to non-EU markets of economically developed countries. After two years of relatively slow growth, export to this group of countries in 2016 increased by 5.6% (to EUR 12 billion), i.e. nearly 2.5 times faster than Poland's total export;
- Compared to previous years, there was a positive trend in the dynamics of export of more-processed products in 2016 (and the first half of 2017). Weapons, ammunition and their parts (growth rate: 128%) and aircrafts, space-crafts and their parts (growth rate: 121%) are the leading product groups in this category. In addition, ten commodity groups recorded high export growth rates of over 110–114%, and 11 commodity groups achieved positive export growth rates above 100–107%;
- Despite the tariff-free and quota-free access to the single European market, there are still limits and barriers to the free movement of goods and especially services;
- There are also many internal barriers to small and medium-sized enterprises' export to foreign markets, which limit their export expansion. Despite the gradual increase in export observed in recent years, the internationalization of non-Polish enterprises is still much lower than in Western European countries. As a result, the share of Polish SMEs in the EU market is one third smaller than the EU average;
- The environmental technology and environmental goods and services market belongs to potentially the most promising markets in the modern world economy, and in particular in the European Union;
- It would be reasonable if Poland decided to increase its Official Development Assistance (ODA) to the required level of at least 0.17% of GNP in the upcoming years, which would help to make better use of this instrument in pursuit of Poland's foreign policy objectives. Such a decision, though involving additional financial resources (even up to ca. PLN 1.5 billion), would give greater possibilities to influence the overcoming of crises and to stimulate the development of countries in the EU neighborhood. At the same time increased resources would facilitate, inter alia, a more active inclusion of firms in aid activities and in the so-called Tied Aid, including, e.g., launching a large scholarship and training program for people from developing countries or support for export of green technology thanks to the synergy of development and climate policies. Improved use of these instruments would, however, require more effective inter-ministerial coordination and improved coherence of external policies in order to adjust ODA to Polish strategic objectives.

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Streszczenie

EFEKTY REALIZACJI POLITYKI PROEKSPORTOWEJ POLSKI W KONTEKŚCIE PLANU ODPOWIEDZIALNEGO ROZWOJU – WSTĘPNA OCENA PORÓWNAWCZA

Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie wyników wstępnej oceny realizacji polityki ekspansji eksportowej Polski w odniesieniu do eksportu towarowego, wynikającej z rządowego Planu Odpowiedzialnego Rozwoju, w kontekście istniejących barier i uwarunkowań zewnętrznych i wewnętrznych zgłaszanych przez sektor małych i średnich przedsiębiorstw (MSP). W ostatnim rankingu dotyczącym okresu 2016–2017 Polska osiągnęła 36 pozycję w świecie. Należy też podkreślić, że w tym ostatnim światowym rankingu Polska znalazła się jednocześnie na 16 pozycji wśród państw członkowskich UE. Pozytywnym zjawiskiem w odniesieniu do obrotów Polski z zagranicą w roku 2016 w stosunku do lat poprzednich było to, że wartość eksportu przewyższała import, co pozwoliło wygenerować nadwyżkę obrotów w wysokości blisko 4,8 mld EUR, tzn. 2-krotnie wyższą niż w 2015 r.

W roku 2016 i (również w pierwszym półroczu 2017 r.) miała miejsce korzystna dywersyfikacja polskiego eksportu w kierunku wzrostu eksportu na poza-unijne rynki krajów rozwiniętych gospodarczo. Po dwóch latach relatywnie wolnego wzrostu, w roku 2016 eksport do tej grupy państw zwiększył się o 5,6% (do 12 mld EUR), tj. blisko 2,5-krotnie szybciej niż w skali ogólnej. W roku 2016 (i pierwszym półroczu 2017) r. odnotowano pozytywną tendencję rosnącej w stosunku do lat ubiegłych dynamiki eksportu wyrobów o wyższym stopniu przetworzenia.

Jednak w eksporcie z Polski do UE pomimo bezcłowego i bezkontyngentowego dostępu do jednolitego rynku europejskiego istnieją wciąż ograniczenia i bariery ograniczające swobodny przepływ towarów, a zwłaszcza usług. Również w eksporcie małych i średnich przedsiębiorstw na rynki zagraniczne istnieje również wiele barier wewnętrznych w Polsce ograniczających ich ekspansję eksportową. Mimo stopniowego wzrostu eksportu w ostatnich latach, umiędzynarodowienie polskich przedsiębiorstw wciąż pozostaje dużo mniejsze niż w krajach Europy Zachodniej. W rezultacie udział polskich MŚP w unijnym rynku jest o jedną trzecią mniejszy niż przeciętnie w UE.

***Słowa kluczowe**: polityka eksportowa, Plan Odpowiedzialnego Rozwoju, bariery wewnętrzne i zewnętrzne, sektor MSP*