Olefir, Volodymyr

Article

Experience of the formation of free trade areas with China

Reference: Olefir, Volodymyr (2019). Experience of the formation of free trade areas with China. In: Economy and forecasting (4), S. 129 - 148. http://econ-forecast.org.ua/?page_id=189&lang=uk&year=2019&issueno=4&begin_page=129&mode=get_art&flang=en. doi:10.15407/econforecast2019.04.129.

https://doi.org/10.15407/econforecast2019.04.129
JEL F13, F14

Volodymyr OLEFIR [1]

EXPERIENCE OF THE FORMATION OF FREE TRADE AREAS WITH CHINA

The experience of the formation of free trade areas (FTA) of China with the countries of Asia, Oceania, Europe and South America is investigated. The dynamics of bilateral trade, as well as changes in the product structure after the entry into force of the FTA agreement, is analyzed. Summarized the positive effects and negative consequences of the functioning of the FTA with China for the countries of Asia, Oceania, Europe and South America. A forecast is made of possible positive effects and negative consequences for the domestic economy from the liberalization of trade relations with China.

In particular, as of August 2019, China had existing bilateral FTA agreements with 20 countries, and the preparatory process continued with at least 20 countries. The purpose of the article was to analyze the effectiveness of the functioning of the FTA with China for its trading partners, in particular, Chile, Peru, Malaysia, Philippines, Vietnam, Myanmar, Pakistan, New Zealand, Australia, Switzerland, Iceland. For the study, data were used for 1999-2017.

Since during 1999-2017 China's economy developed rapidly, all countries that were investigated increased their exports to China. Six out of eleven countries after the entry into force of the free trade agreements increased their exports to China more than in the same period before the agreement. China, after the entry into force of free trade agreements, increased exports to 8 of its 11 foreign trade partners.

After the conclusion of the FTA Agreement, the export structure of bilateral trade has become more diversified for both China and its foreign trade partners. This is evidenced by the dynamics of such indicators as a share in the export of 6 major product groups; the number of product groups, export volumes of which were zero, but became not zero; the number of product groups, export volumes of which exceeded $ 1 million, that is, they became significant.

According to the criterion of trade balance, China after liberalization received more benefits than its trading partners. In particular, the balance of bilateral trade with the PRC was improved by 4 countries, while for 7 countries, after the entry into force of the FTA agreement, it worsened.

In November 2018, an agreement was reached between the Ukrainian and Chinese parties on joint consultations regarding the prerequisites for the establishment of an FTA. In the Export Strategy of Ukraine for 2017-2021 is noted that "... the initiation of new free trade agreements should be based solely on the basis of studies of economic feasibility ...".

[1] **Olefir**, **Volodymyr Kostiantynovych** – PhD in Economics, Senior Researcher, State Institution "Institute for Economics and Forecasting, NAS of Ukraine" (26, Panasa Myrnoho St., Kyiv, 01011, Ukraine), e-mail: oksavol@ukr.net

Keyword: *People's Republic of China, free trade agreement, liberalization efficiency, export promotion, import's dependence*

Increased exports, including through the liberalization of foreign trade relations, are a significant factor in accelerating economic growth. At the same time, the Export Strategy of Ukraine for 2017–2021 states that "… the initiation of new free trade agreements should be based exclusively on the conducted economic feasibility studies…" The current procedure for the conclusion of bilateral free trade agreements (FTA) also provides for a feasibility report on the possibility and practicality of concluding a relevant agreement, which should be profitable and useful for both parties.

Today, the People's Republic of China is one of the active supporters of the liberalization of foreign trade through the conclusion of bilateral FTAs. As of August 2019, China had existing bilateral FTAs with 20 countries and a preparatory process was underway with at least 20 countries [1]. Based on the experience of these countries, it is possible to predict with some degree of probability the dynamics of trade relations between Ukraine and China after the conclusion of Free Trade Agreement between the two countries and outline possible positive effects and negative consequences. The **aim of the article** is to analyze the efficiency of the FTAs between China for its trading partners.

Quite a few **scientific publications** have been devoted to assessing the effectiveness of the liberalization of foreign trade relations [2–8], but in the context of the FTA agreement with China, this issue still remains unresolved.

To analyze the efficiency of the existing FTAs with China, we have selected the following countries: Australia, Vietnam, Iceland, Malaysia, Myanmar, New Zealand, Pakistan, Peru, the Philippines, Chile, and Switzerland. Some of these economies are nearly similar to Ukraine in terms of the level and dynamics of economic development. Others have an export structure more or less similar to the Ukrainian one.

China signed its first bilateral FTA in Latin America with Chile. The agreement was signed in November 2005 with the participation of the Presidents of Chile and China, and in October 2006, it entered into force. It provided for zero tariffs on 97% of mutual trade goods for 10 years. As of January 1, 2015, China had fully fulfilled its obligations to reduce tariffs, and in May 2015, the parties agreed to consider concluding a new FTA agreement.

The basis of Chile's economy and its exports consists of the products of mining and metallurgical industries. In 2017, the share of copper ores and concentrates in exports was 24%, and that of refined copper and crude copper alloys – 21% [9]. In addition, fish fillets and other fish meat products were exported (4%); as well as wood pulp (4%), unrefined copper (3%), grape wines (3%), fresh grapes (2%), frozen fish (2%). In addition to the mining and metallurgical industries, the woodworking, food processing, and textile industries are also developed. The main items of import in 2017 were: cars (7%); petroleum and its products, except crude oil (6%); crude oil and petroleum products (4%); transmission equipment for radio and television (4%); trucks (4%); petroleum gases (2%), etc.

Chile is an active supporter of free trade. The Republic has current and signed FTA agreements with many Latin American countries (El Salvador, Costa Rica, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Colombia, and Honduras), as well as with the United States, the EU, China, Japan, the European Free Trade Association, South Korea, India, Thailand, Canada, Australia and other countries. In addition, Chile is part of several

trading blocs. In 2017 the main trading partners of Chile in terms of exports were: China (27%), the USA (15%), Japan (9%), South Korea (6%), Brazil (5%), and in terms of imports – China (25%), the USA (18%), Brazil (9%), Argentina (4%), and Germany (4%).

As can be seen from Table 1, trade in goods between China and Chile grew dynamically during 1999–2017. Although during 1999–2006 (before the FTA entered into force) trade turnover increased sevenfold, and during 2006–2013 (for the same period after entry into force) only four times, in absolute terms the growth of trade turnover was noticeable: in 1999–2006 – an increase of 7,6 billion dollars; in 2006–2013 – 25,0 billion dollars. It is interesting to note that in the second half of the transition period, trade volumes almost stabilized. During 2006–2011 the turnover increased 3,5 times ($ 22.5 billion), then during 2012–2017 – only by 10% ($ 2,4 billion).

A characteristic feature of trade between China and Chile is a chronic negative balance for China. However, it should be noted that in the second half of the transition period, its absolute size almost stabilized, and its relative size decreased. In 2006, the share of the negative balance in turnover was 30%, in 2017, it decreased to 19%.

Table 1

The dynamics of trade between China and Chile, *million dollars USA*

Indicator	**1999**		**2001**	**2003**	**2005**	**2007**	**2009**	**2011**	**2013**	**2015**	**2017**
Export	605		815	1283	2149	4432	4928	10817	13105	13290	14410
Import	664		1303	2248	4992	10280	12790	20578	20708	18439	21176
Turnover	1269		2118	3531	7141	14719	17718	31395	33813	31729	35586
Net balance	-59		-488	-965	-2843	-5848	-7862	-9761	-7603	-5149	-6766

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

No significant structural changes in exports of goods from China to Chile took place during the formation of the FTA (Table 2). The five main commodity groups in exports remained unchanged, and exports themselves became more diversified. There was a certain increase in the share of exports of ferrous metals, cars, furniture and some other goods. The share of science-intensive commodity group "Electric Machines" also increased.

Imports of goods from Chile to China underwent changes that are more significant. Although three main import commodity groups did not change, in the ranking of major imported commodities, the commodity groups “23 – waste” and “29 – organic chemistry” gave way to the commodity groups “8 – fruit, nuts” and “44 – timber”. In general, the share of imports of six main product groups decreased by 2%, while imports became more diversified.

In November 2016, negotiations between China and Chile officially began on a new FTA agreement. A year later, in November 2017, after three rounds of negotiations, it was signed, and in March 2019, the agreement entered into force. The renewed agreement with Chile, which provides for a greater degree of liberalization, is the second for China after a similar agreement with ASEAN.

Under the renewed agreement, China abolished tariffs on wood products for three years, and Chile, immediately after the agreement came into force, abolished tariffs on textiles, clothing, household appliances, and sugar products. Subsequently, the

share of product groups with zero tariffs will reach 98%. As a result, the FTA from Chile will be the most open of all existing agreements for China. In addition, China will open even more 20 service sectors, including trade services. On its side, Chile will open 40 service sectors, including transport services and construction. The updated agreement revised and supplemented such aspects of bilateral relations as the rules of origin, technical cooperation, etc. [11].

Table 2

Structural changes in trade between China and Chile

Commodity group	2006		Commodity group	2017	
	million dollars	*%*		*million dollars*	*%*
Export to Chile					
85 – electric machines	399	12,8	85 – electric machines	2116	14,7
62 – textile clothing	364	11,7	62 – textile clothing	1358	9,4
61 – knitted garments	343	11,0	84 – machines, equipment	1356	9,4
84 – machines, equipment	330	10,6	61 – knitted garments	1312	9,1
64 – shoes	221	7,1	64 – shoes	789	5,5
73 – ferrous metal products	122	3,9	87 – vehicles	761	5,3
Other goods	1330	42,8	Other goods	6718	46,6
Total	**3109**	**100**	**Total**	**14410**	**100**
Imports from Chile					
26 – ore	2544	44,4	74 – copper	8427	39,8
74 – copper	2262	39,4	26 – ore	8367	39,5
47 – wood pulp	358	6,2	47 – wood pulp	1418	6,7
23 – waste	172	3,0	8 – fruit, nuts	1029	4,9
29 – organic chemistry	112	2,0	44 – timber	403	1,9
28 – inorganic chemistry	93	1,6	28 – inorganic chemistry	350	1,7
Other goods	195	3,4	Other goods	1182	5,6
Total	**5736**	**100**	**Total**	**21176**	**100**

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

The idea of an FTA agreement between China and Peru was put forward by the Peruvian side in 2006 with the aim of removing obstacles to mutual trade and investment activities. An important prerequisite for this was the presence in Peru of a large Chinese diaspora, one of the largest in Latin America. A feasibility study for the future agreement was carried out, and negotiations began in November 2007. During the negotiations, representatives of the Peruvian light industry demanded the maintenance of tariffs on light industry goods or a long transition period. As a result of negotiations, 10% of Peruvian goods (clothing, footwear, textiles) were withdrawn from the agreement, as well as 1% of Chinese goods (timber, tobacco). The Agreement on the FTA between the People's Republic of China with Peru entered into force in March 2010.

Peru is an agro-industrial country with significant dependence on export activities. The main industries are mining, metallurgy, oil refining, food and textiles. Peru exports copper, gold, lead, zinc and other metals, petroleum products, natural gas, coffee, vegetables, fruit and fish products. The main imports are: oil and petroleum products, chemicals, plastics, machinery, vehicles, consumer electronics. The main trading partners for exports in 2017 were: China (26%), the USA (15%), Switzerland

(6%), South Korea (5%), Spain (4%), for imports – China (23%), the USA (20%), Brazil (6%), and Mexico (4%) [12].

The Peruvian government has concluded fewer free trade agreements than Chile's government. However, they cover almost all major players in the world market: China, the USA, EU, Japan, Canada, Mexico, and European Free Trade Association. In addition, Peru has current FTAs with Singapore and Thailand.

The dynamics of trade relations between China and Peru has much in common with the dynamics of trade between China and Chile (Table 3). In particular, during 2003–2010, trade turnover between the two countries increased 9 times ($ 8,8 billion), while during 2010–2017, it doubled ($ 10,4 billion). The growth rate of Peruvian exports to China during the FTA was higher than the exports of Chinese goods to Peru. This can be partly explained by the pace of development of the Chinese economy, which is higher than that of the Peruvian economy. Chinese industry increasingly needed Peruvian raw materials, while demand for Chinese investment and consumer goods was relatively low.

Table 3

The dynamics of trade between China and Peru, *million dollars*

Indicator	**1999**	**2001**	**2003**	**2005**	**2007**	**2009**	**2011**	**2013**	**2015**	**2017**
Export	131	176	354	609	1683	2099	4653	6119	6355	6959
Import	310	498	760	2278	4338	4324	7864	8408	7950	13367
Turnover	441	674	1114	2887	6021	6423	12517	14527	14305	20326
Net balance	-179	-322	-406	-1669	-2655	-2225	-3211	-2289	-1597	-6408

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

As well as with Chile, China had a chronic negative balance in goods trade with Peru between 1999 and 2017. At the same time, the negative balance during the formation of the FTA increased both absolutely and relatively. At the beginning of the FTA, the balance was 28% of turnover, and in 2017, it increased to 32%.

By its structure, China's trade structure with Peru is in many ways similar to trade between China and Chile (Table 4). Exports to Peru are rather diversified having a large share of finished goods, while imports of Peruvian goods to China are reduced to almost one product group, which is "26 – ores". During the formation of the FTA, the structure of exports to Peru improved, and the structure of imports to China, on the contrary became more raw materials based. The share of raw ore and fruit increased, while the share of copper decreased.

Despite its global ambitions, China has always paid special attention to the development of trade relations with the countries of East Asia and Oceania. This was facilitated by both geographical proximity and centuries of close historical, cultural and industrial ties. This region was seen by the Chinese leadership to some extent as a "bridgehead" for further global expansion. Therefore, it is not surprising that China began negotiations on its first bilateral FTA agreement (in the early 2000s) with the countries of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN).

In November 2002, China and ASEAN signed a framework agreement on the establishment of the FTA. Under this agreement, by 2010, six ASEAN countries (Philippines, Malaysia, Indonesia, Singapore, Thailand, and Brunei) undertook to abolish customs duties on 90% of goods. For Vietnam, Laos, Myanmar and Cambodia, this commitment was postponed until 2015.

Table 4

Structural changes in trade between China and Peru

Commodity group	2010		Commodity group	2017	
	million dollars	*%*		*million dollars*	*%*
Export to Peru					
85 – electric machines	555	15,6	85 – electric machines	1306	18,8
84 – machinery, equipment	532	15,0	84 – machinery, equipment	817	11,7
87 – vehicles	424	11,9	87 – vehicles	572	8,2
72 – ferrous metals	292	8,2	72 – ferrous metals	457	6,6
73 – articles made from ferrous metals	174	4,9	73 – articles made from ferrous metals	319	4,6
39 – plastics	101	2,8	39 – plastics	288	4,1
Other goods	1472	41,5	Other goods	3200	54,0
Total	**3550**	**100,0**	**Total**	**6959**	**100,0**
Import from Peru					
26 – ore	4437	69,7	26 – copper	10281	76,9
23 – food-industry waste	966	15,2	23 – food-industry waste	1286	9,6
74 – copper	636	10,0	74 – copper	1032	7,7
44 – timber	64	1,0	8 – fruit, nuts	220	1,6
16 – finished meat products	51	0,8	27 – fuel	104	0,8
3 – fish	26	0,4	16 – finished meat products	91	0,7
Other goods	188	3,0	Other goods	444	3,4
Total	**6368**	**100**	**Total**	**13367**	**100**

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

In 2010, the average tariff for Chinese goods decreased from 12,8% to 0,6%, and for goods from ASEAN countries – from 9,8% to 0,1%. Tariff rates for 7881 product group (90% of imports) were reduced to zero in China and six ASEAN countries. In 2010, there were tariffs for certain agricultural products, car spare parts, etc. China's FTA trade with ASEAN is the third largest in the world after the European Economic Area and NAFTA. In 2013, China became ASEAN's largest trading partner, and ASEAN countries ranked third among China's main foreign trade partners.

ASEAN brings together ten countries in Southeast Asia, which differ greatly in socio-economic development, growth rates and foreign trade. Therefore, for the analysis, several of these countries that are more or less similar to Ukraine, were selected: Malaysia (export of large volumes of vegetable oil), the Philippines, Vietnam, Myanmar (in terms of socio-economic development and growth rates).

Malaysia is a developed industrial and agricultural country. According to the Global Competitiveness Index, in 2019 the Malaysian economy ranked 27th after Iceland (26th) and ahead of China (28th) [13]. The main industries of the country are electronic, machine building, oil refining, gas, woodworking, and food. Electronic products, palm oil, liquefied gas, oil products, chemicals, machinery, vehicles, pure rubber, timber, etc., are exported. The main import items are electrical machinery and equipment, chemicals, oil, plastic products, metals and metal products, etc.

Malaysia's main trading partners are mainly in East Asia. The largest volumes of exports in 2017 came to China (16%), Singapore (14%), the USA (13%), Japan (7%), Hong Kong (5%), Thailand (4%), and imported goods were supplied mainly from China (19%), Singapore (14%), the USA (7%), Japan (7%), Thailand (6%), and South Korea (4%) [14].

In addition to ASEAN, Malaysia is a member of a number of regional trade associations: Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation, the Indian Ocean Rim Association, and the Trans-Pacific Partnership. Malaysia has separate bilateral FTAs with India, Australia, Chile, Japan, New Zealand, Pakistan and Turkey.

In contrast to Chile and Peru, the FTA did not increase trade between China and Malaysia (Table 5). Prior to the entry into force of the FTA agreement during 2003–2010, the trade turnover increased 3,7 times ($ 54,1 billion), while after the entry into force of the FTA agreement during 2010–2017, the trade turnover increased by 1,3 times ($ 21,9 billion).

Throughout the whole period of 1999–2017, the trade balance was in favor of Malaysia, reaching $ 34 billion in 2011 in absolute terms and 38% relative to turnover. After the mutual trade stabilized, the balance began to decrease absolutely and relatively. In 2017, the balance was $ 13 billion, or 13% of trade turnover.

Table 5

The dynamics of trade between China and Malaysia, *billion dollars*

Indicator	1999	2001	2003	2005	2007	2009	2011	2013	2015	2017
Export	1,67	3,22	6,14	10,61	17,74	19,63	27,89	45,93	43,98	41,71
Import	3,61	6,20	13,99	20,93	28,72	32,33	62,14	60,15	53,28	54,43
Turnover	5,28	9,42	20,13	30,70	46,47	51,96	90,02	106,08	97,26	96,14
Net balance	-1,93	-2,98	-7,84	-9,49	-10,98	-12,70	-34,25	-14,22	-9,30	-12,71

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

The electronics and electrical industries are the leading industries in Malaysian engineering. Malaysia produces smartphones and tablets, semiconductors, microchips, integrated circuits, optical devices, fiber optic cables, etc. The production of solar panels and related equipment, for example LED lamps, is widely represented in Malaysia. In other words, in terms of electronics development Malaysia is to some extent a copy of China, but on a smaller scale.

Table 6 shows the structural changes that took place in trade between China and Malaysia after customs barriers were significantly reduced. During seven years of the TFA formation, no significant changes in mutual trade took place. Out of six main commodity groups of Chinese exports to Malaysia, four commodity groups remained at the top of the list and only two commodity groups ("61 – knitted garments" and "73 – ferrous metal products") gave their places to commodity groups "27 – fuel" and "39 – plastics". All major product groups of Malaysian exports to China remained in place at the top of the list of exports. The constantly high ratio of the product group "85 – electric machines" indicates that China is interested in Malaysia as a supplier of investment and final electronic goods.

During 2010–2017, China benefited more from the FTA than Malaysia. China's exports increased by 75% and Malaysia's ones increased by only 8%. In 2017, 47 product groups in Chinese exports amounted to at least $ 100 million, and in Malaysia's exports there were only 20 such product groups. Taking into account individual product groups, Malaysia had a positive balance for 17 product groups, while China – for 80. Malaysia reduced exports of palm oil and rubber to China, which are traditional export items.

Table 6

Structural changes in trade between China and Malaysia

Commodity group	2010		Commodity group	2017	
	million dollars	*%*		*million dollars*	*%*
Export to Malaysia					
85 – electric machines	5887	24,7	85 – electric machines	10280	24,6
84 – machinery, equipment	3865	16,2	84 – machinery, equipment	5113	12,3
90 – medical, optical, photo devices	1681	7,1	27 – fuel	1822	4,4
61 – knitted garments	784	3,3	94 – furniture, mattresses, lamps	1800	4,3
94 – furniture, mattresses, lamps	768	3,2	90 – medical, optical, photo devices	1654	4,0
73 – articles made from ferrous metals	676	2,8	39 – plastics	1614	3,9
Other goods	10141	42,6	Other goods	19429	46,5
Total	**23802**	**100**	**Total**	**41712**	**100**
Import from Malaysia					
85 – electric machines	28627	56,8	85 – electric machines	30838	56,7
27 – fuel	4590	9,1	27 – fuel	8262	15,2
84 – machinery, equipment	4270	8,5	84 – machinery, equipment	3660	6,7
15 – fats	3085	6,1	40 – rubber	1876	3,4
40 – rubber	2596	5,1	15 – fats	1634	3,0
39 – plastics	1299	2,6	39 – plastics	1256	2,3
Other goods	5963	11,8	Other goods	6900	12,7
Total	**50430**	**100**	**Total**	**54426**	**100**

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

The Republic of the Philippines is located on islands in the western Pacific Ocean and is separated from China by the South China Sea. The economy of the Philippines can be described as agro-industrial with rapid growth of industry and services. The main industries are: electronic, food, shipbuilding, chemical, textile, metallurgy and petroleum. The Philippines exports primarily industrial goods (semiconductors and other electronic components, computers, transportation equipment, clothing, copper products, petroleum products), as well as coconut oil and fruit. In 2017, export goods were supplied mainly to China (20%), Hong Kong (15%), the USA (13%), Japan (12%), Germany (5%), and South Korea (4%) [15].

The main imports include electronic products, mineral fuels, machinery and transport equipment, metal products, textiles, grain, chemicals, and plastic products. In 2017, imported goods came mainly from China (21%), Japan (11%), the Republic of Korea (8%), the USA (8%), Thailand (7%), Indonesia (7%), and Singapore (5%).

The Philippines is liberalizing foreign trade mainly within ASEAN. Outside the organization, the Philippines currently has bilateral FTAs only with Japan and the European Free Trade Association.

Trade between China and the Philippines grew steadily during 1999–2017 (Table 7). Between 2003 and 2010, before the FTA entered into force, it tripled ($ 18,4 billion) and after the FTA entered into force, it increased 1,8 times ($ 23,5 billion). It should be noted that the growth of trade after the agreement's entry into

force was mainly due to Chinese exports, as the growth of exports from the Philippines to China after 2012 stopped and the net balance became positive for China.

Table 7

The dynamics of trade between China and the Philippines, *billion dollars*

Indicator	**1999**	**2001**	**2003**	**2005**	**2007**	**2009**	**2011**	**2013**	**2015**	**2017**
Export	1,38	1,62	3,09	4,69	7,53	8,58	14,26	19,87	26,67	32,07
Import	0,91	1,94	6,31	12,87	23,12	11,95	17,99	18,18	18,97	19,24
Turnover	2,29	3,56	9,40	17,56	30,65	20,53	32,25	38,05	45,64	51,30
Net balance	0,47	-0,33	-3,21	-8,18	-15,59	-3,36	-3,74	1,69	7,70	12,83

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

During the formation of the FTA, Chinese exports to the Philippines became more diversified (Table 8). Although the exports of the two largest commodity groups (85 and 84) increased in absolute terms during 2010–2017, their share in total exports decreased. The share of the product groups outside the six largest ones, increased from 49 to 52%. Among the six biggest items of Chinese exports during 2010-2017, knitted garments and plastic products gave place to cotton and vehicles.

Table 8

Structural changes in trade between China and the Philippines

Commodity group	**2010**		**Commodity group**	**2017**	
	million dollars	*%*		*million dollars*	*%*
Export to the Philippines					
85 – electric machines	2451	21,2	85 – electric machines	4818	15,0
84 – machinery, equipment	1398	12,1	84 – machinery, equipment	2893	9,0
72 – ferrous metals	726	6,3	27 – fuel	2374	7,4
27 – fuel	481	4,2	72 – ferrous metals	1945	6,1
61 – knitted garments	478	4,1	52 – cotton	1851	5,8
39 – plastics	399	3,5	87 – vehicles	1464	4,6
Other goods	5607	48,6	Other goods	16721	52,1
Total	**11540**	**100**	**Total**	**32066**	**100**
Import from the Philippines					
85 – electric machines	8862	54,6	85 – electric machines	10569	54,9
84 – machinery, equipment	3910	24,1	84 – machinery, equipment	3747	19,5
26 – ores	960	5,9	26 – ores	1558	8,1
74 – copper	628	3,9	74 – copper	610	3,2
39 – plastics	388	2,4	8 – fruit, nuts	531	2,8
90 – medical, optical, photo devices	255	1,6	90 – medical, optical, photo devices	509	2,6
Other goods	1217	7,5	Other goods	1715	8,9
Total	**16220**	**100**	**Total**	**19239**	**100**

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

As for now, there have been no structural changes in China's imports from the Philippines. Imports remain highly specialized with an emphasis on electronic products (semiconductors) and machinery. Plastic products lost their place in the six main imported goods to fruit and nuts.

The basis of Vietnam's economy is agriculture and the rapidly developing industry. Today, Vietnam is the second largest exporter of coffee to the world market after Brazil. Among the industries should be noted electronics, food processing, tobacco,

light, chemicals, and woodworking whose development is supported by foreign investment, mainly from South Korea and Japan. In particular, Samsung currently produces about 40% of its mobile phones in Vietnam.

The main export goods in 2017 were telecommunications equipment, mobile phones, integrated circuits, footwear, textiles, coffee, seafood, and timber. The main import items included integrated circuits, mobile phones, machinery and equipment, petroleum products, raw materials for textile and footwear industries, vehicles, metal, and chemicals. The largest export markets in 2017 were: the USA (21%), China (18%), Japan (8%), and South Korea (7%) [17]. Imported goods came mainly from China (35%), South Korea (23%), Japan (6%), and Singapore (6%).

Vietnam is covered by all FTAs concluded by ASEAN with its foreign trade partners. In addition, Vietnam has current FTAs with Chile, South Korea, Japan, the Eurasian Economic Union, and has concluded negotiations with the EU.

Trade between China and Vietnam grew dynamically during 1999–2017 (Table 9). Exports of Chinese goods grew faster than imports, which led to an increase in this country's positive balance from $ 0,6 billion in 1999 to $ 36,2 billion in 2015.

Table 9

The dynamics of trade between China and Vietnam, *billion dollars*

Indicator	1999	2001	2003	2005	2007	2009	2011	2013	2015	2017
Export	0,96	1,80	3,18	5,64	11,90	16,30	29,09	48,59	66,02	71,62
Import	0,35	1,01	1,46	2,55	3,23	4,75	11,12	16,89	29,83	50,38
Turnover	1,32	2,81	4,64	8,20	15,12	21,04	40,21	65,48	95,85	121,99
Net balance	0,61	0,79	1,73	3,09	8,67	11,55	17,98	31,69	36,18	21,24

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

The conclusion of the FTA accelerated the growth of mutual trade in absolute terms, although the relative growth rate somewhat slowed down. During 2003–2010, the trade turnover increased by 6,5 times ($ 25,4 billion), then for the same period after the conclusion of the agreement – 4,1 times ($ 91,9 billion).

During 2010–2017, significant structural changes took place both in the export of Chinese goods to Vietnam and in the import of Vietnamese goods to China (Table 10). Vietnam changed from a net importer of cotton to a net exporter. Exports to Vietnam lost their shares of fuel, cotton, and knitted garments, while plastics, knitted fabric, and medical and optical devices increased. Exports to China lost their shares of fuels and timber, while footwear and medical and optical equipment increased.

Thanks to foreign investment in Vietnam, industrial output increased, which was reflected in export-import flows. The share of electrical machines and electronic products in exports increased from 17% in 2010 to 45% in 2017. Among the six major items of Vietnam's export to China are footwear and medical and optical devices, and photographic goods. Among the six major items of China's exports to Vietnam are synthetic fibers, and knitted fabrics. At the same time, in Vietnam's exports to China, knitted garments increased by 22 times, textile clothing – 11 times, and other clothing – 15 times.

Imports of Chinese consumer goods to Vietnam considerably increased. While, during 2010–2017, total imports from China increased by 3,1 times, the imports of toys, and sporting goods increased 9,3 times, watches – 5,1 times, ceramics – 6,0

times, glassware – 5,1 times, footwear – 7,9 times, leather goods – 6,8 times, fur products – 5,3 times, vegetable products – 8,9 times, coffee and tea – in 13,8 times, fruit and nuts – 4,0 times.

Table 10

Structural changes in trade between China and Vietnam

Commodity group	2010		Commodity group	2017	
	million dollars	*%*		*million dollars*	*%*
Export to Vietnam					
85 – electric machines	3600	15,6	85 – electric machines	19109	26,7
84 - machinery, equipment	3402	14,7	84 - machinery, equipment	7329	10,2
27 – fuel	1850	8,0	72 – ferrous metals	4336	6,1
72 - ferrous metals	1632	7,1	60 – knitted fabric	3074	4,3
52 – cotton	1167	5,1	39 – plastics	2483	3,5
61 – knitted garments	786	3,4	90 – medical and optical equipment	2042	2,9
Other goods	10655	53,8	Other goods	33244	46,4
Total	**23102**	**100**	**Total**	**71617**	**100**
Import from Vietnam					
27 – fuel	1779	25,5	85 – electric machines	22823	45,3
85 – electric machines	1166	16,7	52 – cotton	2106	4,2
84 – machinery, equipment	640	9,2	90 – medical and optical equipment	1883	3,7
40 – rubber	526	7,5	40 – rubber	1513	3,0
44 – timber	404	5,8	64 – shoes	1501	3,0
52 – cotton	338	4,8	84 – machinery, equipment	1338	2,7
Other goods	2131	30,5	Other goods	19211	38,1
Total	**6984**	**100**	**Total**	**50375**	**100**

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

One of Vietnam's urgent problems is food shortages. With a population of 95 million, Vietnam is currently a net food importer. Conclusion of the FTA and increased trade with China failed to completely solve this problem. In 2010, Vietnam exported to China 714 million dollars' worth of food products (*HS* codes from 1 to 22), while imported 206 million dollars' worth of the same item (which made up Vietnam's negative balance of 492 million dollars). In 2017, Vietnamese exports amounted to 2667 million dollars, while imports to 4213 million dollars, making up Vietnamese negative balance of 1546 million dollars. In addition, Vietnam failed to increase exports to China of its main export crop – coffee, whose exports during 2010–2017 even decreased from $ 39 million up to $ 28 million.

Myanmar is one of the most backward countries in East Asia. The basis of its economy is agriculture and processing of agricultural raw materials; in addition, there are developed industries such as woodworking, mining, oil and gas, light industry, pharmaceutics and chemicals. The main export goods in 2017 were natural gas, vegetables, clothing, refined copper, rice, ferroalloys. Exports in 2017 were supplied mainly to China (30%), Thailand (18%), Japan (8%), India (5%), Germany (4%), and Singapore (4%) [18]. The main imported goods were petroleum products, telecommunications equipment, sugar, and vehicles. Imports also came mainly from Asian countries: China (39%), Singapore (13%), Thailand (10%), Malaysia (5%), and Japan (4%). Due to the long-term policy of self-isolation, the country does not

have bilateral FTA agreements with other countries, and develops trade relations within ASEAN.

The volume of trade between China and Myanmar, which was relatively low, tended to increase during 1999–2017 (Table 11). During 2003–2010, before the FTA agreement came into force, trade turnover increased 4,1 times ($ 3,4 billion), and after its entry into force, it increased by another 3,0 times ($ 9,0 billion). Although the relative growth rates slowed down, in absolute terms the increase in mutual trade was significant.

Table 11

The dynamics of trade between China and Myanmar, *billion dollars*

Indicator	1999	2001	2003	2005	2007	2009	2011	2013	2015	2017
Export	0,40	0,50	0,91	0,94	1,70	2,26	4,82	7,34	9,65	8,95
Import	0,10	0,13	0,17	0,27	0,38	0,65	1,68	2,86	5,45	4,53
Turnover	0,50	0,63	1,08	1,21	2,08	2,91	6,50	10,20	15,10	13,48
Net balance	0,30	0,36	0,74	0,66	1,32	1,62	3,14	4,48	4,20	4,42

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

Exports of Chinese goods to Myanmar are characterized by a high level of diversification. It includes almost all *HS* commodity groups and almost all of them recorded an increase during 2010–2017. At the same time, the six main commodity items remained unchanged (Table 12). Further growth in imports was restrained only by limited demand for investment and consumer goods.

Table 12

Structural changes in trade between China and Myanmar

Commodity group	2010		Commodity group	2017	
	million dollars	*%*		*million dollars*	*%*
Export to Myanmar					
84 – machinery, equipment	729	21,0	85 – electric machines	1670	18,7
87 – vehicles	487	14,0	84 – machinery, equipment	977	10,9
85 – electric machines	387	11,1	87 – vehicles	959	10,7
73 – articles made from ferrous metals	250	7,2	72 – ferrous metals	779	8,7
72 – ferrous metals	218	6,3	55 – synthetic fibers	338	3,8
55 – synthetic fibers	176	5,1	73 – articles made from ferrous metals	334	3,7
Other goods	1229	35,4	Other goods	3891	43,5
Total	**3476**	**100**	**Total**	**8948**	**100**
Import from Myanmar					
44 – timber and wood products	204	21,1	27 – fuel	1212	26,8
14 – vegetable materials for weaving	199	20,6	26 – ore	1144	25,3
26 – ore	193	20,0	72 – ferrous metals	326	7,2
71 – pearls	142	14,7	74 – copper and copper alloy products	261	5,8
40 – rubber	72	7,5	40 – rubber	223	4,9
03 – fish	66	6,8	71 – pearls	93	2,1
Other goods	90	9,3	Other goods	1267	27,9
Total	**966**	**100,0**	**Total**	**4526**	**100**

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

During 2010–2017, noticeable changes took place in the structure of Myanmar's exports to China. The years 2010–2015 saw the highest export growth rates since 1999. While in 2010, the six largest commodity groups in exports included such commodity groups as "03 – fish", "14 – vegetable materials for weaving", and "44 – timber and wood products", then in 2017 they gave way to product groups "27 – fuel", "72 – ferrous metals", and "74 – copper and copper alloy products".

In contrast to Vietnam, Myanmar's exports are virtually non-existent. Although this country (like Vietnam) has an average human development index, the unsatisfactory investment climate does not encourage multinational corporations, including Chinese ones, to locate production in its territory. Thus, the mere fact of having an FTA does not guarantee the inflow of foreign direct investment.

China began its export expansion with ASEAN countries, and later began to liberalize trade relations with Pakistan. Today, Pakistan's economy can be described as agrarian with a developing industry. In 2019, the share of agriculture in GDP (19%) was slightly lower than the share of industry (20%), but agriculture employed more able-bodied people (37 versus 24%) [19]. Pakistan's population in 2018 exceeded 212 million people and continued to grow at a relatively rapid pace.

The country's main crops include wheat, sugar cane, cotton and rice. In addition, Pakistan is among the world's top ten producers of chickpeas (3rd place), milk (4th place), mangoes (4th place), dates (5th place), apricots (6th place), tangerines (6th place), and onions (7th). The main export crops are cotton and rice. The industries of export importance are light industry, food processing and oil refining. In 2017 the main foreign trade partners for Pakistan's exports were: the USA (14%), Germany (8%), China (8%), Great Britain (6%), and Afghanistan (6%) [20]. In 2017 Pakistan imported mainly oil and petroleum products, palm oil, vehicles, metal products, food and other goods coming from China (27%), the United Arab Emirates (12%), and Saudi Arabia (4%), Indonesia (4%), Japan (4%) and the USA (4%).

Strengthening China-Pakistan economic ties was facilitated by the implementation of the China-Pakistan Economic Corridor, which began in 2013. The program focuses on a number of projects to improve transport and energy infrastructure, as well as the creation of special economic zones. In terms of scale and impact on Pakistan's economy, some analysts compare the program with the Marshall Plan for postwar Europe. However, it is expected as a disadvantage, that the domestic market will be filled with cheaper Chinese goods and traditional Pakistani exports will be replaced by Chinese counterparts on the world market.

Pakistan remains a relatively closed economy for the world trade. It currently has bilateral FTAs with China, Malaysia, Sri Lanka, and Mauritius and is conducting negotiations with Jordan and Singapore. In addition, Pakistan is a member of the South Asian Free Trade Area.

During 1999–2017, trade between the PRC and Pakistan grew steadily, but mainly due to Chinese exports (Table 13). In ten years of the FTA functioning, China has become Pakistan's largest supplier of imported goods and the third export market. However, after 2013 Pakistan export to China began to decline annually, while the negative balance, by contrast, increased by 2,1 times during 2013-2017. Thus, the implementation of the China-Pakistan Economic Corridor has not reduced, but has increased the imbalance in mutual trade. However, in October 2015 the Pakistani side offered to start negotiations on the second step of mutual trade liberalization.

Table 13

The dynamics of trade between China and Pakistan, *billion dollars*

Indicator	1999	2001	2003	2005	2007	2009	2011	2013	2015	2017
Export	0,58	0,82	1,86	3,43	5,83	5,52	8,44	11,02	16,44	18,25
Import	0,39	0,58	0,58	0,83	1,10	1,26	2,12	3,20	2,48	1,83
Turnover	0,97	1,40	2,43	4,26	6,94	6,78	10,56	14,22	18,92	20,08
Net balance	0,19	0,23	1,28	2,60	4,73	4,26	6,32	7,82	13,97	16,42

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

There were almost no changes in the structure of Chinese exports to Pakistan during 2010–2017, and changes that are more significant were noticeable in the structure of Chinese imports from Pakistan (Table 14). The share of machinery, equipment and metal products in Chinese exports to Pakistan increased, which is probably due to the implementation of the China-Pakistan Economic Corridor. In the group of six major export items, only organic chemicals supplanted knitted garments, while all other commodity groups remained unchanged.

Table 14

Structural changes in trade between China and Pakistan

Commodity group		2010		Commodity group	2017	
		million dollars	*%*		*million dollars*	*%*
Export to Pakistan						
85 – electric machines		1027	17,0	85 – electric machines	3394	18,6
84 – machinery, equipment		823	13,6	84 – machinery, equipment	3390	18,6
54 – synthetic threads		425	7,0	72 – ferrous metals	1177	6,4
72 – ferrous metals		234	3,9	54 – synthetic threads	774	4,2
61 – knitted garments		226	3,7	29 – organic chemistry	774	4,2
73 – articles made from ferrous metals		201	3,3	73 – articles made from ferrous metals	755	4,1
Other goods		3115	51,5	Other goods	7987	43,8
Total		**6051**	**100,0**	**Total**	**18251**	**100**
Import from Pakistan						
52 – cotton		599	59,5	52 – cotton	940	51,3
26 – ores		220	21,8	26 – ores	187	10,2
41 – hides		75	7,4	74 – copper	135	7,4
03 – fish		29	2,9	10 – grain crops	94	5,1
39 – plastics		16	1,6	41 – hides	71	3,9
25 – salt		10	1,0	03 – fish	60	3,3
Other goods		58	5,8	Other goods	346	18,9
Total		**1007**	**100,0**	**Total**	**1833**	**100**

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

Pakistan exports to China became more diversified during the formation of the FTA (Table 14). In 2010 all exports were limited to cotton and ore (together constituting 81,3% of total exports). In 2017, copper and grain crops were added to exports. In 2010, these product groups were not even included in the six major export items. During the formation of the FTA, plastics and salt dropped out of the main export

goods. It is worth noting that among the main items of Pakistani exports to China, there are no products of light industry, food processing and petroleum refining, which are considered the most competitive branches.

Table 15

Increase in exports, imports, and net balance before and after the entry into force of the FTA with China, *billion dollars*

Country	Term of an agreement, years	Export		Import		Net balance	
		Until agreement	After agreement	Until agreement	After agreement	Until agreement	After agreement
New Zealand	9	1,4	7,5	2,2	2,6	-0,8	4,9
Pakistan	9	0,6	0,8	5,5	12,2	-4,9	-11,4
Vietnam	7	5,5	43,4	19,9	48,5	-14,4	-5,1
Malaysia	7	36,4	4,0	17,7	17,9	18,8	-13,9
Philippines	7	9,9	3,0	8,4	20,5	1,5	-17,5
Chile	7	5,1	15,0	2,5	10,0	2,6	5,0
Peru	7	5,6	7,0	3,2	3,4	2,4	3,6
Myanmar	7	0,8	3,6	2,6	5,5	-1,8	-1,9
Australia	3	15,0	-2,6	5,2	2,3	9,7	-4,9
Switzerland	4	49,2	-23,2	0,9	-0,3	48,4	-22,9
Iceland, *million dollars*	4	43,0	34,0	93	-35	-50,0	69,0

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

Table 16

The share in exports of the six largest product groups, %

Country	Export to the PRC		Import from the PRC	
	Before agreement	After agreement	Before agreement	After agreement
Australia	81,8	87,4	56,9	56,3
Vietnam	69,5	61,9	53,8	53,6
Malaysia	88,2	87,3	57,4	53,4
Philippines	92,5	91,1	51,4	47,9
Chile	96,6	94,4	57,2	53,4
Pakistan	94,2	81,1	48,5	56,2
Peru	97,0	97,4	58,5	54,0
New Zealand	61,3	80,4	55,5	51,8
Myanmar	90,7	72,0	64,6	56,5
Switzerland	95,8	94,6	62,7	64,0
Iceland	96,1	98,2	82,3	60,7

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

Summarizing the experience of trade liberalization of 11 countries, we can conclude that it was successful for four countries: New Zealand, Vietnam, Chile and Peru. Following the entry into force of the FTA, these countries increased exports to

China and at the same time restrained the expansion of Chinese goods to their domestic markets. As a result, the bilateral trade balance improved in their favor (Table 16). For the rest of above mentioned economies, the liberalization in terms of export growth and improved trade balance showed a negative result.

After the liberalization, bilateral trade became more diversified in both directions. As China increased its range of exports, so its foreign trade partners diversified their exports to China. This is evidenced by the dynamics of such indicators as the share of exports of the six largest product groups; number of non-zero product groups; and the number of product groups with sales exceeding $ 1 million.

As we can see from Table 16 above, during the FTA, for most of China's trading partners (seven out of eleven), the share of the six largest commodity groups in exports decreased. This means that the aggregate share of non-essential exports increased, and overall those countries' exports to China became more diversified. This applies even more to Chinese exports to its foreign trade partners.

The revival of mutual trade after the introduction of the FTA is also evidenced by indicators of "net" growth of non-zero commodity groups and "net" growth of groups with sales of more than 1 million dollars. The analysis was performed for double-digit *HS* product groups, whose quantity is 97 units. For nine out of eleven countries, the number of non-zero product groups increased (the highest growth registered in Peru – 13 units). For all above mentioned countries, their exports to China, the number of product groups with sales of more than 1 million dollars increased. Thus, thanks to the FTA, the range of export goods increased, and their export deliveries to China became more significant. Similar changes took place in these countries' imports from China.

Table 17

"Net" growth of non-zero product groups and groups with sales of more than 1 million dollars

Country	Export to the PRC		Import from the PRC	
	Non-zero product groups	Groups with sales of more than 1 million dollars	Non-zero product groups	Groups with sales of more than 1 million dollars
Australia	3	1	2	2
Vietnam	2	11	2	0
Malaysia	1	3	0	1
Philippines	-1	1	0	0
Chile	3	11	1	14
Pakistan	6	13	1	9
Peru	13	4	1	8
New Zealand	2	8	1	6
Myanmar	-2	11	4	9
Switzerland	3	2	4	4
Iceland	4	3	0	6

Source: [10], author's own calculations.

Conclusions

Summarizing everything mentioned above, we can draw the following conclusions.

1. China is increasingly becoming a powerful global industrial center with stable and high rates of economic growth. All of the analyzed countries increased their

exports to this country during 1999–2017. In this respect, the expansion of trade and economic ties with China has certain prospects, despite the recent slowdown of the Chinese economy.

2. The liberalization of trade relations has contributed to the intensification of mutual trade with China. For seven out of eleven countries, after the free trade agreements entered into force, the absolute increase in trade turnover was greater than in analogous period before the formation of the FTA. For most countries, the FTA provided an opportunity to expand their exports to China. For six out of eleven countries, the absolute rise in exports after entering into force of the FTA agreements was greater than in the same period before the formation of the FTA. For three countries, the growth rate of exports to China became lower than during the same period before the FTA, and in two countries (Australia and Switzerland), their absolute volume of exports decreased. We associate this dynamics with the peculiarities of these countries' bilateral trade with China.

3. The free trade area has made trade flows between China and its trading partners more diversified. For seven out of eleven countries, the total share of exports to China of the six largest commodity groups decreased. The number of non-zero commodity groups in exports increased for nine countries. For all countries analyzed above, the number of product groups with sales of more than $ 1 million increased. Similar changes took place in Chinese goods exports to their FTA partners.

4. Exports to China of the analyzed countries were mainly of a raw material nature, which persisted even after the liberalization of trade relations. Only some countries in Southeast Asia increased exports of their engineering products to China. Exports of countries outside the region to China including such highly developed countries as Australia and New Zealand mainly consisted of raw materials.

5. In terms of the trade balance criterion, the analyzed trade liberalization was more profitable for China than for its trading partners. After the trade liberalization, out of the eleven countries investigated, only four (New Zealand, Vietnam, Chile, and Peru) raised their exports to China and at the same time improved their trade balance with China.

In the course of the study, based on the experience of the investigated countries, the author assessed the probability of increasing Ukraine's exports and improving this country's trade balance as a result of the liberalization of bilateral trade relations with China. However, in addition to increasing goods exports and improving trade balance, deepening economic relations with China has many other aspects, such as attracting Chinese direct investment, using Ukraine's transit potential in the context of the Belt and Road Initiative, deepening scientific and technological cooperation, etc. To what extent a trade liberalization might be useful for the full use of potential of the above mentioned types of collaboration is a topic for **further research**.

References

1. China FTA Network. Retrieved from http://fta.mofcom.gov.cn/topic/ enmaldives.shtml
2. Bohdan, T.P. (2018). Free trade area between Ukraine and the EU: new rules, risks and opportunities. *Finansy Ukrainy – Finance of Ukraine*, 10, 7- 27 [in Ukrainian].
3. Reinert, Erik S. (2015). How rich countries got rich … and why poor countries stay poor. Kyiv: Tempora [in Ukrainian].
4. Sidenko, V.R. (2017). New US trade policy: global intermission. *Ekonomika Ukrainy – Economy of Ukraine*, 5-6, 58-66 [in Ukrainian].

5. Studwell, J. (2013). How Asia works: Success and Failure in the World's Most Dynamic Region. London: Grove Press.
6. Benefits and Costs of DCFTA: Evaluation of the Impact on Georgia, Moldova and Ukraine. Retrieved from https://wiiw.ac.at/benefits-and-costs-of-dcfta-evaluation-of-the-impact-on-georgia-moldova-and-ukraine-dlp-4111.pdf
7. Macroeconomic Consequences of Tariffs. Retrieved from https://www.imf.org/en/Publications/WP/Issues/2019/01/15/Macroeconomic-Consequences-of-Tariffs-46469
8. Trade Liberalization and Economic Reform in Developing Countries: structural change or De-industrialization? Retrieved from https://unctad.org/en/docs/osgdp20053_en.pdf
9. Chile. Retrieved from https://oec.world/en/profile/country/chl/
10. UN Comtrade: International trade statistics. Retrieved from https://comtrade.un.org/data/
11. The Protocol Upgrading China-Chile Free Trade Agreement Comes into Force Today. Retrieved from http://fta.mofcom.gov.cn/enarticle/chiletwoen/chiletwoennews/201903/39928_1.html
12. Peru. Retrieved from https://oec.world/en/profile/country/per/
13. The Global Competitiveness Report 2019. Retrieved from http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_TheGlobalCompetitivenessReport2019.pdf
14. Malaysia. Retrieved from https://oec.world/en/profile/country/mys/
15. Philippines. Retrieved from https://oec.world/en/profile/country/phl/
16. Monthly export statistics (2019, May). Retrieved from http://www.ico.org/prices/m1-exports.pdf
17. Vietnam. Retrieved from https://oec.world/en/profile/country/vnm/
18. Burma. Retrieved from https://oec.world/en/profile/country/mmr/
19. Economy of Pakistan. Retrieved from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Economy_of_Pakistan
20. Pakistan. Retrieved from https://oec.world/en/profile/country/pak/

Received 06.08.19
Reviewed 11.12.19
Signed for print 15.02.20

Олефір, Володимир Костянтинович
канд. екон. наук,
старший науковий співробітник
ДУ "Інститут економіки та прогнозування НАН України"
вул. Панаса Мирного, 26, Київ, 01011
e-mail: oksavol@ukr.net

ДОСВІД ФОРМУВАННЯ ЗОН ВІЛЬНОЇ ТОРГІВЛІ З КИТАЄМ

Досліджено досвід формування зон вільної торгівлі (ЗВТ) Китаю з країнами Азії, Океанії, Європи і Південної Америки. Проаналізовано динаміку двосторонньої торгівлі та змін у товарній структурі після набуття угодами про ЗВТ чинності. Узагальнено позитивні ефекти і негативні наслідки функціонування ЗВТ з КНР для країн Азії, Океанії, Європи і Південної Америки. Зроблено прогноз можливих позитивних ефектів і негативних наслідків для вітчизняної економіки від лібералізації торговельних відносин з КНР. Публікацію підготовлено за виконання НДР "Модернізація економічної політики розвитку сфер діяльності та ринків" (№ держреєстрації 0118U007329).

Станом на серпень 2019 р. Китай мав чинні двосторонні угоди про ЗВТ з 20 країнами і щонайменше з 20 країнами тривав підготовчий процес. Мета статті – проаналізувати ефективність функціонування ЗВТ з Китаєм для його торговельних партнерів, зокрема, Австралії, В'єтнаму, Ісландії, Малайзії, М'янми, Нової Зеландії, Пакистану, Перу, Філіппін, Чилі, Швейцарії. Для дослідження було використано дані за 1999–2017 рр.

Оскільки впродовж 1999–2017 рр. економіка Китаю швидко розвивалась, усі досліджувані країни збільшили свій експорт до КНР. Шість країн із одинадцяти після набуття угодами про ЗВТ чинності наростили експорт до Китаю більше, ніж за аналогічний період до угоди. Китай після набуття угодами про ЗВТ чинності збільшив експорт до восьми з одинадцяти своїх зовнішньоторговельних партнерів.

Після укладання угод про ЗВТ структура експорту двосторонньої торгівлі стала більш диверсифікованою як для Китаю, так і для його зовнішньоторговельних партнерів. Про це свідчить динаміка таких показників, як частка в експорті шести основних товарних груп; кількість товарних груп, обсяги експорту яких були нульовими, а стали ненульовими; кількість товарних груп, обсяги експорту яких перебільшили 1 млн дол., тобто стали суттєвими.

За критерієм торговельного сальдо Китай після лібералізації отримав вигоди більше, ніж його торговельні партнери. Зокрема, сальдо двосторонньої торгівлі з КНР поліпшили чотири країни, в той час як для семи країн після набуття угодами про ЗВТ чинності воно погіршилося.

У листопаді 2018 р. між українською та китайською сторонами було досягнуто домовленості щодо проведення спільних консультації відносно передумов створення ЗВТ. При цьому слід зазначити, що в Експортній стратегії України на 2017–2021 рр. зазначено: "… ініціювання нових угод про вільну торгівлю мають базуватися виключно на основі проведених досліджень економічної доцільності …".

Ключові слова: Китайська Народна Республіка, угода про зону вільної торгівлі, ефективність лібералізації, стимулювання експорту, імпортозалежність

Олефир, Владимир Константинович
канд. экон. наук
старший научный сотрудник
ГУ "Институт экономики и прогнозирования НАН Украины"
ул. Панаса Мирного, 26, Киев, 01011
e-mail: oksavol@ukr.net

ОПЫТ ФОРМИРОВАНИЯ ЗОН СВОБОДНОЙ ТОРГОВЛИ С КИТАЕМ

Исследован опыт формирования зон свободной торговли (ЗСТ) Китая со странами Азии, Океании, Европы и Южной Америки. Проанализирована динамика двусторонней торговли, а также изменения в товарной структуре после вступления соглашений о ЗСТ в силу. Обобщены положительные эффекты и отрицательные последствия функционирования ЗСТ с КНР для стран Азии, Океании, Европы

и Южной Америки. Сделан прогноз возможных положительных эффектов и отрицательных последствий для отечественной экономики от либерализации торговых отношений с КНР. Публикация подготовлена во время выполнения НИР "Модернизация экономической политики развития сфер деятельности и рынков" (№ госрегистрации 0118U007329).

По состоянию на август 2019 г. Китай имел действующие двусторонние соглашения про ЗСТ с 20 странами и, как минимум, с 20 странами продолжался подготовительный процесс. Целью статьи было проанализировать эффективность функционирования ЗСТ с Китаем для его торговых партнеров, в частности, для Австралии, Вьетнама, Исландии, Малайзии, Мьянмы, Новой Зеландии, Пакистана, Перу, Филиппин, Чили, Швейцарии. Для исследования были использованы данные за 1999–2017 гг.

Поскольку в течение 1999–2017 гг. экономика Китая быстро развивалась, все исследуемые страны увеличили свой экспорт в КНР. Шесть стран из одиннадцати после вступления соглашений о свободной торговле в силу увеличили экспорт в Китай более, нежели за аналогичный период до соглашения. Китай после вступления соглашений о свободной торговле в силу увеличил экспорт в восемь из своих одиннадцати внешнеторговых партнеров.

После заключения Соглашения о ЗСТ структура экспорта двусторонней торговли стала более диверсифицированной как для Китая, так и для его внешнеторговых партнеров. Об этом свидетельствует динамика таких показателей, как доля в экспорте шести основных товарных групп; количество товарных групп, объемы экспорта которых были нулевыми, а стали ненулевыми; количество товарных групп, объемы экспорта которых превысили 1 млн дол., то есть стали существенными.

По критерию торгового сальдо Китай после либерализации получил выгод больше, нежели его торговые партнеры. В частности, сальдо двусторонней торговли с КНР улучшили четыре страны, в то время как для семи стран после вступления соглашений о ЗСТ в силу оно ухудшилось.

В ноябре 2018 г. между украинской и китайской сторонами было достигнуто соглашение о проведении совместных консультаций относительно предпосылок создания ЗСТ. При этом необходимо заметить, что в Экспортной стратегии Украины на 2017–2021 гг. отмечено: “… инициирование новых соглашений о свободной торговле должно базироваться исключительно на основе проведенных исследований экономической целесообразности …”.

Ключевые слова: Китайская Народная Республика, соглашение о зоне свободной торговли, эффективность либерализации, стимулирование экспорта, импортозависимость