

**PROTECTIONISM: TARIFF AND NON-TARIFF BARRIERS  
TO TRADE**

**ПРОТЕКЦИОНИЗМ: ТАРИФНЫЕ И НЕТАРИФНЫЕ  
БАРЬЕРЫ ТОРГОВЛИ**

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International trade continues to be one of the main areas of policy controversy for developing countries. Some see protection from the cold winds of competition as an essential part of the early stages of development, while others see protection as creating, rather than curing, problems in developing economies.

The opening of markets has boosted trade and economic growth worldwide in the past few decades. Yet tariffs – taxes imposed by importing countries on foreign goods – remain a key obstacle to market access. Tariffs are usually associated with protectionism, a government's policy of controlling trade between nations to support the interests of its own citizens. For economic reasons, tariffs are usually imposed on imported goods. All over the world tariff systems are classified into four main types:

1. a single column tariff which consists of one list of duties with a single duty rate for each article, applicable equally to imports from all countries;
2. a maximum-minimum tariff which involves the setting-up of two columns of duties in the tariff. The lower rate is applicable to countries enjoying most-favoured-nation treatment whereas the higher to other countries;
3. a general-conventional tariff which is used to start with a single column of duties and proceed to establish a second column of conventional duties in negotiations with other countries.
4. a preferential tariff which represents an import duty at a specially low rate on goods from a country that is being favoured. For example, Customs Union of Belarus, Russia and Kazakhstan uses also preferential tariff system.

Regardless of using tariff system in every country import-export rates are supposed to fulfil four functions:

1. to protect home producers from foreign competition in order to

increase their own competitiveness in the domestic market;

2. to limit exporting products in which there is a shortage in this country and to regulate foreign trade transactions for political interests;

3. to supply local consumers, both legal entities and individuals, with products which are not produced in this country or produced insufficiently;

4. to provide the state budget with additional financial resources.

Tariff reduction benefits both developed and developing countries. Consumers have more choice, with more products and wider price range. By removing price distortions, tariff reduction also encourages resources to be used in a way that takes better advantage of a country's strong points with respect to its partners. In other words, it allows comparative advantage to reveal itself. Developing countries could benefit from trade liberalisation that is limited primarily to developed countries. But they benefit even more in absolute terms if they liberalised as well. Complete tariff elimination and a reduction in trade costs would bring welfare gains equivalent to 1.37 % of annual Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in developing countries and 0.37 % in developed countries. More than half of the benefit would accrue to developing countries, if tariffs were eliminated.

According to Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) analyses, the economic gains from the removal of remaining trade barriers would be significant:

1. a 10% increase in trade is associated with a 4% rise in per capita income;

2. an "open" World Dental Federation (FDI) climate could be expected to yield a 0.75% increase in OECD area GDP per capita;

3. lower regulatory barriers to competition could result in a 2% to 3% increase in per capita GDP in the OECD area;

4. more efficient customs procedures (*i.e.* trade facilitation) could improve global welfare by \$100 billion;

5. full tariff liberalisation in agriculture and industrial goods could increase global welfare by a further \$100 billion.

Non-tariff barriers comprise all measures other than tariffs that restrict or otherwise distort trade flows. There are more than 100 different types of non-tariff barriers and this is not a complete list. The main of them are:

1. prohibitions and quotas;
2. procedural barriers;
3. customs fees;
4. export duties and export restrictions;
5. technical barriers.

It is rather difficult to understand economic benefits from further liberalization of non-tariff barriers, because it is hard to quantify them. Attempts to do so tend to focus on one type of measure, and this probably underestimates both the importance of these barriers and gains from their removal. One study showed that removal of a selection of barriers would generate global gains on the order of \$90 billion. Another calculated that lowering trade transaction costs by 1% would result in global welfare gains of \$40 billion. This is far less than estimates for gains from improvements in ports, customs, regulations and service sector infrastructure, for example. Improvements of these types would raise countries with below-average performance halfway to the global median and would generate global increases in merchandise trade amounting to \$377 billion, an almost 10% increase in total trade.

Trade policy is not the cause of the economic difficulties that emerged in late 2008, nor does it offer the solution. But trade policy can contribute in three important ways:

1. a clear statement of concrete plans by governments to stop the spread of protectionism and to open markets further to competitive suppliers would help to restore confidence in markets, and in governments' ability to work together in pursuit of common aims;
2. action is needed to avoid a policy shift towards greater protectionism;
3. governments have an opportunity to stimulate economic growth that does not require increased public spending – conclude current WTO negotiations.

The reasons for imposing barriers to trade can be economic, environmental, social, political, or a combination of these. Any number of factors may be more important than a particular trade opportunity. But what is important is that such decisions are clear and transparent, and that the benefits and the costs are well understood. Tariffs, even complex schemes, are relatively visible; many non-tariff barriers are much more complex, seldom very transparent, and their impact unclear.

Governments have a particular responsibility to ensure that the full range of impacts of tariff and non-tariff barriers, both intended and unintended, is considered before putting them in place. This is essential if explicit policy objectives are to be met at the least cost and without unintended negative consequences. It is also essential in order to ensure that narrow special interests do not benefit at the expense of others. Experience has shown that even ineffective policies, once in place, are difficult to remove. The “first best” course of action is to avoid poor policy choices.

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**WYBITNE OSOBY POLSKI. WISŁAWA SZYMBORSKA:  
NOBLISTKA JAKIEJ NIE ZNAMY  
ИЗВЕСТНЫЕ ЛЮДИ ПОЛЬШИ. ВИСЛАВА  
ШИМБОРКАЯ: НЕИЗВЕСТНЫЙ ЛАУРЕАТ НОБЕЛЕВСКОЙ  
ПРЕМИИ**

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Edward Balcerzan, poeta, profesor polonistyki na Uniwersytecie im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu, po otrzymaniu Szymborskiej Nagrody Nobla zaczął zbierać materiały do książki o niej i zwrócił się do niej z prośbą, żeby pomogła mu ustalić prostą faktografię. Szybko okazało się jednak, że „zewnątrzną biografię” poetki znał chyba lepiej niż ona sama. I że udało mu się zrekonstruować niejedną z tuch dat z jej życia, które jej samej już dzisiaj nic nie mówiły.

Wisława Szymborska urodziła się 2 lipca 1923 r. w Bninie.

W roku 1930 Wisława poszła do szkoły powszechnej w Krakowie, tam też przez 5 lat do Gimnazjum Sióstr Urszulanek. W ten czas zaczęła pisać wierszy. Ojciec płacił jej po 20 groszy za okolicznościowe i dowcipne wierszyki i wznagał, żeby były zabawne: żadnych lamentów, żadnych zwierzeń. Dlatego do dziś ma na miłość do limeryków i zabawnych rymowanek. W swoich wierszach proponuje uśmiech zamiast łzy, złości, lęku, bo liczy, że człowiek z poczuciem humoru nigdy nie przegrywa do końca.