

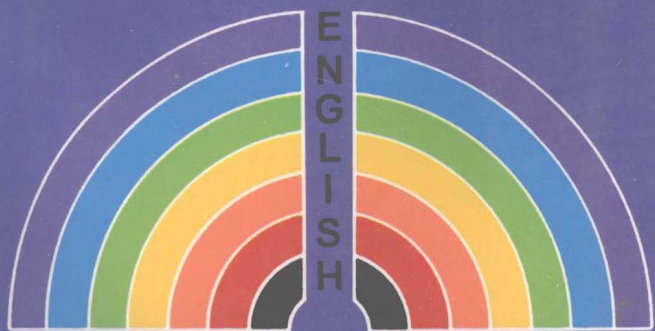
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INTERNATIONAL TRADE AFFAIRS

国际贸易实务

(英文版)

上海交通大学出版社



International Trade Affairs

国际贸易实务

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主 审



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内 容 简 介

《国际贸易实务》主要是为从事国际贸易业务并有相当英语基础读者而编写的。通过阅读,读者可以进一步了解国际贸易的有关知识及具体操作方法,并掌握常用和不常用的外贸概念,以便更好地用英语进行国际贸易的各项业务。

本书共分 8 章:(1)国际贸易概述;(2)质量与包装;(3)价格;(4)货物运输;(5)进出口款项支付;(6)货物保险;(7)贸易争端;(8)出口交易与签订合同。虽然国际贸易形式灵活多变,但本书基本上囊括了国际贸易的主要环节和主要内容。

国际贸易实务

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Introduction

The book is designed for the readers who are engaged in trading and/or international business with certain background of English.

As all of us are aware, the trading in China is developing very rapidly and with more and more foreign investment flowing inside China, understanding international business has become a necessity. With view to the above, two books are written for the purpose that readers could have a better understanding of the international business, especially the detailed practice, both home and abroad. The book hereunder concentrates on the trading affairs, first giving a rough concept, later explaining the detailed practice. We have to admit that some concepts studied in the book thereof are quite professional and certain background of trading are preferred.

Since international trading has to deal with foreigners and most of the transactions are conducted in the language of English, we design the book also in the language of English so that the readers not only could learn the practice of trading but also understand from a different standpoint, that is, how to handle the business in a foreign language.

The book contains eight chapters:

Chapter 1	General Introduction to International Trade
Chapter 2	Quality & Package
Chapter 3	Pricing
Chapter 4	Cargo Transportation
Chapter 5	Payment for Import & Export
Chapter 6	Cargo Insurance

Chapter 7 Trade Disputes

Chapter 8 Process of an Export Transaction & Contract

We think, however, that even though the content might be considered quite complete and a wide scope of business aspects have been covered, the book shall not be regarded as fully comprehensive in trading area because one shall be aware that business is such a wide subject that it cannot be explained simply within one book. Notwithstanding the above, the eight chapters which would be examined in the following have included all major concerns in trading and we hope it could be helpful to the readers.

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Chapter 1 **General Introduction to International Trade**

Foreign trade comes into being and is developed under certain historical conditions. The surplus products and commodity exchange are the two pre-requisite conditions for the existence of foreign trade. With the expansion of commodity circulation, merchants who specialize in trading played an increasingly more important role in a nation's development and gradually international trade is formed when the commodity circulation has passed over a nation's border.

To give an explicit definition, international trade is the activity of commodity exchange between one country or region and other countries or regions.

1. 1 Development of International Trade

As far back as the sixth century B. C. , there is evidence of trading between nations. In those early days, the exchange of goods was conducted on a 'barter' basis, now known as 'compensation trade'. Early in the fifth century B. C. , the exchange was exercised through a medium in the form of coin. These coins were exchanged weight for weight one country against another, where sufficient evidence existed in the metallic values, which we call 'gold standard system'.

Prior to the formation of currency, commodity production is heavily limited because the major purpose of production is for consumption and consequently there is only a little amount of commodity involved in the circulation. International trade was in the infancy at that time.

In Roman times, some trading was carried on by exchange of coin and is the first evidence of a foreign exchange system. From the end of Roman Empire there was a considerable reversion to barter or the exchange of metallic coin by weight but, by the eleventh century A. D. , money changing once more became an important profession.

From the thirteenth century onwards, bills of exchange gradually took the place of coin and the market in bills of exchange remained almost unchanged until the end of the eighteenth century. Through this period, the importance of London was increasing, although in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, Antwerp and Amsterdam were probably more important. In the sixteenth century, there also appeared a system of forecasts of future exchange rates which in Netherlands, Belgium and Spain was mainly in the form of betting. From the French Revolution onwards, although bills of exchange remained of greatest importance, mail transfers came into being and, throughout the nineteenth century, there was the development of forward exchange dealings. At that time, London lagged behind notwithstanding its great economic influence on the other cities and this was mainly because, with the growing influence of Great Britain on world trade, a large proportion of that trade was expressed in sterling, so London merchants had no need to buy or sell currencies, while abroad the need for a market in sterling against other currencies was obvious.

Commodity economy as well as the international trade developed rapidly after currency became the major instrument in international settlement. Meanwhile, the facilitation of transportation and communication also helped the international trade to be expanded to cover almost all countries in the world.

The conduct of international trade developed from a system of barter to the settlement for goods exchanged by means of an independent commodity, that is, metallic coinage, and then on to the bill of

exchange and the bank note. At the same time, the medium of exchange was organized until the foreign exchange markets as we know today were developed. As banking techniques and services were developed, the banks provided facilities for the smooth conduct of international trade; the foreign exchange markets enabled traders to conduct their business in any currency and exchange currencies freely one for another; and worldwide banking networks made the transfer of monies easier and quicker and provided economic and credit information.

The activities of merchants made everyone more aware of what was available in other lands and so the desire to exchange goods became greater. Just as the means of payment had developed, so did the means of transport. With the development of shipping from the clipper through to steam, then oil-driven vessels and now the growth of container transport, the transfer of goods from one part of the world to another became quicker and safer. Along with this grew the development of cargo insurance.

The basic requirements for the growth of international trade were provided and there then developed a variety of methods and expertise to assist in the conduct of that trade, for example, the service of export houses who were specialists in certain markets; the appointing of agents overseas; selling direct by travelling sales staff; setting up of branch offices or subsidiary companies in overseas market; and group marketing to share expenses.

There are several reasons why nations began to trade with one another. The distribution of natural resources around the world is somewhat haphazard; some nations possess natural ores and chemical deposits in excess of their own requirements while other nations have none. For example, Britain has large reserves of coal but lacks many minerals such as nickel, copper, aluminum etc, whereas the Arab states have

vast oil deposits but little else. In the cultivation of natural products climate plays a decisive role. Some products will only grow in tropical climates whereas others such as citrus fruits, require a Mediterranean climate. Moreover, some nations are unable to produce sufficient of a particular product to satisfy a large home demand for example, wheat in Britain. These are the reasons why international trade first began but, with the development of manufacturing and technology, there arose another incentive for nations to exchange their products which is commonly known as the theory of comparative cost principle that draws the necessity of international trade onto a theoretical basis.

It was found that it made economic sense for a nation to specialize in certain activities and produce those goods for which it had the most advantages, and to exchange those goods for the products of other nations which had advantages in different fields. This trade is based on the law of comparative costs which is proposed by David Ricardo who is an economist during the Industry Revolutionary.

The main views of law of comparative costs are; There is a natural trend in human being that is exchange; The exchange trend of human being is division of labor; The principle of division of labor is to produce those goods respectively for which it had the most advantages, and then exchange; Division of labor which is adaptable to family shall also adaptable to international trade; The basis of international division of labor is to take advantage of natural assets or postnatural producing condition.

According to Ricardo, foreign trade is mutually beneficial. even when one nation is absolutely more efficient in the production of all goods, as long as there are differences in the relative costs of producing the various goods in the two potential nations. This point makes the theory of Ricardo more advanced and deeper than that of Adam Smith, one of the founders of capitalist economy, who based his division of labor

theory on the absolute cost differentiate.

Economists maintain that it will be advantageous for mankind if people specialize in those occupations at which they have the greatest comparative advantage, or the least comparative disadvantage, leaving others to produce the goods and services for which they have little aptitude.

This principle is the basis of specialization into trades and occupations. Today it is paramount in the theory of international trade.

Ricardo does point out that international trade is beneficial to both trading parties, however, he fails to point out how much each respective trading nation may obtain from the trading. At the same time, complete specialization may never occur even when it is economically advantageous.

For strategic or domestic reasons a country may continue to produce goods for which it does not have an advantage.

Another impediment to the free flow of goods between nations, in accordance with the principle of comparative advantage, is the possible introduction of artificial barriers to trade, such as tariffs or quota.

The theory of comparative cost principle is under a premise that there is no transportation cost. However, it is commonly recognized that the benefits of specialization will be effected by transport costs; goods and raw materials have to be transported around the world and the cost of the transport narrows the limits between which it will prove profitable to trade.

Comparative cost principle is subject to another two premises that production processes where production cost is invariable and no