

出口
实务与
管理

(第五版)

高等学校国际经贸类英文版教材

Alan Branch

Export Practice and Management

5th Edition

陈 岩 改编



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CHUKOU SHIWU YU GUANLI

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关于本书

内容简介

本书主要包括三个方面内容：首先介绍了出口实务流程和运输方式，其次是出口合同的要素，最后是与战略投入相关的问题。作者将自己50多年跨越25个国家的国际贸易咨询及教学实践经历和相关理论知识结合，简明扼要地讲述了出口实务与管理的相关知识。本书因其实用性，自出版以来便树立了其在国际贸易领域规范著作的领先地位，成为100多个国家和地区本科生、硕士研究生和国际企业家的必备参考书。

本书适合我国高等院校国际经济与贸易、市场营销、现代物流、国际航运业务管理等专业的本科和硕士研究生作为教材使用，也可供参加国际商务领域相关职业资格证书考试的人员参考。

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导 读

随着全球经济的发展，当今世界的贸易模式和贸易复杂程度较过去已经发生了巨大的变化。在驱动国际贸易发展的众多因素当中，技术、物流、营销、政治、金融、电子商务、创新战略、社会和经济稳定、财富创造以及市场和区域经济发展成为决定国际贸易健康、良性发展的决定性因素。与其他有关国际贸易领域的专业课程相比，国际贸易实务是一门具有涉外经济活动特点、实践性极强的综合性专业课程。本书将上述决定性因素与国际贸易相关理论结合，对于帮助读者正确学习和理解上述因素，树立国际贸易领域专业标准，建立和健全投资意识具有重要作用。正如艾伦·E. 布兰奇在前言中所说：“贸易意味着财富和世界范围的政治影响力”。

在国际贸易领域，围绕国际贸易实务这门课程教学所撰写的教材种类繁多，但艾伦·E. 布兰奇所撰写的《出口实务与管理》（*Export Practice and Management*）自第1版面世以来，已经出版了5版。作者将自己50多年跨越25个国家的国际贸易咨询及教学实践经历和相关理论知识结合，简明扼要地讲述了出口实务与管理的相关知识，自出版以来便树立了其在国际贸易领域规范著作领域的领先地位。本书是根据该书第5版改编的。改编者结合自身20多年实践和教学经验，在保留原书精髓的同时，充分考虑我国高等院校国际贸易专业以往教学实践当中国外教材与中国现阶段对外贸易不匹配的问题。因此，本书适合我国高等院校国际市场营销、现代物流、国际航运业务管理的本科和硕士研究生作为教材使用，也可供参与国际商务领域相关职业资格证书考试的人员参考。

本书共有17章，可以分为三个部分。第一部分主要介绍出口实务和运输方式，由第1—6章构成，包括：

第1章：国际贸易，重点阐述了国际贸易的功能、国际贸易的现状和世界贸易组织，以及出口收益和风险；

第2章：国际运输方式的特征1，阐述了运输系统的作用和必要性、运河和内河航道、国际运输（航空、陆路和铁路）；

第3章：国际运输方式的特征2，阐述了集装箱化、集装箱集散、集装箱类型、集装箱基地、非集装箱化货物、内陆结关仓库、无水港、海运、管道、托盘化、海

港和海空概念；

第4章：多式联运，阐述了多式联运的理由、驱动因素以及策略；

第5章：物流和全球化，阐述了物流的作用、物流业务、物流发展因素、全球化因素和全球化经济发展。

第二部分主要介绍出口合同的要素，由第6—11章构成，包括：

第6章：运费率，阐述了运费率相关概念、组成要素、影响因素及不同种类运费率；

第7章：出口货物包装、装载和标记以及危险货物运输，阐述了货物包装影响因素及各种不同包装类型；

第8章：出口海关实务，阐述了增值税、关税、出口管制、出口单证和关税优惠；

第9章：货物保险，阐述了货物保险市场、基本原则及货物保险相关问题；

第10章：信用保险，阐述了出口信用保险；

第11章：出口融资，阐述了融资贸易周期、进出口价格及支付、信用证类型、出口融资方式。

第三部分主要介绍与战略投入相关的问题，由第12—17章构成，包括：

第12章：出口单证，阐述了各种类型的单证；

第13章：处理出口订单，阐述了《2000年国际贸易术语解释通则》等相关内容；

第14章：电子商务和无纸贸易，阐述了电子商务的概念和驱动因素、B2B模式和相应的案例研究；

第15章：出口市场准入选择权战略和文化，阐述了出口方式选择战略，以及如何适应进口地市场整体环境；

第16章：国际贸易法，阐述了国际贸易相关法律法规；

第17章：国际传统物流/国际物流战略和管理，阐述了国际物流战略管理。

在经济全球化背景下，如何贯彻落实党的十八大精神，实现我国对外贸易的“转变”与“创新”成为我国国际贸易领域当前教学与研究的焦点。改编者在充分保留原书精髓的基础上，紧密联系当前我国对外贸易发展的大环境，向读者充分展示了国际贸易全球性和贸易复杂性，重点强调管理和技术及电子商务对国际贸易的影响，并结合实例帮助学生充分理解。改编当中的不足和纰漏之处，恳请专家和读者指正。

陈岩

2014年2月

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CHAPTER 1

International trade

1.1 Scope of book

Since this book was first published 27 years ago, it has become an established standard work on the subject and the market leader in its field. Moreover, the pattern and complexity of world trade has changed enormously. Today it is a very high profile international business which is driven by many elements including technology, logistics, marketing, politics, finance, E-commerce, innovative strategies, social/economic well-being, wealth creation and the economic development of markets/regions. Overall, trade means wealth and political power and influence worldwide. It encourages investment and develops high professional standards. The fifth edition is the vehicle for knowledge and good practice to realise this objective.

Furthermore, trade has become increasingly complex and this is best exemplified by citing the exporter who hitherto designed, manufactured and assembled the product in the exporter's country. Today, more and more exporters are out-sourcing most of their components to take advantage of high-tech and lower cost and assembling the product in the importer's or third world country. Additionally, we are experiencing an enormous increase in Business to Business (B2B) and Business to Consumer (B2C) trade. Much of this is driven by E-commerce and logistics.

Hence, there is a paramount need for all involved in the conduct of international trade to be completely professional and focused on developing a competitive global product/service.

The book is structured in three parts: the export office and transport modes at the commencement; constituents of the export contract including finance, rates, customs and cargo/credit insurance; and finally a strategic input embracing execution of the export order, documentation, trade

law, market entry options, E-commerce, international physical distribution management and planning. The text contains, throughout, case studies and further recommended reading.

Basically, there are three major trading areas of the world: Europe incorporating the expanded European Union (25 countries and possibly 28 by 2007/08) and single market, North America featuring NAFTA and the Far East/Sub Continent featuring ASEAN, Japan, China and India.

An analysis of the growth in world merchandise trade by region 1995–2002 (Table 1.1) and by commercial services 1995–2002 (Table 1.2) is given below and merits close study. There is a particular focus on China and the EU.

The main driving force in the world economy remains trade and investment. Service trade will continue to grow faster than goods trade, and goods trade and investment will continue to grow faster than trade.

TABLE 1.1 Growth in the value of world merchandise trade by region, 2002 (Billion dollars and percentage)

Exports					Imports			
Value	Annual percentage change				Value	Annual percentage change		
2002	1995–00	2001	2002		2002	1995–00	2001	2002
6272	5	–4	4	World	6510	5	–4	4
946	6	–6	–4	North America ^a	1431	10	–6	2
350	10	–3	0	Latin America	350	9	–2	–7
2657	2	0	6	Western Europe	2659	3	–2	4
2449	2	0	6	European Union (15)	2447	3	–2	4
314	7	5	10	C./E. Europe/Baltic States/CIS	299	4	11	11
148	8	12	14	Central and Eastern Europe	177	9	9	11
107	5	–2	4	Russian Federation	61	–6	20	13
140	6	–6	2	Africa	135	0	2	2
244	12	–8	0	Middle East	178	4	6	7
1620	5	–9	8	Asia	1458	3	–7	6
417	2	–16	3	Japan	337	2	–8	–3
326	11	7	22	China	295	11	8	21
603	5	–12	6	Six East Asian traders	550	2	–13	4

^a Excluding Mexico throughout this report.

Note: It should be mentioned at the outset that there are breaks in the continuity of the figures at the country and regional levels.

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TABLE 1.2 Growth in the value of world trade in commercial services by region, 2002 (Billion dollars and percentage)

<i>Exports</i>					<i>Imports</i>			
<i>Value</i>	<i>Annual percentage change</i>				<i>Value</i>	<i>Annual percentage change</i>		
2002	1995–00	2001	2002		2002	1995–00	2001	2002
1570	4	0	6	World	1545	4	1	5
309	7	–3	1	North America ^a	248	9	–1	1
56	6	–2	–4	Latin America	65	5	1	–9
763	4	2	9	Western Europe	716	4	3	9
686	4	3	10	European Union (15)	669	4	3	9
60	2	7	10	C./E. Europe/ Baltic States/CIS	65	2	12	16
31	3	0	2	Africa	40	2	2	2
29	10	–10	–1	Middle East	45	5	–6	1
322	3	–1	7	Asia	367	2	–2	3
65	1	–7	2	Japan	107	–1	–7	0
39	10	9	20	China	46	8	9	18
150	3	–2	6	Six East Asian traders	137	3	–4	4

^a Excluding Mexico throughout this report.

Note: It should be mentioned at the outset that there are numerous breaks in the continuity of the figures at the country and regional levels due to frequent revisions to the trade in services data. See the Technical Notes.

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Overall, exporters worldwide are focusing their attention on developing a global strategy in their search for new markets and lower production costs. This embraces all the elements of export strategy which this text seeks to realise. Overall, it requires constant review in a changing market and the development of an export-led strategy. Basically, it requires complete professionalism at all levels of management – a feature extolled in this book.

1.2 Function of international trade

International trade is the process of exchanging goods or services between two or more countries, involving the use of the Euro or more currencies. Overall, it produces a more efficient employment of the productive forces of the world. Hence, it embraces two basic elements. First, it is carried out between two or more nations. Thus, when trade is executed beyond

national frontiers, it is invariably subject to political, social, economic, and environmental policies introduced by nations from time to time. To a large extent, such policies (though desirable from a national or trading bloc point of view) have either encouraged or hampered the free flow of merchandise in international trade. The second factor is the use of different currencies with their inherent exchange rate differentials – this is eliminated in the Euro-zone countries; the terms of trade; or alternatively the balance of trade. This produces a favourable result in some countries but unfavourable in others.

Study Table 1.1 featuring the growth in the value of world merchandise trade by region 1995–2002 and Table 1.2 detailing the growth in the value of world trade in commercial services by region 1995–2002. Factors contributing to Tables 1.1 and 1.2 include exchange rates and price developments; the depreciation of the United States dollar against the currencies of major traders in Asia and Western Europe; sluggish import demand in Western Europe; a short contraction of Latin America's imports constituted a drop on global trade expansion; China's trade expansion (both imports and exports) was three times faster than global trade and between 2000 and 2002 its exports and imports rose by 30 per cent – China has become the fourth largest merchandise trader (if one counts the EU as a single trader) in 2002; and chemicals emerged as the strongest trade growth during period 2000–2002. It must be emphasized that the aforementioned Chinese level of trade growth is not sustainable.

The foregoing demonstrates the range of factors contributing to why Nations trade with one another and these can be further exemplified in differences in taste, preferences and consumption patterns.

The rapid growth in international trade and specialization raises the question of the economic reasons for trade. Why does Japan export mainly manufactured goods and import principally raw materials? Why is the agricultural sector in the USA so different to that of the Netherlands? But most important of all, do countries gain or lose from opening up their boundaries to international trade?

The key to such questions lies in the theory of comparative advantage. This principle holds that a nation can raise its standard of living and real income by specializing in the production of those commodities or services in which it has the highest productivity or comparative advantage. The benefits of specialization may also be affected by transport costs: goods and raw materials have to be transported around the world and the cost of the transport will narrow the limits between which it will prove profitable to trade.

Extending the principle of comparative advantages a little further, where a country has 'absolute advantage' in the production of two or more

products, it is still beneficial to trade. For example, the USA may have a higher output per worker (or per unit output) than the rest of the world both in steel and computers. However, it might still benefit the USA to engage in trade – exporting computers (in which it is relatively more productive) and importing steel (in which it is relatively less productive). Similarly, a country will gain by trading with the USA, even if it is absolutely less efficient in the production of a range of goods. It is unrealistic to believe a country has no comparative advantage in anything. It may be the least efficient at everything, but it will still have a comparative advantage in the industry in which it is relatively least bad. Even if a country were the most efficient in every industry, giving it an absolute advantage in everything, it could not have a comparative advantage in everything. In some industries, its margin would be more impressive than in others.

Further examples of comparative and absolute advantage are as follows: country A is better than country B in manufacturing washing machines, and country B is better than country A at producing oranges. Hence, both would benefit if B specialized in oranges and A specialized in washing machines and they traded their products, thereby extolling the law of absolute advantage.

Comparative advantages arise if countries A and B trade with each other even if A is better than B at making everything. If A is superior at making washing machines but only slightly better at producing oranges, then A should still invest resources in what it does best – producing washing machines and export the product to country B.

However, country B should still invest in what it does best – producing oranges, and export that product to country A, even if it is not as efficient as country A. Both would still benefit from the trade. A country does not have to be best at everything to gain from trade. The theory goes back to classical economist David Ricardo. Every country has a comparative advantage.

To conclude our review of absolute advantage, a country with no absolute advantage should concentrate on the products and/or services which bring the greatest comparative advantage; and for a country having an absolute advantage in all lines of production, then it would still be worthwhile to enter into trade provided there are comparative advantages in certain commodities. In such circumstances, the country should concentrate on the products which bring the greatest comparative advantage. Trade will not take place, however, if there is no comparative advantage.

In examining the theory of comparative advantage it should be remembered that it assumes free trade which limits the benefits from specialization. Additionally, the theory ignores foreign exchange difficulties; fails to take account of transportation and logistics costs, where increasing costs can wipe out gains from trade; assumes constant cost of production