DiMatteo / Janssen / Magnus / Schulze

International Sales Law

A Handbook

Second Edition



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A Handbook

edited by

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Second Edition 2021



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Preface to the Second Edition

The first edition to this book was published in 2016. After very positive input from the publisher and colleagues, we decided to go forward with a second edition. Over the five years since the first edition, a number of developments required an updating of the text. The new edition incorporates these major changes including the enactment of the new French Civil Code in 2016, the new and expanded edition of the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts (PICC) in 2016, the publication of INCOTERMS 2020, and the adoption of the first comprehensive Chinese Civil Code (CCC), which will come into force on 1 January 2021.

In addition, the book has been updated to include the constantly developing case law and the rapidly increasing literature on international sales law. The numbers of updates are too many to name but include recent events, such as a discussion of COVID-19 as a force majeure event, more in-depth discussion of agency law. and additional sample or model clauses. The 'Additional Sources' section has been updated with references to new secondary sources and scholarship. Another change is that references to the Common European Sales Law (CESL) have been limited to those issues and topics where the CESL offers solutions to practitioners and scholars in resolving practical and theoretical problems.

The second edition's purpose is not only to refresh the contents of the earlier edition, but also to expand topical coverage. However, the limitations of a single volume book continue to require care in selecting the topics to be covered, among the myriad of issues relating to international sales transactions, especially given the vast number of specialized industries. In the end, the book attempts to balance the breadth and depth of coverage in order to provide an erudite single-volume text.

As can be seen from the list of contributors, there has been some changes in the circle of authors. We would like to thank the departing authors for their contributions to the first edition and welcome the new authors for bringing a fresh set of eyes to the evolving nature of international sales law. We are hopeful that practitioners, scholars, and students will continue to find the text a useful source on issues relating to transborder sales transactions. The editors' welcome constructive feedback and suggestions for the next edition. Please send your comments to André Janssen at andre.janssen@jur.ru.nl or Larry DiMatteo at larry.dimatteo@warrington.ufl.edu.

Finally, we hope you enjoy reading the new edition of our book!

November 2020,

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¹ Cf. Ahuja, European Review of Private Law (ERPL) (2017) 469–476; Fuglinszky, 83 Rabels Zeitschrift für ausländisches und internationales Privatrecht (RabelsZ) (2019) 192–199; Patti, Annuario di diritto civile (AdC) (2016) 360–363; Wollenweber, Die Rezensenten (2016), available at: http://dierezensenten.blogs pot.de; somewhat critical however Schwenzer, 83 Rabels Zeitschrift für ausländisches und internationales Privatrecht (RabelsZ) (2019) 190–192.

Preface

This treatise and practitioner guide is the outcome of a meeting of international sales law scholars held 27-28 September 2013. The purpose of the meeting was to provide a foundation for writing a comprehensive book that would be useful to teachers, scholars, and students of international sales law, as well as to act as a single volume reference guide for the international transactional lawyer. The group members set out the ambitious goal of providing a comprehensive and practical treatise on the complex and broad area of international sales law. The contributors come from numerous countries and include in alphabetical order the following international sales law scholars: Orkun Akseli (Durham University Law School), Michael Bridge (London School of Economics and Political Science), Petra Butler (Victoria University of Wellington), Michel Cannarsa (Catholic University of Lyon), Giuditta Cordero-Moss (University of Oslo), Larry A. DiMatteo (University of Florida), Sieg Eiselen (University of South Africa), Edoardo Ferrante (University of Turin), Harry M. Flechtner (University of Pittsburgh), Christian Fleischmann (University of Bayreuth), Claire M. Germain (University of Florida), Rafael Ilescas Ortiz (Carlos III University of Madrid), André Janssen (City University of Hong Kong), Sörren Kiene (Brandi Rechtsanwälte), Qiao Liu (University of Queensland and Xi'an Jiaotong University), Ulrich Magnus (University of Hamburg), Burghard Piltz (Ahlers & Vogel), Willibald Posch (University of Graz), Séverine Sainter (University of Exeter), Martin Schmidt-Kessel (University of Bayreuth), Reiner Schulze (University of Münster), Lisa Spagnolo (Monash University), Bruno Zeller (University of Western Australia), and Wentong Zheng (University of Florida).

For the civilians, a restatement or digest is generally a clarification of existing legal rules and principles. However, restating and clarifying existing case law has also been the goal of private law codification in common law countries. Examples include the United Kingdom Sale of Goods Act 1979 and the Real Property Law Statutes found in American state laws. These statutes intended purpose is to clarify an often expansive and chaotic case law. This book, however, follows the lead of the American *Restatements of Law*, which provides a descriptive summary of existing law while at the same time reaching normative conclusions on divergent approaches or interpretations found across nation states and international legal instruments. The book attempts to transcend divergences in national and supranational sales laws in providing alternative and practical solutions to the issues most relevant to international sales transactions.

This restatement of international sales law, by necessity, employs a comparative law approach. But, the comparative analysis goes beyond the traditional nation-to-nation or legal tradition versus legal tradition analyses. Globalization and regionalization in the marketplace has resulted in the production of numerous regional and international hard and soft law instruments. Thus, the book's work is not so much that of harmonization as it is of synthesis of a plurality of sources.

The current undertaking samples legal rules from various legal systems and international instruments. At the same time, the legal analysis in the book is placed in the context of international sales practice. It seeks to educate on alternative legal approaches to sales contract issues in order to provide practical advice on how the international transactional lawyer should address these issues in their contracts.

In the end, the book's immersion of various legal instruments—United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods (CISG), UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts (PICC), Principles of European Contract Law (PECL), the proposal for a Common European Sales Law (CESL), German Bürgerliches

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Gesetzbuch (BGB), Spanish Código Civil, French Code Civil, United Kingdom Sale of Goods Act 1979, American Restatement (Second) of Contracts, Uniform Commercial Code (UCC), and Chinese Contract Law—provides the base knowledge needed to understand the nuances of international sale law and to best represent business clients.

We would like to thank the sponsors that provided the funding for this endeavor: Levin College of Law (University of Florida), Warrington College of Business Administration (University of Florida), University of Florida Center for International Business Education and Research (CIBER), University of Florida Division of Research, and the Department of Management and Legal Studies at the Warrington College of Business. Finally, we kindly thank Aleksandra Socik and Jonathon Watson for their support in the preparation of this guide.

February 2016,

Gainesville, Florida Larry A. DiMatteo
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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Larry A. DiMatteo, André Janssen, Ulrich Magnus and Reiner Schulze

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A. What is International Sales Law?

The above question is a bit of a misnomer. The answer is that there is no one sales law, but many sales laws. Sales law is found mostly at the domestic level at least in its hard law versions – national contract and sales law, including those countries that have adopted the United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods (CISG). If one expands the definition of international sales law to include soft law instruments, then numerous other 'laws' would have to be considered in any comprehensive study of the subject. Soft law instruments may be divided into two groups – traditional *lex mercatoria* defined as business usages, customs and practices, as well as more comprehensive rules of law, such as the UNIDROIT Principles of International Commercial Contracts (PICC) or the Principles of European Contract Law (PECL).

This single volume treatise takes a comprehensive approach for the benefit of practitioners (lawyers, advocates, and solicitors), scholars, and students. However, in order to stay within the confines of a single volume, choices had to be made. Two organizational tools were implemented. First, the CISG was used as the 'core document'. Second, a representative sample of national sales laws is provided, as well as transnational soft law instruments, including, the traditional *lex mercatoria*. The best example of the latter source of law is the International Chamber's INCOTERMS manual. This coverage is a necessity due to the INCOTERMS universal acceptance in international trade and the importance of trade terms in international sales transactions (see Chapter 10 on "Trade Terms").

B. Sources of International Sales Law: Why the CISG?

As stated above, in cases where the CISG covers a topic, an extended commentary 3 is presented. However, samplings of national and soft laws are also provided as a means of comparison and where the CISG lacks coverage of an issue. The need for a comprehensive approach is echoed by the words of *Sir Roy Goode*:

The conception of sources of commercial law governing international transactions is much broader, ... encompassing the so-called lex mercatoria and a variety of forms of soft law, including model laws, legislative guides, contractually incorporated uniform rules, trade terms promulgated by international

Chapter 1 Introduction

business organizations and international restatements prepared by scholars from different legal families and jurisdictions.¹

This broader approach is necessitated by the fact that the CISG is not a comprehensive sales law instrument and that parties still often seem to opt-out of its application. *Filip de Ly* in *Sources of International Sales Law* notes:

[T]he CISG did not envisage a complete harmonization of international sales law. Rather, it took a realistic stand as to compromising the perceived need for unification with the constraints stemming from different factors, which made the unification effort difficult and overall unfeasible if not limited in scope. Diversity was, thus, inherent in the effort in the first place and the CISG did not raise false hopes or unwarranted expectations.²

- A harmonized international sales law has been an elusive quest for the better part of the 20th century. After lengthy deliberations the CISG was adopted on January 1, 1980. The main rationale for the adoption of such a law was the alleviation of the obstacle to trade represented by private international law (conflict of laws). *EA Farnsworth* discusses the problems presented by private international law and its 'solution' (contract clauses):
 - The uncertainty of the recognition of choice of law and forum selection clauses ('not every foreign court will conclude that it is ousted from jurisdiction by such clause[s].'3) and the
 - problem of getting to know of even proving the content of the chosen law in a foreign court.
- Despite the issues of comprehensiveness and opting-out, any attempt to understand international sales law must begin with an understanding of the provisions and applied meanings of the CISG. It is the singular international hard law instrument that has heavily influenced the harmonization of (international) sales law - either directly through adoptions as national law4 or indirectly as a model for the revision of national sales law or the EU acquis communautaire.⁵ In the sense of hard law, the CISG will automatically apply in many instances unless the contracting parties expressly exclude its application in a choice of law clause.⁶ In the early years since the CISG came into force, many practitioners chose to summarily exclude its' application. Unfortunately, there is little evidence to show that these were educated decisions.⁷ In fact, surveys have shown that international law practitioners and national courts are overwhelmingly not knowledgeable of the substantive provisions of the CISG. Intentional ignorance of the CISG by practitioners who simply opt-out through a choice of law clause is a mistake; practitioners who routinely exclude the CISG without being informed of its provisions are not doing their clients' a service and conduct malpractice. For example, when representing an exporter-seller it may be in the best interest of the client to choose

 $^{^{1}}$ Goode, Rule, Practice, and Pragmatism in Transnational Commercial Law, 54 $\mathit{Int'l}$ & Comp LQ (2005) 539, 541.

² de Ly, 'Sources of International Sales Law: An Eclectic Model', 25 J L & Com (2005-06) 1, 11.

 $^{^3}$ Farnsworth, 'The Pitfalls of Making International Contracts (Exporting)', 4 No Carolina J Int'l L & Com Reg (1978) 97, 101.

⁴ Most major trading nations have adopted the CISG as part of their domestic law including, Brazil, Canada, China, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Russian Federation, Spain, and United States.

⁵ By a significant degree, the CISG has influenced or is influencing the enacted or proposed national sales law revisions of France, Germany, Japan, Peoples' Republic of China, Spain, and The Netherlands. Cf. Janssen & Ahuja, 'Legal Laboratory CISG: A Successful Hybrid between Common Law and Civil Law?', 25 Vindobona Journal of International Commercial Law and Arbitration (VJ) (2017) 129, 146.

⁶ Article 6 CISG.

⁷ See Spagnolo, CISG Exclusion and Legal Efficiency (2014).

C. Commercial Practice, Business Custom and Trade Usage

the CISG or not expressly exclude it as applicable law. There are a number of pro-seller rules that a client would likely be inclined to take advantage of – the fundamental breach rule that forces the buyer to receive even substantially defective goods, the right to demand time extensions for deliveries beyond the delivery date in the contract and the strict duties placed on the buyer to examine and to notify of any non-conformity of the delivered goods. Without knowledge of these provisions, a practitioner may be acting against the client's best interests by excluding the CISG as applicable law. This disservice is especially acute given that the CISG is primarily a set of voluntary default rules that only come into play if there is an ambiguity or gap in the contract. The CISG expressly states that contracting parties may derogate from the CISG by simply incorporating contrary terms into their contracts. Therefore, the savvy international transactional practitioner could chose the CISG to take advantage of its pro-buyer, pro-seller, or 'neutral' provisions, while inserting contract terms that pre-empt the application of 'unfriendly' provisions found in the CISG.

In the end, the CISG is a good starting point, but, as noted above, it does not 7 comprehensively cover the entire range of issues that are pertinent to international sales transactions. ¹² Gaps in coverage in the CISG have been distinguished as 'internal' and 'external' gaps. ¹³ Internal gap is a bit of a misnomer as well since these are cases where the question in issue is within the scope of the CISG, but the CISG fails to provide a specific rule. In these cases, in the first place resort should be to CISG case law and numerous quality commentaries and other scholarly materials to examine the 'general principles' on which the Convention is based. The true 'external' gaps are those areas of sales or contract law that the CISG expressly or implicitly fails to cover, such as, pre-contractual liability, products liability, assignment and delegation of rights and duties, capacity, validity, and legality.

Due to the non-comprehensiveness of the CISG, the book offers a selection of various national laws and international legal instruments, which allows for a comparative law approach in order to show some of the commonality and divergences in sales laws. This sampling of laws is intended to enhance the reader's knowledge base on how different legal systems treat the traditional issues of sales law. The countries' laws reviewed include the laws of China, England (United Kingdom), France, Germany, Spain, and the United States.

C. Commercial Practice, Business Custom and Trade Usage

The CISG recognizes the importance of commercial practice, trade usage, and business custom (*lex mercatoria*) as a source of commercial law. Article 9(2) CISG reads:

The parties are considered, unless otherwise agreed, to have impliedly made applicable to their contract or its formation a usage of which the parties knew or ought to have known and which in international trade is widely known to, and regularly observed by, parties to contracts of the type involved in the particular trade concerned.

This provision has generated a debate over the meaning of its terms: (1) how does a court or tribunal determine if a party 'ought to have known'? (2) What is sufficiently

⁸ Article 25 CISG.

⁹ Articles 47, 48 & 63 CISG.

¹⁰ Articles 38 et seq CISG.

¹¹ Article 6 CISG.

¹² Articles 4 & 5 CISG.

¹³ Article 7(2) CISG.

'international'? (3) What is the threshold measure of 'widely known'? Is a regional usage or custom international enough? By international is a trade usage or custom in the two countries of the contracting parties sufficient? Is a party not in the trade or a new entrant to the trade responsible for knowing the relevant usage and customs at the time of entry? Is a trader doing business in a foreign country responsible for knowing the usage and customs widely observed in that country? An Austrian court took a very liberal view of the admissibility of trade usage and custom due to its importance to daily commercial practice:

Art. 9(2) CISG does not mean that, in the future, purely national or local usages can find no application for the interpretation and supplementation of contracts without an explicit reference by the parties. One can still presume an exception for usages, which are in force at certain stock markets, trade fairs or deposit sites, as long as the usage is also regularly observed there in the trade with foreigners. Furthermore, the possibility does not seem to be excluded that a foreign tradesman, who is constantly active in another country and has already formed a number of transactions there, is bound by possible national usages. ¹⁴

Sir Roy Goode notes that the importance of trade usage in international transactions is a normal outcome in the era of free and expanding trade. There has been, for a while an increasing movement away from domestic international trade law to what has become known as 'transnational commercial law.' This, according to Goode, is that body of law that 'result[s] from the harmonisation or convergence of national laws, whether by international convention, conscious or unconscious judicial parallelism, uniform rules.' This idea of a transnational commercial law is borne out by the widespread adoption of the CISG, EU incursions into private law, increased specialization and professionalization of trades (more uniform international trade usage), and the use of the CISG as a model in the reforming of national laws. Goode defines transnational commercial law as follows:

Transnational commercial law is conceived as law which is not particular to or the product of any one legal system but represents a convergence of rules drawn from several legal systems or even, in the view of its more expansive exponents, a collection of rules which are entirely anational and have their force by virtue of international usage and its observance by the merchant community. In other words, it is the rules, not merely the actions or events that cross national boundaries.¹⁶

- The sampling of laws in this Treatise reflects the commonality of rules found across legal systems and especially across soft law instruments.
- The phrase 'ought to know' indicates that actual subjective knowledge of trade usage is not needed; such knowledge will be imputed to a party through an objective standard. In determining what the contracting parties 'ought' to have known, the legal literature takes a broad view of the admissibility of evidence of trade usage. In the scenario of a new entrant to the market, one asserts that widely known is an independent, objective determination that trumps the subjective lack of understanding of a new entrant and that not all members of a trade need be aware of the usage.¹⁷
- In sum, it is always important to remember, that whether the applicable law is the CISG or a domestic law, practices developed between businesspersons in individual industries and business-types play a powerful role in international business transactions. What seems to be a clear contract term, with a clear dictionary and legal meaning, may

 $^{^{14}}$ Appellate Court Graz 9 November 1995, English translation available at http://cisgw3.law.pace.edu/c ases/951109a3.html#cx.

¹⁵ Goode, Commercial Law in the Next Millennium (1998), p. 88.

¹⁶ Goode, 'Usage and its Reception in Transnational Commercial Law', 46 Int'l & Comp LQ (1997) 1, 2.

¹⁷ Magnus, Kommentar zum Bürgerlichen Gesetzbuch mit Einführungsgesetz und Nebengesetzen, Wiener UN-Kaufrecht (CISG) (17th edn. 2018) Article 9 CISG paras 21 et seq.

D. Ambiguities and Gaps

in fact be trumped by an alternative meaning taken from outside of the contract (trade usage and technical meaning). For example, when goods are sold 'as is' the common and legal meaning is that the seller is disclaiming any implied warranties of quality. Thus, the buyer takes the goods and assumes any costs related to defects within the goods.

'As is' clauses do not disclaim the implied warranty of title. However, a properly worded clause may disclaim defects in title. But, even the generally accepted disclaimer of quality implied by the 'as is' term can be questioned. If a very high percentage of the goods prove to be defective, then the question of misrepresentation may be raised:

Even in 'as is' practice, the seller has a duty to act honestly and reasonably. One gauge of such dishonesty is the representation of quality implied by the price charged. If the 'as is' price is half of the normal price (assuming no salvage value for defective goods and 90 percent of the goods prove to be defective), then it can be argued that the seller had misrepresented the quality or value of the goods and therefore a serious downward adjustment of the price paid by the buyer is in order. 18

Filip de Ly concludes that 'even a fully-disclosed, selfish version of a practice is subject to the requirements of honesty, reasonableness, and fairness, especially because more than a fair price was paid by the 'as is' purchaser.'19 This argument may be considered weak in dealings between sophisticated parties or where the buyer had a right of inspection, but it does make a valuable point. Trade usage and common legal meaning generally are powerful elements of contract interpretation, but they are also subject to nullification in a given context.

D. Ambiguities and Gaps

Numerous contract disputes resolved by arbitrators or judges often entail the overcoming of an ambiguity via interpretation or the filling in of a gap in order to 'salvage' the contract. But, at its most rudimentary level, interpretation and gap-filling are the ways of picking a winner or a loser. Gap here is broadly defined and includes cases where the issue (obligation or risk allocation) in dispute is not provided for in the contract or the contract includes an 'open term' ('consensual gap'). An ambiguity, although technically not a gap, requires to seek clarification outside of the written contract as if there was a gap. Of course there are other reasons for a contract dispute, where one party argues that a provision is ambiguous when in fact the arbiter determines it has a clear meaning or where liability is not contested but the amount of damages is in dispute.

Different approaches are found in the Common Law and Civil Law jurisdictions in 17 relation to dealing with contractual ambiguities and gaps. In respect of the latter, the interpretation of the contract by an arbitrator and judge is often particularly broad. For example, § 157 of the German Civil Code provides that contracts are to be interpreted as required by good faith, in consideration of customary practice; § 133 of the German Civil Code stipulates that the interpretation of a declaration of intent requires the ascertainment of the true intention rather than adhering to the literal meaning of the declaration. Moreover, case law and doctrine have developed the 'supplementary interpretation of contracts': if a contract contains an intentional or unintentional gap that cannot be filled by dispositive legal provisions, the judge or arbitrator is to determine the parties' 'hypothetical intent' in order to fill the gap. Ascertaining such intent necessitates an enquiry into the manner in which fair and reasonable parties would have regulated the matter in

¹⁸ Kozolchyk, 'Drafting Commercial Practices and the Growth of Commercial Contract Law', 30 Arizona J Int'l & Comp L (2013) 423, 426.

¹⁹ de Ly (n 2), p. 426.

accordance with good faith; in so doing the judge must particularly consider the purpose of the contract and balance the interests of each party.

Despite the different theoretical approaches, the judge or arbitrator in a Common Law jurisdiction can probably often come to similar results if he or she considers that filling in gaps is almost never truly due to a contract's silence. The contract as a whole (textual) and the type of contact (contextual) serve as guides in the filling in the 'technical gaps' at issue. In the words of US Supreme Court Justice Stephen Breyer, there is 'no such answer' that a contract is 'truly silent' - for if 'it doesn't say, you try to figure it out.'20 Justice Anton Scalia supports Breyer's supposition in stating: 'I really don't understand what it means to say that the contract does not cover it. (...). If the contract is silent, either the court or the arbitrator has to decide, what is the consequence of that silence, in light of the background, in light of implied understandings.²¹ Still, under the Common Law, there is the belief that certain types of gaps can prove to be fatal. In such cases, the Common Law rule is that the contract fails due to indefiniteness and it is not appropriate for the court to make a contract for the parties (hypothetical bargain). But, courts concluding that the parties' intended to enter a contract, and in many cases have begun performance, can 'recognize' that omitted terms are simply not 'fully specified obligations' making the contract not sufficiently indefinite to deny a party's day in court. In contrast, arbitrators do not have such a burden and often can draw from a more abundant amount of sources. Alternatively, there may be a greater array of default rules in international transactions if arbitrators look not only to national law, but also international soft law.²² Therefore, they are often more willing and able to fill in so-called 'fatal gaps.'²³ This Treatise provides numerous sample clauses and practitioner's tips in the hope that fewer gaps will appear in international sales contracts.

The problem of gaps is often the product of the unknowingness or uncertainty of future events. However, a good contract drafter, although not any more prescient than other humans, can provide strategic clauses that provide a means to deal with such uncertainty. For example, contracts often incorporate general clauses (example: renegotiation clause) that diminish the existence of contractual gaps: Almost all areas can be covered under a contract 'using blanket clauses to cover those [events or issues], which are not foreseeable' and in such a case an arbitral tribunal would not be 'faced with the task of gap-filling, but rather with that of interpreting and applying [concretization] the contractual regulations in an equitable manner.'24 Outside of general clauses, the next order of gap-filling comes from the default rules of sales law, some of which act like blanket clauses, such as the duty of good faith, duty to cooperate, excessive unfairness (hardship), and so forth.

Another issue is one of evidence. No matter how detailed a contract there is always room (divergence) between the party's agreement or intent and the written contract: 'experience shows that despite – sometimes sophisticated and detailed – written agreements, the parties in addition expressly agree on oral terms and intend them to outlast the execution of the written agreement.'25 The CISG recognizes the nonsensical imposition of rules that serve to exclude clearly probative extrinsic evidence from a contract dispute

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²⁰ Oral Argument, Stolt-Nielsen S.A. v Animalfeeds Int'l Corp., 2009 WL 4662509, as paraphrased by Rau, "Gap-Filling" by Arbitrators, Energy Center Research Paper No. 2014-03, available at https://repositories.lib.utexas.edu/bitstream/handle/2152/28755/2014_06_Gap-Filling-by-Arbitrators.pdf?sequence=2).

²¹ Id.

²² DiMatteo, 'Principle of Fair and Equitable Decision-making in International Contract Arbitration and its Affinity to International Soft Law', 1 *Chinese J Comp L* (2013) 1.

²³ Kröll, 'Contractual Gap-Filling by Arbitration Tribunals', 3 IntALR (1999) 9, 13.

²⁴ Nicklisch, 'Agreement to Arbitrate to Fill Contractual Gaps', 5 J Int'l Arb (1988) 35, 41.

²⁵ Müller, Protecting the Integrity of a Written Contract (2013), p. 1.

E. Restatement Approach

resolution. In fact, international contract law instruments generally reject the parol evidence rule and allow for the unrestricted admissibility of extrinsic evidence for the purpose of interpretation. Again, commercial arbitrators are less constrained by formal rules and are more adept at using trade usage and soft law instruments in their quest for a fair and equitable decision. In reality, despite a lack of 'protective rules' (parol evidence rule, textual interpretation), the written contract, complete on its face, still, at the minimum is strong probative evidence or acts as a rebuttal presumption of the parties' agreement. Outside of the formalities and interpretive rules provided by law, contracts are commonly protected from contradiction or change by 'voluntarily' agreed upon clauses, such as the 'merger clause' and the 'no oral modification clause.' In reality, these are standard boilerplate terms that parties are unaware of (no oral modification) or understand (merger clause). The parties often believe that they are not bound by such terms in the fast-paced world of business – where changes in performance obligations are common and the parties need to react quickly to a change of circumstances through oral communications.

E. Restatement Approach

International legal practice draws from many different sources. For example, courts and especially arbitrators may draw from different hard and soft law sources. International transactional lawyers may also use such sources as references in the drafting of contracts. By doing so, they invariably affect 'real world' commercial practice. This Treatise also draws on numerous laws and provides both descriptive (law interpretation) and prescriptive (best practice) guidance.

International commercial law, whether drawn from hard or soft law instruments, is inherently a reflection of domestic laws. The 2008 financial crisis demonstrated the interconnectedness of the world's economy. The era of free trade has seen the reduction of many barriers to expanding wealth through the vehicle of exporting-importing of goods and services. Both qualitative (lower tariff rates) and quantitative (quotas) barriers to trade have been greatly diminished. The result has been a greater realization of the specialization of labor envisioned by *Adam Smith* and other philosophers. With the removal of artificial barriers to trade, countries are generally freer to undertake the production of things that they are most efficient at producing for export and meeting the rest of their needs through international trade.

However, we do not live in a world of a fully functional free trade regime, that is, barriers remain or even stronger having a comeback as the Chinese-US trade war illustrates. Countries still have a long way to progress in the harmonization of standards (safety, health, environmental, and so forth); the divergence of which continue to restrict the free flow of goods and services. Another barrier is based on the essential function that law, especially contract law, plays in facilitating international business transactions. The necessity for the use of conflict of law or private international law rules produces unwanted uncertainty to transborder transactions. National courts use their own conflicts of law rules to determine the applicable substantial law to be applied to a dispute and at times selecting a law to the surprise of one or both of the parties. The use of a choice of law clause, although common, fails to provide absolute certainty that a court will actually apply the chosen law. The court may decide not to apply the choice of law in

²⁶ Id. at 1.

²⁷ Id. at 2.

cases where they determine the law is not closely connected to the dispute or where the provisions of the chosen law contravene public policies of the forum court.

Because of the uncertainty caused by private international law or conflict of laws and the barrier presented by the numerous discrepancies found across national contract and sales laws the goal of a harmonized international sales law took shape. In the early 20th century, most notably in the work of *Ernst Rabel*,²⁸ a greater recognition of the need for a uniform international sales law came into focus. The culmination of numerous starts and failures in crafting a functional harmonized law of sales was the adoption of the CISG in 1980 and its subsequent entry into force on January 1, 1988.

This Treatise takes a 'CISG plus' approach to international sales law by focusing on its provisions while providing other legal sources to allow a comparative analysis. The other sources become especially important in areas in which the CISG is silent. The 'restatement approach' includes elements of the 'is' and the 'ought.' It primarily describes the law as it is, but where there are alternative rules or approaches, the restatement approach provides analysis and suggests the better approach. These suggestions include illustrations, sample clauses, and practitioner tips on how best to deal with such issues within the confines of the contract. The terms legal treatise and restatement of law are interchangeable terms. The goal of the American Restatements is given as the distilling of commonly held legal rules, recognition of trends in the law, and recommendations as to what an interpretation of the rules 'should be.' The difference with the current undertaking is that the American Restatements deal with discrete areas of law and involve a review of the law of a single legal system. Thus, the goals of the current project are less ambitious than those of the American Restatements. The current Treatise is simply an attempt to inform readers of the general principles and areas of international sales law. However, given the diversity of the legal sources used, it retains the twin elements of the American Restatements - the 'is and ought' of international sales law.

F. International Transactional Lawyering

Legal systems have rules of conduct or ethical codes that regulate the practice of law, though these rules are not uniform in their views of the appropriate role of lawyers. However, it is universally held that a licensed lawyer or attorney should render competent counsel. The American Bar Association's Model Rules of Professional Conduct Rule 1.1 on the lawyer's duty to maintain competence in her field states: '[t]o maintain the requisite knowledge and skill, a lawyer should keep abreast of changes in the law and its practice.'29 The complete disregard of a full understanding of the substantive rules of the CISG by an international transactional lawyer (by a perfunctory opting-out) is not within the spirit of Rule 1.1. As noted previously, competent legal practitioners should educate themselves on the law before making a decision on whether or not to opt-out the CISG.

The second element in transactional lawyering worth mentioning is the skewered view of the other party's lawyer as an adversary. American legal education buttresses this view of the adversarial nature of legal representation, which may work well in the American model of litigation, but is a poor approach in the area of transactional

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²⁸ Rabel, Das Recht des Warenkaufs, Eine rechtsvergleichende Darstellung, two volumes (1936 and 1957).

²⁹ Model Rules of Professional Conduct Review 1.1 cmt. 8 (2012) (defining competence); see also Resolution Amending the Model Rules of Professional Conduct, Am Bar Ass'n, http://www.americanbar.org/content/dam/abaladministrative/ethics_2020/2012hodannualmeeting_105 a filedmay-2012.authcheckda m.pdf.

G. Drafting Approach

law.30 In several Civil Law jurisdictions, lawyers are, at least in theory, accustomed to a different perspective because good faith and fair dealing play a central role in their domestic law in relation to pre-contractual negotiations, conclusion, and execution of contracts. However, the function of such concepts in domestic law and in domestic practice may be (though this may vary in the latter), that a transactional lawyer cannot solely consider the other party or its counsel as an adversary. She must be more strategic in her approach to the negotiation and drafting of contracts. The adversarial model of drafting sees the lawyer's job as using its clients bargaining power to draft as one-sided a contract as possible. The contract is viewed as an opportunity to gain as many rights for its client and to allocate as many risks or duties as possible to the other party. This is the wrong approach if the client's primary interest is to ensure satisfactory performance and outcome rather than posturing itself to be able to more easily declare a breach and seek legal recourse. If the client's goal is the actual performance of the contract and the preservation of the contractual relationship, then a different approach is needed. If that is the goal, then the job of the transactional attorney is to draft a contract that advances client interest, which includes the mutual interests shared with the other party. The international sales contract, especially long-term, relational ones, need to be more than a simple listing of rights and duties, it should also include deal-preserving provisions. The end goal of contract drafting should be the preservation of the contract relationship rather than a pedantic enforcement of contract rights. This is most important in international transactions where the finding of a trustworthy and reliable foreign party to do business is more difficult, and, hence, the contract should focus on the preservation of that relationship over the allocation and enforcement of rights-duties in a single transaction.

G. Drafting Approach

Even though this is not a treatise on contract drafting, the book provides numerous 28 contract clauses and practitioner tips. It is important to understand that these are provided for purposes of illustration and not as 'model' terms. The actual terms should be a product of context – type of transaction; type of goods; countries of export-import; applicable law; choice of forum or arbitration clause; characteristics of the parties; discrete versus relational nature of the transaction; and relative bargaining power, sophistication, and informational assets of the parties.

One issue of drafting peculiar to international contracting is whether or not to use legal terminology or legalese in the contract. There are two viewpoints on the use of legal language. First, the use of 'magic' legal words or phrases is appropriate if they actually simplify the contract.³¹ This would be the case of phrases that are universally known and provide a shortcut to conveying the intended meaning of the parties. The classic example would be the use of INCOTERMS in which a three-letter acronym is inserted into the contract. That acronym replaces at least a few pages of text that lawyers would need to draft. Without such a short-cut, the drafting lawyer would need to allocate risk of loss, transfer of title, costs of transport, cost of insurance, costs of

³⁰ The distinction between transactional and litigation lawyers is captured in the English legal system's designations of solicitors and barristers. Often the barrister is hired by a solicitor and may or may not have fiduciary duties toward the solicitor's client. See Macgregor, Definition and scope of agency law, in: DiMatteo & Hogg (eds), Comparative Contract Law: British and American Perspectives (2015).

³¹ Johnson, Say the Magic Word: A Rhetorical Analysis of Contract Drafting Choices (2015), available at http://scholars.law.unlv.edu/facpub/897/?utm_source=scholars.law.unlv.edu%2Ffacpub%2F897&utm_me dium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages.

loading and off-loading of goods, procurement of export licenses, processing of import documents, payments of tariffs and fees, and so forth. The key to the use of such trade terms is that they are universally accepted and understood. Another example, at least in Common Law, is the insertion of a 'time of the essence clause' to signal that the delivery date fixed in the contract is a firm and material term. However, the magic words of a given legal system should be avoided in the international sales context, unless a phrase is clearly defined.

Again the primary goal of the Treatise is to provide an analysis of different substantive laws relating to issues relevant to international sales transactions. There are some areas of great importance that are not covered in the text, but two will be mentioned here – use of definitions and recitals. The use of recitals or statements of fact and definitions are common in international contracts. The definitions section generally appears very early in the contract, however, sometimes definitions are dispersed throughout the document. It seems that the best strategy is to place the definitions of 'general terms' at the front of the contract so that the reader is educated at the beginning on the intended meanings of certain words. More particularized terms that only appear in a given part of the contract should be defined at the beginning of the specific coverage area and whose meaning is restricted to that area. This way the word or term would have a specific or technical meaning for the specific provisions and a general meaning when used elsewhere in the document.

The point here is that the time spent drafting clear definitions, especially the defining of words and terms, is time well spent. Given the dangers of translation errors, various levels of foreign language skills, and cross-cultural misunderstanding, the provision of detailed definitions goes a long way in preventing disputes based upon different interpretations of words or misunderstandings of the rights and obligations of the contracting parties.

Good contract drafting places a premium on clarity and commonality of meaning. The best way to perform this task is to provide precise definitions of terms, especially technical terms and those terms that may be foreign to one of the parties. Precise definitions, when possible, should be used in place of terms like 'reasonable,' 'to be determined', 'as needed', and so forth. The drafting attorney should always ask what is reasonable. What is a reasonable time to provide notice? What is a reasonable time for terminating a contract? What is a reasonable time for the buyer to provide product specifications to the seller?

The use of recitals is common in contract practice in some Common Law countries, but in many countries the use of recitals is not commonplace. The recitals are found at the front of the contract to describe the context and the matter to be covered by the contract. Recitals are signaled often by antiquated phrases like 'Whereas' or "Now therefore'. Some courts have held that recitals are not part of the contract. Two points are important to understand. First, recitals should be avoided unless the practice of recitals is common in the law of the country where the contract is to be interpreted and enforced. It is also good practice to 'repeat' the recitals where appropriate elsewhere in the contract, to guard against the problem of courts not recognizing recitals as part and parcel to the contract. Second, it is best to keep recitals as concise and clear as possible. They should act as an introduction to the contract; they should not provide information or representations not central to the contract. Recitals are representations that if proved to be false could provide a ground for a cause of action in misrepresentation or fraud.

I. Electronic Contracting

H. The Sales Contract

It was once said that: 'An oral contract is not worth the paper it is written on.'32 This 34 is especially true in the area of international contracts due to the greater likelihood of misunderstanding due to language and cultural differences. EA Farnsworth has argued that generally the language of an international contract should be English because of its widespread use.³³ He also recommends that if the contract is written in more than one language then an express provision should state that even though both language versions are original contracts the English version controls in case of conflict (of course he was giving this advice to American practitioners, but an argument can be made that English is the logical choice because of its common use in international business transactions). A further discussion of language issues can be found in Chapter 2 (Language and Translation).

Another problem with sales contracting is the contract generally consists of two separate instruments that make up the offer and acceptance, such as price quotations, pro forma invoices, purchase orders, written confirmations, commercial invoices, and so forth. This leads to the infamous battle of the forms scenario and its tandem of questions: (1) has a contract been formed despite conflicting standard terms? And (2) if a contract is concluded, what are the terms of the contract given the conflicting terms? The problematic nature in the exchange of forms scenario is demonstrated by the American Uniform Commercial Code's § 2-207, long regarded as one of the most poorly drafted provisions of the UCC. It has spawned an endless number of scholarly commentaries and resulted in three approaches in the state court systems – first shot rule, second or last shot rule, and the knock-out rule.

The simplest method of avoiding the battle of forms scenario, but uncommon in 36 practice, is to use a single 'model contract' (example: ICC model contracts for sales of good and commercial agency) that both parties sign eliminating the threat of conflicting terms. Given the impracticality of the use of model forms, EA Farnsworth suggests the insertion in the offer of a provision demanding that the other party accept by signing and returning the offer. The issues and problems of the exchange of standard forms will be discussed in Chapter 8 (Formation of Contract) and Chapter 9 (Standard Terms).

I. Electronic Contracting

This Treatise does not contain a Chapter dedicated to electronic contracting, al- 37 though issues of electronic contracting are referred to sporadically in the text. This decision was made for the reason of scarcity of space and, more importantly, because the internet is viewed here as a means of communication that does not change the substantive rules of international sales law. Instead, we have elected to provide a brief discussion of e-contracting here. During the drafting of the CISG, the internet was yet to be created and the use of electronic or e-commerce or digital tools in general was just beginning. The closest predecessor to e-commerce was the use of Electronic Data Exchange (EDI) to facilitate transactions in established business relationships. Article 13 CISG only refers to telegrams and telex and shows that the CISG does not have a 'digital mindset'. However, the CISG's acceptance of these types of electronic technologies that existed at the time indicates that the new technologies should also be recognized within

 $^{^{32}}$ Goldwyn, reprinted in: Bartlett, *Familiar Quotations* (14th ed. 1968), p. 967.

³³ Farnsworth, 'The Pitfalls of Making International Contracts (Exporting)', 4 No Carolina J Int'l L & Com Reg (1978) 97, 97–98.

the scope of Article 13 CISG. Thus, the CISG might not have a 'digital mindset', but it has at least an 'open mindset' to cover some digital age problems. Nation-states have passed statutes to deal directly with the use of electronic means in the formation of contracts. For example, a majority of US states have adopted the Uniform Electronic Transactions Act (UETA).

Due to the influence of EU directives, the domestic laws of the EU member states require that commercial parties satisfy a number of duties in order to create an enforceable (consumer) contract through electronic means. § 312i(1) of the German Civil Code for example lists a number of duties relating to electronic business dealings. The entrepreneur (seller) must 'provide the customer with reasonable, effective and accessible technical means with the aid of which the customer may identify and correct input errors prior to making his order; notify the customer clearly and comprehensibly of information specified in the statutory order under Article 246 c of the Introductory Act to the Civil Code [Einführungsgesetz zum Bürgerlichen Gesetzbuch] in good time prior to sending his order; confirm receipt of the order without undue delay by electronic means for the customer; and make it possible for the customer to retrieve the contract terms including the standard business terms when the contract is entered into and save them in a form that allows for their reproduction.' Other national laws of EU member states foresee similar provisions.

Other harmonization instruments developed at the international level include: UNCITRAL's Model Law on Electronic Commerce (1996)³⁴ and Model Law on Electronic Signatures in 2001.³⁵ In 2001, the CISG-Advisory Council was formed and in 2003 it published its first Opinion – Opinion 1: 'Electronic Communications under the CISG.' Subsequently a more comprehensive international model law was adopted – the 2005 UN Convention on the Use of Electronic Communications in International Contracts, which entered into force March 1, 2013.³⁶

Chapter 7's coverage of formalities will provide a fuller discussion of electronic contracting in that area. For now, we can say that most domestic laws, for purposes of writing and signature formalities, recognize electronic records as equivalent to the written form and accept electronic signatures, attestation, confirmation, and attribution (uniqueness of every person's e-mail address) as sufficient to constitute a legal signature. Although technological advancements and the ubiquitous nature of the internet have created new products (informational commodification), they have not been a real obstacle to the formation of contracts under the CISG. In fact, they have provided parties greater flexibility in the formation of contracts, revocation of offers, the modification of contracts, and the ability to provide prompt notice as required under various CISG provisions. This is as it should be since an underlying principle of the CISG is the elimination of formalities in the formation of contracts. However, it is important to note that technology continues to shape the process of exporting and importing in such areas as the tracking of the movement of goods through the use of radio-frequency identification (RFID) tracking chips.³⁷ Tracking chips can be affixed to cargo pallets to allow a multitude of parties (sellers, buyers, freight forwarders, customs officers) to be instantaneously informed of the:

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³⁴ Text available at www.uncitral.org/uncitral/uncitral_texts/electronic_commerce.html.

³⁵ Text available at www.uncitral.org/uncitral/en/uncitral_texts/electronic_commerce/2001Model_sign

³⁶ See Eiselen, 'Integration of the UN Electronic Communications Convention and the United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods', in: Schwenzer, Atamer & Butler (eds), *Current Issues in the CISG and Arbitration* (2014), pp. 145–65.

³⁷ They are based upon the wireless use of electromagnetic fields to transfer data, for the purposes of automatically identifying and tracking tags attached to objects.

J. Treatise's Coverage

unit counts of merchandise in the boxes, the geo-location of the boxes, the sealed condition of the containers, the integrity of the hold in the cargo ship and, with all of that information, the projected time of arrival, unloading and transfer velocity, duration of ground transport, and the sufficiency of the crews and personnel scheduled at each location through which the goods will move. Any adverse changes in any conditions, including increased headwinds the cargo ship captain must navigate, are immediately inputted into the data flows, enabling all of the schedules, workloads, and related cost impacts to be instantly calculated and, if suitable, allocated among the different parties.³⁸

Technology has enhanced the means to construct and transmit business records and information in digital forms. It also now plays a significant role in just-in-time contracting and the evolution of network contracting. In the end, the transactional lawyer cannot avoid recognizing the role of new technologies on the supply chain. The lawyer will likely need to draft contract terms that take these technologies into account. In some cases, technological advancements may require the lawyer to 'work as part of a corporate team that includes information architects, security managers, records managers, auditors, and financial executives, as well as business operations managers.' This is merely an extension of an old idea that law and the representation of clients is a lifelong learning experience!

J. Treatise's Coverage

This Treatise's goal is to provide in a single volume a review of laws, issues, and contract terms related to the international sale of goods. It aims to provide a single reference book for the practitioner, academic, and student. It draws and synthesizes a wide range of materials from hard and soft law instruments, international and national legal instruments, and from practice. The practice material focuses on the legal practice of an international transactional lawyer, but will also look to commercial practice in general. Its approach is international, comparative, and cosmopolitan in nature. International in its use of core materials such as the CISG, the PICC, the PECL, and to a lesser extent the proposed and subsequently withdrawn CESL (reference only if it contains a diverging and innovative approach). It is comparative in that it reviews differences between the Civil Law and Common Law approaches to certain issues through a sampling of national laws. It is cosmopolitan in nature in that it seeks to go well beyond an analysis of what 'the' law is or what it should be, but to offer options to the lawyer that can be utilized in the interest of different clients. The book, thusly, is descriptive, normative, and ultimately agnostic in its presentation.

The Chapters, more or less, follow in general a 'template', which is to be explained here. It is important for the reader to understand the template and its constituent parts before reading the book. This is due to the fact that the table of contents does not repeat the template for each of the Chapters, but, instead, lists the substantive issues found in the commentary, illustrations, and practitioner tips of each Chapter. The template includes the following parts: (1) description of the 'Topics Covered'; (2) an 'Introductory Note'; (3) 'Statement of Issues' (to be covered in the Chapter); (4) the role or uniqueness of the topic in the 'International Sales Transaction'; (5) 'Sampling of Laws'—the following laws or materials have been singled out for coverage when appropriate: (i) CISG, (ii) CISG Advisory Council Opinions, (iii) PICC, (iv) PECL, (v) Proposed CESL (as said before reference only if it contains a diverging and innovative approach), (vi) German

 $^{^{38}}$ Ritter, 'Designing and Constructing Commercial Agreements in the 21st Century', 26 St Thomas L Rev (2014) 506, 506.

³⁹ *Id.* at 509.

Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch (BGB), (vii) French Code civil, (viii) Spanish Código civil, (ix) Anglo-American Common Law of contracts, (x) American Uniform Commercial Code (UCC), (xi) UK Sales of Goods Act, (xii) American Restatement (Second) of Contracts, (xiii) Chinese Law (with the main focus on the new Chinese Civil Code, the CCC), and (xiv) Chinese Supreme Court Interpretations;⁴⁰ (6) 'Commentary' beginning with applicable CISG case law and then applying the above listed laws (especially, when the CISG does not cover a certain issue or area of contract law), offering generic differences between Common Law and Civil Law, indicating general international commercial practice, and offering a 'best view' of the issues; this analysis is intended to be descriptive, comparative, and evaluative; (7) 'Illustrations' offer examples of law in practice, ferrets outs tangential issues, and gives hypothetical examples; (8) 'Cross References' to other Chapters in the book, related contract clauses, and additional commentary; (9) 'Practitioner Tips & Contract Clauses', and (10) 'Additional Sources' for further study. Again, while the above template remains mostly consistent throughout the Treatise, the substantive issues covered are found in the 'Detailed Table of Contents.' However, it has to be stresses that the contributors of this Treatise were completely free to derogate from the presented template in form and content when their topics were not best presented by the template.

The Treatise attempts to be comprehensive given the practical constraints of page limitations, covering the entire contractual timeline from the negotiation phase to post-contractual obligations. It begins with the preliminary, but important, topic of the role of language in the writing and interpretation of international legal instruments and contracts (Chapter 2), before proceeding to the issue of pre-contractual liability. This area covers duties relating to the negotiation of a contract and the use of preliminary instruments. The later issue seeks to define the line between negotiation and contractually binding agreement. Since Civil Law and Common Law diverge here two separate Chapters are offered (Chapter 3 from a Civil Law perspective and Chapter 4 from a Common Law perspective). The next group of Chapters relate in some way to the conclusion or formation of contracts and their contents, expressed or implied: Chapter 5 reviews the 'Scope of the CISG' and Chapter 6 deals with 'Jurisdictional Issues'; Chapter 7 reviews 'Contractual Formalities'; Chapter 8 analyzes the rules relating to the 'Formation of Contract'; Chapter 9 examines the incorporation and enforceability of 'Standard Terms'; Chapter 10 discusses the vital role played by 'Trade Terms and INCOTERMS'; and Chapter 11 examines the doctrines and principles that determine the 'Validity of Contract Terms'.

The next group of Chapters relate to the performance phase of the contract: Chapter 12 reviews the duty related to the 'Delivery of Goods'; Chapter 13 does a similar examination relating to the 'Delivery of Documents'; Chapters 14 and 15 examine issues of conformity and warranties; Chapter 14 covers 'Conformity of Goods' and Chapter 15 'Sales and Intellectual Property Rights' (warranty of title); Chapter 16 reviews the buyers obligations relating to the 'Examination of Goods and Notice of Non-Conformities'; Chapter 17 delineates where performance ends and breach begins – 'Performance and Breach of Contract'; Chapter 18 examines the particular case of 'Anticipatory Breach'; and finally, Chapter 22 examines exemption from liability for lack of performance provided by the excuse doctrines: 'Excuse: Impossibility and Hardship.'

Another group of Chapters deal with the allocation of liability and remedies: Chapter 19 examines 'Remedies and Damages'; Chapter 20 covers the right to 'Avoidance of

⁴⁰ The Interpretations of the Chinese Supreme Court remain in principles applicable also after the enactment of the new CCC, unless they have been copied into it or are contradicting with one of its provisions.

K. Additional Sources

Contract'; Chapter 21 examines the crucial determination of when there is a passage of the 'Risk of Loss' from the seller to the buyer; and Chapter 24 discusses the issue of 'Products Liability'. The rest of the Chapters discuss other important areas of contract and sales law including: 'Contract Interpretation' (Chapter 23); 'Assignment, Delegation and Third-Party Rights' (Chapter 25); 'Defenses' (Chapter 26); 'Agency and Distribution Agreements' (Chapter 27), as well as, the unique issues presented by 'Long-Term Contracts: Installment and Supply Contracts' (Chapter 28); and 'Post-Contract: Continuing Obligations & Rights' (Chapter 29), which covers issues of warranties, confidentiality, covenants not-to-compete, and other post-contract restrictions. The book concludes with a discussion of the issues of 'Choice of Law' (Chapter 30).

K. Additional Sources

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