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DIGITALIZATION OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE RELATIONS: ADVANTAGES AND CONTRADICTIONS

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The article considers the features of the development of international trade relations in the context of the formation of the global digital economy. The increasingly active use of the latest information and communication technologies significantly accelerates export-import transactions, allows to significantly expand the circle of participants in the cross-border turnover of goods and services, and involve new resources in it. The goal is to analyze the impact of the digitalization process on international trade relations, their dynamics, new forms and contradictions. General scientific methods are used, such as logical analysis and comparison, as well as methods of generalization and processing of information using economic and statistical methods of analysis. The following results were obtained: using the potential of modern information and communication technologies has given rise to new megatrends in international trade relations. E-commerce is not just growing in absolute and relative terms, but is forming new trends in cross-border trade relations, primarily due to the comparative advantages generated by digitalization. Platform solutions have acquired particular importance. At the same time, in addition to the undoubted positive effects, the growth in the scale and importance of e-commerce creates a number of problems, in particular, additional prerequisites for the monopolization of trade between countries are being formed. Fundamental issues of regulation of this new sphere of international interaction require resolution. Conclusions: All countries are now involved in one way or another in the processes taking place in the global digital space, including in the international e-commerce segment. They are to develop advanced national information and computer technologies with critically thoughtful consideration of foreign experience, create their own electronic trading platforms and extensive digital infrastructure, and improve the legislative framework. This creates a solid potential for resolving bottlenecks in world trade and the global economy as a whole, for resolving accumulated contradictions and mutual claims.

Keywords: *international trade relations, digitalization, information and communication technologies, e-commerce, internet platforms, global value chains, USA, China, developing countries.*

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Introduction. The fourth industrial revolution, which began at the turn of the 20th and 21st centuries and is primarily associated with the large-scale use of the potential of modern information and communication technologies, has given rise to new megatrends in international trade relations. Approaches to the organization of production, transport and logistics, marketing, trade and sales activities, and many socio-economic processes are changing dramatically. Both the market actors themselves and the international economic relations between them at the national and interstate levels, as well as the directions of the international division of labor, are significantly modified.

Digitalization causes fundamental shifts in international trade relations. The dynamics of international trade are being restored, and previously unknown comparative advantages of the countries involved are being formed. New problems are also emerging: the possibilities of state regulation and control over the cross-border turnover of goods and services are weakening, and additional factors are strengthening monopolistic tendencies in the foreign trade sphere. All this requires both theoretical understanding and forecasting of practical consequences.

Analysis of recent research and publications. The impact of digital technologies on various aspects of international trade relations is actively analyzed in the works of Ukrainian and foreign scientists. The concept of the digital economy, which appeared at the end of the 20th century, is usually associated with the works of N. Negroponte [18] and D. Tapscott [24]. Of particular interest is the analysis of the potential and consequences of the digitalization of the economy. More and more studies are appearing in the field of studying the economics of platform technologies, bilateral and

multilateral markets: J. Church, I. King, M. Reesman, W. Kaiser, J. Wright [5, 16, 19]. Lively discussions are caused by issues of regulation of the digital economy in general and electronic commerce [10]. At the beginning of the 20th century, a number of studies appeared concerning the relationship between the spread of information and communication technologies and the process of development of international trade relations: K. Freund, D. Weinhold, L. Tan [12, 13, 23].

The latest research allows us to assert that in the first quarter of the 21st century, digitalization of international trade relations has become one of the most important factors in restoring their dynamics, which had sharply declined as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. At the same time, the problems associated with the impact of the digitalization process on the main indicators of world trade, the formation of new trends in connection with the spread of electronic forms of organization and implementation of cross-border export-import operations are still relevant.

The purpose of the article is to analyze the impact of the digitalization process on international trade relations, their dynamics, new forms and contradictions.

Methods of research. General scientific methods are used, such as logical analysis and comparison, as well as methods of generalization and processing of information using economic and statistical methods of analysis.

Results and discussion. International trade relations continue to play an extremely important role in the economic development of any country, a separate region and the world as a whole, and net exports are still one of the most important drivers of aggregate demand.

This provision was further confirmed in the UNCTAD study, conducted on the basis of the application of the UN Global Policy Model (Table 1).

Table 1

Components of Aggregate Demand in Various Countries, 2022-2023, %

	Government Demand (Domestic) (G)	Private Demand (Domestic) (C + I)	External Demand (NX)
Countries where external demand is the main driver:			
United Kingdom	-0,5	0,1	2,1
Germany	-0,1	0,9	1,5
Italy	-0,2	0,8	1,4
India	1,5	2,9	3,2
France	0,4	0,7	1,1
Japan	-0,9	0,8	1,6
Countries where private domestic demand is the main driver:			
Australia	1,0	1,3	0,5
Argentina	0,3	3,0	1,2
Brazil	-1,0	1,5	1,3
Canada	0,7	1,6	0,2
China	1,9	2,5	2,4
USA	0,7	1,2	0,8
Countries where public domestic demand is the main driver:			
Saudi Arabia	2,6	-3,5	1,0
South Africa	0,7	0,5	0,2

Source: [26]

The obtained results deserve attention and understanding. As is known, aggregate demand can be represented as the equation $AD = C + I + G + NX$, where AD is aggregate demand, C (consumption) is demand from households, I is investment demand, G is demand from the government, NX is net export (balance of exports and imports), that is, net external demand. The main driver of aggregate demand can be domestic demand from the government (G), which is typical, for example, for countries such as Saudi Arabia and South Africa. It can be private domestic demand ($C + I$), examples of such countries are Australia, Argentina, Brazil, Canada, China, the USA. For a group of countries, the dominant driver of development is external demand in the form of net exports (NX), which is inherent in Great Britain, Germany, Italy, India, France, Japan.

For the purposes of our study, it is important to note that, despite the varying degrees of participation of the listed components in stimulating aggregate demand, in all the countries considered without exception, it is external demand in the form of net exports that demonstrates positive growth rates in the period 2021–2022. This observation can legitimately be interpreted as an indication that, although there has been a certain decrease in the intensity of the globalization process over the past decade, net exports continue to be among the most important factors determining the dynamics of aggregate demand.

It follows from the above that it is currently impossible to study international economic relations and analyze the dynamics of net exports without taking into account the situation in global e-commerce. According to UN experts, it now accounts for 12% of the total value of international export-import transactions [22] and continues to grow rapidly further, and significantly faster than world trade as a whole. In 2021, the total volume of international merchandise trade grew by 4,5% [26], and e-commerce - by 13%, reaching \$ 29 trillion [14].

It is noteworthy that the geography of e-commerce does not correspond to the generally accepted view of the trade and political map of the world in terms of "North-South". A study conducted by UNCTAD indicates the dominance of only two powers in this area – the United States and China [7].

Available statistics also indicate that the segments of e-commerce are developing very unevenly. Even with the most general view of the structure of electronic transactions, it is noticeable that the B2B segment (business-to-business, i.e. intercompany deliveries of goods and services for production and investment purposes) as a whole steadily dominates the B2C segment (business-to-consumer, i.e. sales of final demand goods) (Table 2).

The volume of trade in the B2B segment in all ten leading countries in the field of e-commerce, with the exception of China, significantly exceeds the volume of trade in the B2C segment.

First of all, this is explained by the scale of transactions in the B2B segment, because we are talking about the widest range of mutual deliveries between companies carried out using digital technologies. The share of this segment in the total volume of e-commerce in all the countries considered also significantly exceeds the share of the B2C segment in the total volume of e-commerce, while the spread between the nine countries is not that great. Japan and the Republic of Korea are in the lead (95% each), followed by Italy (93%), Germany (92%), India (91%), the USA and Canada (90% each), France (87%), and the UK is slightly behind (74%). China, with a share of 49%, is the only large country where the B2B segment does not dominate the B2C segment. An analysis of the situation suggests that it is not at all connected with the underdevelopment of the B2B segment (in terms of sales volume in this segment, China is in fifth place among the top ten leaders). Rather, we are dealing with the effect of scale of the domestic consumer market, provided by China's 1.5 billion population, and, accordingly, the gigantic sales potential in the B2C segment.

It should be emphasized that, despite the lower share of the B2B segment in China's e-sales compared to other leading countries, the overall figure for all ten countries is 87%. This leaves no doubt about the dominance of this segment in the total volume of e-sales on the global market. It is also important that, although the B2B segment is currently much larger than B2C, the latter is growing rapidly. According to UNCTAD, a quarter of the world's population made purchases electronically in 2021, which is 12% higher than in 2020. At the same time, the share of those who made purchases abroad increased from 15% in 2019 to 21% in 2021. As a result, international trade in the B2C segment reached US\$412 billion, accounting for almost 11% of the total turnover in the B2C segment, which meant an increase of almost 4% compared to the previous year [14].

Data on cross-border sales in the B2C segment in 2021 for the top ten countries are presented in Table 3.

The data provided show that the B2C segment accounts for a relatively small share of the total volume of merchandise exports worldwide (2,3%). At the same time, the share of foreign sales in the total volume of sales in the B2C segment is quite high (10,7%). For most of the countries presented in the table, as well as for the world as a whole, it exceeds 10%. The United States is noticeably ahead of everyone else in absolute sales volume in this segment (\$102 billion). Next comes China (\$79 billion), with the rest of the countries lagging behind the leaders by a large margin. In relative terms, that is, in terms of the share of electronic transactions in total merchandise exports, the United Kingdom is in first place (7%), followed by the United States (6,6%), China (3,5%) and Japan (2,6%). At the same time, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom are ahead of both the United States and China in terms of the share of foreign sales in the

Table 2

Top Countries in E-Commerce, 2021

Ranking Place,	Country	Total Sales Value in E-Commerce Segment, USD Billion	Ratio to GDP, %	B2B, USD Billion	Share of Total E-Commerce, %	B2C, USD Billion	Average Annual Spending per Customer in B2C Segment, USD
1	SA	8883	46	8129	90	753	3851
2	Japan	2975	61	2828	95	147	3248
3	China	869	1931	16	49	1062	2574
4	Germany	1503	41	1414	92	88	1668
5	Republic of Korea	1290	84	1220	95	69	2983
6	United Kingdom	755	29	548	74	206	4658
7	France	734	28	642	87	92	2577
8	Canada	512	31	452	90	60	3130
9	India	400	15	369	91	31	1130
10	Italy	333	17	310	93	23	1493
	10 countries overall	19315	36	16782	87	2533	2904
	World	29367		25516		3851	

Source: [14]

Table 3

Cross-border sales in the B2C segment of the top ten countries in the world in terms of merchandise exports, 2021

Place	Country	Total value of cross-border sales in the B2C segment, billion US dollars	Share in merchandise exports, %	Share in total B2C volume, %
1	USA	102	6,6	13,5
2	China	79	3,5	7,5
3	United Kingdom	31	7,0	15,0
4	Japan	18	2,6	12,2
5	Germany	15	1,0	17,1
6	France	10	1,8	10,6
7	Canada	8	1,8	12,7
8	Italy	4	0,7	16,2
9	Republic of Korea	3	0,5	3,8
10	Netherlands	1	0,2	5,0
	10 countries overall	270	3,0	10,7
	World	412	2,3	10,7

Source: [14]

total volume of sales in the segment, which indicates the great potential of electronic distribution channels for the development of foreign trade in these countries. In general, it can be stated that cross-border B2C deliveries have already become an integral component of global trade.

It is extremely important that e-commerce is not just growing in absolute and relative terms. It is forming new trends in cross-border trade relations, primarily due to the comparative advantages generated by digitalization. Among such advantages, of course, the first thing to be mentioned is the radical simplification of the process of organizing and implementing trade operations using digital technologies.

In this regard, the question arises about the applicability of the traditional gravity model in analyzing the geography and dynamics of foreign trade. It seems that there is reason to believe that the adequacy of the model to new realities and, accordingly, its analytical potential will gradually dry up.

In its classical form, the gravity model assumed that the volume of trade between countries is determined mainly by two parameters: the size of the economies of the partner countries and the distance between them (geographical proximity) [2].

Gradually, as trade theory in general and the gravity model in particular developed, the number of parameters included in it increased. It began to be enriched with such exogenous variables as exchange rates, national regulatory and legal regimes. Attempts were made to take into account even the religious and historical context of trade relations, as well as other non-economic factors. However, geography still remained and remains a key variable.

If we adhere to the methodology of the gravity model, we should take into account the value of the distance elasticity of foreign trade turnover when assessing and forecasting its volume and intensity. Modern information and computer technologies radically reduce, and in some cases completely eliminate the

distances between the seller and the buyer. A number of foreign researchers insist on the de-actualization of the gravity model as a result of the changes that have occurred under the influence of the active introduction of modern information and computer technologies into export-import operations [4]. There are also those who argue that, despite the undoubted advantages of using the latest organizational and technological solutions, it is impossible to completely eliminate the dependence of trade on the geographical factor [3].

Reality, however, increasingly insistently indicates that for the implementation of trade in many goods and services within the framework of e-commerce, distance elasticity loses its significance or, at least, significantly decreases. This is recognized even by the supporters of the gravity model. In any case, it is obvious that information and computer technologies significantly facilitate and accelerate international trade interaction. E-commerce mechanisms dramatically reduce the time required to perform actions on the export and import of goods and services [1].

The use of platform solutions is acquiring a special role in the field of e-commerce. Online trading platforms connect a previously unimaginable number of sellers and buyers, creating the potential for a radical expansion of the range of goods and services entering cross-border circulation. New technologies significantly shorten and transform global value chains (GVCs), the development of which, in turn, significantly transformed the structure of global trade and, until recently, significantly outpaced the growth of global GDP. The viability and high efficiency of such chains are determined by the placement of production and other links in locations with the lowest marginal costs and economies of scale [25].

The general trend in the development of GVCs observed until recently was such that the role of production itself in the creation of added value was consistently decreasing, while the importance of other stages was increasing even more [17, 28].

Thus, it can be stated that the share of added value created in the pre- and post-production links of GVCs (development of a new product/service concept, research and development, branding, marketing, transport and logistics operations, distribution, retail sales, customer relations, after-sales service) is increasing, while that created directly at the production stage is decreasing.

This course of events has ambiguous consequences. On the one hand, countries specializing in production (mainly developing countries) are losing income and are forced to look for ways to increase their share in the creation of added value. On the other hand, the growing importance of non-production links in GVCs theoretically provides additional opportunities for local small and medium businesses. Companies that actively use digital technologies are able not only to use existing

ones, but also to create new comparative advantages. Access to a wider range of potential buyers and producers is expanded, and more active participation in international market transactions and global value chains becomes possible.

According to forecasts, by reducing costs and increasing productivity, digital technologies can provide an additional increase in international trade of up to 34% by 2030 [35]. Studies conducted on EU companies using e-commerce channels for business have demonstrated an increase in the efficiency of online exporters not only due to cost reduction, but also due to more successful inventory management policies [10]. Moreover, the online activities of such companies have a very positive effect on sales outside the Internet within the O2O (online to offline) model.

Thus, new comparative advantages can further activate international trade turnover. Due to the large-scale introduction of digital technologies in world trade, fundamentally new trends are formed both on the supply side and on the demand side. In the former case, such changes occur as the replacement of relatively expensive resources with cheaper ones, a decrease in the importance of low labor costs as a global competitive advantage, the involvement of previously unused resources in the production process, etc. In the second case, significant shifts are observed in the structure of consumer and investment demand, resource-saving technological solutions and products manufactured using them are becoming increasingly attractive to customers, etc. As a result, the basis of comparative advantages is transformed not due to government policy measures, which can only accelerate changes, but under the influence of the market mechanism of relative prices, which encourages the replacement of relatively expensive resources and technologies with more economical ones [11].

Digital technologies also help to more actively involve developing countries in world trade, in particular, to increase their exports of goods and services. This fully applies, for example, to China, which is very concerned about the slowdown in the dynamics of its economy. As international statistics show, the PRC has largely passed the stage of export-led growth and domestic private demand has already become the main driver of aggregate demand there [26]. Nevertheless, China still assigns a significant role to external sources of growth, in particular, they are intensively developing e-commerce channels in order to activate sales in general, including to stimulate the export of goods abroad. E-commerce accounts for nearly 17% of retail sales in China, compared to just 9% in the United States [11].

China is currently one of the largest exporters of digital goods and services in the world. South Korea and India are among the top ten countries with the largest Internet markets. E-commerce in Brazil is

developing quite dynamically, including its international component. Leading Brazilian companies in the B2B and B2C markets conduct online trade both within the country and abroad. On the African continent, the largest Internet market has developed in South Africa, with the B2C segment dominating there.

Taking into account the territorial scale, population size and dynamics of e-commerce development in developing countries, it can be predicted that they will increasingly be included in global e-commerce both on the basis of existing and new comparative advantages emerging thanks to modern technologies. In general, electronic forms of exchange significantly facilitate overcoming cross-border barriers and promote the development of free trade.

Any new phenomenon is ambiguous and contradictory. Along with the enormous positive impact on socio-economic processes, digitalization also gives rise to its own problems, including in the sphere of international trade relations.

Despite the undoubted advantages that information and computer technologies provide for the development of world trade, barriers to their widespread use remain, which leads to global digital asymmetry. The digital divide in the world is still quite large. The share of households with Internet access in developed countries is approximately twice as high as in developing countries.

Among the 25 largest (by market capitalization) high-tech companies in the world, 14 are located in the United States, 3 in the EU, 3 in China, 4 in other Asian countries, and 1 in Africa. The three largest US companies have an average market capitalization of over \$400 billion, compared to a capitalization of \$200 billion for the largest companies in China, \$123 billion in Asia, \$69 billion in Europe, and \$66 billion in the United States. The USA is in Africa [26].

Social and digital differences persist between different groups of the population within individual countries: urban dwellers, young people, and men continue to use the Internet to a greater extent, and therefore also the opportunities it offers. Worldwide, there are approximately 250 million more men than women who are Internet users. And if we consider that women make up between 5–6% (Middle East and North Africa) and 22% (Latin America and the Caribbean) of top management, the gender imbalance in participation in electronic trading becomes even more obvious.

Furthermore, we must not forget that export markets are traditionally extremely concentrated. Research in the field of non-resource commodity exports shows that, on average, more than 50% of exports are accounted for by 1% of exporting companies [26].

Digitalization, which generates powerful network externalities and scale effects, further contributes to the strengthening of concentration and the growth of monopoly power of market leaders. Monopolies

that base their business on Internet platforms tend to demonstrate very aggressive market behavior. They purposefully use the entire arsenal of relevant tools to conquer and strengthen market power: first-mover advantages, network effects, including cross-effects (inherent in bilateral and multilateral markets), colossal economies of scale, and numerous trap effects. All this allows them to tightly control digital markets and successfully manage transactions between their various actors. Backbone Internet providers also increase market concentration and create serious barriers to entry.

Increased market concentration, in turn, negatively affects the structure of both demand and supply. In the first case, attention is drawn to a noticeable jump in underconsumption, caused, among other things, by an increase in “dead loss,” that is, net national economic losses due to the lack of perfect competition, as well as a simultaneous increase in the share of consumption covered by an increase in the debt burden of businesses and households. Taken together, this becomes a new source of inequality and exacerbates numerous socio-economic problems. A number of sectors of the economy are experiencing rapid and widespread collapse of small and medium-sized businesses, leading to massive job losses and requiring urgent but painful structural transformations.

Noting the strengthening of monopoly in the sphere of e-commerce, it is important to understand that digital technologies serve as catalysts not only for positive, but also for new negative phenomena in world trade. Therefore, it is wrong to discuss its development exclusively within the framework of the theory of comparative advantages, abstracting from the most recent global economic contradictions that are caused by the trade and political offensive launched by the United States against its main foreign partners – China and the EU. The consequences of what are commonly called new trade wars will be very significant not only for their direct participants, but also for other states due to strong negative external effects.

The most striking example is the current confrontation between the United States and China, which still play a leading role in shaping the digital environment of the global economy. In addition to the direct effect associated with the destruction of previously established cross-border GVCs, disagreements between these trading giants cause noticeable price fluctuations in global commodity and financial markets, increase currency risks and general uncertainty in the global economic sphere, complicate forecasting the market situation and making investment decisions. Electronic channels of interaction accelerate the spread of these negative phenomena, which are no longer bilateral, but global in nature.

The impact of digitalization on GVCs is also difficult to unequivocally assess as positive. Yes, as a rule, the use

of information and computer technologies significantly shortens such chains: production is divided into standard modules with a high degree of autonomy, eliminating or significantly reducing the need for additional stages of production activities. Shortening chains is usually considered a positive trend. But it also reduces the opportunities for developing countries to participate in them and, as noted above, reduces the amount of added value created in them and, accordingly, export revenues.

Developing countries in most cases do not occupy the most honorable place in GVCs. Therefore, as the transition from export of primary products to export of services and processed products occurs, the share of added value in the total value of their exports often falls. Digitalization further increases the multidirectional movement of export volumes and the export component of added value created in developing countries. It is no coincidence that the term “digital colonialism” has appeared in circulation in recent UN documents [7].

As for the standardization of goods and services, the assessment of its pros and cons has always been ambiguous. Standardization reduces transaction costs associated with communication processes, and ultimately the cost of concluded trade transactions, simplifies and accelerates interaction between their participants. But it also reduces incentives for innovation, helps imitators in the eternal conflict “imitators - innovators”, reducing the profits received by the latter due to the creation of disruptive technologies.

Difficulties in the regulation of electronic commerce in general and electronic commerce in particular at the national and international levels remain. For example, in the current conditions, it is quite difficult to continue to support the idea of a moratorium on customs duties on transactions in the field of electronic commerce. It has been in effect within the WTO since 1998, but the issue of its further preservation or cancellation is constantly raised by interested parties. This difficult topic has long been causing serious disagreements between governments and among experts [27].

Exporters of digital products (mainly the United States and EU countries) insist on maintaining the moratorium. They explain their position by the need to create a stable environment for consumers and businesses, arguing that the losses of importers are not that great. Importing countries (in particular, India, South Africa) consider their losses from maintaining the moratorium excessive and demand its abolition.

The moratorium on customs duties has another aspect. The current situation can be interpreted as discriminatory against domestic companies. After all, they have to pay taxes on the goods and services they sell, while imported analogues are not subject to duties. Therefore, importing countries are in favor of abolishing

the moratorium on customs duties. Exporting countries, on the contrary, tend to ignore the problem or assess it as insignificant.

Finally, one more point: the subject of the moratorium is not clearly and unambiguously defined. As is known, it applies to electronic transactions. But is it about their content (that is, goods and services supplied within the framework of e-commerce) or only about the transfer of accompanying electronic data? Importing countries prefer to view the issue in the second sense, considering themselves entitled to apply customs duties to the content of transactions. Exporters, for obvious reasons, insist on the opposite.

There are many obstacles to achieving a multilateral agreement on e-commerce within the WTO. As a result, there is virtually no multilateral regulation of e-commerce transactions, which gives rise to attempts by a number of states (the US, EU countries, Australia) to impose their own solutions on trading partners in a package of regional agreements. But then the general question of streamlining and codifying international e-commerce remains open.

There are also other problems associated with its development. Let us note just a few of them: differences in the legal regime of the states involved in it; national features of taxation of electronic transactions; regulation of settlements on them; the possibility of using a digital signature in foreign trade contracts; protection of property rights in the digital space. Effective solutions can only be found taking into account the positions and interests of all parties involved. Therefore, it is so important to establish successful and fruitful interstate cooperation in the digital trade space, to search for and formulate mutually acceptable approaches to its regulation.

Conclusion. International trade relations are plunging deeper into digital reality. Cross-border e-commerce is rapidly developing in both B2B and B2C formats. Thanks to the widespread introduction of platform technologies, goods and services that were traditionally classified as “non-tradable” are included in international circulation. This creates a solid potential for resolving bottlenecks in world trade and the global economy as a whole, for resolving accumulated contradictions and mutual claims.

All countries are now involved in one way or another in the processes taking place in the global digital space, including in the international e-commerce segment [8, 9]. In order to occupy the position of a full-fledged and active actor here, rather than an outsider, each country will have to develop advanced national information and computer technologies with a critically thoughtful consideration of foreign experience, create its own electronic trading platforms and an extensive digital infrastructure, and improve the legislative framework.

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ЦИФРОВІЗАЦІЯ МІЖНАРОДНИХ ТОРГІВЕЛЬНИХ ВІДНОСИН: ПЕРЕВАГИ ТА ПРОТИРІЧЧЯ

Розглядаються особливості розвитку міжнародних торговельних відносин за умов формування глобальної цифрової економіки. Дедалі більше активне використання нових інформаційно-комунікаційних технологій помітно прискорює експортно-імпортні трансакції, дозволяє значно розширити коло учасників транскордонного обороту товарів та послуг, залучати до нього нові ресурси. Метою дослідження є аналіз впливу процесу цифровізації на міжнародні торговельні відносини, їх динаміку, нові форми та наслідки. В ході дослідження використовувалися загальнонаукові підходи, такі як логічний аналіз та порівняння, а також методи узагальнення та обробки інформації з використанням економічних та статистичних методів аналізу. Результати дослідження. Використання потенціалу сучасних інформаційно-комунікаційних технологій породило нові мегатренди в міжнародних торговельних відносинах. Електронна комерція не просто зростає в абсолютних та відносних показниках, а формує нові тренди в транскордонних торговельних відносинах, насамперед завдяки порівняльним перевагам, що породжуються цифровізацією. Особливого значення набули платформні рішення. Разом з тим, окрім безперечних позитивних ефектів, зростання масштабів та значення електронної комерції створює низку проблем, зокрема формуються додаткові передумови для монополізації торгового обміну між країнами. Вимагають вирішення фундаментальних питань регулювання цієї нової сфери міжнародної взаємодії. Висновки. У процеси, що відбуваються в глобальному цифровому просторі, у тому числі в сегменті міжнародної e-commerce, нині виявляються так чи інакше залученими всі країни, які мають розвивати передові національні інформаційно-комп'ютерні технології з критично осмисленим обліком закордонного досвіду, створювати власні електронні торгівлі, платформи та розгалужену цифрову інфраструктуру, удосконалювати законодавчу базу. Це створює солідний потенціал для розширення вузьких місць у світовій торгівлі та глобальній економіці в цілому, для врегулювання нагромаджених протиріч і взаємних претензій.

Ключові слова: міжнародні торговельні відносини, цифровізація, інформаційні та комунікаційні технології, електронна комерція, інтернет-платформи, глобальні ланцюжки створення вартості, США, Китай, країни, що розвиваються.

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