

# 新世纪

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# 国际商务英语



New Century  
English For  
International Business

兵器工业出版社

# 新世纪国际商务英语

*New Century English for International Business*

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## 内 容 简 介

本书以基本国际商务活动为主线,用通俗易懂和地道的英语介绍了世界贸易组织、国际贸易、知识产权、国际投资和国际金融等涵盖主要国际商务知识的五个不同领域的相关专业基本理论、政策以及相关的经贸实务等入门知识及典型案例。读者将在专业语境下学会阐释语篇,有利于专业英语的自学能力和应用能力的提高。本书将帮助读者更系统了解和掌握世界经贸领域里的相关知识、发展历程、最新进展以及未来趋势等。

本书适合作为高等院校、尤其是应用型本科院校学生的商务英语教程,还可作为涉外企业等经济部门的英语培训教材或自学参考书。

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## 序 言

很多学生包括大量外语水平很高的读者，往往对西方报刊上出现频率颇高的经贸题材的文章一筹莫展，问题出在未能把握商务英语的文体规律以及缺乏基本的商务知识和专门用语而造成信息获得性障碍。

随着中国加入世界经济贸易组织及对世界经济影响的持续深入，国际环境日趋复杂，学会在纷纭的全球化市场中从容应对层出不穷的变化是新世纪的需要，因此大力培养社会需求的既熟谙经贸知识又精通专业外语的复合性人才成为大专院校应用型教育的当务之急。本书正是以培养复合性人才作为定位目标，满足读者学习知识和应用能力并重的需求，内容涵盖三大模块：语言技能、整合模块（语言技能+专业知识）、商务专业知识。通过学习国际商务的基本政策、贸易实务以及典型案例，读者不仅可以在国际商贸活动的专业语境中掌握专门用途英语的文体规律、强化语言技能，同时熟悉有关 WTO、国际贸易、知识产权、国际投资、国际金融等专业领域中的商务体系，直接把握世界各地最新经贸动态。

### **主要特色：**

1) 采用主题教学法和结构-功能法相结合的编写体系，以主要国际商贸活动为主线展开五大专题，每专题集中涉及一个专业领域，既有概念又有理论、并附典型案例，重点突出，层次分明，脉络清晰、各章相对独立，全书浑然一体。

2) 除与专题内容配套的单词和经贸术语解释外,还有针对语篇的文化背景和语用分析(Cultural background and Pragmatic Interpretations),内容涉及商务文化、商务英语文体特征,将专门用途英语纳入语言学、文学、认知心理学等交叉学科的研究领域。

3) 语言表达简明流畅,用字遣词难易适中,语篇均取自于重要的英语国家政经杂志原文,反映现实生活,充分考虑在校学生及同等水平读者的知识结构、认知水平和从业需求。行文深入浅出,基本词汇量不超过3 000个。

4) 衔接从基础英语学习过渡到专业英语学习的环节,既可巩固基础英语阶段所学得的语言知识和技能,又有助于积累一定的专业知识并熟悉有关的语言现象;知识信息循序渐进、语言应用能力循环加深,填补了一个学习和知识的断档。

本书适宜于大专院校、成人教育尤其是应用型本科院校的英语专业和国际经济与贸易、物流管理、工商管理等专业的教学,适用层面还包括从事外贸业务和对国际商务动态感兴趣的社会各界人士,亦可作为涉外企业等经济部门的英语培训教材或自学参考书。

在本书的编写过程中,从文章的选编到全书篇章结构的规划及书稿的审阅都得到了西安交通大学工商管理硕士、国际注册高级职业经理人芦刚老师的技术把关和悉心指导;宁波大学ESP研究所对初稿进行审阅并提出了宝贵意见;宁波大学科学技术学院的领导和同事始终关心该书的编撰工作,并为该书最终交付出版创造了必要条件;兵器工业出版社对排版和书稿质量的提高花了大量心血,在此谨向所有关心和支持本书编写工作的有关人士表示诚挚谢意。

湛莉文

2007年7月于甬城

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# **Chapter One**

## **World Trade Organization**

### **Overview**

Trade liberalization since the end of the Second World War has led to the current situation where individuals, small business as well as major companies in the market economies can all import and export technology, management know-how, and machinery at the currently prevailing prices and exchange rate. This means that firms in countries which previously may have only done business domestically now find themselves in competition with firms from other countries.

Countries signing onto the WTO agreements, according to the preamble of the Agreement establishing the WTO (1995), recognized that their relations in the field of trade and economic endeavor should be concluded with a view to raising standards of living, ensuring full employment and expanding the production of and trade in goods and services, while allowing for the optimal use of the world's resources in accordance with the objective of sustainable development, seeking both to protect and preserve the environment and to enhance the means for doing so in a manner consistent with their respective needs and concerns at different levels of economic development.

As China's economic reforms have proceeded, more links between domestic enterprises and foreign entities have been forged. China exports have reached Europe, Japan, America and Africa, and imports from these parts of the world are a common sight in China today. China became a member of WTO on Dec. 11th, 2001 and has finished the transition period

in an expected way. The increasing development of Chinese economy has changed the world in every respect. The point is, how to stand firm in the economic environment of the new century?

## **Unit 1**

### **Relevant Concepts**

#### **1. GATT and Its Role**

The most important-trade-liberalization activity in the post-World War II period has been through the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). GATT was first signed in 1947. The agreement was designed to provide an international forum that encouraged free trade between member states by regulating and reducing tariffs on traded goods and by providing a common mechanism for resolving trade disputes. With its membership of more than 110 countries, GATT has given the world a basic set of rules under which trade negotiations take place and a mechanism for ensuring these rules in implementation.

#### **2. Most-Favored-Nation Clause**

According to GATT, countries must adhere to the Most-Favored-Nation Clause (MFN). It holds that a clause, often inserted in treaties, by which each of the contracting nations binds itself to grant to the other in certain stipulated matters the same terms as are then, or may be thereafter, granted to the nation which receives from it the most favorable terms in respect of those matters. It is used most frequently in treaties regarding the terms of trade between countries, as regarding tariffs and non-tariff barriers to trade. This clause requires that if a country, such as the United States, grants a

tariff reduction to one country, for example, a cut from 20 percent to 10 percent on wool sweaters from Australia, it must grant the same concession to all other countries. The MFN clause also applies to quotas and licenses.

### **3. Uruguay Round**

The Uruguay Round was a trade negotiation lasting from September 1986 to April 1994 which transformed the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade ( GATT ) into the World Trade Organization ( WTO ). It was launched in Punta del Este in Uruguay ( hence the name ), followed by negotiations in Montreal, Geneva, Brussels, Washington, D. C. , and Tokyo, with the 20 agreements finally being signed in Marrakech. The main aims of the Uruguay round of negotiations were to reduce agricultural subsidies, put restrictions on foreign investment, and begin the process of opening trade in services like banking and insurance.

These negotiations took more than seven years and achieved less than they had been originally envisioned. A primary problem is that less sensitive concessions have been made and attention has moved toward services and away from products. Nevertheless, some tangible changes were made at the Uruguay Round. Virtually every participating country made concessions that were politically unpopular with its domestic pressure groups.

### **4. Tariff**

Tariff, also called duty, is a tax collected by a government on goods imported and sometimes also on the goods exported. Tariff is imposed on imports or exports to increase the government revenues, to weaken the competitive power of imported goods and for some other purposes. If collected by the exporting country, it is known as an export tariff; if collected by a country through which the goods have passed, it is a transit tariff; if collected by the importing country, it is an import tariff. The import tariff is by far the most common.

## **5. Infant Industry Tariff**

When a new but promising industry, one with a future competitive advantage, is just starting, it is argued that a tariff would protect it from competition during its infancy, giving it breathing space until it can compete internationally. This argument is now frequently made in slightly altered form, suggesting that high technology companies bring such training and knowledge spillover benefits that they should be given protection and subsidies.

The underlying assumption here is that the financial markets, i. e. banks or investors, are unwilling to lend to the enterprise despite its future profitability. One must therefore be skeptical of the claims of future profitability. Alternatively, can the spill-over benefits from new-tech firms be reliably estimated? Will other firms demand similar protection? There are certainly many old industries in the world proving that it was just infant protection. One must then ask about the cost for the country as a whole of maintaining industries that need protection. Over the years these costs can be staggering.

## **6. Protective Tariff**

If the tariff is higher than the average increased value tax, it can be taken as protective tariff, as it is not only to increase the revenue income of the government, but also to weaken the competitive power of the imported goods in the importing country.

Import tariffs mainly serve as a means of raising the price of imported goods so that competitively produced domestic goods will gain a relative price advantage. A tariff may be classified as protective in nature even though there is no domestic production in directive competition.

## 7. Anti-Dumping Tariff

To export at a very low price, even lower than the production cost or the home-country price, would constitute dumping. Most countries prohibit imports of dumped products, but enforcement usually occurs only if the imported products disrupt domestic production.

Dumping is often used by some businessmen to occupy a foreign market. This is an unfair competitive method and hence should be stopped. Anti-dumping tariff, a very high and punitive tax imposed on exports, is a way to stop this method. But it is not permitted to resort to anti-dumping tax without careful corroboration. According to GATT, the following conditions must be met before anti-dumping tax is imposed.

- a. The government which intends to impose anti-dumping tariff must investigate to prove that the goods are being dumped into its territory

- b. The government must also prove that the dumping causes or threatens to cause material injury to an established industry in its territory or materially retards the establishment of a domestic industry.

If the dumping has been proved, the government of the importing country can levy anti-dumping tariff, a duty to fight against dumping.

## 8. Quotas

Historically, the GATT has prohibited import quotas except on agricultural products, as emergency measures, or when a country has short-run balance of payments problems. Countries have circumvented this regulation most notably for textiles, footwear, and automobiles by negotiating (importing) "voluntary export restraint agreements." In general, business would rather be protected by quotas than tariffs. Under quotas, if future domestic demand is known, business can subtract the quota and have a reasonable idea of their future production levels. Under tariffs, domestic producers must estimate the elasticity of the demand curve for imported products and

the future improvements in world prices. On the other hand, if domestic demand declines ( as it has for autos, textiles, and footwear ), a fixed quota will take up a larger percent of the depressed domestic market, whereas under a tariff domestic producers are largely unaffected.

## **9. Technical Barriers**

Product and process standards for health, welfare, safety, quality, size, and measurements can impede trade by excluding "nonstandard" products. Testing and certification procedures, such as testing only in the importing country and on-site plant inspections, were ( and still are to a lesser extent ) cumbersome, time-consuming, and expensive. These costs must be born by the exporter prior to any foreign sales. National governments have the right and duty to protect their citizens by setting standards to prevent the sale of hazardous or shoddy products. Standards can be used not only to ensure quality and performance, but also to impede trade. Japan excluded American-made baseball bats from the market because they did not meet the Japanese standard. No product produced outside Japan ( even products made by foreign subsidiaries of Japanese MNEs ) could bear the certification stamp of the Japanese Industrial Standard ( JIS ) or Japanese Agricultural Standard ( JAS ), and sale in Japan without the JIS and JAS logo was difficult. At one time the new regulations for automobile safety in the United States required bumpers to be above the height practical for imported subcompact cars. The new code on technical barriers to trade requires consultation between trading is put in place. The code also requires that testing and certification procedures treat imports and domestic goods equally and that the importing country accepts certification to standard in the exporting country.

## **10. Agricultural Products**

Trade in agricultural products is highly regulated by quotas and fixed

and variable tariffs. Domestic producers are often highly subsidized both directly and by artificially high domestic prices behind trade barriers. Agricultural exporters are often subsidies as well. The European Economic Community (EEC) flatly refused to discuss its Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) at the Tokyo round. The CAP sets variable tariffs on imports to maintain high domestic prices by excluding or impeding imports. Moreover, revenues from these tariffs are used to subsidize exports. The CAP infuriates American agricultural producers since it not only reduces their exports to the large European market, but also reduces world prices and gives them "unfair" competition in third-country markets. The United States is not without guilt in this area, however, since it subsidizes the export of many agricultural products.

## **11. The World Trade Organization**

The World Trade Organization (WTO) is an international body consisting of 150 countries (figure updated by January, 2007). From its headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, the WTO provides a forum for trade negotiations, administers trade agreements, manages trade disputes and monitors national trade policies.

Representatives of each member government meet periodically in Geneva to monitor and implement ongoing trade agreements. At least once every two years, ministers or heads-of-state meet at WTO Ministerial Meetings to negotiate new trade agreements or to expand existing agreements.

The WTO was created from the Uruguay Round of negotiations of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT, 1947/1994), and took effect on January 1, 1995. It superseded the earlier GATT by extending its scope to include new rules on such matters as trade in services and intellectual property.

Perhaps the most significant change to the GATT is that WTO agreements are now legally binding on WTO members. Countries that ratify



agreements sponsored by the WTO are obligated to follow the terms of trade that are reached through multilateral negotiations. If a dispute arises between WTO members, each member has the right to appeal through the dispute settlement system. WTO Agreements include the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) and other goods agreements and annexes, the General Agreement on Trade in Service (GATS) and its annexes, the Agreement on Trade Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS), and the Dispute Settlement Mechanism (DSM)

## **12. Dispute Settlement Mechanism**

One important task of the WTO is its role in setting trade disputes between countries. Countries may appeal to the WTO's dispute settlement mechanism (DSM) when they believe that another country's laws infringe upon free trade. The dispute settlement system gives these countries the ability to seek a binding settlement to a trade dispute; one that forces the defending nation to compensate the plaintiff country, change its domestic laws in order to comply with the WTO's decision, or risk trade retaliation.

There are a number of defined steps for members to follow when bringing a case before the WTO dispute settlement system. First, members in disagreement over a given issue are required to take part in consultations (up to 60 days). If consultations fail to remedy a dispute, the plaintiff state is entitled to request that a panel be established by the Dispute Settlement Body (DSB). The responding country has the right to refuse the appointment of the first panel assigned, however, this is limited to the establishment of the first panel only. Technically, this could help a defendant to prolong a trade dispute (by 45 days or more). Once appointed, the panel generally has 60 days to produce a final report. Upon completion, the panel releases its findings to WTO members for review (3 weeks). Finally, the DSB has two months (60 days) to adopt or reject the panel's report. The DSB generally accepts panel reports, but has the ability to reject panel