

外贸英语

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外贸英语

王秀英 主编

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内容简介

本书共分 11 章: Introduction (概论), International Trade Terms (国际贸易术语), Terms of Commodity (商品条款), Exchange Rate (外汇率), Export and Import Procedures (进出口程序), Modes of International Trade (国际贸易类型), Insurance (保险), Transportation (运输), International Settlements (国际结算), Negotiation of Contract (合同谈判), Commodity Inspection, Claim, Force Majeure and Arbitration (商检、索赔、仲裁和不可抗力因素)。

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前言

FOREWORD

随着全球一体化及世界经济的发展,我国与世界各国的国际交流与合作日趋广泛,与世界各国的贸易往来日益加强。面对这种新形势,我国对能够熟练用外语交流的人才及懂得外贸英语的人才需求持续增长。培养既掌握一定外贸知识,又具备较高外语应用能力的高级复合型人才,已经成为当务之急。

《外贸英语》是一门实用性很强的学科。读者只有能做到理论联系实际,才能在毕业后迅速与社会接轨,成为企事业单位、国家经济发展需要的人才。

本书共分 11 章: Introduction (概论), International Trade Terms (国际贸易术语), Terms of Commodity (商品条款), Exchange Rate (外汇率), Export and Import Procedures (进出口程序), Modes of International Trade (国际贸易类型), Insurance (保险), Transportation (运输), International Settlements (国际结算), Negotiation of Contract (合同谈判), Commodity Inspection, Claim, Force Majeure and Arbitration (商检、索赔、仲裁和不可抗力因素)。

本书具有以下特点:

1. 目标简洁明晰,注重基础。本书强调基本概念和基本原理,这有利于读者迅速把握外贸英语的精髓。

2. 内容实用,知识性强,应用面广。这有利于读者在遵循一定逻辑思路的前提下,逐步形成自己对外贸英语的认知,以达到启发读者思路的效果。

3. 文字浅显,方便掌握。在编写过程中,编者采用了比较浅显的对外贸易专业语言,注意使用简练的英语表达方式,还仔细列出了在阅读过程中读者可能阅读的生词、专有名词和难句,以方便读者学习、掌握。

本书由王秀英担任主编。编者在本书编写过程中参考了大量有关资料,对所引用资料的作者及为本书提供帮助的人,在此一并表示最衷心的感谢。

由于作者水平有限,书中难免存在不妥之处,敬请有关专家、读者不吝赐教。

编者



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Chapter 1 Introduction

STUDY OBJECTIVES



After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Explain what the characteristics of international trade is.
2. Describe the laws and usual practices of the international trade.
3. Grasp the major international trade organization in the world.

1.1 The Characteristics of International Trade

There is no country in the world that can produce all the products it needs. Thus countries join in international division of labor for effective production and reproduction. Sometimes a country can buy goods and services from abroad on a barter basis.

International trade is the exchange of capital, goods, and services across international borders or territories. In other words, International trade is a kind of business whose activities involve the crossing of national borders. It represents a significant share of GDP (gross domestic product) across most countries. It includes not only international trade and foreign manufacturing but also encompasses the growing services industry in areas such as transportation, tourism, banking, advertising, construction, retailing, wholesaling, and mass communications. It includes all business transactions that involve two or more countries. Such business relationship may be private or governmental. The international trade system of a country is greatly influenced by its industrialization, transportation, globalization, multinational corporations, and outsourcing. It is definite that international trade is a major source of economic revenue for nations that is considered a world power. Without international trade, nations would be limited to the goods and services produced within their own territories.

The Characteristics of International Trade as follows:

1. Higher cost of international trade

International trade is in principle not different from domestic trade as the motivation and the behavior of parties involved in a trade does not change fundamentally depending on whether trade is across a border or not. The main difference is that international trade is typically more

costly than domestic trade. The reason is that a border typically imposes additional costs such as tariffs, time costs due to border delays and costs associated with country differences such as languages, the legal systems or more complicated procedure in cargo transportation.

2. Limited by a country's foreign reserves

International trade uses a variety of currencies, the most important of which are held as foreign reserves by governments and central banks. Central banks of just about every country, used to hold gold as national reserves, or some kind of last resort source of funding. To some degrees it's still true, but is not practical on a large scale. The role of gold has declined since the gold standard was abandoned 30 years ago by most economies. A lot of countries, apart from smaller gold positions, now also hold foreign currencies as part of national reserves. This mainly applies to currencies used in international trade. Mainly USD, EUR, JPY and to a smaller degree GBP, CAD and AUD. Strategic commodities are usually priced in one of these currencies and they are also most accepted form of payments and conversions in international banking.

3. Capital and labor factors

Another difference between domestic and international trade is that factors of production such as capital and labor are typically more mobile within a country than across countries. Thus international trade is mostly restricted to trade in goods and services, and only to a lesser extent to trade in capital, labor or other factors of production. Then trade in goods and services can serve as a substitute for trade in factors of production. Instead of importing the factor of production a country can import goods that make intensive use of the factor of production and are thus embodying the respective factor. An example is the import of laborintensive goods by the United States from China. Instead of importing Chinese labor, the United States is importing goods from China that were produced with Chinese labor. International trade is also a branch of economics, which together with international finance, forms the larger branch of international economy.

4. Different languages, laws, rules and cultures

Of course, when in terms with international trade, it involves, in most cases, different languages, especially different laws and rules, which may cause the obstacles among the traders. Furthermore, it is much more difficult for a company to have access to the cultures than to the local rules and laws.

1.2 The Laws and Usual Practices of the International Trade

The international sales of goods have close connections with the laws and usual practices

of the international trade. In practice, laws and regulations of various countries and international trade usages are involved, for example, Contractual Law, Bill Law, Agency Law etc. In international trade, United Nations Conventions on Contracts for the International Sales of Goods, Incoterms 2000, Incoterms 2010, Uniform Customs and Practice for Documentary Credits and Uniform Rules for Collection are so important that the students should paid more attention to them.

1.3 The Major International Trade Organization in the World

The Major International Trade Organization in the World as follows:

1. WTO (World Trade Organization)

WTO is the only global international organization in charge of the rules of trade between nations. At its heart are the WTO agreements, negotiated and signed by the bulk of the world's trading nations and ratified in their parliaments. The goal is to help producers of goods and services, exporters, and importers conduct their business. The WTO has helped to create a strong and prosperous international trading system, thereby contributing to unprecedented global economic growth. It currently has 153 members, of which 117 are developing countries or separate customs territories. WTO's activities are supported by a Secretariat of some 700 staffs, led by the WTO Director General. The Secretariat is located in Geneva, Switzerland, and has an annual budget of approximately CHF 200 million (\$180 million, \$130 million). The three official languages of the WTO are English, French and Spanish.

2. IMF (International Monetary Fund)

IMF is an organization with 185 member countries. The members are represented through a quota system broadly based on their relative size in the global economy. It is a specialized agency of the United Nations with its own charter, governing structure, and finances to foster global monetary cooperation, secure financial stability, facilitate international trade, promote high employment and sustainable economic growth, and reduce poverty around the world.

3. World Bank

The World Bank, not really a bank in the common sense, is a vital source of financial and technical assistance to developing countries around the world. Different from the World Bank Group, the World Bank is made up of only two institutions owned by 185 member countries: International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and International Development Association (IDA), each of which plays a different but collaborative role to advance the vision of

an inclusive and sustainable globalization. The IBRD focuses on middle income and creditworthy poor countries, while IDA focuses on the poorest countries in the world.

4. EU (European Union)

The European Union, established by the Treaty of Maastricht on 1 November 1993, is an economic and political union of 27 independent states based on the European Communities and founded to enhance political, economic and social cooperation. It is formerly known as European Community (EC) or European Economic Community (EEC). The EU has developed a single market through a standardized system of laws which apply in all member states, guaranteeing the freedom of movement of people, goods, services and capital. Important institutions and bodies of the EU include the European Commission, the European Parliament, the Council of the European Union, the European Council, the European Court of Justice and the European Central Bank.

5. APEC (Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation)

Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation is the premier forum for facilitating economic growth, cooperation, trade and investment in the Asia Pacific region. It is the only intergovernmental grouping in the world operating on the basis of nonbinding commitments, open dialogue and equal respect for the views of 21 participants. Unlike the WTO or other multilateral trade bodies, APEC has no treaty obligations required of its participants. Decisions made within APEC are reached by consensus and commitments are undertaken on a voluntary basis. APEC was established in 1989 to further enhance economic growth and prosperity for the region and to strengthen the Asia Pacific community. APEC also works to create an environment for the safe and efficient movement of goods, services and people across borders in the region through policy alignment and economic and technical cooperation.

6. ICC (International Chamber of Commerce)

International Chamber of Commerce is the voice of world business championing the global economy as a force for economic growth, job creation and prosperity. Because national economies are now so closely interwoven, government decisions have far stronger international repercussions than in the past. ICC is the world's only truly global business organization responds by being more assertive in expressing business views. Its' activities cover a broad spectrum, from arbitration and dispute resolution to making the case for open trade and the market economy system, business self regulation, fighting corruption or combating commercial crime. It has direct access to national governments all over the world through its national committees. The organization's international secretariat feeds business views into intergovernmental organizations on issues that directly affect business operations.

1.4 Mercantilism

1. Concept

Mercantilism can be defined in various ways, but most popularly it is defined as a sort of economic doctrine seeking to secure a nation's supremacy over other nations by the accumulation of precious metal (silver and gold) and by exporting the largest possible quantity of products while importing as little as possible.

2. Historical background

This doctrine or theory, representing the first stage in the development of modern trade theory, arose during the period 1500 to 1800 in Europe (mainly in Britain and France) with the decline of feudalism and the rise of capitalism. The quick growth of capitalism called for accumulation of currency and expansion of market.

3. Major view points of mercantilists and criticism of mercantilism

According to the mercantilists like Thomas Mun (1571—1641), the central question was how a country could regulate its domestic and international affairs so as to promote its own interests. The solution lay in a strong foreign trade sector. If a nation could achieve a favorable trade balance (trade surplus or a surplus of exports over imports), it would make a lot of money in the form of gold and silver. Such revenues would contribute to increased spending and a rise in domestic output and employment.

To achieve a trade surplus the mercantilists like Thomas Mun advocated governmental regulation of trade. Tariffs, quotas and other commercial policies (even monopolization) were proposed by mercantilists to minimize imports in order to protect a nation's trade position. In 1630, Thomas Mun the mercantilist English writer was quoted as saying: "The ordinary means therefore to increase our wealth and treasure is by foreign trade, wherein we must observe the rule: to sell more to strangers yearly than we consume of theirs in value."

By the 18th century, the economic policies of the mercantilists were under strong attack. For example, David Hume expressed his disagreement with mercantilists by saying that a favorable trade balance was possible only in the short run, for over time it would automatically be eliminated. Adam Smith also opposed the theory of mercantilism with the theory of free trade and international division of labor.

4. Is mercantilism dead?

The answer is no. It is still living and working in developed countries.

Some trade experts say Japan is a neomercantilism nation because its government, while

publicly supporting free trade, simultaneously seeks to protect certain segments of its economy from more efficient foreign competition. This example shows the theory of mercantilism remains in practice today. But modern version of mercantilism differs from the original in that today the accumulation of convertible currency instead of gold and silver is often the goal of governments.

1.5 Absolute Advantage

The second modern theory explaining why nation's trade is Adam Smith's absolute advantage. This theory of absolute advantage also represents the first stage in the development of modern trade theories.

1. Definition

When country A can produce a unit of a good with less labor than country B we say that country A has an absolute advantage in producing that good.

2. Major views of this theory

Adam Smith (1723—1790), one of the most influential classical economists was a leading advocate of free trade on the grounds that it promoted the international division of labor. According to his theory of absolute advantage, nations could concentrate their production on goods they could make most cheaply, with all the consequent benefits of the division of labor.

In further explaining his principle of absolute advantage he used some suppositions. "In a two country two product world", he said, international trade and specialization will be beneficial when one country has an absolute cost advantage (that is, it can produce goods using fewer resources) in the production of one product, whereas the other country has absolute cost advantage in the other product. For nations to benefit from the international division of labor, each nation must have a hand of goods that it is absolutely more efficient in producing than its trading partner.

Smith felt it was far better for a country to import goods that could be produced overseas more efficiently than to manufacture them itself. Countries would import goods in the production of which they had an absolute disadvantage against the exporting country. They would export goods in the production of which they had an absolute advantage over the importing country.

More of his theory of absolute advantage can be found in his landmark book the *Wealth of Nations* written in 1776 in which Adam Smith attacked the mercantilist assumption that trade was a zero sum game. In Smith's opinion each nation had some sort of absolute advantage in the production of certain goods. If it could specialize in the production of them and then exchange the goods with each other, every country would receive a benefit.

3. Illustration of the theory of absolute advantage

Suppose there is a two country, two product world in which Ghana produces cocoa and South Korea rice. Assume that Ghana and South Korea both have 200 units of resources and that these resources can be used to produce either. Further imagine that in Ghana (due to its favorable climate, good soil and ready access to world shipping routes) it takes 10 units of resources to produce one ton of cocoa and 20 units of resources to produce one ton of rice. Thus, Ghana could produce 20 tons of cocoa and no rice, 10 tons of rice and no cocoa, or some combination of rice and cocoa in between the two extremes.

Similarly imagine that in South Korea it takes 40 units of resources to produce one ton of cocoa and 10 units of resources to produce one ton of rice. Thus, South Korea could produce 5 tons of cocoa and no rice, 20 tons of rice and no cocoa, or some combination between the two extremes. Clearly, Ghana has an absolute advantage in the production of cocoa and South Korea has an absolute advantage in the production of rice as shown in the following figure.

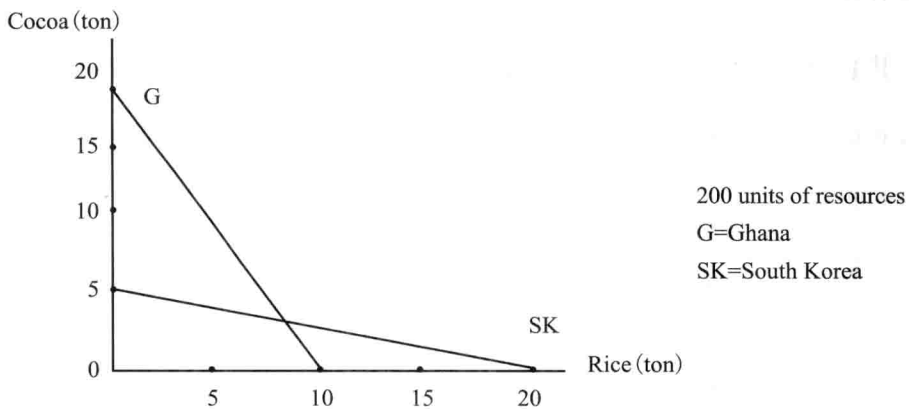


Figure 1-1

So it is mutually beneficial for Ghana and South Korea to sell the product in the production of which they have absolute advantage.

1.6 Comparative Advantage

1. Definition

Comparative advantage can be defined in the following two ways:

a. According to the theory of comparative advantage, it makes sense for a country to specialize in the production of those goods it produces most efficiently and to buy the goods from other countries that it produces less efficiently, even if this means buying goods from other countries that it could produce more efficiently itself.

b. A country has a comparative advantage in producing a good if the opportunity cost of producing that good in terms of other goods is lower in that country than it is in other countries.

2. Chief points of view

In explaining why nations trade, David Ricardo (1772—1823) developed the trade principle of comparative advantage. According to this principle, even if a nation has an absolute disadvantage in the production of both goods relative to its trading partner, a basis for mutually beneficial trade may still exist. The less efficient nation should specialize in and export the good in which it is comparatively less inefficient (where its absolute disadvantage is the least). The more efficient nation should specialize in and export that good in which it is comparatively more efficient (where its absolute advantage is the greatest). Absolute productive efficiency was thus not a crucial factor governing the basis for international trade, according to Ricardo. The Ricardian model or principle of comparative advantage is today the most famous and influential principle of economics.

3. Illustration of the principle of comparative advantage

The operation of comparative advantage principle can be shown by the following figure:

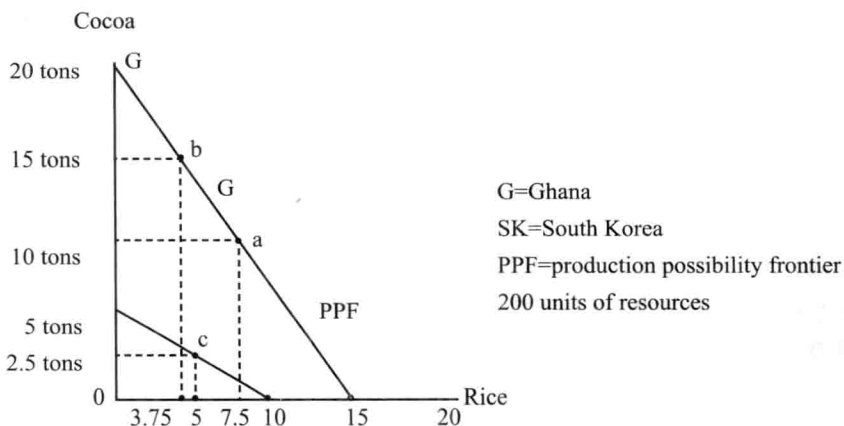


Figure 1-2

Assume that Ghana is more efficient in the production of both cocoa and rice, that Ghana has an absolute advantage in the production of both goods and that in Ghana it takes 10 units of resources to produce one ton of cocoa and 13 units of resources to produce one ton of rice. Thus, given its 200 units of resources, Ghana can produce 20 tons of cocoa and no rice, 15 tons of rice and no cocoa, or any combination between on its PPF.

In South Korea it takes 40 units of resources to produce one ton of cocoa and 20 units of resources to produce one ton of rice. Thus, South Korea can produce 5 tons of cocoa and no rice, 10 tons of rice and no cocoa, or any combination on its PPF.

Again assume that without trade each country uses half of its resources to produce rice

and half to produce cocoa. Thus, without trade, Ghana will produce 10 tons of cocoa and 7.5 tons of rice, while South Korea will produce 2.5 tons of cocoa and 5 tons of rice. In light of Ghana's absolute advantage in the production of both cocoa and rice why should it trade with South Korea? The answer is: Although Ghana has an absolute advantage in the production of both goods, it has comparative advantage only in the production of cocoa. In other words Ghana can produce 4 times as much cocoa as South Korea, but only 1.5 times as much rice. Ghana is comparatively more efficient at producing cocoa than it is at producing rice. In such a case when Ghana specializes in the production of cocoa and sell it in exchange for South Korea's rice which it is more efficient at producing, there is still mutually beneficial trade.

4. Comparison between the theory of absolute advantage and the theory of comparative advantage

After comparison we'll find Ricardo's theory of comparative advantage is more advanced than Smith's theory of absolute advantage. According to Smith's view, the product exported by a country must be a good which the exporting country has absolute advantage to produce and the cost of producing it must be absolutely lower than the same good of another country. But David Ricardo took Adam Smith's theory of absolute advantage one step further. In his opinion not necessarily every country has to produce all sorts of goods. What a nation should do is to concentrate its efforts and resources on producing those goods which can generate more advantages and bring about less disadvantages. Under such conditions international trade would result in international division of labor and specialization beneficial to all countries. In addition, Ricardo particularly stressed labor productivity and argued that differences in labor productivity between nations underlie the notion of comparative advantage.

Despite the differences between the two theories they have something in common. Both Smith and Ricardo emphasized the supply side of the market and the fact that the immediate basis for trade stemmed from cost differences. Actually Ricardo's theory of comparative advantage was developed on the basis of Smith's theory of absolute advantage.

Key words, phrases and special terms



- | | |
|---|----------------|
| 1. transactions [træn'zækʃən] <i>a.</i> | 办理, 处置, 交易; 业务 |
| 2. doctrine ['dɒktrɪn] <i>n.</i> | 学说, 理论 |
| 3. feudalism ['fju:dəlizəm] <i>n.</i> | 封建主义 |
| 4. regulate ['regju,leɪt] <i>vt.</i> | (依法) 管理 |
| 5. interests ['ɪntərist] <i>n.</i> | 利益 |
| 6. advocate ['ædvəkeɪt] <i>vt.</i> | 拥护, 提倡 |
| 7. monopolization [mə.nəpəlaɪ'zeɪʃən] <i>n.</i> | 垄断 |
| 8. minimize ['mɪnəmaɪz] <i>vt.</i> | 使减到最少 |

9. treasure ['treʒə] *n.* 金银财宝, 财富
10. wherein [hwɛər'in] *adv.* 在那方面, 在那里
11. observe [əb'zə:v] *vt.* 遵守
12. eliminate [i'limineit] *vt.* 消除, 使……不存在
13. segment ['segmənt] *n.* 部门
14. version ['vɜ:ʃən] *n.* 说法, 看法
15. convertible [kən'vɜ:təbl] *a.* 可兑换的
16. influential [ˌɪnflu'ɛnʃəl] *a.* 有影响的
17. classical ['klæsikəl] *a.* 古典的
18. supposition [ˌsʌpə'ziʃən] *n.* 假设
19. specialization [ˌspeʃəlaɪ'zeɪʃən] *n.* 专门化
20. whereas [hwɛər'æz] *conj.* 然而
21. landmark ['lændmɑ:k] *n.* (历史上的) 里程碑
22. assumption [ə'sʌmpʃən] *n.* 假定 (动词为assume)
23. imagine [i'mædʒɪn] *n.* 设想, 想象
24. climate ['klaɪmɪt] *n.* 气候 (weather 天气)
25. thus [ðʌs] *adv.* 因此
26. extreme [iks'tri:m] *n.* 极端
27. figure ['fɪɡə] *n.* 图
28. crucial ['kru:ʃəl] *a.* 决定性的, 关键的
29. notion ['nəʊʃən] *n.* 概念, 想法
30. arbitration [ˌɑ:bɪ'treɪʃən] *n.* 仲裁
31. bid [bɪd] *n.; v.* 投标
32. boundary ['baundri] *n.* 边界
33. deliberate [dɪ'libərit] *adj.* 故意的
34. dispute [dɪ'spjʊ:t] *n.* 争议
35. to provide (a) basis for 为……提供根据
36. to secure supremacy over (sb.) 获得超过某人的霸权
37. to call for... 要求, 需要……
38. to contribute to... 对……起一份作用
39. to be quoted as saying “...” 被引述时这样说道 “……”
40. to consume of sth. 消费某物
41. under strong attack 受到强有力的攻击
42. to express disagreement (with sb.) 表示 (对某人的) 不同意
43. in the short run 在短期内 (有时也用 in the short term)
44. to differ from... 与……不同
45. to benefit from... 从……获益
46. to exchange sth. with sb. 拿某物与某人进行交换
47. relative to... 与……相比较

48. in light of...	按照, 根据.....
49. to take sth. one step further	比.....高出一筹
50. to concentrate sth. on sth. else	将某事集中于某事
51. to result in...	导致..... (表示to lead to)
52. on the basis of...	在.....基础上
53. absolute advantage	绝对利益, 绝对优势
54. comparative advantage	比较利益, 比较优势
55. factor endowment	要素禀赋
56. the Leontief paradox	里昂惕夫反论
57. product lifecycle	产品生命周期
58. the "Gravity" model of trade	贸易的“万有引力”模式
59. mercantilism	重商主义
60. mercantilist	重商主义者
61. capitalism	资本主义 (an economic or political system that encourages private investment and the private ownership of both assets and wealth)
62. trade balance	贸易差额, 贸易平衡
63. trade surplus	贸易顺差 (反义为trade deficit)
64. international division of labor	国际分工
65. neomercantilism	新重商主义
66. convertible currency	可兑换货币
67. opportunity cost	机会成本
68. economics	经济学
69. PPF (production possibility frontier)	生产可能性边缘或曲线

Exercise

I. Answer the following questions.

1. What is mercantilism? What are its main view points?
2. In what way is the modern version of mercantilism different from the original one?
3. What is meant by the theory of absolute advantage?
4. Can you give a good illustration of comparative advantage?
5. Why is comparative advantage theory more popular today?
6. What are the similarities and dissimilarities between the theory of absolute advantage and the theory of comparative advantage?

II. Translate the following sentence into English.

1. 李嘉图认为每个国家不一定要生产各种商品, 而应集中力量生产那些具有最大绝对优势或最小绝对劣势的产品, 然后通过国际贸易互相获益。