

旅游·商贸专业英语

ENGLISH READERS IN TOURISM

AND INTERNATIONAL TRADE

國際商貿英語

INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN ENGLISH

梁根順
施平
編



陝西人民出版社

國際商貿英語

INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN ENGLISH

梁根順 施 平 編

陝西人民出版社

(陕)新登字 001 号

GUO JI SHANG MAO YING YU

国际商贸英语

梁根顺 施平 编

陕西人民出版社 出版发行

(西安北大街 131 号)

新华书店经销 西北政法学院印刷厂印刷

787×1092 毫米 32 开本 6.375 印张 132 千字

1994 年 7 月第 1 版 1994 年 7 月第 1 次印刷

印数:1—5000

ISBN 7-224-03579-3/H·123

定价:4.90 元

《旅游·商贸专业英语》

主 编 梁根顺

副主编 班荣学 胡国利

编 者 梁根顺 班荣学 胡国利 赵 荣
孙韶华 崔丽萍 施 平 褚广喜

FOREWORD

This is one of a series of books called ENGLISH READERS IN TOURISM AND INTERNATIONAL TRADE. The series is intended to introduce students of English as a foreign language to the particular language of Tourism Industry and International Trade, the career areas where English is extensively used throughout the world.

Each book in the series serves several purposes. The first is to give the students a general introduction to the particular vocational field in which he is interested. The duties, procedures, characteristics of different kinds of jobs are discussed.

This particular book called International Trade in English serves three purposes. The first is to give the student an introduction in English to international trade. The second is to offer the student an overview of the customs and procedures in this field. Still the third is to enable the learner to practice in mastering vocabulary and in using various

structural patterns that may occur in his work. The goal is for the student to improve his ability to communicate in English, particularly with others in the same field.

From the point of view of learning English as a foreign language, these books are intended for a student at the high intermediate or advanced level. The student who uses these books should be acquainted with most of the structural patterns of English. His principal goals as a learner should be mastering vocabulary, using the various patterns in a normal mixture, and improving his ability to communicate in English.

Each unit begins with a reading passage, which is followed by *Useful Words and Expressions*. *Discussion Questions* are designed with the purpose that the student should be given the opportunity to use in a communicative situation both the vocabulary items and structural patterns that have occurred in the reading.

Each unit ends with *Vocabulary Practice and Review*. Some of them test the student's comprehension of the special terms and give practice in their use, while others pose situations that might occur if

the student were working at the job. In doing these exercises, he will also practise the specialized vocational vocabulary and other new words, as well as the structural patterns that are used with them. A great deal of successful language learning comes from practice and experiences. In offering these books, it is hoped that the student's interest in his chosen field will increase his ability to communicate more effectively in English.

CONTENTS

目 录

UNIT ONE	Natural Resources	(1)
第一单元	自然资源	
UNIT TWO	Balance of Payments	(23)
第二单元	收支差额	
UNIT THREE	Foreign Exchange Trading	(46)
第三单元	外汇贸易	
UNIT FOUR	Multinational Corporations	(65)
第四单元	万国公司	
UNIT FIVE	Foreign Direct Investment	(86)
第五单元	国外直接投资	
UNIT SIX	Financing of International Trade	(101)
第六单元	外贸金融	
UNIT SEVEN	International Taxation	(131)
第七单元	国际税务	
UNIT EIGHT	International Bodies and Cartels	(153)

第八单元	国际组织和企业联合	
UNIT NINE	The Future of International	
	Trade	(176)
第九单元	外贸展望	
SPECIAL TERMS IN INTERNATIONAL		
TRADE		(187)
商贸专业术语		

UNIT ONE

NATURAL RESOURCES

The location of the world's natural resources, also called *commodities*, determines the patterns of world trade. Some regions are abundant in resources; elsewhere, reserves are scarce or nonexistent. As far as the industrialized nations are concerned, the United States and Canada enjoy the most favorable position. They are the dominant *exporters* of grains. The United States and Canada also have vast coal and oil reserves, as well as *nonferrous* metal deposits, such as copper, zinc, and lead, which these countries export. The United States is also a heavy consumer of natural resources, and it is increasingly reliant on certain *imports*, especially on oil. Japan, a highly industrialized nation, is very dependent and has to import 99% of its primary commodities. Western Europe produces nearly all of the grain it needs but lacks other commodities to a great

extent. The United States, Canada, Japan, and Western Europe all have to import tropical agricultural products from the developing nations.

There are basically three commodity groups *minerals*, such as coal, oil, copper, zinc, and bauxite; *tropical agricultural products*, such as cocoa, coffee, sugar, tea, and tobacco, which grow in tropical climates; and *cereals*, such as wheat, maize, and other grains, which grow in colder climates. While world consumption of resources is increasing equally fast. The Brookings Institution in Washington, D. C., estimates that iron ore and bauxite reserves have recently doubled. The amount of world reserves has been determined by *exploration*. Although the earth contains extremely large mineral deposits, some of these are not easily accessible. Also, in some cases, the quality of a mineral varies from one place to another. For example, in the nineteenth century half of the world's copper ore came from Cornwall, England, and had a 13% metal content. Today copper ore mined in the United States has less than a 1% metal content. But over the last seventy years, improved technology in exploration, production, and transportation now

makes mining of such ores with low-metal content a worthwhile venture.

A great part of the world's reserves may still be unknown because they are inaccessible. However, new ways to discover and *exploit* these reserves may yet be found.

Efforts to conserve the environment sometimes clash with the advancement of technology. Environmentalists in the United States want to outlaw strip mining of coal, a technique whereby land is scraped from above in order to find coal. At least they want to force the mining companies to restore the scarred earth to its natural state after the searches for coal have been made.

Increased technology sometimes decreases the demand for natural resources. The need for metals has been relieved by the development of plastics and synthetic fibers. Solar energy may eventually lessen our dependence on oil. Increased recycling of paper, metals, and other reusable materials will further reduce our demands for primary commodities. However, an offsetting factor to these new developments is the growth of the world's population, which puts an even greater demand on natural resources.

Tropical agricultural products differ from minerals in the sense that they are *renewable*. that is, new crops can be harvested on the same land. Technology is not very advanced in many developing nations where tropical crops are grown, so production is very dependent on manual labor. This is not a constraint, since these countries are densely populated. However, the lack of *capital* (money to invest) may be a problem. It takes five years for coffee trees to reach their peak of production and seven years for rubber trees. Sugar processing facilities are expensive to build. Also, many developing nations resist foreign investment in their industries, thereby restricting the growth of production.

The availability of grain supplies depends on two factors population growth and increased production. For the past twenty years world grain production has grown 3% annually. In the same period world population has grown by 2%. But by the year 2000, six billion people are expected to live on earth, and grain production will have to expand greatly. The industrialized countries achieved their production growth without expansion of agricultural acreage; in developing countries acreage increased

30%. Improved technology and increased cultivation should help alleviate some of the food problems now lying ahead of us. In Latin America, according to a United Nations study, the crop acreage could be quadrupled, and in North America it could be doubled.

International trade, where goods and services move across borders, is often explained by the *theory of comparative advantage*, also called the *comparative cost theory*. This theory was developed by David Ricardo, John Stuart Mill, and other economists in the nineteenth century. The theory emphasizes that different countries or regions have different production possibilities. A tropical climate is better suited for growing bananas than a cold one. A country like Norway could produce bananas in hothouses, but it is cheaper for Norway to import bananas than to produce them. Thus, climate establishes a trade pattern between a northern and a southern country. In other cases the availability of natural resources may be the trade factor.

The theory of comparative cost points out that trade between countries can be profitable for all, even if one of the countries can produce every com-

modity more cheaply. As long as there are minor, *relative* differences in the efficiency of producing a commodity, even the poor country can have a comparative advantage in producing it. The paradox is best illustrated by this traditional example: the best lawyer in town is also the best typist in town. Since this lawyer cannot afford to give up precious time from legal affairs, a typist is hired who may be less efficient than the lawyer in both legal and typing matters. But the typist's *comparative disadvantage* is least in typing. Therefore, the typist has a *relative comparative advantage* in typing.

The same holds true for countries. Paul Samuelson, a well - known United States economist, gives this example: the United States is relatively more efficient than Europe in producing food (using only one - third of the labor that Europe does) and in producing clothing (using only one - half the labor). Thus, while the United States has an *absolute advantage* in both forms of production, its efficiency in food production is greater. It has a comparative disadvantage in clothing. Consequently, a great deal of clothing is exported from Europe to the United States. To conclude, the theory of

comparative advantage states that if each country specializes in products in which it has a comparative advantage (greatest relative efficiency), trade between these countries will be mutually profitable.

Comparative advantage has led countries to specialize in particular products and to massproduce. Sometimes this goes one step further. Italy gained a comparative advantage over many countries in massproducing wine. France, self-supporting in wine, presently imports large quantities of Italian wine, which is cheaper. In turn, a large portion of the French wine production is exported.

It is generally assumed, as the famous economist David Ricardo stated in the last century, that international trade is beneficial for all participants. However, governments can often take protectionist measures. For example, they can impose tariffs and quotas on imported items. A *tariff* is a tax on imported items, computed as a percentage of the import value. An import *quota* is the maximum quantity of a product allowed into a country during a given period of time. These measures are meant to protect domestic industry so that imported goods will not be sold cheaper than home-produced ones.

At the same time, countries attempt to achieve equilibrium in the balance of payments, which will be discussed in Unit Two.

International trade can also be limited due to the high cost of transporting bulky or perishable goods. Even if the United States had a comparative advantage over Jordan in producing lampposts, transportation expenses would prevent exporting them to that country. Similarly, if Holland had a comparative advantage over Brazil in producing tomatoes, transportation costs would make these perishable goods too expensive to sell.

World trade patterns can change and have changed dramatically in some cases. Japan, a closed society for many centuries, was opened up to trade at the end of the nineteenth century. Gradually, Japan gained a comparative advantage in many industries because its labor costs were lower than in the West. Although Japan has to import raw materials, it exports the finished products.

Changes in climate also affect trade patterns. The Sahara desert, for example, creeps southward at a rate of thirty miles annually. If no irrigation is provided, countries in the sub - Sahara belt will