



新世纪专业英语系列教材
New Century Subject-oriented English

中国人民大学 编著
总主编
张勇先 康成翠

国际贸易英语教程

English for International Trade

(第2版)

主 编 许葵花
副主编 李 平



西安交通大学出版社
XI'AN JIAOTONG UNIVERSITY PRESS



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内容提要

《国际贸易英语教程》(第2版)主要由国际贸易概论和国际贸易实用操作两部分组成,是通俗国际贸易理论与国际贸易工作实践的结合。该教材采用了大量来源于生活、工作中的国际贸易资料来阐明相应的国际贸易理论,理论中有实践,实践中又渗透出理论,充分展现了生活、工作中大量存在的国际贸易现象,从全新的角度分析了国际贸易的丰富内涵。该教材用灵活多样的形式、地道的语言以及来源于生活、工作中的案例对国际贸易知识的普及以及解决工作中的实际问题将起到启迪及积极的推动作用。

本书适合国际贸易专业及其他专业的学生、与国际贸易相关的工作人员及需要此方面知识的人士使用。

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

国际贸易英语教程 / 许葵花主编. —2版. —西安:西安交通大学出版社, 2009.3
(新世纪专业英语系列教材)
ISBN 978-7-5605-3050-5
I. 国… II. 许… III. 国际贸易-英语-高等学校-教材
IV. H31
中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字(2009)第 015733 号

书 名 国际贸易英语教程(第2版)

总 主 编 张勇先 康成翠

主 编 许葵花

责任编辑 王晓芬

出版发行 西安交通大学出版社
(西安市兴庆南路10号 邮政编码 710049)

网 址 <http://www.xjtupress.com>

电 话 (029)82668357 82667874(发行中心)
(029)82668315 82669096(总编办)

传 真 (029)82668280

印 刷 西安交通大学印刷厂

开 本 727mm×960mm 1/16 印张 19.125 字数 352千字

版次印次 2009年3月第2版 2009年3月第1次印刷

书 号 ISBN 978-7-5605-3050-5/H·867

定 价 39.00元(附赠MP3光盘一张)

读者购书、书店添货、如发现印装质量问题,请与本社发行中心联系、调换。

订购热线:(029)82665248 (029)82665249

投稿热线:(029)82664953 (029)82664981

读者信箱:cf_english@126.com

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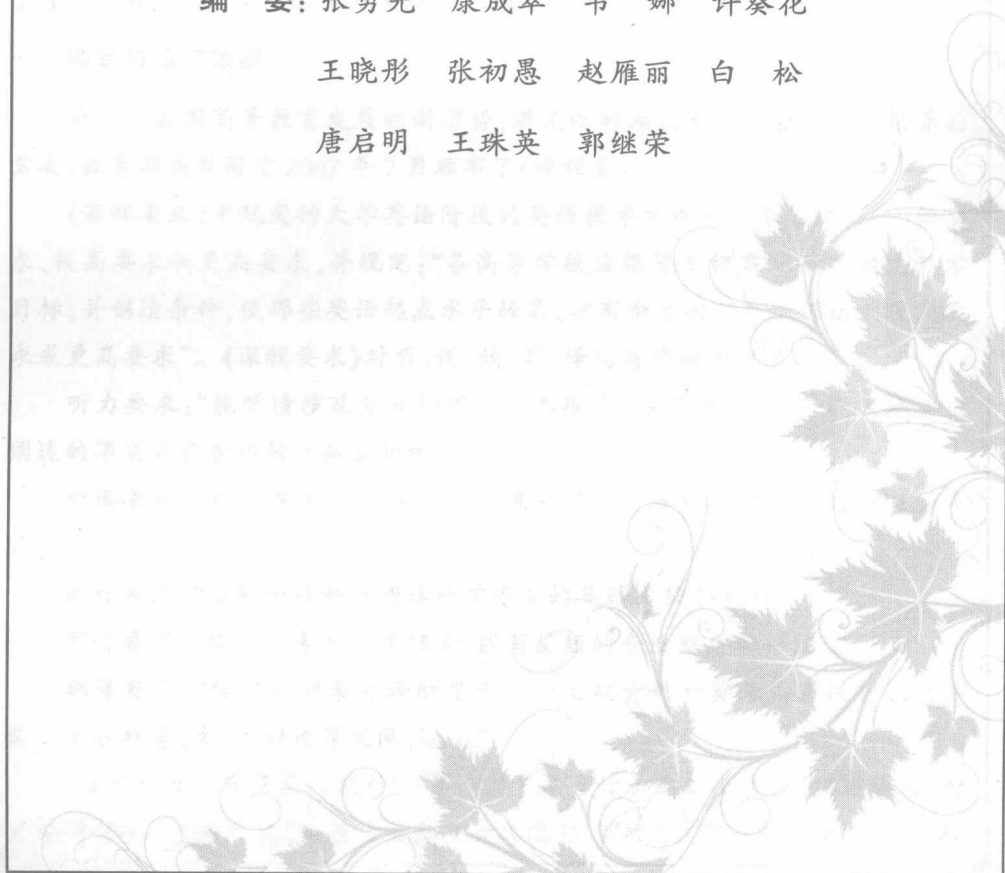
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总序 *Preface*

“新世纪专业英语系列教材”自2003年出版以来在全国高校使用了6年,受到国内专家学者及广大教师和学生的的好评,其中《工商管理英语教材》被列入教育部“普通高等教育‘十一五’国家级规划教材”。

为更好地推进专业英语教学,强化使用效果,编者遵循教育部《大学英语课程教学要求》(以下简称《课程要求》),结合实际使用中的反馈意见,经过近2年认真仔细地调整与策划,对第1版进行了修订与补充,并在原有基础上增补了5个品种,推出“新世纪专业英语系列教材”(第2版)(总计12种)。

一、编写与修订依据

为适应我国高等教育发展的新形势,满足新时期国家和社会对人才培养的需要,教育部高教司于2007年7月颁布了《课程要求》。

《课程要求》中规定的大学英语阶段的英语教学要求分3个层次,即一般要求、较高要求和更高要求,并规定:“各高等学校应根据本校实际情况确定教学目标,并创造条件,使那些英语起点水平较高、学有余力的学生能够达到较高要求或更高要求”。《课程要求》对听、说、读、写、译均有明确的规定:

听力要求:“能听懂涉及专业知识的学术报告、专题讲座等,并能理解其中阐述的事实或包含的较为抽象的概念。”

口语要求:“能在学术会议或专业交流中较为自如地表达自己的观点和看法,……”

阅读要求:“能较为顺利地阅读所学专业的英语文献和资料。”

写作要求:“能撰写专业文章摘要,能写简短的专业报告和论文。”

翻译要求:“能借助词典翻译所学专业的文献资料和英语国家报刊上有一定难度的科普、文化、评论等文章,……”

“新世纪专业英语系列教材”(第2版)在设计和编写上贯彻《课程要求》对大学英语的“更高要求”的教学目标及大学英语参考词汇等方面所做的界定和

描述,并在此基础上,结合英语教学理论与实际教学要求,进行了修改与增补。

二、修订与增补内容

1. 将原系列中的《国际贸易英语教程》、《工商管理英语教程》、《新闻英语教程》、《旅游英语教程》、《法律英语教程》5个品种的上、下册合为1册,将《财经英语教程》按照专业拆分为《金融英语教程》和《会计英语教程》。

2. 新增《电子商务英语教程》、《人力资源管理英语教程》、《物流管理英语教程》、《市场营销英语教程》和《管理英语教程》,从而更加方便学生与教师的学习与使用。

三、编写原则与特点

本系列教材充分贯彻《课程要求》的基本精神,在内容编排方面,除精心编选课文外,还创新性地设置听、说、读、写、译练习,更加强化了学生英语综合能力的培养。其突出特点如下:

1. 课文选材新颖:课文中绝大部分文章是2000年以后发表的,具有很强的时代感。

2. 课文语言地道:课文绝大部分取材于国外著名专家的原版著作,语言地道,具有很高的权威性与可读性。

3. 内容覆盖全面:内容涉猎面广,具有很丰富的知识性。以工商管理为例,全书包括从工商管理十大原理,如企业经理的作用、策划、计划及组织等,到企业招聘面试,均有涉及。

4. 课文难度适中:课文深入浅出,避免晦涩艰深,对学生完成从基础到专业的过渡具有很大的帮助。

5. 练习类型多样:练习融听、说、读、写、译于一体,难易兼顾,符合我国新世纪的最新教学理念,对教师教学具有很强的可操作性。

6. 辅助功能齐备:教材的附录部分提供了练习答案、参考译文、总词汇表及听力原文,使学生学习及教师教学更加方便与灵活。每册教材均配有由外籍语言专家朗读的Mp3听力光盘1张。

四、编写队伍

本系列教材均由专业英语教师与大学英语教师共同编写,课文译文由英语过硬的专业教师负责审定。

总主编由曾在国内出版了大量颇受欢迎的教材、专著及词典等的中国人民大学外语学院张勇先教授与康成翠副教授担任。各分册主编与编者绝大部分为中国人民大学外语学院与商学院等骨干教师。其中《金融英语教程》与《会计英语教程》由韦娜(美国教育学博士)主编;《国际贸易英语教程》由许葵花(语言学博士)主编;《旅游英语教程》由王晓彤(语言学在读博士)主编;《工商管理英语教程》、《物流管理英语教程》和《市场营销英语教程》由张初愚(英国工商管理硕士)主编;《法律英语教程》由赵雁丽(语言学与法学双硕士)主编;《新闻英语教程》由白松(语言学硕士)主编;《电子商务英语教程》由唐启明(语言学硕士)主编;《人力资源管理英语教程》由王珠英(语言学硕士)主编;《管理英语教程》由郭继荣(语言学博士)主编。

此外,还特邀了北京外国语大学、中国社科院、西安交通大学、北京联合大学等单位的著名教授、专家与学者加盟。

本系列教材虽经编者尽心推敲、仔细查阅,纰漏与差错在所难免,恳请各界专家、学者及热心的读者不吝赐教。

编者

2009年3月

前言 Foreword

时间飞逝,本教程第一版已经使用了近六年之久。世界发展之快让人目不暇接,就中国而言,仅五、六年的时间已使它从教程编订之初的全球化经济热潮的来临之际飞速转到融入世界经济的全球化阶段;加入 WTO 带给人们的兴奋与争论已转化为平静、自然及在国际贸易中的频繁、积极的投入。

为适应中国经济飞速发展所带来的新情况、新事物,依旧本着培养具有英语及国际贸易复合型、创新型人才的初衷,也应广大读者的要求,我们对教程进行了修订。原上下册现合为一册,选材注重基础性、操作性和实践性,理论性较强的内容不再采用;全书共分为十五个单元,单元结构略有变化,每单元分为主课文、针对主课文的配套练习及一篇副课文;对于第一版练习和副课文中时效性过强的内容我们也进行了删改和替换。替换内容全部取材于近两年的新闻报纸及经济报道类杂志,时代感、趣味性、实际性兼顾。练习形式还是秉承多样性和交际性的原则,包括听、说、读、写、译五部分,尤其侧重听和说。教程的附录中包括练习答案、听力原文及主课文的翻译,供学生及读者参考及自学。

本教程是在国际贸易专业与英语专业的教师共同努力下完成的。专业知识方面严谨、新颖、实用;语言知识方面地道、规范、实用。

衷心地希望这套教材对国际贸易专业及其他专业的学生、与国际贸易相关的工作人员及需要此方面知识的人士有所裨益。

书中难免出现错谬之处,请专家和读者指正。

编者

2008 年 12 月

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Unit 1

International Trade

International trade has always changed the way people live. Traders throughout the history have helped transmit knowledge and inventions. Today, foreign products from Sony, Mitsubishi, General Electric, IBM¹ are very familiar to us. International trade has the potential to benefit all participating countries.

✻ **Key terms: specialization comparative advantage absolute advantage
 opportunity cost**

Since ancient times, people have expanded their trading as far as technology allowed. Marco Polo opened up the silk route between Europe and China in the thirteenth century. Today, container ships laden with cars and machines and Boeing 747s stuffed with farm-fresh foods ply sea and air routes, carrying billions of dollars worth of goods. Why do people go to such great lengths to trade with those in other nations? All nations have particular talents and resources; like individuals, whole nations can specialize in one or many activities. For example, the islands of the Caribbean² have abundant sunshine and good weather year round, and so these islands specialize in tourism. Specialization enables nations to emphasize the activities at which they are most efficient and at the same time gain certain advantages through trade.

But which goods should a country specialize in? What should it export and what should it import? The answer is that it should specialize in those goods in which it has a comparative advantage.

Countries have different endowments of factors of production³. They differ in population density, labor skill, climate, raw materials, capital equipment, etc.

These differences tend to persist because factors are relatively immobile between countries. Obviously land and climate are totally immobile, but even with labor and capital there tend to be more restrictions (physical, social, cultural or legal) on their international movement than on their movement within countries. Thus the ability to supply goods differs between countries.

What this means is that the relative costs⁴ of producing goods will vary from country to country. For example, one country may be able to produce 1 fridge for the same cost as 6 tons of wheat or 3 compact disc players, whereas another country may be able to produce 1 fridge for the same cost as only 3 tons of wheat but 4 CD players. It is these differences in relative costs that form the basis of trade.

At this stage we need to distinguish between absolute advantage and comparative advantage.

When one country can produce a good with less resources than another country it is said to have an absolute advantage in that good. If France can produce wine with less resources than the UK, and the UK can produce gin with less resources than France, then France has an absolute advantage in wine and the UK an absolute advantage in gin. Production of both wine and gin will be maximized by each country specializing and then trading with the other country. Both will gain.

The above seems obvious, but trade between two countries can still be beneficial even if one country could produce all goods with less resources than the other, providing the relative efficiency with which goods can be produced differs between the two countries.

Take the case of a developed country that is absolutely more efficient than a less developed country at producing both wheat and cloth. Assume that with a given amount of resources (labor, land and capital) the alternatives shown in Table 1 can be produced in each country.

Table 1: production possibilities for two countries

	Kilos of wheat		Meters of cloth
Less developed country	2	or	1
Developed country	4	or	8

Despite the developed country having an absolute advantage in both wheat and

cloth, the less developed country (LDC) has a comparative advantage in wheat, and the developed country has a comparative advantage in cloth.

This is because wheat is relatively cheaper in terms of cloth in the LDC: only 1 meter of cloth has to be sacrificed in the developed country to produce 2 kilos of wheat, whereas 8 meters of cloth would have to be sacrificed in the developed country to produce 4 kilos of wheat. In other words, the opportunity cost⁵ of wheat is 4 times higher in the developed country ($8/4$ compared with $1/2$).

On the other hand, cloth is relatively cheaper in the developed country. Here the opportunity cost of producing 8 meters of cloth is only 4 kilos of wheat, whereas in the LDC 1 meter of cloth costs 2 kilos of wheat. Thus the opportunity cost of cloth is 4 times higher in the LDC ($2/1$ compared with $4/8$).

If countries are to gain from trade, they should export those goods in which they have a comparative advantage and import those goods in which they have a comparative disadvantage. Given this we can state a law of comparative advantage: provided opportunity costs of various goods differ in two countries, both of them can gain from mutual trade if they specialize in producing (and exporting) those goods that have relatively low opportunity costs compared with the other country.

Before trade, unless markets are very imperfect, the prices of the two goods are likely to reflect their opportunity costs. For example, in Table 1, since the less developed country can produce 2 kilos of wheat for 1 meter of cloth, the price of 2 kilos of wheat will roughly equal 1 meter of cloth.

Assume, then, that the pre-trade exchange ratios of wheat for cloth are as follows:

LDC: 2 wheat for 1 cloth

Developed country: 1 wheat for 2 cloth (i. e. 4 for 8)

Both countries will now gain from trade, provided the exchange ratio is somewhere between $2:1$ and $1:2$. Assume, for the sake of argument, that it is $1:1$. In other words, 1 wheat trades internationally for 1 cloth. How will each country gain?

The LDC gains by exporting wheat and importing cloth. At an exchange ratio of $1:1$, it now only has to give up 1 kilo of wheat to obtain a meter of cloth, whereas before trade it had to give up 2 kilos of wheat.

The developed country gains by exporting cloth and importing wheat. Again at an exchange ratio of $1:1$, it now only has to give up 1 meter of cloth to obtain a kilo

of wheat, whereas before it had to give up 2 meters of cloth.

Thus both countries have gained from trade.

Does the law of comparative advantage suggest that countries will completely specialize in just a few products? In practice, countries are likely to experience increasing opportunity costs. The reason for this is that, as a country increasingly specializes in one good, it will have to use resources that are less and less suited to its production and which were more suited to other goods. Thus ever increasing amounts of the other goods will have to be sacrificed. For example, as a country specializes more and more in grain production, it will have to use land that is less and less suited to growing grain.

These increasing costs as a country becomes more and more specialized will lead to the disappearance of its comparative cost advantage. When this happens, there will be no point in further specialization. Thus whereas a country like Germany has a comparative advantage in capital-intensive manufactures, it does not produce only manufactures. It would make no sense not to use its fertile lands to produce food or its forests to produce timber. The opportunity costs of diverting all agricultural labor to industry would be very high.

Even if there are no initial comparative cost differences between two countries, it will still benefit both to specialize in industries where economies of scale⁶ can be gained, and then to trade. Once the economies of scale begin to appear, comparative cost differences will also appear, and thus the countries will have gained a comparative advantage in these industries.

This reason for trade is particularly relevant for small countries where the domestic market is not large enough to support large-scale industries. Thus exports form a much higher percentage of GNP⁷ in small countries such as Luxembourg than in large countries such as the USA.

Even with no comparative cost differences and no potential economies of scale, trade can benefit both countries if demand conditions differ.

If people in country A like beef more than lamb, and people in country B like lamb more than beef, then rather than A using resources better suited for lamb to produce beef, and B using resources better suited for producing beef to produce lamb, it will benefit both to produce beef and lamb and to export the one they like less in return for the one they like more.

If a country trades, the competition from imports may stimulate greater

efficiency at home. This extra competition may prevent domestic monopolies/oligopolies from charging high prices. It may stimulate greater research and development and the more rapid adoption of new technology. It may lead to a greater variety of products being made available to consumers.

In a growing world economy, the demand for a country's exports is likely to grow over time, especially when these exports have a high income elasticity of demand⁸. This will provide a stimulus to growth in the exporting country.

There may be political, social and cultural advantages to be gained by fostering trading links between countries.

Words & Expressions

ply/plai/ <i>v.</i>	(of ships, buses, etc.) go regularly to and fro (指船、公共汽车等)定期往来;定时往来
endowment /in'daʊmənt/ <i>n.</i>	a natural talent or quality 天赋;天资
ton/tʌn/ <i>n.</i>	measure of weight (2240 lb in GB, 2000 lb in the US) 吨(英国为 2240 磅,美国为 2000 磅)
compact /kəm'pækt/ <i>a.</i>	closely packed together; neatly fitted; (of literary style) condensed 包扎紧密的;压紧的;细密的;恰 好合适的;(指文体)简洁的
gin /dʒin/ <i>n.</i>	杜松子酒
maximize /'mæksimaɪz/ <i>v.</i>	to make as high or great as possible; increase to a maximum 使达最高限度;增至最大限度
divert /daɪvət/ <i>v.</i>	turn in another direction 使转向;使改道
monopoly /mə'nɒpəli/ <i>n.</i>	complete possession of trade, talk, etc. 商业、谈话等的独占;垄断
oligopoly /ɒli'gɒpəli/ <i>n.</i>	a market situation in which control over the supply of a commodity is held by a small number of producers 寡头;卖主垄断
elasticity /elæ'stɪsɪti/ <i>n.</i>	capability of being adapted to meet the demands of a particular situation 弹性
foster /'fɒstə/ <i>v.</i>	care for; help the growth and development of; nurture 照顾;抚育;养育;培养



Notes

1. IBM: International Business Machines; (美国)国际商用机器公司
2. the islands of the Caribbean: 加勒比海群岛
3. factors of production: 生产要素。包括土地、劳动、资本及企业家才能
4. relative cost: 相对成本
5. opportunity cost: 机会成本。西方经济学认为,由于生产要素的供给是有限的,人们不可能无限制地生产所有商品。在这种情况下,把生产要素用来生产某种产品就要放弃生产另一种产品。为生产某种产品而放弃生产另一种产品所能带来的收益,就是所要生产的产品的机会成本。例如,一个农民有块土地,他若使用它种植燕麦,能给他带来 6000 美元的收入;但如用这块土地种大豆,则能给他带来 7000 美元的收入。这样,6000 美元燕麦的机会成本是 7000 美元的大豆。用这种计算方法,这个农民的经济损失为 1000 美元。这个农民应选择种植大豆,而不应选种燕麦。换言之,机会成本是西方经济学中一个重要概念,在机会成本理论的指导下,可以使供给有限的生产要素带来最大的收益。这一理论既被运用于生产,也被运用于消费;既被运用于个人和厂商的经济活动,也被运用于全社会的经济活动。从社会考虑,机会成本所包括的范围要广得多。为生产某种产品而造成的环境污染等都应包括在内。
6. economies of scale: 规模经济。是指随着厂商增加产量,扩大生产规模,平均成本下降的效果。
7. GNP: 全称为 gross national product, 国民生产总值。GNP 是综合反映一国经济发展水平的重要经济指标之一。指一国在一定时期(通常是一年)内所生产的最终产品(final goods)和劳务的市场价值的总和。通常由国民经济各物质生产部门的净产值、固定资产折旧、非物质生产部门的纯收入三部分组成。
8. income elasticity of demand: 需求的收入弹性。是指消费者的收入变化对需求量变化的影响程度。由需求量变动的百分比除以收入变动的百分比。比值越大,说明弹性越大,需求对收入变化的反映越敏感。



Exercises

➔ I. Comprehension

1. Answer the following questions.

1) In nation H, the opportunity cost of tables is 5 chairs, while in nation B, the opportunity cost of tables is only 1 chair. Which country should produce tables, and which should produce chairs?

- 2) Nations H and B split the difference between the willingness to pay for tables and the willingness to accept. What are the terms of trade?
 - 3) Why does the United States produce automobiles for export and at the same time import large quantities of them from Canada, Japan, Korea, and Western Europe? Wouldn't it make more sense to produce all the cars that they buy in the United States? After all, they have access to the best technology available for producing cars. Autoworkers in the United States are surely as productive as their fellow workers in Canada, Western Europe, and Asian countries. So why does the United States have a comparative advantage in some types of cars and Japan and Europe in the others?
2. What are the reasons of international trade? (name at least four reasons)
- 1) _____
 - 2) _____
 - 3) _____
 - 4) _____
 - 5) _____
 - 6) _____

✈ II. Vocabulary

1. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate terms from the text.
 - 1) A country has a(n) _____ over another in the production of a good if it can produce it with less resources than the other country.
 - 2) Trade can benefit all countries if they specialize in the goods in which they have a _____.
 - 3) With increasing _____ there will be a limit to specialization and trade. As a country increasingly specializes, its comparative advantage will eventually disappear.
 - 4) Americans buy TVs and VCRs from Korea, machinery from Europe, and fashion goods from Hong Kong district. We sell machinery, grain and lumber, airplanes, computers and financial services. All this international trade is generated by _____.
 - 5) _____ according to the law of comparative advantage permits the