英汉对照 国际贸易实务英语

第二版

English for International Trade Practices

熊伟　陈凯　编著

WUHAN UNIVERSITY PRESS
武汉大学出版社

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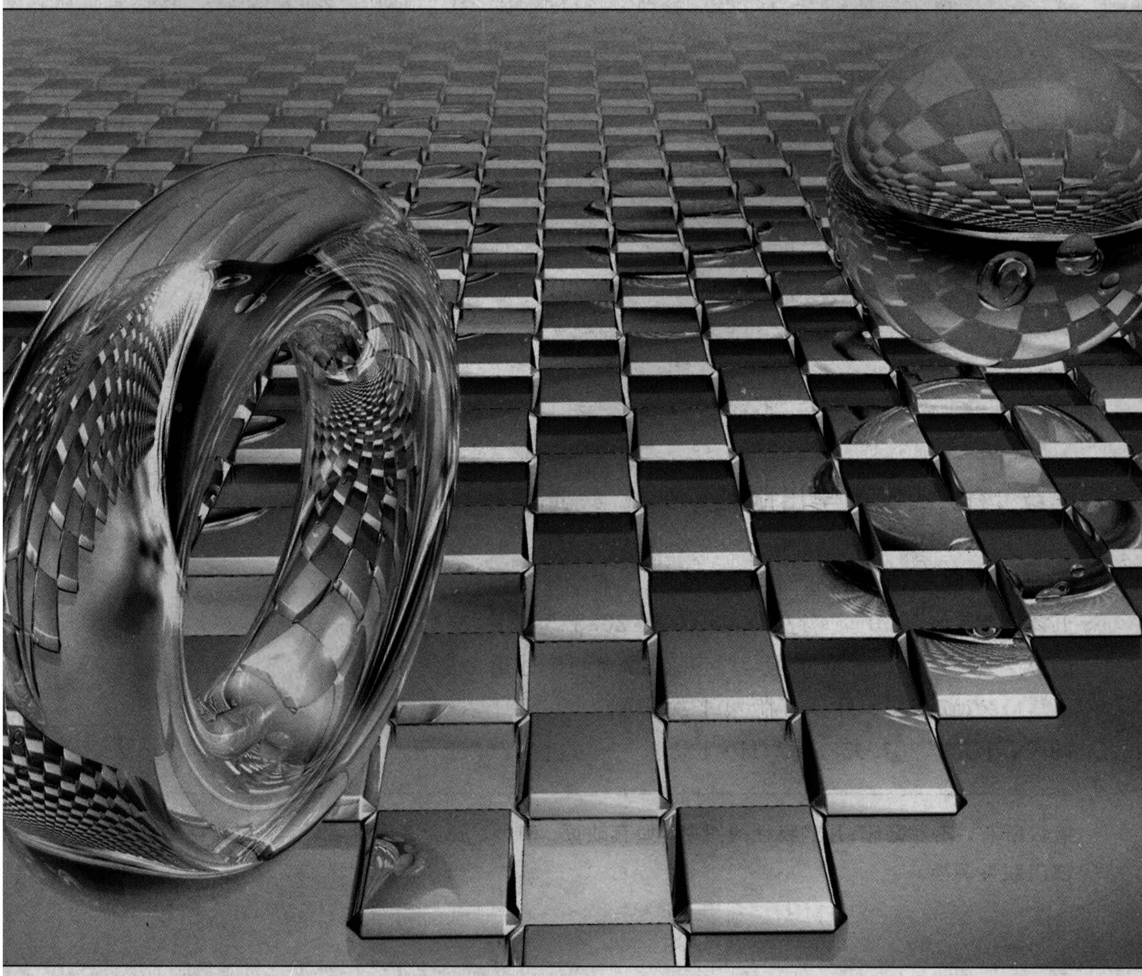

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第二版前言

随着改革开放的不断深入，经济的飞速发展以及加入 WTO，我国与世界各国的经济贸易往来越来越多。英语作为国际交往中的通用语言，在国际经济贸易领域里，发挥着日益重要的作用。然而，仅仅具备良好的外语能力是不够的，还必须掌握与国际经济贸易有关的专业知识。只有将这两方面结合起来并融会贯通的复合型专业人才，才会在激烈的竞争中立于不败之地。为此，本书编写的出发点是既能提高外语水平，又能学习专业知识。

笔者在进行商务英语的教学过程中发现很多学生，特别是那些非经贸专业的学生在学习商务英语时，对专业知识掌握得不够。并且，有些商务英语教程是建立在学生已经具备一定专业知识的前提下而编写的，所以，这些教材侧重于语言技能的学习，忽略了专业知识的整体性、系统性。另一方面，一些专业英语教材，又过于理论化和抽象化，也不太利于学生学习。

本书的特点是以英汉对照的方式来介绍进出口贸易的整个流程，从而使读者系统地掌握国际贸易的基本知识，提高专业英语水平。这样做的好处是使读者始终有一个完整、清晰的概念，而非断章取义地来学习国际贸易英语。这对那些非经贸专业的读者来说是非常有益的，因为他们可以了解一笔交易从发生到发展再到结束的整个过程。本书的另一个显著特点是配有大量的插图和图表，其目的是化繁为简，让读者以直观的方式来了解复杂的贸易过程。此外，本书还用不同的方式介绍了中英文对照的《联合国国际货物销售合同公约》、《国际贸易术语解释通则》部分章节，这对读者学习地道的专业英语，深入了解专业知识也会有极大的帮助。

本书共分为 11 个单元，每个单元包括 4 个部分。第一部分是课文。该部分按照交易发展的顺序，系统地阐述了国际贸易中的一些重要环节。第二部分是单词和短语。该部分列举了课文中出现的主要与专业知识有关的单词和短语。第三部分是专业术语。该部分对课文中出现的重要术语进行了简要、精确的解释，使读者能够正确、清晰地理解这些术语的含义。第四部分是补充阅读材料。补充一篇与课文有关的文章，给出简要的注释，能帮助读者检查学习效果，增加知识的广度和深度。

本书自从 2001 年 9 月出版以来，受到了许多院校师生、学者的关注和认可，本书已重印 7 次，收到了良好的社会效益和经济效益。同时在使用的过程中广大读者、专家也不断地反馈给出版社和作者本人许多好的意见和建议。为了更好地紧跟形势发

展，我们对本书进行了修订，首先对书稿中有不完善的地方，我们进行了补充和修正，增加了电子商务英语这个版块内容。

本书可作为高校涉外专业学习专业英语的教材，也可供从事国际贸易工作的人员学习参考。在编写本书的过程中，作者参考了多种国内外出版的有关著作和刊物，朱丽萍、苏平、李长春等帮助校阅了部分稿件，在此也一并表示感谢。由于编者囿于水平和学识，尽管倾心编写，错误、疏漏在所难免，敬请专家和读者不吝指正。

编　者

目　录

Unit 1

A Brief Introduction to International Trade

Part A Text

1.1 Reasons for International Trade

International trade, also called foreign trade, world trade or overseas trade, in essence, is the fair and deliberate exchange of commodity and service across national boundaries. It includes import and export trade operations. It arises for many reasons.

The different distribution of the world's resources determines the patterns of world trade. Some countries or regions are abundant in natural resources; elsewhere, reserves are scarce or nonexistent. For example, Britain possesses large reserves of coal but lacks many minerals such as copper and aluminium, whereas the Middle East states have vast oil deposits but little else. The world's raw materials are unevenly distributed, and both modern manufacturing and agriculture require many different resources. Thus, to obtain these through trading is an absolute necessity.

Climate and terrain affect the cultivation of some agricultural products a nation can produce and trade internationally. Some South American countries, for instance, enjoy a favorable climate for growing coffee. However, the United States almost does not grow coffee, and has to import it. On the other hand, the climate and terrain of some states of America are ideal for raising wheat. The wheat grown in the United States is so large that it is often exported to other nations.

The skilled workers and capital resources help determine what a nation is able to produce and trade with other nations. The developed countries are rich in skilled work force and capital resources, so they can concentrate on producing many technology - intensive products such as computers, aircrafts, etc. However, the developing countries lacking skilled workers and capital resources are limited to the manufacture of simple products.

With the development of manufacturing and technology, there arose another motivation, i. e. economic benefit, for nations to trade. It was found that a country benefits more by producing goods it can make most cheaply and buying those goods that other countries can make at lower costs than by producing everything it needs within its own border. This is often explained by the theory of comparative advantage, also called the comparative cost theory, which 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. Trade between countries can be profitable for all, even if one of the countries can produce every commodity 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 can be 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.

It is the same with countries. Comparative advantage has directed countries to specialize in particular products and to mass-produce. This can be simply explained by another example given by Paul Samuelson, a well-known United States economist: 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.

There are still some other reasons for international trade. Some nations are unable to produce enough products of a certain item. Thus, they have to import some to satisfy a large domestic demand. Moreover, the preference for innovation or style also leads to international trade, which makes available a greater variety of products and offers a wider range of consumer choice of a certain product. Finally, some nations of the world trade with others mainly for political reasons. In those cases, more considerations are given to political objectives rather than economic motivation.

In addition to visible trade, which involves of the importing and exporting of tangible goods, there is also invisible trade, which involves the exchange of services between nations. For instance, Brazilian coffee is often transported by ocean vessels because these steamships are the cheapest method of transportation. Nations such as Greece and Norway have large maritime fleets and provide transportation service. When an exporter arranges for this kind of transportation, he rents space in the cargo compartment of a ship for one voyage.

The prudent exporter buys insurance for his cargo's voyage. While at sea, every shipment has to run the risk of a long list of dangers: fire, storm, collision, theft, leakage, explosion, etc. To prevent these risks, the marine cargo insurance is provided to protect the exporter or importer from the financial loss. Thus, insurance is another service in which some nations specialize. Britain, because of the development of Lloyd's of London, is a leading exporter of this service, earning fees for insuring other nations' foreign trade.

Some nations possess little exportable commodities or manufactured goods, but they have a mild and sunny climate. During the winter, the Bahamas attract large numbers of tourists, who spend money for hotel accommodations, meals, taxis, and so on. Tourism, therefore, is another form of invisible trade.

The United States has been described as a nation of immigrants. Many Americans send money back to families and relatives in the "old country". Millions of workers from the countries of southern Europe have gone to work in Germany, Switzerland, France, the Behelux nations, and Scandinavia. The workers send money home to support their families. These are called immigrant remittances. They are an extremely important kind of invisible trade for some countries, both as imports and exports.

Invisible trade can be as important to some nations as the export of raw materials or commodities is to others. In both cases, the nations earn money to buy necessities.

The imports and exports of a nation can hardly keep exactly equal. The balance of international trade of a country is the difference between its exports and imports of both tangible goods and intangible products in all forms. When a nation exports more than imports, then a favorable balance of trade has been gained. On the contrary, when it imports more than exports, an unfavorable balance results.

1.2 Problems Concerning International Trade

When dealing in international trade (exporting and importing), a merchant faces a variety of conditions which differ from those to which he has grown accustomed in the domestic trade. The fact that the transactions are across national borders highlights the differences between domestic and international trade. Generally, there are certain differences which justify the separate treatment of international trade and domestic trade. In particular, these differences include cultural problems, monetary conversion, and trade barriers. Foreign traders must be aware of these differences because they often bring about troubles in international trade.

There are many cultures as there are peoples on earth. When companies do business overseas, they come in contact with people from different cultures. They often speak different languages and have their own particular customs and manners. The people of all cultures are ethnocentric. This means that they judge the world from their own ways of looking at things. Therefore, in international trade, business people should be on the alert against different local customs and business norms.

In Japan, for example, much attention is given to formality. However, no business begins until after a good deal of informal conversation and tea drinking. The American who arrives for his first sales presentation to a Japanese firm is doomed to failure if he immediately brings out his charts and states his case. The Chinese and the American hold quite different attitudes towards business friendship. The Chinese expects the type of long-term trust, practical dependency, and mutual obligation that they associate with *guanxi*. After the contract has been approved and signed by the principals on both sides, the Chinese, sometimes, still bring up new possible arrangements and adjustments. From the American point of view, the transaction is complete; the task now is to carry out its terms. But the Chinese see the transaction as but an incident in a long-term relationship characterized by friendship, understanding, and mutual dependency and support. There should be no inhibitions regarding further discussions about what each party can do for the other in order to promote their shared interests.

A second major problem is that of monetary conversion. If every country in the world used the same currency, world trade would be made much easier. But this is not the case: a Copenhagen beer producer wants to be paid in Danish krone, and a Hong Kong shirt maker wants to be paid in Hong Kong dollars. Currencies, like other commodities such as beer and shirts, have a certain value. The only difference is that each currency's value is stated in terms of other currencies. French francs have value in US dollars, which have a value in British pounds, which have a value in Japanese yen. These exchange rates change every day and are constantly updated in banks and foreign exchange offices around the world.

Importing and exporting firms to whom the payment is made in foreign currency can be involved in significant foreign exchange risks because of the fluctuation in exchange rates. An importer, for example, does not receive a shipment immediately after ordering it, and is often given a short period of commercial credit. Suppose a US importer must pay a certain amount of Deutsche Mark in 60 days to a German exporter for the import of some equipments. This transaction leaves the US firm open to substantial exchange rate risk because during those 60 days, the dollar may depreciate relative to the Deutsche Mark, forcing the US firm to spend a large amount of dollars to satisfy its import commitment.

A third unique problem is trade barriers. It is generally assumed, as the famous economist David Ricardo stated in the nineteenth century, that the free flow of international trade benefits all who participate. In actual practice, however, the world has never had a completely free trading system because individual countries put controls on trade for the following three reasons:

* To correct a balance-of-payments deficit. Such a deficit occurs when the total payments leaving a country are greater than the money in receipts entering from abroad. The country then tries to limit imports and increase exports.
* For reasons of national security. Nations sometimes restrict exports of critical raw materials, high technology, or equipment when such export might harm its own welfare.
* To protect their own industries against the competition of foreign goods. This is generally on the grounds that infant industries need to be shielded from foreign competition during their start-up periods. A country usually offers protection to its domestic industries by taxing imports of similar foreign goods. The tax may be levied as a percentage of the value of the imports, which is called an ad valorem tariff. When a tariff is added to the price of a foreign product coming into a country, it raises the price of the item to the consumer.

Although tariffs have been lowered substantially by international agreements, countries continue to use other devices to limit imports or to increase exports. Some of these are:

* requiring import licenses that permit only specific volumes or values of imports;
* setting quotas that limit the total value or volume of a product to be imported;
* limiting government purchases to firms within the country;
* applying standards for safety, consumer protection, or other reasons, which foreign products may not be able to meet;
* making special payments called export subsidies to encourage local exporters to increase foreign sales;
* targeting—a new term meaning the imposition of a package of measures to give certain local industries a competitive advantage in export markets. It might include export subsidies, technical assistance, subsidies for research and development, and financial assistance;
* requiring licenses to obtain foreign currencies by those who want to buy goods from abroad—thus limiting the quantity of imports they can buy;

* reducing the value of a nation's currency in relation to that of the rest of the world so that its exported goods cost less in other countries and its imports cost more;
* imposing conditions on foreign producers such as requiring that their goods contain a certain amount of locally produced products; and
* restricting trade in banking, insurance, and other service professions.

There still exist other problems, but the above three are the most common problems in international trade.

1.3 Forms of International Trade

Since there are tremendous differences between international trade and domestic trade, some special difficulties a company has to be confronted with when it plans to break into foreign markets. Although the same marketing concepts and strategies are utilized, cultural, political and economic differences make the task of entering an overseas market more risky. Thus, most companies proceed cautiously once they have decided to engage in international trade. They usually do some researches to have specific knowledge about foreign country's economic, political, cultural, and social background as well as tariffs, quotas, and foreign currencies, etc. Such researches will help the company choose the best form for dealing in international trade. Some of the forms frequently used by nations to trade with each other are as follows:

Exporting

Exporting is likely to be the simplest way to enter a foreign market. There are two types of exporting: direct exporting and indirect exporting. Direct exporting involves establishing an export department or even an overseas sales branch. It provides a continuous presence and easier control for the exporter in the buyer's country but obviously means more expenses. A company can also sell its products abroad indirectly through middlemen commonly called export agents. Export agents seldom produce goods themselves. Their purpose is to bring together buyers and sellers and help them handle international transactions. They make their money as a commission of the sale price. Many agents specialize in specific kinds of products. The principal advantage of using an export agent is that the company does not have to deal with foreign currencies or the red tape of international marketing. The major disadvantage is that because the export agent must make a profit, the price of the product must be increased or the domestic company must provide a larger discount than it would in domestic transaction. Indirect exporting involves less investment and is therefore less risky, which enables small firms with limited capital and product diversification can export very easily.

Importing

One nation's imports are another nation's exports. Importing, opposite to exporting, is the process of purchasing goods and services from other nations. Like exporting, importing can be either indirect or direct. Indirect importing is the purchase of foreign goods through domestic middlemen, while direct importing is the direct purchase of goods from overseas market. Indirect importing is convenient but limited in selection of goods and less profit. Direct importing is economical but more complicated than buying from importing middlemen.

Trading Companies

Trading companies are large international wholesalers, frequently larger and more powerful than the manufacturers they represent. They serve as a link between buyers and sellers in different countries to facilitate trade. They purchase goods at the best price they can obtain in one country and sell them to buyers in another. They handle all the details required to move goods from one country to another. They offer consulting, market research, advertising, insurance, product research and design, warehousing, and foreign exchange services to interested companies.

Licensing

Licensing is a simple way for a manufacturer to become involved in marketing abroad. It can gain entry to a market at little risk. Under licensing, a producer (licensor) in one country enters into an agreement with a manufacturer (licensee) in another country offering the right to use its company name, products, patents, brands and trademarks, as well as its raw materials and manufacturing processes. In return, the licensee agrees to pay the licensor a flat fee or a royalty. License agreements may be either exclusive or non-exclusive. An exclusive license forbids the licensor to sell the license to any other firm in some specific geographic areas. The main disadvantages of licensing are that the company may lose control of the manufacture of its products and the right to sell them itself. Moreover, a competitor may be created after the agreement ends.

Contract Manufacturing

A firm may contract with foreign manufacturers to produce the products. Under contract manufacturing, a foreign company produces a special volume of the firm's product to specification and uses the domestic firm's name on the final product. Marketing may be handled by contract manufacturer or by the original company. Contract manufacturing enables the contract manufacturer to get off to a quicker start and take on less risk. The original company has also an opportunity to form a partnership with the local manufacturer or even buys it out. The main drawbacks of contract manufacturing include less control over the manufacturing process and the loss of potential profits on manufacturing.

Joint Ventures

Joint ventures are a form of business relations which involves pooling of assets, joint management and a sharing of profits and risks according to a commonly-agreed formula. Legally, the joint venture is a form of partnership, a pattern of business organization which can be adopted by every type of industrial co-operation; in other words, join marketing, servicing, production, etc., separately or in combination, may be legally organized as a joint venture. It may be of either an equity or non-equity type. If the former, a separate body is established whereby local interests purchase a share in the equity capital. If the latter, no additional body is set up; association is based entirely on a contract. Both equity and non-equity joint ventures are subject to risk and profit sharing: their common dominator. Joint ventures are more stable than exporting, importing, or licensing. Moreover, they are less expensive than wholly owned operations. However, joint ventures also encounter some problems such as controlling problems which arise because joint ventures require co-ordination across national boundaries, and problems concerning percentage of ownership, amount of investment, how much of the product will be exported, and how to evenly distribute the rewards, etc.

Direct Investment

Direct investment is a market-entry strategy which involves the establishment of foreign-based assembly and manufacturing facilities. By direct investment, the company can keep full control over the investment and marketing policies. The company can also take advantage of the lower costs in the form of cheaper labor, raw materials and transport at local place. On the other hand, direct investment faces many risks such as devalued currencies, declining market and, worst of all, nationalization—the host country takes over ownership of the company's facilities, usually without compensating the company for the loss of property.

Part B Words & Phrases

deliberate: *adj.* 谨慎的;深思熟虑的
commodity: *n.* (农矿)产品;商品
boundary: *n.* 界线;分界;边界
be abundant in: 富有;丰富
natural recourses: 自然资源
aluminium: *n.* 铝
deposit: *n.* 矿藏
manufacture: *v.* 制造
absolute: *adj.* 完全的;绝对的
necessity: *n.* 必要性;需要;(*pl.*) 必需品

terrain: *n.* 地形;地带
innovation: *n.* 改革;创新
domestic demand: 国内需求
tangible: *adj.* 可触摸的;有形的
visible: *adj.* 有形的;看得见的
invisible: *adj.* 无形的;看不见的
vessel: *n.* 船; 舰
maritime: *adj.* 海上的;海运的
compartment: *n.* 船舱
run the risk of: 冒着…的危险
collision: *n.* 碰撞
theft: *n.* 偷窃
leakage: *n.* 泄漏;渗漏
explosion: *n.* 爆炸
Lloyd's: 劳埃德协会
Bahamas: 巴哈马群岛(拉丁美洲)
accommodation: *n.* 招待设备(膳食供应)
Behelux: 比荷卢经济联盟
immigrant: *n.* 入境移民
remittance: *n.* 汇款
intangible: *adj.* 无形的
balance: *n.* 收支差额
motivation: *n.* 动机
comparative: *adj.* 比较的
as long as: 只要
paradox: *n.* 反论;似是而非的隽语
illustrate: *v.* 阐明
afford: *v.* (花,买,负担)得起
give up: 放弃
precious: *adj.* 宝贵的;珍贵的
consequently: *adv.* 因而;所以
specialize in: 擅长于;专攻
mass-produce: 大量生产
concentrate on: 集中;全神贯注于
mutually: *adv.* 互相地;互助地
accustom: *v.* 使习惯
highlight: *v.* 强调
domestic trade: 国内贸易
justify: *v.* 证明…是正当的
monetary conversion: 货币兑换
trade barrier: 贸易壁垒
come in contact with: 与…联系
ethnocentric: *adj.* 种族中心主义的
be on the alert against: 警惕; 警觉
norm: *n.* 标准; 规范; 准则
be doomed to: 注定
principal: *n.* 负责人
inhibition: *n.* 禁止;抑制
Copenhagen: 哥本哈根
Danish kroner: 丹麦克朗
British pound: 英国英镑
Japanese yen: 日本圆
exchange rate: 汇率; 兑换率
update: *v.* 更新
fluctuation: *n.* 波动; 起伏
commercial credit: 商业信用
Deutsch Mark: 德国马克
substantial: *adj.* 大量的
depreciate: *v.* 贬值; 跌价
commitment: *n.* 承诺
participate: *v.* 参与; 参加
deficit: *n.* 赤字; 不足额
security: *n.* 安全
critical: *adj.* 危险的;关键的
infant: *adj.* 幼稚的
shield: *v.* 保护; 防护
levy: *v.* 征收
device: *n.* 策略; 方法
license: *n.* 许可证; 执照
subsidy: *n.* 补助金; 津贴

in relation to: 关于; 与…相比
tariff: *n.* 关税
quota: *n.* 配额
be confronted with: 面临
strategy: *n.* 战略; 策略
transaction: *n.* 交易
principal: *adj.* 主要的; 首要的
product diversification: 产品多样化
red tape: 繁文缛节
discount: *n.* 回扣;折扣
economical: *adj.* 节约的; 经济的
trading company: 贸易公司
wholesaler: *n.* 批发商
facilitate: *v.* 促进;使便利
enter into an agreement with: 与…达成协议
warehouse: *v.* 储放
licensing: *n.* 许可证贸易
royalty: *n.* 特许权使用费; 版税
licensor: *n.* 许可证供方
licensee: *n.* 许可证接受方
patent: *n.* 专利权; 专利品
trade mark: 商标
exclusive license: 独占许可证
flat fee: 统一收费
contract manufacturing: 合同生产
buy out: 买下所有权
drawback: *n.* 缺点
potential: *adj.* 潜在的; 可能的
joint venture:合资企业;合营企业
pooling of assets: 资产统筹
formula: *n.* 规则; 准则
equity joint venture: *n.* 股权式合营企业
association: *n.* 联合
dominator: *n.* 支配者; 支配力
set up: 建立;创立
co-ordination: *n.* 调和; 协调
assembly: *n.* 装配; 安装
facility: *n.* 设备;设施
take advantage of: 利用
decline: *v.* 下降; 衰败
take over: 接受; 接管
nationalization: *n.* 国有化
compensate: *v.* 偿还; 补偿

Part C Terminology Practice

Exporting: Sending goods to another country for sale or trade.

Importing: Bringing in goods from another country for sale or trade.

Minerals: Commodities obtained through mining.

Comparative advantage: Situation that exists when a country can produce a product or provide a certain service at much lower cost than any other country.

Absolute advantage: Situation that exists when only one country can produce a certain item, or can produce it much more efficiently than any other country.

Theory of Comparative Advantage: An economic theory stating that if one country can produce a product relatively more efficiently than another country, it is beneficial to both countries for the first country to export that product to the other. It is also called the comparative cost theory.

Visible imports and exports: The import and export of tangible goods (not services).

Invisible imports and exports: The import and export of services rather than actual goods, for example, banking, insurance, and professional service, etc.

Balance of trade: The difference between the value of merchandise exports and the value of merchandise imports for a nation during a given period of time.

Exchange rate: The amount of one country's currency that must be paid in order to obtain one unit of another country's currency.

Tariff: Duty or tax levied on a specific commodity when it crosses national boundaries.

Quota: The maximum quantity of a certain product that is allowed into a country during a given period of time. A quota is used to limit imports.

Export agent: An agent who tries to find new markets for products manufactured in its own country.

Licensee: A person, company, etc. to whom a license is granted.

Patent: An exclusive right granted by a government to an inventor to make, use or sell a new device, process, material, or other innovation for a specified period of time.

Royalty: A payment made for the right to use the property of another person for gain. This may be an intellectual property, such as a book (copyright) or an invention (patent).

Balance-of-payments deficit: The amount by which money flowing out of the country exceeds the money flowing into the country during a given period of time.

Infant industry: Underdeveloped industry that, in the face of competition from abroad, may not be able to survive the early years of struggle before reaching maturity.

Export subsidy: A payment by a government to an industry that leads to an expansion of exports by that industry.

Ad valorem tariff: A custom duty charged as a percentage of the value of goods rather than on a weight or quantity basis.

Part D Supplementary Reading

Quotas, Tariffs and Subsidies

Like most wars, a trade war may bring about desired economic or political changes,