

高等学校英语专业规划教材



ENGLISH INTERNATIONAL FINANCE

英语国际金融学

徐启华 朱传枝 刘晓蕖 / 主编



大连理工大学出版社
DALIAN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY PRESS

英语国际金融学

English International Finance

主 编	徐启华	朱传森	刘晓燕
副主编	陈宝文	赵 明	
编 委	马喜文	倪春艳	吕春媚

大连理工大学出版社

© 徐启华,朱传枝,刘晓蕻 2004

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

英语国际金融学 / 徐启华, 朱传枝, 刘晓蕻主编. —大连: 大连理工大学出版社, 2004. 9

高等学校英语专业规划教材

ISBN 7-5611-2683-2

I. 英… II. ①徐… ②朱… ③刘… III. 英语—教材 IV. H31

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字(2004)第 060063 号

大连理工大学出版社出版发行

地址:大连市凌水河 邮政编码:116024

电话:0411-84708842 传真:0411-84701466 邮购:0411-84707961

E-mail: dutp@ dutp. cn URL: <http://www.dutp.cn>

大连理工印刷有限公司印刷 大连理工大学出版社发行

幅面尺寸:185mm×230mm 印张:19.25 字数:411千字

印数:1~5000册

2004年9月第1版

2004年9月第1次印刷

责任编辑:陈丽莉

责任校对:宫淑娜

封面设计:宋 蕾

定价:25.00元

前言

在“科教兴国”精神的鼓舞下,为了适应改革开放和社会主义现代化建设的需要,培养国际性、应用型、复合型人才,我们率先于1997年为外语院校学生组织编写了《国际贸易系列教程》。全教程分为四本教材,即《国际贸易实务》、《国际贸易函电及应用文写作》、《国际贸易会话》以及《英语商贸文选》,经过六年多的教学实践,据我们搜集到的本校以及其他有关高等院校的信息反馈,该系列教程受到院校领导、同仁的赞许以及学生们的一致好评。他们认为学生在学完该教程后,不仅在英语方面,在国际间经济、文化以及语言的交流中打下了坚实的基础,而且学到很多有关经贸方面的专业知识,在直接投身于国家经济建设中,能更好地为社会主义市场经济服务。他们还诚恳地希望再编写一些其他相关经贸教材。基于这种想法,工作在教学第一线的教授,以及其他专业教师,在认真地总结了经验之后又花了几乎是全部的业余时间编写了自《国际贸易系列教程》以后的另外四本系列教材,即《英语国际金融学》、《市场营销学》、《外贸合同及重要单证》以及《外贸英语会话》。

本系列教材的特点是内容全、语言纯,既有理论的高度,又有很强的实用性。其全过程始终贯穿着由浅入深、循序渐进、逻辑性强、布局合理、重点突出,英语及译文准确、通顺、规范、流畅,每单元中课文精选,导学简明概要,词语双语解释,练习适中等优点。

本系列教材可作为外经贸院校学生、英语专业学生、成人教育学院以及函授大学、电视大学等学生的教材或参考读物。

编者

于大连外国语学院英语学院

2004. 8

Contents

Unit 1	What Is Economics About	1
Unit 2	How Economists Think	15
Unit 3	The Markets, Stocks and Bonds	28
Unit 4	The Securities Market	49
Unit 5	Promotional Strategy	69
Unit 6	Advertising	84
Unit 7	Global Dimensions of Business	100
Unit 8	Money System	115
Unit 9	Money, the Banking System and Other Financial Institutio	129
Unit 10	Documentary Collection	149
Unit 11	Short-term loans	166
Unit 12	New York Stock Exchange	178
Unit 13	The Balance of International Payments	187
Unit 14	Factors Affecting Spot Rates and Forward Spreads	198
Unit 15	Export Financing Main Methods of Payment	208
Unit 16	Kinds of Letters of Credit	220
Unit 17	Function of Financial Markets	230
Unit 18	Foreign Direct Investment	240
Unit 19	International Transfer of Money	253
Unit 20	Foreign Exchange Trading	263
参考答案	275
参考书目	299

Unit

1

What Is Economics About

The theory of economics does not furnish a body of settled conclusions immediately applicable to policy. It is a method rather than a doctrine, an apparatus of the mind, a technique of thinking, which helps its possessor to draw correct conclusions.

— JOHN MAYNARD KEYNES

In a general way, we all know what economics is about. It is concerned with the production, distribution, and use of goods. It deals with the activities of the 5 million businesses, 120 million workers and 65 million households that produced and consumed more than \$4 trillion worth of output in the United States in 1987. As Adam Smith said, economics is “an inquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations”.

But how is economics concerned with these things? What is its “apparatus of the mind”? This unit deals with several key aspects of economics.

1. There are two main branches of economics—microeconomics and macroeconomics, but these are interrelated.
2. Economics focuses on production of goods, and on the income generated in the course of production.
3. Goods and the resources needed to produce are scarce; and this raises problems of choice, for individuals and for the national economy.
4. Economics is a special way of thinking, which uses simplified models to explore reality. The use of such models to explain and predict economic events is called positive economics.
5. Economics is also a policy science, with important applications to government. Positive economics can clarify policy alternatives; but choice between these alternatives involves what is called normative economics.

Micro and Macro

These terms almost define themselves. Microeconomics holds a microscope over some portion of the economy—a particular industry, or kind of work, or geographic area. It examines how consumers choose between goods, how workers choose between jobs, how a business decides what to produce and what production methods to use. It asks questions like these: Why in 1987 did the United States produce 2.1 billion bushels of wheat and 90 million tons of steel? Why did the wheat sell for \$3 per bushel and the steel for \$300 per ton? Why did plumbers earn, on the average, \$18 per hour, steelworkers \$14 per hour, typists \$8 per hour?

Macroeconomics looks at totals for the economy as a whole: total output and income, the level of employment and of unemployment, the amount of money in circulation and the level of prices. It asks questions like these: Why was the United States output 3 percent higher in 1986 than in 1985. Why did employment rise by 2 million in one year's time? Why, in spite of this, was 7 percent of the labor force still unemployed at the end of 1986? Why did the price level rise 2.8 percent in 1986, rather than some higher or lower figure?

Microeconomics and macroeconomics must be related because they deal with the same body of experience. The whole is the sum of the parts. If total output is rising, it must be because many businesses are deciding to increase their production. Why are they doing this? How does a business decide what to produce, how much to produce, what prices to charge, and what wage rates to pay? These questions, which lie at the core of microeconomics, are a necessary foundation for macroeconomics as well.

Take another example: business cycle fluctuations are an important subject in macroeconomics. Every few years there is a business recession. Many workers are laid off and unemployment rises. With so much labor available, one might think that employers would be tempted to cut wages. Yet wages rarely fall, and in fact usually go on rising right through a recession period. To understand this apparently puzzling behavior we must examine how individual workers and employers reason about wages and employment. We are back in microeconomics.

Microeconomics: analyzes details of the economy, the behavior of individuals and businesses in a particular market or set of related markets.

Macroeconomics: analyzes relations between aggregates, such as total output, employment, money supply and price level.

The Circular Flow of Output and Income

Economics deals with the production, distribution and use of goods, including material goods, or commodities, and intangible goods, or services.

A good is a free good if there is so much of it that people can have all they want at zero prices. Water in a mountain stream is an example. A good is scarce if there is not enough of it for everyone to have all they want at zero prices. Coffee on the supermarket shelf is an example. Economics deals only with scarce goods, since free goods present no problems of supply or distribution; a scarce good is an economic good.

The American economy is usually called a private enterprise economy. Government produces some goods—police and fire protection, public education, streets and highways. But most goods are produced by businesses. We use this term in a broad sense. A farm is a business. So is the office of a doctor, lawyer, or other professional persons. An alternative term for this type of economy is market economy, since the economy is coordinated by individual decisions expressed in markets.

In order to carry on production, a business needs inputs, also called factors of production. The most important inputs are labor and capital, which have a special meaning in economics. Labor means any kind of physical or mental effort exerted in production. It includes the work of the corporation executive, lawyer, or college teacher, as well as that of the farmer, salesclerk, or plumber.

The term capital is especially confusing. In everyday speech, it is often used to mean a sum of money representing the assets of a corporation or an individual. We say that a company has a capital of \$2 billion or that a person is worth \$200,000. Such sums of money are important; but when that is what we mean, we should be careful to say financial capital.

In economics, the term capital used alone means physical capital, or instruments of production. Machinery in an automobile assembly plant is capital. So is the building that houses the machinery. So is any building used for production—a department store, an office building, a hotel. Raw materials and semi-finished goods in the hands of producers are also capitals.

It will be useful to summarize these definitions at one point:

Goods: anything that yields satisfaction to a user.

Commodity: tangible goods.

Service: intangible goods.

Free goods: goods sufficiently plentiful that users can have as much as they want at zero

prices.

Economic goods: goods that is scarce—users cannot have as much as they want at zero prices.

Private enterprise economy: an economy in which most goods are produced by privately owned businesses.

Market economy: one that is coordinated by individual decisions expressed in markets.

Business: used broadly to include any privately owned producing unit.

Production: use of one or more inputs to produce one or more outputs.

Factors of production: labor, capital, and natural resources used in production.

Labor: the human effort exerted in production.

Capital: machinery buildings, and other produced means of production.

Individuals own the factors of production. In the case of a company, this may seem not to be true. Doesn't the Coca-Cola Company own the plants and machinery it operates? Yes, but who owns Coca-Cola? The company, and thus all of its assets, belongs to the many thousands of people who own common stock in the company.

The Central Economic Problem: Scarcity and Choice

One fact of economic life stares you in the face: you don't have enough money to buy everything you want. Most other people are in the same position. On the surface, this looks like a shortage of money. But printing twice as much money would not solve the problem. The underlying fact is a scarcity of goods: No economy can produce nearly as many goods as people would like to consume. And behind this lies a scarcity of resources to produce goods. The United States has just so much labor, capital goods, land and textual resources, and this limits the size of our national output.

Choice at the Personal Level

Scarcity forces a choice from among alternatives. Everyone faces this problem at a personal level. Your income will not allow you to buy everything you would like to have, so you are forced to budget, to decide how much of each good to buy. Time is also scarce. There are only 24 hours in a day, so you must budget or, as economists say, allocate your time among competing uses.

Choosing one thing involves giving up something else. For example, you have \$10 with which you can buy a book or go to a football game. You buy the book. What did it cost you? You might say, \$10. But what it really cost you is the football game you might

have enjoyed instead. Economists call this opportunity cost—the cost of foregone alternatives.

Use of time also involves a cost. If you spend three hours this evening studying ecology, the opportunity cost of the knowledge you gain is the pleasure you might have gotten from spending those three hours visiting with friends or watching a movie.

What does it cost to spend a year in college? One cost is the goods that you (or your parents) might have bought with the money spent on tuition, books and fees. The most important cost item, however, is the value of your time. Had you not been studying, you could have been working, which would have meant more income for you and more output of the nation. What you do not produce while studying is the main opportunity cost of education.

Think About This

1. Many people deny that scarcity is a serious problem in the American economy. The real problems, they argue, are:
 - a. To make sure that our productive capacity is fully utilized to achieve “full employment”.
 - b. To distribute our output equitably among the population so that no one lives in poverty.

In view of these arguments, can we still maintain that scarcity is the central economic problem?

2. Consider the following facts:
 - a. The US output is roughly double that of the Russian Federation.
 - b. The United States allocates about 20 percent of its resources to producing capital goods while the Russian Federation allocates 30 percent.

How could you illustrate these facts on a production possibilities diagram?

The Basic Decisions: What, How and for Whom?

These questions sum up the key decisions in any national economy. What goods shall be produced? How shall they be produced, as regards production methods? Who shall get how much of each good?

The first question is where to operate on the production possibilities curve. Why, in a particular year, does the economy turn out just so many machine tools, trucks, bushels of corn, and boxes of cornflakes? A large part of microeconomics is devoted to an-

swering this question. For private consumer goods, shoppers go to market, and how much they choose to buy is important in shaping the pattern of production. For government-produced goods, which are not marketed at a price, legislators and administrators reach decisions; and how these decisions are reached is an important subject for economic analysis. Output of capital goods—those that yield satisfaction indirectly through their use in producing other goods—depends heavily on whether business concerns think they can make a profit by buying and using such goods.

In addition to deciding what to produce, an economy must decide how to produce it. There are often several ways to produce a good, usually differing in degree of mechanization. In India, some cotton cloth is still produced by handloom weavers with very simple equipment. Highly automated textile mills in South Carolina produce similar cloth.

Where alternative methods are available, which should be used? The most highly mechanized method? Not necessarily. The economically correct method is that which yields lowest cost per unit of output. This least-cost production method depends on the cost of labor and capital, which in turn depends on their relative abundance in the economy. The correct choice for India, where labor is cheap and capital expensive, will not be the same as that for the United States, where things are just the opposite.

After deciding what to produce and how to produce it, we face the last decision: who shall get how much of each good? In a money-using economy, this depends on the distribution of money income. A family with an income of \$30,000 a year can buy, or may choose to buy, more of everything than a family with \$15,000 a year.

The distribution of money income is mainly determined by the quantity of resources—labor services or services of land and capital goods—that the family contributes to production and by the price these services command in the market. But government also influences income distribution. Income is subject to taxation, and there may be a considerable difference between the distribution of income before and after taxes. People also receive some income not earned in current production such as Social Security payments, unemployment compensation, veteran's benefits, or welfare payments. These types of income are called transfer payments. Since they go mainly to the lowest income brackets, they have a leveling effect on the distribution of income.

Words & Expressions

- furnish
- a body of settled conclusions
- applicable to
- a technique of thinking
- possessor
- draw correct conclusions
- be concerned with
- inquiry
- key aspects
- interrelate
- generate
- scarce
- clarify policy alternatives
- microscope

- bushel
- circulation
- core
- fluctuation
- recession
- laid off
- be tempted to
- aggregate
- intangible
- coordinated by
- exert
- corporation executive
- asset
- semi-finished
- interchange
- illustrate

to provide 提供

a set of fixed opinions 一套既定的结论

suitable for 适用于

a way of thinking 一种思维方式

owner 拥有者

to make right judgment 做出正确结论

to be about 有关

exploration 探求

main features 主要方面

to connect 相互关联

to produce 生产

lack 缺乏

to make policy choices clear 辨清政策选择方向

instrument for making very small objects look larger 显微镜

a dry measurement 蒲式耳

distribution 流通

center 核心

varying in an irregular way 涨落

temporary falling off of business activity 萧条

dismissed from work 被解雇

be attracted to 很想要

total 总和

representing value without material being 无形的

adjusted by 受调节

to use 运用, 发挥

somebody who manages a company 公司管理
人员

property 资产

half done 半成品的

to change with each other 相互交换

to show 由……所示

- levy 征收
- budget 预算
- competing uses 互相竞争的事
- foregone alternatives 不可避免的选择
- strip-mining 掠夺性开采
- restore 恢复
- supervisors 监工
- view 观察
- be devoted to 用于, 致力于
- shaded 暗的
- attain 获得
- desirable 有利的
- considerably 相当地
- sacrifice 牺牲
- utilize 利用
- bundles of 大批的
- adapted to 适合于
- shifting 转变
- draw on 利用
- stationary 固定的
- stock 储存
- land frontier 闲置土地
- output capacity 产量能力
- affect 影响
- minimal 最小的
- sum up 概括
- as regards 有关
- turn out 产出
- shaping 形成
- abundance 富足
- command 控制
- be subject to 受……影响

Notes

1. **economics** 经济学,复数形式用作单数。economy 为经济,如:national economy(国民经济);也解释为节约,节俭,如:to travel by economy class(乘坐客机经济舱旅行)。economic 经济的,经济上的,如:economic policy(经济政策)。economical 节俭的,如:economical car(省油的车)。
2. **microeconomics** 微观经济学,研究对象是单个数据、个别厂商、企业、消费单位以及个别商品的一种经济活动。微观经济学研究总产量在各个工业部门、产品和厂商中的划分,研究资源在各种竞争性用途中的分配情况。
3. **macroeconomics** 宏观经济学,研究对象是整个国民经济活动,其分析方法是总量分析,即分析社会总需求、国民生产总值、国民收入、一般物价水平、货币总供应量等范畴。
4. **free goods** 不需成本的产品,指取之于大自然并有丰富来源,不需作出努力或花费即能得到的物质,如空气、阳光、水等。
5. **economic goods** 经济产品,指需要花费精力或代价才能获得的产品或劳务,凡是具有市场价格、能够买卖的任何东西都是经济产品,其中也包括劳务,如工人的劳动。
6. **private enterprise economy** 私营企业经济,指大部分商品由私营企业生产的一种经济形式。
7. **market economy** 市场经济,指通过自发的市场调节实现国民经济各部门、各地区和社会再生产各环节之间经济联系的经济制度。市场经济主要运用自由市场来决定资源配置。
8. **production** 生产,指以一定的生产关系联系起来的人们,使用劳动工具改变劳动对象,创造出适合于人们需要的物质资料的过程。生产具有三要素:(1)劳动力;(2)资本;(3)自然资源。
9. **capital** 资本,指用于生产其他商品,包括厂房和机器在内的所有商品的名称,是生产三要素(资本,自然资源和劳动力)之一。
10. **scarcity** 稀少性,指在不需成本的情况下,所需求的数量超过供给量,造成物品或生产要素稀少、缺乏这一特性。
11. **allocation** 分配,指对生产资料限制自由购买所实行的分配办法,也泛指对生产要素面临使用上各种选择的情况下的分配。
12. **opportunity cost** 机会成本,指生产要素的供应在有限的情况下,生产一种产品就不能生产另一种产品,这时生产一种产品的实际或机会成本就等于生产另一种产品的代价。
13. **production possibilities curve** 生产可能性曲线。

14. **transfer payments** 转移支付, 指政府或者企业以劳务或者货物作为代价的付款, 如退休金, 失业补助及救济金等。

Exercises

I. Translate the following sentences into Chinese:

1. The Economist is not a decision maker but an observer and analyst.
2. The performance of an economy can be considered along three dimensions—efficiency, equity and growth.
3. When the fact of unlimited consumer demand is coupled with that of limited resources and technology, we are faced with the fundamental problem of economics: allocating scarce resources among alternative use for these resources.
4. With the study of economics so often dominated by philosophers, it is not surprising to discover that a major thread of research has been directed toward the “goodness” of the market system.
5. Pareto efficiency requires that to be efficient, any allocation of resources must at least ensure that no consumer could be made any better off without someone, somewhere being made worse off.
6. Economics is the study of how best to satisfy relatively unlimited human wants with relatively scarce resources.
7. Economics represents an attempt to explain how and why the real world operates in certain fields of human activity.
8. A few observations can be made about good growth that is not very controversial, but they require much more detailed investigations of how economies expand.

II. Translate the following sentences into English using the words or phrases given in the brackets:

1. 经济学是处理人类在创造财富与使用财富的活动中所产生的种种社会现象的科学。(to deal with)
2. 我们在研究经济原理时, 如果对照我们本身的经验对这些原理进行检验, 可以帮助我们检验这些原理的准确性。(economic principles)
3. 经济学所研究的课题包括富有与贫穷, 货币与银行, 繁荣与萧条, 大企业与工会以及许许多多对我们的生活方式有密切影响的其他问题。(to involve the study of topics like)
4. 经济学家们无法十分准确地预测究竟什么时候工商业会出现好转, 什么时候会出现疲

软。(an upturn or a downturn)

5. 消费者的无限需求一旦遇上了有限的资源和生产技术,我们就要面临一个经济学中的基本问题。(to be coupled with)
6. 生产的要素是土地,劳动力和资本。在每一个生产过程中,这些要素都要得到某种程度的利用。(to some extent)
7. 劳动力在经济学上的含义是生产过程中所用的一切人力,不管是体力的还是脑力的。(either physical or mental, expended in the process of production)
8. 第二步骤是从技术效率高的备选方案中选出最经济的方案。(technically efficient alternatives)

III. Fill in the blanks using the words given below:

make, form, collective, affected, how, to, productive, limited, economic, available, individual, however, focus, from, with, on, goods, virtually, indicate, continually

What Is Economics about?

Economics is about people and the choices they 1. The unit of analysis in economics is the 2. Of course, individuals group together to 3 collective organizations such as corporations, labor unions, and governments. 4, the choices of individuals still underlie and direct these organizations. Thus, even when we study 5 organizations, we will 6 on the ways in which their operation is 7 by the choices of individuals.

Economic theory is developed 8 fundamental postulates about 9 individual human beings behave, struggle 10 the problem of scarcity, and respond 11 change. The reality of life 12 our planet is that 13 resources used to produce 14 are limited. Therefore, goods and services are also 15. In contrast, the desires of human beings are 16 unlimited. These facts confront us with the two basic ingredients of an 17 topic—scarcity and choice. Scarcity is the term used by economists to 18 that man's desire for a "thing" exceeds the amount of it that is freely 19 from nature. Nature has always dealt grudgingly with man; the Garden of Eden has 20 eluded men's grasp.

IV. Reading comprehension:

Passage A**Garbage in, Garbage out**

Economists are famous for their forecasting failures, but can anybody else do better? A Christmas quiz in the Economist in December 1984 allows us to put this to the test. At the time we sent a questionnaire to four ex-finance ministers in OECD economies, four chairmen of multinational firms, four students at Oxford University and four London dustmen. They were each asked to predict economic prospects over the next decade. Final figures for 1994 now allow us to pick the winners.

Our Panel was first asked to predict the average growth rate in the OECD in the ten years to 1994. The Oxford students were the gloomiest: three of the four expected growth of less than 2 %. In contrast, two of the London dustmen expected growth of 4 ~ 5 %. The actual outcome was 2.6 %. Top marks to the company bosses, who all predicted 2 ~ 3 %.

Next came inflation. After an average inflation rate of 9.5 % in the ten years to 1994, everybody expected it to be more than 5 % over the following ten years. Eight of the 16 pooled tipped rates of 7 % or more. Their successors were clearly made of sterner stuff: inflation actually averaged 4.4 %. Company directors were again closest to the mark. Likewise, nobody expected the price of oil (\$ 29 a barrel at the time of the quiz) to drop below \$ 25; seven of the 16 forecast a price of over \$ 40. It is currently around \$ 17. The dustmen came closest as a group.

Next, our Panel was asked to guess the pound's exchange rate against the dollar in ten years' time. In late 1984 it was languishing around \$ 1.20. Most panel members were far too gloomy: six thought the pound would fall below \$ 1. Today it stands at around \$ 1.6. The dustmen again did best.

The last question was "When will Singapore's GDP per person overtake Australia's?", and seven of the 16 said "Never". Yet, according to the World Bank, Singapore had moved ahead of Australia by 1993. Two dustmen and two company chairmen rightly predicted such a switch within 15 years.

So who boasted the best crystal ball? For each question, we gave the most accurate (or rather, the least inaccurate) group 4 points, the next 3 points and so on. We then added up the scores. In joint first place came the dustmen and company bosses. The finance ministers came bottom. The contents of dustbins could well be a useful leading economic indicator.