

商务英语

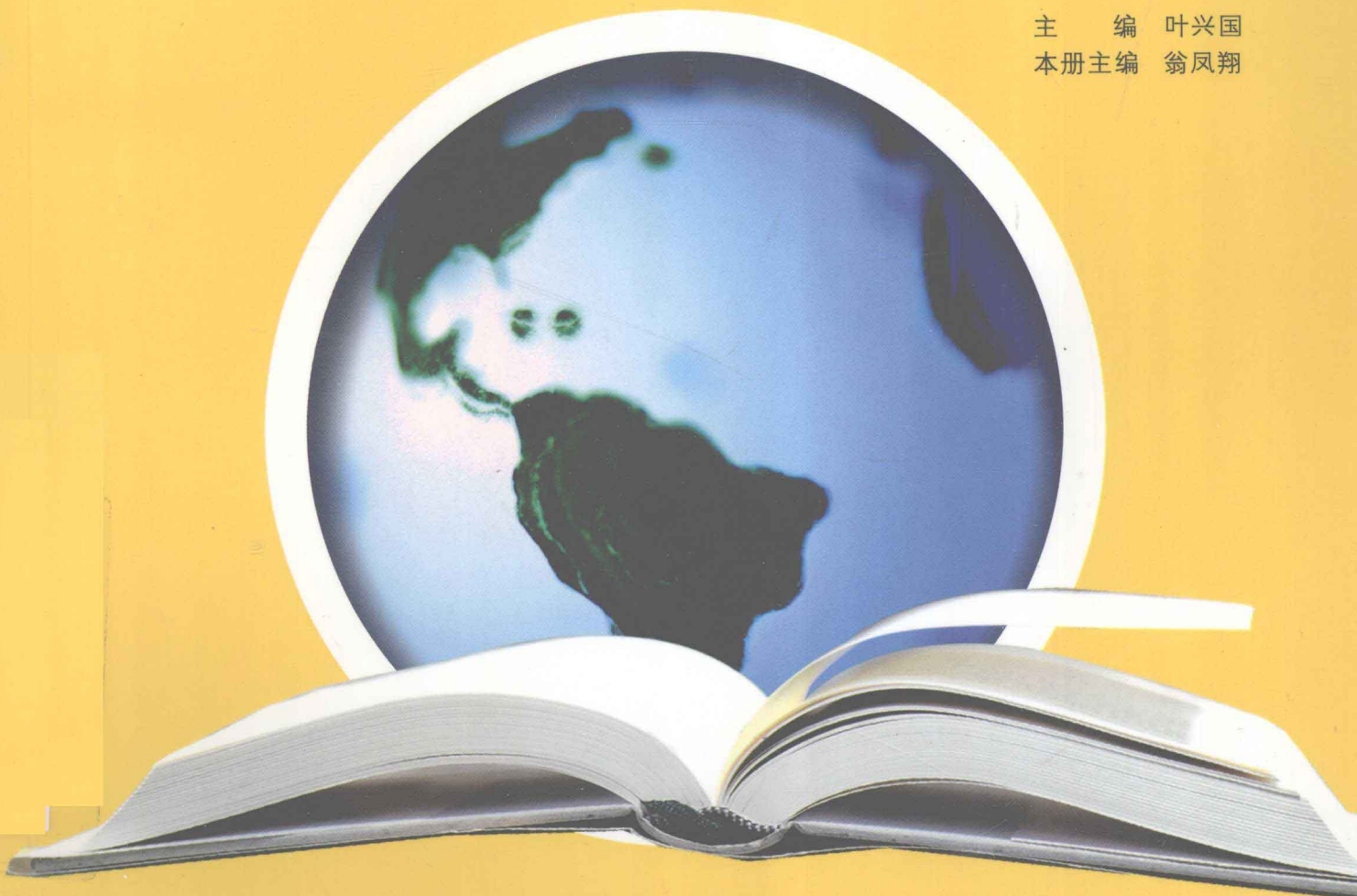


阅读教程 4

BUSINESS ENGLISH: A READING COURSE

学生用书 Student's Book

主 编 叶兴国
本册主编 翁凤翔



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编 者 孟广君 周洁

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前言

近年来对外经济贸易大学、广东外语外贸大学和上海对外贸易学院等院校先后获教育部批准，试办商务英语本科专业。这标志着我国的大学教育朝满足经济社会发展的需求又迈进了一步，也标志着我国的商务英语教学跃上了新的层次。

改革开放以来，特别是加入世界贸易组织后，我国的国际商务环境发生了巨大的变化。以国际贸易为例，贸易事业的运行对象、政策领域、体制环境、管理方式和运行平台等方面已经发生了重大变化：贸易的运行对象已经从传统的货物贸易向包括货物贸易、服务贸易和知识贸易在内的“大贸易”拓展；贸易政策涉及的范围已经从过去单纯的贸易政策领域向与贸易有关的领域延伸；贸易的体制环境已经从封闭的国内贸易体制环境向开放的全球多边贸易体制环境转型；国家对贸易的管理方式已经从传统的内外贸分割管理向内外贸一体化管理的方向转变；贸易运行平台已经从传统的贸易运行平台转向数字化、信息化和网络化的贸易运行平台。

在新形势下，“国际贸易就是跨境商品买卖”这一传统定义已经难以涵盖当前国际贸易活动的丰富内涵。国际商务开始涵盖任何为了满足个人和机构需要而进行的跨境商业交易。具体地说，国际商务包括商品、资本、服务、人员和技术的国际流通，知识产权(包括专利、商标、技术、版权等)的跨境交易，实物资产和金融资产投资，用于当地销售或出口的来料加工或组装，跨国的采购和零售，在国外设立仓储和分销系统等。就所涉及的领域而言，国际商务涉及国际营销、国际金融、国际会计、国际审计、国际税收、国际结算、对外直接投资、国际物流、知识产权、电子商务和贸易法律等领域。就所涉及的行业而言，国际商务包括但不仅限于国际贸易、国际投资、物流、旅游、银行、广告、零售、批发、保险、电信、航空、海运、咨询、会计和法律服务等行业。在上述环境下使用的英语都可以归入国际商务英语的范畴。

为了使商务英语阅读教材更好地适应已经发生变化的国际商务环境，切实提高学生实际运用商务英语的能力，我们编写了《商务英语阅读教程》。本教程主要供高等院校商务英语专业本科、英语专业本科和财经类本科一、二年级学生使用，也可供具有相当英语水平的商界从业人员阅读。本教程注重能力培养，主要培养学生的阅读理解能力、细致观察语言的能力、逻辑思维能力、吸收语言知识和文化背景知识的能力、通过阅读获取信息的能力、以正常速度阅读和快速阅读的能力。本教程还将培养阅读兴趣、提高阅读技能、养成阅读习惯和扩大词汇量作为预设目标。

本教程执行《高等学校英语专业英语教学大纲》的词汇标准和阅读能力要求，第二册的词汇和阅读能力要求相当于二级要求，第四册的词汇和阅读能力要求相当于四级要求；在此基础上，增加商务英语词汇和阅读能力要求。

本教程力争体现以下特色：

复合性：选文力求体现一般英语文章和商务英语文章的复合，逐渐增加商务英语文章的数量。

权威性：一般英语文章尽量选自经典作家和经典著作，以第二册为例，课文中有爱因斯坦的*The World As I See It*，马克·吐温的*The Danger of Lying in Bed*，米勒的*Death of a Salesman*；商务英语文章尽量选自国外的权威刊物，如《财富》、《经济学家》、《商业周刊》、《读者文摘》、《广告时代》、《今日世界》、《当代管理》、《每月评论》、《时代周刊》、《新闻周刊》、《福布斯》、《远东经济评论》、《世界贸易》、《商业战略研究》、《金融战略》等。另外从互联网上选择了一些材料，兼收了一般英语文章和商务英语文章，在内容上兼顾了文章的经典性和新颖性。

可读性：选文力求短小精悍，内容隽永，特别注重文章的趣味性和可读性，以培养学生的阅读兴趣；另一方面，力求题材的丰富性和体裁的多样性。

系统性：每单元的阅读材料涉及国际商务的一个方面，如营销、金融、会计、跨国公司、投资、物流、贸易、保险、国际组织或政府间组织等。阅读技巧涉及词汇理解、句子理解、篇章理解、段落理解和快速阅读技巧等。篇幅上从短到长，难度上由浅入深，循序渐进。

除了上述特点，为了让大学生尽早阅读真实的，而不是专门为课本编写的英语文章，除个别晦涩难懂的词语，一般不对文章作任何改写，但在不影响文章连贯性的前提下对部分课文作了一些必要的删节。在选材过程中，力求一个单元的阅读材料具有某种内在联系。每册大约有500个生词。课文A和课文B的生词在课文旁列出；为提高阅读的流畅性，其他阅读材料中仅在生词后作随文注。在练习形式上，编者从课堂教学方面考虑，设计了一些讨论题，也安排了一些多项选择、正误判断、填空、词义配对和翻译等练习。在设计多项选择题时兼顾了细节事实、语义理解、逻辑推理和作者态度或观点等。所有练习均围绕文章中的疑点、难点、重点而设计。

本教程共四册，主要编写人员包括叶兴国教授(主编、第二册主编)、谢文怡教授(第一册主编)、王嘉禔教授(第三册主编)和翁凤翔教授(第四册主编)。车淑珍、徐伟、钱晓玲、盛国强、李侠、苏岐英、王宪、吴云、黄静、翁静乐、张晶晶参加了第四册的编写工作。

本教程的编写得到了上海市教委第五期重点学科外国语言学及应用语言学项目资助，项目编号为A-3102-06-000。许多专家学者对本教程的编写给予了帮助。在此，我们向关心和帮助本教程编写的所有人员一并表示衷心的感谢。

由于编者水平有限，书中难免有不妥甚至错误之处，我们恳切希望使用本教程的教师、学生和其他读者批评指正。

叶兴国

2009年9月于上海对外贸易学院

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UNIT 1



Part I Pre-reading Questions

1. What is international trade?
2. What are the features of Sri Lanka's international trade?
3. Can you tell the differences between the GATT and the WTO?

Text A

Sri Lanka Trade

Ceylon /si'lon/ *n.* 锡兰(Sri Lanka的原称)
per capita /pə'kæpɪtə/ *a.* 每人的
primary product 初级产品

cinnamon /'sɪnəmən/ *n.* 肉桂
clove /kləʊv/ *n.* 丁香
cardamom /'kɑ:dəməm/ *n.* 豆蔻

interrelated /,ɪntərɪ'relɪtɪd/ *a.* 相关的

import substitution 进口替代

Sri Lanka, an island country of more than 16 million people off the southeast coast of India, received its independence from the United Kingdom in 1948. Known as Ceylon from the early sixteenth century until 1972, Sri Lanka is typical of most emerging economies. It has a low per capita income (about \$900 per year), high dependence on a few minerals and agricultural products (known as primary products) for its foreign-exchange earnings, insufficient foreign-exchange earnings to purchase all desired consumer and industrial imports, and a high unemployment rate. In many other ways, however, Sri Lanka is typical. On various measurements comparing the quality of life among countries, Sri Lanka ranks very high. Its literacy rate, standards of nutrition, health care, equality of income distribution, and life expectancy are some of the highest among emerging countries. Its recent population growth rate is one of the lowest.

Sri Lanka has a long history of international trade, such as with Ionian merchants in the middle of the third century B.C. and with King Solomon, who purchased Sri Lanka gems, elephants, and peacocks with which to woo the Queen of Sheba. One by one, European powers came to dominate the island to acquire products unavailable at home. The Portuguese, for example, sought such products as cinnamon, cloves, and cardamom. The English developed the island's economy with tea, rubber, and coconuts, all of which replaced rice as the major agricultural crops.

Since its independence, Sri Lanka has looked to international trade to help solve such problems as (1) shortage of foreign exchange, (2) overdependence on tea exports, (3) overdependence on the British market, and (4) insufficient growth of output and employment.^① First, foreign exchange is needed to buy imports, and Sri Lankans desire for foreign products or foreign machinery to produce them have grown more rapidly than the foreign-exchange earnings to buy them. Second, until 1975, more than half of the country's export earnings were from tea. Wholesale tea prices fluctuate by as much as 90 percent from one year to the next because of a bumper crop or natural disaster in any tea-exporting country.^② This fluctuation makes planning for long-term business or governmental projects difficult. Third, because Sri Lanka is a former British colony, many Sri Lankans also have been concerned that the country cannot be politically and economically independent as long as trade centers on the British market. At the time of independence, for example, one-third of Sri Lanka exports went to the United Kingdom. Fourth, world demand for Sri Lanka's traditional mining and agricultural products has not grown as rapidly as that for many other products, particularly manufactured ones. So, Sri Lanka has not met its economic objectives for growth and employment.

To help solve these interrelated problems, Sri Lanka has basically followed three different trade policies since 1960. These policies have reflected views of different political leaders and changes in Sri Lanka conditions. They are:

- 1960 to 1977, import substitution (seeking local production of goods and services that would otherwise be imported)
- 1977 to 1988, strategic trade policy (government actions to develop specific industries with export potential) along with import substitution
- 1988 to present, strategic trade policy along with openness to imports.

Throughout the three trade periods, Sri Lanka has become less

55 dependent on the tea market and on sales to any single market. However, the three periods differ in other respects. During the 1960 to 1977 period, Sri Lanka sought to export more of its traditional commodities — tea, rubber, and coconuts — and to diversify its production by restricting imports. Restricting imports would encourage local production, creating jobs and saving foreign exchange. However, this import substitution policy resulted in inefficient production that could survive only if imports were prohibited.

60 From 1977 to 1988, Sri Lanka continued to restrict imports substantially but shifted to the development of new industries that could export a part of their production, earning more foreign exchange. In this period, Sri Lanka's Ministry of Industries began taking an active role in determining what those products should be and how to get companies to produce them for foreign markets. The Ministry of Industries did this partly by identifying nontraditional products that were already being exported in small amounts, because such ability to export indicated the potential for growth. It also identified other products that could offer Sri Lanka a potential advantage in foreign competition by using inexpensive and abundant Sri Lanka resources — particularly semiskilled and skilled labor and certain raw materials for production and packaging. The Ministry further examined products for markets in which Sri Lanka was probably most able to sell because of special market concessions and low transportation costs. The products that emerged were ranked by export potential and expected benefits for the country. The leading items were processed tea, ready-made garments, chemical derivatives of coconut oil, edible fats, bicycle tires and tubes, and other rubber products, such as automobile tires and tubes.

75 Identifying the most likely competitive industries encouraged some business people to produce new products. In addition, the government established industrial development zones. Companies that produced in and exported production from these zones could qualify for lower taxes on their earnings. They also could defer taxes on imported goods and components until the resulting products were sold domestically. If the products were exported, there were no import taxes. The first producers to take advantage of the incentives were textile and footwear companies that had special access to the U.S. and European markets. Since then the company base has become more diverse and includes companies making PVC film, carpets, and companies entering information into computerized data banks.

80 Since 1988, the Sri Lanka government has continued to target industries that it deems to have export potential, such as by offering tax and investment incentives for ceramic and light engineering industries, companies doing software development, and companies using only locally derived raw materials. Sri Lanka also has encouraged the export of services, particularly earnings from its workers abroad and from foreign tourists visiting the country. For example, several hundred thousand Sri Lankans work in foreign countries and send remittance to their families. The government has promoted visits by foreign tourists, such as by legalizing gambling casinos and betting centers open only to foreigners. It also approved a British-Chinese consortium to develop the port at Galle so that it might become a major transshipment center like Colombo.

90 What has differentiated the period since 1988 from the earlier one is the use of more open markets to foster competition. Consequently, many companies and industries that started up when local production was protected have gone out of business. But the open economy has permitted Sri Lanka companies to more easily import materials, such as bulk rubber, so that they can process them for domestic and foreign sales.

100 In 1955 the World Trade Organization praised Sri Lanka for trade reforms that opened its markets. During the 1990s Sri Lanka's real GDP grew rapidly despite a civil war and heavy military expenditures. Recently, Sri

market concession 市场特
许

PVC film 聚氯乙烯膜

ceramic /sɪ'reɪmɪk/ n. 陶瓷

remittance /rɪ'mɪtəns/ n. 汇
款

consortium /kən'sɔ:tɪəm/ n.
社团

Galle /gɑ:l/ n. 加勒(斯里兰
卡西南部港市)

transshipment /træns-
'ʃɪpmənt/ n. 转船

Colombo /kə'lɒmbəu/ n. 科
伦坡(斯里兰卡首都)

dispersed /di'spɜːst/ a. 分散的

Lanka has targeted information technology as a new growth industry.

The move to establish new export industries has accomplished many of Sri Lanka's objectives. Manufacturing has grown as a portion of total exports, and tea has fallen by more than half. Garments are now the largest export. Tea, though still a top export, is increasingly going out in value-added forms, such as instant tea and tea bags. The value-added forms create Sri Lanka jobs and do not fluctuate in price as much as bulk tea. In addition, Sri Lanka's export markets have become more dispersed, with such countries as the U.S., Saudi Arabia, Germany, and India gaining in importance.

Sri Lanka trade policies have evolved in response to different objectives and conditions, both within and outside Sri Lanka. They will undoubtedly continue to evolve in the future.

Total Words: 1,308

Total Reading Time: _____ minutes _____ seconds

This text is taken from *International Business — Environment and Operation*, by John D. Daniels & Lee H. Radebaugh.

Notes

- ① Since its independence, ... output and employment. 斯里兰卡自独立以来一直致力于发展国际贸易，以解决以下问题：(1) 外汇短缺；(2) 过度依赖茶叶出口；(3) 过于依赖英国市场；(4) 国内产出和就业增加不足。
look to 意为“注意；照管”。
- ② Wholesale tea prices ... any tea-exporting country. 受其他茶叶出口国国内丰收或自然灾害的影响，与上一年相比，茶叶的批发价格可能会有高达90%的波动幅度。
a bumper crop: 长势很好的庄稼。

Exercises

I. Answer the following questions.

1. What economic features do most emerging economies share according to the text?
2. What problems may Sri Lanka's dependence on tea export cause to its economy?
3. What are the favourable policies toward companies that produced in and exported from the industrial development zone?
4. Why has Sri Lanka's government allowed gambling casinos and betting centers to be open to foreigners?
5. What are the advantages of value-added forms of exports?

II. Choose the best answer.

1. Ever since its independence, Sri Lanka has been aiming to solve the problem of overdependence on exports of _____.
A. rubber B. coconut C. tea D. cheap labor
2. During the 1960 to 1977 period, Sri Lanka restricted imports to _____.
A. diversify local production B. create more chances for employment
C. save foreign exchange D. achieve objectives mentioned in A, B, and C
3. During the 1977 to 1988 period, Sri Lanka aimed at exporting more products to earn foreign exchange. Those products considered were ranked by _____.
A. traditional advantage B. expected benefits and export potential
C. benefits they had already earned D. their importance in public life

4. According to the text, since 1988, the Sri Lanka government has done a lot to encourage international trade EXCEPT _____.
- A. developing the port at Galle on their own so that it might become a major transshipment center
 - B. granting tax and investment incentives to certain companies
 - C. developing tourism by attracting tourists from abroad
 - D. further developing industries with export potential
5. It can be told from the text that _____.
- A. tea export is still the largest in Sri Lanka
 - B. local protection is quite popular in Sri Lanka
 - C. Sri Lanka has now a much more open market
 - D. Sri Lanka exports center on European markets

Text B

Principles of the Trading System

1 The WTO agreements are lengthy and complex because they are legal
 texts covering a wide range of activities. They deal with: agriculture, textiles
 and clothing, banking, telecommunications, government purchases, industrial
 standards and product safety, food sanitation regulations, intellectual
 5 property, and much more. But a number of simple, fundamental principles
 run throughout all of these documents. These principles are the foundation
 of the multilateral trading system.

A closer look at these principles:

Trade without discrimination

10 1. Most-favored-nation (MFN): treating other people equally

Under the WTO agreements, countries cannot normally discriminate
 between their trading partners. Grant someone a special favour (such as a
 lower customs duty rate for one of their products) and you have to do the
 same for all other WTO members.

15 This principle is known as most-favoured-nation (MFN) treatment^①.
 It is so important that it is the first article of the General Agreement on
 Tariffs and Trade (GATT)^②, which governs trade in goods. MFN is also a
 priority in the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS)^③ (Article 2)
 and the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights
 20 (TRIPS)^④ (Article 4), although in each agreement the principle is handled
 slightly differently. Together, those three agreements cover all three main
 areas of trade handled by the WTO.

25 Some exceptions are allowed. For example, countries can set up a free
 trade agreement that applies only to goods traded within the group — dis-
 criminating against goods from outside. Or they can give developing coun-
 tries special access to their markets. Or a country can raise barriers against
 products that are considered to be traded unfairly from specific countries.
 And in services, countries are allowed, in limited circumstances, to dis-
 30 criminate. But the agreements only permit these exceptions under strict
 conditions. In general, MFN means that every time a country lowers a trade
 barrier or opens up a market, it has to do so for the same goods or services
 from all its trading partners — whether rich or poor, weak or strong.

2. National treatment^⑤: Treating foreigners and locals equally

35 Imported and locally-produced goods should be treated equally — at
 least after the foreign goods have entered the market. The same should ap-
 ply to foreign and domestic services, and to foreign and local trademarks,
 copyrights and patents. This principle of “national treatment” (giving
 others the same treatment as one’s own nationals) is also found in all the
 three main WTO agreements (Article 3 of GATT, Article 17 of GATS and
 40 Article 3 of TRIPS), although once again the principle is handled slightly

sanitation /ˌsæniˈteɪʃən/ *n.*

卫生

multilateral /ˌmʌltɪˈlætərəl/

a. 多边的

intellectual property 知识

产权

trademark /ˈtreɪdmɑːk/ *n.*

商标

patent /ˈpeɪnt/ *n.* 专利

differently in each of these.

National treatment only applies once a product, service or item of intellectual property has entered the market. Therefore, charging customs duty on an import is not a violation of national treatment even if locally-produced products are not charged an equivalent tax.

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Freer trade: gradually, through negotiation

Lowering trade barriers is one of the most obvious means of encouraging trade. The barriers concerned include customs duties (or tariffs) and measures such as import bans or quotas that restrict quantities selectively. From time to time other issues such as red tape and exchange rate policies have also been discussed.^⑥

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Since GATT's creation in 1947-48 there have been eight rounds of trade negotiations. A ninth round, under the Doha Development Agenda, is now underway.^⑦ At first these focused on lowering tariffs (customs duties) on imported goods. As a result of the negotiations, by the mid-1990s industrial countries' tariff rates on industrial goods had fallen steadily to less than 4%.

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But by the 1980s, the negotiations had expanded to cover non-tariff barriers on goods, and to the new areas such as services and intellectual property.

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Opening markets can be beneficial, but it also requires adjustment. The WTO agreements allow countries to introduce changes gradually, through "progressive liberalization". Developing countries are usually given longer time to fulfill their obligations.

Predictability: through binding and transparency

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Sometimes, promising not to raise a trade barrier can be as important as lowering one, because the promise gives businesses a clearer view of their future opportunities. With stability and predictability, investment is encouraged, jobs are created and consumers can fully enjoy the benefits of competition — choice and lower prices. The multilateral trading system is an attempt by governments to make the business environment stable and predictable.

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In the WTO, when countries agree to open their markets for goods or services, they "bind" their commitments. For goods, these bindings amount to ceilings on customs tariff rates. Sometimes countries tax imports at rates that are lower than the bound rates.^⑧ Frequently this is the case in developing countries. In developed countries the rates actually charged and the bound rates tend to be the same.

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A country can change its bindings, but only after negotiating with its trading partners, which could mean compensating them for loss of trade. One of the achievements of the Uruguay Round^⑨ of multilateral trade talks was to increase the amount of trade under binding commitments. In agriculture, 100% of products now have bound tariffs. The result of all this: a substantially higher degree of market security for traders and investors.

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The system tries to improve predictability and stability in other ways as well. One way is to discourage the use of quotas and other measures used to set limits on quantities of imports — administering quotas can lead to more red-tape and accusations of unfair play. Another is to make countries' trade rules as clear and public ("transparent") as possible. Many WTO agreements require governments to disclose their policies and practices publicly within the country or by notifying the WTO. The regular surveillance of national trade policies through the Trade Policy Review Mechanism^⑩ provides a further means of encouraging transparency both domestically and at the multilateral level.

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import ban 进口限额

underway /ˌʌndə'weɪ/ a. 进行中的

progressive /prə'ʊɡresɪv/ a. 渐进的

ceiling /'siːlɪŋ/ n. 上限
bound rate 约束税率

quota /'kwɒtə/ n. 限额

unfair play 不公平竞争

surveillance /sɜː'veɪləns/ n. 监督

Promoting fair competition

The WTO is sometimes described as a “free trade” institution, but that is not entirely accurate. The system does allow tariffs and, in limited circumstances, other forms of protection. More accurately, it is a system of rules dedicated to open, fair and undistorted competition.

100 The rules on non-discrimination — MFN and national treatment — are designed to secure fair conditions of trade. So too are those on dumping (exporting at below cost to gain market share) and subsidies. The issues are complex, and the rules try to establish what is fair or unfair, and how governments can respond, in particular by charging additional import duties
105 calculated to compensate for damage caused by unfair trade.

Many of the other WTO agreements aim to support fair competition: in agriculture, intellectual property, services, for example. The agreement on government procurement (a “plurilateral” agreement because it is signed by only a few WTO members) extends competition rules to purchases by
110 thousands of government entities in many countries.

Encouraging development and economic reform

The WTO system contributes to development. On the other hand, developing countries need flexibility in the time they take to implement the system’s agreements. And the agreements themselves inherit the earlier
115 provisions of GATT that allow for special assistance and trade concessions for developing countries.

Over three quarters of WTO members are developing countries and countries in transition to market economies. During the seven and a half years of the Uruguay Round, over 60 of these countries implemented trade liberalization programs autonomously. At the same time, developing countries and transition economies were much more active and influential in the Uruguay Round negotiations than in any previous round, and they are even more so in the current Doha Development Agenda.

At the end of the Uruguay Round, developing countries were prepared
125 to take on most of the obligations that are required of developed countries. But the agreements did give them transition periods to adjust to the more unfamiliar and, perhaps, difficult WTO provisions — particularly so for the poorest, “least-developed” countries. A ministerial decision adopted at the end of the round says better-off countries should accelerate implementing market
130 access commitments on goods exported by the least-developed countries, and it seeks increased technical assistance for them. More recently, developed countries have started to allow duty-free and quota-free imports for almost all products from least-developed countries. On all of this, the WTO and its members are still going through a learning process. The current Doha Development
135 Agenda includes developing countries’ concerns about the difficulties they face in implementing the Uruguay Round agreements.

Total Words: 1,383

Total Reading Time: _____ minutes _____ seconds

This text is taken from <http://www.wto.org/english/thewto>.

dumping /'dʌmpɪŋ/ *n.* 倾销

subsidy /'sʌbsɪdi/ *n.* 补贴

entity /'entɪti/ *n.* 实体

provision /prə'vɪʒən/ *n.* 条款

autonomously /ɔ:'tɒnəməslɪ/
ad. 自发地; 自治地

- ① most-favoured-nation (MFN) treatment: 最惠国待遇。
最惠国待遇可视为双边贸易协定中的一项承诺,规定缔约国的一方若现在或将来在进出口贸易、通航、税收、公民法律地位等方面给予第三国某种优惠待遇,缔约国的另一方即同时获得相同的优惠待遇。
- ② General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT): 《关税与贸易总协定》,简称《关贸总协定》。
《关贸总协定》是世界贸易组织的前身,是于1947年10月30日由23个国家签订的临时性政府协定,于1948年1月1日生效。
- ③ General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS): 《服务贸易总协定》。
《服务贸易总协定》是1986-1994“乌拉圭回合”的一项重大成果;1995年1月正式生效,至此服务贸易被正式纳入多边贸易体制的管辖范围。《服务贸易总协定》是迄今为止第一套有关国际服务贸易的、具有法律效力的多边规则。
- ④ Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS): 《与贸易有关的知识产权协定》。
《与贸易有关的知识产权协定》于1994年WTO成立时通过,于1995年1月1日生效。《与贸易有关的知识产权协定》涉及的知识产权共有八个方面,如:著作权及其相关权利、商标、地理标志等。
- ⑤ national treatment: 国民待遇。
国民待遇,又称平等待遇,是指在民事权利方面一个国家给予在其国境内的外国公民、企业与其国内公民、企业同等待遇,通常以国民待遇条款的形式列入贸易条约。国民待遇是世贸组织非歧视贸易原则的重要体现。
- ⑥ The barriers concerned ... also been discussed. 相关的贸易壁垒包括进口关税和诸如选择性限制数量的进口配额和进口禁令之类的措施。繁琐的程序和汇率政策等其它事项也不时被加以讨论。
quotas: 配额,是实行进口数量限制的重要手段之一。red tape: 指官僚文章、繁琐的事务。
- ⑦ Since GATT's creation ... is now underway. 自从《关贸总协定》于1947-1948年创立以来,已经进行了八轮贸易谈判。第九轮谈判,即“多哈发展议程”,正在进行之中。
世贸组织第四次部长级会议于2001年11月在卡塔尔首都多哈启动了新一轮多边贸易谈判,又称“多哈发展议程”,简称“多哈回合”。
- ⑧ In the WTO ... the bound rates. 在世界贸易组织中,如果成员国同意对货物或服务开放他们的市场,此承诺即受到约束。对于货物而言,这些约束体现为关税率的最高限额。有些国家有时对于进口货物征收的关税率低于约束税率。
amount to意为“相当于,实际上是”。例如: This actually amounts to a refusal. 这实际上意味着拒绝。
- ⑨ the Uruguay Round: 乌拉圭回合。
1986年9月《关贸总协定》部长级会议在乌拉圭的埃斯特角城举行,决定进行一场旨在全面改革多边贸易体制的新一轮谈判,即“乌拉圭回合”谈判。该谈判于1994年4月在摩洛哥的马拉喀什结束,历时七年半,是迄今为止规模最大的一次贸易谈判,几乎涉及了贸易的各个领域。
- ⑩ Trade Policy Review Mechanism: 贸易政策审议机制。
WTO的贸易政策审议机制创立于1989年“乌拉圭回合”,是以1979年“东京回合”达成的《关于通知、协商、争端解决和监督谅解书》为基础形成的。贸易政策评审机制是WTO对各成员国的贸易政策和措施及其多边贸易体制所产生的影响进行全面的、经常性的审议和监督。