



中国人民大学 编著

新世纪专业英语系列教材

New Century Subject-oriented English

总主编 张勇先 副总主编 康成翠 杨树臣 白洁

INTERNATIONAL TRADE

国际贸易英语教程

(上册)

主编 许葵花 副主编 李婧



西安交通大学出版社
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晨风策划

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教育部最新颁布的《大学英语教学大纲》在教学要求中规定:学生在完成基础阶段的学习任务,达到四级或六级后,都必须修读专业英语。《新世纪专业英语系列教材》正是根据《大学英语教学大纲》的要求,为保证大学生英语学习四年不断线而编写的一套教材。

本套教材分《新闻英语教程》、《旅游英语教程》、《法律英语教程》、《国际贸易英语教程》、《财金英语教程》以及《工商管理英语教程》共六个系列。每一系列包括上、下两个分册,每一分册可供一学期(每周四课时)或一学年(每周两课时)使用。主要编写者除了中国人民大学外国语学院骨干教师以及相关院、系的专家外,还特别邀请了北京外国语大学、中国社科院、北京联大旅游学院等单位的专家学者加盟。中国人民大学张勇先教授担任总主编。《新闻英语教程》由白松主编;《旅游英语教程》由王晓彤主编;《法律英语教程》由赵雁丽主编;《国际贸易英语教程》由许葵华主编;《财金英语教程》由韦娜主编;《工商管理英语教程》由张初愚主编。全书由专业英语教师和公共英语教师共同编写,课文译文由英语过硬的专业教师负责把关。

本系列教材具有以下特点:

一、课文选材新,具有时代感。绝大部分文章是近几年发表的,最新的发表于2000年,以使学习者了解各个专业领域的最新发展和最新理念。

二、生词释义采用英汉两种方式。少数

难以用英语解释的词汇直接用汉语释义。这样做的目的在于培养学生查阅原文词典的能力，同时能提高学生对同义词和近义词的记忆能力。所注词汇均为四级以上词汇。

三、教材在内容和语言上贯彻循序渐进的原则。在内容上，上册主要涉及本专业的基本原理和基础知识；下册主要涉及本专业的历史及专家观点，目的在于帮助学生完成从基础到专业的过渡。在语言上，选材从难度、可读性等方面考虑，贯彻由浅入深的原则。

四、考虑到《大纲》对专业英语学时和阅读总量的要求，我们采用了“主”、“副”课文制。对主课文的注释和练习两方面进行了重点处理，用作教师课内重点讲解的内容；副课文主要供学生课后自学，从而对主课文从语言到知识两方面起到巩固作用。

五、本教材以强调理解的准确性及学生的应用能力为突出特点。在注意帮助学生扩大词汇量，特别是专业英语词汇的同时，帮助学生提高阅读有关专业的原版教科书、参考书及其它参考资料的能力、听懂与专业有关内容的能力、能用英语进行有关专业内容的一般性的会话或讨论的能力及写和译的能力。因此，我们精心编写了包括文章理解及语言应用方面的大量练习。为了巩固和提高学生的听说能力，每一单元后的练习中都设有 Role Play 和 Listening and Speaking 的练习。全套教材均配有由外籍专家朗读的录音磁带。

六、为方便自学，书后提供了主课文的参考译文和练习答案。

七、全套六种教材在遵循总的编写原则的同时，又根据各自课程的特点自成体系。

我们热切地期待着广大师生对本套教材的批评和建议。

编者

2003年3月



前言

世界步入 21 世纪后,随着国际化时代的到来,东西方国家已不再是彼此的神话传奇,而是生活在同一地球村的比邻。尤其中国加入 WTO 后,贸易经济要与国际接轨,英语国际贸易知识如同今天的英语是大多数人应该掌握的一门技能,这方面的复合型人才是入世后急需的人才之一。

值此全球化经济热潮来临之际,我们本着服务于学生、服务于社会的原则编撰了这套教材。本教材分为上、下两册,上册为国际贸易理论,下册为国际贸易实务。两册可接续使用,也可根据需要单册使用。选材新颖、注重实用性是这套教材的最大特点。主课文选材全部是近两年国外原版书籍,副课文及练习材料也全部选自近两年国外及国内的英文报刊、杂志等。主课文注意理论性、知识性;副课文(多是主课文的实例延伸)注重实际性;练习形式多样,听、说、读、写、译兼顾,尤其注意听、说;书后均配有练习答案、听力原文及主课文翻译,供学生参考及自学。

本教材是由国际贸易专业与英语专业的教师一年多的共同努力完成的。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

2003 年 3 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, IBM 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 | Either | 2 | or | 1 |
| Developed country | Either | 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 and Expressions

ply/plai/ *v.*

(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'daʊnmənt/ *n.*

a natural talent or quality 天赋;天资

ton/tʌn/ *n.*

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/ *a.*

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 / 'mæksimaiz/ <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 /dai'vət/ <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'stisiti/ <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。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. 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 production possibilities and hence the rate of sustainable consumption of nations to expand. That is, the parties to trade may obtain more of both traded goods after _____ and trade.

2. Give the antonym.

scarce _____

mobile _____

loose _____

minimize _____

harmful/detrimental _____

efficient _____

absolute _____

export _____

single _____

perfect _____

precisely _____

appear _____

extensive _____

fertile _____

final _____

relevant _____

active _____

discourage _____

◆ III. Translation

1. Translate the following phrases and sentences from Chinese into English.

- 1) 培养合作精神
- 2) 才能出众之辈
- 3) 代代相传的特征
- 4) 城市建筑的高度密集
- 5) 民用电子工业
- 6) 你们一定要注意这个词义的灵活性。
- 7) 在许多国家烟草是政府的专卖品。
- 8) 我需要钱,只得亏本出让这辆车。
- 9) 她父亲让她在上大学继续求学和开始工作之间作出抉择。
- 10) 原可用于城市建设的钱已被转移到其他项目上了。