



初外经歷英语敬君

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被共享的企業的

对外经贸英语教程

An English Course in Foreign Trade and Economics

卢世雄 编 著

杭州大学出版社

对外经贸英语教程

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前 言

随着我国国民经济改革和对外开放政策的深入发展,社会上大量需要对外经济贸易方面的人才。为了适应这种新的形势,杭州大学外语学院的教学进行了相应的改革。自1987年以来,我们先后开设了一些新课程,《对外经贸英语》就是其中一门。这门课程的开设,旨在使学生掌握对外经济贸易方面的知识,继续提高外语的实践能力,以利于增加学生的就业机会。我们希望有一定英语基础的学生选修此门课程,从事对外经贸工作者也可学习这本书,能够比较系统地掌握对外经贸业务的基础理论、基础知识和基本技能,能够熟练地用正确的英语解决对外经贸实务诸方面的问题。

本书共有18个单元,前16个单元主要介绍对外经济贸易和进出口实务方面的基础理论、基础知识和基本技能(如贸易方式、交易条件、金融、结汇、运输、保险、仲裁、索赔、合同签订等),并有选择地介绍国际贸易的惯例、做法和有关国际经贸会议和组织。最后2个单元简单介绍国际商务信函、电报、电传等基础知识和技巧。

每个单元侧重讨论一个问题,但各个单元之间又相互密切连系,全书自成一体。对书中出现的一些专门术语,作了必要的注释, 以助读者加深理解,并配备一定数量的复习题目,书末附有练习答案,可供参考。

本书可供高等院校作为对外经贸专业课程的教材,也可供对外 贸易企业和有关部门工作人员学习参考。在采用本书作为教材时, 可根据具体情况作适当的增删。

由于编者水平有限,书中难免有不当甚至错误之处,敬请读者批评指正。

- 编 者 [1995 年 8 月

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UNIT 1

Natural Resources: Exporting and Importing

The location of the world's natural resources, also called commodities, determines the patterns of world trade. Some regions are abundant in resources; elsewhere, reserves are scarce or nonexistent. As far as the industrialized nations are concerned, the United States and Canada enjoy the most favorable position. They are the dominant exporters of grains. The United States and Canada also have vast coal and oil reserves, as well as nonferrous metal deposits, such as copper, zinc, and lead, which these countries export. The United States is also a heavy consumer of natural resources, and it is increasingly reliant on certain imports, especially on oil. Japan, a highly industrialized nation, is very dependent and has to import 99 percent of its primary commodities. Western Europe produces nearly all of the grain it needs but lacks other commodities to a great extent. The United States, Canada, Japan, and Western Europe all have to import tropical agricultural products from the developing nations.

There are basically three commodity groups: minerals, such as coal, oil, copper, zinc, and bauxite; tropical agricultural products, such as cocoa, coffee, sugar, tea, and tobacco, which grow in tropical climates; and cereals, such as wheat, maize, and other grains, which grow in colder climates. While world consumption of resources is increasing at a fast pace, world reserves of many commodities are increasing equally fast. The Brookings Institution in Washington, D. C., estimates that iron ore and bauxite reserves have recently doubled. The amount of world reserves has been determined by exploration. Although the earth contains extremely large mineral deposits, some of these are not easily accessible. Also, in some cases,

the quality of a mineral varies from one place to another. For example, in the nineteenth century half of the world's copper ore came from Cornwall, England, and had a 13 percent metal content. Today copper ore mined in the United States has less than a 1 percent metal content. But over the last seventy years, improved technology in exploration, production, and transportation now makes mining of such ores with low-metal content a worthwhile venture.

A great part of the world's reserves may still be unknown because they are inaccessible. However, new ways to discover and exploit these reserves may yet be found.

Efforts to conserve the environment sometimes clash with the advancement of technology. Environmentalists in the United States want to outlaw strip mining of coal, a technique whereby land is scraped from above in order to find coal. At least they want to force the mining companies to restore the scarred earth to its natural state after the searches for coal have been made.

Increased technology sometimes decreases the demand for natural resources. The need for metals has been relieved by the development of plastics and synthetic fibers. Solar energy may eventually lessen our dependence on oil. Increased recycling of paper, metals, and other reusable materials will further reduce our demands for primary commodities. However, an offsetting factor to these new developments is the growth of the world's population, which puts an even greater demand on natural resources.

Tropical agricultural products differ from minerals in the sense that they are *renewable*, that is, new crops can be harvested on the same land. Technology is not very advanced in many developing nations where tropical crops are grown, so production is very dependent on manual labor. This is not a constraint, since these countries are densely populated. However, the lack of *capital* (money to invest) may be a problem. It takes five years for coffee tree to reach their peak of production and seven years for rubber trees. Sugar processing facilities are expensive to build. Also, many developing nations resist

foreign investment in their industries, thereby restricting the growth of production.

The availability of grain supplies depends on two factors; population growth and increased production. For the past twenty years world grain production has grown 3 percent annually. In the same period world population has grown by 2 percent. But by the year 2000, six billion people are expected to live on earth, and grain production will have to expand greatly. The industrialized countries achieved their production growth without expansion of agricultural acreage; in developing countries acreage increased 30 percent. Improved technology and increased cultivation should help alleviate some of the food problems now lying ahead of us. In Latin America, according to a United Nations study, the crop acreage could be quadrupled, and in North America it could be doubled.

International trade, where goods and services move across borders, is often explained by the theory of comparative advantage, also called the comparative cost theory. This theory 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. A tropical climate is better suited for growing bananas than a cold one. A country like Norway could produce bananas in hothouses, but it is cheaper for Norway to import the bananas than to produce them. Thus, climate establishes a trade pattern between a northern and a southern country. In other cases the availability of natural resources may be the trade factor.

The same holds true for countries. Paul Samuelson, a well known United States economist, gives this example: 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. To conclude, the theory of comparative advantage states that if each country specializes in products in which it has a comparative advantage (greatest relative efficiency), trade between these countries will be mutually profitable.

Comparative advantage has led countries to specialize in particular products and to mass-produce. Sometimes this goes one step further. Italy gained a comparative advantage over many countries in mass-producing wine. France, self-supporting in wine, presently imports large quantities of Italian wine, which is cheaper. In turn, a large portion of the French wine production is exported.

It is generally assumed, as the famous economist David Ricardo stated in the last century, that international trade is beneficial for all participants. However, governments can often take protectionist measures. For example, they can impose tariffs and quotas on imported items. A tariff is a tax on imported items, computed as a percentage of the import value. An import quota is the maximum quantity of a product allowed into a country during a given period of time. These measures are meant to protect domestic industry so that imported goods will not be sold cheaper than home-produced ones. At the same time, countries attempt to achieve equilibrium in the balance of payments, which will be discussed in Unit Two.

International trade can also be limited due to the high cost of transporting bulky or perishable goods. Even if the United States had a comparative advantage over Jordan in producing lampposts, transportation expenses would prevent exporting them to that country. Similarly, if Holland had a comparative advantage over Brazil in producing tomatoes, transportation costs would make these perishable goods too expensive to sell.

World trade patterns can change and have changed dramatically in some cases. Japan, a closed society for many centuries, was opened up to trade at the end of the nineteenth century. Gradually, Japan gained a comparative advantage in many industries because its labor costs were lower than in the West. Although Japan has to import raw

materials, it exports the finished products.

Changes in climate also affect trade patterns. The Sahara desert, for example, creeps southward at a rate of thirty miles annually. If no irrigation is provided, countries in the sub-Sahara belt will eventually be deprived of their tropical agricultural production, and their exports will eventually cease.

Colonialism has been a great stimulus to world trade. Centuries ago merchants sailed the oceans searching for sources of spices and silk. At first they had no intention of becoming rulers of foreign lands. However, the merchants gradually grew more powerful and their governments became involved in faraway lands.

During colonial periods some industrialization was introduced; railroads, ports, and roads were built. Some natives were educated under a system which stressed European values and lifestyles, and together with their colonial masters, they became an elite group of merchants and entrepreneurs. But the large rural areas of the colonies never took part in the economic change. Now that many former colonies are independent, the new politicians, who were part of the former elite, face a dilemma. On one hand, they see the need for the technology and capital funds of the former colonial powers; on the other hand, they are reluctant to assume the financial or political obligations that this collaboration may bring.

Many developing nations, rich in minerals and tropical agricultural products, now try to increase their earnings from these commodities by forming cartels, which are producers' associations. They attempt to increase prices by controlling supply. This is achieved by limiting production or by imposing an embargo, which is a suspension of exports. The best-known and most successful cartel is the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), a group of twelve leading oil exporters from the Middle East, Nigeria, Venezuela, and Indonesia.

In 1974 OPEC quadrupled its prices, significant's decreased production, and established a temporary embargo on exports to the Unit-

ed States and the Netherlands for political reasons. As a result, the Western industrialized nations undertook steps to limit oil consumption. Though oil prices increased further in 1975 and 1976, demand did not grow as fast as had been predicted, due to new energy plans that the Western nations made.

Other commodity cartels have followed OPEC's example. The seven leading bauxite exporters formed the International Bauxite Association (IBA). Bauxite is the major raw material in aluminum production. Jamaica, one of the cartel members, imposed a sixfold price increase on bauxite, forcing the other members to follow.

The same pattern occurred in phosphate and tin cartels. In various other commodities, such as nickel, copper, rubber, and timber, there is a potential for cartelization. Not all cartels will be successful, as much will depend on future demand. With the advance of technology, industries may use less copper, zinc, tin, and other resources.

In spite of OPEC's success, cartels are not easy to organize. When countries limit production and exports, they deprive themselves of valuable foreign exchange. When they substantially increase prices, cartels force consuming countries to speed up technological research. As substitutes such as plastics and synthetics are found, the demand for primary commodities decreases. Obviously, then, there is a growing need for consultation between producing and consuming nations. This is what is meant by *interdependence* among nations.

Commodity futures trading is an important part of the buying and selling process. A farmer, knowing that he will harvest a crop in October, may want to sell his wheat in March. He thus protects his production against a possible price drop. The farmer would sell his wheat to a commodity dealer, who in turn would sell it to a third party. The dealer is then said to have hedged his position. (He has bought and sold in the future.)

Many commodity futures are bought and sold on commodity markets, which means that future deliveries are organized. In other words, commodities are bought and sold at today's prices for delivery at a future date. The London Metal Exchange (LME) is a commodity market that deals in nonferrous metals, such as copper, zinc, lead, tin, and silver. In the United States these metals are traded at the Commodity Exchange Inc. in New York. The oldest and largest commodity exchange in the world is the Chicago Board of Trade, which trades in wheat, soybeans, and soybean meal, all commodities in which the United States is the world's number one producer. Today's international trade could not exist without these and other small commodity exchanges.

Special Terms

I. primary commodities: 初级产品

指基本产品或原始产品,即未经过加工或只经过初步加工的产品。这类产品有:农、林、牧、渔、矿产品以及半成品,如食品、农矿原料、燃料(包括石油)、油脂等。

I. the Brookings Institution: 布鲁金斯学会

柔美国著名的非赢利性研究咨询机构之一。主要从事经济学、政治学、对外政策和一般社会科学方面的研究、教育和出版方面的工作。

I. international trade: 国际贸易

又称世界贸易(world trade)。系国际范围内的商品交换活动。国际贸易由各国(地区)对外贸易所构成,是后者的总和。自国家产生和商品交换越出一国范围时起,国际贸易就开始发生。国际贸易的规模随国际分工和商品交换的发展而扩大。总的来说,国际贸易以国际分工和商品交换为基础,反过来又促进国际分工和商品交换的发展,成为促进国际间商品物资交换、科学技术交流和世界经济发展的重要因素。

N. the theory of comparative advantage. 比较利益理论

亦称比较成本学说(the theory of comparative cost),是英国古典经济学家大卫·李嘉图(David Ricardo)所提出的按照生产成本相对差别

进行国际分工的一种自由贸易理论。

V. John Stuart Mill: 约翰・斯图亚特・穆勒(英国经济学家,1806 -1873)

穆勒在李嘉图的"比较利益论"基础上提出了按照两国对某一商品相互需求的程度确定商品交换比率的资产阶级学说,即"相互需求说"。他继承并发展了李嘉图的"比较利益论",在理论上开始探讨了国际价值的形成及决定问题。

VI. Paul Anthony Samuelson: 保罗・安东尼・萨缪尔逊(获诺贝尔 奖金之经济学家,1915---)

萨缪尔逊是当代美国凯恩斯学派的领袖人物,1970年获诺贝尔经济学奖金。他的经济理论研究主要包括:推进了资产阶级静态和动态经济理论的发展;把资产阶级的宏观经济学和微观经济学结合起来,成为新古典综合学派,为美国凯恩斯主义提供理论基础;提倡"混合经济",即提倡资本主义制度下市场经济和国家调节作用相结合的经济结构,为垄断资本制造获取垄断高额利润的有利环境。

Ⅷ. tariffs and quotas: 进口税和配额

进口税指输入关境、国境的外国商品所收的关税。征收进口税会使进口商品成本增加,削弱该商品与国内同类商品的竞争能力,从而起到保护国内生产的作用。

进口配额是非关税壁垒措施之一,又称进口限额。指一国政府在一定时期(如一季度、半年或一年)之内,对某些商品的进口数量或金额加以直接的限制,超过规定的配额不准进口,或者征收较高的关税或罚款。

W. cartel:卡特尔(组织)

卡特尔组织是资本主义垄断组织的形式之一。指生产同类商品的 资本主义企业,以获取高额利润为目的,在划分销售市场、规定商品产 量、确定商品价格等某一或某些方面达成协议而形成的一种垄断联合。

IX. Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC): 石油输出国组织

石油输出国组织是第三世界主要石油生产国建立的国际性经济组织。该组织的宗旨是协调和统一成员国的石油政策,商定原油价格,确定并采取共同行动以反对西方石油垄断资本的剥削和掠夺,保卫石油资源,维护各自的和共同的经济利益。

X. International Bauxite Association (IBA): 国际铝土协会

国际铝土协会是铝土主要生产国政府间国际经济合作组织。宗旨是:协调成员国的有关政策,促进铝土工业发展,确保从铝生产和销售中取得公平合理的收益。

XI. commodity futures trading: 期货交易

期货交易全称为期货合同交易。指未来时期交货的合同。买方预买,卖方预卖,双方约定时期(如三个月)交割。由于是一种非现金非现货的契约交易,故实际上是合同交易。它是按照商品交易所的规定进行的,买卖双方只注意价格、交货日期和商品数目,交易简便、成交迅速,其目的是防止物价涨跌带来的损失,属于保值性交易。

A. the Chicago Board of Trade: 芝加哥交易所

anon,它是美国最大的商品交易所,也是世界最大的谷物市场。

A A rei como Review Exercises

In Answer the following questions:

- 1. What are the three main commodity groups?
- 2. Define exporting and importing.
- 3. Explain the theory of comparative advantage. What is another name
- 4. What are protectionist measures supposed to achieve? Give two examples and explain how they work?

- 5. What is a cartel? How does it attempt to achieve its goal of increasing earnings?
- 6. What is the oldest and largest commodity exchange in the world? Name a few of the commodities traded there.

I . Give English equivalents to the following words or phrases:

1. 自然资源 2. 贸易格局 3. 工业化国家 4. 有色金属 5. 初级产品 6. 热带农产品 7. 金属含量 8. 环境保护 9. 技术发展 10. 露天开采 11. 采矿公司 12. 合成纤维 13. 太阳能 14. 抵消因素 15. 手工劳动 16. 资金缺乏 17. 食糖加工厂 18. 耕地面积 19. 商品和劳务 20. 比较利益理论 21. 成批生产 22. 保护贸易措施 23. 关税和配额 24. 易腐商品 25. 制成品 26. 石油输出国组织 27. 价值概念 28. 生活方式 29. 实行禁运 30. 新能源政策

I. Fill in each blank with a proper word:

International trade, goods and services move across bor-
ders, is often explained by the theory of comparative advantage,
called the comparative cost theory. This theory was
by David Ricardo, John Stuart Mill, and other economists in the nine-
teenth century. The theory emphasizes that different countries or regions
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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 in food pro-

duction	is	greater.	It	has	a		disadvantage	in	clothing.
	_,	a great de	al o	f clotl	hing	is exporte	d from Europ	e to	the United
States.	То		, th	e the	ory	of compar	ative advantag	ge sta	ates that if
each country			_ in products in which it has a comparative advan-						
tage (gr	eate	est relative	ef	ficiend	y),	trade bet	ween these co	untr	ies will be
	р	rofitable.	a :						•

N. Translate the following passage into English:

比较成本理论指出国家之间的贸易对所有国家都有裨益,即使有的国家生产每一种商品的成本都比较低。只要生产某一产品的效率存在着较小的相对的差异,即使穷国生产这种产品也会有比较利益。下面这个传统的例子最能说明这种"似非而是"的理论:某城中有一位最好的律师,他也是该城中最好的打字员。由于这位律师不能浪费掉处理法律事务的宝贵时间,他就雇用了一名打字员。而这个打字员可能在处理法律事务和打字两方面的能力都不如那个律师。但是,他在打字方面的相对劣势是最小的。因此,这个打字员在打字方面就有一种相对的比较利益。