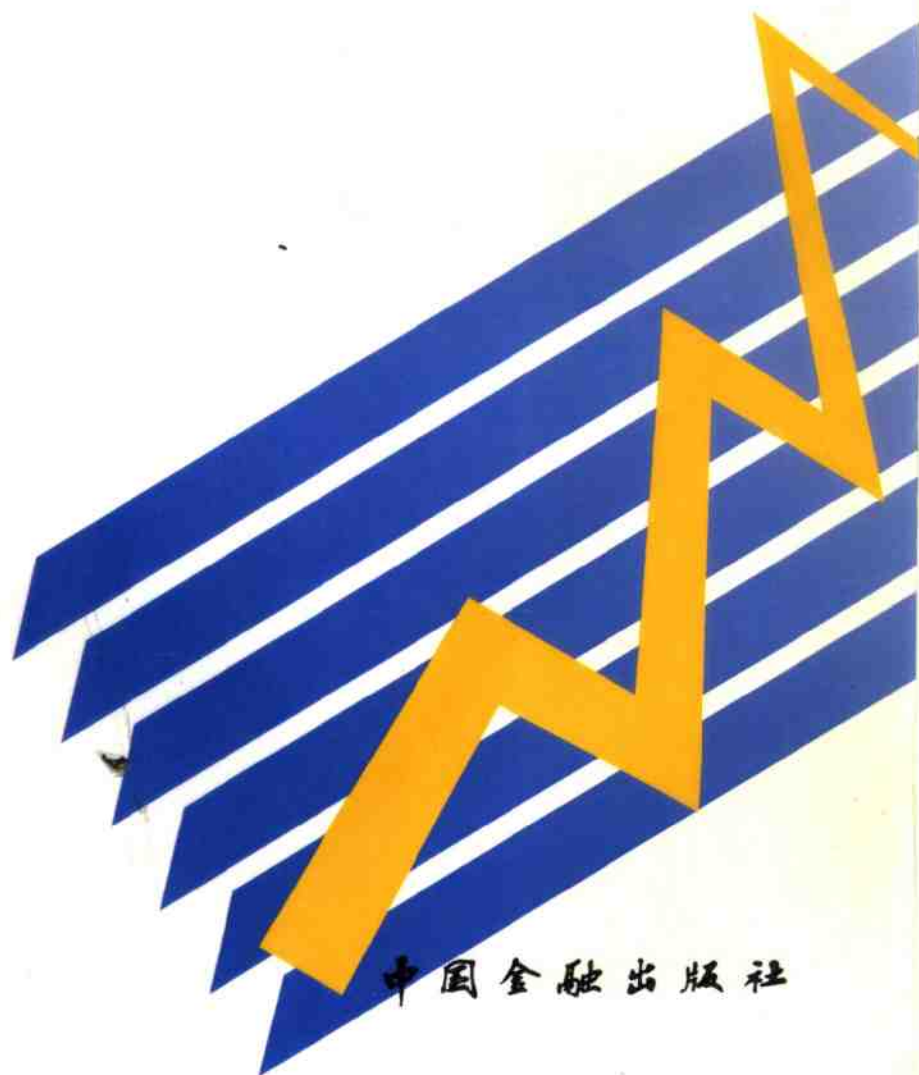


高等学校专业英语教材

高级财经专业 英语教程

马 华 李小飞 马宏伟 主编

Advanced English for Finance and Economics



中国金融出版社

高等学校专业英语教材

高级财经专业英语教程

ADVANCED ENGLISH
FOR FINANCE AND ECONOMICS

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前 言

《高级财经专业英语教程》是为财经类高等院校高年级学生专门编写的专业英语教程。旨在帮助学生在掌握一般性财经知识的基础上,通过阅读英语财经报道和经济学文献摘引,进一步提高专业英语水平。

本教程全部节选自最新的英文报刊、杂志和近年出版的英文财经类原版著作,经认真改写编著而成。全书共 34.6 万字,完全按照国家教委关于专业设置面宜加宽、学科之间渗透性宜加强、教材内容的覆盖面宜加大的精神,从财经知识和财经专业基础理论两个方面,全面覆盖了财经类英语各个专业所需要的基本知识。全书共选文 36 篇,分为十一个单元,并附三篇阅读材料。第一单元为基础经济学,第二至第十单元则每单元均由(A)经济学原著节选、(B)财经论文、(C)财经报道三个部分组成。教师可视不同情况,在一至两个学期中作为高年级学生精读课教材或课外自学之用。为有利于学生深入掌握教材内容,每篇课文的难点都有详细注释,并编有各类练习。

本书由马华、李小飞、马宏伟任主编,杨南该、张莉、邹美兰任副主编,王克明任主审。编写人员具体分工如下:第一单元(马华,李小飞);二、五、九、十、十一单元、补充阅读材料和词汇表(马华);第三单元(马华,杨南该);第四、七单元(马宏伟);第六单元(马华,邹美兰);第八单元(马华,张莉)。

在全书编著过程中,我们自始至终得到了林祖安教授、中创山东证券部王瑞祯先生、中国人民保险公司山东分公司谭旭清女士以及诸多英语同行的热情支持,听取了他们许多宝贵的意见。我们还特别感谢中国金融出版社的领导和编辑同志为本书出版所付出的辛勤劳动。

由于编者水平与经验有限,教材中疏漏、不妥之处诚望广大读者和同行专家不吝斧正。

编者

1997 年冬

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Unit One

Introduction to Economics

- (A) What Is Economics?
- (B) Economic Theories of Capitalism
- (C) Trading with the World

Passage A

WHAT IS ECONOMICS

Seven Big Questions

Economics tries to answer difficult questions that affect our daily lives. These questions concern the production and consumption of goods and services; wages and earnings; unemployment; inflation; government spending, taxation, and regulation; international trade; and the distribution of wealth and poverty in the United States and throughout the world. There are no easy answers to the big economic questions, which must be approached in a scientific manner.

Scarcity

All economic questions arise from the fundamental fact of scarcity. Scarcity means that wants exceed resources. Human wants are effectively unlimited but the resources available to satisfy them are finite.

Economic activity is what people do to cope with scarcity. Scarcity forces people to make choices. Making the best choice possible from what is available is called optimizing. In order to make the best possible choice, a person weighs the costs and benefits of the alternatives.

Opportunity cost is the cost of one choice in terms of the best forgone alternative. The opportunity cost of any action is the best alternative action that could have been undertaken in its place. Attending class instead of staying in bed has an opportunity cost — the cost of one hour of rest.

Scarcity forces people to compete with each other for scarce resources. People may cooperate in certain areas, but all economic activity ultimately results in competition among individuals acting alone or in groups.

The Economy

The economy is a mechanism that allocates scarce resources among competing uses, determining what, how, and for whom the various goods and services will be produced.

The economy's working parts are divided into two categories: decision makers and coordination mechanisms. Economic decision makers are households, firms, and governments. Households decide how much of their factors of production to sell to firms and government, and what goods and services to buy from firms. Firms decide what factors of production to hire and which goods and services to produce. Governments decide on the scale of purchases of factors of produc-

tion from households and of goods and services from firms. They also decide on the scale of provision of goods and services to households and firms, as well as on the rates of benefits and subsidies and taxes.

There are two types of coordination mechanisms; the command mechanism and the market mechanism. The U.S. economy relies mainly on the market mechanism, but the actions taken by the government sector do modify the allocation of scarce resources. The U.S. economy is therefore a mixed economy.

Economic Science

Economic science, like the natural sciences and the other social sciences, attempts to find a body of laws of nature. Economic science seeks to understand what is and is silent about what ought to be. Economists try to find economic laws by developing a body of economic theory, and economic theory, in turn, is developed by building and testing economic models. Economic models are abstract, logical constructions that contain two components: assumptions and implications. An economic model has four key assumptions:

1. People have preferences.
2. People have a given endowment of resources and technology.
3. People economize.
4. Peoples' choices are coordinated through market or command mechanisms.

The implications of an economic model are the equilibrium values of various prices and quantities that result from each individual doing the best that is possible, given the individual's preferences, endowments, information, and technology and given the coordination mechanism.

New Words and Special Terms

- inflation n. the rise in prices thought to be caused by increases in the costs of production (cost-push 成本推动型 inflation) or an increase in the money supply (demand-pull 需求拉动型 inflation) 通货膨胀
- approach v. to begin to consider or deal with (something non-material) 探讨; 看待; 处理
effectively ad. for all practical purposes; it is more or less true to say; in effect
- optimize v. 使尽可能完善
- optimization n. 最优化
- opportunity cost 机会成本
- forgone a. 放弃的
- allocate v. to divide and give as shares 分配, 分派; 配给
- coordination mechanism 协调机制
- subsidy n. 补助金, 补贴
- market mechanism 市场机制, 市场调节机能
- economic model 经济模型, 经济模式
- assumption n. 假定, 假设

equilibrium . n. 平衡,均衡

endowment n 捐赠

Notes to Some Special Terms

1. opportunity cost 或称替换成本(alternative cost)。它并不是实际发生的成本,而是在投资项目的选择中,如果选择了一个投资项目,则必须放弃其他投资项目的机会,其它投资项目的收益,就是这个项目的机会成本。例如,一个公司有一笔资金存在银行,利率为8%,假定现在决定以这笔资金进行一项新的投资,则新投资项目的机会成本即为8%。新投资项目的收益率必须大于8%。
2. market mechanism 指通过商品的供求关系调节生产和分配资源。在自由经济体制下,社会生产的调节和资源的分配主要是通过市场机制,而不是依据政府所制定的经济和财政计划。
3. economic model 或称经济计量学模型(econometric model)。指以数学形式,包括方程式,对一个经济问题或一个经济过程的模拟,是计量经济学的一个重要工具。或指各国所采用的不同经济制度。例如,计划经济制度和市场经济制度。
4. equilibrium 从整个国民经济来看,指各种经济力量处于相等影响的情况下,例如,供求关系的平衡可以使经济稳定发展。一个企业的均衡则指边际成本等于边际收入时,企业可以获得最大限度的收益。
5. endowment 指向一个非盈利组织无偿提供资金或资产,作为该组织活动的经费。

Exercises

1. Questions and answers:

1. What are the seven big questions that affect our daily lives?
2. What does scarcity mean?
3. Does scarcity imply competition?
4. Name the main economic decision makers.
5. Try to list the economic decisions made by households, firms, and governments.
6. What are the two types of coordination mechanisms?
7. What are the four key assumptions of an economic model?
8. Which of the following are part of your opportunity cost of attending school? Explain why they are or are not.
 - a) The money you spend on haircuts
 - b) The vacation you would have taken if you had been working rather than being in school
 - c) The tapes and compact discs that you don't have because you've had to spend so much on economics textbooks
 - d) The amount you pay for your lunch in the college cafeteria each week
 - e) The \$ 2,000 annual salary you could have made if you go to work

II. Translation:

Science —whether natural, social, or economic —tries to discover and catalog positive statements that are consistent with what we observe in the world. Science is silent on normative questions. It is not that such questions are unimportant. On the contrary, they are often the most important questions of all. Nor is it that scientists as people do not have opinions on such questions. It is simply that the activity of doing science cannot settle a normative matter and the possession of scientific knowledge does not equip a person with superior moral precepts or norms. A difference of opinion on a positive matter can ultimately be settled by careful observation and measurement. A difference of opinion on a normative matter cannot be settled in that way. In fact, there are no well-defined rules for settling a normative dispute and sometimes reasonable people simply have to agree or disagree. When they cannot, political and judicial institutions intervene in order for decisions to be made. We settle normative disagreements in the political, not the scientific, arena. The scientific community can, and often does, contribute to the normative debates of political life. But science is a distinct activity. Even though scientists have opinions about what ought to be, those opinions have no part in science itself.

Passage B

ECONOMIC THEORIES OF CAPITALISM

As the president of the Soviet Union reviewed the annual May Day parade, he is said to have asked an aide who the well-dressed civilians were who marched alongside the soldiers. When told they were economists, the president demanded to know why economists were in the ranks of the military. "You'd be surprised at the damage they can do," the aide responded!

As we have seen, the nature and scope of American capitalism are reasonably clear in theory. In reality, however, the theory does not always work well. Theories are the weapons of economists. Over the years, economists have developed various theories to explain how our capitalistic system should best be operated. These theories have ranged from macroeconomics (the "big picture" of capitalism as an organic whole) to microeconomics (the narrower explanation of decisions made by individual entrepreneurs about prices and profits). The two basic theories of capitalism that have influenced the economic policies of our federal government will be discussed here. These are the classical theory and the Keynesian theory.

Classical Theory

The classical theory of capitalism dates back several hundred years to Adam Smith's time. Classical theory made its earlier contributions in microeconomics, dealing with the rational allocation of scarce resources at the level of business firms. At the "macro" level this theory made the following assumptions:

1. Normally there is a high or full employment of labor.
2. All income from the production of goods and services will be spent immediately.

3. The production of goods creates an equivalent amount of demand. Therefore, total supply and demand will always be equal.

These assumptions led to the conclusion that the forces of supply and demand are adequate to keep the economy moving ahead steadily with a high level of employment. In this approach governments are expected to do little more than keep the budget in balance and let the economic fluctuations work themselves out.

Say's Law and Supply-Side Economics

The current version of classical thinking is called supply-side economics. In relatively few years, the great interest in supply-side economics has been sparked by the failure of Keynesian policies of demand management to lift the economy from chronic inflation, lagging productivity, and sluggish real growth.

Supply-side economics rests on Say's Law of Markets (or Say's Law), the famous notion of the classical 18th-century French economist Jean-Baptiste Say. This law holds that people produce in order to consume; that is, supply creates its own demand. Contrary to Keynesian demand-oriented economics, Say's Law emphasizes production over consumption—or supply over demand. The idea underlying Say's Law is that workers' or businesspersons' buying power consists of their supplying power. Supply or production provides the funds to back up demand for the goods that are produced. In short, people can't buy things without income, and that income comes from producing goods and services.

Supply-side Economic Policy Tools

If supply is the only enduring source of real demand, what economic policy tools can be used to encourage saving, investment, and production over spending and consumption? We have two major economic policy tools—fiscal policy and monetary policy. Fiscal policy consists of the taxing and spending policies of the federal government. Monetary policy is concerned with our nation's supply of money and credit, as controlled by the Federal Reserve System.

Supply-siders and Keynesians both use monetary and fiscal policies, but in different ways, to accomplish our basic economic objectives of full employment and stable prices. To encourage production and capital formation, supply-siders argue for monetary policies that lower the tax rate on wages, interest, dividends, and corporate income. In addition, they rely on monetary policy to provide a stable, even supply of money and credit consistent with the full utilization of resources at stable prices.

Keynesian Theory

Keynesian theory is also known as income-expenditure analysis, national income theory, or neo-Keynesian theory. It was set forth in 1936 by a famous English economist, John Maynard Keynes, in his book *General Theory of Employment, Interest, and Money*. This major work launched macroeconomics as an independent field of economic theory.

Keynes emphasized demand and consumption rather than supply and production. A key point

in Keynes' general theory states that a modern capitalistic system is naturally unstable because of a built-in lag in total demand. Once full employment is reached, people have a greater tendency to save than to invest or spend their earnings. Therefore, if the rates of consumption and investment are not great enough to insure relatively full employment, the government must spend more to raise the level of employment and demand.

Demand-Management Economics

Currently, Keynesian economics is called demand management, or the attempt to increase output by increasing demand for it. Economic policy since World War II has been dominated by demand-management policies. Since underutilized resources could be put to work if more demand were forthcoming, Keynesians argue that it is up to the government to design policies aimed at increasing demand.

For example, the Employment Act of 1946, a federal law sometimes called the Full Employment Act, gave the federal government responsibility for taking necessary steps to maintain national economic health. It also established a federal Council of Economic Advisers (CEA) to "develop and recommend to the President national economic policies to foster and promote free competitive enterprise, to avoid economic fluctuations and to maintain maximum employment, production, and purchasing power." The CEA prepares an Annual Economic Review for the President, who in turn presents an Economic Report to Congress.

More recently, the Full Employment and Balanced Growth Act of 1978, called the Humphrey-Hawkins bill, gave added emphasis to the Full Employment Act of 1946. The Full Employment and Balanced Growth Act provided for:

1. A target of 4 percent unemployment to be achieved by 1983.
 2. The President to set targets each year for employment, unemployment, production, and real income.
 3. The President to propose programs to achieve these goals.
- Furthermore, the Act prescribed the following sequence of means for achieving these goals:
1. Regular private-sector jobs.
 2. Private-sector jobs with federal assistance.
 3. Conventional public-sector jobs.
 4. A last-resort government employment reservoir.

In effect, the Humphrey-Hawkins bill converts into firm commitments the annual forecasts that the President of the United States makes in the Economic Report. For the past few years, however, the chance to achieve the above goals has seemed remote indeed.

Demand Management Economic Policy Tools

Theoretically, demand management calls for offsetting fiscal and monetary policies at different stages of the business cycle. A recession would call for easing the money supply, higher government spending, and tax cuts. A boom would call for tight money, cuts in government spending, and tax increases. Since the 1960s, however, the government has failed to bring these

steps together at the right time.

Which of the two theories (supply-side economics and demand-management economics), with its related policy tools, is correct? This question is of great importance to the successful operation of our capitalistic enterprise system. Chances are that each may be correct under certain conditions, time constraints, and economic cycles, depending on the adjustments that are needed. Clearly these economic theories of capitalism are not just textbook exercises; they have real-world implications.

New Words, Phrases and Special Terms

aide n. a person who helps, esp. a person employed to help a government minister 副官; 随从参谋; 助手

civilian n. a person not of the armed forces 平民, 老百姓(与军, 警相对而言)

macroeconomics n. 宏观经济学

microeconomics n. 微观经济学

entrepreneur n. a person who makes the plans for a business or a piece of work and gets it going 企业家; 创业者

rational a. sensible; able to reason 理性的; 合理的

equivalent a. (of time, amount, number, etc.) same; equal 相等的, 相当的

budget n. / v. 预算

fluctuation n. 波动, 变动

chronic a. 长期的, 慢性的

lagging a. 滞后的

sluggish a. slow-moving; not very active or quick 缓慢的, 呆滞的

enduring a. lasting 持久的, 不朽的

fiscal policy 财政政策

monetary policy 货币政策, 金融政策

credit n. 信贷, 信用

dividend n. 股利, 股息

objective. an object to be won; purpose of a plan 目标; 目的

interest n. money paid for the use of money 利息; a share (in a company, business, etc.) 股权, 权益

built-in a. 固有的, 内在的

currently ad. 普遍地, 通常地; 当前

output n. 产出, 产量

boom n. a rapid growth or increase (商业等的)景气, 繁荣

Proper Names

the Soviet Union 苏联

Keynesian Theory 凯恩斯理论

Adam Smith 亚当·斯密

Say's Law 萨伊定律

the Federal Reserve System 联邦储备系统

John Maynard Keynes 约翰·梅纳德·凯恩斯

General Theory of Employment, Interest, and Money 《就业,利息和货币通论》

Humphrey-Hawkins Bill 汉弗莱-霍金斯法案

Notes to Some Special Terms

1. macroeconomics 或称总括经济学(aggregate economics)。指使用总括的数据,对整个国民经济活动所进行的研究分析。例如,国民收入、就业、物价、投资、生产和消费的变动趋向。
2. microeconomics 对个别产品或个别企业所进行的经济分析。例如,对汽车的需求和钢材的价格变动进行分析研究。微观经济学的一个重要方面是在企业中的应用。例如,投入产出分析,损益分界分析等。
3. budget 企业控制未来经营活动的财务收支计划。历来,预算被视为一种限制经费支出的工具,而现代的观念是将预算视为保证合理使用资源和获得最佳生产盈利率的一项工具。企业预算按其内容可分为资本预算(capital budget)和营业预算(operating budget);按是否可随时调整,可分为弹性预算(flexible budget)和固定预算(fixed budget)。
4. fiscal policy 政府在财政上所采取的各项政策。其中包括税收政策和政府支出政策,借以达到物价稳定和充分就业的经济目标。经济衰退时,通常采用扩大支出和减税的办法来刺激经济。反之,在经济急剧上升时,则采用减少支出和增税的办法,防止经济扩张而导致通货膨胀。
5. monetary policy 政府控制货币和信贷的有关政策。其中包括增加或减少货币和信贷供应,提高或降低商业银行准备金的百分比,调整对商业银行的贴现率,从而影响利率、企业投资、生产、就业、价格和收益。
6. credit 允许在一个时期以后再作偿付的购货款或获得借款权力。信用是一种借贷行为,一方为债权人(creditor),将资金贷出;另一方为债务人(debtor),负有偿还的义务。
7. dividend 指公司依据股东拥有的股份所分配的收益。例如,现金股利(cash dividend),股票红利(stock dividend),财产股利(property dividend / dividend in kind)。股利的分配关系到公司的发展和投资人的收入,因而是公司一项最重要的财务决策。股利通常是在年末支付,并需经股东大会或董事会的审批同意。

Notes to the Text

1. ... he is said to have asked an aide who the well-dressed civilians were who marched alongside the soldiers.
who the well-dressed civilians were ... 为 ask 的直接宾语;
who marched alongside the soldiers 作定语,修饰 civilians。

2. Adam Smith: (1723—1790) Scottish economist. His best known work is *The Wealth of Nations* (1776), in which he argues for free trade against mercantilism. His work established the classical British school of political economy, and dominated Western industrialized countries until opposing ideas of state control and protection were revived.
3. John Maynard Keynes: (1883—1946) 现代最有影响的英国经济学家。1905年毕业于英国剑桥大学。1908年起在剑桥大学讲授经济学, 1909年创立政治经济学俱乐部, 1911年起编辑英国经济学杂志。他不仅从事学术研究, 而且多次担任英国政府要职, 还出任过国际货币基金组织与国际复兴开发银行的董事。凯恩斯还以善于经营金融投机著称。他最重要和影响最大的著作是出版于1936年的《就业, 利息和货币通论》。该书简称《通论》, 它标志着凯恩斯学说已经发展成为一个完整的理论体系。

Exercises

I. Questions and answers:

1. Distinguish between the classical (supply-side) and Keynesian (demand-management) economic theories of capitalism.
2. Distinguish between the use of monetary policy and fiscal policy as economic policy tools.
3. How many assumptions did the classical theory of capitalism make at the “macro” level?
4. What role are governments expected to play in the classical theory of capitalism?
5. What did the Humphrey-Hawkins bill provide for?

II. Discussion:

Would most corporate businesses favor supply-side over demand-management economics? Why?

III. Translation:

Socialism refers to an economy in which the government is heavily involved in economic decisions. Theoretically in a socialist economy the government owns and controls important economic resources, such as factories, mines, banks, stores, transportation systems, and farms, for the benefit of society as a whole. A basic level of social welfare is provided, taxes are high, and incomes are equalized through this taxation.

In practice, socialist economies vary widely in the degree of government control and in achieving their goals. For example, the socialist economy of Sweden, where democratic political processes still exist, has many capitalistic elements. The means of production are mostly privately owned, individuals can save and invest, and the market determines prices. Although a state planning commission publishes guidelines, adherence to them is not compulsory. But even Sweden's socialist economy sacrifices profit and efficiency to government-set employment levels and bureaucratic goals. It has suffered recently from high worker alienation and absenteeism, high inflation, jammed warehouses, and many unprofitable businesses.

TRADING WITH THE WORLD

Patterns and Trends in International Trade

Large flows of trade take place between rich and poor countries. Resource-rich countries exchange natural resources for manufactures, and resource-poor countries import their resources in exchange for their own manufactures. However, by far the biggest volume of trade is in manufactures exchanged among the rich industrialized countries. The biggest single U. S. export item is machinery. However, its biggest single net export is grain. Trade in services has grown in recent years. Total trade has also grown over the years. The U. S. balance of trade fluctuates around zero, but since 1982 the United States has had a balance of trade deficit.

Opportunity Cost and Comparative Advantage

When opportunity costs differ between countries, the country with the lowest opportunity cost of producing a good is said to have a comparative advantage in that good. Comparative advantage is the source of the gains from international trade. A country can have an absolute advantage, but not a comparative advantage, in the production of all goods. Every country has a comparative advantage in something.

The Gains from Trade

Countries can gain from trade if their opportunity costs differ. Through trade, each country can obtain goods at a lower opportunity cost than it could if it produced all goods at home. Trading allows consumption to exceed production. By specializing in producing the good in which it has a comparative advantage and then trading some of that good for imports, a country can consume at points outside its production possibility frontier. Each country can consume at such a point.

In the absence of international borrowing and lending, trade is balanced as prices adjust to reflect the international supply and demand for goods. The world price is established at the level that balances the production and consumption plans of the trading parties. At the equilibrium price, trade is balanced and domestic consumption plans exactly match a combination of domestic production and international trade.

Comparative advantage explains the enormous volume and diversity of international trade that takes place in the world. But much trade takes the form of exchanging similar goods for each other—one type of car for another. Such trade arises because of economies of scale in the face of diversified tastes. By specializing in producing a few goods, having long production runs, and then trading those goods internationally, consumers in all countries can enjoy greater diversity of products at lower prices.

Trade Restrictions

A country can restrict international trade by imposing tariffs or nontariff barriers ——quotas and voluntary export restraints. All trade restrictions raise the domestic price of imported goods, lower the volume of imports, and reduce the total value of imports. They also reduce the total value of exports by the same amount as the reduction in the value of imports.

All trade restrictions create a gap between the domestic price and the foreign supply price of an import. In the case of a tariff, that gap is the tariff revenue collected by the government. But the government raises no revenue from a quota. Instead, domestic importers who have a license to import increase their profit. A voluntary export restraint resembles a quota except that a higher price is received by the foreign exporter.

Governments restrict trade because restrictions help the producers of the protected commodity and the workers employed by those producers. Because their gain is sufficiently large and the loss per consumer sufficiently small, the political equilibrium favors restricted trade. Politicians pay more attention to the vocal and active concerns of the few who stand to lose than to the quieter and less strongly expressed views of the many who stand to gain.

New Words and Special Terms

flow n. a smooth steady movement

balance of trade 贸易差额, 贸易平衡

deficit n. 赤字

comparative advantage 比较优势

absolute advantage 绝对优势

production possibility frontier 生产可能性曲线

diversity n. the condition of being different or having differences; variety 差异; 多样性; 变化

impose v. to establish (an additional payment) officially 征(税等);
to force the acceptance of 加强

tariff n. customs duty 关税

nontariff barriers (NTB) 非关税障碍, 非关税壁垒

quota n. (政府对某些进出口商品的)配额, 限额

voluntary export restraint 自动出口限额

revenue n. 收入; 收益; 岁入

vocal a. spoken or expressed aloud

stand v. to be in a position to gain or lose 处于某种状态(或境地)

Notes to Some Special Terms

1. balance of trade 一个国家在一个会计年度中进口和出口之间的贸易差额, 是国际收支差额