



# 商务英语

高等学校商务英语专业系列教材

## B U S I N E S S   E N G L I S H

主编 马瑞华 杨海兰

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Business English

# 商务英语

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## 内 容 提 要

本书主要针对经济管理类学生而编写,在内容选择和章节安排上遵循选用原版英文文章、充分反映经贸领域的热点和最新动态、增强课堂教学的灵活性和学生的参与积极性等基本原则,介绍了国际贸易、跨文化沟通、招聘、营销策略、环境保护、人口发展、网上购物、外商直接投资、全球金融体系等内容。每个单元分为4个部分,即 Text A、Text B、Business Writing 和 Business Dialogue,此外,每一单元都附有词汇和练习题,便于学生预习和复习。

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## 前 言

伴随着信息技术的发展,人类社会进入 21 世纪后,全球化进程日趋加速。世界各国的经贸活动越发紧密地联系在一起,出现共兴共衰的趋势。发轫于美国的金融危机再次证明,没有哪一个国家可以不依赖于世界经济的大环境而独立存在。同样,加入了世贸组织的中国既向全世界输送着“中国制造”的产品,同时又依赖于他国经济的繁荣为我们提供海外市场。因此,在同国外的经贸往来中,中国需要既精通国际贸易等工商管理专业知识、又熟练掌握外语的高级人才。

英语作为国际上使用最多的通用语言,为我国大部分大学生所掌握。但是,非英语专业学生不应该仅仅是把英语作为一种语言去学习,更重要的是掌握一种交流沟通的工具。如何能够使经济管理类学生尽快掌握用英语阅读、写作和交流的能力?这是本教材试图解决的问题。为此,本教材摘选了国外英文原版文章,在内容选择和章节安排上遵循以下三个基本原则:

第一,选用原版英文文章。为了保证读者学到原汁原味的英语文章,本教材中的绝大部分文章直接从国外期刊或网站上摘选,充分体现作者本国的政治、经济、文化背景和语言习惯。但是,也正是因为文章未加修改编辑,所以,摘选自世界各国的文章可能会体现出作者各自不同的价值观和世界观等,因此,书中有些观点和提法并非代表编者的看法,虽有借鉴价值,但难免出现有待商榷之处,权且作为语言材料使用而已。编者对所引用、参考的文献的作者表示衷心的感谢。

第二,充分反映经贸领域的热点问题和最新动态。世界经贸活动风起云涌、变换多端,需要我们把握最新的变化趋势和理论热点。比如,信息化会对我们的经济生活产生什么影响?电子商务的出现又会怎样改变我们的购物习惯?又比如,在商务活动中应该如何看待不同国度文化的差异及文化的相互融合?文化差异会如何影响广告和商务谈判?再比如,环境保护和经济增长的矛盾冲突如何解决,等等。当然,在一本教材中解决所有这些问题是不可能的,但是,通过本教材的学习,希望读者能够掌握如何用英文去探讨这些问题。

第三,增加课堂教学的灵活性和学生的参与积极性。本教材主要针对经济管理类学生而编写。如何增加课堂教学的灵活性和学生主动参与的积极性,这是本教材要解决的一个技术性问题。为此,编者对每个单元进行了精心安排。每个单元分为四部分,其中,Text A 和 Text B 是两篇相关的英文文章,它们从不同视角或不同层面来论述同一个问题,有利于拓宽学生的视野、开拓思路;Business Writing 则涉及商贸活动的各个环节,具有实用性强的特点;Business Dialogue 有利于学生掌握商务沟通的各个环节,而且为学生提供了 Useful Sentences,以便学生练习。每一个单元的文章、写作和口语基本都围绕一个大的主题,这样的安排有利于学生就某一主题展开讨论,进行口语或写作模拟练习,对增强学生的实际运用能力和提高课堂参与积极性大有帮助。

此外,每一单元都附有词汇表和练习题,便于学生预习和复习。并于书后附有参考文献,便于学生查找相关资料。

本书共 19 个单元(Unit),具体编写分工如下(按编写章节排序):

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李慧娟:第三单元、第四单元;

肖 靖:第五单元、第七单元、第十单元;

马瑞华:第六单元、第八单元、第十四单元;

赵 霞:第九单元、第十一单元;

朱晓影:第十二单元、第十三单元;

董艳丽:第十六单元;

杨海兰:第十七单元、第十八单元、第十九单元。

本书的出版得了山东建筑大学商学院、武汉理工大学外语学院、河南理工大学经济管理学院、佛山科学技术学院经济管理分院、河南财经学院经贸外语系、中原工学院信息商务学院等院系领导和教师的大力支持,在此一并表示诚挚的感谢。

由于编者知识水平的局限,书中难免存在疏漏乃至错误之处,恳请同仁和广大读者朋友批评指正。

编 者

2009 年 4 月

# *Contents*

## **Unit One**

|                          |   |      |
|--------------------------|---|------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | International Trade .....               | (1)  |
| <b>Text B</b>            | Trade Frictions and Protectionism ..... | (7)  |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Automatic Reply .....                   | (14) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | First and Further Contact .....         | (16) |

## **Unit Two**

|                          |  |      |
|--------------------------|--|------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | The Nature of Cross-cultural Negotiation ..... | (19) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | Eight Steps to Success in Negotiating .....    | (24) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Memo .....                                     | (30) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Business Negotiation .....                     | (31) |

## **Unit Three**

|                          |  |      |
|--------------------------|--|------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | Cultural Awareness: An Essential Element of Doing Business Abroad .....    | (37) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | Business Negotiations with the Koreans; A Cross-cultural Perspective ..... | (51) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Contracts .....  | (60) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | After-sale Services .....  | (63) |

## **Unit Four**

|                          |  |      |
|--------------------------|--|------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | Cultural Differences in International Business ..... | (66) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | Business Cards .....                                 | (73) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Resume/ CV (Curriculum Vita) .....                   | (78) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Hotel Reservation & Check Out .....                  | (82) |

## **Unit Five**

|                          |  |       |
|--------------------------|--|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | Income and Work .....                  | (91)  |
| <b>Text B</b>            | Culture and Economic Development ..... | (98)  |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Resignation .....                      | (104) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Saying Good-bye .....                  | (107) |

## **Unit Six**

|                         |  |       |
|-------------------------|--|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>           | Human Resource Policies—Employee Selection ..... | (111) |
| <b>Text B</b>           | Testing, Testing—The New Job Search .....        | (119) |
| <b>Business Writing</b> | Recruiting Advertisement .....                   | (122) |

|                          |   |       |
|--------------------------|---|-------|
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | An Invitation to Dinner/At Dinner ..... | (124) |
|--------------------------|---|-------|

## **Unit Seven**

|                          |   |       |
|--------------------------|---|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | Hiring Employees—It's not Just Luck ..... | (130) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | How to Shine at a Job Interview .....     | (137) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Congratulations & Wishes .....            | (144) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Job Interview .....                       | (150) |

## **Unit Eight**

|                          |   |       |
|--------------------------|---|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | Marketing Mix and McDonald's Five P's ..... | (159) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | Coca-Cola's Global Marketing Strategy ..... | (164) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Thanks & Apologies .....                    | (170) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Eating and Drinking .....                   | (176) |

## **Unit Nine**

|                          |   |       |
|--------------------------|---|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | Strategic Issues in Chinese Marketing ..... | (181) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | The Changing Concept of Marketing .....     | (187) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Special Persuasive Requests .....           | (189) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Business Visiting .....                     | (192) |

## **Unit Ten**

|                          |  |       |
|--------------------------|--|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | Culture Important in Advertising .....                   | (196) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | The Major Participants in the Advertising Business ..... | (199) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Advertisement .....                                      | (204) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | At the Customs .....                                     | (209) |

## **Unit Eleven**

|                          |                                      |       |
|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | Environmental Degradation .....      | (213) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | Design of Environmental Policy ..... | (219) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Meeting Notice .....                 | (223) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Sightseeing .....                    | (224) |

## **Unit Twelve**

|                          |   |       |
|--------------------------|---|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | Population .....  | (229) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | Achievements and Developments in Population and Family Planning in China<br>..... | (234) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Welcome New Employees .....   | (238) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Cancel an Appointment .....   | (239) |

**Unit Thirteen**

|                          |  |       |
|--------------------------|--|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | Sorry, Officer, I Was Just Surfing ..... | (242) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | Audi Stories behind the Four Rings ..... | (246) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Application Letters .....                | (252) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Introduction .....                       | (257) |

**Unit Fourteen**

|                          |  |       |
|--------------------------|--|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | Nike, from Small Beginnings to World Giant ..... | (263) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | Nokia: Voice from Finland .....                  | (269) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Refusal Letters .....                            | (274) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Display and Marketing of Samples .....           | (276) |

**Unit Fifteen**

|                          |                                 |       |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | IT Grows Up .....               | (282) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | The Number One Problem .....    | (287) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Special Persuasive Claims ..... | (289) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Complaints and Claims .....     | (290) |

**Unit Sixteen**

|                          |   |       |
|--------------------------|---|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | 10% of Population Has Shopped on Web, Study Shows ..... | (294) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | eBay Makes Online Buying Easier .....                   | (300) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Invitation Cards and Letters .....                      | (304) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Discussing the Price .....                              | (309) |

**Unit Seventeen**

|                          |  |       |
|--------------------------|--|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | The Banking Industry in China .....      | (314) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | Politics vs. Economics .....             | (317) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Seeking for Joint Venture Partners ..... | (323) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | WTO and China's Economy .....            | (324) |

**Unit Eighteen**

|                          |                                 |       |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------|-------|
| <b>Text A</b>            | Foreign Direct Investment ..... | (331) |
| <b>Text B</b>            | Product Life Cycle .....        | (336) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Personal Statement .....        | (338) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Reception and Parting .....     | (340) |

**Unit Nineteen**

|               |                                   |       |
|---------------|-----------------------------------|-------|
| <b>Text A</b> | The Global Financial System ..... | (347) |
|---------------|-----------------------------------|-------|



|                          |                              |       |
|--------------------------|------------------------------|-------|
| <b>Text B</b>            | Current Accounts .....       | (351) |
| <b>Business Writing</b>  | Recommendation Letters ..... | (354) |
| <b>Business Dialogue</b> | Appointment .....            | (356) |
| <b>Reference</b>         | .....                        | (361) |

# ✱Unit One✱

## Text A

### International Trade

Nations engage in international trade for a variety of reasons. Due to climatic differences some goods would not be available in many parts of the world without trade. For example, coffee grows prolifically between the tropics, but not elsewhere. This is true of many natural commodities; natural resources are not evenly distributed throughout the world, for example, many countries have no coal or oil reserves whilst others have a surplus over their domestic requirements; skills and technology are also not distributed evenly, and whilst some countries have a high level of technological development others have a much lower level, both will therefore tend to produce goods of a different nature; because factors of production and natural resources tend to be immobile, it is more convenient to specialize in the production of those goods in which there is a natural, or acquired advantage, and trade the surplus not required for domestic consumption for those goods which cannot be produced.

Although it was stated above that certain crops would not grow naturally in some regions of the world, it is not true that they could not be grown given sufficient diversion of resources to their production. For example, bananas can be grown quite successfully in heated greenhouses in the UK, but the cost would be very high and therefore the output would only be available to the wealthiest people. It is far more efficient for each country to use its resources in the production of those goods which are not produced. For example, the UK has an advantage over the West Indies in the production of machinery whilst the West Indies for climatic reasons can grow an abundance of bananas. It is therefore more efficient for Britain to specialize in the production of machines and trade with the West Indies for bananas. Both countries then enjoy the gains from trade which result from specialization.

Specialization and trade increase world output and enable everybody to enjoy a higher standard of living than would be otherwise available. A wider variety of goods are made available to more people.

The law of comparative costs shows that countries can gain from specialization and trade provided that there is some difference in the relative costs of producing those goods. The opportunity cost of producing a good domestically may be too high, for example the growing of bananas in the UK quoted above.

To illustrate the law of comparative costs, suppose there are two countries X and Y. Both produce just two goods, beef and cars. Both countries have an equivalent amount of capital and labor but X has abundant grasslands and suitable climate for beef production whilst Y has less favorable climate and agricultural conditions but a more highly skilled workforce. There are no unemployed factors in either country. When both countries are using their resources equally to produce both goods, the output is as follows:

**Table 1-1 Output before specialization when X has advantage in beef while Y in cars**

| Country                                | Beef (Units) | Cars (Units) |
|--|--------------|--------------|
| X                                      | 1,000        | 200          |
| Y                                      | 200          | 1,000        |
| Total production before specialization | 1,200        | 1,200        |

If each country specializes in the production of those goods at which they are most efficient, i. e. X specializes in beef and Y in cars, then output is as follows:

**Table 1-2 Output after specialization when X has advantage in beef while Y in cars**

| Country                               | Beef (Units) | Cars (Units) |
|---------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| X                                     | 2,000        | 0            |
| Y                                     | 0            | 2,000        |
| Total production after specialization | 2,000        | 2,000        |

Note: It was originally assumed that each country was using half of its resources in the production of each kind of goods, therefore if country X could produce 1,000 units with half its resources logically it could produce 2,000 with all its resources.

The net gain from specialization are 800 units of beef and 800 units of cars (Note: in specializing X gave up the production of 200 cars and Y the production of 200 beef units leaving a net gain of 800 of each). In this example each country specialized in the production of goods in which they had a comparative advantage.

If one country is more efficient in the production of both goods, i. e. has an absolute advantage, then it may still be worthwhile engaging in trade if one country specializes in the production of those goods in which its disadvantage is least; referred to as least comparative disadvantage, and the other country those goods in which the comparative advantage is greatest.

Suppose that country X was more efficient in the production of both beef and cars, and the positions before specialization are as follows:

**Table 1-3 Output before specialization when X has an absolute advantage in beef & cars**

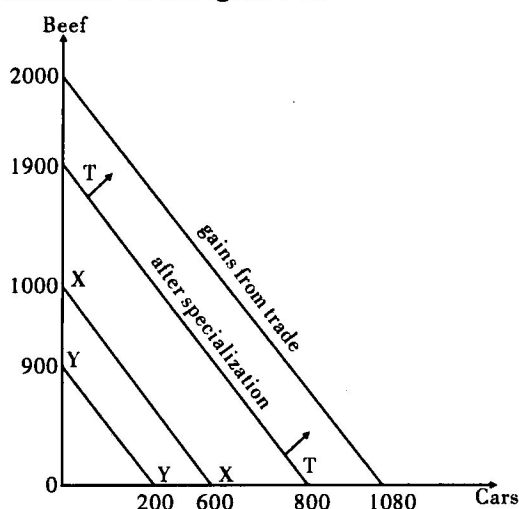
| Country                                | Beef (Units) | Cars (Units) |
|--|--------------|--------------|
| X                                      | 1,000        | 600          |
| Y                                      | 900          | 200          |
| Total production before specialization | 1,900        | 800          |

Specialization is still worthwhile as X's comparative advantage is greatest in car production, i. e. three times as efficient whereas X is only 1.1 times more efficient in production of beef. Therefore if X specializes in cars and devotes nine-tenths of its resources to car production and one-tenth to beef production, whilst Y specializes in beef, total production will be as follows:

**Table 1-4 Output after specialization when X has an absolute advantage in beef & cars**

| Country                               | Beef (Units) | Cars(Units) |
|---------------------------------------|--------------|-------------|
| X                                     | 200          | 1,080       |
| Y                                     | 1,800        | 0           |
| Total production after specialization | 2,000        | 1,080       |
| Gain                                  | 100          | 280         |

Using the same example the gains from trade can be illustrated by the use of production possibility curves (or boundaries) as in Figure 1-1.



**Figure 1-1 Production possibility curve**

The production possibility boundaries are linear because it is assumed the diminishing returns do not occur as resources are transferred from one use to another. In the figure the lines Y-Y and X-X are the production possibility boundaries of both countries prior to specialization and trade. The line T-T is the total production possibility boundary for both countries after specialization and prior to trade. Although specialization has brought gains in total production trade must occur. The terms of trade, i. e. beef : cars must lay between the two sets of (internal) domestic opportunity cost ratios which are:

In X 1.6 : 1 (beef : cars)

Y 4.5 : 1 (beef : cars)

Hence the terms of trade must lay between 1.6 : 1 and 4.5 : 1, for example 3 : 1. If the

terms of trade are 3 : 1, X can trade 1 unit of car with Y and receive 3 units of beef in return, whereas to transfer resources domestically X would only gain 1.6 units of beef. Conversely Y can gain 1 unit of car in exchange for 3 units of beef by trading, whereas to gain 1 unit of car by transferring resources domestically it would give up 4.5 units of beef. Both countries will therefore gain from specialization and exchange providing the terms of trade lie between the two domestic (non-trading) opportunity costs ratios.

Trade will continue as long as the domestic opportunity cost ratios in the two countries are different. Trade would cease when it costs more in terms of resources for X to import beef than to produce it. If X could produce beef more cheaply in terms of cars than Y by transferring resources to beef production then trade would cease.

Trade theory must be qualified however to allow for the fact that there may be some loss of efficiency when transferring production from one kind of goods to another. Also, transport costs will be incurred, which may outweigh a marginal cost advantage.

The terms of trade refer to the rate at which one nation's goods can be exchanged for those of others. In the example above it is 3 : 1. In reality physical goods are not exchanged but prices are paid in various currencies. The terms of trade is measured by means of a terms of trade index which is calculated as:

$$\text{Terms of trade} = \frac{\text{index of export prices}}{\text{index of import prices}} \times 100$$

The index of the base year is 100. An improvement in the terms of trade is said to be favorable and shows as an increase in the index, indicating that a given volume of exports can be exchanged for a greater volume of imports. A fall in the index is said to be unfavorable as a given volume of exports can only be exchanged for a smaller volume of imports.

Despite the gains from free international trade, nations have frequently attempted to restrict the amount of trade in order to protect their domestic economies from the effects of foreign competition. The competition may be from lower cost producers due to either, or both, greater efficiency and lower wage costs. Such an attitude is referred to as "protectionism" and restrictions on trade may take a variety of forms; tariffs, quotas, subsidies, exchange control regulations, and physical controls.

The arguments generally put forward in favor of restrictions on trade are to protect a new or developing industry—the "infant industry case", to assist in the elimination of a balance of payments deficit, to protect the domestic economy against unemployment caused by too many imported goods, to protect strategically important industries such as iron, steel and shipbuilding, to protect the domestic economy from "unfair" competition, in particular "dumping" where excess production is sold abroad at cost in order to cover marginal costs only, and allow profits to be made on the domestic market; or where "cheap" labor is being used (e. g. child labor).

Protecting domestic industries from competition in order to ensure their survival is a dubious argument. In the long run protection from competition results in a loss of efficiency

and inventiveness, and when eventually industries have to face international competition again they will be weak and ill-equipped to do so.

The costs of protection however are generally borne by consumers who are forced to pay higher prices and have a restricted choice of goods. Also, trade is possibly the best way of forging links between countries and promoting international co-operation. Attempts to interfere with trade generally result in some form of retaliation which may lead to a disastrous trade war where everybody loses.

Despite the many barriers to international trade, which are mainly used to discourage imports, most countries have also made special efforts to promote trade. These efforts consist of creating free-trade zones, constructing trade agreements, and providing financial support.

It cannot be assumed that because a country has a comparative advantage in the production of a particular kind of goods that it will retain that advantage indefinitely. The centers of comparative advantage in production tend to change over time, particularly with changes in technology and the growth of capital resources, for example, Britain's comparative advantage in the production of cotton textiles has shifted towards the cotton producing countries. Changes in comparative advantage can be a major cause of structural unemployment.

### Words and Expressions

|                           |             |              |
|---------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| currency                  | <i>n.</i>   | 货币           |
| dubious                   | <i>adj.</i> | 可疑的          |
| equivalent                | <i>adj.</i> | 相等的;相当的      |
| forge                     | <i>vt.</i>  | 达成,使形成;打制;锻造 |
| immobile                  | <i>adj.</i> | 不能移动的;不动的    |
| incur                     | <i>vt.</i>  | 招致;蒙受        |
| prolifically              | <i>adv.</i> | 多生产地;大量生产地   |
| retaliation               | <i>n.</i>   | 报复;报仇        |
| surplus                   | <i>n.</i>   | 盈余;过剩        |
| tariff                    | <i>n.</i>   | 关税           |
| unit                      | <i>n.</i>   | 单位,计算数量的基准   |
| absolute advantage        |             | 绝对优势         |
| diminishing returns       |             | 报酬递减         |
| exchange control          |             | 外汇管理         |
| factors of production     |             | 生产要素         |
| laws of comparative costs |             | 比较成本优势理论     |
| marginal cost             |             | 边际成本         |
| net gain                  |             | 净利,净收入       |
| opportunity cost          |             | 机会成本         |

|                               |              |
|-------------------------------|--------------|
| production possibility curves | 生产可能性曲线      |
| quotas                        | 配额, 限额       |
| terms of trade                | 贸易条件(简称 TOT) |
| structural unemployment       | 结构性失业        |

## I. Fill in the blanks with technical terms appeared in the text.

1. Some people may ask why, in practice, ( ) is bowed outward, rather than following a straight line. This shape of the curve reflects the changing efficiency of resources as they are shifted from one use to another, a constant trade-off between cars and sugar production.

2. Your time is a scarce resource that must be figured into the calculation. Both the money and the time represent opportunities forgone in favor of going to the movie, or what economists refer to as the ( ) of the movie.

3. Another aspect of the cost that economists emphasize is the extra cost, or what economists call the ( ). The most difficult decisions are not whether to undertake something or not, they are whether to do a little more or a little less of something.

4. More often, a nation has a ( ) — it can sell certain products for relatively less than most other nations can. The reasons for this include cheap labor, abundant natural resources, a favorable climate, and an abundance of technical skill.

5. One of the most common government-imposed trade barriers is a ( ). This is a restriction on the quantity or value of an item that may be imported.

6. A ( ) discourages imports by making them more expensive in the hope that more consumers will switch to domestic brand.

7. Each nation issues its own ( ), and the complications that results are another type of barrier to international trade. International business involves the extra task of converting money from the ( ) of one nation to that of another.

8. A ( ) is a geographic area into which foreign goods can be imported without payment of duties.

9. The Common Market is a group of European countries organized to eliminate ( ) between all members.

10. This means that ( ) offers both the additional opportunity of new markets and the additional challenge of new competition.

## II. Supply a synonym.

|         |            |
|---------|------------|
| s _____ | excess     |
| i _____ | stationary |

|         |           |
|---------|-----------|
| o _____ | product   |
| p _____ | supposing |
| e _____ | equal     |
| a _____ | fruitful  |
| o _____ | initially |
| p _____ | ahead of  |
| d _____ | internal  |
| e _____ | barter    |
| t _____ | shift     |
| c _____ | quit      |
| i _____ | induce    |
| i _____ | inference |
| d _____ | doubtful  |
| i _____ | aptitude  |
| f _____ | hammer    |
| r _____ | revenge   |

### III. Questions for discussion.

1. What would give a country's international trade an absolute advantage? A comparative advantage? How would such advantages influence a decision to sell to foreign markets?
2. How is the "terms of trade index" calculated?
3. Why do governments restrict imports? Who benefits from such actions?
4. Imagine a country with few natural resources and land that is not particularly fertile. What advantages could such a country develop as a trading partner?
5. How can businesses take advantage of free-trade zones?
6. Gather information on the most popular types of Chinese exports and imports. How does comparative advantage help explain why China either exports or imports these goods?

### IV. Case study.

Divide the class into groups and let each group choose a topic on unique problem in international trade. Say, for instance, cultural problem, monetary conversion, and tariff.

## Text B

### Trade Frictions and Protectionism

Ominous signs of trade frictions and protectionism are the ultimate challenge to global rebalancing. They are a by-product of a potentially lethal interplay between politics and the



economics of jobless recoveries in the developed world. Several developments point to an intensification of global trade frictions.

First, the recent breakdown of talks at the WTO ministerial meetings in Cancun was a major setback for trade liberalization. Tensions between rich and poor countries came out into the open on such long-standing issues as agricultural subsidies, investment and competition rules, and financial market transparency. The failure of this meeting of the World Trade Organization is reminiscent of the fiasco in Seattle in 1999 and raises serious questions about the successful completion of the so-called Doha Round of trade liberalization slated for 2004.

Second, America is now at risk of imposing protectionist sanctions on China. In mid-September, legislation was introduced in both houses of the US Congress that threatens large across-the-board tariffs on all Chinese exports to the US if the Renminbi currency peg is not abandoned. At present, I would assign no higher than a one in five chance of this legislation being enacted. Yet those odds will likely to rise as the US political cycle heats up, especially if America remains stuck in a jobless recovery. Significantly, this action is bipartisan—sponsored by Democrats and Republicans alike. It also has broad appeal by ideology, geography, and industrial orientation. Moreover, unlike the protectionist drift of the recent past, there is no political counterweight in the White House to this sentiment; after all, the current Bush administration led the charge in boosting steel tariffs in 2002. All this underscores the breadth of political support for the assault on China—an especially worrisome portent of more protectionist forays to come from the United States.

Third, Japan has continued its campaign of leaning against market-driven economic forces. So far this year, Japanese authorities appear to have spent a record US \$ 125 billion intervening in foreign exchange markets in an effort to stem the depreciation of the yen. This has been a key force in shifting the burden of the dollar's adjustment to other currencies, especially the Euro. Moreover, the Japanese have led the way in China bashing over the past year, arguing — erroneously, in my view—that China is to blame for exporting global deflation and for the “hollowing out” of Corporate Japan.

Fourth, European leaders have also joined the fray, aiming to protect their sluggish economy. Their concern is that the Euro has borne too much of the burden of the dollar's recent depreciation. This has led European officials to point the finger at Asian countries whose currency pegs are perceived to insulate them from adjustments in the dollar. This sentiment, which came to a head in a mid-September meeting of European finance ministers in Stresa, Italy, appears to have formed the basis of a more formal protest that was registered at the recent G-7 meeting in Dubai.

As I see it, all of these examples are part of the same mosaic—by-products of an increasingly treacherous interplay between a tough global economic climate and the mounting pressures of the political cycle. In the context of jobless recoveries in the developed world, this interplay has assumed even greater importance, with politicians increasingly taking the lead in shaping the outcome as elections draw near. The conclusion is inescapable, in my view: