

 浙江省高等教育重点建设教材

# 外贸英语教程

吴国良 主编



LISH FOR FOREIGN TRADE

浙江大学出版社

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ENGLISH FOR FOREIGN TRADE

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# 前 言

随着我国对外开放力度的不断加强,经济领域的各条战线对复合型的外贸人才提出了更高的要求。对于高等院校的外贸英语专业,教材建设成了当务之急。本书是根据浙江省重点教材建设的立项计划而组织编写的。

本书定名为《外贸英语教程》,全书由 14 篇精读和 6 篇补充读物组成。每课除课文外,还包括词汇与短语、课文注释、词汇学习、语法与用法点评、练习以及补充阅读材料。本教程内容丰富,语言规范,注释详尽,特色明显。所有课文及补充阅读材料均选自英语原著,内容涉及国际贸易、市场营销、金融、保险、税收等领域。其中注释部分大都参照国内外权威的参考书和词典,而且许多地方采用英汉双解注释,并附有大量例句,力求简洁准确。本书的最大特色在于词汇学习和语法点评。词汇学习部分有助于学生掌握重点词汇的一般用法和商务用法,而语法与用法点评部分则针对课文中出现的一些语言现象进行概括性的评述,以加强学生的英语语言基础。

本书既强调英语语言基础的训练与培养,又着重外贸专业知识的学习,因此可作为高等院校外语、外经、外贸专业的英语教材,也可供经贸类人员自学使用。

教材编写的全体人员为本书的出版问世付出了艰辛与努力,

从材料的逐一筛选到内容与练习的精心编写以及反复的审校等工作,都凝聚了大家2年来的心血。主编吴国良教授主持并参与了全书的编写,包括词汇学习和语法、用法点评;全面负责本书的审校工作。本书吸取了当代语言学方面的研究成果,并将它们融于一体,从而形成了语言专业的教材特色。张萍同志承担第一、四、九、十一、十三单元的编写及本书的校对工作;邵益珍同志承担第三、六、七、十二单元的编写及校对工作;王菲同志承担了第五、八、十、十四单元的编写及校对工作;陈素燕同志承担了第二单元的编写工作。本书在编著过程中,得到了省教委、浙江大学出版社、校、系领导及同事们的大力支持和有关人员的密切配合,谨此一并致谢。

由于编者水平有限,不妥之处,在所难免。请前辈和同行批评指正。

作 者

1999年11月于宁波

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# Unit One

## The World of International Trade

International trade creates value. It increases the efficiency of resource allocation worldwide, reduces production costs through economies of scale, lowers input costs, and through the international division of labor, lowers prices paid by consumers and increases product variety and availability. International trade also can lead to increased exposure for firms and for countries to the forces in the international economy; changes in prices and demand in export markets, changes in prices and supply of imported products, and changes in exchange rates. The increased openness to the international economic environment can increase the variability of a firm's profits and of a nation's GNP growth rate and hence increase the risks of a firm's operations and reduce the stability of a country's economy.

Every major firm is affected by international trade by one means or another; as an exporter; as an importer; as a competitor with imports; or as a financial institution involved in trade finance, foreign exchange markets, and international debt man-



agement. Similarly every country to a greater or lesser extent is influenced by international trade flows—and there is every likelihood that these effects will increase into the foreseeable future.

A knowledge of international trade—the forces behind it and the means by which it is carried out—is essential to all business managers, not just to those directly engaged in international business operations. International trade, exporting and importing, is often the first form of international operations for firms in the manufacturing, natural resource, energy, and agricultural sectors. Arguably, international trade is also the most important form of international business. In 1985, world trade was over \$2 trillion compared to flows of outward foreign direct investment of just under \$60 billion. International trade is inextricably linked to foreign direct investment, international technology transfer, and international finance; international trade often leads to foreign direct investment which in turn often changes trade patterns.

Trade leads to international financial flows and in turn trade is affected by foreign exchange availability and exchange rate movements. Technology transfer is often accomplished through international trade in capital goods and, in turn, technology transfer leads to trade in raw materials and semifinished and final products.

Over the 15-year period from 1965 to 1980, international trade was one of the major driving forces behind world economic expansion. The real value (the volume) of world exports expanded four-fold (9.6 percent per year on average) between 1965 and 1980 (from \$500 billion to \$2 trillion in constant 1980 dol-

lars). This expansion was fostered by falling tariff and nontariff barriers to trade in most countries and by the export-oriented growth strategies of many countries during this period. During the global recession 1980-83, world trade declined in real terms by 25 percent, a decline which in turn worsened the recession in many countries. The rise in the real value of the U. S. dollar from 1977 through early 1985 had a severe negative impact on U. S. exporters and import-competing industries. At the same time, mounting U. S. trade deficits helped its trading partners recover from the recession. The fall of the U. S. dollar from 1985 to 1988 has led to a modest recovery of U. S. exports and a reduction of imports, but its subsequent rise in 1989 has led to concerns that the U. S. trade deficit will continue for an extended period.

If the United States is to stop going further and further into debt with the rest of the world, however, its trade balance will have to move from its 1987 deficit of \$ 160 billion to a trade surplus of between \$ 50 and \$ 75 billion by 1993. (The trade surplus is necessary to pay the interest and dividends on the almost \$ 1 trillion of international debt and net inward foreign direct investment the United States will have accumulated by that year.) The longer this reversal from a trade deficit to a trade surplus is delayed beyond 1993, the greater the eventual surplus will have to be—otherwise U. S. international indebtedness will continue to rise forever.

For the United States to reverse its trade position, its trading partners will have to absorb more than a \$ 220 billion turnaround on their trade accounts. Most developing countries

are not in a position to increase imports or decrease exports; they have debt problems of their own. If anything, their goals are to accelerate export growth. The oil exporters will not absorb it; oil prices nearly doubled from mid-1988 to mid-1989 and U. S. imports of oil continue to rise. That leaves Japan, some European countries, Canada, and the newly industrializing countries and regions of Asia, such as the Republic of Korea, Singapore, Taiwan, and Hong Kong, to make the adjustment. Yet no country wants to reduce exports and increase imports for fear of reducing its own economic growth rate. Meanwhile, the United States (as of early 1990) was stacking up international debt at a rate of over \$ 120 billion per year. One reaction to this impasse has been a rise in protectionism as each country has tried to shift the adjustment costs onto someone else. From 1980 to 1988, the percentage of U. S. imports under some form of nontariff restraint rose from 8 to 24 percent. These trade restraints cost U.S. consumers tens (some say hundreds) of billions of dollars per year. The United States has also enacted trade legislation which requires the government each year to assemble a hit list of countries that it feels are not dealing fairly with American exports, investment, or intellectual property (patents and trademarks). This list is then used as the basis of negotiations with these countries, and in the event the outcomes of these negotiations are not satisfactory, to impose trade sanctions.

Trade distorting policies in the European Community under the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) have turned the EC from the largest net importer of food products to the largest net food exporter in less than two decades. The CAP costs the EC be-

tween \$40 billion and \$50 billion per year in direct subsidies. The CAP costs consumers in the EC countries roughly an equal amount in higher prices and has added 4 percent to the unemployment rate in Europe. It has precipitated the largest trade war in 40 years as the United States and Canada have responded to agricultural subsidies in Europe with massive increases in the subsidies they pay to their own farmers. There are also fears that "Europe 1992" will become <sup>#7-tris</sup> "fortress Europe" for exporters from Japan and North America. <sup>亞瑟, 謝世</sup>

Japan has reduced its explicit tariff and nontariff barriers to trade to levels below those in most other countries and has ceased its policy of undervaluing its exchange rate (to increase exports and reduce imports). Japan's international trade and domestic market structure are dominated by large trading houses and industrial groups and its distribution channels for manufactured products at best have proven difficult for Western exporters to penetrate. The Japanese government has also continued to follow a mercantilist trade strategy toward high technology products in emerging industries through a combination of direct subsidies and market protection. One view of Japan's future trade and economic strategies has been graphically expressed by Mr. Morita (Chairman of the Board of Sony) and Mr. Ishihara (a cabinet minister) in *The Japan that can say "No"*. They foresee a Japan that is largely independent of U. S. economic and political pressures and has reoriented itself toward leading a trading block of the countries on the Asia Pacific Rim, including China and eastern Russia.

In short, the pressures on the international trading system

at the start of the 1990s are enormous and there is little prospect that they will abate in the decade ahead. These pressures have been felt in the latest round of trade negotiations under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), the major body responsible for maintaining and improving the world trading system. The negotiations have not gone well, and five issues—trade in agricultural products, intellectual property (patents and trademarks), trade in services, trade related investment measures, and further market access for developing countries—continue to divide the participating countries. If these negotiations are not successful, there is a real possibility that protectionist policies will proliferate even further among countries around the world.

There are other areas of uncertainty—both opportunity and risk—for firms engaged in international trade as well; the drive for modernization and deregulation in the People's Republic of China, the economic and political reforms (transformations?) in the Eastern European countries; the Canada-U. S. Free Trade Agreement; and the emergence of Japan as a leading (the leading?) country for technology generation, trade, international capital, and foreign direct investment. Yet, it is within this environment that firms must compete on world trade markets if they are to survive, much less prosper.

This is the world of international trade.

## New Words

1. allocation [ˌæləˈkeɪʃən] *n.* ① [U] the giving of shares or places 拨给; 分配 ② [C] a share, as of money or space 分配物;

## 分配额

2. economy [i(:)'kɒnəmi] *n.* (instance of) avoidance of waste of money, strength or anything else of value 经济; 节俭; 节省

3. availability [ə'veilə'biliti] *n.* 利用(或获得)的可能性; 有效性; 可以利用(或获得)的人(或物)

available [ə'veiləbəl] *adj.* ① able to be obtained, used, etc. 可得到的; 可用的; 可利用的 ② able to be visited or seen; not too busy 可接受探访或可见客的; 不太忙的

4. recession [ri'seʃən] *n.* a period of reduced business activity; slump 工商业活动的衰退时期; 生意萧条时期

5. dividend ['divi,dənd] *n.* a portion of the net profits that has been officially declared by the board of directors for distribution to stockholders 红利, 股息, 由董事会正式公布的对股东分配的净利的一部分

6. accumulate [ə'kju:mjuleit] *v.* to make or become greater in quantity or size; collect or grow into a mass 积聚; 堆积; 积累

7. indebtedness [in'detɪdnɪs] *n.* the state of being indebted; something (as an amount of money) that is owed 债务

8. turnaround ['tə:nə,raund] *n.* a reversal or major change of direction 转机

9. reverse [ri'vɜ:s] *v.* to change round (proper order or positions) 反转, 颠倒

10. accelerate [ək'seləreit] *v.* to (cause to) move faster (使)加速

11. impasse [im'pɑ:s] *n.* [usu. sing. 通常单数] a point where further movement is blocked 僵局; 死路

12. enact [i'nækt] *v.* (of the government) to make or pass

(a law) (政府)制定或通过(法律)

13. legislation [ˌledʒɪsˈleɪʃən] *n.* ① the act of making laws 立法, 法律的制定 ② a body of laws 法规

14. sanction [ˈsæŋkʃən] *n.* an action, taken against a person or esp. a country that has broken a law or rule 制裁

15. precipitate [priˈsɪpɪteɪt] *v.* to hasten the coming of (an unwanted event) 加速(不受欢迎的事件)来临

16. fortress [ˈfɔːtrɪs] *n.* a large fort; place strengthened for defence 堡垒; 要塞

17. explicit [ɪkˈsplɪsɪt] *adj.* (of statements, rules, etc.) clear and fully expressed (指声明、规则等)清楚明确的

18. mercantilist [ˈmɜːkəntaɪlɪst] *n.* 重商主义者 *adj.* 重商业主义的

19. abate [əˈbeɪt] *v.* (of winds, storms, disease, pain, etc.) to become less strong; decrease (指风、暴风雨、疾病、痛苦等)减弱; 降低

20. proliferate [prəʊˈlɪfəreɪt] *v.* to increase rapidly in numbers 激增; 扩散

21. deregulation [dɪˌregjuˈleɪʃən] *n.* the act or process of removing restrictions and regulations (as on the taxi industry) 撤销(如出租车业)管制及规定; 解除控制

## Phrases and Expressions

1. involve in: to cause (someone or something) to be part of, included in, mixed with, or deeply concerned in (something or doing something) 使牵连进去, 使受牵涉; 使陷入, 使卷入

Your delay in opening the credit has involved us in unneces-

sary expenses.

你方耽误开立信用证使我方蒙受不必要的花费。

In addition to my studies, I got involved in lots of extracurricular activities.

除了学习以外,我还参加许多课外活动。

2. engage in: make oneself busy in; take part in 从事; 忙于; 参加

Owing to the high cost of living more English women engage in industry than in the past.

由于生活费用高,从事工业工作的英国妇女较过去多了。

The government does not allow its officials to engage in trade.

政府不允许其官员经商。

be engaged in: to be busy with (something) 忙于,从事(某事)

He is engaged in conversation with a foreign businessman.

他在同一位外商交谈。

We are engaged in all sorts of advertising business.

我们经营各种广告业务。

engage 还可以表示: to arrange to employ (someone) 雇用,聘用(某人)

He has engaged three new assistants.

We engaged him to drive us around the city.

3. compare to: (cause to) be regarded as being like or equal to (把)比作; 比拟

People often compare packing and packaging of commodities to nourishment for human beings. 人们往往把商品的包装装潢比作人的营养品。



Steel output dropped 32 percent this May compared to the same month of last year. 今年5月与去年5月相比,钢产量下降了32%。

compare with; examine to find things that are the same or different; be worthy of comparison with 与...相比较;可与...相比

We have compared your offer with those of the European manufacturers. 我方已将你方报盘与欧洲厂家的报盘进行了比较。

beyond/past/without compare 无与伦比

Your price is so high that it is beyond compare. 你方价格高得无与伦比。

comparison *n.* 比较,对比

to make a comparison 进行比较

to bear/stand comparison with 比得上,不亚于;经受住比较

Although the product is good in design, it cannot stand comparison with ours in quality. 虽然该产品设计良好,但质量上仍比不上我方产品。

in comparison with 与...相比

Our price is moderate in comparison with those of European manufacturers. 我方价格与欧洲厂家的价格相比是适中的。

4. in a position to (do); able to (do) 能够

We will contact you by cable as soon as we are in a position to accept fresh orders. 一旦我方能接受新订单时,我方即用电报与你方联系。

We are not in a position to entertain business at your price, since it is below our cost price. 我方无法按你方的价格来接受交易,因为它低于我们的成本价。

What will be clear is that hardly anybody will be in a posi-