

高等学校英语专业系列教材  
Textbook Series for Tertiary English Majors

求知 STEM

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# A Course in Advanced English

## 高级英语教程 1

主 编 姜 源



重庆大学出版社

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## 内 容 提 要

本书按照《英语教学大纲》的要求编写,共十二个单元,内容丰富,选材突出人文学科的批评意识,涉及政治、经济、法律、伦理、语言、文学、影视、文化等不同学科的内容,涉及不同民族与文化,原文作者中女性比例较大。练习部分设置合理,力求精练,注重学习者的参与。课文安排遵循循序渐进的原则,注重培养学生的英语运用能力、提高交际能力和文化修养。本书适用于英语专业三年级学生,有利于学生英语综合技能的培养和文化素质的提高。

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## 总 序

进入 21 世纪,我国高等教育呈现快速扩展的趋势。为适应社会、经济的快速发展,人才的培养问题已经比我国任何一个历史时期都显得更为重要。当今,人才的能力和素质的衡量越来越多地采用国际标准,人才的外语水平自然地也越来越受到培养单位和用人单位的重视,由此引发了对大学外语教学模式、教材和检测机制的新一轮讨论,掀起了新一轮的大学英语教学改革。作为外语师资队伍和外语专业人才培养的高等学校英语专业,相比之下,在教学改革思路、新教材开发和新教学模式探讨等诸方面均显得滞后。尽管高等学校外语专业教学指导委员会英语组针对当前高校发展的新形式和外语专业人才培养的新规格、新模式和新要求,修订出了新的《高等学校英语专业英语教学大纲》,并结合 21 世纪外语人才培养和需求的新形势,制定了由教育部高等教育司转发的《关于外语专业面向 21 世纪本科教育改革的若干意见》,就英语专业的建设提出了指导性的意见,但在实际工作中这两个文件的精神尚未落实。

为此,重庆大学出版社和外语教学界的专家们就国内高等学校英语专业建设所面临的新形势作了专题讨论。专家们认为,把“大纲”的设计和“若干意见”的思想和理念变为现实的一个最直接的体现方式,就是编写一套全新理念的英语专业系列教材;随着我国教育体制的改革,特别是基础教育课程标准的实施,适合高等学校英语专业教学需要的教材也应作相应的调整,以应对中小学英语教学改革的新要求;高等学校学生入学时英语水平的逐年提高和就业市场对外语人才需求呈多元化趋势的实际,对高等学校英语专业的人才培养、教学模式、课程设置、教材建设等方面也提出了严峻挑战,应对这些挑战,同样可以通过一套新的教材体系来实现。

迄今为止,国内尚无一套完整的、系统的英语专业系列教材;目前已有的教材出自不同的出版社,编写的思路和体例不尽相同;现有的教材因出版时间较早,内容、知识结构、教学方法和手段已经不能适应新的发展要求;传统的教材设计多数基于学科的内在逻辑和系统性,较少考虑学习者的全面发展和社会对人才需求的多元化。

自 2001 年开始,在重庆大学出版社的大力支持下,我们成立了由华中、华南、西南和西北地区的知名专家、学者和教学一线教师组成的《求知高等学校英语专业系列教材》编写组,确定了系列教材编写的指导思想和总体目标,即以《高等学校英语专业英语教学大纲》为依据,将社会的需求与培养外语人才的全面发展紧密结合,注重英语作为一个专业的学科系统性和科学性,注重英语教学和习得的方法与规律,突出特色和系列教材的内在逻辑关系,反映当前教学改革的新理念并具有前瞻性;锤炼精品,建立与英语专业课程配套的新教材体系,推动英语专业的教学改革,培养高素质人才和创新人才。

系列教材力求在以下方面有所突破和创新:

第一,教材的整体性。系列教材在课程类型上分为专业技能必修课程、专业知识必修课程、专业技能选修课程、专业知识选修课程和相关专业知识课程等多个板块。在考虑每一种教材针对相应课程的特性和特色的同时,又考虑到系列教材间相互的支撑性。

第二,学生基本技能和实际应用能力的培养。在课程的设计上充分考虑英语作为一个专业来培养学生的基础和基本技能,也充分考虑到英语专业学生应该具备的专业语言、文学和文化素养。同时,教材的设计兼顾到社会需求中对英语专业学生所强调的实际应用能力的培养,除考虑课程和英语专业的培养目的,课程或课程体系应该呈现的学科基本知识和规范外,充分考虑到教材另一方面的功用,即学生通过教材接触真实的语言环境,了解社会,了解文化背景,丰富学生的实践经验。在教材编写中突出强调“enable”,让学习者在实践中学习语言、文学、文化和其他相关知识,更多地强调学习的过程,强调学生的参与,以此提高学生的实际应用技能。

第三,学生的全面发展。对高等学校英语专业学生而言,英语不仅是一门工具,更重要的是一个培养学生人文素质和跨文化意识的学科专业。系列教材强调合作性学习、探索性学习,培养学生的自主性,加强学习策略的指导。通过基础阶段课程的学习,使学生在语言知识、语言技能、文化意识、情感态度和学习策略等方面得到整体发展;在高年级阶段则更多地注重学生的人文精神、专业理论素养、中外文学及文化修养的培养。

第四,教材的开放性。一套好的教材不应该对课堂教学、老师的施教和学生的学习拓展有所制约,应给使用教材的教师和学生留有一定的空间,要让学生感到外语学习是一件愉快的事,通过学习让人思考,给人以自信,引导人走向成功。系列教材的总体设计既考虑严密的学科系统性,也考虑独具特色的开放性。不同地区、不同类型的学校,可以根据自己的生源和培养目标灵活地取舍、选用、组合教材,尤其是结合国内高等学校中正在探讨的学分制,给教与学一个多维度的课程体系。

我们希望通过这套系列教材,来推动高等学校英语专业教学改革,探讨新的教学理念、模式,为英语专业人才的培养探索新的路子,为英语专业的学生拓展求知的空间。

《求知高等学校英语专业系列教材》编委会

2004年8月

## 前 言

本教程适用于大学三年级英语专业学生。编撰人按照《英语教学大纲》的要求,注重培养学生的英语综合技能、提高交际能力和文化修养。

所有课文和阅读材料均出自英文报刊图书,仅个别课文经过节选。课文安排基本遵循由浅入深、循序渐进原则。本教程具有多学科、多元文化的特点,选文包括了政治、经济、法律、伦理、语言、文学、影视、文化等不同学科的内容,涉及不同民族与文化,原文作者中女性比例较大。本教程还注意到学生的知识背景和社会的文明演进,展示了19世纪后期以来英美写作者对于人类所面临问题的关怀。

本教程选材突出人文学科的批评意识。这种意识不仅继承了文明演进过程中一直起到重要作用的理性传统,还奠定了现代社会的理论基础。同时,课文展示了颇具个性见解的视角和观点,有利于学生通过讨论和深入探索,提高分析问题的能力。除此之外,选编的课文还贯穿了一条线索,即向学生呈现人类迄今仍面临的各种挑战:有来自自然和社会的挑战,也有来自人性本身和各种制度方面的挑战。通过对这些挑战的认识,希望提高学生的认识水平、深化学生的社会责任感。

练习部分的编撰力求精练,更多的注意力放在学生们的参与之中。课前设问、课文理解、词汇填空、辨错改错、英汉互译、话题讨论、写作评论等练习,都旨在凸现训练学生口头表述和书面表述技能,始终坚持深化和扩展学生对语言和文化知识的实际应用。编者希望通过更多讨论的方式,使课文学习能够落实到学生的参与中去。让学生在参与中学、在讨论中学。

本教程为上册,共十二个单元,适合一学期的学习。课文长短不一,但每个单元篇幅接近。不同学校的教师可根据教学安排和学生实情灵活使用,自学者可视个人所需予以选择。

我们希望本教材能够满足英语专业三年级的精读教学需要,有利于学生英语综合技能的培养和文化素质的提高。编撰人员在有限的时间内完成了课本的编写,由衷欢迎本书的使用者提出任何批评和建议。

编 者  
2013年8月

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# Unit 1

## Economics and Economic Reasoning

### Pre-Reading Tasks

- *What is a less developed country (LDC)?*
- *Must the LDCs develop by industrializing?*
- *Can the LDCs develop their own capital stock?*
- *Can a lack of protected property rights hinder an LDC's development?*

### Text

#### Economics of Developing Countries

◀ Roger LePoy Miller ▶

[1] It is hard for Americans to realize that what we consider the poverty level of income in the United States far exceeds the average income in a good part of the world. In fact, more than one-half of the world's population lives at a subsistence level — with just enough to eat for survival. The majority of Americans are preoccupied with the problems associated with being relatively rich — urban sprawl, pollution, and the like. The less developed countries, or LDCs, are grappling with abject poverty and squalor — in short, with mere existence. After we discuss the reasons some countries are more developed than others, we will look at the issue of whether foreign aid can help less developed countries become developed.

#### A CLOSER EXAMINATION OF INEQUALITY

[2] Just looking at per capita income levels does not provide the full picture of the difference between the LDCs and the rest of the world. Here we can see some interesting socioeconomic indicators of development, including life expectancy, infant mortality (death rate), literacy and expenditures on education.

[3] When we look at the amount of world accounted for by developed countries, the inequality is even more striking. The industrialized market economies have less than 18 percent of world population, but nonetheless generate almost 65 percent of total world output. The United States, with less than 6 percent of the world's population, generates almost 30 percent of total world output.

## LDCS AND POPULATION PROBLEMS

[4] Look at the world's fastest-growing nations and the world's slowest-growing nations in terms of population. What is clear from that exhibit is that among the world's fastest-growing nations are most of the nations in Africa. What is also clear from the exhibit is that most of the first-world and second-world nations are among the world's slowest-growing nations.

## MODERN THEORIES

[5] One of the most widely discussed theories of development concerns the need for balanced growth, with industry and agriculture given equal importance.

## BALANCING INDUSTRY WITH AGRICULTURE

[6] One characteristic of many developed countries is their high degree of industrialization, although there is clearly exception — New Zealand, for example. In general, nations with relatively high standards of living are more industrialized than countries with low standards of living. Some economists have taken this to mean that industrialization can be equated with economic development. The policy prescription is then obvious: so-called less developed nations in which a large percentage of the total resources are devoted to agricultural pursuits should attempt to obtain a more balanced growth by industrializing.

[7] Although the theory is fairly acceptable at first glance, it leads to some absurd results. We find in many LDCs with steel factories and automobile plants that the people are actually worse off because of this attempted industrialization. The reason is not hard to find. Most LDCs currently cannot profitably produce steel or automobiles. They can engage in such industrial activities only by a heavy subsidization of the industry itself and by massive restrictions on competitive imports from other countries. For example, in India a steel mill may produce steel at two or three times the resource cost that would be required if the steel were imported. It seems quite apparent that the country is worse off, not better off, because of the steel mill. It may have the national prestige of owning a large, smoke-producing factory, but its citizens get less economic value out of their given resources than they would otherwise. This scenario occurs throughout the entire less developed world.

Import restrictions abound, preventing the purchase of foreign, mostly cheaper, substitutes for the industrial products that the country itself produces in a (usually) subsidized environment. Sometimes the subsidization is not obvious, but it usually exists in one form or another. In general, when an industry is subsidized, the **subsidy**<sup>1</sup> leads to a misallocation of resources and a lower economic welfare for the country as a whole. The owners in the subsidized industry and the workers with skills specific to that industry are obviously better off. But the consumer ends up paying a higher total cost for the domestically made goods, and the total output of the nation remains less than it could be if the resources were reallocated away from the subsidized industries.

### THE STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT

[8] If we look at the past development of modern rich nations, we find that they went through three stages. First, there is the agricultural stage, when most of the population is involved in agriculture. Then there is the manufacturing stage, when much of the population becomes involved in the industrialized sector of the economy. And finally there is a shift toward services. That is exactly what has happened in the United States: The so-called tertiary, or service, sector of the economy is growing by leaps and bounds, whereas the manufacturing sector (and its percentage employment) is declining in relative importance.

[9] However, it is important to understand the need for early specialization in one's comparative advantage. We have continuously referred to the doctrine of **comparative advantage**<sup>2</sup>, and it is even more appropriate for the LDCs of the world. If trading is allowed among nations, a nation is best off if it produces what it has a comparative advantage at producing and imports the rest. This means that many LDCs should continue to specialize in agricultural production or in labor-intensive manufactured goods.

### AGRICULTURE SUBSIDIZED

[10] There is a problem here, to be sure, and it is that modern Western countries have continually subsidized their own agricultural sectors to allow them to compete more easily with the LDCs in this area. If we lived in a world of no subsidization, we would probably see less food being produced in the highly developed Western world (except for the United States, Canada, and Australia) and much more being produced in the LDCs of the rest of the world. They would trade food for manufactured goods. It would appear, then, that one of the most detrimental aspects of our economic policy for the LDCs has been the continued subsidization of the American farmer. The United States, of course, is not alone; Germany, France, and England do exactly the same thing.

[11] Even with this situation, however, a policy of using subsidies or high taxes on

imported goods in order to increase industrialization in the LDCs may lead to more harm than good. Industrialization is generally only beneficial if it comes about naturally — in other words, when the market conditions are such that the countries' entrepreneurs freely decide to build factories instead of increasing farm output, because it is profitable to do so.

## NATURAL RESOURCES AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

[12] One popular theory of development states that, for a country to develop, it must have a large natural-resource base. The theory continues to assert that much of the world is running out of natural resources, thereby limiting economic growth and development. We must point out that only the most narrow definition of a natural resource could lead us to such an opinion. In broader terms, a natural resource is something scarce occurring in nature that we can use for our own purposes. Natural resources, therefore, include knowledge of the use of some thing. The natural resources that we could define several hundred years ago did not, for example, include hydroelectric power — no one knew that such a natural resource existed or, indeed, how to make it exist.

[13] In any event, it is difficult to find a strong correlation between the natural resources of a nation and its stage of development. Japan has virtually no crude oil and must import most of the natural resources that it uses as inputs into its industrial production. Brazil has huge amounts of natural resources, including fertile soil and abundant minerals, yet Brazil has a much lower per capita income than Japan. Only when we include the human element of natural resources can we say that natural resources determine economic development.

## CAPITAL<sup>3</sup> ACCUMULATION

[14] It is often asserted that a necessary prerequisite for economic development is a large capital stock — machines and other durable goods that can be used to aid in the production of **consumption goods**<sup>4</sup> and more **capital goods**<sup>5</sup> in the future. It is true that developed countries indeed have larger capital stocks per capita than less developed countries. It is also true that the larger the capital **stock**<sup>6</sup> for any given population, the higher the possible rate of economic growth (assuming the population makes good use of the capital goods). This is basically one of the foundations for many of the foreign aid programs in which the United States and other countries have engaged. We and other nations have attempted to give less developed countries capital so that they, too, may grow. However, the amount of capital that we have actually given to other nations is quite small: a steel mill here, a factory there. The relationship between the capital stock and growth is sufficiently important. Let's look at a perceptive and controversial concept of growth aired by a former president of the International Finance Corporation, Robert L. Gardner:

Let us briefly examine some of the frequently cited causes of underdevelopment

and slow economic growth.

It is often claimed that geography and natural resources are determining. They... are important...but resources lie inert and have no economic worth except as people bring them into use. It is easy to attribute the progress of the United States to its wide expanse and abundant physical resources. However, other areas — in Latin America, Africa, Asia — have comparable natural wealth, but most of it is still untouched. On the other hand, there are countries in western Europe with limited fertile land and meager mineral deposits, yet they have achieved high levels of economic life...

Perhaps most often lack of capital is blamed. In the first place, there is in most developing countries more potential capital than is admitted. But large amounts are kept outside, because of political instability and depreciating currency at home. Over the post-war period immense sums have been made available to the developing areas. Some of these funds have been well applied and have produced sound results, others have not... If [foreign aid] is applied to uneconomic purposes, or if good projects are poorly planned and executed, the result will be minus, not plus. The effective spending of large funds requires experience, competence, honesty and organization. Lacking any of these factors, large injections of capital into developing countries can cause more harm than good. The test of how much additional capital is required for development is how much a country can effectively apply within any given period, not how much others are willing to supply.

I am, therefore, forced to the conclusion that economic development or lack of it is primarily due to differences in people — in their attitudes, customs, traditions and the consequent differences in their political, social and religious institutions.

[15] Gardner is perhaps overstressing the human element in the question of growth and development. However, he does point out that lack of natural resources and lack of capital may not really be the main deterrent to development. If Gardner is correct, then less developed nations might be wise to invest more of their efforts in human capital rather than in nonhuman capital stock. That is to say, less developed nations would possibly grow faster if there were a larger investment in humans — education, health, training, and so on — than in physical capital. The education of the population, as well as training (both on and off the job) might do more to improve the development of the LDCs than would devoting all efforts and resources to increasing the capital stock. As with all policy decisions, however, an evaluation of alternative costs and benefits of each investment program must be examined. Nevertheless, there is normally a positive relationship between the possible

rate of growth of an economy and the size of its capital stock.

### DOMESTIC CAPITAL FORMATION

[16] How does a less developed nation accumulate capital? The answer is that it must save and invest those accumulated **savings**<sup>7</sup> profitably. Saving, of course, means not consuming. Resources must be released from consumer goods production in order to be used for investment.

### THE HARD FACTS

[17] Look at it this way. Even if you are very, very poor and just barely making a living, you know that sometime in the future you will no longer be able to work. You will either reach mandatory retirement or you will become so debilitated and unproductive that nobody will be willing to hire you. Your income stream will be cut off. Unless there is a benevolent government or a charitable source of support (perhaps your family) to take care of you, you will starve. There is a way out. You can have accumulated savings, the income and principal off which you can live. Therefore, today you must decide how much of your current income you want to set aside for those retirement years, or for those years when you are sick or debilitated and cannot work. (Some researchers speculate that much saving in less developed countries takes the form of rearing children who then feel a moral obligation to "repay" by supporting their parents during their retirement.) Unless it is literally true that you will starve if you reduce your current level of consumption, you probably will attempt to save a little out of your income. Most people are willing to reduce current consumption by a small amount in order to have some consumption after they can no longer work. If this is not done, they face certain starvation when their income stream falls to zero.

### LDCS AND POPULATION CONTROL

[18] One of the most troublesome problems facing LDCs in their quest for higher per capita standards of living is typically high population growth rates. It is certainly no secret that a less developed country might have a better chance at raising its citizens' per capita standard of living if there were fewer mouths to feed. Indeed, many students of economic development believe that the major problem in the LDCs is excess population. A typical international development conference will be divided into two groups: (1) representatives from LDCs who want development and (2) representatives from developed nations who want family planning (birth control) to be instituted as a prerequisite for the development of the LDCs.

[19] Ironically, generosity on the part of the developed countries has contributed to high population growth rates in LDCs. Specifically, aid and transfer of knowledge about health, nutrition, and sanitation have reduced death rates in numerous LDCs. It is arithmetically impossible not to have an increase in population growth if death rates are reduced without a concomitant reduction in birthrates. Many proponents of increased Western aid to LDCs are quick to point out that excess population was caused by Western aid to begin with and, therefore, the results of excess population should be coped with by developed countries.

[20] Some recent research on population and economic development has revealed that social and economic modernization has been accompanied by what might be called the fertility revolution — the spread of deliberate family size limitation within marriage and a decline in childbearing. Modernization reduces infant mortality, which in turn reduces the incentive for couples to have many children to make sure that enough will survive to satisfy each couple's demand. Also, modernization lowers the demand for children for a variety of reasons, not the least being that couples in more developed countries do not need to rely on their children to take care of them in old age.

### **PROPERTY RIGHTS<sup>8</sup> AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**

[21] If you were in a country where bank accounts and businesses were periodically expropriated by the government, how willing would you be to leave your money in a savings account or to invest in a business? Certainly you would be less willing than if such things never occurred. Periodic expropriation of private property rarely occurs in developed countries. It has occurred in numerous less developed countries, however. For example, private property was once “nationalized” in Chile and still is in Cuba. In some cases, former owners are compensated, but rarely for the full value of the property taken over by the state.

### **FOREIGN AID**

[22] Many nations, including the United States, extend assistance to LDCs. A number of reasons are given to justify this assistance, which can be in the form of grants, low-interest loans, food, military supplies, or technical expertise. Although the humanitarian argument in support of foreign aid is often given, certainly security and economics enter into the discussion. That is to say, the United States often gives foreign aid to LDCs in order to support noncommunist regimes or to prevent communist takeovers. Additionally, the United States extends foreign aid to help develop other countries in order to benefit U. S. firms. This is particularly true when foreign aid is tied to the purchase of American products. Tied foreign aid requires that the recipient spend all or part of the sum extended as foreign aid on U. S.-produced goods. (As such, foreign aid can be viewed as a subsidy

to export producers in the United States.)

[23] The major landmark in the history of foreign aid from the United States was the Marshall Plan. This plan, proposed by Secretary of State George Marshall in an address at Harvard University in June 1948, established the European Recovery Program, which granted over \$10 billion ( \$47 billion in 1987 dollars) in foreign assistance to Europe following World War II. Many observers contend that the Marshall Plan was instrumental in allowing Europe's productive capacity to grow dramatically during the late 1940s and early 1950s.

### THE SITUATION IN THE LDCs

[24] The LDCs in the world today cannot be compared to those war-torn European countries at the end of World War II. The modernization of LDCs is a much more complicated task than the restoration of postwar Europe. In many cases, foreign aid to Europe simply helped those countries rebuild an already existing and previously well-functioning capital base. It is one thing merely to help replace locomotives and to help repair bombed-out tracks for an existing railroad system, and quite another to help establish from scratch an entire *new* railroad system in a country that has none. Perhaps more important is the potentially misdirected aid to LDCs. Remember that Europe had the human capital of an experienced industrial workforce. Today's LDCs do not, so we cannot expect that foreign aid given to them will have the same result as the aid given to Europe for its restoration after the war. There are many barriers to economic growth in LDCs: a lack of technical skills and capacities, poorly organized markets, political and social elites unreceptive to change, nongrowth-oriented foreign trade policies, and so on.

[25] The future, however, may be different. Economists may become better attuned to the actual determinants of development in different situations so that specific models can be made and applied in specific situations. The economic analysis of development and growth is perhaps one of the least well-defined disciplines in the entire study of economics, despite the large number of books written on the subject.

### ↔ About the Author ↔

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Roger LePoy Miller, a distinguished professor of economics at Clemson University, has authored, coauthored, or edited over 20 books and nearly 100 articles on economic topics.

He acquired his B. A. at Columbia College and his M. Phil. And Ph. D at Columbia University. Professor Miller has taught at Clemson University of Miami. He has also been a consultant to Time-Life Films, a consultant to Congress, a Brookings Policy Fellow, and Visiting Scholar at Nuffield College, Oxford.

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### → Notes to the Text ←

- [1] **subsidy**: A financial payment to a producer from the government to encourage the supply of certain product or service.
- [2] **comparative advantage**: An economic advantage out of relative efficiency in producing or supplying certain product or service.
- [3] **capital**: All processed resources, including buildings, equipment, machines and improved land.
- [4] **consumption goods**: (also consumer goods) Goods bought by households to use up, such as food and clothing.
- [5] **capital good**: (also producer goods) Goods that are used by companies to produce some more valuable or useful product.
- [6] **stock**: The total amount of any product existing at a point of time; such as the stock of cars that exists today at 7:30 a. m.
- [7] **saving**: The sum of money not spent by its owner.
- [8] **property rights**: The right of the possessor to use or sell his own property.

## Exercises

### I. Comprehension Questions

Answer the following questions briefly in your own words.

- (1) According to the author, what is the difference between the poverty level of income in the United States and the one in a good part of the world?
- (2) According to the author, what is the “three worlds” classification scheme?
- (3) Can you list some most important socioeconomic indicators of development?
- (4) Why are most of the nations in Africa among the world’s fastest-growing nations in terms of population?
- (5) According to the text, what is the most widely discussed modern theory of economic development?
- (6) What is the reason for some of the LDCs being able to engage in such industrial activities as producing steel or automobiles although they cannot profitably do so?
- (7) What is the negative effect of the government subsidization?
- (8) What are the three stages of economic development of the modern rich nations?
- (9) Why should a nation specialize in its own comparative advantage?
- (10) Why do the modern Western countries subsidize their own agriculture sectors?