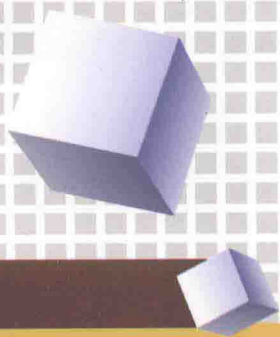


• 二十一世纪“双一流”建设系列精品规划教材



国际商贸英语实务

(第八版)

International Business English Practices

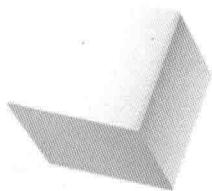
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中国·成都

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第八版前言

《国际商贸英语实务》第一版于2007年6月、第二版于2009年1月、第三版于2011年9月、第四版于2013年8月、第五版于2014年9月、第六版于2015年7月、第七版于2017年5月出版发行，目前都已售罄。

由于经济贸易全球化的飞速发展，加之《2010年国际贸易术语解释通则》的广泛使用，国际贸易环境和规则都发生了一些变化。因此我们决定对本教材再次进行修订，以更好的质量和更新的内容呈现给广大读者。

本教材的主编之一——邹勇教授，自1993年以来一直进行该课程的课堂教学。多年的教学实践表明，学习过这门课程的学生不仅掌握了国际商贸英语知识，而且他们的英语表达能力也得到了极大提高，受到了用人单位的欢迎。

本教材被西南交通大学外国语学院、华东政法大学商学院、中国传媒大学外国语学院、浙江工业大学外国语学院、上海商学院、电子科技大学外国语学院、湖北职业技术学院外国语学院、安徽巢湖学院外语系、安徽大学外国语学院、大庆师范学院外国语学院、成都中医药大学外语学院、郑州成功财经学院、成都大学、新疆昌吉学院、湖北工程学院新技术学院、湖北工学院、四川农业大学等选为“国际商贸英语”课程的指定教材。尤其值得一提的是，华东政法大学商学院的何家宝教授对本教材提出了非常宝贵的意见。何教授是UCP600的译者，他在该领域有很深的造诣，多年从事国际商贸英语的教学，经验非常丰富。另外，郑州成功财经学院的邱培磊老师也对本教材提出了宝贵意见，使得该教材更加完善。在此，向以上学者表示衷心的感谢。

本书的第八版由西南财经大学天府学院外语教研中心的张维老师以及西南财经大学经贸外语学院的邹勇教授任主编并拟定大纲，负责全书的总纂；成都信息工程大学银杏酒店管理学院外语系的尹莉老师以及西南财经大学天府学院外语教研中心的刘莉老师任副主编。具体编写的章节分工如下：

张维负责编写第一章到第八章（共计22.6万字）；尹莉负责编写第九章、第十章、第十一章、第十三章（共计10.8万字）；刘莉负责编写第十二章、第十四章、第十五章（共计8.2万字）；西南财经大学的杨思琪、刘友红和韩晓霞负责编写附录一（共计1.6万字）；

2 *International Business English Practices*

西南财经大学的陶袁和王明珠负责编写附录二（共计 1.5 万字）；西南财经大学的谢宇纯和刘琛琼负责编写附录三（共计 1.1 万字）。全书由张维、邹勇负责统稿。

西南财经大学出版社对本教材的出版给予了大力支持和帮助，在此深表谢意。

为了方便使用本教材的教师的教学以及满足学习者的需要，编者愿免费给大家提供与本教材相关的电子课件、练习题参考答案及各种实物单证。

由于编者水平与经验有限，本教材在内容编排和格式等方面难免有不妥之处，敬请同行和广大读者指正。

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Chapter 1

Introduction to International Trade

【Learning Objectives】

Knowledge Objectives:

1. Understand the concept and origin of international trade.
2. Know the theory of comparative advantage.
3. Know some basic forms of international trade.

Ability Objectives:

1. Master the definition of international trade.
2. Apply the theory of comparative advantage to trade practices.
3. Identify the visible goods and invisible goods.

1.1 International Trade (I)

International trade can be defined as the exchange of goods and services produced in one country with those produced in another. In the complex economic world, no country can be completely self-sufficient. The distribution of natural resources is uneven. Some countries are abundant in resources, while elsewhere reserves are scarce or even nonexistent. And a country may be rich in some resources but poor in others. For instance, Britain has large reserves of coal but lacks some metal reserves. Kuwait has vast oil deposits but little farm produce. And Japan relies heavily on import for most of the primary commodities. That is the reason why international trade first began.

With the development of manufacturing and technology, there arose another incentive for trade, i.e. international specialization—one country producing more of a commodity than it uses itself and selling the remainder to other countries. Such specialization constitutes an important basis for international trade.

Absolute advantage and comparative advantage are two theories of international specialization. Both theories attempt to determine which goods a country should produce for itself and export to other countries and which goods it should import from other countries.

The theory of absolute advantage holds that a commodity will be produced in the country where it costs least in terms of resources (capital, land and labour). This theory is illustrated in the following table. To be more illustrative, let us assume there are only two countries producing two commodities under perfect competition:

Output per man-year of labour

	Country A	Country B
computers	50	10
cars	20	40

From the above table, we can see that a man in Country A can produce 50 computers in a year but only 10 in Country B. On the other hand, one man in Country B can produce 40 cars in a year but only 20 in Country A. So Country A is more efficient in producing computers than Country B, and we say the former has an absolute advantage over the latter. Similarly, Country B is more efficient with cars and has an absolute advantage over Country A. As a result, Country A would specialize in the production of computers and trade some of them for Country B's cars, and Country B would specialize in cars and exchange some of them for Country A's computers. Both countries will gain benefits through specialization and trade.

But, according to the above theory, trade occurs only when each country has an absolute advantage over the other in the production of one commodity. In reality, it is not rare that one country has no absolute advantage in any commodity. Will trade occur in these cases? The theory of comparative advantage has offered satisfactory answer to this question.

The theory of comparative advantage holds that even if a country is less efficient than another in the production of both commodities, i.e. it has absolute disadvantage in producing both commodities, there is still a basis for mutually beneficial trade. The first country should specialize in the production and export of commodity in which its absolute disadvantage is smaller, i.e. the commodity of its comparative advantage, and import the commodity in which its absolute disadvantage is greater, i.e. the commodity of its comparative disadvantage. The above theory can be illustrated in this table:

Output per man-year of labour

	Country A	Country B
computers	50	10
cars	40	20

The difference between this table and the previous one is that Country B has absolute disadvantage in the production of both computers and cars. Nevertheless, it still has a comparative advantage in cars since it is half as efficient in cars but 5 times less efficient in computers in comparison with Country A. On the other hand, Country A has absolute advantage over Country B in both computers and cars. However, we say it has comparative advantage in computers since it has greater absolute advantage in the commodity than in cars with respect to Country B. According to the theory, both countries can gain if A specializes in computers and B specializes in cars. Where comparative advantage exists, two trading partners are both able to share in the gains from trade. Trade to exploit comparative advantage promotes efficiency among countries; since it can make one country better off without making another worse off.

Comparative advantage is not a static concept. A country may develop a particular comparative advantage purely through its own actions, independent of the endowments of nature. Switzerland's comparative advantage in watch-making is a typical example. Similarly, the United States has developed comparative advantage in many lines that use the most up-to-date technology.

The idea of absolute advantage as the basis for economic specialization has a strong intuitive appeal. But the idea of comparative advantage introduced by the English economist David Ricardo makes more sense. Indeed it has become the cornerstone of modern thinking on international trade.

1.2 International Trade (II)

Where there are no differences among countries in the basic capabilities at producing goods, other bases for trade among them may still exist.

First, patterns of demand may differ among nations. For example, most consumers in one country may consider dog meat a delicacy, while in another country the consumption of dog meat is abhorrent. In this case the second country may sell its dog meat to the first country. Trade will be based not on differences in the production capabilities of the two countries but on different consumption preferences.

Second, trade may occur out of economies of scale, that is, the cost advantages of large-scale production. For example, Country A and Country B may have the same capability in producing cars and computers, but the cost for the production of both commodities will decrease if the goods are produced on a larger scale. Both countries might find it advantageous if each were to specialize completely in the production of one commodity and import the other.

Third, trade takes place because of innovation or style. Even though Country A produces enough cars at reasonable costs to meet its own demand and even to export some, it may still import cars from other countries for innovation or variety or style.

To summarize, the theory of international specialization seeks to answer the question which countries will produce what goods with what trade patterns among them. Differences in production conditions, the element highlighted by the theory of comparative advantage, provide the most important part of the answer. But a complete answer must also take into account other factors such as demand, economies of scale and innovation or style.

In reality, however, complete specialization may never occur even when it is economically advantageous. For strategic or domestic reasons, a country may continue to produce goods for which it does not have an advantage. The benefits of specialization may also be affected by transport cost. Goods and raw materials have to be transported around the world and the cost of the transport reduces the benefit of trade. The case will be more serious with transporting bulky or perishable goods. Protectionist measures which are often taken by governments are also barriers to trade, and typical examples are tariffs and quotas.

Tariff barriers are the most common form of trade restriction. A tariff is a tax levied on a commodity when it crosses the boundary of a customs area which usually coincides with the area of a country. A customs area extending beyond national boundaries to include two or more independent nations is called a customs union. Import duties are tariffs levied on goods entering an area while export duties are taxes levied on goods leaving an area. The former type is more common than the latter as most nations want to expand exports and increase their foreign exchange earnings. Import duties may be either specific, or ad valorem, or a combination of the two-compound duties. The term drawback refers to duties paid on imported goods that are refunded if the goods are re-exported. The term most-favoured-nation (MFN) treatment refers to a tariff treatment under which a country is required to extend to all signatories any tariff concessions granted to any participating country. However, MFN treatment is not really special but is just normal trading status. It gives a country the lowest tariffs only within the tariff's schedule, but it is still possible to have lower tariffs.

Quotas or quantitative restrictions are the most common form of non-tariff barriers. A quota limits the imports or exports of a commodity during a given period of time. The limits may be in quantity or value terms, and quotas may be on a country basis or global, without reference to countries. They may be imposed unilaterally and can also be negotiated on a so-called voluntary basis. Obviously, exporting countries do not readily agree to limit their sales. Thus, the "voluntary" label generally means that the importing country has threatened to impose even

worse restrictions if voluntary cooperation is not forthcoming.

In addition to visible trade, which involves the import and export of goods, there is also invisible trade, which involves the exchange of services between countries.

Transportation service across national boundaries is an important kind of invisible trade. International transportation involves different means of transport such as ocean ships, planes, trains, trucks and inland water vessels. However, the most important of them is maritime ships. When an exporter arranges shipment, he generally books space in the cargo compartment of a ship, or charter a whole vessel. Some countries such as Greece and Norway have large maritime fleets and earn a lot by way of this invisible trade.

Insurance is another important kind of invisible trade. In the course of transportation, a cargo is vulnerable to many risks such as collision, pilferage, fire, storm, explosion, and even war. Goods being transported in international trade must be insured against loss or damage. Large insurance companies provide service for international trade and earn fees for insuring other nation's foreign trade. Lloyd's of London is a leading exporter of this service.

Tourism is yet another important form of invisible trade. Many countries may have beautiful scenery, wonderful attractions, places of historical interest, or merely a mild and sunny climate. These countries attract large numbers of tourists, who spend money for travelling, hotel accommodations, meals, taxis, and so on. Some countries depend heavily on tourism for their foreign exchange earnings, and many countries are making great efforts to develop their tourism.

The fourth type of invisible trade meriting attention is called immigrant remittance. This refers to the money sent back to home countries by people working in a foreign land. Import and export of labour service may be undertaken by individuals, or organized by companies or even by states. And this is becoming an important kind of invisible trade for some countries.

Invisible trade can be as important to some countries as visible trade is to others. In reality, the kinds of trade nations engage in are varied and complex, often a mixture of visible and invisible trade.

1.3 Trade Protectionism

Reasons for Trade Protectionism

In contrast with **free trade** where government barriers to trade are kept to a minimum degree, **trade protectionism** is the economic policy of restraining trade between countries through methods such as tariffs on imported goods, restrictive quotas, and a variety of other government regulations designed to allow imports to compete fairly against goods and services produced domestically. Two major purposes are involved in trade protectionism. One is to protect the goods or services produced domestically from the fierce competition by foreign participation. The other is to enhance the competitiveness of the domestic products in the international market by beneficial policies.

The specific reasons for implementing trade protectionism can be summarized as follows:

◆ To keep economic diversity

Many countries are implementing protectionism to keep economic diversity so as to avoid over dependence on other countries both economically and politically.

◆ **To protect infant industries**

Infant industry refers to emerging domestic industries that should be protected until they become stable and mature. Usually, the infant industry is protected in its early stage of development by the preferential policies issued by the country's government. The normal method is to limit or ban the foreign participation in the same area. Nowadays, as service trade such as banking and insurance in most developing countries is still in its infancy, the governments are taking measures to prohibit the engagement of foreign enterprises in this area.

◆ **To protect the vital and strategic business sectors**

The vital and strategic business sectors are closely related to a country's stability and economic development. For many countries, the important business sectors such as transportation, telecommunications, and steel are all under strict control and protection of government.

◆ **To reduce the high pressure of unemployment**

Employment is crucial to a country's stability. Without protection, the flooding in of foreign labor and goods at a low cost will put the workers in certain industries, especially the labor-intensive industry under big pressure of job losses. That's why most governments are making efforts to protect the domestic labor market and create more job opportunities.

Forms of Trade Protectionism

Varieties of methods are used by different countries to restrain foreign trade, mainly including tariff barriers and non-tariff barriers.

◆ **Tariff barriers**

Tariff barriers are the main and typical form of protectionism. Typically, tariffs (or taxes) are imposed on imported goods. Tariff rates usually vary according to the type of goods imported. **Import tariffs** will increase the cost to importers, and increase the price of imported goods in the local markets, thus lowering the quantity of goods imported. Tariffs may also be imposed on exports, and in an economy with floating exchange rates, **export tariffs** have similar effects as import tariffs. However, since export tariffs are often viewed as a negative impact on local industries, while import tariffs are taken as a positive impact on local industries, export tariffs are seldom implemented. Tariff duties levied for income purpose is known as revenue tariff, while those levied for protection is known as protective tariff. As a penalty measure, countervailing duty is levied against bounty or grant during production, transport and export. Anti-dumping duty is also punitive. It is collected when the importing country holds that there is a dumping.

The import tariff duties are mainly levied in three ways: specific, ad valorem and compound.

- ◇ Specific duty is levied per physical unit-according to weight, volume, measurement and quantity, etc.
- ◇ Ad valorem duty is levied according to the value or price of products.
- ◇ Compound duty is a combination of specific duty and ad valorem. It is collected according to either of the two first, then the other.

◆ **Non-tariff barriers**

- ◇ Import quotas

Import quotas are used to reduce the quantity and therefore increase the market price of

imported goods. The economic effect of an import quota is similar to that of a tariff, except that the tax revenue gained from a tariff will instead be distributed to those who receive import licenses. There are two types of import quotas: **absolute quota** and **tariff-rate quota**. Absolute quota sets a limit on the quantity of imports to a specified level during a period of time specified. Tariff quota sets a limit within which low and no duties are levied, otherwise high duties or penalty will be imposed.

◇ Import license

An **import license** is a permit for import granted by the government. It can be independent or combined with quotas.

◇ Exchange rate manipulation

A government may intervene in the foreign exchange market to lower the value of its currency by selling its currency in the foreign exchange market. Doing so will raise the cost of imports and lower the cost of exports, leading to an improvement in its trade balance. However, such a policy is only effective in the short run, as it will most likely lead to inflation in the country, which will in turn raise the cost of exports, and reduce the relative price of imports.

◇ Technical standard barriers

As a new hidden method of import control, technical standard barrier is widely used by governments of countries(usually developed ones) to control import through setting technical standards that foreign countries(usually developing ones) are not familiar with or hard to meet.

◇ Green barriers

Green barriers are also a newly used method for import control. With the excuse of protecting environment and the safety of human beings, a series of strict ecological, health and sanitary standards much higher than those in the developing countries are set as the condition for market access by developed countries to protect their domestic market and industries. Green barriers normally take on two forms: green label and green packing.

◇ Direct subsidies

Government subsidies (in the form of lump-sum payments or cheap loans) are sometimes given to local firms that cannot compete well against imports. These subsidies are purported to protect local jobs, and to help local firms adjust to the world markets.

◇ Export subsidies

Export subsidies are often used by governments to increase exports. Export subsidies are the opposite of export tariffs by which exporters are paid a percentage of the value of their exports. Export subsidies increase the amount of trade, and in a country with floating exchange rates, have effects similar to import subsidies.

NOTES

1. rich in some resources but poor in others 某些资源丰富，但其他资源贫乏。注意：① rich 和 poor 后面用介词 in；② others 此处指 other resources。
2. lack 在此处是及物动词，和宾语 metal reserves 之间不用介词。lack 用作不及物动词时一般以现在分词形式出现。如，He is lacking in courage. 他缺乏勇气。lack 也可用作名词，这时如要表达缺乏的东西，则需在 lack 后面用介词 of。如，Production decreased for lack of raw material. 生产因缺乏原料而下降。
3. farm produce 农产品。produce 此处用作名词，一般用以指农副产品，表达工业产品一般用 products。
4. primary commodities 初级产品，主要指未经加工或仅经初步加工的农、林、牧、渔、矿等产品。
5. there arose another incentive for trade, i. e. international specialization 产生了另一个刺激贸易的因素，即国际专业化。本句中 incentive 是主语，arose 是谓语，there 是引导词。
6. absolute advantage 绝对利益。按照这一理论，一种产品的生产将在生产该产品成本最低的国家内进行，成本包括资本、土地、劳动力等要素。表面看来，这一理论作为生产专业化的基础有很大的吸引力，但真正构成国际贸易思想基础的是比较利益学说（见下一条）。
7. comparative advantage 比较利益，也称 comparative cost 比较成本学说。本学说是由英国著名古典政治经济学家李嘉图提出的。按照这一理论，即使一个国家不具备生产某种产品的绝对利益，它也可以生产对自己相对有利的产品与其他国家交换，从中得到利益。这是构成国际分工的重要理论基础。
8. in terms of 在……方面。
9. capital, land and labour 资本、土地、劳动力，是生产的三要素。
10. per 是“每”的意思，在国际经贸等专业英语中常用，如，15 dollars per kilo 每公斤 15 美元，per capita income 按人口平均收入等。注意在日常英语中一般不用 per，而用 a (an) 或 every, each. 如，He earns 40 dollars a day. 他每天挣 40 美元。另外在商业英语中一般不用 per year 而用 per annum。per month 和 per day 是可以用的，但严格地说该用 per mensem 和 per diem。
11. 5 times less efficient in computers 生产计算机的效率要低五分之四（或……是甲国的五分之一）。注意英语可用倍数表示减少，但汉语却只能用分数表示减少。英语中若说

- n times less than 译成汉语则为“减少了 $(n-1)/n$ ”或“相当于原来的 $1/n$ ”，如，The birth rate is now 4 times lower than 40 years ago. 现在出生率比 40 年前低四分之三。(或：是 40 年前的四分之一)。
12. Where comparative advantage exists 在句中作状语从句，where 为关系副词。可译作“只要存在比较利益”。
13. has a strong intuitive appeal 有很强的直觉吸引力。appeal 此处用作名词，是吸引力，感染力的意思，再如：The singer has a special appeal to young people. 这位歌唱家对青年人有特殊的吸引力。appeal 也常用作动词，表达“呼吁、要求、诉诸”等意，如：appeal to arms 诉诸武力，appeal to arbitration 诉诸仲裁，appeal to somebody for something 为某事向某人呼吁。
14. David Ricardo 大卫·李嘉图 (1772—1823) 英国著名经济学家，是使经济学系统化的最早思想家。其代表作为《政治经济学及赋税原理》。他进一步发展了亚当·斯密的《地域分工论》，提出了以“比较成本说”为核心的国际贸易理论。他的这一学说及其以后对该学说的补充、发展，被称为“国际贸易纯理论”或“一般理论”。
15. makes more sense 更有意义。短语 make sense 是“讲得通”“有意义”的意思。如，What he said does not make any sense. 他说的话毫无意义。
16. economies of scale 规模经济，指企业采用大规模生产而使生产过程变得更加经济的行为，反映了生产要素的集中程度与经济效益之间的关系。这个概念有时也用单数来表达，即 economy of scale。
17. if each were... 这里使用了虚拟语气。动词 be 在虚拟的条件句中，不管人称如何，一般均用 were。最常见的例子是 if I were you... 假如我是你的话。
18. reasonable costs 合理的成本。
19. the question which countries will produce what goods. 哪个国家生产什么商品的问题。which 后面引导的从句与 question 是同位语关系。
20. highlighted 此处用作及物动词，是“强调”“使……突出”的意思。这个词也常用作名词，原意是画面光线最强处，引申为最精彩、最重要的部分。例如：The highlight of his speech was on the trade prospect of the two countries. 他的讲话中最突出的部分谈到了两国的贸易前景。
21. take into account other factors 考虑其他因素。
22. affected 虽然可译作“影响”，但不能换用 influence，因 affect 作“影响”解释时，其实质是“妨碍”的含义。再如：The climate affected agricultural production. 气候影响了农业生产。(实指使生产下降)而 influence 含义是对……的性格、思想、行为产生作用。
23. tariff barriers, 关税壁垒。直接用关税手段来限制输入，通过征收高额进口税、进口附

加税、差价税等来保护本国的竞争能力。关贸总协定的减税谈判，削弱了关税壁垒的作用，但它仍是国家间贸易战的重要武器。

24. Customs Area 关税区，关税领域。一般说来是与一个国家的领域相一致的。但有的国家内有自由港、自由区或保税仓库，这些均不在该国关税区范围内。还有的国家组成关税同盟，那么这些国家就组成统一的关税领域。
25. Customs Union, 关税同盟。两个或多个国家缔约建立统一的关税，对内取消相互间的进口关税，实现内部商品自由流通；对外实行统一的关税，这样的联盟即为关税同盟。
26. Import duties may be either specific, or ad valorem, or a combination of the two-compound duties. specific duties, 从量税，以商品的重量、数量、容量、长度、面积等计征的关税；ad valorem duties 从价税，以商品的价格为标准征收的关税；compound duties 混合税、复合税，英语也称 mixed duties, 对同税目的商品，同时按从价和从量两种税率计征的关税。
27. drawback 退税。指国家为鼓励出口，对于已纳税的进口原料经国内加工制成成品再出口，全部或大部分退还进口税的做法。
28. most-favoured-nation treatment 最惠国待遇，是发展正常贸易，消除贸易歧视的手段。它通常指缔约国双方在通商、航海、关税、公民法律地位等方面相互给予的不低于现时或将来给予任何第三国的优惠、特权或豁免待遇。最惠国待遇并不是真正的特殊优惠待遇，它只是使享受此待遇的国家不受歧视而已。
29. non-tariff barriers 非关税壁垒，指关税之外的一切直接或间接限制进口的法规和措施，如进口限额等。随着关税壁垒在贸易保护中的作用减弱，非关税壁垒逐渐被广泛采用。
30. without reference to countries 不论国家，与国家无关。短语 without reference to 是 irrespective(不论及)，having no connections with (与……无关)之意。再如: all the people, without reference to age or sex 所有人，不论男女老少。
31. Lloyd's 劳合社。英国的保险组织，但其本身不直接经营保险业务，只是为其会员提供办理保险事务的营业所。劳合社对世界保险市场的制度和活动有着重大影响。
32. yet another 又一个。列举时用 over another 后，再出现项目时往往用 yet another 来表达。
33. meriting attention 值得注意。在本句中是现在分词短语作 trade 的后置定语。Merit 在此处是及物动词，作 deserve, be worthy of 解。