



# Unit 11. International Trade

## TASK 1. UNDERSTANDING A PRINTED TEXT (1)

The following text will introduce you to the topic of **international trade**. Look at the way it is divided into sections and paragraphs. Pay attention to the headings and notes in the margin.

### International trade

**1** International trade is part of daily life. Britons drink French wine, Americans drive Japanese cars and Russians eat American wheat. There are two reasons why trade between the UK and Japan differs from trade between London and Birmingham.

First, because international trade crosses national frontiers, governments can monitor this trade and treat it differently. It is hard to tax or regulate goods moving from London to Birmingham but much easier to impose taxes or quota restrictions on goods imported from Taiwan or Japan. Governments have to decide whether or not such policies are desirable.

Second, international trade may involve the use of different national currencies. A British buyer of American wine pays in sterling but the American vineyard worker is paid in dollars. International trade involves international payments.

**2** We will concentrate on trade flows and trade policy. Who trades with whom and in what commodities? Why does international trade take place? Countries trade with one another because they can buy foreign goods at a lower price than it costs to make the same goods at home.

Is it possible for all countries? International trade reflects *exchange* and *specialization*. International differences in the availability of raw materials and other factors of production lead to international differences in production costs and goods prices. Through international trade, countries supply the world economy with the commodities that they produce relatively cheaply and demand from the world economy goods made relatively cheaply elsewhere.

These benefits from trade are reinforced if there are scale economies in production. Instead of each country having a lot of small producers, different countries concentrate on different things and everyone can benefit from the cost reductions that ensue.

**3** We discuss the benefits from international trade and examine whether our analysis can explain the trade flows that actually take place. There are many circumstances in which international trade can make countries better off, but trade can also carry costs, especially in the short run. Cheap foreign cars are great for British consumers but less good for unemployed UK car workers.

Because foreign competition makes life difficult for some voters, governments are frequently under pressure to restrict imports.

**Trade patterns**

**4** Every international transaction has both a buyer and a seller. One country's imports are another country's exports. To measure how much trade occurs we can measure the total value of exports by all countries or the total value of imports. Table 12-1 shows the value of world exports and, as a benchmark, the value relative to GNP in the world's largest single economy, the United States.

**Table 12-1. The value of world exports**

|                    | 1928 | 1935 | 1950 | 1973 | 2003 |
|--------------------|------|------|------|------|------|
| World exports      |      |      |      |      |      |
| (billion of 1990£) | 277  | 117  | 176  | 931  | 7422 |
| (% of US GNP)      | 57   | 27   | 20   | 40   | 71   |

*Sources: League of Nations, Europe's Trade, Geneva, 1941; IMF, International Financial Statistics; National Income Accounts of the United States, 1928-49*

**5** World trade has grown rapidly since 1950, at an average annual rate of 7.4 per cent. International trade is ever more important to national economies. Between 1960 and 2000, UK exports as a fraction of GNP rose from

18 to 32 per cent. Details for selected countries are shown in Table 12-2. World exports are now around 20 per cent of world GNP.

**Table 12-2. Exports as % of GDP**

|             | 1967 | 2003 |
|-------------|------|------|
| Belgium     | 36   | 85   |
| Netherlands | 43   | 67   |
| UK          | 18   | 28   |
| France      | 14   | 29   |
| Italy       | 17   | 28   |
| USA         | 5    | 11   |
| Japan       | 10   | 11   |

*Source: OECD, Economic Outlook*

The Great Depression of the 1930s and the Second World War virtually destroyed international trade. Measured relative to US GDP, it was not until the 1960s that world trade regained its level of 1928.

**6** As trade has grown, both in absolute terms and relative to the size of national economies, the interdependence of national economies has increased. Like many of the countries in table 12-2, Britain is now a very open economy. Smaller countries are usually more open. Trade between Paris and Brussels is international but trade between New York and California is not. Events in other countries affect our daily lives much more than they did 20 years ago. We now look at the facts about who trades with whom.

**World trade patterns**

**7** Table 12-3 shows the pattern of trade. The industrial or developed countries include Western Europe, North America, Japan, Australia and New Zealand, the rich countries with the largest share of world trade and world income. The remaining countries are the less developed countries (LDCs) – with low per capita incomes – ranging from the very poor, such as China and India, to nearly rich, such as Brazil.

Table 12-3 shows that half of world trade is between rich, industrial countries. Only 27 per cent does not involve these countries at all. World trade is organized around the rich countries.



**The commodity composition of trade**

8 In rich countries, services are most of value added or GDP. International trade in services is growing rapidly but from a small baseline. Trade in goods – or merchandise trade – remains important because many countries import goods, add a little value and then re-export them. The value added makes a small contribution to GDP but gross flows of imports and exports of goods are large. By importing goods, adding a little value and re-exporting, it is even possible that the value of exports exceeds the value of GDP itself.

9 Table 12-4 distinguishes between primary commodities (agricultural commodities, minerals and fuels) and manufactured or processed commodities (chemicals, steel, cars). Primary products fell from 50.5 per cent of world trade in 1955 to only 24.9 per cent in 2002. In contrast, the share of manufactures in world trade rose by over 25 per cent.

Although the EU mainly exports manufactures, Table 12-5 shows that primary products are a fifth of EU exports. The EU has to import many raw materials but imports of wholly or partly finished manufactures are three-quarters of EU imports. US trade shows the same pattern.

10 Asian countries export fewer primary products and import more primary products than the EU or North America. Asia concentrates heavily on exports of manufactures: in Europe we buy lots of products from Sony, Canon, Mitsubishi and Daewoo.

**World trade: the issues**

11 Tables 12-1 to 12-5 set out the facts. World trade has grown faster than world income and is increasingly important. Half of all international trade is between rich,

industrial countries, which are also the main export market for LDCs. A fifth of world trade is in primary products, the rest in manufactures. These facts help explain some of the key issues in world trade.

**12 Raw material prices**

LDCs claim that industrial countries exploit them by buying raw materials at a low price and returning manufactured goods at a much higher price. Producers of coffee, sugar, copper and many other products would like to be able to copy OPEC and triple the price of their primary products without suffering a significant reduction in the quantities demanded.

**13 Agricultural protection**

Farmers in rich countries not only receive agricultural subsidies, such as those through the EU Common Agricultural Policy, but also enjoy protection behind high tariffs on imported farm goods. LDCs complain that exclusion of their exports from the richest markets not merely reduces the quantity of what they can sell but also forces down the price when all their supply must be absorbed in the remaining world markets to which they have access.

**Table 12-3. Trade patterns, 2002**  
(% of world exports)

|                    | Rich | Origin LDCs |
|--------------------|------|-------------|
| <b>Destination</b> |      |             |
| Rich countries     | 37   | 20          |
| LDCs               | 16   | 27          |

Source: WTO, *International Trade Statistics*.

**Table 12-4. The composition of world exports**

| % share of           | 1955 | 2002 |
|----------------------|------|------|
| Primary commodities: | 50.5 | 24.9 |
| Food, agriculture    | 22.3 | 19.3 |
| Fuels                | 11.2 | 9.8  |
| Other minerals       | 3.8  | 1    |
| Manufacture          | 49.5 | 75.1 |

Source: WTO, *International Trade Statistics*.

**Table 12-5. Trade patterns, early 2000s**

|                     | EU   | N.America | Asia |
|---------------------|------|-----------|------|
| <b>% of exports</b> |      |           |      |
| Primary             | 19.3 | 23.1      | 16.4 |
| Manufacture         | 80.7 | 76.9      | 83.6 |
| <b>% of imports</b> |      |           |      |
| Primary             | 24.3 | 21.5      | 28.9 |
| Manufacture         | 75.7 | 78.5      | 71.1 |

Source: WTO, *International Trade Statistics*.

**14 Manufactured exports from LDCs**

LDCs want to make their own manufactured goods and export them to the industrial countries. Brazil, Mexico and Korea already have major manufacturing industries. But exports to industrial countries have led to complaints in industrial countries that jobs are being threatened by competition from cheap foreign labour.

In some industries, such as cars and steel, established firms in Europe and the US are being undercut by producers in East Asia. Should Asian exports be restricted to prevent massive job losses in Western Europe and North America, or should rich countries take advantage of low costs in Asia?

**15 Globalization**

Lower transport costs and better information technology are gradually breaking down the segmentation of national markets and increasing competition between countries. This trend has been reinforced by reductions in tariffs as a matter of policy. Sometimes the pace of change has been rapid.

However, poor countries feel that the process is largely dictated by rich countries according to their own self-interest. LDCs feel pressurized to dismantle their own tariffs and allow in foreign investors, while rich countries remain reluctant to pay attention to concerns of LDCs. By raising the demand for LDC exports, reducing agricultural protection in rich countries might do more to help LDCs than the entire programme of foreign aid.

**TASK 2. CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING**

Now read the text carefully, looking up any new items in a dictionary or reference book. Then answer the following questions:

1.

**TASK 3. PRONUNCIATION DRILL – TEXT 1**

|                       |             |             |             |           |
|-----------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-----------|
| international         | Britons     | Birmingham  | quota       | vineyard  |
| specialization        | Brussels    | daily lives | merchandise |           |
| processed commodities | chemicals   | to import   | imports     |           |
| to export             | exports     | wholly      | subsidies   | exclusion |
| access                | pressurized | dismantle   | reluctant   |           |

**TASK 4. VOCABULARY WORK – TEXT 1**

4.1

Find the following English word-combinations in Text 1 and translate them into Russian:

to impose quota restrictions on  
 to reinforce the benefits  
 scale economies  
 to carry costs  
 as a benchmark  
 world trade patterns  
 the commodity composition of trade  
 manufactured or processed commodities  
 wholly or partly finished manufactures

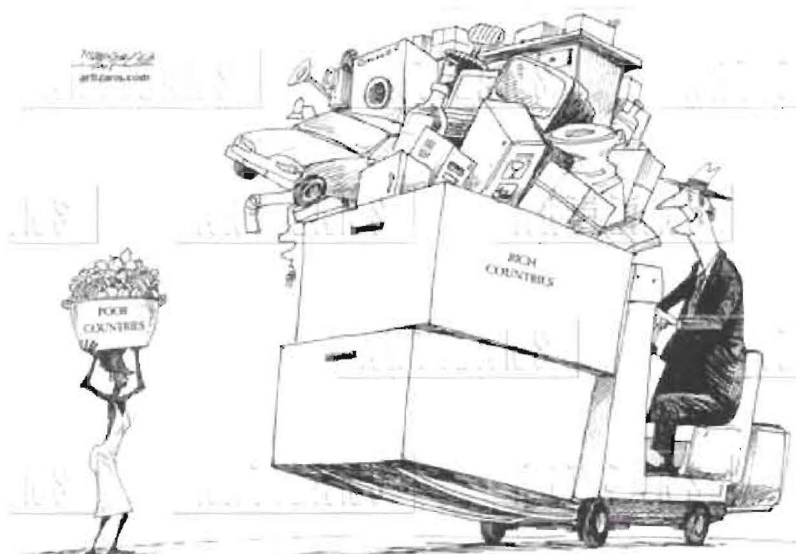
to suffer a significant reduction  
 to enjoy protection behind high tariffs  
 to force down the price  
 to be undercut by producers in East Asia  
 take advantage of low costs  
 to break down the segmentation of national markets  
 as a matter of policy  
 to dismantle tariffs  
 to allow in foreign investors

4.2

Find in Text 1 English equivalents to the following words and word combinations:

пересекать государственные границы  
 внешнеторговые потоки  
 ограничивать импорт  
 вырасти в абсолютном выражении  
 взаимозависимость национальных экономик  
 развивающиеся страны  
 международная торговля услугами  
 торговля товарами (2)  
 основные виды сырья

основной экспортный рынок  
 получать субсидии на развитие сельского хозяйства  
 Единая сельскохозяйственная политика ЕЭС  
 предотвратить массовые увольнения  
 темп перемен  
 испытывать давление  
 международные программы помощи





**TASK 6. UNDERSTANDING A PRINTED TEXT (2)**

Read the following text carefully, looking up anything you do not understand.

**Good and bad arguments for tariffs**

**1** Table 12-6 lists some of these arguments. We group them under several headings. The first-best argument is a case where a tariff is the best way to achieve a given objective. Second-best arguments are cases where a tariff is better than nothing, but where there is another policy it is better still if it can be implemented. Non-arguments are partly or completely fallacious.

Table 12-6. Arguments for tariffs

| Type         | Example   |
|--------------|---|
| First-best   | Foreign trade monopoly                                      |
| Second-best  | Way of life, anti-luxury, infant industry, defence, revenue |
| Strategic    | Games against foreigners                                    |
| Non-argument | Cheap foreign labour  |

**2 The optimal tariff: the first-best argument for tariffs**

In presenting the case for free trade, we were careful to assume that the domestic economy can import as many cars as it wished without bidding up the world price of cars. For a small economy this is a reasonable assumption. However, imports by a large country may be large relative to the world market and bid up the world price of those commodities.

In this case, the world price of the last unit imported is *lower* than the true cost of the last unit to the importing economy. In demanding another unit of imports, the economy raises the price it has to pay on the quantity already being imported. But in a free trade world without tariffs, each individual thinks only about the price he or she pays. No single individual bids up the price but collectively they bid up the price of imports.

**3** Under free trade, each individual buys imports until the benefit to that individual equals the world price he or she pays. Since the collective cost of the last import exceeds its world price, the social cost of that import exceeds the benefit. There are too many imports. Society gains by restricting imports until the benefit of the last import equals its social cost.

When imports affect the world price, the *optimal tariff* reduces imports to the level at which social marginal cost equals social marginal benefit.

A small country's imports have no effect on the world price of its imports. The marginal social cost of imports then equals the world price. Then, and only then, is the optimal tariff zero. Free trade is then first best.

The optimal tariff is a straightforward application of the principles of efficient resource allocation discussed earlier.

**4 Second-best arguments for tariffs**

We now introduce the principle of targeting.

The *principle of targeting* says that the most efficient way to attain a given objective is to use a policy influencing that activity directly.

The optimal tariff is a first-best application of the principle of targeting precisely because the source of the problem is a divergence between social and private marginal costs in trade itself. A tariff on trade is the most efficient solution. The arguments for tariffs that we now examine are all second-best arguments because the original source of the problem does not directly lie in trade. The principle of targeting assures us that there are ways to solve these problems at a lower net social cost.

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### 5 Way of life

Suppose society wishes to help inefficient farmers or craft industries. It believes that the old way of life, or sense of community, should be preserved. It levies tariffs to protect such groups from foreign competition.

There is a cheaper way to attain this objective. A tariff helps domestic producers but hurts domestic consumers through higher prices. A production subsidy would still keep farmers in business and, by tackling the problem directly, would avoid hurting consumers. In terms of Figure 12-1, triangle A shows the net social cost of subsidizing domestic producers so they can produce  $Q'$ s rather than  $Q$ s. But a tariff, the second-best solution, also involves the social cost given by the triangle B.

### 6 Suppressing luxuries

Some poor countries believe it is wrong to allow their few rich citizens to buy Rolls-Royces or luxury yachts when society needs its resources to stop people starving. A tariff on imports of luxuries reduces their consumption but, by raising the domestic price, may also provide an incentive for domestic producers to use scarce resources to produce them. A consumption tax tackles the problem directly and is more efficient.

### 7 Defence

Some countries believe that, in case there is a war, it is important to preserve domestic industries that produce food or jet fighters. Again, a production subsidy rather than an import tariff is the most efficient way to meet this objective.

### 8 Infant industries

A common argument for a tariff is that it allows infant industries to get started. Suppose there is *learning by doing*. Only by actually being in business do firms learn how to reduce costs and become as efficient as foreign competitors. A tariff provides protection to infant industries until they master the business and can compete on equal terms with more experienced foreign suppliers.

Society should invest in new industries only if they are socially profitable in the long run. The long-run benefits must outweigh the initial losses during the period when the infant industry is producing at a higher cost than the goods could have been obtained through imports. But in the absence of any divergence between private and social costs or benefits, an industry will be socially profitable only if it is privately profitable.

9 If the industry is such a good idea in the long run, society should begin by asking why private firms cannot borrow the money to see them through the early period when they are losing out to more efficient foreign firms. If private lenders are not prepared to risk their money, society should ask whether the industry is such a good idea after all. And if the industry does make sense but there is a problem in the market for lending, the principle of targeting says that the government should intervene by lending money to private firms.

Failing this, a production subsidy during the initial years is still better than a tariff, which also penalizes consumers. The worst outcome of all is the imposition of a permanent tariff, which allows the industry to remain sheltered and less efficient than its foreign competitors long after the benefits of learning-by-doing are supposed to have been achieved.



**10 Revenue**

In the eighteenth century, most government revenue came from tariffs. Administratively, it was the simplest tax to collect. Today this is still true in some developing countries. But in modern economies with sophisticated systems of accounting and administration, the administrative costs of raising revenue through tariffs are not lower than the costs of raising revenue through income taxes or taxes on expenditure. The balance of tax collection should be determined chiefly by the extent to which taxes induce distortions, inefficiency and waste, and the extent to which they bring about the distribution of income and wealth desired by the government. The need to raise revenue is not a justification for tariffs themselves.

**11 Strategic trade policy**

In analysing strategic conflict between oligopolists game theory is useful. In international trade, strategic rivalry may exist either between the giant firms or 'national champions' of different countries, or between governments acting on their behalf. Strategic international competition may justify industrial policy. For example, initial government subsidies to the European aircraft producer Airbus Industrie were a pre-commitment to deter Boeing from trying to force Airbus out of the industry.

Similar considerations arise in trade policy. Levying a tariff on imports, thereby protecting domestic producers, may deter foreigners from attempting a price war to force the domestic producers out of the industry and may prevent foreign producers from entering the industry.

**12** This sounds like a very general and robust argument for tariffs but it should be viewed with considerable caution. If it is attractive for one country to impose tariffs for this purpose, it may be as attractive for foreigners to retaliate with tariffs of their own. We then reach an equilibrium in which little trade takes place, domestic giants have huge monopoly power since they no longer face effective competition from foreigners, and all countries suffer.

All countries may be led to impose tariffs even though all would be better off if they were abolished. This suggests there is a role for international co-operation to agree on, and subsequently enforce low tariffs.

**13 Dumping**

*Dumping* occurs when foreign producers sell at prices below their marginal production cost, either by making losses or with the assistance of government subsidies.

Although the preceding discussion relates to tariffs, it can also be applied to trade subsidies.

Domestic producers say this is unfair and demand a tariff to protect them from foreign competition. If we knew foreign suppliers would supply cheap goods indefinitely, we should say thank you, close down our more expensive industry, and put our resources to work elsewhere. To this extent dumping is a non-argument for a tariff.

**14** However, foreign producers may be engaged in predatory pricing meant to drive our producers out of the industry. Once the foreigners achieve monopoly power in world markets, they raise prices and make big profits. If so, it may be wise for our government to resist. Even so, a production subsidy is the efficient way to **insulate** our producers from this threat. A tariff has the undesirable side effect of distorting consumer prices.



### 15 Non-arguments for tariffs

#### Cheap foreign labour

Home producers frequently argue that tariffs are needed to protect them from cheap foreign labour. Yet the whole point of trade is to exploit international differences in the relative prices of different goods. If the domestic economy is relatively well endowed with capital, it benefits from trade precisely because its exports of capital-intensive goods allow it to purchase more labour-intensive goods from abroad than would have been obtained by diverting domestic resources to production of labour-intensive goods.

As technology and relative factor endowments change over time, countries' comparative advantage alters. In the nineteenth century Britain exported Lancashire textiles all over the world. But textile production is relatively labour-intensive. Once the countries of South-East Asia acquired the technology, it was inevitable that their relatively abundant labour endowment would give them a comparative advantage in producing textiles.

*Comparative advantage* means a country makes the good relatively more cheaply than it makes other goods, whether or not it has an absolute advantage. *Absolute advantage* means the country is the lowest cost producer of that good.

**16** New technology frequently gives a country a temporary comparative advantage in particular products. As time elapses, other countries acquire the technology, and relative factor endowments and relative factor costs become a more important determinant of comparative advantage. Inevitably, the domestic producers who have lost their comparative advantage start complaining about competition from imports using cheap foreign labour.

In the long run the country as a whole will benefit by facing facts, recognizing that its comparative advantage has changed, and transferring production to the industries in which it now has a comparative advantage. And our analysis of comparative advantage promises us that there *must* be some industry in which each country has a comparative advantage. In the long run, trying to use tariffs to prop up industries that have lost their comparative advantage is futile and costly.

Of course, in the short run the adjustment may be painful. Workers lose their jobs and must start afresh in industries where they do not have years of experience and acquire skills. But the principle of targeting tells us that, if society wants to smooth this transition, some kind of retraining or relocation subsidy is more efficient than a tariff.

### 17 Why do we have tariffs?

Aside from the optimal tariff argument, there is little to be said in favour of tariffs. Economists have been arguing against them for well over a century. Why are tariffs still so popular?

#### Concentrated benefits, diffuse costs

A tariff on a particular commodity helps a particular industry. It is easy for firms and workers in an industry to organize effective political pressure, for they can all agree that this single issue is central to their livelihood, at least in the short run. But if the tariff is imposed, the cost in higher consumer prices is borne by a much larger and more diverse group of people whom it is much harder to organize politically. Hence, politicians heed the vociferous, well-organized group lobbying *for* tariffs, especially if they are geographically concentrated in an area where, by voting together, they have a significant effect on the outcome of the next election.

**18 Tariffs versus subsidies**

Why does government assistance often take the form of tariffs rather than production subsidies, frequently more appropriate? First, because if domestic industry is suffering from imports of Japanese goods, the solution seems to be to do something that hurts Japan directly. Second, because the government would have to raise taxes to finance a production subsidy. A tariff is often politically easier because it seems to **augment** government revenues (raising hopes of an income tax cut), whereas a subsidy seems to deplete government revenues (raising fears of higher tax rates). You now know that a tariff hits consumers directly by raising the domestic price of the good, but the government may be able to **invoke** impersonal 'market forces'. Tariffs cause the government less political hassle.

**TASK 7. CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING**

Answer the following questions:

1.

**TASK 8. PRONUNCIATION DRILL – TEXT 2**

|            |            |               |            |           |
|------------|------------|---------------|------------|-----------|
| fallacious | targeting  | divergence    | subsidy    | triangle  |
|            | outweigh   | justification | strategic  | rivalry   |
| deter      | caution    | retaliate     | dumping    | predatory |
|            | insulate   | endowed       | Lancashire | futile    |
| diverse    | politician | vociferous    | augment    | hassle    |

**TASK 9. VOCABULARY WORK – TEXT 2**

9.1

**Find the following English word-combinations in Text 2 and translate them into Russian:**

|   |   |
|---|---|
| first-best argument                               | justification for tariffs                       |
| second-best arguments                             | 'national champions' of different countries     |
| principle of targeting                            | to deter foreigners from attempting a price war |
| to tackle the problem directly                    | to be engaged in predatory pricing              |
| to suppress luxuries                              | to insulate producers from the threat           |
| infant industries                                 | to exploit international differences            |
| learning by doing                                 | to be well endowed with capital                 |
| to see a firm through the early period            | capital-intensive goods                         |
| to remain sheltered                               | as time elapses                                 |
| to induce distortions, inefficiency and waste     | to smooth the transition                        |
| to bring about the desired distribution of income | to be central to sb's livelihood                |

9.2

**Find in Text 2 English equivalents to the following collocations:**

|   |  |
|---|--|
| совершенно ошибочный  | вытеснять отечественных производителей из отрасли (2)            |
| излагать доводы в пользу  | нанести ответный удар в виде тарифов                             |
| в условиях свободной торговли   | вся суть торговли заключается в...                               |
| ограничивать импорт   | трудоемкие товары  |
| предельные издержки для общества  | обеспеченность факторами производства                            |
| предельная общественная выгода  | сравнительное преимущество                                       |
| непосредственное применение принципа                                    | (искусственно) поддерживать отрасли                              |
| расхождения между издержками общества и частными предельными издержками | начать заново  |
| причина проблемы кроется в  | дотация на переподготовку или переезд                            |
| кустарное/ремесленное производство                                      | оказывать значительное влияние на результаты предстоящих выборов |
| сохранить чувство общности (принадлежности к данному сообществу)        | увеличить государственные доходы                                 |
| оградить от конкуренции со стороны иностранных компаний                 | истощать государственные поступления                             |
| конкурировать на равных условиях  | вызывать страхи  |
| проигрывать иностранным компаниям                                       | ссылаться на безликие 'рыночные силы'                            |
| действовать от имени  | привести к разногласиям среди политиков                          |



## 10.3

Explain whether the following statements are true or false.

1. When Argentina began to export beef in increasing quantities, U.S. exports fell; this shows that some countries may be made absolutely worse off through international trade.
2. As long as the world price of a commodity is below the home country's equilibrium price, there will be some imports into the domestic market.
3. When a tariff is imposed on an import, there is a transfer of revenue from the government to producers.
4. The law of comparative advantage holds without question for the simple two-good, two-country case; however it breaks down when there are many goods and many countries.
5. Most economists are opposed to tariffs because tariffs interfere with free trade.
6. When quotas are imposed on imported goods, domestic producers are removed from the threat of foreign competition.
7. If a country is more productive in every sector than a neighboring country, then there is no benefit in trading with the neighboring country.
8. Beginning with a free trade equilibrium and imposing an import tariff, increases the domestic price of imports leading to monetary transfers and to pure waste.
9. Tariffs always distort trade and are never justified.
10. Export subsidies do not involve waste.

## 10.4

Translate into English:

1. В последние 40 лет мировая торговля быстро росла, при этом в ней доминируют промышленно развитые страны.
2. Примерно 25% мировой торговли приходится на основные виды сырья (полезные ископаемые, продукцию сельского хозяйства, топливо), остальное составляют промышленные товары.
3. Структура торговли в различных странах весьма разнообразна. Более бедные развивающиеся страны склонны экспортировать продукты питания и сырье, а импортировать — промышленные товары. Индустриальные страны, например Япония, импортируют сырьевые товары и экспортируют продукцию перерабатывающей промышленности, в Соединенных Штатах существенна доля сырьевых товаров как в импорте, так и в экспорте.
4. Страны торгуют между собой, потому что они могут покупать товары у других стран по более дешевой цене. Разница в издержках производства возникает в результате различий в методах производства и доступности факторов производства. Кроме того, экономия от масштаба делает специализацию производства эффективной.
5. В условиях, когда новые технологии стремительно «пересекают границы», относительно высокая капиталовооруженность является основной причиной различий в относительных издержках. Страны производят и экспортируют те товары, для производства которых интенсивно используются ресурсы, имеющиеся в относительном изобилии.
6. Внутриотраслевая торговля обусловлена экономией от масштаба и тем, что потребители предпочитают разнообразие. За счет производства для мирового рынка у фирм снижаются производственные издержки. Потребители извлекают выгоду, получая возможность выбора между импортируемыми и отечественными товарами.
7. Мировая торговля порождает конфликты между интересами потребителей и производителей. Дешевый импорт выгоден потребителю, но наносит ущерб отечественному производителю. Субсидии экспорту выгодны для производителя, но вредят потребителю.
8. Тариф увеличивает отечественную цену импортируемых товаров. Он препятствует росту потребления, но увеличивает объем отечественного производства. Импорт сокращается как в результате того, что

совокупное потребление товаров падает, так и в результате того, что отечественное производство увеличивается.

9. За последние 40 лет тарифы и другие нетарифные барьеры значительно сократились. Торговый протекционизм дорого обходится обществу, но правительство часто прибегает к нему, так как, с политической точки зрения, он проще и выгоднее.

10.5

Read the text carefully. Point out the essential problems touched upon. Suggest a plan of the text in the form of statements in English. Summarize the text in English. The following word-combinations can be of use:

## Вопрос чести

### Йенс Харманн Die Welt

*Кремль делает ставки на членство России в ВТО – между притязаниями и реальным положением вещей зияет пропасть*

Иван Федоров не отвечает на электронные послания, до него невозможно дозвониться, а его фотографии не найдешь ни в одной газете. Федоров, человек без голоса и лица, несмотря на все это, является одним из самых успешных предпринимателей в России. Он владеет сайтом Allofmp3.com. Сервис по скачиванию музыкальных файлов с офисом в Москве составляет серьезную конкуренцию iTunes.

На этом англоязычном сайте любители музыки найдут неограниченный ассортимент всевозможных альбомов и песен. За 1,07 доллара можно приобрести, к примеру, CD такого исполнителя, как Sportfreunde Stiller под названием "You have to win Zweikampf". Цена зависит от величины скачиваемого файла. В среднем, одну песню можно скачать за 10 центов. Для сравнения: iTunes требует за аналогичные услуги 99 центов. Иногда количество клиентов Федорова доходит до 500 тыс. человек в месяц.

Сильно. Но незаконно. "История глобального успеха", – называет все это International Herald Tribune и добавляет: "За исключением одной важной детали: деятельность сайта, скорее всего, противоречит закону".

"Это беспрецедентный случай того, как пиратский интернет-сайт открыто существует столь продолжительное время", – сетует Нейл Туркович, вице-президент Recording Industry Association of America. Обычно молчаливый Федоров возражает на это, что он не нарушал никаких законов.

Если Федоров до настоящего времени полагался на поддержку судебной системы и милиции, то в скором времени политика может отказать ему в благосклонности. Ежегодно Федоров и Со. наносят индустрии развлечений США ущерб в размере нескольких миллиардов долларов. Поэтому деятельность сайта Allofmp3.com стала одной из тем на переговорах между торговым представителем

США Сьюзан Шваб и министром экономического развития и торговли РФ Германом Грефом по поводу вступления России во Всемирную торговую организацию.

США являются последней страной, которая не дала своего согласия на вступление России в ВТО. Наряду с усовершенствованием защиты интеллектуальной собственности Америка требует от России либерализации финансовых рынков, честного доступа к рынку для иностранных представителей авиационной промышленности, либерализации нефтяного и газового сектора, а также стремления к уступкам в аграрном вопросе.

Россия является последней промышленно развитой страной, которая еще не вступила в ряды ВТО. Переговоры о вступлении начались еще при президенте Борисе Ельцине в 1993 году. Его преемник Владимир Путин 13 лет спустя хочет сделать Россию 150-м членом Всемирной торговой организации.

При этом Россия, не будучи членом ВТО, является величиной в международной торговле. В прошлом году оборот от внешней торговли составил 370,4 млрд долларов, что на 33,2% больше, чем в 2004 году. Чистая прибыль составила 118 млрд долларов.

Экспортный микс выглядит следующим образом: 63,9% составляет экспорт нефти и газа, 14% приходится на металл, 3,4% – на продукцию деревообрабатывающей и целлюлозно-бумажной промышленности, 5,6% – на технику, оборудование и транспортные средства, 5,9% – на химическую продукцию. Структура импорта выглядит так: 44% – это техника и оборудование, 17,7% – сельхозпродукция и продукты питания, 16,5% – продукция химической промышленности. Страна, богатая природными ресурсами, имеет такую же структуру внешней торговли, как развивающаяся страна.