（第三版）

新编外经贸英语函电与谈判

BUSINESS CORRESPONDENCE AND DIALOGUES

◎ 戚云方 编著

ENGLISH

ZHEJIANG UNIVERSITY PRESS
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新编前言

本社于2002年在原《外贸英语(函电与谈判)》的基础上，由编著者戚云方重新编著《新编外经贸英语函电与谈判》(*Business Correspondence and Dialogues*)并列入本社出版的21世纪外经贸英语系列丛书（21st Century Practical Business English Series)。该书于2007年再版时作了增删、修改和更新，至今发行量达20余万册。

随着世界经济全球化，特别是信息技术突飞猛进，电子商务的兴起，国际贸易亦产生变革，为了适应潮流，根据读者中肯的建议，并征得作者的同意，为本书修订更新。

本次修订原则上保持前10个单元的体例，概括了一个完整的国际贸易活动，作为精读课文(Intensive Reading)；将第11、12和13单元（电子商务英语、电报与电传、市场报导）归入泛读性的辅助课文（Supplementary Reading)。新版中前10个单元增添了电子邮件（e-mail)在外经贸实务中的表达方式、词汇和短语练习以及精选的中英对照的句子等内容，同时还补充了一些相关阅读材料(Additional Reading)。新版增添了信息量，增强了教材的实用性，同时作者对某些内容亦作了些许删改。

恳切希望广大读者和专家学者不吝赐教，使本书不断完善。

浙江大学出版社

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前　言

从世界经济学观点来看全球贸易，现阶段世界市场已经形成。这个标志是，世界各国的经济相互依存的程度日益加深，各国生产和消费具有世界性。21 世纪，全球化经济（即资源配置、生产布局和产品调配全球化）以及金融投资、保险等会越来越向纵深发展。

我国实行对外开放，发展市场经济，加入世界贸易组织，对外经济贸易有了很大发展，规模日益扩大。同时，由于拥有丰富的自然资源和人力资源，随着经济建设的加速发展，我国已成为世界上引人注目的经济技术合作与投资的热点。

形势要求造就大批对外经济贸易活动方面的人才。编写本书的目的是要使广大读者了解国际贸易实务的流程，熟悉国际贸易中的英语术语和表达方法；与已从事对外经济和国际贸易业务者进一步探讨对外经济贸易成功的经营策略与谈判技巧；帮助擅长于某一专业的读者既学英语，又熟悉外贸。

全书共有 13 个单元。在正式课文前，有一“绪言”(Introductory Remarks)，用较口语化的英语简要地介绍了国际贸易的概念、历史、理论、程序和跨国公司。在每个单元前摘编有名言警句，供读者欣赏。在每个单元的最后，用英语编写了“Remarks”，配有问题，供讨论，以加深对课文内容的理解。前 10 课按国际贸易程序分为建立业务关系、询价报价、价格争议、订货、付款方式、合同、交货与装运、保险、索赔与代理等单元。这 10 个单元包括了整个对外贸易活动，其间插入电报内容，以供参阅。后两课专门介绍了国际商业电报与电传、商品市场、股市和期货等知识。

课文按书信、对话、练习的体例编写。为使读者了解实用书信的体例，书中采用了多种书信格式。对话主要围绕书信中的主题进行口头表达。为便于读者使用，对贸易术语作了详尽的注释。在电报与电传单元中，介绍了国际商业电报的种类，字数计算方法，标点符号用法，通用缩写字、复合字及替换字用法，以及电文中的语法现象和电传的使用。尽管由于互联网的迅猛发展，电子商务方兴未艾，大有用e-mail取代商业电报的趋势，但作为国际贸易中的一种经典手段，掌握商业电报的有关知识，还是很必要的。在市场报导单元中，介绍了市场报导的写法，并举实例说明。

本书为“21 世纪实用外经贸英语丛书”中的一本，在该丛书的另一本《新编外经贸英语写作与套语》中，作者详细介绍了英语书信的重要写作原则和新颖用语，对本书是一种补充，两书可称为姐妹篇。因此，若将本书与该书配合使用，效果会更好。

愿本书成为有志于从事国际贸易的人士和自学者的良友。

由于本书编写比较仓促，加之作者水平有限，书中谬误挂漏之处在所难免，尚祈各界人士，不吝赐教，以期尽善，并致谢忱。

编著者

2002 年春于美国新泽西州

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Introductory Remarks

International Trade

International trade is beneficial for all participants.

—**David Ricardo**

No nation was ever ruined by trade.

—**Benjamin Franklin**

Ⅰ. The Concept of International Trade

Trade means buying and selling goods or exchanging goods for goods. If such an exchange is done between persons of different countries or regions, we call this international trade or world trade. A country/person trades or exchanges commodities with another country/person. This is foreign trade, as compared with domestic trade or home trade.

Unlike domestic trade, foreign trade is carried on between different countries. For instance, you see Japanese automobiles running along the streets in all Chinese large cities. These cars are made in Japan. China has bought them from Japan. In this case, China is the importer or the importing country and Japan is the exporter or the exporting country.

There are usually two parties or two sides involved in each transaction. One is the buyer and the other the seller. In foreign trade, the buyer is at the same time the importer and the seller the exporter. What the importer imports or buys is called imports. What the exporter exports or sells is called exports.

Ⅱ. Brief History of International Trade

International trade goes very far back. It has been carried on for over two thousand years.

In primitive society (commune), production was extremely low. What people could produce just kept them alive. They were living on the verge of starvation; products whatever they were were evenly distributed among themselves. There were no surplus of products. Therefore, in primitive society, there was no class, no country and consequently there was no foreign trade.

By the end of the primitive society when the large-scale division of labor was completed, surplus products were moving across international boarders. Foreign trade emerged. At the outset, goods were exchanged on a barter basis. In other words, traders bartered goods for goods, for what they needed. Later, with the development of production, commodity exchange was carried out through the medium of currency.

In the slave society, slaves became the prominent commodity in the foreign trade of the European countries. At that time, Athens (Greece) was the center of slave trade. In Chinese history, as far back as the Zhou Dynasty (1027—256 BC), horse traders became essential to the Chinese. As the legend goes, Lu Buwei, Qin Shihuang's first prime minister, was a horse dealer — his native state of Zhao exported horses.

In the fedual society, luxuries were the major commodities in international trade — the West shipped to the Orient wine and woolen piece goods in exchange for silk, jewelry, spices, tea and handicrafts.

In 138 BC Zhang Qian was sent by Emperor Han Wudi to Western Turkestan to try to forge an alliance against the Xiongnu. His diplomatic mission was unsuccessful but he impressed the emperor with the magnificent horses with which he returned; trade with the north-west flourished in successive reigns. Caravans moving along the central Asian "Silk Route" were to be important over the next 1500 years for both China and the West.

In the Ming Dynasty, between 1405 and 1433, China sent out seven maritime expeditions, led by a Moslem eunuch, Zheng He. Chinese vessels sailed far down the east coast of Africa. China's compass and gunpowder were introduced to the West and in return native produce and good seed strain of the western countries were brought back to China.

Under the capitalist system, countries began to specialize in particular products and began to mass-produce. Especially after the industrial revolution, international trade was developing and expanding dramatically. The major changes are as follows:

1. The rapid increase in trade turn-over;
2. The constant change of the commodity structure — a greater variety of commodities, i. e. textile, grain;
3. Improvement of ways of trading-business concluded against samples instead of having a look at the goods;
4. The use of documents and draft-bank credit involved;
5. The establishment of trade organizations, i. e. shipping companies, insurance companies, transhipping agencies;
6. Trade agreements signed between countries; and later
7. The export of investment.

In a word, under capitalism foreign trade developed tremendously.

Ⅲ. International Trade Today

In today's complex economic world, no nation is self-sufficient and no nation has all of the commodities that it needs. Nations have utilized different economic resources; people have developed different skills. This is the foundation of world trade and economic activity.

Natural resources are scattered around the world. Large deposits of copper are mined in Peru and Zaire and petroleum is recovered in the Middle East. Countries that do not have these resources within their own boundaries must import them from countries that export them.

Agricultural products differ from minerals in the sense that they are renewable, that is, new crops can be harvested on the same land. Climate is an important factor. For instance, the United States of America is a major consumer of coffee, yet it does not have the climate to grow any of its own. Consequently, the United States must import coffee from countries which grow coffee efficiently, such as Brazil, Colombia and Guatemala.

Foreign trade also occurs because a country often does not have enough of a particular item to meet its needs. Although China is a major producer of rice, it consumes more than it can produce internally and thus must import rice to feed its large population.

One country can produce some items at a much lower cost than other countries. Take Japan for instance. Japan is able to export large quantities of TV sets because it can produce them more efficiently than other countries. It is cheaper for the United States to buy these from Japan than to produce them domestically. According to economic theory—the theory of comparative advantage, Japan should produce and export those items and at the same time Japan should also import what it needs from those countries that have a comparative advantage in the desired items. In other words, a country benefits by producing goods it can make more cheaply and buying those goods that other countries can make at lower costs than by producing everything it needs within its own borders.

In the contemporary world, science and technology are developing fast. Therefore, countries have to depend on one another. It is impossible for one country to launch a space shuttle without another country's electronic technology. Also, even though the United States produces more automobiles than any other country, it still imports large numbers of autos from Germany, Japan and Sweden, primarily because the US market demands more styles and more innovations than it can provide itself.

Foreign trade is of vital importance to a nation's economy. Every country trades with other countries. For example, Japan, a highly industrialized nation, is very dependent and has to import 99 percent of its primary commodities. Western Europe produces nearly all of the grain it needs but lacks other commodities to a great extent. The United States, Canada, Japan and Western Europe all have to import tropical agricultural products (such as cocoa, coffee, sugar, tea) from the developing nations. China is now trading with more than 150 countries and regions. China's reforms and opening up to the outside world are bound to give impetus to the advance of her economy.

Ⅳ. The Theory of Comparative Advantage[①]

International trade, where goods and services move across borders, is often explained by the theory of comparative advantage, also called the comparative cost theory. This is an economic theory stating that if one country can produce a product relatively more efficiently than another country, it is beneficial to both countries for the first country to export that product to the other. For instance, a tropical climate is better suited for growing bananas than a cold one. Countries like Finland and Norway could produce bananas in hothouses, but it is cheaper for the Scandinavian countries to import bananas than to produce them. This theory was developed by David Ricardo[②](1772—1823), John Stuart Mill [③](1806—1874), and other economists in the nineteenth century. The theory emphasizes that different countries or regions have different production possibilities.

The theory of comparative cost points out that trade between countries can be profitable for all. "International trade is beneficial for all participants." (David Ricardo) As long as there are minor, relative differences in the efficiency of producing a commodity, even a poor country can have a comparative advantage in producing it. For example, the United States is relatively more efficient than Europe in producing food(using only one-third of the labor that Europe does) and in producing clothing (using only one-half the labor). Thus, while the United States has an absolute advantage in both forms of production, its efficiency in food production is greater. It has a comparative disadvantage in clothing. Consequently, a great deal of clothing is exported from Asia to the United States. To conclude, the theory of comparative advantage states that if each country specializes in products in which it has a comparative advantage (greatest relative efficiency), trade between these countries will be mutually profitable.

Comparative advantage has led countries to specialize in particular products and to mass-produce. Sometimes this goes one step further. The United States imports olives from the Mediterranean countries at a competitive price, although California grows olives, yet it does not produce enough quantity and great variety to supply the entire country.

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① In his famous book *The Wealth of Nations*, Adam Smith (1723—1790) emphasized the importance of specialization as a source of increased output, and he treated international trade as a particular instance of specialization: in a world where productive resources are scarce and human wants cannot be completely satisfied, each nation should specialize in the production of goods it is particularly well equipped to produce; it should export part of this production, taking in exchange other goods that it cannot so readily turn out. Smith did not expand these ideas at much length; but David Ricardo, the second great classical economist, developed them into the *Principal of Comparative Advantage*, a principal still to be found, much as Ricardo. spelled it out, in every international trade text.

② The nineteenth century English economist — In his *Principles of Political Economy and Taxation* (1817), Ricardo undertook to analyze the laws determining the distribution of the social product among the "three classes of the community", namely, the landlords, the workers, and the owners of capital. He applied his findings more widely, however, and elaborated various other economic principles. He found the relative domestic values of commodities to be dominated by the quantities of labor required in their production, rent being eliminated from the costs of production.

③ The nineteenth century British philosopher and economist — His major works include *Essays on Some Unsettled Questions in Political Economy*(1844),*Principal of Political Economy*(1848).

Italy gains a comparative advantage over many countries in mass-producing wine. France, self-supporting in wine, presently imports large quantities of Italian wine, which is cheaper. By doing so, people are sharing the benefit of production in other countries.

Ⅴ. Commodities and World Trade Patterns

The world's natural resources are called commodities. The location of the world's natural resources determines the patterns of world trade.

Some regions are abundant in resources; elsewhere, reserves are scarce or nonexistent. Of the industrialized nations, the United States and Canada enjoy the most favorable position. They are dominant exporters of grains. The United States and Canada also have vast coal and oil reserves. Also, apart from their ferrous metal deposits, the two countries export copper, zinc, and lead.

There are basically three commodity groups:

1. Minerals: coal, oil, copper, zinc, and bauxite;
2. Tropical agricultural products: cocoa, coffee, sugar, tea and tobacco;
3. Cereals: wheat, maize and other grains.

Cocoa and coffee grow in tropical climates while wheat and maize grow in colder climates. Thus, climate establishes a trade pattern between a northern and a southern country. In other cases the availability of natural resources may be the trade factor.

Changes in climate also effect trade patterns. The Sahara desert, for example, creeps southward at a rate of thirty miles annually. If no irrigation is provided, countries in the sub-Sahara belt will eventually be deprived of their tropical agricultural production, and their exports will eventually cease.

World trade patterns can change and have changed dramatically in some cases. Japan, a closed society for many centuries, was opened up to trade at the end of the nineteenth century. Gradually, Japan gained a comparative advantage in many industries because its labor costs were lower than in the West, Although Japan has to import raw materials, it exports the finished products.

Ⅵ. The Future of International Trade

In spite of the difficulties of predicting future trends in world trade, we can specify factors that will be important. Some of these are:

1. Population growth;
2. Possible scarcity of commodities;
3. The food and energy situation;
4. Relations between the industrialized and the developing nations;
5. Pressures to preserve the environment;
6. International cooperation on political, social, economic and monetary problems.

As the population grows, prices of commodities will fluctuate. As countries endeavor to increase yields on existing croplands through intensified use of water, energy and fertilizers, the cost of commodities will rise. Growth of trade will depend greatly on availability of energy sources.

The continuing relationship between the industrialized and the developing nations should be watched. Third World countries export their mineral deposits and tropical agricultural products, which bring them desired foreign exchange. Tourism has also been greatly responsible for the rapid development of some developing countries. Many Third World nations have seen an emigration of workers to the developed nations. The developing nations profit when these workers bring their savings and their acquired technical skills back home. Many developing nations benefit when Western nations establish manufacturing in their countries to take advantage of cheap labor.

In the next ten to twenty years, whenever a country or a company attempts to win in world trade it will have to participate in the sharp competition in the world market. There are four major competition factors:

1. Rapid growth of world market: great consuming and marketing potential in the newly-emerged industrial countries in Asia and Latin America;
2. World-wide sharp competition: besides EEC and the US, Japan has become a great competitor in world trade; also, countries such as Peru, South Korea are competitive for their good quality products with reasonable prices; also, China, Indonesia and Malaysia are becoming competitive;
3. The price and quantity of the products: the period of replacing a product is shortened;
4. Competition in finance: international monetary cooperation will have a significant impact on future trade.

However, growing international cooperation in economic, monetary and political matters will certainly contribute to the flourishing of world trade in the years to come.

International Trade Procedures

Modern business requires that its salesmen be business men in the best sense of the word— men who know the ins and outs of the product or service they are selling ... men who can make an intelligent and effective presentation ... and most of all, men who have the modern concept of service to the customer.

—Hugh W. Corurn

Ⅰ. The Classification of International Trade

The scope of international trade is so wide and its nature so complicated that it is very difficult to classify. However, there are several ways of classification.

1. The movement of goods:

a) Export trade: the movement of goods from a country.

b) Import trade: the movement of goods into a country.

c) Transit trade: the movement of goods from a country into another country through a third country. To that third country, the trade activity is called "transit trade".

2. Goods passing through the boundary or the customs:

a) General trade: Countries like Japan, Britain, Canada, Australia, Russia and the East European countries classify import and export trade according to the goods moving into and from the country's boundary. General trade includes re-export trade and re-import trade.

b) Special trade: Countries like Germany, Italy and Sweden classify import and export trade according to the goods passing through the customs. Goods stored in warehouses before getting through the customs are not counted as imports or exports. Only when the goods have got through the customs can they be regarded as imports or exports. This is called "special trade".

3. Tangible goods trade and intangible goods trade:

a) Tangible goods trade: referring to the import and export of commodities or products;

b) Intangible goods trade: including services such as transportation, insurance, finance, tourism and technology.

4. According to the means of transportation:

a) Trade by roadway: by train, truck (lorry), tractor truck.

b) Trade by seaway: by steam ship. This is the most commonly used means of transportation.

c) Trade by airway: by aeroplane. Precious articles or a small quantity of valuable goods are shipped by air.

d) Trade by mail order: used for a small parcel.

5. Direct, indirect and transhipment trade (entrepot trade):

a) Direct trade: usually refers to direct contact between the producing country and consuming country.

b) Indirect trade: trade is done through a third party.

c) Transhipment trade: goods are transhipped by a third country/region.

6. According to the method of liquidation:

a) Free trade: in international trade, payment is liquidated by means of a currency—such currencies as US Dollar, British Pound Sterling, Euro, Japanese Yen, Hong Kong Dollar.

b) Barter trade: goods exchanges for goods without using money; giving goods or services in return for other goods or services. A country lacking foreign currency prefers to do barter trade. ①

Ⅱ. The Complexity of International Trade

1. Measurement system and currency
2. Commercial habits and rules
3. Customs regulations
4. Foreign exchange
5. Transportation of goods
6. Insurance of goods

International trade is rather complicated, because it has a long history and there are many commercial practices and trade terms. These trade terms have standard and commonly acceptable definitions but may be interpreted in different ways by different countries. Therefore, it is necessary for us to study carefully these practices and terms.

Besides, we have to get familiar with commercial habits, customs regulations and other trade procedures of the countries we are dealing with.

Trading with other countries is not the same as trading within one's own country. At home a company is familiar with its own people, laws and business practices. Abroad the picture becomes a complex one. Language barriers, differences in laws, insurance coverage and exchange rate fluctuations all add to a company's problems. Trading abroad is also a risk because the seller usually does not know the buyer. Time and distance are factors that may create problems in communications and in the salability of goods, especially those which are perishable.

Ⅲ. The Procedure of International Trade

International trade is not so simple as daily shopping, when you just go into a shop,

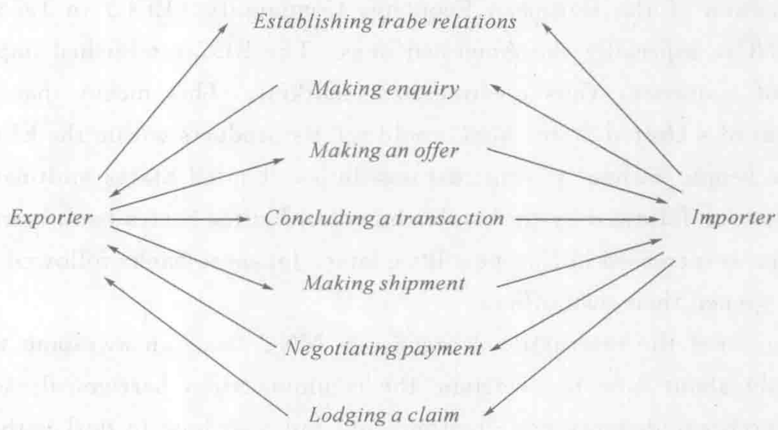
① In the past decade or so China has developed several types of new trade practices: trade compensation arrangements, joint ventures and special economic zones. The term "trade compensation" is barter in which the foreign firm sells one product and receives another in payment (either for its own use or for resale).

pick up what you want, pay, and go your way. In international trade, the importer is in one country and the exporter is in another. They are separated sometimes by thousands of miles. How can an importer get to know and find an exporter? How can an exporter find who is in the market for his goods? How can the importer pay for the goods he has bought? How can the exporter receive the payment? And so on so forth. Therefore, it is important to follow the commonly acceptable trade procedures. Now let us look at the diagram on page 15.

We will discuss step by step the trade procedures in the units.

Ⅳ. International Business Activities

International business activities include services, the manufacture of goods, the movement of goods from a country (exports), the movement of goods into a country (imports), the investment of capital and the ownership of business enterprises in countries not one's own, and the moving of people and technologies between countries.



Today there are many more types of international procedures. For example, some companies receive special licenses to do business in countries other than their own. Sometimes a company in one country will join with a similar company in another country. If both companies are private, this is called a "joint venture". If one of the companies is private and the other is government owned or controlled, the result is called a "mixed venture". Finally, there are organizations which have branches or subsidiaries in other countries. All of these are kinds of international business organization, although only the last mentioned is representative of the most recent business development — the Multinational Enterprise.

Ⅴ. Multinational Enterprise

Multinational enterprises are those types of enterprises that think in worldwide terms. A truly multinational enterprise would engage in all of the activities listed in the proceeding discussions of international business and would engage in others as well. The management of multinational enterprise does not just consider business from its own domestic point of view, but from an international — worldwide — point of view in: 1) its