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当代

国际商务英语教程

A COURSEBOOK
FOR CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH
OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS



A Coursebook for Contemporary English of International Business 当代国际商务英语教程

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前 言

本书由旅美华人学者丁文京博士创意并选材,会同北京工商大学教师刘明宇及其他几位同志共同编写。其内容及难度既可供本科高年级学生作专业课教材使用,亦可供具备国家英语四级以上水平的在校生或工作人员当作自学材料。

全书共41课,每课均由课文、注释、练习、补充阅读材料几部分组成。其中注释部分既有专业概念,也有超过四级水平的日常词汇。

恳请使用者对本书的疏漏、不足之处提出意见,以便再版时补充 和完善。

> 编者 2001年7月

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Section One Understanding Marketing(1)

1. What Is Marketing?

What is marketing? When we mention the word "marketing", you might think of advertisements in magazines or on television, a salesperson pushing products, department stores, and flashy packages in the supermarket. These are, indeed, visible signs of that are closer to our daily life, but "marketing" means much more than what we think of. We have heard the word "marketing" all our life, but it is still a difficult term to define in a business sense because the word contains too many meanings.

One popular definition among some people is that marketing is what marketers do. This is an appealing definition, for it is simple and has the ring of truth to it. However, it begs the question: before it can be applied, we must define what a marketer is and to do so implies that we already know what marketing is. In other words, it lacks sufficient content to tell us anything about marketing.

To provide a formal, content-based definition of marketing, a group of practitioners and scholars proposed the following definition, which is the official one accepted by the American Marketing Association (AMA):

Marketing is the performance of business activities that direct the flow of goods and services from producer to consumer or user.

Let us examine this definition in greater detail. Notice that mar-

keting is considered a business activity. This conforms to the origins of marketing, the layperson's concept of marketing, and the reality that all business firms perform marketing activities in one form or another. What are the activities? The definition specifies them as anything done to "direct the flow of goods and services". Traditionally, this includes activities concerned with the stimulation of demand and the delivery of goods. Packaging, promotion, personal selling, advertising, and wholesale and retail functions are the most common examples. Finally, the definition indicates to whom the goods and services are delivered, namely, the "consumer or user."

The AMA definition provides some insight into the meaning of marketing, but it has several shortcomings. One weakness is that it neglects, or at least de-emphasizes, the marketer and the consumer. This definition focuses mostly on what goes on between marketer and consumer. It omits many things done by marketing managers (e.g., product design and market research), and it overlooks the decision processes and other behaviors of consumers. A second limitation of the definition is that it overly restricts marketing to business firms. In reality, marketing functions are performed by government agencies, nonprofit organizations, unincorporated groups, and private citizens, as well as by business firms.

The most important drawback of the AMA definition is that it takes a simplistic and incomplete view of the marketing process. According the definition, marketing is construed to occur from marketer to consumer. The flow is in one direction. Such a viewpoint overlooks how marketing actually occurs in the real world. The process is not limited to a one-way flow or sequence from marketer to consumer. Rather, the vast majority of marketing activities involves interaction

between seller and buyer. As a consequence, a number of marketers now view marketing in terms of exchange relationships

We can think of marketing in two senses: (1) marketing as a phenomenon for study and (2) marketing as a field of study. Let us define both.

As a phenomenon for study, marketing is the set of individual and social activities concerned with the initiation, resolution, and/or avoidance of exchange relationships.

Let us briefly define some of the terms and sketch this meaning. Notice first that marketing consists of individual and social activities. That is, any person, organization, or social entity can engage in exchange relationships with any other person, organization, or social entity. The activities performed by these parties are designed to create a new exchange relationship, resolve an ongoing one (e.g., complete a transaction, change the terms of a long-term contract, or dissolve a relation), and/or prevent the occurrence of an exchange. The activities might comprise offers and counteroffers, the mediation of rewards or punishments, power, or a whole host of other acts performed by the parties or manifest in their social relations: The ultimate aim of engaging in exchanges or avoiding them is to satisfy one's needs. Needs can be individualistic and selfish, group-based and altruistic, or both.

A central theme of this text is that one cannot fully comprehend marketing or fruitfully conduct marketing operations without a thorough understanding of the behavior of the parties to an exchange. Notice further that the flow is not one way: the parties to an exchange communicate with each other. Further, this two-way flow consists of the transfer of shared meanings. These entail physical (e.g., a product, money), psychological (e.g., ideas, affect), and social (e.g.,

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prestige, status) meanings.

As a field of study, marketing attempts to answer three questions:

- 1. Why do people and organizations engage in exchange relationships?
- 2. How are exchanges created, resolved, or avoided?
- 3. How should exchange be created, resolved, or avoided?

The first two questions address the science of marketing and require that we search for theories and data explaining marketing phenomena. The third question addresses the art and ethics of marketing and suggests that we consider managerial, moral, and social dimensions of marketing.

The field of marketing is quite broad in scope and both overlaps with and draws upon many related subject areas. As we may discover that marketers continually borrow concepts and methods from psychology, sociology, organization behavior, anthropology, and political science, as well as from the traditional disciplines of economics, mathematics, operations research, and management science. At the same time, marketers have made unique contributions to theory, method, and practice.

Key Terms and Concepts

- 1. marketer: person who conducts business in marketplace. 销售主管,市场营销人员
- 2. offers: everything involved in the exchange between buyer and seller, including intangibles as well as the tangibles. 买卖双方在交易中所涉及的所有有形及无形的交易物。

Notes

- 1. practitioners: one who practices a profession 实习者
- 2. appealing: attractive 有吸引力的,动人的
- 3. conform to: to be in accordance with 与…一致
- 4. have the ring of truth; at least sound like true 听起来似乎是真的
- 5. sketch: to describe roughly 粗略地描述
- 6. altruistic: unselfish 无私的,利他的
- 7. draw upon: to make use of 利用,使用

Fill in the blanks.

- According to the definition of American Marketing Association (AMA), marketing is the performance of business activities that direct the flow of goods and _____ from producer to ____ or user.
- 2. As a phenomenon for study, marketing is the set of _____ and social activities concerned with the _____, resolution, and/or avoidance of exchange relationships.

Questions for Discussion

- 1. In your words, define marketing. Interpret your definition.
- 2. "Marketing consists of all activities that bring buyers and sellers together." What are the limitations and drawbacks of the definition?
- 3. Why is marketing so important in our life? Please use examples to defend your answer.

Additional Reading

In reality, everybody is a salesperson. We all try to persuade

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someone to do something virtually every day. You are being a salesperson every time you give someone the support to make a decision, try to persuade someone to do something, or reinforce a choice someone has made. Don't ever say you can't be a salesperson; you started out on a sales career when you were about two years old.

Your marketing program encourages people to buy from you. Now it's your job or your sales force, to help the customer make the final decision to buy. Don't minimize this challenge. Most people are reluctant to make a major purchase, even if they really want the product, because they are afraid of making a mistake.

Your goal is to help customers decide to buy the things they want. If you don't do that, you won't have any profits. But you want to make those sales in a way that creates a trusting relationship between you and the customer. This chapter will help you develop that relationship. It covers the key elements of making a sale, the sales opening, the presentation, handling objections, overcoming stalls, and closing the sale.

Before continuing, I want to warn you that some of these ideas are going to be different from what you may have previously read or heard. This is a different way of selling that not only sells more, but keeps customers coming back, because it is a system designed to build relationships that last.

Control Putting the customer in charge give him or her options to choose from. When you do that, customers will feel like they made the decision to buy. But you still need to keep control of the sales process. What you do want to give up is center stage. You want to let the customer do most of the talking, but to direct the conversation with your questions, comments, and answers. A good rule to remember is

that the person doing all the talking dominates the conversation, and the person doing all the listening controls the conversation. Just watch the Tonight show. Jay Leno, and before him Johnny Carson, talks only 20 to 30 percent of the time. But he still controls the conversation. Try to have the customer talk 60 to 70 percent of the time. Customers will give you the information you need to close the sale, and you won't be talking about points that bore the customer.

Reinforce Positive Points Prospects will make statements to you that are positive for your sales efforts: "I think my business would run more smoothly if I got a better handle on my cash flow." To an accountant, that's a positive statement, and he or she should answer, "That's very perceptive of you, Jim. You'll probably be able to spend more time selling if we can control your cash flow." Customers buy for their own reasons, which can be different for each buyer. Give prospects a chance to tell you why they'll buy, then reinforce their thinking.

Never Disagree Salespeople are often trained to handle objections by providing reasons why the objection isn't true. That's really arguing with the customer, and it isn't a tactic that works well. Instead, you should either agree with the customer or give a clarifying probe. For example, if a prospect says, "Your product is expensive," you could either agree—"you're right, it is."—or give a probing statement like, "oh, really?" or "why do you say that?" When the customer answers a probe, you can get more information that will allow you to respond appropriately. For example, the prospect might answer a probe with "Jensen's sells a snowblower for less." You can agree—"You're right, they do."—then ask a question that will reveal your product's advantages. For example, you could ask, "How long do you want your

snowblower to last?" and follow up by asking, "Can I show you a few features that enable our snowblower to last longer than Jensen's?"

Probes There are two types of probing questions. One is an open-ended probe like "oh," "really," or "hem" You are just asking prospects to keep talking, and usually they will. In a more directed probe, you ask a specific question: "Why do you think the price is high?" You can get more information with an open-ended probe, but you should use directed probes if people aren't responding.

Silence I have had sales calls where no one has talked for two to three minutes. That doesn't bother me, and usually it doesn't bother a customer. When you ask a question, wait for the customer to respond. Just because someone doesn't answer right away doesn't mean they are ignoring you. Sometimes they are trying to decide what to say. People who don't talk right away like to make clear, meaningful comments, and they don't like to ramble on. They also won't listen to what you have to say if they are thinking. So just wait, the customer will answer eventually.

Questions You have to ask people questions if you want them to keep talking. Prospects often look at a sales presentation as an exercise of "You talk, and I'll listen, and then I'll decide what to do." That's not what you want, since when you talk, the customer is in control. Instead, you want to keep asking questions to keep the customer talking. I like to have a note pad when I give a presentation so that I can write down people's comments. For some reason, people seem more receptive to questions when you write down their answers. You can ask questions about why a person is thinking of buying a product, how he or she intends to use it, and what features are most important. If you follow up answers with probes, you'll know exactly what the cus-

tomer is looking for.

2. Marketing Goals

All organizations have mission that they are presumed to achieve. Businesses, for example, might strive for certain levels of profits or return on investment, or nonprofit organizations such as welfare agencies might aim for a certain number of clients to be served. Each sub-area or sub-department in the organization then sets goals designed to serve as intermediate for the broader organizational objectives. For example, financial departments set goals for investment and cost management, and production department set goals for manufacturing, assembly, and quality control.

As business areas within the organization, marketing departments also set goals. At the highest level, we can identify two marketing goals that function as guiding principles throughout marketing subareas. The first goal is the satisfaction of consumer needs. No organization can survive for long without meeting consumer needs. People will simply not purchase a product or service that they do not need. Thus, any organization, if it is to be successful, must proceed from the goal of customer satisfaction and adjust its programs to deliver an offering meeting consumer needs. However, this is not sufficient. Even if a product meets needs, people might not buy it if better or cheaper alternatives exist. Hence, the second fundamental marketing goal is the attainment of a competitive advantage over rivals. In sum, effective marketing begins with two activities: customer analysis and competitive analysis. Let us briefly describe each, because an understanding of their meaning is essential for grasping what marketing is all about.

Customer analysis refers to the marketing activities of the firm

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concerned with research into the behavior of consumers. Before one can design a product desired by consumers, it is necessary to learn how the product meets psychological and social needs of the consumer. From a psychological perspective, marketers study how consumers process information about products. This involves examination of perceptual, memory, evaluative, and mental decision-making activities. Marketers also scrutinize the emotional reactions consumer have to products and how prior learning and current motives influence choices. From a social standpoint, marketers investigate the role of interpersonal influence, family decision making, small group dynamics, mass communication and culture, and other collective phenomena in consumption. The study of consumer psychological and social needs is performed through marketing research. What we learn from customer analysis influences how we implement marketing programs, which generally entail the design and development of the product, the estimation of demand, the communication of the product to consumers, and distribution.

Competitive analysis is a necessary complement to customer analysis. We can identify five competitive forces impinging on any marketing effort:

- 1. Supply power.
- Consumer power.
- 3. Product substitutability.
- 4. The threat of new entrants into the market.
- 5. Rivalry among existing competitors.

Supplier organizations affect the ability of a focal organization to market its wares. Supplier organizations are those institutions or groups that provide materials, component parts, people, money, services, and other resources needed by an organization to fulfill its mission. The balance of power between suppliers and the organizations that are their customers will determine the quality and production cost of a product/service and thus indirectly influence the ability of an initiating organization to meet its customer needs and attain a competitive advantage. Consumers, too, can be thought to interact with an organization and apply or be subject to varying degree of power. For example, some buyers purchase so much that the threat of losing them can produce price concessions on the part of a seller.

To the extent that the organization can resist the power of consumers and/or impose its needs upon them, it will be better able to face threats emerging from the other competitive forces mentioned above. One class of threats is substitutability. Any product or service will satisfy a need that can be met at least partially by different kinds of products or services available in the marketplace. In a sense, candy bars compete with cookies, potato chips, and even soft drinks because each product form satisfies a hunger need for sugar or snacks. Similarly, threats arise form the possibility that new organizations might enter the market and sell the same product or service but perhaps at a lower price or of a higher quality. The candy bar market, for example, faces a continual influx of new producers because of the size of the market and the relative ease with which sweets can be produced and marketed. Finally, perhaps the most common and intuitively understood threat occurs as rivalry among existing organizations providing the same product. For instance, in the fast-food business, McDonald's, Burger King, A&W, and Wendy's each vies for a share of the prepared hamburger market. This represents competition among ongoing concerns selling similar products.

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