

实用经贸英语丛书

AN ENGLISH READER
OF ESSENTIAL MANAGEMENT

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管理学基础英语读本



山东大学出版社



编译说明

本书是根据美国管理学者哈罗德·孔茨 (Harold Koontz)、西里尔·奥唐奈 (Cyril O'donnell) 和海因茨·韦里克 (Heinz Weihrich) 等人合著的《管理学》第 7 版和第 10 版编译而成的。该书初版于 1955 年, 1993 年出至第 10 版, 被译成 16 种文字, 在国际上有比较广泛的影响。该书的三位作者也都是美国乃至国际上有名望的管理学者。

本书主要是为高等院校工商企业管理类专业的学生和实际部门的主管人员编译的。可作为“管理学概论”课程的英语入门教材。“入门”之后, 登堂入室。通过学习“入门”教材, 进而阅读英美管理学原著, 研究国外工商企业管理理论, 这就是我们编译本书的目的。

本书在编译过程中参考了原著第 6、7、8、9 各版中文译本, 在此谨向这些译本的译者表示谢意!

本书的第 1、2、4、5 部分由邱学斗同志编译, 第 3、6 部分由邵冲同志编译, 全书由邱学斗统编、定稿。

由于我们水平有限, 书中难免会有错误, 恳请各位读者指正。

编译者

于中山大学管理学院

1995 年 12 月

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Part 1 The Basis of Management Theory and Science

1. WHY MANAGEMENT?

Not all groups believe that they need managing. Even faculties of many colleges and universities seem to feel this way and continually emphasize the need for maintaining "collegial" management. In their desire not to be managed, they forget that effective managers – whether presidents, or deans – do everything in their power to design an environment in which professors and researchers can best perform. Certain critics of modern management feel that people would work together better and with more personal satisfaction if there were no managers. They prefer to refer to the ideal group operation as a "team" effort. They apparently do not realize that in most rudimentary form of team play, individuals playing a game have clear group goals as well as personal ones, are assigned to positions, follow play patterns, allow someone to call the plays, and follow certain rules and guidelines. Indeed, a characteristic of every effective group effort designed to attain group goals at the least cost of time, money, material, or discomfort is that it adopts the basic process, principles, and techniques of management.

Managing is essential in all organized cooperation, as well as at all levels of organization in an enterprise. It is the function not only of the corporation president and the army general but also of the

shop supervisor and the company commander. In working with many enterprises and organizations, the authors have heard it said repeatedly that the "trouble" with the enterprise is the "management", meaning persons at a higher level in the organization. Even vice presidents of a company have made this observation to one of the authors, leaving only the president who was the "problem". While weaknesses and difficulties may appear at any level of management, effective and perceptive management demands that all those responsible for the work of others, at all levels and in any type of enterprise, regard themselves as managers. It is in this sense that the term is used in this book.

Thus the reader will find no basic distinction between managers and executives, administrators, or supervisors. To be sure, a given situation may differ considerably between various levels in an organization or various types of enterprise, the scope of authority held may vary, the types of problems dealt with may be considerably different, and a person in a managerial role may also be a salesman, engineer, or financier; but the fact remains that, as managers, all who obtain results by establishing an environment for effective group endeavor undertake the same functions.

Even so, those in a managerial role seldom devote all their time and talents to managing, and the organization roles which individuals fill almost invariably involve nonmanagerial duties. One has only to look at the duties and performances associated with perhaps the most complex managerial role in our society — that of the President of the United States — to realize that much of his work is nonmanagerial. Even in business corporations, company presidents find themselves doing a considerable amount of nonmanagerial work.

And, as one goes down the organization ladder, the number of non-managerial duties tends to increase. Nevertheless, this fact of life should not detract in any way from the key significance of managing.

The Goal of All Managers

Nonbusiness executives sometimes say that top business managers have it easy – that profit is their goal. As will be elaborated in later discussions, profit is only a measure of the surplus of business income over cost. It was pointed out earlier that in a very real sense, the goal of all managers must be surplus. Their task is to establish the environment for group effort in such a way that individuals will contribute to group objectives with the least amount of such inputs as money, time, effort, discomfort, and materials. By the very definition of the task, this becomes the goal of managers. But if they were ever to know whether the efforts of those for whom they are responsible are effective and efficient – whether they are attaining goals with least costs – they obviously must know what group goals are. Not only must these goals be known to managers, and preferably to all those for whom they are responsible, but they should also be known in a verifiable way. Otherwise, managers can never measure either their own effectiveness and efficiency or the effectiveness and efficiency of their group.

Thus the goal of managers, as managers, is fundamentally the same in business and nonbusiness enterprises. It is also the same at every level. The corporation president, the city administrator, the hospital department head, the government first-line supervisor, the Boy Scout leader, the bishop, the baseball manager, and the univer-

sity president or dean, all, as managers, have the same kind of goals. The purposes of their enterprise or their department may vary, and these purposes maybe more difficult to define in one situation than in another, but their basic managerial goal remains the same.

2. MANAGING: SCIENCE OR ART?

Managing, like all other practices – whether medicine, music composition, engineering, accountancy, or even baseball – is an art. It is know-how. It is doing things in the light of the realities of a situation. Yet managers can work better by using the organized knowledge about management. It is this knowledge that constitutes a science. Thus, *managing* as practice is an art; the *organized knowledge* underlying the practice may be referred to as a science. In this context science and art are not mutually exclusive; they are complementary.

As science improves, so should art, as has happened in the physical and biological sciences. To be sure, the science underlying managing is fairly crude and inexact. This is true because the many variables with which managers deal are extremely complex. Nevertheless, such management knowledge can certainly improve managerial practice. Physicians without the advantage of science would be little more than witch doctors. Executives who attempt to manage without management science must trust to luck, intuition, or what they did in the past.

In managing, as in any other field, unless practitioners are to learn by trial and error (and it has been said that managers' errors

are their subordinates' trials), there is no place they can turn to for meaningful guidance other than the accumulated knowledge underlying their practice.

3. THE FUNCTIONS OF THE MANAGER

In classifying the functions of the manager, one must distinguish clearly those of enterprise-function operation, such as selling, manufacturing, accounting, engineering, and purchasing. These differ from one enterprise to another, but the basic tasks of the manager, as a manager, are common to all.

Although the development of a theory and science of management suffers from disagreement among scholars and managers as to the classification of managerial functions, a general pattern of practice and terminology has emerged. Adopted here and used by managers in many fields, this pattern avoids artificial terminology. Thus students and managers need not learn new definitions — rather, they may use common terms with greater precision. It is also hoped that managers, using common terms with ordinary meanings, will be encouraged to adopt an increasingly scientific approach to their important task.

Although the authors believe that they have adopted the most useful method of classifying managerial functions, at least for purposes of classifying knowledge, in practice it is not always possible to place all managerial activities neatly into these categories, since the functions tend to coalesce. However, this classification is a helpful and realistic tool for analysis and understanding.

Some authorities suggest “representation” as a distinct manage-

ment function. They have in mind managers who represent their firm in trade association and government relationships, with a view to modifying the external environment or committing the firm to a contractual obligation or managers who represent their division or department in committee meetings which may affect the internal environment. There is also the larger problem of the "corporate image," which is influenced by the behavior of all employees, whether managerial or not. The authors of this book have excluded representation as a separate function, partly because it appears to be a complex made up largely of communication and of the exercise of authority (included in leading, and organizing, respectively) and partly because nonmanagers often represent an enterprise and exert influence on the corporate image.

Occasionally, scholars concern themselves about the order in which the managerial functions should be undertaken. Theoretically, planning comes first, and organizing, staffing, leading, and controlling follow. But according to this logic, an enterprise carries out only one master plan, each part of which, once completed, never has to be revised or modified. This conception is unrealistic. In practice, managers oversee many plans in various stages of execution; they are at least likely to be engaged in solving a control problem or a motivation problem at any moment in time. They move easily from one function to another and devote their attention to the most pressing issues. Managing, after all, is a systematic network and not a sequentially undertaken set of duties.

Moreover, the question of what managers actually do is really secondary to what makes an acceptable and clear first breakdown of management knowledge. As was pointed out earlier, our major con-

cern is to organize knowledge with respect to managing, as an indispensable approach to developing a science of management. The authors believe that by utilizing the functions of managers at this first step, a logical start can be made in setting up some "pigeonholes" for classifying knowledge, recognizing, of course, that in management as in all areas of knowledge, the classification is not airtight and that there are interlocking and even overlapping elements.

Planning

Planning involves selecting objectives – and the strategies, policies, programs, and procedures for achieving them – either for the entire enterprise or for any organized part thereof. Planning is, of course, decision making, since it involves selecting from among alternatives. There are, for example, policies relating to authority, prices, and competition; programs of production, management succession, and internal audit; and procedures requiring a specific method of handling paper, products, and people.

Considerable confusion has arisen about who should plan and when. Ever since the work of F. W. Taylor, executives have toyed with separating planning from performance. The responsibility for planning cannot be completely separated from managerial performance because all managers plan, whether they are at the top, middle, or bottom of the organization structure. If, however, planning is undertaken as an advisory service to the manager in charge of performance, this small degree of separation is often highly productive.

Organizing

Organizing involves the establishment of an intentional structure of

roles through determination of the activities required to achieve the goals of an enterprise and each part of it, the grouping of these activities, the assignment of such groups of activities to a manager, the delegation of authority to carry them out, and provision for coordination of authority and informational relationships horizontally and vertically in the organization structure. Sometimes all these factors are included in the term "organization structure"; sometimes they are referred to as "managerial authority relationships." In any case, it is the totality of such activities and authority relationships that constitutes the organizing function.

There are several implications of this concept of organizing. In the first place, the one-man or one-woman business cannot possibly be organized. Since the owner or operator performs all the business functions, no authority is delegated. However, let the owner split off the buying activities, assign them to a subordinate, and provide coordination of activity between the buyer and himself, and the enterprise will have become organized.

A second implication is that all managers, when they decide to organize an enterprise or a department, are involved basically in the same task. Whether they be presidents, sales managers, controllers, or office managers, they will reflect the goals toward which they are striving by identifying and grouping activities essential for their accomplishment, assigning some of them to subordinates, delegating the requisite authority to accomplish results, and providing for their coordination.

The organization structure is, of course, not an end in itself but a tool for accomplishing enterprise objectives. Efficient organization will contribute to the success of the enterprise, and for this reason