

高级商务英语

Business English for Advanced Learners



李建英 刘阳春 朱仁宏 编 ●
[新西兰]Sadie Bircher 审校 ●

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前 言

本书是为 MBA 学员编写的“商务英语”精读教材。该教材在中山大学管理学院使用了多年，并在使用过程中不断地进行了修改，使其内容更加充实和完善。该教材试图用“以学生为中心”的教学方法而编写。其目的是以“学”为主，迅速地扩大学员的商务词汇，提高学员在经济、管理等领域的阅读能力及表达能力；有效地了解世界上较新的科技发展及经济管理信息。除 MBA 学员外，该教材也适合大学的管理、经济学科的高年级学生使用。

本书共分 17 单元，每个单元都围绕着某个特定的“话题”。课文 A 主要选自国外权威报刊，代表某个领域较新的研究成果或企业运作的经验，语言有一定难度，供老师上课使用。课文 B 主要是描述这个领域或相关领域的基本知识，语言比较简单，容易上口，供学员讨论时使用。案例部分主要用于检验学员的学习成效——学员能否用所学知识去处理实际问题，其目的在于提高学员分析问题、解决问题以及口头表达的能力。每个单元都设有 1—2 个案例，供教师选择使用。

本书由李建英策划，几位任课老师合作编写。具体分工如下：李建英编写第 1—11 单元；刘阳春编写第 12—15，17 单元；朱仁宏编写第 16 单元。新西兰英语教师 Sadie Bircher 对全书进行了审订。该书的编写受到学院有关领导及 MBA 中心领导的支持，在此表示感谢！

编 者

2001 年 5 月

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Unit 1 Leadership (I)

Text A*

The Businessman of the Century (I)

Vocabulary

amass [ə'mæs] *v.* to gather or collect (money, goods etc.) in great amount 积聚 (钱、货物等); 积累

e.g. amass a large fortune 积攒大宗财产

e.g. amass political power 积聚政治权力

aristocratic [əristə'krætik] *a.* belong to the upper classes, intelligence, noble 贵族的

blemish ['blemɪʃ] *n.* defect, imperfection, flaw 缺点, 污点

capricious [kə'prɪʃəs] *a.* being likely to change suddenly; often changing 易变的, 善变的

disdain [dis'deɪn] *vt.* look down on; scorn 鄙视, 轻视

e.g. They **disdain** him for the coward he was. 他们因他如此怯懦而鄙视他。

e.g. She **disdained** our help. 她鄙视我们的援助。

flimsy ['flɪmzi] *a.* light and thin 轻而薄的

e.g. **flimsy** cloth 轻而薄的布

gospel ['gɒspl] *n.* a set of instructions or teachings that one believes in, acts upon, or preaches 教训, 信条

e.g. Drink plenty of water; that is my **gospel**. 每天喝水是我的信条。

hodgepodge ['hɒdʒpɒdʒ] *n.* disorderly mixture; mess 杂烩菜; 大杂烩

e.g. His speech was a **hodgepodge** of disconnected ideas. 他的发言是一些支离破碎的想法拼凑成的大杂烩。

e.g. a **hodgepodge** of people 各色人种

homespun ['həʊmspʌn] *a.* not polished; plain; simple 朴素的; 简单的

e.g. **homespun** manners 简单的方式

intransigence [ɪn'trænsɪdʒəns] *n.* uncompromising hostility that cannot be changed by other's wishes 不妥协, 不让步

e.g. The employers maintained a rigid **intransigence** in the face of union demands. 面对工会提出的要求，雇主们坚持僵硬的不妥协态度。

jujitsu [dʒuːˈdʒitsu] *n.* a Japanese way of wrestling, or of fighting without weapons, that uses the strength and weight of an opponent to his disadvantage 柔道

pit [pit] *vt.* set to fight or compete; match 使相斗；使竞争

e.g. be **pitted** against each other 被置于互斗的地位

promulgate [ˈprɒməˌleɪtɪ] *v.* to announce officially 颁布，公布

e.g. **promulgate** a constitution 颁布宪法

e.g. **promulgate** a decree 颁布法令

relinquish [riˈlɪŋkwɪʃ] *vt.* to give up; let go 放弃；交出

e.g. She was compelled to **relinquish** her first engagement. 她被迫解除第一个婚姻。

e.g. She **relinquished** all control over the family business to her daughter. 她将掌管家族商号的全部权力让予女儿。

reign [rein] *v.* to rule 统治

e.g. The king **reigns** over his kingdom. 国王统治着他的王国。

slipshod [ˈslɪpfəd] *a.* careless; not exact or thorough 随便的；马虎的

e.g. **slipshod** repair work 马马虎虎的修理

e.g. be dressed in a **slipshod** way 衣冠不整

spur [spɜː] *v.* to urge to action 促进，激励

e.g. He **spurred** his players to fight harder. 他鼓励他的球员们再卖力一点。

spout [spaut] *v.* speak, especially in loud and emotional tones 滔滔不绝地讲

e.g. He always **spouting** Shakespeare. 他老是喋喋不休地谈莎士比亚。

stud [stʌd] *v.* to be set with or scattered over 使散布，散布于

e.g. a city **studded** with factories 工厂林立的城市

sycophant [ˌsɪkəˈfænt] *n.* a person who tries to please (flatter) those more rich and powerful, so as to gain advantage for himself 拍马屁者，阿谀逢承的人

e.g. Great men are likely to be surrounded by **sycophants**. 伟人通常被那些想得到好处的人包围。

thug [θʌg] *a.* a violent criminal 暴徒

virtue [ˈvɜːtʃuː] *n.* goodness; a good quality 效能；效力

e.g. The school had its drawbacks and it had its **virtues**. 那所学校有其短处，也有其长处。

whimsical [ˈhwɪmzɪkl] *a.* fanciful; with strange ideas 古怪的；异想天开的

e.g. a **whimsical** notion 离奇的想法

e.g. the **whimsical** moods of the Alpine sun 阿尔卑斯山区瞬息万变的太阳

Henry Ford

Henry Ford (1863—1946) didn't invent the automobile, but he invented the automobile business. When he founded the Ford Motor Co. in 1903, cars were fussy, unreliable,

costly novelties. Ford's genius was to make them simple, solid, and inexpensive necessities. In so doing, he built the largest industrial organization of the early 20th century and amassed a personal fortune of \$1 billion (\$36 billion in today's dollars), but he also placed himself at the forefront of a social revolution that had an immeasurable impact on American life. When he got his Model T rolling in 1908, the horse disappeared so fast that the conversion of acreage from hay to other crops is said to have caused an agricultural revolution. And that was only the beginning.

One of eight children, Ford was born in 1863 and attended a one-room schoolhouse before dropping out at age 16 to find work in the machine shops of nearby Detroit. He was working as the chief engineer at the main Detroit Edison electric plant in 1896 when he built a horseless carriage, the Quadricycle, in a shed in his backyard. Since it was too wide to fit through the front door of the shed, Ford had to knock out part of the wall to drive it out.

His device attracted investors, and after several false starts he founded Ford Motor. At a time when the automotive landscape was studded with Cadillacs, Packards, and Pierce-Arrows costing several thousand dollars or more, Ford wanted to build a car designed for "everyday wear and tear." He introduced the Model T at \$850. It was homely but had the virtues of lightness, simplicity, and utility, and it became the most successful vehicle ever produced in America. More than 15.5 million were built during its 19-year run. Others would eventually target the mass automobile market—Chevrolet was born in 1911—but Ford came first.

To fill demand for the Model T, Ford had to scrap his manufacturing system, in which cars mounted on cradles were pushed from one workstation to the next while workers swarmed around them. In 1913, Ford redefined the work to stop the swarming— "The man who puts in a bolt does not put on the nut; the man who puts on the nut does not tighten it" —and roped the partially built cars together so they could be pulled past the workers at a predictable speed. In a single year, production doubled to nearly 200,000 while the number of workers actually fell from 14,336 to 12,880.

So demanding and numbing was the assembly-line work that Ford had to hire close to 1,000 workers just to keep 100. Thus he was persuaded to raise wages from the prevailing \$2.30 per day to \$5, though he insisted on calling the increase "profit sharing" to leave himself the option of withdrawing it in hard times. (Indeed, he did cut it to \$4 in 1932.) The five-dollar day drew workers to Dearborn from all over the country. To make sure his employees didn't fritter their money away, Ford created the Sociological Department, whose members visited workers in their homes, handing out pamphlets that urged them to use plenty of soap and water and not to spit on the floor.

Before the Model T, manufacturing was done by craftsmen who made things one at a time. But as Ford adapted the emerging principles of mass production to the automobile and hired tens of thousands of workers to put those principles into practice, he gave rise to an entirely new phenomenon; the blue-collar middle class. Because the jobs were simple and

repetitive, he could employ farmers, immigrants, and others who previously had done only manual labor. The five-dollar day gave them the income they needed to afford a home and support a family—and to buy the cars they were making. In creating a huge body of people who shared not only their work but many social and economic interests, Ford spurred the development of industrial labor unions.

But the union came much later. As Ford became more successful, he was increasingly portrayed as a folk hero who hung on to his rural values in an increasingly industrialized world. He spouted homespun aphorisms (“Failure is only the opportunity to begin again more intelligently.”) He gave old-fashioned dances at which he introduced his wealthy guests to the Virginia reel and the quadrille. He launched the *Peace Ship* in 1915, went on camping trips with Thomas Edison and Henry Firestone, and built an idealized rural enclave that he named Greenfield Village.

Meanwhile, Ford paid less attention to managing the enterprise he had created. He spent little time in his office, preferring to roam the factory floor. Balance sheets and operating statements meant nothing to him. He distrusted bankers and kept large sums in cash so he wouldn't have to borrow money. He disdained organization charts and job descriptions and delighted in pitting executives against one another. A manager arrived at work one day to discover that his office had been moved into the men's bathroom, with only a flimsy partition between his desk and the toilet. He quit the same day.

If Ford had had his way, he would have built the Model T forever. When he finally changed models in 1927, he laid off his workers and shut down production for six months while he engineered its replacement. It was too late: General Motors took the lead in car sales in 1931 and has never relinquished it. Increasingly whimsical and capricious, Ford reigned over a failing company run by sycophants and thugs until his wife and daughter-in-law forced him to turn it over to his grandson Henry II in 1945.

They were just in time. Ford Motor prospered with more professional management and now ranks as the world's second-largest industrial company (after General Motors), with revenues of \$ 143 billion. And the company has stayed in the family for four generations. Old Henry's descendants own 6% of Ford Motor stock, and his great-grandson William Clay Ford Jr. is chairman of the board. As for his large legacy, well, just look around you.

Alfred P. Sloan Jr.

Alfred P. Sloan Jr. (1876—1966) sold roller bearings to Henry Ford in the early years of the century. Not much later, Sloan brought Ford Motor nearly to its knees.

Sloan's father had bought Hyatt Roller Bearing for his son in 1898 for \$ 5,000. In 1916, Alfred Jr. sold it for \$ 13.5 million (2,700 times the initial investment) to William C. Durant. Two years later Durant folded Hyatt into General Motors, and Sloan became a vice president and a member of GM's executive committee.

GM was such a hodgepodge of uncoordinated enterprises, and Durant such a slipshod

manager, that Sloan nearly quit in frustration. He didn't have to. In 1920, GM's debts and inventories collided with a collapse in automobile sales, and the company nearly failed. Durant was forced out, and in 1923, Sloan became president. He remained chief executive officer until 1946.

During those 23 years, Sloan invented the art of managing a large corporation. First he created a corporate office, whose job was to allocate resources and coordinate the company's operating divisions but not to run them. From corporate, every division got whatever it needed—money, factories, sales forces—to operate autonomously. To link the divisions, Sloan promulgated a set of “standard procedures” for budgeting, hiring, forecasting, reporting sales, etc., and also created interdivisional councils where executives and staff could share ideas or find ways to exploit economies of scale. Sloan got it just right: his GM had the right amount of central control, the right amount of divisional independence, and plenty of ways to share ideas. If Sloan's management record has one blemish, it was his stubborn refusal to meet with representatives of the new United Automobile Workers Union—an intransigence that led to a series of sit-down strikes in 1937 and, ultimately, to the company's agreeing, under heavy government pressure, to recognize the union. But if Sloan found organized labor difficult to deal with, he was hardly alone.

Sloan was as brilliant at strategy as he was at organizing. From 1908 to 1927, Ford produced just one car—the Model T. Sloan, on the other hand, had inherited an ill-sorted collection of models from Durant; in a classic bit of managerial jujitsu, he succeeded in turning that liability to his own advantage. Vowing to produce a car “for every purse and purpose” —from the aristocratic Cadillac to the proletarian Chevrolet—he modified his lines accordingly. As a result, Ford's share of U.S. motor-vehicle sales fell from 55.7% to 18.9% between 1921 and 1940, while GM's rose from 12.7% to 47.5%.

Sloan told his own story in *My Years at General Motors*, but his tale is not just written there. It is written also in the annual reports and organization charts of nearly every large business in the world. It was at Sloan's General Motors that Peter Drucker learned the gospel of management he has spread through his own consulting and writing. The modern divisionalized corporation was in large part Sloan's creation. He showed how to set it up and make it work. Every leader since stands on his shoulders—up to and including FORTUNE's Manager of the Century, Jack Welch, the current master of the art Sloan invented.

I . Reading Comprehension

Circle the letter of the best answer.

1. Before Ford founded the Ford Motor Co., _____.
 - a. cars had been already widely used
 - b. cars had been unreliable and expensive
 - c. cars had been sold inexpensively
2. From the passage, we conclude that _____.

- a. Model T was designed for common people
 - b. Model T was designed for wealthy people
 - c. Model T was designed for white collar workers
3. The assembly-line was first invented and used by _____.
 a. Sloan Jr.
 b. Ford
 c. Both A and B
4. Ford Motor failed once during the reign of Ford. One of the reasons is that _____.
 a. he spent more time on recreation
 b. he paid little attention to the management of the enterprise
 c. None of the above
5. Ford Motor revitalized because _____.
 a. it was run by sycophants and thugs during Ford's reign
 b. it was run by more professional management after Ford resigned
 c. Both A and B
6. Sloan Jr. became president of GM, because _____.
 a. he sold Hyatt Roller Bearing to GM
 b. his predecessor was not a qualified president
 c. Both A and B
7. What's Sloan's main contribution to the company?
 a. He created the art of managing a large corporation.
 b. He established the new United Automobile Worker's Union.
 c. The former president resigned.
8. Vowing to produce a car "for every purse and purpose. . ." he modified his lines accordingly. The underlined phrase means _____.
 a. for everyone with various purposes
 b. for all the working people
 c. None of the above

II . Vocabulary Exercise

A. Circle the letter of the word that is closest in meaning to the underlined word .

1. China has a long coastline studded with islands.
 a. scattered b. stuck c. covered
2. This kind of carpet can stand up to the wear and tear of continual use.
 a. damage caused by ordinary use
 b. breakage caused by careless use
 c. damage caused by overuse
3. He praised the virtues of the small car.
 a. potentialities

- b. good qualities
- c. practicalities
- 4. The thought of the prize spurred me on.
 - a. instructed b. stimulated c. discouraged
- 5. Now that she is rich, she disdains to speak to her old friends.
 - a. despises b. ignores c. discriminates
- 6. The little man pitted his brains against the big man's strength.
 - a. matched b. marked c. forced
- 7. The government collided with Parliament over its industrial plans.
 - a. hit b. argued c. conflicted
- 8. The constitution probably will soon be promulgated and elections are promised within a year.
 - a. come out b. published c. proclaimed

B. Fill in the blanks with words that are often confused.

- 1. amass, accumulate
 - a. Before he was forty he _____ a fortune.
 - b. Through the years he _____ sufficient money to buy a farm when he retired.
- 2. virtue, goodness
 - a. Her _____ is shown by the many good deeds she does.
 - b. He is a man of the highest _____.
- 3. prevailing, current
 - a. He wore his hair in the _____ fashion.
 - b. We read the daily newspaper to keep up with the _____ situation and developments in different parts of the world.
- 4. scorn, contempt, disdain
 - a. He attacked their proposals in words of bitter _____.
 - b. We feel _____ for a coward.
 - c. We feel _____ for a person who cheats.

III. Questions for Discussion

- 1. How did Henry Ford succeed?
- 2. What lessons should we learn from Henry Ford?
- 3. What enlightenment do you gain from Sloan's experience?

Text B* (1)

Fundamentals of Leadership

Business Words to Learn

leadership 领导

leadership characteristics 领导特征

trait theory 特质理论

high-echelon 高层领导

low-echelon 低层领导

Leadership is the process of influencing people to direct their efforts toward the achievement of some particular goal(s). Some managers are highly effective, but most are, at best, only moderately successful. What accounts for this difference? Some people believe the answer rests in **leadership characteristics**. Such as drive, originality, and tolerance of stress, which, they say, are universal among successful leaders. If you have these qualities, you will do well in leading others; if you lack them you will be ineffective in the leadership role.

Others argue in favor of **personal characteristics**, such as superior mental ability, emotional maturity, and problem-solving skill. They claim there is no universal list of leadership characteristics, so we must turn to personal characteristics that interact with one another to produce the desired outcomes. Only through an awareness of how these characteristics influence managerial effectiveness can we truly understand the nature of leadership. To begin our study of this subject, we examine both approaches, leadership characteristics and personal characteristics, and then address the importance of managerial assumptions regarding the nature of organizational personnel.

Leadership Characteristics

Recent leadership studies have pointed out the importance of environmental influences on leadership effectiveness. However, published research indicates that, regardless of the situation, certain characteristics favor success in the leadership role.

From 1920 to 1950 the study of leadership characteristics, known as **trait theory**, sought to isolate those factors that contribute to leader effectiveness. This approach assumed that attributes such as initiative, social dominance, and persistence were the primary factors in leadership success and failure. Unfortunately, the research studies conducted during this period failed to produce a universal list of traits. Additionally, in most cases, no considera-

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tion was given to the possibility that different situations might require different characteristics, or that a specific situation might demand so little of the leader or might be so unfavorable that leadership characteristics would be of little, if any, value. Despite the arguments for situational leadership, however, Ralph Stogdill, one of the leading authorities in the field, concluded that a selected group of characteristics do, in fact, differentiate leaders from followers, effective from ineffective leaders, and high-echelon from low-echelon leaders.

The greatest problem with trait theory, however, is that no common list has been forthcoming. Some traits appear important, but their value is situationally determined. A leader with a capacity to structure social interaction systems may do well when directing subordinates with a high need for social interaction but poorly if the subordinates or the situation does not allow for such interaction. For example, assembly-line work is not designed for manager-subordinate interaction, so the ability to initiate or structure such relationships is of little value to the foreman. As a result, leadership effectiveness appears to be situational in nature. This finding has led many researchers to turn their attention to personal characteristics of effective leaders.

Personal Characteristics

Many personal characteristics appear to be related to managerial effectiveness, but an exhaustive list is beyond our current needs. We will examine six major personal characteristics that significantly contribute to leadership effectiveness. They are superior intelligence, emotional maturity, motivation drive, problem-solving skills, and leadership skills.

Superior Intelligence Research reveals that effective managers tend to have superior intelligence. By this we mean there is a minimum level of mental ability below which we are unlikely to find successful leaders. Conversely, there may well be a ceiling above which we are again unlikely to find effective leaders. Some experts suggest that: IQs (intelligence quotations) from about 120 to 135 are the ideal ranges for managerial success. Individuals with IQs from 115 to 119 are acceptable in some managerial positions but seldom in top companies with strong competition for promotion. Managers with IQs below 115 are at a distinct disadvantage when competing with other managers, except at the first-line supervisory level. Those with unusually high IQs (say over 135) sometimes become undesirably theoretical and/or become bored with the routine that exists in many line positions.

Keep in mind that intelligence is a relative matter. Some geniuses are excellent leaders, while some people with IQs in the 120—135 range lack the personality to manage effectively. Additionally, one can have a superior intellect and be in the wrong job. For example; a person with high verbal skills and abstract reasoning ability and low quantitative ability might do poorly in an accounting firm or a bank, and individual with low verbal skills and high quantitative ability might be a total failure as a personnel manager. Yet both have high IQs and their mental abilities are comparable.

Emotional Maturity Successful leaders are emotionally mature. They are self-confi-

dent and capable of directing their subordinates in a calm, conscientious manner. If a subordinate makes a mistake, the effective leader tries to use the experience as an opportunity to teach and counsel the person so as to prevent recurrence of the problem. The leader realizes that little is to be gained from bawling out the subordinate (except maybe to embarrass the latter in front of his or her peers), especially if the person really wanted to do the job right.

Effective leaders also have a sense of purpose and meaning in life. They know who they are, where they are going, and how they are going to get there. They are practical and decisive and have confidence in their own abilities. Additionally, the goals they set for themselves are often challenging as well as realistic.

Finally, because they are emotionally mature, successful leaders are neither ulcer-prone nor workaholics. They know how to deal with stress, to delegate work that is either minor in importance or is best handled by someone more technically skilled, and to handle the challenges of the job without resorting to alcohol or drugs. Because they know and understand themselves, they are able to cope with the demands of both their business and personal lives. For example, the divorce rate among successful leaders is no greater than in the general population.

Motivation Drive Effective leaders have high motivation drive. In particular, they seem most motivated by the opportunity to achieve the chance for power or control over a situation and by the need to self-actualize. Effective leaders often measure their progress in quantitative terms: how much money they are making; how many promotions they have had; how many subordinates they control. If we were to compare highly successful, moderately successful, and unsuccessful leaders in terms of need motivation we could assign each to specific levels of Maslow's need hierarchy.

Additionally, we know from research that successful leaders tend to have subordinates who are also interested in fulfillment of self-actualization and esteem needs. Average leaders have followers who are most concerned with esteem and social needs. The least successful leaders have subordinates who are most interested in safety and physiological needs. In short, successful leaders tend to attract a particular type of subordinate, as do the average and least successful leaders, and these subordinates have need drives similar to those of their superiors. In large measure, highly motivated leaders attract or develop highly motivated subordinates.

Problem-solving Skills Effective leaders also possess problem-solving skills. They see a problem as both a challenge and an opportunity to prove their managerial abilities. As such, these skills are closely related to high motivation drives, for without such motivation, leaders might be unwilling to assume the risk that comes with problem-solving. These individuals also have a great deal of self-confidence. Conversely, average leaders and, especially, ineffective leaders tend to shun problem-solving because they either are unprepared to deal with the issues or have learned through experience that they are not up to the task.

Managerial Skills Effective leaders, especially at the upper levels of the hierarchy,