



现代工程专业英语系列

工商管理专业 实务英语

Practical English for
Business Management

主编◎史宝玉



工程大学出版社
Engineering University Press




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内 容 简 介

本书的编著本着工商管理的基础知识理解和应用能力培养目的而进行。全书分为两个部分:第一部分为基础知识部分,从管理思想的演变、组织环境、企业营销和国际贸易等方面进行了系统的阐述,旨在让学生从英语的角度理解相关知识,培养双语思维能力;第二部分为实务部分,以外经贸过程为线索,分别介绍了外贸函电的写作要求、函电的类型及商务合同的具体内容商讨等,主要注重培养学生英语知识的应用能力。

本书与现有同类教科书相比,最大的特点是拓宽知识面和突出实用性,力求理论和应用的有机结合。本书理论部分的每一单元都附了相关案例,以实现活学活用。在应用部分,不但编写了相关的函电例文,而且对每一业务内容及应注意事项进行了详细阐述,从常用句型到专业术语,力争扩大知识量,增强学生的应用能力,同时为了避免写与说相分离,也为了使学生进一步了解商贸活动,实用部分的每一单元后都附有商务对话,供学生参考学习。本书每章节都设计了大量的习题,供学生练习使用。

本书可作为工商管理专业本、专科学生的专业英语教材,也可供相关专业人员自学参考。

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前言

PREFACE

全球经济一体化的发展,伴随着中国加入 WTO 进入一个崭新的发展阶段。通晓相关英语知识、熟悉商务已成为工商管理专业人士开展工作的必备条件。在商界中,能用英语正确传递和理解信息,才能使自己处于知己知彼、百战不殆的地位。为培养商贸复合型英语人才,我们编著了本书,以顺应英语教学和人才市场的共鸣。

本书由史宝玉主编,王金丽、金玮担任副主编。各章编写分工如下:第一部分的第一、第五单元和第二部分由史宝玉编写,第一部分的第三、第四单元及第一部分案例由王金丽编写,第一部分的第二、第六单元及附录由金玮编写。全书由史宝玉统编。

本书在编写过程中参考了大量的教材、著作、期刊和网络资源,由于选材面涉及较广,未能在此一一注明,特此说明,并向所有相关作者谨表谢忱。

编者水平有限,书中难免存在不足及疏漏,敬请读者不吝赐教。

编 者

2009 年 1 月

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Unit I Basis Section

Chapter 1 Management Thought and Functions

Part I The Development of Management Thought

Prescientific Management Era

Problems of administration were of interest to students of government even in ancient Greek and Biblical times. The Bible, for example, explains organizational problems faced by Moses in leading his people. Histories of the Roman Empire contain information on how administrative problems were handled. In spite of the fact that administrative problems received attention in ancient times, no important managerial tools of analysis developed until the end of the Dark Ages when commerce began to grow in the Mediterranean. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, the large trading houses of Italy needed a means of keeping records of business transactions. To satisfy this need, the technique of double entry bookkeeping was first described by Pacioli in 1494. The roots of modern accounting, therefore, were planted four centuries before they were to form an important field of knowledge for the modern manager.

Not until after the rise of the capitalistic system did students rigorously give attention to the field of economics. In 1776, Adam Smith wrote *The Wealth of Nations* in which he developed important economic concepts. He emphasized the importance of division of labor, with its three chief advantages: (1) an increase in the dexterity of every workman; (2) the saving of time lost in passing from one type of work to the next; and (3) the better use of new machines. The development of the factory system resulted in an increased interest in the economics of production and the entrepreneur.

In the Middle Ages (and even until recently in many countries) the family unit was the basic production organization. A skilled craftsman taught his sons a trade, and the family was known by its particular trade and skill. Modern surnames such as Carpenter, Goldsmith, Butcher, Farmer, and Taylor are evidence of this development. Production functions were not distinguished from social functions; there was still no need for separate attention to managerial activities. The inventions of the eighteenth century initiated a change which Toynbee later called the Industrial Revolution. Production moved from the home to a separate installation—the factory—where machinery was concentrated and labor employed. In the early stages of the Industrial Revolution, owners of factories directed production but generally did not distinguish between their ownership functions and their management duties.

Some of the first factory owners concentrated on improving methods of production and



introduced concepts that proved fundamental to modern manufacturing methods. Before 1800, Eli Whitney and Simeon North developed the concept of interchangeability of parts in the manufacture of pistols and muskets. This concept led to the producing of parts to close tolerances, thus making possible the exchange of one part for another without fitting or further machining. In 1796, Matthew R. Boulton and James Watt Jr. organized the Soho Foundry, in which product components were standardized, cost records kept, and management of the factory improved.

In the early nineteenth century, the need for larger aggregations of capital to support factory operations resulted in increased applications of a special legal form of organizing a business. The corporations as a separate legal entity could sell shares of stock to many individuals and thus raise large sums of capital. Stockholders then became so numerous that all could not actively manage a business. By the middle of the nineteenth century, general incorporation acts made it possible for many businesses to use this legal form of organization at a time in which technological developments were forcing an increase in the size of the manufacturing unit. If the family fortune was insufficient for the family owners to expand, the corporation provided a means by which capital could be secured from owners who were not managers. The distinction between the function of owners and the function of managers became clear. This distinction set the stage for students to concentrate on the management process as a separate field of study.

By 1832, scientists and other persons not directly related to ownership of manufacturing firms began to consider improvements in management. In that year Charles Babbage, a mathematician and a teacher, wrote *On the Economy of Machinery and Manufactures*, in which he applied his principles to the workshop. This early work introduced the idea of using scientific techniques to improve the managing process. Such developments before the twentieth century were, however, exceptional and did not include any integrated effort to study management. The social, legal, technical, and economic environment had not provided the necessary conditions for concentrating on management improvements. By the end of the nineteenth century, the stage was set for a group of people to tackle management problems in a systematic manner.

Classical Management

By 1886, the American Society of Mechanical Engineers was an established professional society, holding meetings at which leaders presented technical papers. In that year Henry R. Towne, President of Yale & Towne Manufacturing Company, presented a paper, "The Engineer as an Economist", and made a plea to the society to recognize management as a separate field of study.

At the time that Towne's paper was presented to the ASME, Frederick W. Taylor was an operating manager at the Midvale Steel Works. He had progressed from the level of worker in the plant—where he had been able to observe the accepted practices of the time—and had obtained an engineering degree in 1883 by studying evenings at Stevens Institute of Technology. With his strong will and keen powers of observation, he rebelled against the restriction of production that he called "soldiering".

Taylor noticed that managers were supposed to "pick up" their management skill through trial and error. "Rules of thumb" were their only guides. Above all, he argued that too much of



management's job was being left to the worker. He felt that it was management's job to set up methods and standards of work and to provide an incentive for the worker to increase production. Two of Taylor's specific contributions resulted from this thinking: (1) experiments with Maunsel White led to the development of high-speed cutting steel that trebled production; (2) system of wage payment based upon a definite time standard.

Taylor would have been remembered for his early work in providing specific techniques for managers; yet his contributions leading to his recognition as the "father of scientific management" were two books written after he had resigned as a practicing manager: *Shop Management* (1906) and *The Principles of Scientific Management* (1911).

Until his death in 1915, Taylor expounded his new philosophy, stressing that the core of scientific management was not in individual techniques but in the new attitude toward managing a business enterprise. The essence of scientific management was in four general areas:

1. The discovery, through use of the scientific method, of basic elements of man's work to replace rules of thumb.
2. The identification of management's function of planning work, instead of allowing workmen to choose their own methods.
3. The selection and training of workers and the development of cooperation, instead of encouraging individualistic efforts by employees.
4. The division of work between management and the workers so that each would perform those duties for which he was best fitted, with the resultant increase in efficiency.

Taylor was a major contributor to scientific management, but by no means was he alone. Henry L. Gantt, a contemporary and associate of Taylor, joined in the attack on existing management practices and emphasized the psychology of the worker and the importance of morale in production. Gantt devised a wage payment system, which stimulated foremen and workers to strive for improvement in work practices. He developed a charting system for scheduling production that remains the basis for modern scheduling techniques.

Morris L. Cooke and Harrington Emerson were among the founders of scientific management and are important for their applications of the philosophy to a wider group of activities. Cooke demonstrated the applicability of scientific management in nonindustrial fields, especially in university operations and city management. Emerson concentrated on introducing new ideas to the Santa Fe Railroad and later developed what he termed twelve principles of efficiency.

By 1924, when the first International Management Congress was held in Prague, scientific management had become international in scope. Henry Fayol had previously led a French movement in the improvement of work at the administrative level of organization.

During the 1920s and 1930s, scientific management fell into the hands of "efficiency experts", who concentrated on the mechanical aspects of production. Critics of the movement pointed out that this approach neglected the elements of the psychological needs of workers and the sociological aspects of cooperation. They also observed that scientific management, by concentration on the details of the shop, had neglected improvements at higher levels of the organization. During these decades, some management thinkers and practitioners attempted to



remedy this defect by formulating generalizations deduced from their understanding of what management should be.

Words and Expressions

1. biblical	圣经的, 出于或有关圣经的
2. double entry bookkeeping	复式记账法
3. accounting	会计学
4. rigorously	严厉地, 严格地
5. dexterity	灵巧, 敏捷
6. entrepreneur	企业家, 承包商
7. initiate	开始, 创始, 发起
8. installation	安装, 安置, 设备、机器的安装地
9. interchangeability	可互换性
10. musket	滑膛枪, 旧式步枪
11. component	部件, 元件, 组成部分
12. aggregation	聚集, 聚集体
13. entity	实体, 统一体
14. stockholder	股东
15. incorporation	公司, 社团, 合并
16. exceptional	例外的, 特殊的, 罕见的
17. integrate	把……和……结合在一起, 整合(部分等)
18. plea	请求, 恳求
19. trial and error	试错, 反复试验
20. rules of thumb	经验法则
21. incentive	刺激, 鼓励
22. treble	使成三倍, 增加二倍
23. expound	详加解释, 详细说明
24. morale	士气, 精神
25. foreman	领班, 工头
26. practitioner	从业者
27. formulate	系统地阐述, 提出
28. deduce	演绎, 推演, 推断

Exercises

I. Choose the best answer for each of the following according to the passage

1. Important managerial tools of analysis began to develop _____.
A. in ancient Rome B. at the end of the Dark Ages
C. since the Biblical times D. during the Industrial Revolution
2. Modern accounting became an important field of knowledge in _____.
A. the fourteenth century B. the sixteenth century



- C. the eighteenth century D. the nineteenth century
3. Elizabeth Taylor could trace her last back to her forefathers used to make a living by _____.
- A. a trade B. farming
C. a title D. the wealth
4. Separate attention was not paid to managerial activities until _____.
- A. the end of the Roman Empire
B. the publication of Adam Smith's *The wealth of Nations*
C. the appearance of commerce in the Mediterranean
D. the beginning of the Industrial Revolution
5. The cause of the end of the family unit as the basic production organization is _____.
- A. the change initiated by Toynbee
B. the invention of machines in the 18th century
C. the emergence of factory owners
D. the employment of large amounts of labor
6. Which of the following is not an advantage of the corporation?
- A. It could provide a means by which capital could be secured from owners who were not managers.
B. It could separate the function of owners from the function of managers.
C. It could help to increase the size of the manufacturing unit.
D. It could help to improve methods of production.
7. The corporation as a special form of organizing business emerged _____.
- A. as a result of the enforcement of laws
B. out of the necessity for accumulating large sums of money
C. with a view to accelerating production
D. for the purpose of competing with familial production units
8. It can be inferred that in Taylor's day, _____.
- A. workers did some of management's jobs
B. workers were motivated to increase production
C. managers were short of theories to direct their managerial practice
D. managers required workers to do too much work
9. _____ developed a charting system for scheduling production that remains the basis for modern scheduling techniques.
- A. Morris L. Cooke B. Henry Fayol
C. Henry L. Gantt D. Harrington Emerson
10. From the last paragraph, we may safely conclude that, to manage efficiently, one must _____.
- A. take no account of mechanical aspect
B. attach greater importance to the improvement of cooperation
C. give greater attention to the psychological aspect of management



D. take overall managerial factors into consideration

II. Answer the following questions

1. What was Pacioli's purpose of describing the technique of double entry bookkeeping?
2. What is the significance of the development of the concept of interchangeability of parts?
3. By doing what could the corporation raise large sums of capital?
4. Why was Frederick Taylor called the father of scientific management?
5. Briefly compare the viewpoints of the efficiency experts of the 1920s and 1930s and the viewpoints of those who criticize their outlook.

Part II The Four Management Functions

Planning

Planning defines where the organization wants to be in the future and how to get there. Planning means defining goals for future organizational performance and deciding on the tasks and use of resources needed to attain them. Senior managers at Hewlett-Packard defined a specific plan: over a period of less than a year, to transform a division making microwave test gear into a leader in the hot market for digital video, a transformation James Olson, manager of the division, called "from gear heads into gladiators".

Senior managers at Home Depot have devised extensive plans to increase the number of its stores by 25 percent a year and open 460 new stores in Canada, Mexico, and the United States by 1998.

A lack of planning—or poor planning—can hurt an organization's performance. For example, Ashton-Tate Corporation, a PC software giant ranked in the big three of the industry, tumbled sharply as a result of planning errors attributed to chief executive Edward Esber Jr. , Critics cite Esber's lack of vision in perceiving market direction and a weak planning effort that left too many bugs in the dBASE software introduction along with failed efforts to develop other software products. Poor planning is a major reason for the sharp decline in Ashton-Tate's market share and revenue growth rate, producing the company's first net loss of \$ 430 million.

Organizing

Organizing typically follows planning and reflects how the organization tries to accomplish the plan. Organizing involves the assignment of tasks, the grouping of tasks into departments, and the allocation of resources to departments. For example, Hewlett-Packard, Sears Roebuck, Xerox, and Digital Equipment have all undergone structural reorganizations to accommodate their changing plans. SEMCO, a Brazilian company making industrial pumps, mixers, propellers, and other products, reorganized from a highly structured, autocratic business into a company run on trust, freedom, and democracy. Six people, including one woman, rotate as CEO, each putting in six-month stints. Employees set their own work schedules, organizing themselves to accomplish their tasks. SEMCO's loose organization has been so successful that Mobil, IBM, and hundreds of other U. S. companies have traveled to Sao Paulo to see the operation firsthand. After meeting



CEO Ricardo Semler in 1988, Noel Ginsburg decided to remake Container Industries of Denver in SEMCO's image. Since then, Container Industries' annual sales have more than doubled, and the money-losing company has become profitable. Honeywell managers reorganized new product development into "tiger teams" consisting of marketing, engineering, and design employees. The new structural design reduced the time to produce a new thermostat from 4 years to 12 months. Many companies today are following Honeywell's lead by reorganizing into teams that have more responsibility for self-management.

Leading

Providing leadership is becoming an increasingly important management function. Leading is the use of influence to motivate employees to achieve organizational goals. Leading means creating a shared culture and values, communicating goals to employees throughout the organization, and infusing employees with the desire to perform at a high level. Leading involves motivating entire departments and divisions as well as those individuals working immediately with the manager. In an era of uncertainty, downsizing, international competition, and a growing diversity of the workforce, the ability to shape culture, communicate goals, and motivate employees is critical to business success.

Managers such as Lee Iacocca are exceptional leaders. They are able to communicate their vision throughout the organization and energize employees into action. General Creech was a leader when he improved the motivation of aircraft maintenance technicians in hundreds of maintenance squadrons. Maintenance people previously had been neglected in favor of pilots. Creech set up highly visible bulletin boards displaying pictures of the maintenance crew chiefs, improved their living quarters, and established decent maintenance facilities, complete with paintings and wall murals. He introduced competition among the newly independent maintenance squadrons. He created trophy rooms to hold plaques and other prizes won in maintenance competitions. This prominent display of concern for maintenance specialists greatly increased their motivation to keep the planes flying.

Leadership can have a negative impact, too. Lawrence's leadership of Braniff was said to contribute to employee's demotivation. Lawrence won notoriety on Braniff's Flight 6, which he took weekly to visit his wife, who worked in New York City. His tantrums of Flight 6 are legend. On one flight a stewardess served him an entire selection of condiments with his meal instead of asking him which one he preferred. He slammed his fist into the plate, splattering food on the surrounding seats of the first-class cabin. "Don't you ever assume what I want?" He screamed.

"On several occasions flight attendants came to me in tears, fearful of losing their jobs," says Ed Clements, former director of flight attendant services at Braniff. "I was sickened by what he was doing to the employees."

Lawrence's appearance on an aircraft was likely to arouse two emotions in the crew: fear and hatred.

Inevitably, dissatisfied employees led to dissatisfied customers. Marketing surveys indicated that Braniff was unpopular with many of its passengers. Without a loyal customer base, successful expansion and high performance proved impossible.



Controlling

Controlling is the fourth function in the management process. Controlling means monitoring employees' activities, determining whether the organization is on target toward its goals, and making corrections as necessary. Managers must ensure that the organization is moving toward its goals. New trends toward empowerment and trust of employees have led many companies to place less emphasis on top-down control and more emphasis on training employees to monitor and correct themselves. At ISS (International Service System), the Danish company that grew from a local office-cleaning contractor to a \$ 2 billion multinational business, the entire control system is built on the belief that people at all levels will make the right decisions if they are provided with the appropriate information. Frontline employees are thoroughly trained to measure their own performance against company standards and make corrections as needed. Ongoing training programs at Andersen Consulting instill in every employee the company's core values and standards of expected performance, enabling the company to give its employees great freedom without endangering the firm's high standards.

However, managers must realize that what works in one company or one situation may not work in another. C. R. England, a long-haul refrigerated trucking company in Salt Lake City, instituted a strict, computerized control system because the company was losing money and future prospects were dim. The system monitors about 500 procedures a week and truckers can earn up to \$ 9,000 a year extra if they meet safety and fuel consumption goals. Every employee is graded weekly based on computerized data. Although such strict control opposes recent trends toward trust and empowerment, it has brought C. R. England from the brink of destruction to be one of the top five companies in its industry. Although workers don't particularly like such close monitoring, turnover actually dropped when the new system was implemented.

Words and Expressions

- | | |
|--------------------|----------------|
| 1. digital video | 数码录像机 |
| 2. gladiator | (古罗马的)斗士 |
| 3. tumble | 摔倒,(价格或数量)急剧下降 |
| 4. bug | 缺陷,瑕疵 |
| 5. net loss | 净损失 |
| 6. accommodate | 容纳,接纳,使适应 |
| 7. propeller | 轮船或飞机的推进器,螺旋桨 |
| 8. autocratic | 独裁的,专断的 |
| 9. stint | 定量,限额,限制 |
| 10. firsthand | 直接地,第一手得来地 |
| 11. thermostat | 恒温器 |
| 12. infuse | 注入,灌输 |
| 13. downsize | 减少,缩减 |
| 14. squadron | (空军的)中队,一组 |
| 15. bulletin board | 布告牌 |



16. complete with	附有,具备配套
17. mural	壁画,壁饰
18. trophy	奖品,纪念品
19. plaque	名誉奖章,徽章
20. notoriety	臭名昭著
21. tantrum	发脾气
22. legend	传说,传奇
23. condiment	调味品
24. splatter	连续发出溅泼声,说话结结巴巴
25. on target	正确,准确
26. empowerment	授权
27. on going	不断前进中的,不断发展中的
28. instil	逐渐灌输
29. long-haul	远程的
30. institute	制定,建立,创立
31. brink	边,边缘
32. turnover	营业额,成交量,周转
33. implement	实施,执行

Case

Mohamed Saleem has a challenging control problem. As manager of electronic resource planning at Mohamed Mustafa & Shamsuddin Company (Mustafa's), a Singaporean retailer known for its low prices and vast array of products from around the world, he must figure out how to control customer fraud at the company's Web site.

Controlling customer stealing isn't anything new for Mustafa's. To control pilfering opportunities at its two enormous department stores, Mustafa's makes customers leave their bags at the entrance; cashiers secure shopping bags with plastic grips so customers can't slip in unpaid items; and plainclothes security officers and security cameras monitor aisles crammed with silk saris, gold jewelry, electric fans, rice cookers, and similar merchandise. The two stores are located side by side in Singapore's Little India. Besides sheer variety, the stores also offer consistently lower prices than many of its rivals, especially on electronics goods. About 40 percent of Mustafa's customers are tourists. However efficient and effective the company's attempts are at controlling customer theft at its bricks-and-mortar stores, doing so in an electronic world isn't as easy!

In 1994, Mustafa's introduced a Web site storefront. The Web site offers about 5,000 (out of the 100,000) items stocked in the physical stores. It also boasts several innovative features including live foreign exchange rates updated regularly. Orders are shipped to customers within hours. However, fraud problems started almost immediately. Although the company's software ensured that each transaction was encrypted to protect customers from theft of their financial information, customers weren't required to digitally verify their identities before making credit card



payments online. And unfortunately, Mustafa's wasn't protected from fraudulent credit card transactions, a problem faced by all internet retailers. When customers made credit card purchases using fraudulent means, Mustafa's was left holding the bill. Saleem has been directed to come up with a plan for addressing this problem for his company. Put yourself in his position. What steps might you take to control Credit card fraud?

Part III Types of Managers and Managerial Roles

Types of Managers

We have been using the term manager to mean anyone who is responsible for carrying out the four main activities of management. However, managers can be classified in two ways: by their level in the organization (so-called first-line, middle, and top managers) and by the range of organizational activities for which they are responsible (so-called functional and general managers).

Management Levels

First-line Management. The lowest level in an organization at which individuals are responsible for the work of others is called first-line or first-level management. First-line managers direct operating employees only; they do not supervise other managers. Examples of first-line managers are the foreman or production supervisor in a manufacturing plant, the technical supervisor in a research department, and the clerical supervisor in a large office, first-level managers are often called "supervisors".

Middle Managers. The term middle management can include more than one level in an organization. Middle managers direct the activities of lower-level managers and sometimes those of operating employees as well. Middle managers' principal responsibilities are to direct the activities that implement their organizations' policies and to balance the demands of their superiors with the capacities of their subordinates.

Top Managers. Composed of a comparatively small group of executives, top management is responsible for the overall management of the organization. It establishes operating policies and guides the organization's interactions with its environment. Typical titles of top managers are "chief executive officer", "president", and "senior vice president". Actual titles vary from one organization to another and are not always a reliable guide to membership in the highest management classification.

Functional and General Managers

The other major classification of managers depends on the scope of the activities they manage.

Functional Managers. The functional manager is responsible for only one organizational activity, such as production, marketing, or finance. The people and activities headed by a functional manager are engaged in a common set of activities.

General Managers. The general manager, on the other hand, oversees a complex unit, such



as a company, a subsidiary, or an independent operating division. He or she is responsible for all the activities of that unit, such as its production, marketing, and finance. A small company may have only one general manager—its president or executive vice president—but a large organization may have several, each heading a relatively independent division. In a large food company, for example, there may be a grocery-products division, a refrigerated-products division, and a frozen-food-products division, with a different general manager responsible for each. Like the chief executive of a small company each of these divisional heads is responsible for all the activities of the unit.

Managerial Roles

Our working definition describes managers as organizational planner, organizers, leaders, and controllers. Actually, every manager from the program director of a college club to the chief executive of a multinational corporation takes on a much wider range of roles to move the organization toward its stated objectives.

Henry Mintzberg made an extensive survey of existing research on the subject of managerial roles and integrated his findings with the results of a study of five chief executive officers. He concluded that all managers play a series of interpersonal, informational, and decision-making roles.

Interpersonal Roles

Three sometimes routine interpersonal roles—figurehead, leader, and liaison—help managers keep their organizations running smoothly.

Figurehead. As a figurehead, the manager performs ceremonial duties as head of the unit: greeting visitors, attending subordinates' weddings, taking customers to lunch. More importantly, managers are symbols and personify, for both organizational members and outside observers, an organization's successes and failures. They are often held responsible for outcomes over which they have little or no control—thus the frequent dismissals of professional sports managers.

Leader. Since managers work with and through other people, they are responsible and accountable for their subordinates' action as well as for their own. In fact, their subordinates' success or failure is a direct measure of their own success or failure. Because managers have subordinates and other resources, they are able to accomplish more than nonmanagers—which means, of course, that they are expected to accomplish more than other organization members.

Liaison. Like politicians, managers must learn to work with everyone inside or outside the organization who can help them achieve their organizational goals. All effective managers “play politics” in the sense that they develop networks of mutual obligations with other managers in the organization. They may also build or join alliances and coalitions. Managers draw upon these relationships to win support for their proposals or decisions and to gain cooperation in carrying out various activities.

Informational Roles

Receiving and communicating information, Mintzberg suggests, are the most important aspects of a manager's job. Managers need information to make intelligent decisions, and other