GSGL
21世纪工商管理课程
系列教材

# 管理专业英语

Management English

秦远建／主编

武汉理工大学出版社

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# 编 审 委 员 会

# 出 版 说 明

管理学是一门实践性很强且在不断发展和完善中的科学。当今世界，各种新技术和新产品层出不穷，各种经济和管理的新思想、新方法和新学派风起云涌，市场竞争瞬息万变，组织环境日新月异。面对这个不断变化的世界，管理者必须能以变应变，为此要不断学习，既掌握基本的管理科学理论和方法，又熟悉最新的管理前沿知识，不断更新自己的观念，勇于进行组织变革和管理创新。为了适应这种要求，作为管理教育中心任务的管理学科教材建设也必须顺应时代潮流，及时进行教材内容的更新。

管理不仅是一门科学，更是一门艺术。仅有管理学的知识是远不够的，管理者还必须具有优秀的逻辑思维能力、分析能力、判断能力、预测和决策能力、组织能力、指挥能力、处理人际关系的能力、表达能力等。而传统的管理教育一直存在重理论轻实务、重科学知识传授轻能力培养的不足，管理教育界人士经常呼吁进行教学方法的改革。美国在管理者能力培养方面的成功经验是应用案例教学法。教学用的案例试图模拟一种实际的管理情景，让学生担任各种不同的具体角色，身临其境地进行分析与决策，通过案例分析报告的撰写和案例讨论，提高学生分析和解决问题的能力以及表达能力、组织能力和沟通技巧。案例教学对教师也是一次挑战，教师不仅仅要“传道授业”，还要像导演一样演导整个案例的教学过程，并与学生一起互动互学互相提高能力。要使用案例教学方法，管理教材也必须进行相应变化和创新。

正是基于上述管理知识更新和管理能力培养的要求，我们组织编写了这套工商管理系列教材。

本套教材有下列特点：

第一，全面系统地分析和阐述了管理原理及生产运作管理、企业战

略管理、人力资源管理、管理信息系统、质量管理、组织行为、管理沟通、形象策划、技术经济、管理经济等课程的理论、方法和发展趋势，既有基本原理和基本知识，也有许多探索性、创新性的观点和方法。

第二，本套教材从框架设计到内容分析，既吸取了国内外的研究成果，又立足于创新。每章均配有小结和讨论思考题，一方面供教师组织教学讨论用，另一方面便于学生复习和巩固所学知识。

第三，各章均配有相应的中英文对照关键词。学生在学完各课程后，能掌握至少一百个本课程的专业外语词汇，以适应我国加入 WTO 后对管理人才外语知识的要求。

第四，各教材在每章或每篇后均配有教学案例，供教师组织案例教学使用。

本套教材主要适用于工商管理类各专业本科生和 MBA 学生，也可供企事业单位对管理人员进行培训用。希望大家对这套教材多提宝贵意见，以利我们不断改进和完善。

本套教材的出版也得益于武汉理工大学管理学院的大力支持，谨致感谢！

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21 世纪工商管理课程系列教材编审委员会

2002 年 7 月

# 前　言

本书编者根据管理专业人才培养的要求，基于长期从事管理专业英语教学的经验，在课文材料的选取上，既选编了反映当前管理专业发展前沿的文章，又考虑了对各管理职能领域的一般原理的介绍，因此，本书内容涵盖面宽，专业词汇丰富。本书每章都有专业词汇及其疑点、难点的讲解和注释，还配有各种练习，特色鲜明。因此，本书既可作为大学本、专科学生专业英语教材和参考书，亦可作为各类管理者学习管理方面的英语词汇和英语表达方式的阅读材料。

本书由秦远建担任主编。参加本书编写的有：阎铭、袁付礼、朱新艳、朱俊、Mutayabarwa、Caroline Kalebo、Magere、Ritha Jane、Hussien、Ali Ahmed、熊昕、马点明、秦远建。全书由秦远建确定结构框架并进行了总纂。

本书的编写与出版，得到了武汉理工大学出版社的大力支持，籍此，表示衷心感谢。由于本书编写的难度较大，以及作者水平有限，书中缺点和不妥之处在所难免，敬请读者不吝指教。

编　者

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# CATALOGUE

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# CHAPTER 1 PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT

**How Do We Define Management?**

The term management refers to the process of getting things done, effectively and efficiently, through and with other people. Several components in this definition warrant discussion. These are the term process, effectively, and efficiently.

The term process in the definition of management represents the primary activities managers perform. In management terms, we call these the functions of management.

Effectiveness and efficiency deal with what we are doing and how we are doing it. Efficiency means doing the task right and refers to the relationship between inputs and outputs. For instance, if you get more out from a given input, you have increased efficiency. So, too, do you increase efficiency when you get the same output with fewer resources? Since managers deal with input resources that are scarce-money, people, equipment-they are concerned with the efficient use of those resources. Management, therefore, is concerned with minimizing resource costs.

Although minimizing resource costs is important, it is not enough simply to be efficient. Management is also concerned with completing activities. In management terms, we call this ability effectiveness. Effectiveness means doing the right task. In an organization, that translates into goal attainment.

Although efficiency and effectiveness are different terms, they are interrelated, and therefore, good management is concerned with both attaining goals (effectiveness) and doing so as efficiently as possible.

**Functions of Management**

In the early part of this century, a French industrialist by the name of Henri Fayol wrote that all managers perform five management functions. They plan, organize, command, coordinate, and control. In the mid-1950s, two professors at UCLA used the functions of planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling as the framework for a textbook on management that for twenty years was unquestionably the most widely sold text on the subject. The most popular textbooks still continue to be organized around management functions, though these have generally been condensed to the basic four: planning, organizing, leading, and controlling.

Let us briefly define what each of these functions encompasses. Keep in mind before we begin, however, that, although we will look at each as an independent function, managers must be able to perform all four functions simultaneously and that each function has an effect on the others. That is, these functions are interrelated and interdependent.

The planning function encompasses defining an organization's goals, establishing an overall strategy for achieving those goals, and developing a comprehensive hierarchy of plans of integrate and coordinate activities. Setting goals keeps the work to be done in its proper focus and helps organizational members keep their attention on what is most important.

Organizing includes determining what tasks are to be done, who is to them, how the tasks are to be grouped, who reports to whom, and where decisions are to be made.

We know that every organization contains people. And it is part of a manager's job to direct and coordinate those people. Performing this activity is the leading function of management. When managers motivate employees, direct

the activities of others, select the most effective communication channel, or resolve conflicts among members, they are engaged in leading.

The final function managers perform is controlling. After the goals are set, the plans formulated, the structural arrangements determined, and the people hired, trained, and motivated, something may still go amiss. To ensure that things are going, as they should, a manager must monitor the organization's performance. Actual performance must be compared with the previously set goals. If there are any significant deviations, it is the manager's responsibility to get the organization back on track. This process of monitoring, comparing, and correcting is what we mean when we refer to the controlling function.

**Management Roles**

In the late 1960s, Henry Mintzberg undertook a careful study of five chief executives at work. What he discovered challenged several long-held notions about the manager's job. Mintzberg concluded that managers perform ten different but highly interrelated roles. The term management roles refer to specific categories of managerial behavior. These roles can be grouped under three primary headings-interpersonal relationships, the transfer of information, and decision-making.

**Managers and Their Titles**

Managaers work in organizations, but not everyone who works in an organization is a manager. For simplicity's sake we can divide organizational members into two categories: operatives and managers. Operatives are people who work directly on a job or task and have no responsibility for overseeing the work of others. In contrast, managers direct the activities of other people in the organization. Customarily classified as top, middle, or first-line, these individuals supervise both operative employees and lower-level managers. That does not mean, however, that managers don't work directly on tasks. Some managers also

have operative responsibilities to service some accounts in addition to overseeing the activities of the other sales associates in their district. The distinction, then, between the two groups- operatives and managers-is that managers have employees who report directly to them.

**Is the Manager's Job Universal?**

Previously, we mentioned the universal applicability of management functions. So far, we have discussed management as if it were a generic activity. That is, a manager is a manager regardless of where he or she manages. If management is truly a generic discipline, then what a manager does should be essentially the same regardless of whether he or she is a top-level executive or a first-line supervisor; in business firm or a government agency; in a large corporation or a small business; or located in Paris, France, or Texas. Let's take a closer look at the generic issue.

In function terms, as managers move up the organization, they do more planning and less direct overseeing of others. All managers, regardless of level, make decisions. They perform planning, organizing, leading, and controlling functions. But the amount of time they give to each function is not necessarily constant. In addition, the content of managerial functions changes with the manager's level. For example, top managers are concerned with designing the overall organization's structure, whereas lower-level managers focus on designing the jobs of individuals and work groups.

Two final perspectives need to be considered regarding what managers do. They are: managers make decisions, and managers are agents of change. Almost everything managers do requires them to make decisions. Whether it involves setting goals in the organization, deciding how to structure jobs, determining how to motivate and reward employees, or determining where significant performance variances exist, a manager must make a decision. The best managers, then, are ones who can identify critical problems, assimilate the appropriate data, make sense of the information, and decide the best course of ac-

tion to for resolving the problem.

### Managing in Profit and Not-For-Profit Organization

Regardless of the type of organization a manager works in, the job has commonalities with all other managerial positions. All managers make decisions, set objectives, create workable organization structures, hire and motivate employees, secure legitimacy for their organization's existence, and develop internal political support in order to implement programs. Of course, there are some noteworthy differences. The most important is measuring performance. Profit, or the "bottom line", acts as an unambiguous measure of the effectiveness of a business organization. There is no such universal measure in not-for-profit organizations. Measuring the performance of schools, museums, government agencies, or charitable organizations, therefore, is more difficult. But don't interpret this difference to mean that managers in those organizations can ignore the financial side of their operation. Even not-for-profit organizations need to make money to survive. It's just that making a profit for the "owners" of not-for-profit organizations is not the primary focus. Consequently, managers in these organizations generally do not face a profit-maximizing market test for performance.

Conclusively, while there are distinctions between the management of profit and not-for-profit organizations, the two are far more alike than they are different. They are similarly concerned with planning, organizing, leading, and controlling

### Manager's Job in Small and in a Large Organization

The small business manager spends a large amount of time doing such outwardly directed things as meeting with customers, arranging financing with bankers, searching for new opportunities, and stimulating change. In contrast, the most important concerns of a manager in large organization are directed internally-toward deciding which organizational units get what available resources

and how much of them. According to this study, the entrepreneurial role looking for business opportunities and planning activities for performance improvement is least important to managers in large firms.

Compared with a manager in a large organization, a small business manager is more likely to be a generalist; his or her job will combine the activities of a large corporation's chief executive with many of the day-to-day activities undertaken by a first-line supervisor. Moreover, the structure and formality that characterize a manager's job in a large organization tend to give way to informality in small firms. Planning is less likely to be a carefully orchestrated ritual. The organization's design will be less complex and structured. And control in the small business will rely more on direct observation than on sophisticated computerized monitoring system.

Again, as with organizational level, we see differences in degree and emphasis, but not in function. Managers in both small and large organizations perform essentially the same activities; only how they go about them and the proportion of time they spend on each are different. See managers role classified by Mintzberg in the table 1-1 below.

**Table 1-1 Managers Role Classification**

| Role | Description | Identifiable Activities Interpersonal |
|---|---|---|
| Figure-head | Symbolic head; obliged to perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature. | Greeting visitors; signing legal documents. |
| Leader | Responsible for the motivation and activation of employees; responsible for staffing, training, and associated duties. | Performing virtually all activities that involve employees. |
| Liaison | Maintain self-developed network of outside contacts and informers who provide factors and information. | Acknowledge mail; doing external board work; performing other activities that involves outsiders. |
| Informational | | |

续表 1-1

| Role | Description | Identifiable Activities Interpersonal |
|---|---|---|
| Monitor | Seeks and receives wide variety of special information (much of it current) to develop thorough understanding of organization and environments; emerges as nerve center of internal and external information about the organization. | Reading periodicals and reports; maintaining personal contacts. |
| Disseminator | Transmits information received from other employees to members of the organization – some information is factual some involves interpretation and integration of diverse value positions of organizational influencers | Holding informational meetings; making phone calls to relay information. |
| Spokesperson | Transmits information to outsiders on organization's plans; policies, action, results etc.; serves as expert on organization's industry. | Holding board meeting; giving information review sessions to develop new programs. |
| | Decisional | |
| Entrepreneur | Searches organization and its environment for opportunities and initiates "improvement projects" to bring about change; supervises design of certain project as well. | Organizing strategy and review sessions to develop new programs. |
| Disturbance handler | Responsible for corrective action when organization faces important, unexpected disturbances. | Organizing strategy and review sessions that involve disturbances and crisis. |
| Resource allocator | Responsible for the allocation of organizational resources of all kinds – in effect, the making or approval of all significant organizational decisions. | Scheduling; requesting authorization; performing any activity that involves budgeting and the programming of employees' work. |
| Negotiator | Responsible for representing the organization at major negotiations. | Participating in union contract negotiations or in those with supplies. |

## The Changing Face of Management

The histories of our 1960s stars demonstrate that organizations that remain stagnant and highly bureaucratic are increasingly fading from the limelight.

Why? Because one of the biggest problems in managing an organization today is trying to hold on to the past. Economies throughout the world are going through turbulent change. To better understand the current change, let us look back on the road we have taken.

Futurist Alvin Toffler has written extensively about social change. Classifying each period of social history, Toffler has argued those modern things. Some groups of people gained from the new way; others lost.

The first wave was driven by agriculture, which dominated work through the early 1890s. Individuals were their own boss and were responsible for performing a variety of tasks. Their success – or failure – was contingent on how well they produced.

Industrialization, the second wave, began an unprecedented economic revolution near the start of the 1900s. Work left the fields and moved into formal organizations. The industrial wave forever changed the lives of skilled craftsmen. No longer did they grow something or produce a product in its entirety. Instead, workers were hired into tightly structured and formal workplaces. Mass production, specialized jobs, and authority relationships became the mode of operation. It gave rise to a new group of workers – the blue – collar industrial worker – individuals who were paid for performing routine work that relied almost exclusively on physical stamina. This industrial structure was successful. It paved the way for some countries, such as the United States and England, to become world leaders in manufacturing products such as steel, tires, and rubber. But the industrial wave, too, would pass.

By the start of the 1970s, the information wave was gaining momentum. Technological advancements were eliminating many low – skilled, blue – collar jobs. Moreover, the information wave was transforming society from a manufacturing focus to one of service. People were increasingly moving from jobs on the production floor to clerical, technical, and professional jobs. The economy needed software programmers, accountants, market researchers, and fast food service workers.