МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ОДЕСЬКИЙ ДЕРЖАВНИЙ ЕКОЛОГІЧНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ

Методичні вказівки
для СРС та навчальний матеріал
з англійської мови для студентів III курсу
заочної форми навчання

Напрям підготовки – менеджмент
Спеціальність – менеджмент організацій

"Затверджено"
на засіданні робочої групи методичної
ради “Заочна та післядипломна освіта”

ОДЕСА – 2005

Методичні вказівки для СРС та навчальний матеріал з англійської мови для студентів ІІІ курсу заочної форми навчання.

Напрям підготовки – менеджмент
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Укладач: Кемарська Т.Г. - Одеса - ОДЕКУ, 2005 р., 29 с.

Передмова

Практичне володіння англійською мовою при заочній формі навчання означає вміння самостійно за допомогою словника читати літературу за фахом англійською мовою, знаходити корисну для роботи інформацію, а також перекладати тексти за фахом рідною мовою.

Метою запропонованих методичних вказівок для самостійної роботи студентів (СРС) та навчального матеріалу з англійської мови для студентів III курсу заочної форми навчання, напрям підготовки – "менеджмент" є:

– виробити у студентів навички читання та перекладу науково-технічної літератури англійською мовою за фахом "менеджмент організацій";
– розвинути вміння розуміти зміст прочитаного;
– виробити навики постановки запитань до тексту англійською мовою;
– підготовити студентів до складання іспиту з англійської мови.

Після вивчення методичних вказівок, виконання практичних завдань та контрольних робіт, студенти повинні вміти читати та перекладати науково-технічну літературу англійською мовою за фахом "менеджмент організацій", розуміти зміст прочитаного, вміти ставити та відповідати на запитання до іншомовного тексту, брати участь в бесіді за фахом.

Навчальна програма для студентів III курсу заочної форми навчання розрахована на 94 годин СРС та на 14 години аудиторної роботи.

Програма з дисципліни англійська мова для студентів
IIIк. заочної форми навчання (напрямок - менеджмент)

№ п.п	Назва теми заняття	Кіль-кість годин ауд.роб.	Кіль-кість СРС	Види конт-ролю
1	Деякі особливості перекладу науково–технічної літератури. Розмовна тема "Ukraine". Самостійний переклад текстів за фахом – 5 тис.др.зн.	2	13	УО
2	Особливості перекладу видо-часових форм дієслів (Active Voice, Passive Voice). Розмовна тема "The political system of Ukraine". Самостійний переклад текстів за фахом – 5 тис.др.зн.	2	13	УО
3	Особливості перекладу модальних дієслів. Розмовна тема "Great Britain". Самостійний переклад текстів за фахом – 5 тис.др.зн.	2	13	УО
4	Особливості перекладу інфінітива. Розмовна тема "Odessa". Самостійний переклад суспільно-політичного тексту – 5 тис.др.зн.	2	13	УО КР

№ п.п	Назва теми заняття	Кіль-кість годин ауд.роб.	Кіль-кість СРС	Види конт-ролю
5	Особливості перекладу дієприкметників. Розмовна тема “My home town”. Самостійний переклад текстів за фахом – 5 тис.др.зн.	2	14	УО
6	Особливості перекладу герундія. Розмовна тема “Management of Enviromental Protection”. Самостійний переклад суспільно-політичного тексту – 5 тис.др.зн.	2	14	УО
7	Особливості перекладу іменників в функції визначення. Практика перекладу суспільно-політичного тексту. Самостійний переклад текстів за фахом – 5 тис.др.зн.	2	14	УО КР

Методичні вказівки складаються з двох частин. В першій частині надаються 9 неадаптованих текстів, взятих з оригінальної літератури по спеціальності “менеджмент організацій”.

Ці тексти за вказівкою викладача використовуються як матеріал для практичної роботи на заняттях під час сесії, чи як позаудиторне читання, метою якого є знайомство з іномовною оригінальною літературою, накопичення слів та висловів, характерних для данної галузі, та надбання навичок перекладу перед виконанням контрольних робіт №5, 6 які додаються в другій частині посібника і є контролем СРС.

При перекладі текстів студентам рекомендується користуватися загальними та спеціалізованими перекладними словниками.

Критерії оцінки виконання контрольної роботи:

– **“зараховано”** – студент переклав не менш ніж 80% тексту без суттєвих граматичних помилок, склав запитання до змісту тексту та показав знання основних термінів щодо фаху “менеджмент організацій”, які зустрічалися у контрольних роботах;

– **“незараховано”** – студент переклав менш ніж 80% тексту контрольної робіти, припустив більш 10 граматичних помилок при перекладі текстів та складанні запитань, та не показав знання основних термінів за фахом “менеджмент організацій”, що зустрічалися у контрольних роботах.

TEXT 1

MANAGEMENT

Management is a process of managing people. Any manager has got some functions. For example, he makes a lot of important decisions. He sets objectives, coordinates work, delegates authority, makes hiring, firing and just general leading. It is evident that making careful decisions is the basis of good management. In fact there is no difference between the words an executive, a manager and an administrator. These words are interchangeable. In many companies the top officers are called administrators. The next group – the heads of major departments, the vice presidents. Any organization has a number of positions and some people have more authority than others. Where and how a manager can hire a qualified employee ?

A manager has several options to consider when he wants to hire a new employee. First of all he may look within his own company. But if he can't find anybody suitable for the position he has to look outside the company. If there is a personnel office in the company, he can ask them to find a qualified applicant. The employer can also use other valuable sources, for example, employment agencies, consulting firms, placement offices and professional societies. He can also advertise in a newspaper or in a magazine and request candidates to send in resumes. The employer has two sets of qualifications to consider if he wants to choose from among the applicants. He must consider both professional qualifications and personal characteristics. A candidate's education, experience and skills are included in his professional qualifications. These can be listed on a resume. Personal characteristics or personality traits can be evaluated through interviews.

Comprehension questions

0. What functions has an executive got ?
0. What qualities do you need to be an executive of a company ?
0. What does it mean to be a competent manager ?
0. Which options should an employer first consider when he wants to hire a new employee ?
0. What service does a personnel office provide ?
0. What way can a new employee be found in outside a company ?
0. What qualifications does an employer consider choosing an employee ?
0. What is meant by "professional qualifications" for a job ?
0. What personal characteristics does an administrator consider choosing an employee ?

TEXT 2

MANAGEMENT IN A SMALL BUSINESS

Management consists of small activities undertaken to secure the accomplishment of work through the efforts of other people. Both large and small firms require good management in order to achieve success. In the typical small business that entails group effort, the manager provides direction by activities that are called management functions.

The general management functions of planning, organizing, and controlling are performed by all managers of both small and big businesses. Effective performance of these functions calls for the ability to lead, inspire other people. It is the manager who must integrate departmental and personal goals with those of the enterprise a s a whole. As small firms grow, they move from simple, informal management relationships to more complex, formalized management system. Small business managers who are too busy to perform their managerial tasks efficiently should learn to delegate some duties to subordinates and to organize their work by careful planning. Outside management assistance is provided by many types of consultants. The use of management consultants may be thought of as an investment in cost reduction. They may be employed for single projects, or retained on a continuing basis for use as necessary. Owner-managers of small businesses can locate and screen consultants by talking with business friends, accountants, clients of particular consultants, and other business leaders.

TEXT 3

THE ART OF MANAGEMENT

Each department in a division of a company relies on *budgeting* to make the company's *affairs profitable*. A profit *target* is set and the *unit* price of the goods (which depends on how much they *cost* to make and for how much they can be sold) is determined by this; the managers *report* how well this target has been met; the *price* of the goods leaving the ex-factory is adjusted. Only after this has been done can the various departments in the company *executive* the orders.

Many businesses fail because they fall into the trap of ignoring their cash flow, often because they allow too generous credit terms. The accounts *department* should make sure that a *stop* is put on the credit granted to bad payers. The smooth running of the company depends on a good relationship between the boss and the people who work on the shop floor. Senior managers, of course, must pass some of their task over to other people − they simply cannot do it all. This *delegation* of some jobs is essential, and the ability to do it well is one of the measures of good management.

Comments

budgeting – розрахунок прибутків та витрат
profit target – планова норма прибутку
unit price – середня ціна товарної одиниці
to adjust – встановлювати
cash flow – рух готівки
profit margin – прибуток
to withdraw – скасувати

TEXT 4

MANAGERIAL SKILLS

Managers or executives have a lot of problem to solve. They decide on hiring and firing. They decide on vacations, hours and salary. They have to interview a job applicant, to make staff assessment, to discuss this or that action taken. Managing people is not always an easy thing. For example, Nick is an administrator responsible for the whole business. He has to make people work in the proper way. If he intends to make changes in the staff, all his managerial skills are called for his ability to make decisions, his ability to get people agree with his decisions.

In many firms consulting staff is a very important thing. Consultation isn't just collecting facts. Nick can only gather opinions. These opinions must be thought through and tested. The purpose of consultation is not only to get consensus. The purpose of consultation is to get assistance in making the decision. During consultation people may disagree, they may criticize each other's idea. In the dispute they may find the right solution of the problem.

Comments

staff assessment – атестація співробітників
assistance – допомога

TEXT 5

MARKETING

Marketing includes all the business activities connected with the movement of goods and services from producer to consumer. Sometimes it is called distribution. On the one hand marketing is made up of such activities as transporting, storing and selling goods and on the other hand a series of decisions you make during the process of moving goods from producer to user. Marketing operations include product planning, buying, storage, pricing, promotion, selling, credit, traffic and marketing research.

The ability to recognize early trends is very important. Producers must know why, where, for what purpose the consumers buy. Marketing research helps the producer to predict what the people will want. And through advertising the producer attempts to influence the customer to buy. Marketing operations are very expensive. They take up more than half of the consumer's dollar. The trend in the USA for example has been to high mass consumption. The construction of good shopping centres has made goods available to consumers. It provided a wide range of merchandise and plenty of parking facilities.

Comprehension questions

0. What does marketing mean ?
0. What activities does marketing consist of ?
0. What do marketing operations include ?
0. Why is it so important for the producer to predict the trends ?
0. How was mass consumption possible in the USA ?

TEXT 6

THE SMALL BUSINESS SCENE

Today small businesses are the heart of the market economy. There are a great number and variety of small businesses. People become owners and operators of small business firms in one of three ways: start a new firm, buy a franchise, buy or inherit an existing firm.

Small firms have been established to do just about any kind of business imaginable. They have been established to manufacture and distribute goods, to sell them at retail, and, of course, to provide all kinds of needed services. Some serve only the local community, while others function in national and international markets.

The vast majority of small firms concentrate on selling material products, although an increasing number of firms provide a service. Although an increasing number operate in local markets, services, too, are exported. In recent years there has been a great increase in the export of services, such as management consulting, medical, and technological services.

The existence of a strong, healthy small business community has always been recognized as the best way to preserve competition, prevent monopolistic control of any industries, and thus assure the population of the benefits of competition through better prices and quality products. Incentives have been provided to assist small firms. The government of the US created the Small Business Administration (SBA) in 1954 to provide financial, management, and procurement assistance for small firms.

There are some facts that illustrate the importance of small business. According to the Small Business Administration:

99% of all businesses in the US can be classified as small;

43% of the gross national product is contributed by small business;

while large business has been cutting back employment, small business has been creating new jobs;

many of new products and services in the US are created by small businesses.

Numerous definitions of the term “small business” exist. A small business is one which is independently owned and operated and not dominant in its field of operation. A small business is one which possesses at least two of the following four characteristics: 1) management of the firm is independent. Usually the managers are also the owners; 2) capital is supplied and the ownership is held by an individual or a small group; 3) the area of operation is mainly local, with the workers and owners living in one home community. However, the markets need not be local; 4) the relative size of the firm within its industry must be small when compared with the biggest units in its field. Of the characteristics cited, most scholars believe that the forth relative size, is the most important.

The SBA traditionally uses the following criteria for defining small business: retailing (sales volume), service (sales volume), wholesaling (sales volume), manufacturing (number of employees).

The following is a list of terms that can be used to describe a business. Each term tells something about the size of a business.

Total assets – all that a business owns.

Net worth – business assets less what is owed.

Gross profits – money left from sales after all expenses (except taxes) have been paid.

Net profits – what is left from gross profit after business income taxes are paid.

Employees – total number of workers and managers listed on the payroll.

Income – net receipts, the total sales less returns, allowances, and discounts.

It is necessary to keep records of a business for tax purposes and as a measure of growth. Some businesses fail because they are improperly expanded. Other businesses are unsuccessful because they expand too quickly and cannot handle problems that come with rapid growth. Many businesses remain small and provide excellent income throughout their lifetime.

Business operations are subject to review by local, state, and federal authorities. These reviews insure that rules and regulations are being obeyed and standards maintained. Some of the operations subject to review are listed here.

Income. Business income must be reported for income tax purposes. Other reasons for reporting business income include providing information for bank loans, attracting investors, making equitable distribution of profits in partnership, and as a measure of business growth. The records are usually subject to an audit.

Working conditions. Clean and safe working conditions must be provided for employees and if required, medical and safety equipment must be provided.

Wages and hours. Work regulations and announcements must be posted where employees can read them. Employers must pay at least the minimum wage that applies to their employees.

Advertising, labeling, and packaging. Businesses must not be guilty of false advertising, mislabeling, or providing less than the labeled weight in a package.

Unfair practices. Laws prevent business persons from engaging in various unfair practices, such as price fixing and other means of restraining trade.

Discrimination. Federal and state regulations prevent an employee from being discriminated against because of colour, race, sex, religion, or national origin.

Liability and compensation. Employers are required to carry insurance and provide adequate compensation for workers injured on the job and customers injured on the business premises.

Comments

incentive – стимул
procurement assistance – матеріально-технічна допомога
the gross national product – валовий національный продукт
supply – постачати
ownership – власність
retailing – роздрібна торгівля
wholesaling – оптова торгівля
manufacturing – виробництво
total assets – загальна вартість майна
net worth – власний капітал підприємства
gross profits – валовий прибуток
net profits – чистий прибуток
payroll – платіжна відомость
net receipts – чистий прибуток
total sales – товарообіг
returns – відшкодування

allowances – нарахування
to keep records – вести облік, брати на облік
bank loans –банківська позика
partnership – партнерство

Comprehension questions

0. How do people become owners and operators of small business firms ?
0. What are aims of establishing small firms ?
0. What has always been recognized as the best way to preserve competition, prevent monopolistic control of any industries ?
0. What facts illustrate the importance of small business ?
0. Can you define a small business ?
0. What is the most important characteristic of a small business ?
0. What criteria are used for defining small business ?
0. What terms describe the size of a business ?
0. What operations of a small business are subject to review ?

TEXT 7

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF RUNNING A SMALL FIRM

Small firms actually have advantages over large firms in many cases. One advantage of small firms is that they often grow into large firms. Many of today's small firms will become giants in tomorrow's business world.

Some of the situations in which small firms have distinct ADVANTAGES are the following:

1. When new products or ideas are being tried. Small firms have much flexibility. Decisions can be made and implemented quickly.

2. When the personal attention of the owner is essential to daily operations. If the owner's presence is important to the growth of the business. It will be more successful if the business is small enough for one person to supervise.

3. Where personal services, either professional or skilled, are dominant. Examples of this include beauty parlors, real estate offices, interior-decorating firms, TV repair shops. Medical and dental services are also usually rendered by small firms. Any possible advantages of large size in these areas are usually offset by greatly enlarged overheads less efficiency on the job, and the loss of the personal touch of the smaller firm.

4. When the market for the product or service is mainly local. In some types of firms, it just is not economical to attempt a scale of operations that exceeds the local market demand. The making of bricks or concrete blocks for

the construction industry is an example. Transportation costs are prohibitive for moving such products.

5. When the industry is characterized by wide variations in demand or in styles. Examples of these include ladies' dress line, ornamental candles, and custom-made chandeliers and lamp shades. These types of products just do not invite large firm development in most cases. The small, flexible firm usually can adjust to the necessary variations of specialized products more easily.

6. When close rapport with personnel is essential. Small firm owners usually have the advantage of being close to employees. They know problems from daily conversations and can adjust employment to a person's abilities better because of this close association. As a result, they are usually able to maintain better morale and efficiency in the firm, which is important in any business.

DISADVANTAGES of small firms.

Small firms are often said to labor under such disadvantages as the inability to secure competent employees, the inability to cope with monopolistic practices, the inability to finance expansion when it has been proved to be practicable, tax burdens, limited vendor goodwill, discriminatory practices by large shopping-center developers, lack of time for the small proprietor to handle multiple assignment, lack of research facilities, and the problems of making a new firm or product known in its market.

Many of disadvantages of small firms could be overcome with positive planning. An ill-conceived business, whether large or small, has little chance of success if its operation has not been properly planned. Good research in the planning stage can reveal opportunities for success. It can also indicate when a business that is contemplated should not be undertaken.

The rewards for successful small firm ownership can be significant. The personal satisfaction will vary with the individual owner. Good profits, satisfying employment, being one's own boss, community status, family pride and tradition, and having an outlet for one's creativity are some of them.

But these rewards are never automatic or guaranteed. Success makes many demands upon the operator of the firm. The requirements for successful ownership of small business firms can be summarized as follows: personal characteristics, good customer relations and knowledge of consumerism, good community relations, business ethics and social responsibility, compliance with government regulations. But sound business knowledge and willingness to work hard stand at the head of any list. Knowing the causes of failure can protect the owner against them.

The individual firm has benefited from having these and other advantages. In addition to the types of firms cited, small firms in such fields as construction, wholesaling, retailing, and the service industries have faced up well to their larger firm competition. Insurance and small finance firms have also been very successful. The profitable firms have not relied on the inherent advantages of small firms as such, but have combined these advantages with alert and competent management to achieve their success.

Comments

daily operations – щоденне ведення господарчої діяльності
supervise – контролювати, наглядати
real estate – нерухомість
render – надавати (допомогу)
offset – компенсувати
overheads – накладні витрати
efficiency – продуктивність
exceed – перевищувати
demand – попит
transportation costs – витрати на транспортування
to adjust – пристосовувати
to maintain – підтримувати
to cope with – упоратися
expansion – розширення
tax burdens – тягар оподаткування
vendor goodwill – добра воля фірми
to handle – здійснювати контроль
rewards – заохочення
consumerism – консюмеризм

Comprehension questions

0. Why are small firms more preferable when new products or ideas are being used ?
0. Why do small firms have advantages when the personal attention of the owner is essential to daily operations ?
0. Why are large firms less efficient where personal professional services are dominated ?
0. What are the advantages of small firms when the market for the product is local and there are wide variations in demand and styles ?
0. What advantages do small firm owners have ?
0. What disadvantages of small firms do you know ?
0. How can owners of small firms overcome disadvantages ?
0. In what way can owners of small firms be rewarded ?
0. What requirements for successful ownership of small business firms are mentioned in the passage ? Which are the most important ?

TEXT 8

MARKETER'S ACTIVITIES

To market a product successfully, a marketer must develop a strategy. His decisions depend upon many variables or factors that are constantly changing. Some variables are internal. The marketer has some control over the variables that affect the product – its nature, promotion, the path it will follow from producer to consumer and its price. But when something is produced, it enters the existing external environment of law, economy, society or culture. Intelligent decisions about the product can be made only within the current and changing environment. The marketer cannot control these external variables, instead they control him. The legal limits may be in form of restrictions on safety, advertising and price. A company competes not only with other companies that make similar products, but with all other companies. All want a share of the same consumer market.

The social and cultural nature of that public further influences the marketer's decisions. He must know what kind of people will need and use the product. Are they rich or poor ? What is their level of education ? Are they increasing or decreasing in numbers and buying power ? What are their interests, attitudes and values ? Without a marketer the product is useless, knowledge of the environmental factors is necessary in marketing any product. It is especially crucial in international marketing, where one must understand the legal, economic and sociocultural differences of a foreign country. These are some of the questions to be answered before trying to enter a foreign market.

The marketing researcher can use internal (within the company) and external (outside the company) sources. The data he gathers might be secondary or primary. Secondary data, such as government census figures or company sales reports have already been gathered for some other purposes. Using secondary data is almost always cheaper and faster that using primary data, but secondary data may be out of date or inappropriate for the study. Primary data are collected for first time for a specific marketing research study.

TEXT 9

MARKETING STRATEGY AND PLANNING

Market segmentation recognizes that not everyone needs a certain product, and that a product cannot be expected to interest everyone. The marketing strategy is more efficient (of time and money) if it is aimed at those people the company can reasonably expect to serve. Planning a segmentation strategy involves four steps.

The first is to determine the market segments. Second is to select the appropriate segment as a target market for the product. Third is to develop procedures to serve the selected segment. Fourth, the program is carried out consistently evaluated and revised if necessary.

From studying demographic data, the manager might decide to aim his strategy towards a very specific target or segment of the population, as an example. An automobile company provides a common example of this strategy, with a wide variety of style, purpose and cost of its cars. The marketing programs of one Car Company might vary as widely as its products.

In planning the strategy for marketing his product, a marketer will want to know all he can about consumer's needs and wants for it, their motives for buying (how it looks, feels) and their attitude toward it and the company. A person's behaviour as a consumer is partly the result of these internal determinants. It is partly the result of the image he wants to present: how he wants to be seen by others. And it is partly the result of external determinants, which are social and cultural. The human need to be accepted as a member of group is very strong, although it is often unconscious.

Whether the potential market is domestic or foreign, it is necessary for the marketing manager to understand the internal and external determinants of consumer's behaviour. All people have needs, motives, and perceptions. All are members of groups, societies and cultures. Despite all human variety there are patterns of behaviour. One of the marketer's tasks is to know the buying patterns of specific groups of consumers and to match his products to their needs.

CONTROL PAPER 5
Variant 1

1. Translate this text in writing:

FOUR BASIC PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT

Management can be defined as a process of achieving desired results through other people in a planned and economical fashion. Management plays a vital role in any business or organized activity. The idea of scientific management was developed by the American management theorist Frederick W.Taylor (1856-1917) who propounded the idea of applying quantitative methods to management problems. According to F.Taylor, people were considered as rational beings motivated primarily by material gain. A combination of the ideal working environment and appropriate reward would create the efficiency required to increase productivity. Taylor's theories were quite revolutionary at the time when the way to increase productivity was simply to take on more men and make them work harder. He introduced the idea of comparing employee performance against standard. This involved determining the expected time for an operation to take and rewarding or punishing workers according to their performance. His work also embraced finding the optimum way for a given job to be done, such as by varying shovel size for a loading operation. The three basic ideas on which F.Taylor based his theory were:

– the development of a true scientific management, so that the best method for performing each task could be determined;

– the scientific selection of workers, so that each worker would be given responsibility for the task for which he was best suited;

– the scientific education and development of workers.

However, the supporters of scientific management overlooked the need for another motivating factors besides money. The recognition of the importance of the human factor in the working environment led to the Classical Organization Theory. While F.Taylor had concentrated his efforts on increasing productivity, proponents of classical organization focused on managerial behaviour. Henri Fail (1841-1925), generally acknowledged as the founder of this school, believed that “with scientific forecasting and proper methods of management, satisfactory results were inevitable”. He firmly believed that management was not an innate talent but rather a learned skill. The belief that managers are made, not born, was a reversal of earlier thinking.

There are several definitions of management. According to one of them, management is a process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the work of organization members and using all available resources to reach the stated goals. The management is composed of a team of managers who have charge of the organization at all levels. Their duties make sure that the company objectives are met and the business operates efficiently. Four major principles or functions of management are: planning, organizing, directing, controlling.

Planning involves determining overall company objectives and deciding how these goals can best be achieved. Managers evaluate alternative plans and precise tactics before choosing a specific course of action and then check to see that the chosen plan fits into the objectives established at higher organization levels. Planning is listed as the first management function because the others depend on it. However, even as managers move on to perform other managerial functions, planning continues as goals and alternatives to be further evaluated and revised.

Organizing, the second management function, is the process of putting the plan into action. This involves allocating resources, especially human resources, so that the overall objectives can be attained. At this stage, managers divide the work into manageable activities and decide on the positions to be created and determine the associated duties and responsibilities. Staffing, choosing the right person for the job, may also be included as part of the organizing function.

Third is the day-to-day direction and supervision of employees. In *directing*, managers guide, teach and motivate workers so that they reach their potential abilities and at the same time achieve the company goals that were established in the planning process. Effective direction, or supervision, by managers requires ongoing communication with employees. They communicate objectives to the people responsible for attaining them. They make the people who are performing individual jobs to form a team. They also make decisions about the salary and promotion.

In the last management function, *controlling*, managers evaluate how well company objectives are being met. They measure performance of their staff, to see whether the objectives set for the organization as a whole and for each individual member of it are being achieved. In order to complete this evaluation, managers must look at the objectives established at the planning stage and at how well the tasks assigned in the directing phase are being completed. If major problems exist and goals are not being achieved, then changes need to be made in the company's organizational, or managerial, structure. In making changes, managers might have to go back and replan, reorganize, and redirect.

Comments

to propound – висунути (проблему, теорію)
working environment – умови праці
proponent – прихильник
staffing – комплектування штатів
directing – керівництво

2. Answer the following questions:

0. What is management ?
0. What does the scientific management mean ?
0. What is H.Fayol's input into the theory of management ?

CONTROL PAPER 5
Variant 2

1. Translate this text in writing:

MULTINATIONAL MANAGEMENT

Different authors attempted to profile the typical "multinational manager". According to their collective portrait, he (or presumably she) will be a college graduate with M.B.A. degree, will speak fluently at least one foreign language as well as English, will be able to work effectively in different cultures, will understand customs, business and political system of the country where his company operates, and will also have a broader, global outlook.

Multinational managers spend much of their time working overseas. They are, therefore, living in a strange environment and have to deal with people who have a different language, customs, religion, and business practices. They find that they cannot do things the way they did at home. Misunderstanding in cross-cultural communication might arise on different points. Some of them are: status, interpersonal relationship, respect or face, loyalty, nepotism, and courtesy.

Status. The Protestant cultures such as the USA, Canada, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Germany, Scandinavia are essentially individualist. In such cultures, status has to be achieved. You don't automatically respect people just because they've been in a company for many years. A young, dynamic, aggressive manager with MBA can quickly rise in the hierarchy. In most Latin and Asian countries, on the contrary, status is automatically accorded to the boss, who is more likely to be in his fifties or sixties than in his thirties. This is particularly true in Japan, where companies traditionally have a policy of promotion by seniority. A 50-year-old Japanese manager (as well as a Greek, Italian or Chilean one) would quite simply be offended by having to negotiate with an aggressive, well-educated, but inexperienced American or German twenty years his junior.

Interpersonal relationship is another point to be taken into consideration. Latin Americans prefer to work with people who are "simpatico" and put such considerations as quality of interpersonal relationship, trust, and mutual understanding over efficiency, costs, timing, and deadlines. This was the main reason why the American multinational construction company lost its Venezuelan contract to its French competitors. In contrast, American were amazed that anyone can put such considerations over profit.

Respect or face. In the book entitled "International Business Blunders" the authors describe how an American manager in Japan offended a very important Japanese executive because he did not show him enough respect when the two partners met first in the Japanese man's office. The office was small and had little furniture in it, the American assumed that his partner was a low-level executive. He did not realize that in Japan a top executive does not necessarily have a plush office.

Loyalty. The American idea of matrix management came into conflict with the principle of loyalty to the functional boss. In Latin countries you can't have two bosses any more than you can have two fathers. French managers would rather see an organization die than tolerate a system in which a few subordinates have to report to two bosses.

Nepotism. American managers found that work in Saudi Arabia is not considered a central life interest, and that family responsibilities take priority. In the Arab world, what westerners consider nepotism, i.e. obligation to family and relatives, comes before the job and company. Here the western concept of a "self-made" individual is incomprehensible.

Courtesy. One of the greatest difficulties in communication multinationally is the concept of what is polite. The Chinese, as well as many Asian peoples, have a great fear of offending others. The American engineers in Japan caused great offence with their communication style while helping local engineers with plant construction. They would tell a Japanese employee directly when he had done something wrong. This hurt Japanese sensibility which implied loss of face. Such American communication style of praise and criticism caused great discomfort.

Managers working abroad need various skills. Clearly, it is a great advantage if they know the language of the country they are working in. But it is not the most important requirement. What is more essential that they need to possess human relations skills, i.e. respect of the other culture and the ability to adapt. An ethnocentric approach to management style and competence, that ignores the demands and challenges of contrasting cultural context, appears to be inadequate, unrealistic, and impractical.

Comments

cross-cultural communication – спілкування працівників різних культур
nepotism – непотизм, кумівство, сімейщина
plush office – розкішний кабінет
loss of face – втрата гідності, втрата позитивної якості

2. Answer the following questions:

0. What is a "multinational manager"?
0. What skills does a manager working abroad need ?
0. What points might misunderstanding in cross-cultural communication arise on ?

CONTROL PAPER 5
Variant 3

1. Translate this text in writing:

CLASSICAL SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT

The oldest and perhaps most widely accepted school among practitioners has been called the *classical school of management thought*. This is the approach to management thought that arose mainly from efforts between 1900 and 1940 to provide a rational and scientific basis for the management of organizations. This is sometimes referred to as the traditional school of management.

As a result of the Industrial Revolution, people were brought together to work in factories. This system was in marked contrast to the handicraft system whereby people worked separately in small shops or in their own homes. Thus industrialization created a need for the effective management of people and other resources in the emerging organizations. In other words, there was a need for efficient planning, organizing, influencing, and controlling of work activities.

In response to the growth of large organizations in the late nineteenth century and during the early twentieth century, there was an intensified interest in management as a process and as a science. It was apparent to many that management could be made more effective and efficient. The primary contributions of the classical school of management include the following:

1. Application of science to the practice of management.
2. Development of the basic management functions: planning, organizing, influencing, and controlling.
3. Articulation and application of specific principles of management.

Classical management concepts have significantly improved the practice of management.

SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

Frederick Taylor, who made major contributions to management thinking around the turn of this century, is often called the Father of Scientific Management. Taylor was supported in his efforts by Henry Gantt, Frank and Lillian Gilbreth, and Harrington Emerson. All of these Taylor disciples became famous in their own rights. Together with Taylor they revolutionized management thinking. Scientific management is the name given to the principles and practices that grew out of the work of Frederick Taylor and his followers and that are characterized by concern for efficiency and systematization in management. Taylor was convinced that the scientific method should apply to the management process. The scientific method provides a logical framework for the analysis of problems. It basically consists of defining the problem, gathering data, analyzing the data, developing alternatives, and selecting the best alternative. Taylor believed that following the scientific method would provide a way to determine the most efficient way to perform work. Instead of abdicating responsibility for establishing standards, for example, management would scientifically study all facets of an operation and carefully set a logical and rational standard. Instead of guessing or relying solely on trial and error, management would go through the time-consuming process of logical study and scientific research to develop answers to business problems. Taylor's philosophy can be summarized in the following four principles:

1. Develop and use the scientific method in the practice of management (find the "one best way" to perform work).

2. Use scientific approaches to select employees who are best suited to perform a given job.

3. Provide employees with scientific education, training, and development.

4. Encourage friendly interaction and cooperation between management and employees but with a separation of duties between managers and workers.

Taylor stated many times that scientific management would require a revolution in thinking by both the manager and the subordinate. His purpose was not solely to advance the interests of the manager and the enterprise. He believed sincerely that scientific management practices would benefit both the employee and the employer through the creation of a larger surplus. The organization would achieve higher output, and the worker would receive more income.

The greater part of Taylor's work was oriented toward improving management of production operations.

Frank and Lillian Gilbreth concentrated on motion study to develop more efficient ways to pour concrete, lay bricks, and perform many other repetitive tasks. After Frank's death, Lillian became a professor of management at Purdue University. Until her death in 1972, she was considered the First Lady of Management.

H.L. Gantt developed a control chart that is used to this day in production operations.

Harrington Emerson set forth "twelve principles of efficiency" in a 1913 book of that title. Certain of Emerson's principles state that a manager should carefully define objectives, use the scientific method of analysis, develop and use standardized procedures, and reward employees for good work. His book remains a recognized management classic.

2. Answer the following questions:

0. What do we call the classical school of management thought ?
0. Who is considered to be the Father of Scientific Management ?
0. What are the principles of Taylor's philosophy ?

CONTROL PAPER 6
Variant 1

1. Translate this text in writing:

FORMS OF BUSINESS. INCORPORATED ORGANIZATIONS

Compared with the two other forms of business units, the sole proprietor and the partnership, incorporation confers advantages for financing and in certain circumstances taxation, in addition to limited liability. However, both private and public limited companies are obliged to file certain information to public inspection and to circulate accounts to their shareholders.

Joint-stock companies – also called corporations – are owned by individuals who buy shares in them. The corporation is regarded in law as having an identity / entity of its own, separate from owners who are not personally liable for anything done in the name of the company. This form of business organization has grown to dominate most sectors of the UK economy, especially manufacturing industry, since the principle of limited liability was introduced in a series of Company Acts going back to the 1860s. Limited liability refers to the release from responsibility for the debts of the firm owners, known as shareholders, whose liability is limited to the amount they have invested in the business. This confers as immense advantage for companies wishing to raise large sums of capital, and explains the dominance of the corporate form of organization in the UK today. The principle of limited liability also means that those who worked in such organizations would be employees of the business and hence they would not be the business. As a result of this, unlike sole proprietors and partnerships, there was a "continuity of succession", meaning that in the event of an employee leaving the employment of the business, the entity of the company could appoint a replacement without having to dissolve the business as a result of the departure. If the business failed then, because the business was in law, a person, investors and employees would not be personally liable for the business debts. It is equally obvious that profits would be divided up by the entity of the company (in the form of its agents – the directors). The legal arrangement whereby the members of the company would not be liable for the business debts in the case of company failure was called limited liability. The way in which this principle works is as follow:

Investors pay an amount of money to the company and become its owners. They share the ownership with other investors and the amount they own is called a share. In exchange for the capital provided by the shareholder, the company agrees to return part of the money by dividing up some of the profit between the investors. The percentage of the profit set aside for this purpose is determined by the management of the company, depending on how much they think they can afford. The payment made to shareholders under this arrangement is called a dividend. This pleases the shareholders as they receive a return on their investment, much as they would if they put the amount on deposit in a building society and gainer interest on their money.

Individuals agree to sell their time and labour to the company in exchange for an agreed sum of money per week, month or year, and they become employees of the company. Their income from the company is called remuneration, wages or salary.

In the event of company failure, losses are paid out of the asset value of the business at the time of failure in which the shareholders have their investment. The shareholders liability is limited only to the loss of the existing money they have in the business, i.e. the value of their shareholding. This means that if the company fails, they lose the money invested in the business, but they cannot be pursued further by people who want money from the company at the time of failure. Employees will lose their jobs if the company fails, but in the same manner as the liability of shareholders, they also cannot be pursued further for the company's debts.

It can readily be understood that those who own a company are those who injected the capital to allow the business to begin operating at its inception. Ownership can be transferred when an individual or organization pays the owner the value of his share in the company. The value of a company is divided up into small segments which are called shares. These can be of any value, but typically as much as £1 or 25p. The ownership of shares confers on the shareholder, as a part owner of the business, the right to vote on certain aspects of company policy at the annual general meeting (a.g.m.). The weight of the shareholders vote is pro-rata with the number of shares owned, i.e. the larger the shareholding the more influential the shareholder. The number of shares a company has is referred to as the share volume. Control over the company can be gained by holding 51 percent of the shares. To have 51 percent will mean that the dominant shareholder can automatically veto any other shareholder's motion and install company management or policies of his choice.

Joint-stock companies can be classified according to who owns (or has access to own) the shares in the business. There are hundreds of thousands of companies organized on a joint-stock basis in modern Britain. The vast majority are small private companies, similar in many ways to partnerships or sole proprietorships. Private limited companies (abbreviated as "Limited" or "Ltd.") are companies in which shares are owned by a number (usually a small number) of private individuals. The shares are not available for sale except with the permission of the shareholder and the Board of Directors of the company. Private companies may place certain restrictions on the transfer of shares, but not offer shares to public.

Almost all large-scale businesses are organized as public limited companies (abbreviated as "plc"). These are the companies in which the public has access to the shares which can be bought and sold through the Stock Exchange.

Some public limited companies own other companies, known as "subsidiaries" which may, in turn, own subsidiaries of their own.

Comments

incorporated, joint-stock – акціонерний
private limited company – акціонерна компанія закритого типу
public limited company – акціонерна компанія відкритого типу
identity/ entity – економічна одиниця (фірма)
continuity of succession – принцип спадкоємності
arrangement – соглашение
interest – процент
remuneration – винагорода, оплата, компенсація
asset value *Am.* – номінальна вартість активів
pro-rata *Lat.* – пропорційно
subsidiary – дочірнє підприємство

2. Put 5 questions to the text:

Example : ***What are joint-stock companies ?***

CONTROL PAPER 6
Variant 2

1. Translate this text in writing:

THE CONCEPT OF THE FIRM

Economists use the term "firm" to cover all types of business organizations. It refers to any organization that makes decisions on how to organize inputs to produce commodities. In order to explain the behaviour of businesses, economists construct theories of the firm. To understand the ways in which firms behave, and to be successful in predicting how they react to changing circumstances, we need to know who controls the firm, as well as who formally owns it. There is, usually, no difficulty on this matter in the case of sole proprietorship, partnership, and small private companies, especially when the owners take an active role in running the business.

In giant corporations, in contrast, the situation may be quite different. The owners of joint-stock companies are the shareholders. They elect the Board of Directors who are answerable, in principle, to the shareholders at company meetings, especially at the annual general meeting (a.g.m.) when accounts for the past year and forecasts for the future are presented for approval. The directors, in turn, appoint salaried managers to run the business. The chief executive is usually the managing director, or the chairman of the company.

The power that the owners of a business have over directors may, however, be quite limited in practice. Many investigators of corporate behaviour hold the view that a minority of shareholders often exercises effective control over the decisions of the company. The power of small groups of shareholders depends, among other things, on the distribution of share ownership. It may be slight if ownership is widely discoursed. To understand why this is so, it is necessary to appreciate that each ordinary share normally carries one vote. Any individual or group owning 51 per cent of the voting shares clearly controls a majority of votes. But, suppose one group owns 30 per cent, with the remaining 70 per cent distributed so widely that few of the dispersed groups bother to vote. In this event, 30 per cent may be the overwhelming majority of shares actually voted. Often a small fraction of the shares actually voted may be the dominant influence at shareholders' meetings.

Dispersed ownership and minority of control are common in giant companies. The separation of ownership from control was first pointed out in the United States more than 50 years ago by Berle and Means. They concluded that nearly half of the largest 200 US corporations were effectively under the control of managers because no individual or group owned as much as 25 per cent of voting shares. The power of directors is reinforced by their peculiarly favourable position for acquiring proxy voting rights. It is the directors who call the annual general meeting, and they usually include, in the mailing forms, offers to exercise proxy rights on behalf of shareholders who are unable or unwilling to attend company meetings. Hence, the divorce of ownership from control in many corporations leaves Board of Directors in a strong position.

The power of directors, even in companies where share ownership is widely dispersed, is not, however, unlimited, especially in the long run. In the first place, over half of ordinary shares are owned by financial institutions (especially insurance companies and pension funds) who comprise most of the large shareholders. Although these "institutional" shareholders are reluctant to involve themselves in the day-to-day running of a business, they can exert considerable influence, especially if they decide to act together.

The most common constraint on company directors, however, is probably the threat of take-over by other powerful companies. Mismanagement and poor performance by directors rarely goes unnoticed for long. It is a spur to outside interests, which may seek to take over the firm by making offers to existing shareholders to buy their shares on favourable terms. If successful, the new owners can replace the directors and attempt to run the company more efficiently.

Take-over bids are usually made on attractive terms, relative to the current market price of the shares. If the firm is not currently well managed, such prices can be offered in the expectation of being able to increase the firm's profits after the take-over. Sometimes directors engage in a battle with the predators, as they see them, for control of the company. Shareholders receive letters from would-be takers-over and from defending management urging them to sell, or not to sell their shares. The outcome can go either way. The important point, however, is that the threat of take-over action is a constraint on manager-controllers, even when share ownership is widely dispersed.

The third set of factors which influences the decisions made by a firm is the goals or objectives of those who control it. In the elementary theory of supply firms are assumed to maximize their profits. The assumption has much to comment. There are many competitive markets where it motivates firms' behaviour. It is, however, not universally applicable. The extent to which firms can and do try to maximize profits depends on three circumstances: the goals of owners, the power of owners vis-à-vis controllers, and market conditions.

There is no reason for believing that all businessmen are interested in profitability as the sole aim. Some decisions in sole proprietorship confirm this, e.g. the location of a factory close to agreeable surrounding despite high production costs, or the decision to close down on Wednesdays to allow for a regular game of tennis. Co-operatives also have objectives other than profit maximization. Workers of co-operatives generally seek maximum opportunities for employment, especially where the establishment of workers' control has followed the threat of the closure of an unprofitable business. Consumer co-operatives claim to operate in the interests of customers, but retail co-operative societies happen also to be politically motivated and this can affect some of their business decisions.

Theory which considers the firm as a diversity of interests, all of which may play a part in decision-taking, is called the behavioural theory of the firm.

In conclusion, it must be admitted that individual firms may have objectives which are complex and vary from time to time.

Comments

commodity – товар; річ
chief executive – директор; *Ам.* президент (*компанії*)
managing/ executive director – виконавчий директор
proxy – повноваження, доручення
take-over bid – пропонування злиття чи приєднання компанії, узяття її під свій контроль та керування
outcome – наслідок
vis-à-vis, Fr. = face-to-face – *тут.* проти

2. Put 5 questions to the text:

Example: ***What does the term "firm" cover ?***

CONTROL PAPER 6
Variant 3

1. Translate this text in writing:

MANAGERS AND THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT

Many different forces outside and inside an organization influence managers' performance. The managerial functions of planning, organizing, and controlling must be accomplished under constantly changing conditions. Managers must deal with both the external and the internal environment.

The external environment includes all the forces acting on the organization from the outside. Customers, competitors, suppliers, and human resources are some of the obvious forces in an organization's external environment. Other not so obvious forces include technological, economic, legal, regulatory, cultural, social, and international forces.

The internal environment includes the day-to-day forces within the organization in which managers perform their functions. For example, the level in the organization where management is performed has implications for managerial performance: top-level managers do different things than middle-level managers, who, in turn, do different things than first-level managers. Coping with managerial demands in the internal environment requires managers to have different skills and to perform different roles. Skill requirements and role performance are important forces in the internal environment as we see in the discussion which follows.

Individuals often limit their perspective of an organization to the elements and activities that exist within the organization: the employees, managers, equipment, tools, procedures, and other elements that combine to create the organization's product or service. However, this perspective is sorely limited. A complete picture of any organization must include its *external environment*, the large arena that exists outside the organization and comprises many varied forces that impact the organization's structure, processes, and performance. These forces may be *direct*, exerting an immediate and direct influence on the organization, or they may be *indirect*, influencing the climate in which the organization operates (and becoming direct forces under some conditions).

Direct Forces

The major direct forces of an organization's external environment are the customers that the organization must satisfy, the competitors with whom the organization must effectively compete for customers, the suppliers that provide the organization with essential resources, and human resources-people in the external environment from whom the organization must draw an effectively performing work force.

Customers

Customers purchase an organization's products or service. They may be individuals or organizations.

Of all the direct forces, customers are perhaps the most vital to organizations. After all, their decision to buy or not to buy a firm's output directly determines the company's sales revenues and ultimately its survival.

Organizations typically respond to customer forces in the external environment by taking action: they conduct customer research that focuses on both present and potential customers. Organizations seek to identify their present customers' degree of satisfaction with their products and services and to discover any changing preferences.

Many organizations emphasize current-customer research because it is commonly recognized that, done effectively, keeping a current customer incurs about one fifth the expense of finding a new one.

Customer research also focuses on potential buyers. Organizations study changes in demographics and other factors to identify groups of possible buyers.

Competitors

Competitors are an organization's opponents, the companies against which the organization competes for customers and needed resources (e.g., employees, raw materials, even other organizations) in the external environment. An organization's *intertype competitors* are companies that produce the same or similar products/ services as the organization. General Motors and Ford Motor Company, American and United Air Lines, Philip Morris Companies (maker of Marlboro and Merit cigarettes) and R.J. Reynolds Tobacco Company (maker of the Winston brand) are intertype competitors that vie for customers.

Intertype competitors are distinctly different and competing organizations. For example, banks such as Chase-Manhattan compete against Sears, Roebuck&Co. for saving customers.

To succeed, an organization must make effective moves and countermoves, ones that maintain or advance the company's position in the marketplace and that cannot be easily nullified by competitors' responses. Doing so requires a thorough grasp of the relevant forces in the environment, especially competition. An organization comes to understand its competitors by performing an ongoing competitor analysis. It reviews and evaluates information from many sources (the media, its suppliers, wholesalers, and associates) to obtain a solid understanding of a competitor's objectives, strategies, and competitive advantages (e.g., a strong distribution network) and weaknesses (e.g., a typically slow response to competitors' moves).

A growing number of companies are establishing competitor intelligence teams typically staffed by two to five employees assigned to obtain specific information about a competitor. Top management uses the information in making critical decisions such as whether to enter new markets.

Overall, organizations strive to establish and protect competitive advantages, particularly strengths that bolster the company's competitive power. In some industries, competitive power has been lost as foreign competition more successfully satisfied customers demands. For example, American firms in the semiconductor industry have lost out to firms in newly industrialized countries (NIC), such as South Korea and Taiwan.

Comments

top-level manager – керівник вищої ланки
revenue – валовий прибуток
vie – конкурувати
nullify – анулювати, скасувати

2. Put 5 questions to the text:

Example: ***What forces outside and inside an organization influence managers performance ?***

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