

МИНИСТЕРСТВО СЕЛЬСКОГО ХОЗЯЙСТВА
И ПРОДОВОЛЬСТВИЯ РЕСПУБЛИКИ БЕЛАРУСЬ

ГЛАВНОЕ УПРАВЛЕНИЕ ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ,
НАУКИ И КАДРОВОЙ ПОЛИТИКИ

Учреждение образования
«БЕЛОРУССКАЯ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННАЯ
ОРДЕНОВ ОКТЯБРЬСКОЙ РЕВОЛЮЦИИ
И ТРУДОВОГО КРАСНОГО ЗНАМЕНИ
СЕЛЬСКОХОЗЯЙСТВЕННАЯ АКАДЕМИЯ»

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АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК

THE ESSENTIALS OF MANAGEMENT

*Рекомендовано учебно-методическим объединением
в сфере высшего образования Республики Беларусь
по образованию в области сельского хозяйства
в качестве учебно-методического пособия
для студентов учреждений образования,
обеспечивающих получение общего высшего образования
по специальности 6-05-0811-04 Агробизнес*

Горки
Белорусская государственная
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В пособии приведены аутентичные тексты экономического характера, снабженные разнообразными упражнениями, которые обеспечивают овладение специальной лексикой и позволяют развивать у студентов умения чтения профессиональной литературы.

Для студентов учреждений образования, обеспечивающих получение общего высшего образования по специальности 6-05-0811-04 Агробизнес.

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ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Учебно-методическое пособие предназначено для студентов специальности общего высшего образования 6-05-0811-04 Агробизнес.

Цель данного пособия – обеспечить овладение студентами основными экономическими понятиями, сформировать у студентов умения вдумчивого чтения текстов по специальности с полным извлечением и интерпретацией информации, а также развить умения быстрого чтения, направленного на поиск нужных данных и составление общего представления о прочитанном.

Пособие состоит из двух частей: *Farm Management* и *Management Practices Across Countries*. В первой части охарактеризовано управление сельским хозяйством, во второй – особенности управления экономикой в различных странах.

Каждый урок включает словарь, текст А и текст В. Чтению текстов предшествуют упражнения, направленные на усвоение лексики и формирование потенциального словаря обучаемых. Работа с текстом А, предназначенным для изучающего чтения, предполагает ответы на вопросы, определение истинности/ложности утверждений, установление логических связей, обобщение информации, выражение собственного мнения и ряд других упражнений. Работа с текстом В предусматривает поиск различной информации, ответы на вопросы, касающиеся основного содержания, заполнение таблиц, оценку прочитанного.

В конце пособия приведен общий алфавитный словарь специальной лексики, облегчающий работу студентов.

Разработанные задания могут использоваться студентами очной и заочной форм получения образования как на аудиторных занятиях, так и самостоятельно, вне аудитории.

Part I. FARM MANAGEMENT

UNIT 1

Ex. 1.1. Learn the new words.

management ['mænɪdʒmənt] – управление
manager ['mænɪdʒə] – управляющий, заведующий, директор
to manage ['mænɪdʒ] – руководить, управлять
labor ['leɪbə] – труд
to accomplish [ə'kɒmplɪʃ] – достигать, выполнять
to make decisions [ˌmeɪk dɪ'sɪʒ(ə)nz] – принимать решения
to increase profits [ɪnˌkriːs 'prɒfɪts] – увеличить прибыль, доход
available [ə'veɪləb(ə)l] – имеющийся в распоряжении, наличный
to meet goals [ˌmiːt 'gəʊlz] – достигать целей
to allocate ['æləkeɪt] – размещать, распределять
scarce ['skeəs] – недостаточный; дефицитный
insight (into) ['ɪnsaɪt] – проникновение в суть
to establish goals [ɪˌstæblɪʃ 'gəʊlz] – устанавливать цели
owner ['əʊnə] – владелец, собственник
employee [ˌemplɔɪ'i:] – служащий, работающий по найму
finite ['faɪnaɪt] – ограниченный, имеющий предел
amount [ə'maʊnt] – количество
to imply [ɪm'plaɪ] – предполагать, подразумевать
to indicate ['ɪndɪkeɪt] – показывать, указывать
approach [ə'prəʊtʃ] – подход
coordinating [kəʊ'ɔːdɪneɪtɪŋ] – координация, согласование действий
staffing ['stɑːfɪŋ] – укомплектование штатов; набор кадров
directing [daɪ'rektɪŋ] – руководство, управление; указание, распоряжение
supervising ['suːpəvaɪzɪŋ] – надзор, наблюдение
implementing [ˌɪmplɪ'mentɪŋ] – осуществление, выполнение
acquisition [ˌækwi'zɪʃ(ə)n] – приобретение
to put into effect [ˌput ɪntu ə'fekt] – осуществлять, проводить в жизнь
overseeing [ˌəʊvə'siːɪŋ] – надзор, наблюдение
to monitor ['mɒnɪtə] – контролировать, проверять
to record [rɪ'kɔːd] – записывать, регистрировать
corrective [kə'rektɪv] – корректирующий, исправительный
source [sɔːs] – источник
adjustment [ə'dʒʌs(t)mənt] – корректировка, исправление
outcome ['aʊtkʌm] – результат, последствие
refinement [rɪ'faɪnmənt] – усовершенствование

Ex. 1.2. Match the words listed below with the dictionary definitions which follow.

manager	approach	staff
implementation	supervising	refinement
employee	goal	decision

- 1) a method used in solving a problem;
- 2) the act or process of improving something;
- 3) a conclusion or resolution reached;
- 4) a group of people who work for an organization or business;
- 5) overseeing the actions or work of a person;
- 6) the object of a person's ambition or effort; an aim;
- 7) a person employed for wages or salary;
- 8) fulfillment of an undertaking;
- 9) a person controlling or administering a business or part of a business.

Ex. 1.3. Which of these words can go together? Join them. (Consult the vocabulary list and Text A in case of difficulties).

to make	resources	corrective	amount
to meet	effect	finite	resources (2)
to allocate	decisions	insight into	action
to establish	profits	scarce	refinement
to put into	goals (2)	available	management
to increase		continual	

Ex. 1.4. Match the synonyms from lines I and II.

I) labor, owner, amount, finite, to imply, acquisition, to monitor, source, outcome, adjustment.

II) correcting, getting, beginning, result, holder, work, to involve, quantity, limited, to check.

Ex. 1.5. Translate the words paying attention to their suffixes and prefixes.

1) to own, owner, ownership; 2) to profit, profit (n), profitable, unprofitable; 3) to employ, employer, employee, employment, unemployment; 4) to acquire, acquired, acquisition; 5) finite, infinite, finitely, finiteness.

Ex. 1.6. Read the text to understand in detail the essence of management and its functions.

TEXT A

Management and its Functions

What is management? What do managers do? How do they spend their time? What are they trying to accomplish? How does management differ

from labor? Or does it? Management is a widely used term but one that is subject to¹ many individual definitions. A general discussion will serve to provide a broad understanding of management. Some of the more common definitions of management use phrases such as "making decisions to increase profits", "making the best use of available resources", "is concerned with² meeting goals", and "using, managing, or allocating resources". The references to using resources are similar to a definition of economics, which is often defined as "the study of the allocation of scarce resources".

This small sampling of phrases used in definitions of management does provide some insight into management and the things managers do. First, they imply the existence of a *goal* or goals. Managers must either establish these goals or be sure they clearly understand the business owner's goals if the manager is an employee. Second, there are *resources* to use or allocate. This means the manager must identify the finite amount available and then properly allocate or use this amount to meet the goals. Third, the need to allocate or use resources implies more than one possible use for them. The manager must identify all possible *alternatives*, analyze them, and then select those representing the best use of the resources. All of these steps indicate the need for the manager to be making decisions.

Another approach to discussing management is to list the functions of management. Common functions are planning, organizing, coordinating, controlling, staffing, directing, supervising, and implementing. These functions do not lead to a definition of management but provide another set of ideas on "what managers do". They also illustrate the broad scope³ of management and its complexity.

Three functions are often identified as being basic or fundamental to management. They are planning, implementation, and control.

Planning. Planning may be the most fundamental and important of the functions. It means deciding on a course of action, policy, or procedure. Not much will happen without a plan. The organizing function might be considered part of planning.

Implementing. Once a plan is developed, it must be implemented. This includes the acquisition of the resources and materials necessary to put the plan into effect as well as overseeing the entire process. Coordinating, staffing, directing, and supervising could fit under this function.

Control. The control function can be thought of as monitoring results, recording information, and taking corrective action. It monitors the results of the plan to see if it is being followed and producing the desired results. If not, it should provide an early warning⁴ so adjustments can be made. Outcomes and other related data should be recorded as this becomes a

source of new and often improved information to use when making adjustments and for improving future plans.

Figure 1 illustrates the flow of actions from planning through implementation to control. It also shows that information obtained from the control function can be used for revising, modifying, and making future plans. This circular flow implies a continuous process of planning, implementation, and control followed by improved planning based on new information. The process of continual improvement and refinement of the decision can continue through many cycles.

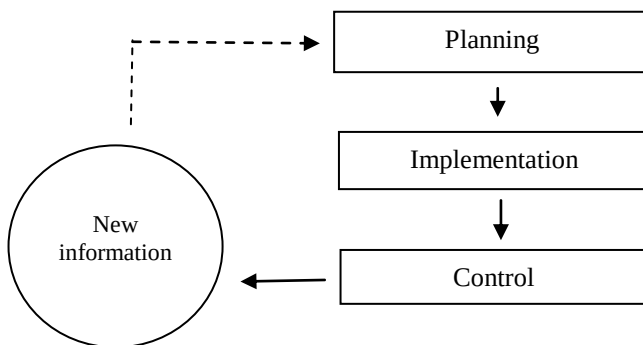


FIGURE 1. Management flowchart⁵ based on three functions of management

Notes to the text:

1 – *здесь: допускает*

2 – *связанный с*

3 – *широкий масштаб*

4 – *предупреждение*

5 – *блок-схема*

Ex. 1.7. Find in the text the English equivalents of the following words and phrases.

1) управление; 2) управляющий; 3) труд; 4) отличаться, различаться; 5) достигать; 6) определения управления; 7) увеличить прибыль; 8) размещение ресурсов; 9) подразумевают существование цели; 10) приобретение ресурсов; 11) цели владельца бизнеса; 12) принимать решения; 13) комплектование штатов; 14) корректирующее действие; 15) осуществление, выполнение; 16) контроль результатов; 17) выполнять план; 18) политика; 19) образ действия.

Ex. 1.8. Are these statements true or false? Begin your answers with ‘Yes, that’s right’ or ‘I’m afraid, that’s wrong’ and correct the false statements.

1. Management as a discipline of study refers to and emphasizes the importance of the workers with whom managers work.
2. There is a single definition of management.
3. The controlling function focuses on making sure the organization stays on its planned course of action.
4. The basic functions of management are planning, implementing and control.
5. Managers must establish goals.
6. The need to allocate or use resources implies more than one possible use for them.
7. Coordinating, staffing, directing, and supervising can fit under the function of implementing.
8. Management is a continuous cyclic process.

Ex. 1.9. Answer the following questions.

1. Can you name some of the more common definitions of management?
2. Which definition of management do you consider the best one? Why? Can you give your own definition?
3. Management implies the existence of a goal or goals, doesn’t it?
4. Why must the manager analyze all possible alternatives?
5. What three functions are fundamental to management?
6. What does planning mean?
7. What does implementing include?
8. What does the control function mean?
9. Why should outcomes and other related data be recorded?
10. How does new information influence management?

Ex. 1.10. What is meant by management? Put each of the following words in its correct place.

managers	goal	implies	employees	accomplish
management		resources	staffing	tasks

Management in businesses and organizations is the function that coordinates the efforts of people to (1) _____ goals and objectives by using available (2) _____ efficiently and effectively.

Management includes planning, organizing, (3) _____, leading or directing, and controlling an organization to accomplish the goal or target. Management (4) _____ the use and manipulation of human resources, financial resources, technological resources, and natural resources. Man-

agement is also an academic discipline, a social science whose (5) _____ is to study social organization.

In profit-making organizations, management's primary function is increasing profits, creating products at a reasonable cost, and providing great employment opportunities for (6) _____.

Most organizations have three (7) _____ levels: first-level, middle-level, and top-level managers. These managers are classified in a hierarchy of authority, and perform different (8) _____. In many organizations, the number of (9) _____ in every level resembles a pyramid.

Ex. 1.11. Read the text “The information age” and answer the following questions.

1. Why does the volume of information represent a challenge?
2. What implications does it have for the organization?
3. What's the difference between data and information?
4. What are the main characteristics of useful information?
5. How can the problem of information sharing be solved?
6. What is a computer? How can computers help managers?
7. Do you have a computer? How often do you use it? What for? How much time per day do you spend at your computer?
8. Can you imagine your life without a computer? Why?
9. Is the computer a blessing¹ or a curse², in your opinion?

1 – благо; 2 – бедствие

TEXT B

The Information Age

The volume of information presents a challenge to managers of today. The manager cannot use all available information. The need is for managers to get the information necessary to make effective decisions. A challenge facing the organization is getting the useful information to the manager in a timely fashion.

A. Data versus Information

Data are unorganized facts, statistics, and predictions concerning people, events, and ideas. Information is data that have been organized and processed in a way to meet the manager's needs.

B. Attributes of Useful Information

Usable information is: accessible, timely, relevant, accurate, verifiable, complete and clear. In determining the value of information these attributes are of equal importance.

C. Information Sharing

A major problem is the sharing of information. In the organization much valuable information does not reach the people who can use it. A key to sharing information is to get it to the people who need it in a form which can be understood. The best way to do this is to involve the information users in the design of the information collection and distribution system. Team approaches encourage the use and distribution of information.

D. Information Processing

Computers help managers to process the information available to them. Information processing describes the entire sequence of steps involved in converting data to information. Data processing involves mechanically transferring raw data into some specific form of information. A computer is an electronic device used to input, store, process data and output data as useful information.

Ex. 1.12. You are a company manager. Speak about the problems that the growing volume of information poses for you.

UNIT 2

Ex. 2.1. Learn the new words.

ranch [rɑːntʃ] – ранчо, крупное фермерское хозяйство
separate ['sep(ə)rət] – отдельный
business ['biznəs] – предприятие, фирма
technique [tek'ni:k] – метод
to affect [ə'fekt] – влиять
obvious ['ɒvviəs] – очевидный
location [lə(ʊ)'keɪʃ(ə)n] – местоположение, расположение
urban ['z:b(ə)n] – городской
in terms of – с точки зрения
output ['aʊtpʊt] – выпуск продукции
variability [ˌveəriə'bɪləti] – изменчивость, неустойчивость
apparent [ə'pærənt] – очевидный
broad [brɔːd] – широкий
point – пункт, момент
profitability [ˌprɒfɪtə'bɪləti] – прибыльность
necessarily [ˌnesə'serəli] – обязательно
to the exclusion [ɪk'skluːʒ(ə)n] of – исключая
activities [æk'tɪvətɪz] – деятельность
operation [ɒpə'reɪʃ(ə)n] – деятельность, работа

objective [əb'dʒektɪv] – цель, задача
 continual [kən'tɪnjuəl] – постоянный, непрерывный
 to guide [gaɪd] – направлять, руководить
 competing [kəm'pi:tɪŋ] – конкурирующий
 to force [fɔ:s] – заставлять, вынуждать

Ex. 2.2. Match the words listed below with the dictionary definitions which follow.

technique	point	business
to affect	to guide	to force
output	ranch	urban

- 1) to direct or control the path or course of something;
- 2) belonging or relating to a town or city;
- 3) a particular detail of an idea or argument;
- 4) a large farm especially in the U.S. where animals (such as cattle, horses, and sheep) are raised;
- 5) a particular company that buys and sells goods and services;
- 6) to make it necessary for someone to do something;
- 7) a way of doing something by using special knowledge or skill;
- 8) the amount of something that is produced;
- 9) to have an influence on someone or something, or to cause a change in someone or something.

Ex. 2.3. Match the synonyms from lines I and II.

I) objective, variability, activities, obvious, technique, to affect, separate, location.

II) to influence, operation, position, goal, changeability, apparent, independent, method.

Ex. 2.4. Match the antonyms from lines I and II.

I) To the exclusion of, urban, variability, broad, competing, output, continual.

II) Stability, input, stopping, including, cooperating, narrow, rural.

Ex. 2.5. Translate the words paying attention to their suffixes and prefixes.

1) to compete, competing, competition, competitor, competitive, uncompetitive; 2) to locate, located, location; 3) to separate, separated, separate (adj), separately, separable, inseparable; 4) variable, invariable, variability, invariability; 5) to guide, guided, guide (n), guidance; 6) necessary, necessarily, necessity, necessitate.

Ex. 2.6. Read the text to understand in detail what farm and ranch management is.

TEXT A

Farm and Ranch Management

Is farm and ranch management greatly different from the management of other types of businesses? Should it be a separate, distinct subject or discipline? Or is management the same for all types of businesses with no differences in the methods and principles used? Some argue¹ that the basic management functions, principles, and techniques needed are the same but only applied to different types of businesses. Others say a typical farm or ranch business has some unique characteristics that affect the management principles and techniques used.

Some of the more obvious characteristics are differences in size, type of business or business organization, products produced, and their location outside urban areas. Farms and ranches are often considered to be subject to more risk in terms of output and price variability and the effect of weather on the entire production process. Also, except on some large farms, there is little opportunity for specialization² in labor and management tasks. However, these and other differences are not readily apparent when definitions of business management and farm and ranch management are compared.

There are many different textbook definitions of farm and ranch management but several common points run through most of them. One of the more concise³ definitions is: "Farm management is concerned with the decisions which affect the profitability of the farm business". This broad definition contains several important points. First, it identifies profitability as a major goal of the business but not necessarily to the exclusion of other goals. Second, this definition specifically identifies decisions and decision making as part of the management activities.

Other definitions contain many of the same concepts or ideas. There is usually some reference⁴ to *decisions* or *decision making* as being important in management. Also, some mention is usually made of *goals* or *objectives*. This may be done in general terms or a more specific goal such as profit maximization may be identified. Finally, some mention of the *organization* and *operation* of the farm or ranch business is included in many definitions.

Farm and ranch management can be thought of, then, as being a decision-making process. It is a continual process because of the continual changes taking place in our economy and in the individual business. The decisions are concerned with allocating the limited resources of land, labor, and capital among alternative and competing uses. This allocation

process forces the manager to identify goals to guide and direct the decision making.

Notes to the text:

1 – *здесь: утверждают*

2 – *разделение*

3 – *краткий*

4 – *упоминание*

Ex. 2.7. Find in the text the English equivalents of the following words and phrases.

1) отдельный, самостоятельный предмет; 2) все типы коммерческих предприятий; 3) основные функции, принципы и необходимые методы управления; 4) наиболее очевидные особенности; 5) производимая продукция; 6) размещение за городской чертой; 7) изменчивость цен; 8) различия не очевидны; 9) несколько общих пунктов; 10) управленческая деятельность; 11) одинаковые понятия или идеи; 12) достижение максимальной прибыли; 13) за счет исключения других целей; 14) конкурирующие области применения; 15) руководить процессом принятия решений.

Ex. 2.8. Select the best variant for each of the following sentences.

1. Some authors think that a typical farm or ranch business has some ... characteristics.
 - a) different
 - b) basic
 - c) unique
2. These characteristics are differences in size, type of business or business organization, products produced, and ...
 - a) their output
 - b) their location outside urban areas
 - c) the effect of weather.
3. There are several ... points in different textbook definitions of farm and ranch management.
 - a) common
 - b) obvious
 - c) familiar
4. In different definitions of farm management there is ... some reference to decisions or decision making.
 - a) usually
 - b) seldom
 - c) hardly ever

5. Farm management is concerned with the decisions ...
 - a) which are very concise.
 - b) as part of the management activities.
 - c) affecting the profitability of the farm business.
6. ... is a continual process.
 - a) The individual business.
 - b) Farm and ranch management.
 - c) Our economy.

Ex. 2.9. Answer the following questions.

1. What are the two opposite views on the nature of farm and ranch management, according to the text?
2. What unique and obvious characteristics does a typical farm or ranch business have?
3. Are labor and management tasks specialized on small farms?
4. What is one of the more concise definitions of farm management?
5. What are the most important points in this definition?
6. What concepts do other definitions contain?
7. Why is farm decision-making a continual process?
8. What are the decisions concerned with?
9. Do farm and ranch managers need different management skills than managers of other businesses? If so, which skills?
10. Would a successful farm manager be successful managing some other business and vice versa?

Ex. 2.10. Put the facts in the order in which they are mentioned in the text.

1. Most textbook definitions of farm and ranch management have several common points.
2. The allocation process forces the manager to identify goals to guide the decision making.
3. Profitability is a major goal for the business.
4. Typical farm or ranch businesses have some unique characteristics.
5. Farm and ranch management is a decision-making process.
6. Labor specialization is not typical of small farms.
7. Farms and ranches are located outside urban areas.
8. Farm and ranch production process is greatly affected by weather.

Ex. 2.11. Read the text “Scientific Management” and do the following tasks:

1. Give some information about F.W. Taylor and his contribution to management.
2. Speak for and against his principles.

TEXT B

Scientific Management

No one has had more influence on managers in the 20th century than Frederick W. Taylor, an American engineer. He set a pattern for industrial work which many others have followed, and although his approach to management has been criticized, his ideas are still of practical importance.

Taylor founded the school of Scientific Management just before the 1914-18 war. He argued that work should be studied and analyzed systematically. The operations required to perform a particular job could be identified, then arranged in a logical sequence. After this was done, a worker's productivity would increase, and so would his/her wages. The new method was scientific. The way of doing a job would no longer be determined by guesswork¹ and rule-of-thumb practices². If the worker followed the prescribed approach, his/her output would increase.

Taylor's solutions to the problems were based on his own experience. When he was with Bethlehem Steel³, Taylor criticized management and workers. He conducted many experiments to find out how to improve their productivity. He felt that managers used not the right methods and the workers did not put much effort into their job. They were always "soldiering" – taking it easy. He wanted both groups to adopt a new approach to their work. The new way was as follows:

1. Each operation of a job was studied and analyzed;
2. Using the information, management worked out the time and method for each job, and the type of equipment to be used;
3. Work was organized so that the worker's only responsibility was to do the job in the prescribed manner;
4. Men with the right physical skills were selected and trained for the job.

The weakness of his approach was that it focused on the system of work rather than on the worker. With this system a worker becomes a tool in the hands of management. Another criticism is that it leads to de-skilling⁴ – reducing the skills of workers. And with educational standards rising among factory workers, dissatisfaction⁵ is likely to increase. Finally, some people think that it is wrong to separate doing from planning. A worker will be more productive if he/she is engaged in such activities as planning, decision-making, controlling and organizing.

Notes to the text:

1 – догадки

2 – практические (ненаучные) методы

3 – Металлургическая корпорация "Бетлехем стил"

4 – декартификация труда

5 – недовольство

UNIT 3

Ex. 3.1. Learn the new words.

goal [gəʊl] – цель
gauge [geɪdʒ] – мера; критерий, способ оценки
specific [spə'sɪfɪk] – определенный, точный, конкретный
to reach [ri: tʃ] – достичь
measurable ['meʒərəb(ə)] – измеримый
timetable ['taɪm, teɪb(ə)] – график, расписание
deadline ['dedlaɪn] – крайний срок
involvement [ɪn'vɒlvmənt] – участие (в чем-либо)
individual [ˌɪndɪ'vɪdʒʊəl] – человек, отдельное лицо; физическое лицо
farm operator ['fɑ:m, ɒpəreɪtə] – владелец фермы или ее управляющий
long-run ['lɒŋrʌn] – долгосрочный
short-run ['ʃɔ:trʌn] – краткосрочный
survival [sə'vaɪv(ə)] – выживание
to go broke [ˌgəʊ 'brəʊk] – разориться
to avoid [ə'vɔɪd] – избегать
foreclosure [ˌfɔ: 'klɔʊzə] – лишение права выкупа заложенного имущества
return on investment [rɪ'tʌ:n ɒn ɪn'vestmənt] – доход от капиталовложения
standard of living [ˌstændəd əv 'lɪvɪŋ] – уровень жизни
net worth ['net, wɜ:θ] – собственный капитал предприятия
steady ['stedi] – устойчивый, постоянный
debt [det] – долг
income ['ɪnkʌm] – доход
leisure ['leɪzə] – досуг, свободное время
to expand [ɪk'spænd] – расширять(ся)
to rank first [ˌræŋk 'fɜ:st] – занимать первое место
circumstances ['sɜ:kəmstənsɪz] – обстоятельства
living expenses [ˌlɪvɪŋ ɪk'spənsɪz] – расходы на содержание семьи
borrowing ['bɒrəʊɪŋ] – одалживание, заимствование
to conflict (with) ['kɒnflikt wɪð] – противоречить чему-либо

Ex. 3.2. Match the words listed below with the dictionary definitions which follow.

deadline	debt	gauge
timetable	income	individual
survival	goal	circumstances

- 1) conditions that accompany or influence some event or activity;
- 2) the result towards which effort is directed;

- 3) a single person regarded as distinct from others;
- 4) a standard or criterion for assessing;
- 5) the latest time for finishing something;
- 6) money or goods or services owed by one person to another;
- 7) remaining alive;
- 8) the monetary payment received for goods or services, or from other sources, as rents or investments;
- 9) any plan listing events and the times at which they will take place.

Ex. 3.3. Match the antonyms from lines I and II.

I) variable, leisure, specific, measurable, long-run, involvement, to go broke, borrowing, to expand, to conflict.

II) unmeasurable, to agree, lending, to become successful, stable, indefinite, work, short-run, absence, to reduce.

Ex. 3.4. Choose the correct word for each sentence.

1. Many people try to (*avoid/reach*) goals within a fixed time by setting deadlines.

2. These farm (*operators/operations*) specialize in beef cattle farming.

3. If you manage to raise enough cash you can stop the (*foreclosure/net worth*) process.

4. His (*losses/return*) on investment totaled over \$ 2,000,000, so he is rich now.

5. Profit maximization often ranks (*last/first*) among business goals.

6. Calculating how much is spent on family (*living expenses/standard of living*) is never easy.

Ex. 3.5. Translate the words paying attention to their suffixes.

1) to survive, survival, survivor; 2) to avoid, avoidable, unavoidable, unavailability, avoidance; 3) to borrow, borrowed (adj), borrowing (n), borrower; 4) specific, unspecific, to specify, specified, specification; to involve, involved (adj), involvement; 5) to measure, measure (n), measurable, unmeasurable, measuring (adj), measurer.

Ex. 3.6. Read the text to understand in detail the importance of goals in management.

TEXT A

Goals and Their Importance

A manager's first job is to establish goals for the business. In the case of a hired² manager, the business owner may establish and communicate¹ them to the manager. Whether the manager establishes goals or receives them

from the business owner, it is important that they exist and be fully understood. Without goals there is no way to either make management decisions or measure their results. Goals are the gauges used to determine if one alternative use of resources is better than another.

When establishing goals, it is important to keep the following points in mind:

1. Goals should be written. This allows everyone involved to see and agree on them and provides a record for review at later dates.

2. Goals should be specific. “To increase profit by \$20,000 per year” is better than “to increase profit”. A manager can determine when a specific goal has been reached. This provides a sense of accomplishment and a time to think about defining new goals.

3. Goals should be measurable. The \$20,000 per year goal is measurable, and each year the manager can measure progress toward the goal as well as what remains before reaching it.

4. Goals should have a timetable. “To increase profit by \$20,000 per year in 2 years” is better than a goal with an open-ended or unspecified completion date. The deadline helps keep the manager focused on the goal.

Because of their close and direct involvement with the farm business, a farm operated by a family unit can have more than one set of goals. There can be personal goals as well as business goals, and each individual within the family unit may have different goals within each set. In these situations, it is important to use a family conference or similar method to discuss and hopefully agree on at least the business goals. Without an agreement, everyone may go in different directions with no business goals being reached.

Since individuals and the businesses they manage are different, many potential goals exist. Surveys³ of farm operators have identified the following goals:

- Survival, stay in business, do not go broke, avoid foreclosure.

- Maximize profit, get the best return on investment.

- Increase or maintain standard of living, attain⁴ a desirable standard of living.

- Increase net worth, steady increase in net worth.

- Reduce debt, become free of debt.

- Attain at least a minimum profit each year, avoid years of low profit, maintain a stable income.

- Pass the entire farm on to the next generation.

- Increase leisure, free time.

- Increase farm size, expand, add acreage⁵.

- Maintain the quality of soil⁶ and water resources.

These surveys have also found that rarely does a single goal exist; farm operators often have several or multiple goals.

Each of the goals listed may rank first for some individual depending on time and circumstances. Goals can and do change with changes in age, financial condition, family status, and other factors. Also, long-run goals may be different than short-run goals. Profit maximization is often assumed⁷ to be the goal of all business owners, particularly in economics. However, farm operators often rank survival or staying in business as their number one goal, and others may be ranked above profit maximization. However, it is important to note that profit plays a direct or at least an indirect role in meeting some of the other possible goals.

A business cannot survive for long without making a profit. Profit is needed to increase family living expenses, increase net worth, decrease borrowing, and to expand. However, several of the possible goals listed imply some sort of risk minimization or risk avoidance that puts these goals in conflict with profit maximization. Many of the most profitable production plans and strategies *over time* are also the most variable in profit, that is, have the most risk. A highly variable profit may greatly reduce the chances for survival and conflicts with the desire for a stable income and avoiding years of low or negative profit. For these and other reasons, profit maximization is not always the most important goal for all farm operators.

Notes to the text:

1 – *сообщить*

2 – *нанятый*

3 – *опросы*

4 – *достичь*

5 – *площадь земли (в акрах)*

6 – *почва*

7 – *считается*

Ex. 3.7. Find in the text the English equivalents of the following words and phrases.

1) устанавливать цели; 2) критерии; 3) запись, официальный документ; 4) точный, конкретный; 5) чувство успеха; 6) набор целей; 7) семейное совещание; 8) выживание; 9) избежать лишения права выкупа заложенного имущества; 10) максимально увеличить прибыль; 11) повысить уровень жизни; 12) уменьшить долги; 13) сохранить стабильный доход; 14) передать следующему поколению; 15) владельцы бизнеса; 16) расходы на жизнь.

Ex. 3.8. Fill in the gaps with the words from the box to describe farm operators' goals and risks. Consult Text A on p. 17 if necessary.

specific	a highly variable profit	business goals	an agreement
a timetable	profit maximization	multiple goals	long-run goals

1. There can be personal goals as well as _____.
2. Goals should be _____.
3. Goals should have _____.
4. _____ is often considered to be the goal of all business owners.
5. Farm operators often have _____.
6. Without _____, no business goals can be reached in a family unit.
7. _____ may be different than short-run goals.
8. _____ may greatly reduce the chances for survival.

Ex. 3.9. Are these statements true or false? Correct the false ones.

1. Without goals it is impossible to make management decisions.
2. Goals should be written.
3. A manager can't determine when a specific goal has been reached.
4. If the goal is measurable, each year the manager can measure progress toward the goal.
5. It is necessary that goals have a timetable.
6. A family unit operating a farm can have more than one set of goals.
7. There can be only business goals.
8. There is no method to discuss and agree on the goals in a family unit.
9. Many potential goals exist.
10. The most important goal in farm business is to maximize profit.

Ex. 3.10. Answer the following questions.

1. What is a manager's primary task?
2. What concern do goals have with the use of resources?
3. What characteristics of goals should be kept in mind when establishing goals?
4. Why should goals have deadlines?
5. Why can a family unit have many goals?
6. How do changes in age, financial condition, family status, etc. affect goals?
7. What goal may rank first in economics?
8. Why cannot a business survive without making a profit?
9. Can you give any examples of both short-term and long-term goals for a farm or ranch business?
10. What are your personal goals for the next week? Next year? Next 5 years?

Ex. 3.11. Scan Text B quickly and answer these questions.

1. What management techniques will farm managers be using in the 21st century?
2. What type of managerial decisions will they be making? Characterize them.
3. What will managers analyze?
4. What will change about management decisions in the 21st century?
5. How will electronic innovations influence decision making?
6. How will these changes affect farmers and ranchers?

TEXT B

What will farm managers be doing in the twenty-first century? They will be doing what they are doing now, making decisions. They will still be using economic principles, the various budgeting methods, record analysis, investment analysis, and other management techniques to help make those decisions. What kind of decisions will managers be making in the twenty-first century? Most will be the same type they are making now. Managers will still be making decisions about input¹ and output levels² and combinations, and when and how to acquire additional resources. They will continue to analyze the risk and returns from adopting new technology, making new capital investments, adjusting farm size, and changing crops and animals.

Will anything about management decisions in the twenty-first century be different? Yes. While the broad types of decisions being made will be the same, the details and information used will change. Technology will continue to provide new inputs to consider and new and more specialized products for possible production and marketing. Electronic innovations will provide more accurate and timely information for use in management decision making. Farmers and ranchers will have to compete more aggressively with nonagricultural businesses for use of the land, labor, and capital resources needed. As usual, the better managers will be able to adapt to these changes and will continue to leverage³ their management skills over larger and larger units of production.

Notes to the text:

1 – затраты

2 – уровни

3 – использовать (с выгодой)

Ex. 3.12. Choose the best title for Text B (a, b or c).

- a. Electronic Innovations and Farm Management.
- b. Farm Management in the Twenty-First Century.
- c. Evolution of Farm Management.

UNIT 4

Ex. 4.1. Learn the new words.

problem-solving ['prɒbləm ,sɒlvɪŋ] – решение проблем
to determine [di'tɜ:mɪn] – определять
input ['ɪnpʊt] – вводимый ресурс, вводимый фактор производства
to be faced ['feɪst] with – сталкиваться
rate [reɪt] – норма, уровень
appropriate [ə'prəʊpriət] – подходящий, соответствующий
crop [krɒp] – (сельскохозяйственная) культура
livestock ['laɪvstɒk] – домашний скот
to attain [ə'teɪn] – достигать
focus ['fəʊkəs] – центр внимания; ключевая цель
entire [ɪn'taɪə] – полный, целый, весь
to consider [kən'sɪdə] – рассматривать; учитывать, принимать во внимание
to confine [kən'faɪn] – ограничивать
infinite ['ɪnfɪnət] – бесконечный, безграничный
expertise [ˌekspɜ:'ti:z] – компетентность, знание дела
continuing [kən'tɪnju:ɪŋ] – постоянный, непрерывный
responsibility [rɪ ,spɒnsə'bɪləti] – обязанность
emphasis ['em fəsɪs] – особое внимание
crop production ['krɒp ,prədʌkʃ(ə)n] – растениеводство
livestock production ['laɪvstɒk ,prədʌkʃ(ə)n] – животноводство
suitable ['su:təb(ə)l] – подходящий, пригодный
to exist [ɪg'zɪst] – существовать
complexity [kəm'pleksəti] – сложность

Ex. 4.2. Match the words listed below with the dictionary definitions which follow.

problem-solving	focus	to determine
input	crop production	emphasis
expertise	livestock production	circumstance

1) a certain quantity or amount of one thing considered in relation to a unit of another thing and used as a standard or measure;

2) the cultivation of plants for food, fiber, biofuel and other products used to sustain human life;

3) the concentration of attention or energy on something;

4) special skill or knowledge;

5) a resource required for industrial production;

- 6) the management and care of farm animals by humans;
- 7) to affect or control;
- 8) the process of working through details of a problem to reach a solution;
- 9) special importance or significance.

Ex. 4.3. Match the synonyms from lines I and II.

I) expertise, to exist, to consider, to attain, responsibility, crop, livestock, to confine.

II) to limit, to reach, duty, a cultivated plant, to be, competence, to take into account, farm animals.

Ex. 4.4. Match the antonyms from lines I and II.

I) finite, appropriate, suitable, input, complexity, to be faced with, entire, continuing.

II) incomplete, output, discontinued, infinite, inappropriate, unsuitable, simplicity, to avoid.

Ex. 4.5. Translate the words paying attention to their suffixes and prefixes.

1) to manage, manager, management, managerial; 2) to determine, determining, indeterminate, determination, determinate (adj), determined, determinative; 3) to produce, produce (n), production, product, producer, productive, producing, productivity; 4) to select, selection, selecting, selected, selective; 5) to use, using, used, unused.

Ex. 4.6. Read the text to understand in detail the complexity of the manager's problems.

TEXT A

Problem Types and Characteristics

Management is a problem-solving and decision-making activity. What types of economic or management problems are found on farms and ranches? What are the basic characteristics of these problems? As an example, consider just the production problems a manager must solve. These problems fall into one of three types, each of which can be put into the form of a question:

How much to produce? Production is determined primarily by the number of inputs used and input levels. A manager is faced with the problems of how much fertilizer and irrigation water to use, seeding¹ rates, feeding² levels, labor and machinery use, and determining rates and levels for other inputs. The level of production and profit will be determined by the input levels selected.

How to produce? Many agricultural products can be produced in a number of ways. Beef can be produced with a high-grain³ or a high-roughage⁴ ration. Hogs can be produced with a large capital investment in buildings and little labor or with less investment and more labor. Crops can be produced with large machinery and little labor or smaller machinery and more labor. A manager must select the appropriate combination of inputs that will minimize the cost of producing a given quantity of some output.

What to produce? This problem involves selecting the combination of crops and livestock to be produced. Should the business produce only crops, only livestock, or some combination? Which crops or crop rotation⁵? Which livestock? The manager must select from among the many alternatives that combination that will maximize profit or best meet some other goal.

Every production problem a farm manager faces relates to one or a combination of these three questions. These production problems are also economic problems and, as such, have the three basic characteristics of an economic problem:

1. Goals to be attained.
2. A limited amount of resources available.
3. A number of alternative ways to use the limited resources in attempting to attain the goals.

Goals

Not only are they a characteristic of an economic problem they also provide a focus and direction for the entire management process. Goal attainment is the engine that drives management. Without goals, the business has no direction and goes nowhere.

Limited Resources

A manager must consider the resources available for attaining the goals that have been set. Limits are placed on goal attainment because most managers have a finite amount of resources available. In a farm or ranch business, goal attainment is confined within some limits set by the amount of land, labor, and capital available. These resources may change over time, but they are never available in infinite amounts. The level of management skills available or the expertise of the manager may be another limiting resource. Identifying current resource limits and acquiring additional resources, including management skills, are part of the continuing responsibilities of the farm manager.

Alternative Uses

If the limited resources could only be used one way to produce one agricultural product, the manager's job would be much easier. The usual situa-

tion allows the limited resources to be used several different ways to produce each of a number of different products. In other words, the manager is faced with a number of alternative uses for the limited resources and must make decisions on how to allocate these resources in order to maximize profit. The emphasis should be on maximizing profit for the entire business and not for just one of the alternatives.

In the more arid regions of the western United States, the land resource is such that the only alternative may be to use it as pasture⁶ for livestock production. But even in this situation, the manager must still decide whether to use the pasture for cow/calf production⁷, for grazing stocker steers⁸ during the summer, or in some areas, for sheep and goat production. Other areas of the country have land suitable for both crop and livestock production, and a larger number of alternatives exist. As the number of alternative uses for the limited resources increases, so does the complexity of the manager's problem.

Notes to the text:

1 – посев

2 – кормление

3 – с высоким содержанием зерна

4 – с высоким содержанием грубых кормов

5 – севооборот

6 – пастбище

7 – подсосное выращивание телят

8 – бычки-кастраты, выращиваемые на грубом корме перед убоем

Ex. 4.7. Find in the text the English equivalents of the following words and phrases.

1) деятельность, связанная с решением проблем и принятием решений; 2) производственные проблемы; 3) различными способами; 4) крупное капиталовложение; 5) соответствующее сочетание вводимых ресурсов; 6) культуры и животные, которые будут выращиваться; 7) получит максимальную прибыль; 8) цели, которые должны быть достигнуты; 9) обеспечивают ключевую цель; 10) ограниченное количество доступных ресурсов; 11) компетентность управляющего; 12) постоянные обязанности; 13) управляющий сталкивается с; 14) земля пригодна как для растениеводства, так и для животноводства.

Ex. 4.8. True or false? Correct the false statements.

1. The level of production and profit will be determined by the input levels selected.

2. Economic or management problems found on farms and ranches fall into one of three types.

3. Beef can be produced only with a high-grain ration.
4. Hogs can be produced with little labor.
5. Crops can be produced only with large machinery.
6. Every production problem has one basic characteristic of an economic problem: a limited amount of resources available.
7. Goal attainment may be limited by the level of the manager's expertise.
8. The manager's job is complex because of a number of alternative uses.

Ex. 4.9. Answer the following questions.

1. What three types of production problems must a farm or ranch manager solve?
2. Can you illustrate the 1st type of problems – how much to produce – with any examples?
3. Can many agricultural products be produced in a number of ways? What are these ways?
4. Must the manager select the combination of crops and livestock to be produced?
5. What basic characteristics of an economic problem do these production problems have?
6. What is the importance of goals?
7. Why is goal attainment limited?
8. Can the limited resources be used in only one way?

Ex. 4.10. Put questions to these answers.

1. A manager is faced with the problems of how much fertilizer to use, labor and machinery use, and others. (What problems...?)
2. A manager must select the appropriate combination of inputs. (What...?)
3. Yes, these production problems are also economic problems. (Are...?)
4. Goal attainment is a limited process because most managers have a finite amount of resources available. (Why...?)

Ex. 4.11. Look through Text B and answer these questions.

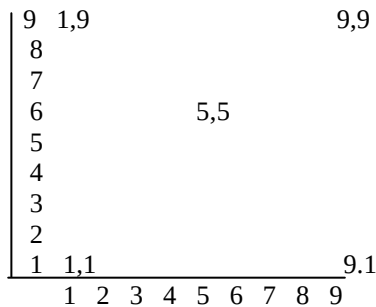
1. Who developed the Managerial Grid?
2. What does the grid represent?
3. How many management styles can be identified on the grid? What are they?
4. Can managers find a compromise between concern for production and concern for people?

TEXT B

Managerial grid¹

The Managerial Grid, which has been developed by Drs Blake and Morton, concentrates specifically on managerial behaviour. The grid is based on the traditional dichotomy of concern² for people and concern for production or results. The horizontal scale from 1 to 9 shows degrees of concern for results, while the vertical scale shows degrees of concern for people, also from 1 to 9.

Five basic styles of management can now be identified on the grid: 9,1 Management (Scientific Management); 1,9 Management (Country Club Management); 1,1 Management (Impoverished³); 9,9 Management (Team Management); 5,5 Management (Middle of the Road⁴).



Concern for results

These research findings have led to a change of thinking among many theorists who have suggested that managers can be both hard and soft, simultaneously task oriented and people concerned.

On the managerial grid, a 1,1 manager is a nothing – he is abdicate⁵; a 1,9 is a country club type, concerned only with people and morale⁶, not with performance; a 9,1 is a task-dominated slave driver and autocrat. The desired paragon⁷ is the 9,9 manager who is greatly concerned with both people and task.

The managerial grid is a promising concept, and training programs have been instituted to encourage managers to move toward the 7,7; 8,6 and 9,9 positions. Nonetheless, it is by no means established that most effective

managers are at 9,9 (this is extremely doubtful) or that it would be desirable for all managers to move in this direction.

Notes to the text:

1 – сетка управления, таблица стилей руководства

2 – забота

3 – слабый, неэффективный

4 – сбалансированный

5 – готовый сложить полномочия, уйти с должности

6 – моральное состояние, настроение

7 – образец совершенства, идеал

Ex. 4.12. Match the management styles with the impact they have on the organization and its employees.

1. <i>The Impoverished (1,1)</i>	A. Impact on employees: • Employees are not really discontent nor are they happy • Good harmony within the group Impact on organization: • Average performance
2. <i>The Scientific (9,1)</i>	B. Impact on employees: • Employees are Happy • Good team harmony Impact on organization: • Low productivity
3. <i>The Middle-of-the-Road (5,5)</i>	C. Impact on employees: • Employees are forming a highly cohesive team • Employees are satisfied • Employees are motivated and work as a team Impact on organization: • Low employee turnover • Attracts highly skilled employees • Efficient organization
4. <i>The Team (9,9)</i>	D. Impact on employees: • Employees have a high degree of dissatisfaction • No harmony within the group • High turnover Impact on organization: • Inefficient operation

5. The Country Club (1,9)	E. Impact on employees: • Employees experience a high level of dissatisfaction • High level of conflict within the group Impact on organization: • High employee turnover • Peak performance is short lived
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UNIT 5

Ex. 5.1. Learn the new words.

environment [ɪnˈvaɪ(ə)rənmənt] – среда, условия

limitation [ˌlɪmɪˈteɪʃ(ə)n] – ограничение

to consume [kənˈsjʊ:m] – потреблять

be aware [əˈweə] of – знать, отдавать себе отчет

stockholder [ˈstɒkˌhəʊldə] – акционер

board of directors [ˌbɔ:d əv daɪ(ə)ˈrektəz] – правление, совет директоров

to hire [ˈhaɪə] – нанимать

distinct [dɪˈstɪŋkt] – отчетливый; отдельный, особый

individual [ˌɪndɪˈvɪdʒuəl] – человек, лицо || отдельно взятый

to delay [diˈleɪ] – откладывать

competitive [kəmˈpetətɪv] – конкурентоспособный

therefore [ˈðeəfɔ:] – поэтому, следовательно

supply [səˈplaɪ] – предложение

demand [dɪˈmɑ:nd] – спрос

commodity [kəˈmɒdəti] – товар

beyond [biˈjɒnd] – вне

frequency [ˈfri:kwənsi] – частота повторения

timing [ˈtaɪmɪŋ] – выбор времени

severity [sɪˈverəti] – серьезность, тяжесть

degree [diˈɡri:] – степень

purchase [ˈpɜ:tʃəs] – покупка

costs [kɔ:sts] – затраты, расходы, издержки

fluctuating [ˈflʌktʃueɪtɪŋ] – колеблющийся, неустойчивый

interest rate [ˈɪntrəst ˌreɪt] – процентная ставка

cash flow [ˈkæʃ ˌfləʊ] – поток денежных средств

loan [ləʊn] – заем, ссуда

debt [det] – долг

asset [ˈæset] – имущество

value [ˈvælju:] – стоимость

insolvent [ɪnˈsɒlvənt] – несостоятельный, неплатежеспособный; банкрот

lag [læɡ] – отставание, запаздывание

sale [seɪl] – продажа

Ex. 5.2. Match the words listed below with the dictionary definitions which follow.

interest rate

sale

lag

environment

board of directors

commodity

timing

stockholder

asset

- 1) something that can be bought and sold;
- 2) money or property that a person or company owns;
- 3) the percentage that a bank charges or pays you when you borrow money from it or keep money in an account;
- 4) the place in which people live and work, including all the physical conditions that affect them;
- 5) the most important people in a company, who make decisions about the way that the company is managed;
- 6) the act or state of slowing down or falling behind;
- 7) the owner of one or more shares in a company;
- 8) the exchange of goods, property, or services for an agreed sum of money;
- 9) the selecting of the best time or speed for doing something in order to achieve the desired or maximum result.

Ex. 5.3. Match the synonyms from lines I and II.

I) frequency, severity, loan, costs, beyond, to delay, therefore, to hire.

II) outside, to employ, so, regularity, credit, expenses, badness, to put off.

Ex. 5.4. Match the antonyms from lines I and II.

I) supply, distinct, to consume, to be aware of, individual, competitive, fluctuating, insolvent.

II) stable, person, to be unaware of, demand, indistinct, solvent, to produce, uncompetitive.

Ex. 5.5. Choose the correct word for each sentence.

1. To what (*demand/degree*) will he cooperate?
2. At three for a dollar they seemed like a good (*purchase/debt*).
3. (*Commodities/costs*) include agricultural products, fuels, and metals.
4. Getting the money in advance will improve our (*cash book/cash flow*) significantly.
5. The dollar dropped in (*lag/value*) on the foreign exchange markets last week.
6. We plan to impose (*environments/limitations*) on the use of cars in the city.

Ex. 5.6. Read the text to fully understand the problem of making decisions on a farm or ranch.

TEXT A

The Decision-Making Environment

The manager of any business faces the problem of making decisions, but the manager of a farm or ranch makes decisions in a somewhat unique environment. One factor is the limitation placed on a manager's decisions by the biological and physical laws of nature. Managers soon find there are some things that cannot be changed by their decisions. Nothing can be done to shorten the gestation¹ period in livestock production, there is a limit on how much feed a pig can consume in a day, and crops require some minimum time to reach maturity². The manager must be aware of the limits placed on decision making by these biological and physical factors.

In a large corporation the stockholders own it, and the board of directors sets policies and goals and hires managers to achieve them. It is generally easy to identify three distinct groups: owners, management, and labor. These distinct groups do not exist on the typical farm or ranch where one individual or a small family group owns the business and provides the management as well as most or all of the labor. This makes it difficult to separate the management activity from labor because the same individuals are involved. It also sets up the possibility that a constant need for labor "to get a job done" places management in a secondary role with decisions constantly delayed or ignored.

Production agriculture is often used as an example of a perfectly competitive industry. This means that each individual farm or ranch is only one of many and represents a very small part of the total industry. Therefore, the individual manager cannot affect either the prices paid for resources or the prices received for products sold. Prices are determined by national and international supply and demand factors over which an individual manager has very little control except possibly through some type of collective action.

The discussion so far illustrates some of the risks involved in producing agricultural commodities. These and other risks come from a number of sources and can be classified in a number of ways. A general classification of the sources of risk might be:

- production risk;
- market risk;
- financial risk.

Production risk is the variability in crop yields, weaning weights³, rate of gain⁴, and so forth due to weather, diseases, insects, and other factors beyond the direct control of the manager. These factors are often unpredictable as to their frequency, timing, and severity.

Market risk comes from the unpredictable and variable nature of prices. This is primarily the prices farmers receive for their commodities but, to a somewhat lesser degree, includes prices paid for production inputs. The latter tend to be less variable and generally known at the time the purchase decision is made, but changes over time affect costs and therefore profit.

Financial risk includes fluctuating interest rates, availability of new loans, and variable cash flows caused by production and market risk. The result is uncertainty about the ability to obtain new loans and to repay debt on time. It would also include changes in asset values due to changes in the price of land and other asset prices. This affects borrowing ability, and large decreases in asset values can make a business insolvent.

Decision making is not impossible in the presence of risk, only more difficult. Risk management becomes another task for the farm manager. The variability of the factors discussed makes it difficult to determine what price and yield values should be used when analyzing alternatives. Given⁵ the time lag between making a decision and having the commodity ready for sale, there may have been a large change in prices and other factors. This is only one of the reasons why a manager should not expect every decision to be perfect. However, it also illustrates why risk is a factor to consider in nearly every decision a manager makes.

Notes to the text:

1 – беременность

2 – зрелость

3 – масса при отъеме

4 – интенсивность прироста массы

5 – учитывая

Ex. 5.7. Answer the following questions.

1. Are the decisions which the manager of a farm makes limited by the biological and physical laws of nature? How can you prove it?
2. What is the difference between a farm and a large corporation as concerns management?
3. Why are managerial decisions constantly delayed or even ignored on a farm?
4. Why cannot the individual manager affect the prices?
5. What is a general classification of the sources of risk?
6. Is decision making possible in the presence of risk?

Ex. 5.8. Translate the Russian words into English to characterize the decision-making environment. Consult Text A on p. 30 if necessary.

1. A manager's decisions are limited by the biological and (физически-ми законами природы).
2. The board of directors (нанимает) managers to achieve goals.
3. This (делает трудным) to separate the management activity from labor.
4. There are many risks involved in producing (сельскохозяйственные товары).
5. The individual manager can not affect (либо) the prices paid for resources, (либо) the prices received for products sold.
6. Prices are determined by national and international (факторами предложения и спроса).
7. (Погода, болезни, насекомые) and other factors beyond the direct control of the manager are often (непредсказуемы).
8. Market risk is connected with the unpredictable and (непостоянным характером цен).
9. The prices paid for production inputs are generally known at the time the (решение о покупке) is made.
10. (Принятие решений) is not impossible in the presence of risk, (только более трудно).

Ex. 5.9. Put in prepositions where necessary.

1. The manager ... a farm makes decisions ... a somewhat unique environment.
2. The manager must be aware ... the limits placed ... decision making ... the laws ... nature.
3. It is easy to identify three distinct groups: owners, management, and labor ... a large corporation.
4. Prices are determined ... national and international supply and demand factors.
5. Financial risk includes ... fluctuating interest rates.
6. Risk management becomes another task ... the farm manager.

Ex. 5.10. Fill in the chart below. Refer to Text A if needed.

Production risk	Market risk	Financial risk

Ex. 5.11. Scan Text B quickly and answer these questions.

1. How many classifications of managerial decisions are mentioned in this text?
2. What criteria is each classification based on?
3. What type does the decision to diversify the firm's business operation belong to?
4. Do you think dealing with a habitual late comer will be programmed or not? Why?
5. What is the difference between proactive and reactive decisions?
6. How do you categorize the decision to improve the quality of products on the basis of a customer survey?
7. What are the disadvantages of intuitive decisions?
8. What is the systematic decision-making based on?
9. What type of decisions within each classification do you think a farm manager is most often faced with?
10. What approach, in your opinion, should a manager adopt to be successful?

TEXT B

A. Programmed versus nonprogrammed Decisions.

Represents two categories of decisions common within any organization. Programmed decisions are associated with recurring¹, structured or well defined problems. Examples of such decisions are rules and procedures. Nonprogrammed decisions are associated with an ill-structure or non-recurring problems requiring special focus to the situation. An example is the decision to diversify the firm's business operation.

B. Proactive versus Reactive Decisions

Decisions can be classified as to the response approach of the decision maker. A proactive decision is made in anticipation² of change or other conditions. A reactive decision is made in response to changes that have occurred.

C. Intuitive versus Systematic Decisions

Intuitive decisions involve the use of guesses or estimates or hunches in selecting among the alternatives. These decisions can be influenced by personal beliefs and feeling while ignoring facts. This may lead to premature or unnecessary decisions. Systematic decision making reflects the use of an organized, data driven approach. This approach focuses on the identification of objectives, gathering and analyzing the facts gathered by all those involved in the decision process.

Notes to the text:

1 – частый, повторяющийся

2 – предвидение; ожидание

Part II. MANAGEMENT PRACTICES ACROSS COUNTRIES

UNIT 6

Ex. 6.1. Learn the new words.

lifetime ['laɪftaɪm] – продолжительность жизни

consensus [kən'sensəs] – консенсус, выработанное общими усилиями мнение

lifelong ['laɪflɒŋ] – пожизненный, продолжающийся всю жизнь

seniority [ˌsiːni'ɒrəti] – старшинство

enterprise ['entəpraɪz] – предприятие

payroll ['peɪrəʊl] – платежная ведомость

to supersede [ˌsuːpə'siːd] – заменять, вытеснять

executive [ɪg'zekjʊtɪv] – должностное лицо, руководитель, администратор

supervisor ['suːpəvaɪzə] – начальник; контролер

proposal [prə'pəʊz(ə)l] – предложение

personnel [ˌpɜːsə'nel] – персонал, кадры

to accept [ək'sept] – принимать

to reject [rɪ'dʒekt] – отвергать

suggestion [sə'dʒestʃən] – предложение

to encourage [ɪn'kʌrɪdʒ] – поощрять

subordinate (n) [sə'bɔːdɪnət] – подчиненный

to retain [rɪ'teɪn] – сохранять, удерживать

to submit [səb'mɪt] – представить на рассмотрение

to approve [ə'pruːv] – одобрять

implementation [ˌɪmplɪmen'teɪʃ(ə)n] – выполнение, реализация

time-consuming ['taɪmkən'sjuːmɪŋ] – отнимающий много времени

swift ['swɪft] – скорый, быстрый

effort ['efət] – усилие

communication [kə,mjuːnɪ'keɪʃ(ə)n] – общение

loyalty ['lɔɪəlti] – верность, преданность; лояльность

hierarchy ['haɪərə'kiː] – иерархия

collaboration [kə,læbə'reɪʃ(ə)n] – сотрудничество

recognition [ˌrekəg'nɪʃ(ə)n] – признание

mutual ['mjuːtʃuəl] – взаимный

dependence [dɪ'pendəns] – зависимость

Ex. 6.2. Match the words listed below with the dictionary definitions which follow.

mutual
communication
hierarchy

personnel
effort
recognition

loyalty
payroll
to submit

- 1) the people who work for a company or organization;
- 2) a list of all the people that a company employs and the money that each of them earns;
- 3) to formally give something to someone so that they can make a decision about it;
- 4) concerning each of two or more persons or things;
- 5) coming to understand something clearly and distinctly;
- 6) the organization of people at different ranks in an administrative body;
- 7) the use of physical or mental energy; hard work;
- 8) the activity of conveying information;
- 9) faithful attachment to a sovereign, government, organization, leader, etc.

Ex. 6.3. Match the synonyms from lines I and II.

I) consensus, suggestion, collaboration, to supersede, life-long, to retain, supervisor, implementation, enterprise.

II) boss, realization, to replace, permanent, company, proposal, to keep, agreement, cooperation.

Ex. 6.4. Match the antonyms from lines I and II.

I) executive, to accept, to encourage, to approve, time-consuming, dependence, superiority, loyalty.

II) indifference, swift, inferiority, independence, to discourage, subordinate, to reject, to disapprove.

Ex. 6.5. Which of these words cannot go with the one at the end of the line? (Consult Text A or use a dictionary in case of difficulties).

- 1) lifetime, fluctuating, permanent, lifelong, insolvent | **employment**;
- 2) decision-making, time-consuming, soft, planning, scarce | **process**;
- 3) to accept, to reject, to hire, to submit, to consume | **a proposal**;
- 4) senior, climatic, qualified, skilled, trained, technical | **personnel**;
- 5) available, managerial, corporate, administrative, organizational | **hierarchy**;
- 6) successful, effective, international, electronic, active | **collaboration**.

Ex. 6.6. Read the text attentively to understand the features of Japanese management.

TEXT A

Japanese Management

Japan, one of the leading industrial nations in the world, has adopted managerial practices that are quite different from those of economically advanced countries in the Western world. The discussion below deals with two common Japanese practices: lifetime employment and consensus decision making.

Lifetime Employment

Important features of Japanese management practice are lifelong employment for permanent employees, great concern for the individual employee, and emphasis on seniority. Typically, employees spend their working life with a single enterprise, which in turn provides employees with security and a feeling of belonging. This practice brings the culturally induced concept of *wa* (harmony) to the enterprise, resulting in employee loyalty and close identification with the aims of the company.

However, it also adds to business costs, because employees are kept on the payroll even though there may be insufficient work. Consequently, firms are beginning to question¹ the practice of lifelong employment. Indeed, changes appear to be in the making², but they are slow – very slow. What is often overlooked, however, is that this permanent employment practice is used primarily by large firms. In fact, it is estimated that the job security system applies to only about one-third of the labor force.

Closely related to lifelong employment is the seniority system, which has provided privileges for older employees who have been with the enterprise a long time. But there are indications that the seniority system may be superseded by a more open approach that provides opportunities for advancement for young people. For example, the relatively new Sony Corporation has team leaders (a point is made of³ not calling them supervisors) who are often young women of 18 or 19. There is little age difference between them and the operators they lead.

Decision Making in Japan

The managerial practice of decision making in Japan is also considerably different from that in the United States. It is built on the concept that change and new ideas come primarily from below. Thus, lower-level employees prepare proposals for higher-level personnel. Supervisors, rather than simply accepting or rejecting the proposals, tactfully question them, make suggestions, and encourage subordinates. If necessary, proposals are sent back to the initiator for more information. Still, in major decisions top management retains its power.

Japanese management, then, uses decision making by consensus to deal with everyday problems; lower-level employees initiate an idea and submit it to the next higher level, until it reaches the desk of the top executive. If the proposal is approved, it is returned to the initiator for implementation. Although the decision-making process is time-consuming, the implementation of the decision – because of the general consensus at various levels of management – is swift and does not require additional "selling".

An important characteristic of Japanese decision making is the large amount of effort that goes into defining the question or problem; there is a great deal of communication *before* a decision is actually made. American managers are often accused of⁴ making decisions before defining the problem. In contrast, Japanese management makes a decision only after long discussions of the issue.

In summary, Japanese managerial practice still emphasizes (although changes are occurring) lifetime employment, concern for the individual, seniority, and a sense of loyalty to the firm. Furthermore, in decision making there is open communication among people at different levels of the organizational hierarchy, a great deal of collaboration, and a recognition of mutual dependence.

Notes to the text:

1 – ставить под сомнение

2 – в процессе становления, развития

3 – настаивают на том, чтобы

4 – обвиняют

Ex. 6.7. Match the beginning of each sentence with its logical ending.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. Japan is one of the leading ... | a) for higher-level personnel. |
| 2. Important features of Japanese management practice are ... | b) the implementation of the decision is swift. |
| 3. Firms are beginning to question the practice of ... | c) are often young women of 18 or 19. |
| 4. The seniority system has provided privileges for older employees who ... | d) have been with the enterprise a long time. |
| 5. The Sony Corporation has team leaders who ... | e) lifelong employment. |
| 6. In Japan, lower-level employees prepare proposals ... | f) lifelong employment for permanent employees, great concern for the individual employee, and emphasis on seniority. |
| 7. Although the decision-making process is time-consuming, ... | g) industrial nations in the world. |

Ex. 6.8. Answer the following questions.

1. Are Japanese managerial practices different from those of economically advanced countries in the Western world?
2. What are important features of Japanese management practice?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the practice of lifelong employment?
4. What can you say about the seniority system? What do you think about it?
5. What concept is the managerial practice of decision making built on in Japan?
6. What do supervisors do?
7. Is the decision-making process time-consuming? What about the implementation of the decision?
8. What is the difference between American and Japanese decision-making?

Ex. 6.9. Correct the following statements.

1. The practice of lifetime employment doesn't bring anything to the enterprise.
2. The permanent employment practice is used by all enterprises.
3. The seniority system hasn't provided privileges for older employees.
4. There are no opportunities for advancement for young people in Japan.
5. Higher-level personnel prepare proposals for lower-level employees.
6. Proposals are never sent back to the initiator.
7. In decision making in Japan, there is little communication among people at different levels of the organizational hierarchy.
8. The style of Japanese management is changing swiftly.

Ex. 6.10 Make questions to which the following sentences are answers.

1. Typically, employees spend their working life with a single enterprise. (Where ...?)
2. The job security system applies to only about one-third of the labor force. (How much ...?)
3. The relatively new Sony Corporation has team leaders who are often young women of 18 or 19. (How old ...?)
4. Decision making in Japan is built on the concept that change and new ideas come primarily from below. (What ...?)
5. If the proposal is approved, it is returned to the initiator for implementation. (When ...?)
6. Yes, American managers are often accused of making decisions before defining the problem. (Disjunctive question).

Ex. 6.11. As you can guess from the title of Text B, managing in different countries is influenced by different factors. Look through the text and distribute these jumbled characteristics between the countries in which they are emphasized.

Country	Factors	
1. Australia	_____	individualism achievement
	_____	independence competitiveness
2. Italy	_____	low tolerance for risks
	_____	political values logic security
3. Austria	_____	risk taking resourcefulness
	_____	group decision making
4. Britain	_____	adaptability social values
	_____	risk taking

TEXT B

Selected Factors Influencing Managing in Other Countries

Managing in *Australia* is influenced by that country's moralistic stance¹ and its emphasis on political and social values, achievement, and risk taking.

Italian managers are operating in an environment of low tolerance for risks. Italians are very competitive, but at the same time they like group decision making.

Management in *Austria* (and *Germany*) is characterized by self-realization and leadership. Independence and competitiveness are valued. The tolerance for risk taking is rather low.

In *Britain*, security is important, and so are resourcefulness, adaptability, and logic. Similarly, individualism is also highly valued.

Notes to the text:

1 – морализаторская позиция

Ex. 6.12. Which model of management (Australian, Italian, Austrian/German or British) do you like best? Why?

UNIT 7

Ex. 7.1. Learn the new words.

- to highlight ['haɪlaɪt] – подчеркивать; придавать большое значение
intercompany transferee [ˌɪntəˈkʌmpəni ˌtrænsfɜːrɪː] – сотрудник, переведенный из одной компании в другую
to triple ['trɪpl] – утраивать(ся)
outspoken [ˌaʊtˈspəʊk(ə)n] – искренний, откровенный, прямой
interaction [ˌɪntərˈæktʃ(ə)n] – взаимодействие, общение
especially [ɪˈspeʃ(ə)li] – особенно
superior [suˈpiəriə] – начальник
impersonal [ɪmˈpɜːs(ə)nəl] – безличный
instruction [ɪnˈstrʌktʃən] – обучение
buddy system [ˈbʌdi ˌsɪstəm] – работа новичка в паре с опытным специалистом
newcomer [ˈnjuː ˌkʌmə] – новоприбывший, новичок
background [ˈbækgraʊnd] – истоки, происхождение
tax advice [ˈtæks ədˌvaɪs] – консультация по налогам
assignment [əˈsainmənt] – назначение
CEO [ˌsiː iː ˈəʊ] – *сокр. от* Chief Executive Officer – главный исполнительный директор
majority [məˈdʒɒrəti] – большинство
at the expense [ɪkˈspens] of – ценой чего-либо
job rotation [ˈdʒɒb rəʊˌteɪʃ(ə)n] – ротация рабочих мест, поочередное пребывание в должности
in-company training [ɪnˈkʌmpəni ˌtreɪnɪŋ] – обучение, повышение квалификации по месту работы
delegation of authority [ˌdelɪˈgeɪʃ(ə)n əv ɔːˈθɒrəti] – передача полномочий
latent [ˈleɪt(ə)nt] – скрытый, потенциальный
trust [trʌst] – вера, доверие
vision [ˈvɪʒ(ə)n] – концепция, представление
to inspire [ɪnˈspaɪə] – побуждать; вдохновлять
to commit [kəˈmɪt] oneself to – быть преданным
to take command [kəˈmɑːnd] – принять управление
to fail [feɪl] – потерпеть неудачу; не иметь успеха
to command respect [rɪˈspekt] – внушать уважение
to invite [ɪnˈvaɪt] – приветствовать
view [vjuː] – точка зрения, мнение
dissenting [dɪˈsentɪŋ] – несхожий; несогласный

Ex. 7.2. Match the words listed below with the dictionary definitions which follow.

buddy system

delegation of authority

CEO

job rotation

intercompany transferee

assignment

in-company training

to take command

background

- 1) giving powers to the subordinates to achieve effective results;
- 2) to assume control or responsibility;
- 3) the top executive responsible for a firm's overall operations and performance;
- 4) a person who is removed from one company to another;
- 5) a position of responsibility, post of duty to which one is appointed;
- 6) a method in which an experienced person instructs and guides a trainee;
- 7) a person's social class, education, training, or experience;
- 8) a management approach where employees are moved between two or more jobs at regular intervals of time in order to expose them to all verticals of an organization;

9) training provided by an external organisation which specialises in running training courses for the employees of a particular company only, and which is usually specially adapted to the company's needs.

Ex. 7.3. Match the synonyms from lines I and II.

I) view, dissenting, to invite, latent, to highlight, interaction, vision, inspire.

II) to emphasise, to motivate, opinion, to welcome, potential, concept, communication, disagreeing.

Ex. 7.4. Match the antonyms from lines I and II.

I) trust, superior, to fail, to commit oneself to, newcomer, to command respect, impersonal, outspoken.

II) to provoke disrespect, reserved, personal, distrust, to be disloyal, inferior, professional, to succeed.

Ex. 7.5. Choose the correct word for each sentence.

1. The personnel of the Committee for Regional Property Management more than (*doubled/tripled*), from 9 to 27.5 persons.

2. There is nothing (*especially/specially*) radical about that idea.

3. The after-school program offers reading (*instruction/direction*) to students who need it.

4. If you are on a low income, you may be able to get free (*tax advice/tax audit*).

5. The (*major/majority*) of workers find it quite hard to live on the amount of money they earn.

6. Military strength is often achieved (*at the expense of/the expenses for*) a country's economic health.

Ex. 7.6. Read the text attentively to understand the difficulties that foreign managers working in the USA face.

TEXT A

Preparing Foreign Managers for Work in the United States

With the increasing investment of foreign firms in the United States, more attention must be given to the integration of managers and workers from other countries into American society. This need is highlighted by the fact that the number of intercompany transferees more than tripled from the late 1970s to the mid-1980s. The Japanese, for example, often find it difficult to be outspoken and direct in their interactions with their colleagues and especially with their superiors. People from Arabian countries usually find American teaching methods too impersonal.

Various approaches have been used to reduce culture shock. These include special programs about corporate life in the United States, as well as instruction in English, books, and movies; even tax advice is given to the newcomers. Some companies have found the buddy system useful for making the foreigner feel comfortable in the new environment. In this approach an American looks after the needs of the newcomer. Other firms use role playing to demonstrate alternative types of managerial behavior. Because of their cultural background, Japanese managers usually find it rather difficult to conduct an American-style performance review that focuses on results.

In the past, training and development focused on preparing U.S. managers and workers for overseas assignments. Increasingly, firms are realizing that they need to help foreigners reduce the culture shock they may experience¹ upon coming to America.

Notes to the text:

1 – испытывать, чувствовать

Ex. 7.7. Find in the text the English equivalents of the following words and phrases.

1) увеличение инвестиций; 2) интеграция в американское общество; 3) необходимость подчеркивается; 4) сотрудники, переведенные из одной компании в другую; 5) общение с коллегами; 6) различные подходы; 7) снизить культурный шок; 8) работа новичка в паре с опытным специалистом; 9) в новой среде; 10) управленческое поведение; 11) оценка результатов деятельности; 12) назначение за границу.

Ex. 7.8. Do you think the following statements are true or false?

1. More attention must be given nowadays to the integration of managers from other countries into American society.
2. The Japanese don't find it difficult to be outspoken with their colleagues.
3. Various approaches have been used to reduce culture shock.
4. Nobody uses role playing to demonstrate alternative types of managerial behavior.
5. In the past, training and development focused on preparing U.S. managers and workers for overseas assignments.
6. The American people have a high standard of living.

Ex. 7.9. Answer the following questions.

1. Why must more attention be given to the integration of managers and workers from other countries into American society?
2. How do people from Arabian countries feel in the USA?
3. What approaches have been used to reduce culture shock?
4. Why do Japanese managers find it difficult to conduct an American-style performance review?
5. What are American firms realizing now?
6. Do you think measures aimed at helping foreigners reduce the culture shock in the USA are adequate? Could you offer any other ideas?

Ex. 7.10. Many transferees and their families say employers in the United States provide little assistance to help them integrate into the American community and business environment. If left on their own, foreign professionals frequently go through three stages of adaptation. Read the description of these stages given below and put them in a logical order (1–2–3).

___ They make the necessary adjustments to their communication style, work style, and business practices to build relationships with their American colleagues.

___ They encounter the barriers and differences that create discomfort and frustration for them and their families.

___ They begin to look for the people and resources that can help them overcome the cultural barriers.

Ex. 7.11. The USA is the third largest country in the world in population, and it is the fourth largest country in area. How well do you know the USA?

Quiz on the USA

1. Whose name was given to America?
2. How many states are there in the USA?

3. What is the capital of the USA?
4. What is the largest city in the USA?
5. What oceans is the USA washed by?
6. What is the largest river in the USA?
7. Who was the first president of the USA?
8. Who is the President of the USA now?
9. What are the major political parties in the USA?
10. What country presented the US with the Statue of liberty? On what occasion?
11. What city is Hollywood located in?
12. What American astronaut first stepped on the surface of the Moon?

Ex. 7.12. Scan Text B quickly and answer these questions.

1. What is the respondents' opinion about the quality of leadership in the USA?
2. What leadership characteristics were identified by *Fortune*? Do you agree with the seven statements about the characteristics? Should other factors be taken into account?
3. Do you think that leadership can be taught?
4. How do the leadership characteristics relate to the managerial functions?

TEXT B

Who are the effective leaders?

The majority of CEO respondents from *Fortune* felt that there is no leadership crisis in the United States. On the other hand, those holding another view pointed to the ineffectiveness of managers in competing in the global market; the excessive¹ focus on short-term results, often at the expense of long-term company health; and the lack of investment in plants.

About two-thirds of the respondents thought that leadership can be taught, especially through job rotation, in-company training, and delegation of authority. But there was also the realization that latent leadership qualities have to be the foundation for leadership.

Although not on the basis of the survey, *Fortune* identified the following factors for successful business leadership:

Trust in subordinates is the foundation for delegating authority. A manager gets things done through people.

Leaders must provide a vision for the enterprise and inspire others to commit themselves to this vision.

Leaders must take command in times of crisis. Even those who subscribe to participative management realize that at critical times they have to take charge.

Taking risk is a part of business – not careless risks, but calculated ones. Probably those who have never failed (who played it safe) may not have managed well.

Leaders need to be very competent in their fields and command the respect of employees.

A top executive surrounded by "yes-sayers" will get an incorrect view of what is really going on within and outside the organization. Thus, executives should invite dissenting views.

Effective leaders see and understand the big picture. They simplify complex situations and problems so that they can be understood.

Notes to the text:

1 – излишний, чрезмерный

UNIT 8

Ex. 8.1. Learn the new words.

cadre ['kɑ:də] – кадры

aim [eɪm] – цель

to revise [rɪ'vaɪz] – проверять, пересматривать

to attempt [ə'tempt] – пытаться, стараться

to obtain [əb'teɪn] – получать; добиваться

foreign payments ['fɒrən 'reɪmənts] – международные платежи

to constrain [kən'streɪn] – сдерживать, ограничивать

to aid [eɪd] – помогать

weakness ['wi:knəs] – слабость, недостаток

information processing [ˌɪnfə'meɪʃ(ə)n ˌprəʊsesɪŋ] – обработка информации

consumer electronics [kənˌsju:mə ˌelek'trɒnɪks] – бытовая электроника

impact ['ɪmpækt] – влияние

elite [i'li:t] – элита

essential [ɪ'senʃ(ə)l] – существенный, очень важный

vital ['vaɪt(ə)l] – очень важный

to value ['vælju:] – ценить

independence [ˌɪndɪ'pendəns] – самостоятельность, независимость

proficiency [prə'fɪʃ(ə)nsi] – профессиональный уровень, квалификация

to exhibit [ɪg'zɪbɪt] – проявлять

post [pəʊst] – должность
 alternately [ɔ:l'tɜ:nətli] – попеременно
 drawback ['drɔ:bæk] – недостаток, отрицательная сторона
 European Union [ˌjʊərə'pi:ən 'ju:niən] – Европейский союз
 to restructure [ˌri:'strʌktʃə] – реорганизовывать, реструктурировать
 outlook ['aʊtlʊk] – перспектива
 headquarters [ˌhed'kwɔ:təz] – штаб-квартира
 generalist ['dʒen(ə)rəlist] – специалист широкого профиля

Ex. 8.2. Match the words listed below with the dictionary definitions which follow.

consumer electronics	elite	to restructure
European Union	headquarters	to value
information processing	foreign payments	generalist

- 1) to organize (a system, business, society, etc.) in a different way;
- 2) interpreting incoming data to make a response suitable within the context of an objective, problem, or situation;
- 3) a person whose knowledge and skills are applied to a variety of different fields;
- 4) to consider someone or something to be important;
- 5) a politico-economic union of 28 member states that are located primarily in Europe;
- 6) devices designed to be purchased and used by consumers for daily purposes, such as televisions, digital cameras, calculators, clocks, audio devices, smartphones and other home products;
- 7) a payment received from /sent to a foreign bank in a foreign currency;
- 8) the place where a company or organization has its main offices;
- 9) the most powerful, rich, gifted, or educated members of a group, community, etc.

Ex. 8.3. Match the synonyms from lines I and II.

- I) essential, outlook, post, aim, to attempt, to obtain, weakness, cadre.
 II) personnel, defect, to get, vital, perspective, goal, position, to try.

Ex. 8.4. Match the antonyms from lines I and II.

- I) generalist, independence, to value, drawback, to aid, proficiency, to exhibit, alternately.
 II) to ignore, constantly, to mask, specialist, to constrain, advantage, dependence, incompetence.

Ex. 8.5. Translate the words paying attention to their suffixes and prefixes.

1) to expand, expanded, expanding, expansion; 2) general (adj), generally, to generalize, generalization, generalist; 3) proficient, proficiently, proficiency; 4) process (n), to process, processing (n), processed; 5) to constrain, constrained, constraining, constraint; 6) value (n), to value, valuable, valuation.

Ex. 8.6. Read the text attentively to understand the features of the French managerial model.

TEXT A

France: “*Le Plan*” and the “*Cadre*”

In France, government planning on a national scale helps coordinate the plans of individual industries and companies (managerial function of planning). The government's aim is to utilize most effectively the country's resources and to avoid expansion in uneconomic areas. Although government planning – which is also extended to regional areas – is carried out by relatively few, but competent, people, cooperation and assistance are provided by other government departments, employers' organizations, unions, and consumers.

The plan, which is generally revised every 5 years, attempts to obtain economic growth, price stability, a balance in foreign payments, and a favorable employment situation. Managers, then, are not only constrained by “*Le Plan*” but also aided by it, since it produces a great deal of information upon which they can draw for¹ their own enterprises.

At times, the plan becomes a global strategy helping specific industries. For example, the French government attempts to integrate the electronics industry into a whole so that it can overcome its weaknesses in information processing, consumer electronics, microelectronics, and automation. To implement the strategy, the government plans to support several national projects, such as speech synthesis, mini- and microcomputers, and large mainframe computers². Clearly, there is a close relationship between government planning and firms, especially those that are owned and directly aided by the government.

It has been noted that the impact of elite universities on forming the French managerial mind is great. These schools supply the “*cadre*”, the managerial elite. Moreover, the schools' connections are vital for managerial success. What is valued in these managers is analytical ability, independ-

ence, and proficiency in synthesizing facts. While written communication is considered very important, oral communication is de-emphasized. These managers exhibit intellectual ability rather than action. Rationality, problem solving, and numerical analysis are important for obtaining high managerial posts in government as well as business. Indeed, it is not unusual for managers to work for both alternately.

The French managerial model also has drawbacks. It may limit managers to dealing with nonquantifiable³ and "nonrational" data and to responding quickly to changes in the environment, and it may not result in the selection of the best managers because school ties are more important than performance. Although the managerial characteristics may also be limiting in terms of obtaining a global outlook, French managers, in general, are quite supportive of the European Union programs. They see them as an opportunity to restructure the economy.

Notes to the text:

1 – воспользоваться в интересах

2 – универсальная ЭВМ

3 – не поддающийся количественному определению

Ex. 8.7. Find in the text the English equivalents of the following words and phrases.

1) Избегать расширения нерентабельных отраслей; 2) добиться экономического роста; 3) объединить в одно целое; 4) преодолеть недостатки; 5) осуществить стратегию; 6) влияние элитных университетов; 7) поставляют управленческую элиту; 8) устное общение недооценивается; 9) университетские связи важнее качества выполнения работы; 10) вполне положительно относятся к программам ЕС; 11) возможность реструктуризации экономики.

Ex. 8.8. Answer the following questions.

1. What is the French government's aim in planning?
2. How is government planning carried out?
3. What does the plan attempt to obtain?
4. How does the plan aid managers?
5. Does the plan help specific industries? Give an example from the text.
6. What establishments supply the "cadre", the managerial elite?
7. What characteristics are important for obtaining high managerial posts in government as well as business?
8. What drawbacks does the French managerial model have?
9. Why are French managers supportive of the European Union programs?

Ex. 8.9. Are these statements true or false? Begin your answers with ‘Yes, that’s right’ or ‘I’m afraid, that’s wrong’ and correct the false statements.

1. There is no planning on a national scale in France.
2. Government planning is also extended to regional areas.
3. The plan is revised every 3 years.
4. Sometimes, the plan becomes a global strategy helping specific industries.
5. There is no direct relationship between government planning and firms.
6. The elite universities’ connections are vital for managerial success
7. Written communication is considered inessential in management.
8. Managers rarely work for both government and business.
9. The French managerial model always results in the selection of the best managers.
10. The French managerial characteristics may be limiting in terms of obtaining a global outlook.

Ex. 8.10. Put these points in the order in which they are mentioned in the text.

1. New opportunities for the French economy.
2. The role of elite universities in the French economy.
3. The relationship between government planning and firms.
4. The drawbacks of the French managerial model.
5. The scale of government planning in France.
6. The objectives of the plan.
7. The aim of the French government.

Ex. 8.11. Look through text B quickly and say which on the following things are mentioned in it:

- | | |
|----------------------|---|
| a) the Eurodemands; | d) the European headquarters of multinationals; |
| b) the Eurozone; | e) the European Council; |
| c) the Euromanagers; | f) the European Single Market. |

Ex. 8.12. Read the text and answer the questions.

1. What did a research study of eleven European firms find?
2. Where should the European managers gain their experience?
3. Where will non-Europeans have to be recruited and trained?
4. What companies follow these recommendations?

TEXT B

The new European Manager

A research study of eleven European firms by an international consulting group found that many managers do not meet the Eurodemands of the future, although respondents in the study recognized the need for international managerial experience. Not only do the Euromanagers need to gain experience abroad, but firms also need to realize that non-Europeans will have to be recruited and trained in the European headquarters of multinational corporations. The following examples illustrate the exception¹ rather than the rule² under which companies operate. The Deutsche Bank (German Bank) has a development program for foreigners who spend at least 1 year at the Frankfurt headquarters. Bosch, a manufacturer of a variety of products ranging from refrigerators to auto accessories, invites foreigners, Spaniards in particular, to Germany for training. Bosch also requires its German trainees to spend at least 6 months abroad. While these international opportunities are attractive for young managers, there is concern, especially among older managers, that being away from headquarters may inhibit career advancement.

According to the Korn/Ferry consulting group, the following characteristics are *very important* for ideal Euromanagers:

- having a university or college education;
- having work experience abroad;
- understanding economics;
- being a generalist;
- being proficient in English and French as foreign languages.

The research study found that German, French, and Italian managers had little work experience abroad. German and Italian managers lacked general manager experience, while German and British managers had insufficient skill in communicating in the French language. In team-orientation and global thinking, the Germans and Italians ranked low. In respect to the question pertaining to "willingness to contribute above average", English and French managers ranked low, while in decision making, Italian managers got a low rating. Although these are generalizations, they indicate that many European managers are not sufficiently prepared for the competitive environment of the European Single Market.

Notes to the text:

1 – исключение

2 – правило

Ex. 8.13. Tick (✓) the characteristics typical of managers from different countries revealed by the research study.

Characteristics	Nationality			
	<i>German</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>Italian</i>	<i>British</i>
lack of work experience abroad				
lack of general manager experience				
imperfect mastery of the French language				
low team-orientation				
lack of global thinking				
low willingness to contribute above average				
inefficiency in decision making				

UNIT 9

Ex. 9.1. Learn the new words.

state-run company – государственная компания

to acquire [ə'kwaɪə] – приобретать, покупать

giant ['dʒaɪənt] – гигант

relocation – перемещение; перестановка

threaten ['θret(ə)n] – угрожать

to achieve [ə'ʃi:v] – достигать, добиваться

commitment [kə'mɪtmənt] – ответственное отношение

rural ['ruərəl] – сельский

defensive position – оборонительная позиция

homogeneous [ˌhɒmə'dʒiːniəs] – однотипный

to introduce [ˌɪntrə'dju:s] – внедрять

business environment [ˌbɪznəs'ɪrənmənt] – бизнес-среда; условия ведения бизнеса

complicated – сложный

in terms of – с точки зрения; в плане

to get in touch with – вступить в контакт с (кем-л.); связаться с (кем-л.)

casually ['kæʒʊəlɪ] – неформально

to waste [weɪst] – терять даром, тратить впустую

to schedule ['ʃedju:l] – назначать, планировать

personality [ˌpɜ:s(ə)nælɪti] – личность

personal dignity – личное достоинство
rigorous ['rɪɡərəs] – жесткий, строгий
demanding – трудный, ответственный
volatile ['vɒlətaɪl] – непостоянный, изменчивый
to equate ['tɪkweɪt] – приравнивать

Ex. 9.2. Match the words listed below with the dictionary definitions which follow.

to acquire	to schedule	to waste
to threaten	personality	to achieve
dignity	relocation	to introduce

- 1) to arrange or plan an event to take place at a particular time;
- 2) to reach a desired objective or result;
- 3) the action of moving to a new place and establishing one's home or business there;
- 4) to consume, spend, or employ uselessly or without adequate return;
- 5) to bring (something, especially a product, measure, or concept) into use or operation for the first time;
- 6) calm, serious, and controlled behaviour that makes people respect you;
- 7) to get or buy something;
- 8) the combination of qualities that form an individual's distinctive character;
- 9) to say that you will cause trouble, hurt somebody.

Ex. 9.3. Match the synonyms from lines I and II.

I) commitment, to get in touch with, rigorous, to equate, complicated, business environment, defensive, in terms of.

II) with regard to, protective, responsibility, to contact, to parallel, macroeconomic situation, difficult, strict.

Ex. 9.4. Match the antonyms from lines I and II.

I) state-run, casually, giant, homogeneous, subordinate, volatile, demanding, rural.

II) private, formally, pygmy, heterogeneous, boss, stable, easy, metropolitan.

Ex. 9.5. Translate the words paying attention to their suffixes and prefixes.

1) corporate, corporation, corporative, corporatism, corporatist, to corporatize; 2) threat, to threaten, threatened, threatening; 3) to achieve, achievement, achievable, achiever; 4) to acquire, acquired, acquiring, ac-

quiree, acquirer, acquirement; 5) to defend, defender, defence, defensible, defensive, defensiveness; 6) person, personal, personally, personality.

Ex. 9.6. Read the text attentively to understand the features of Brazilian management.

TEXT A

Brazilian Management

Since the fall of the military regime in 1985, Brazil has gone through great changes in the corporate sector. Many of the state-run companies were acquired by multinational giants and many of these companies brought their own presidents, directors and managers with them.

This process of relocation can be stressful for both parts: to Europeans, that now have to deal with a lack of planning and a strong influence of personal relations on the business environment; and to Brazilians, that feel threatened by the new set of rules and by the high level of commitment they are now expected to achieve.

The socioeconomic situation of Brazil can hardly be described in a single definition, we can talk about at least two “Brazils”: the first one is modern, urban, upper-class and strongly influenced by western culture; the other one is rural, traditional, lower-class and non-westernised¹.

Traditionally, when a Brazilian company was acquired by a foreign group, there was this feeling of distrust and concern among Brazilian employees. Workers were afraid of the new rules and changes to be applied by the new company, while the employees who were working directly with management adopted a defensive position, thinking that Europeans were coming to show the Brazilians how to do business.

This scenario has changed a little as administrative models tend to globalization. Companies are becoming more homogeneous and the same principles are being introduced all over the world

Even so, there is the side of the Brazilian culture and history that causes a great impact on business models. This side is the expansion of social practices and values to a business environment and it is where things get really complicated between Brazilians and foreigners.

The first major difference in terms of management policies is the relationship between boss and employee. When a typical Brazilian president walks around the factory of a typical Brazilian company, it is almost as if the employees had to face down² and adopt a servile position³. The presi-

dent is always very well dressed and it is very hard for a worker to get in touch with them, as there is a lot of bureaucracy to go through.

On the other hand, a European president would dress more casually and would probably gather around workers more often. Also, many presidents of foreign companies in Brazil invest in a closer relationship with workers, trying to be available to a direct contact with the employees.

Relationships come first, second and third in Brazil. Time spent working on the development of long-term friendly relations is never wasted.

Although first meetings can be more formal, they are generally quite informal and relaxed. Punctuality is a rare commodity in Brazil. Meetings often start and finish late. It can be difficult to schedule more than one or two meetings per day.

A manager's personal style is considered to be of great significance. The respect, which is afforded the manager by subordinates, is directly proportionate to the personality of the boss. Relationships are of key importance in this Latin culture and the boss and subordinates work hard to foster a relationship based on trust and respect for personal dignity.

First and foremost, managers are expected to manage. The boss is expected to give direct instructions and it is expected that these instructions will be carried out without too much discussion or debate (if there is debate it should be done in private to avoid showing public disrespect to the hierarchy).

Somewhat surprisingly, the fun-loving Brazilians work long hours. Rigorous project management, attention to detail, focus on objectives, and hard work are important elements in the success of outstanding companies like EMBRAER, the world leader in regional aircraft, VALE, possibly the most efficient mining company in the world, and AMBEV, global leader in the beer industry. All this achieved in a volatile economic environment, with poor transport infrastructure and an inefficient and slow moving government bureaucracy.

This difficult context makes Brazil into a demanding testing ground⁴ for managers and for management techniques. A couple of years in the country equates into five years of management experience in a stable economy, as new challenges, changes in economy, opportunities and legal frameworks evolve at breakneck speed⁵.

Notes to the text:

1 – не подверженная влиянию запада

2 – пасть ниц

3 – раболепное положение

4 – испытательная площадка

5 – головокружительная скорость

Ex. 9.7. Find in the text the English equivalents of the following words and phrases.

1) падение военного режима; 2) государственные компании были приобретены транснациональными гигантами; 3) процесс перемещения может быть стрессовым для обеих сторон; 4) чувствуют угрозу из-за нового набора правил и высокого уровня ответственности; 5) занимали оборонительную позицию; 6) компании становятся более однотипными; 7) оказывает большое влияние на бизнес-модели; 8) распространение социальных практик и ценностей на бизнес-среду; 9) Первое существенное отличие с точки зрения политики управления; 10) доступный для прямого контакта с сотрудниками; 11) уважение, которое оказывают руководителю подчиненные; 12) все это достигается в нестабильных экономических условиях.

Ex. 9.8. Answer the following questions.

1. What happened to many Brazilian companies after the fall of the military regime in this country?

2. Why can the process of relocation be stressful for both Europeans and Brazilians?

3. How has globalization changed the traditional scenario?

4. What side of the Brazilian culture and history causes a great impact on business models?

5. What comes first, second and third in Brazil?

6. Why can it be difficult to schedule more than one or two meetings per day?

7. Why is a manager's personal style considered to be of great significance?

8. What is the boss expected to give?

9. Why is it surprising that Brazilians work long hours?

10. What makes Brazil into a demanding testing ground for managers?

Ex. 9.9. Do you think the following statements are true or false?

1. The military regime in Brazil fell in 1995.

2. There are at least three "Brazils".

3. The Brazilians thought that the Europeans were going to show them how to do business.

4. It is very hard for a Brazilian worker to get in touch with the president of the company.

5. A European president wouldn't gather around workers more often than a Brazilian one would.

6. Most meetings are informal and relaxed.

7. The boss and subordinates do their best to build a relationship based on trust and respect for personal dignity.

8. It is expected that the manager's instructions will be carried out without too much discussion.

9. Flexible project management is an important element in the success of outstanding Brazilian companies.

10. It is impossible to achieve success in a volatile economic environment.

Ex. 9.10. Match the characteristics of the Brazilian business culture with their short descriptions.

Characteristics	Short Description
1) Inequality of power and hierarchy	A) - Acceptance of racial and social mixtures. - Easy assimilation of foreign practices and customs, admiration and imitation of what is foreign.
2) Personalism	B) - Capacity for people to be adaptive and creative in adjusting to adverse situations and innovative under challenging circumstances. - Stimulated by economic and market history.
3) Formalism	C) - Historical desire for avoiding social and interpersonal conflicts. - Brazilians constantly seek peace and order in order to avoid conflict in their relationships.
4) Uncertainty avoidance	D) - Hierarchical relationships of colonial Brazil - People in superior positions believe that they possess special rights that exempt them from common laws.
5) Flexibility	E) Emphasizes relationships and acquaintances. - High degree of trust placed on family and friend networks when solving problems or obtaining privileges.
6) Receptiveness to what is foreign	F) - Large number of rules, norms and procedures created. - A high degree of discrepancy between formal rules and norms and what really happens.

Ex. 9.11. Scan Text B quickly and answer these questions.

1. What way to describe culture is mentioned in the text?
2. Is there any difference between the culture of a nation and that of an organization?
3. What is the impact of the external environment on the people within an organization?
4. May the culture differ widely within a country?
5. What kind of perspective do today's managers need to develop?
6. What company aspects do cultural differences affect?

TEXT B

Culture and Managerial Behaviour

Culture is not easy to define. One way to describe culture is as a pattern of behaviour related to values and beliefs that were developed over a period of time. Symbols, for example, may indicate what members of a society or an organization value. Indeed, one may distinguish between the culture of a nation and that of an organization. The external environment influences the way people interact within an organization. It must also be recognized that within a country the culture may differ widely, not only in countries as large and diverse as the United States but also in geographically small and relatively homogeneous countries such as Germany. Northern Germans behave differently than the people in southern Germany. It is with this precaution that culture and its impact on organizations must be viewed.

Today's managers need to develop a global perspective; a narrow-minded view is inappropriate. In the past, many U.S. corporations (except the multinational ones) saw little reason to develop a global view. But now hardly any company can ignore the global environment, even if the firm has no plans to operate abroad. Increasingly, foreign firms are entering the U.S. market. Moreover, many U.S. firms employ people from different nations with different cultures.

Cultural differences affect managerial behaviour and practices such as planning (for example, short- versus long-term orientation), organizing (for example, the kind of organizational structure or the attitude toward delegation), staffing (for example, selection based on family relationships rather than professional qualifications), leading (for example, the use of the participative, rather than directive, leadership style), and controlling (for example, the use of tight and close control versus broad control).

UNIT 10

Ex. 10.1. Learn the new words.

respectful [rɪ'spektf(ə)l] – почтительный; вежливый
efficient [ɪ'fɪʃ(ə)nt] – эффективный
to blend – смешивать, сочетать
consensus-driven – на основе консенсуса
deference ['defərəns] – уважение, почтение
hub [hʌb] – центр
to appreciate [ə'pri:ʃieɪt] – понимать, принимать во внимание
chain of command – порядок соподчиненности в организации
expectation [ˌekspek'teɪʃ(ə)n] – ожидание
facial expression ['feɪʃ(ə)l ɪk'spreʃ(ə)n] – выражение лица
patient ['peɪʃ(ə)nt] – терпеливый
to bear in mind – иметь в виду
paternalistic attitude – патерналистское отношение
life issue ['ɪsju:] – жизненный вопрос
fear of exposure [ɪk'spəʊʒə] – страх разоблачения
embarrassment [ɪm'bærəsmənt] – смущение, затруднение
failure ['feɪljə] – неудача, провал
aversion [ə'vɜ:ʃ(ə)n] – отвращение
track record – послужной список
to canvass ['kænvəs] – подробно обсуждать
negotiations [nɪˌɡəʊʃɪ'eɪʃ(ə)nz] – переговоры
title ['taɪtl] – название должности
crucial ['kru:ʃ(ə)l] – решающий
pace [peɪs] – скорость, темп
non-confrontational – не склонный к конфронтации
overtly [ə(u)'vɜ:tlɪ] – открыто, откровенно
to signify ['sɪgnɪfaɪ] – означать

Ex. 10.2. Match the words listed below with the dictionary definitions which follow.

respectful	embarrassment	hub
efficient	aversion	deference
patient	negotiations	pace

- 1) a feeling of self-consciousness, shame, or awkwardness;
- 2) discussion aimed at reaching an agreement;
- 3) a polite and submissive attitude towards someone, especially because they have an important position;

- 4) showing consideration, politeness, and regard for the feelings, rights, or traditions of others;
- 5) a very important centre for an activity
- 6) able to accept or tolerate delays, problems, or suffering without becoming annoyed or anxious;
- 7) the speed at which something happens or is done;
- 8) achieving maximum productivity with minimum wasted effort or expense;
- 9) a strong dislike or disinclination.

Ex. 10.3. Match the synonyms from lines I and II.

I) overtly, to signify, to blend, to appreciate, track record, to canvass, title, crucial.

II) to combine, decisive, openly, history, position, to mean, to bear in mind, to discuss.

Ex. 10.4. Match the antonyms from lines I and II.

I) consensus-driven, paternalistic attitude, failure, group, verbal, concern, exposure, collaboration.

II) competition, individual, indifference, secrecy, success, laissez-faire attitude, non-verbal, conflict-driven.

Ex. 10.5. Translate the words paying attention to their suffixes and prefixes.

1) efficient, efficiently, efficiency; 2) to observe, observable, observance, observant, observation; 3) appreciable, to appreciate, appreciated, appreciation; 4) to expect, expected, expectable, expectancy, expectant, expectantly, expectation; 5) distinct, distinctive, distinctively, distinctiveness, distinctly, distinctness; 6) to negotiate, negotiated, negotiating, negotiable, negotiations, negotiator.

Ex. 10.6. Read the text attentively to understand the features of Singaporean management.

TEXT A

Management Style in Singapore

Management in Singapore is characterized by a hierarchical, respectful, and highly efficient culture that blends traditional Asian values with Western business practices. Key aspects include a focus on consensus-driven decision-making, deference to authority, and high standards of productivity. The city-state is a global hub for business education and management training.

Management in Singapore

Managers new to the country need to appreciate that Singaporean business culture is formal and rules govern much of what can and cannot be done.

- The group (company or department) is viewed as more important than the individual.
- People observe a strict chain of command, which comes with expectations on both sides.
- In order to keep others from losing face, communication tends to be non-verbal.
- It would be best if you closely watched the facial expressions and body language of the people you work with.
- Relationships take time to develop; you must be patient, as this indicates that you are working towards the long-term.

The Role of a Manager in Singaporean Business Culture

Managers need to bear in mind that each person has a very distinct role within the organization, and maintaining that role helps to keep order.

- In Singapore, as in other hierarchical societies, managers may take a somewhat paternalistic attitude toward their employees.
- They may demonstrate a concern for employees that goes beyond the workplace and strictly professional concerns.
- This may include involvement in their family, housing, health, and other practical life issues.

Approach to Change in Singaporean Organizations

Singapore is seen to have a medium tolerance for change and risk.

- The fear of exposure and the potential embarrassment that may accompany failure bring about an aversion to risk.
- Because of this attitude, cultural sensitivity is going to be required, especially when conducting group meetings and discussing contributions made by participating individuals.
- It is important for innovations to have a track record or history, noting the benefits if they are to be accepted and implemented.

Decision Making in Singaporean Teams

Singapore is a hierarchical culture, so the boss is considered to be superior to their subordinates. Subordinates do not ask their boss questions, as it would indicate that the boss had not done a good job of explaining what was necessary. Subordinates will canvass other workers and come to a group consensus on what should be done and how it should be accomplished.

- The respect a Singaporean shows their boss might seem strange to many foreign cultures.
- Bosses are treated with nearly the same respect as one shows their parents.
- Since asking questions is not part of the culture, managers spend a great deal of time writing instructions that guarantee everyone will understand what's required of them.

Communication and Negotiation Styles in Singapore Business Culture

The communication style in Singapore is typically polite, measured, and respectful of hierarchy, with professionals often balancing clear business communication with a preference for maintaining harmony and avoiding unnecessary confrontation.

- Always send a list of people who will be attending the negotiations and their titles well in advance.
- Personal relationships are crucial to conducting business and, as such, Singaporeans need to like you to do business with you.
- Always wait to be told where to sit as there is a strict hierarchy that must be followed.
- Business negotiations happen at a slow pace, and patience may be a necessary attribute.
- Singaporeans are non-confrontational.
- They tend to lean towards an indirect communication style. As part of this, they will not overtly say “no”; likewise, their “yes” does not always signify agreement.

For international managers, understanding how authority, relationships, and communication operate within Singaporean organizations can support stronger leadership and smoother collaboration.

Ex. 10.7. Find in the text the English equivalents of the following words and phrases.

- 1) иерархическая, уважительная и высокоэффективная культура;
- 2) принятие решений на основе консенсуса;
- 3) уважение к авторитетам;
- 4) глобальный центр бизнес-образования;
- 5) строгая субординация;
- 6) ожидания с обеих сторон;
- 7) выражение лица;
- 8) менеджерам необходимо иметь в виду;
- 9) практические жизненные проблемы;
- 10) боязнь разоблачения;
- 11) вероятное смущение;
- 12) учет культурных особенностей;
- 13) предпочтение поддержания гармонии;
- 14) они не скажут открыто “нет”.

Ex. 10.8. Answer the following questions.

1. What is management in Singapore characterized by?
2. What kind of hub is the city-state?
3. What do rules govern in Singaporean business culture?
4. Why does communication tend to be non-verbal?
5. Why do you need to be patient?
6. What kind of attitude may managers take toward their employees?

Why?

7. Why are Singaporeans not willing to risk?
8. Why do subordinates not ask their boss questions?
9. What communication style predominates in Singapore?
10. What is crucial to conducting business?

Ex. 10.9. Do you think the following statements are true or false?

Correct the false ones.

1. The individual is viewed as more important than the group (company or department).
2. People don't observe a strict chain of command.
3. Each person has a very distinct role within the organization.
4. Singaporean managers may demonstrate a concern for employees that goes beyond the workplace.
5. It is unnecessary for innovations to have a track record.
6. The boss is considered to be superior to their subordinates.
7. Bosses are treated with nearly the same respect as one shows their children.
8. Never wait to be told where to sit.
9. Singaporeans are non-confrontational.
10. They prefer a direct communication style.

Ex. 10.10. Join the halves of the sentences.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Key aspects include a focus on | A) to appreciate that Singaporean business culture is formal. |
| 2. Subordinates will canvass other workers | B) you closely watched the facial expressions and body language. |
| 3. Managers new to the country need | C) a respectful pause of up to 15 seconds before answering a question. |
| 4. Managers spend a great deal of time | D) and come to a group consensus. |
| 5. Singaporeans give | E) consensus-driven decision-making. |

- | | |
|--|---|
| 6. Always send a list of people who will be attending the negotiations | F) can support stronger leadership. |
| 7. This may include involvement | G) and patience may be a necessary attribute. |
| 8. It would be best if | H) well in advance. |
| 9. Business negotiations happen at a slow pace, | I) in their family, housing, health, and other practical life issues. |
| 10. For international managers, understanding how authority, relationships, and communication operate within Singaporean organizations | J) writing instructions. |

Ex. 10.11. What can you recommend international managers going to Singapore?

Ex. 10.12. Read the text quickly and answer the question “What does going global mean?”

TEXT B

Amoco Corporation

“We are playing on a larger stage now, a global stage, and I have no doubt that we will become a preeminent global player through our own efforts”, writes H. Laurence Fuller, chairman and CEO of Amoco Corporation, in a special report published by the company. The title of the report (and one of the major goals of Amoco Corporation) is “Globalization and Diversity in the Work Force”.

Going global means managing diversity in the work force. Amoco has operations worldwide, including new offices in China, Russia, Argentina, Myanmar (Burma), and Mexico. (One of every six Amoco employees is not U.S. citizen.) Its Mexico location is mostly staffed by host-country nationals, including Ricardo Chaparro, manager of business planning for Amoco Oil Company in Mexico City; Linda Lafuente, administrative assistant; and Jesus Perez, driver and courier.

Knowledge of the host-country’s culture is imperative. Jing Hsu, a native of Taiwan, is Amoco Chemical Company’s chief representative in Beijing. Amoco depends on his understanding of Chinese culture to foster business there. One important value is personal relationships. “A very important part of business in China is establishing personal relationships. In a

very real sense, a lot of business here happens at a personal level. The Chinese want to know you before getting into a long-term deal”, explains Jing Hsu.

Amoco has found a similar focus on other Asian and Eurasian countries. “Russia is very different from anything I have experienced before”, says Anders Morland, an Amoco executive in Moscow. “You need to be sensitive to their concerns while firmly putting forth your position on issues. That is respected here and it’s essential to building good relationships... . This summer we’ve taken a group of Russians to visit our Egyptian operations so they can experience firsthand how Amoco works with a partner outside the United States. We also brought Inuit representatives from northern Canada to visit with the indigenous populations in Khanty Mansiysk and on the Yamal Peninsula”.

Though Amoco strives to build good relationships with the host countries in which it operates, the organization maintains a neutral stance when it comes to politics, a necessary policy in volatile countries such as Argentina and Myanmar. But the company recognizes special needs of its workers that may result from political or economic instability. In Myanmar, the organization provides some of its workers with housing, food, clothing, and medical care.

It is clear that as organizations increase their level of global participation, their key to success is establishing and maintaining good relationships with people, both in the workplace and in the marketplace. In addition to its efforts in specific locations, Amoco has established an overall Diversity Advisory Council, whose mission is to create an environment in which all Amoco employees can reach their full potential. And if employees reach their full potential, so should the Amoco organization as a whole.

Ex. 10.13. Answer the questions.

1. What extra steps might parent-country nationals have to take to be as successful at building business as the host-country nationals that Amoco hires?
2. How might the Diversity Advisory Council help in this regard?
3. Do you think a multinational or global organization should remain politically neutral in its host countries? Why or why not?
4. Do you think this stance helps or hinders an organization’s competitive edge?

SUPPLEMENTARY TEXTS

History Of Management

To say that all competent managers plan, organize, lead, and control (or coach others in doing so) does not explain why some organizations perform better than others. It seems logical to say that some organizations are better managed than others, but what constitutes good management? Throughout the past century, students of management have sought to answer this and similar questions. At various times, different schools of thought have dominated: scientific management, administrative management, human relations, management science, open systems, and competitive advantage.

As a practical matter, these schools of thought have influenced how managers work. Thus, beginning in the early years of the Industrial Revolution, it seemed reasonable to think of the ideal organization as a well-oiled machine to be “scientifically” manipulated until it performed at peak capacity. Later views have encouraged managers to place more emphasis on the human needs of employees and, eventually, to see them as key resources. Although we speak of these schools of thought in historical terms, bear in mind that all continue to exert influence today. At one organization or another, managers are behaving in ways consistent with each of these theories.

Furthermore, as new ways of thinking about management become popular, their influence on day-to-day practices is typically gradual. Changing over to a new management approach requires experimentation, setbacks, and creativity as managers seek to put theory into action. At a recent roundtable meeting of 100 representatives of the *Inc. 500* (fastest-growing U.S. businesses), about half reported that they shared data concerning their financial performance with employees, a practice designed to empower employees to contribute to building a competitive advantage. Of those people, however, only one said she believed the employees actually understood the information. In essence, many of the companies were trying this new approach to management, but not many had figured out how to do it effectively.

The Scientific Management School

The Industrial Revolution changed the nature of work in many ways. Businesses typically had been small and family-owned, so managers and employees knew one another, and the owner could take a personal interest in the employees. The factory system meant that companies began operating big plants that required complicated decisions such as how to tool the plants and organize the work. At the same time managers were addressing these challenges, they also found that workers in these impersonal organizations were dissatisfied and prone to strike. Furthermore, workers did not neces-

sarily have a clear sense of the best way to do their jobs. As a result, companies were not benefiting from increased efficiency as they had expected.

An engineer, Frederick Winslow Taylor, theorized that the disappointing performance had as much to do with management practices as it did with workers. According to Taylor, the way to improve performance was for managers to systematically study the way work was being done and identify a more efficient approach.

Taylor's approach, called the **scientific management** school, involved developing a standard method for doing each job, training workers in that method, eliminating interruptions, and offering wage incentives for increased output. Taylor also advocated assigning workers to jobs based on their abilities and recognized the necessity for work breaks.

Organizations that applied scientific management succeeded in improving **productivity** – the ratio of outputs (goods and services produced) to inputs (the resources used to produce the outputs). The idea that work procedures can be evaluated objectively is one that endures today. However, this approach, with its repetitive jobs, tight controls, and strict hierarchy, did little to alleviate the conflict between management and workers. In fact, many employees felt dehumanized by the efforts to improve their efficiency, believing that they were treated as machines to be reconfigured and speeded up.

The Administrative Management School

While the engineers who played a leading role in the scientific management school focused on improving the productivity of individual workers, other people were looking at the organization as a whole. They discussed such principles as creating an efficient structure for the organization and standardizing policies and procedures by putting them in writing. In effect, they were spelling out a general role for the manager that involves making an organization a place where each person knows what is expected and can apply his or her specialized skills and knowledge.

Henri Fayol, a French mining engineer and manager, relied on his experience to devise a number of broad principles of management. Fayol concluded that management involves the functions of planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling.

Popular among many businesspeople of the time was the work of Mary Parker Follett, which applied social psychology to management. Follett advocated reducing conflict in organizations by focusing employees and managers on shared goals.

Chester I. Barnard also identified enduring principles of managing organizations. He developed the concept of the “informal organization”, the cliques and social groups that form within an organization. He observed that these relationships are important to the organizations functioning and that

they can be managed in ways that ultimately help the organization. Barnard also observed that employees have free will; they can choose whether to follow orders. Managers therefore must make sure employees see a benefit in following orders.

The Human Relations School

In spite of these insights from social psychology, the scientific management school remained prominent until a series of studies, designed to show the benefits of electric lighting, generated some surprising results. Seeking a link between light levels and productivity, a committee set up by the electric companies conducted tests in which they adjusted light levels and other job characteristics and measured performance. The studies are commonly called the “Hawthorne studies”, named after a test location, the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company. Those who saw the results of the Hawthorne studies were surprised and puzzled to find that productivity was higher in the experimental group under virtually all conditions.

The Hawthorne studies involved changing so many factors and failed to control so many others that scholars cannot conclusively prove which ones were significantly linked to performance. However, the major outcome of the Hawthorne studies was that researchers concluded the employees were most influenced by human factors. The researchers had discussed the experiments with the employees, abandoning changes the employees objected to. It seemed that employees were working harder in response to the attention and positive treatment they received.

For decades since, managers have been impressed with the idea that they can influence productivity through good human relations. The view that satisfied employees will work harder is the basis of the **human relations school**. Leaders in the human relations school, such as Abraham Maslow, sought to identify just what conditions would have the greatest impact.

Douglas McGregor concluded that early thinking in the human relations school did not go far enough in its understanding of employees. Based on his experience as a manager, consultant, and psychologist, McGregor identified two broad ways managers can think about employees; he named those views Theory X and Theory Y. McGregor associated Theory X with scientific management and recommended Theory Y as a mode of thinking that takes full advantage of human relations ideas. According to Theory Y, employees will contribute more to the organization when they have a chance to apply their energy and creativity to achieving goals they are committed to. Although Theory Y has never been scientifically tested, it continues to inspire such management practices as making jobs more interesting and involving workers in decision making.

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y Assumptions about Employees

Theory X	Theory Y
Employees dislike work and will avoid it if they can.	Employees do not inherently dislike work; working is as natural as resting and playing.
Because employees dislike work, they must be coerced to make an effort to achieve organizational objectives.	Coercion is not the only way to achieve organizational objectives; employees will exercise self-control to achieve objectives they are committed to.
Employees have relatively little ambition; they prefer to be directed and to avoid responsibility. Employees primarily want security.	Many employees are able to use creativity to solve problems. Most employees have the opportunity to use only part of their intellectual abilities on the job but desire to use more.

Today, when managers consider the work environment as well as money in motivating employees, they are influenced by the human relations school. Is this a valid approach? Most studies of employee satisfaction and performance have found only a weak link between the two. However, noting that most of these studies looked primarily at *individual* performance, researcher Cheri Ostroff studied 298 schools and found a significant relationship between employee satisfaction and performance at the organizational level. Although evidence of the link between satisfaction and performance is inconclusive, efforts to apply the human relations approach are driven by a belief that satisfied employees are an important indicator of organizational effectiveness and that satisfaction will help reduce labor and health care costs related to stress, absenteeism, and turnover.

The Quantitative Management Science School

For the U.S. military, entering World War II brought the management challenge of moving massive amounts of personnel, supplies, and equipment around the world. Groups of mathematicians, physicists, and other scientists applied statistics and other quantitative techniques to solve these logistical problems creatively and effectively. Big businesses were eager to apply those successes to their own operations. The result was the **manage-**

ment science school – the school of management that involved applying the scientific method, using statistics and other quantitative techniques to solve management problems.

The techniques of management science include operations research and operations management. *Operations research* consists of building mathematical models that can be used to solve management problems. If management scientists can devise a model that shows how various factors contribute to the cost of producing a product, they should be able to show how varying the quantity of one factor (say, the amount of one ingredient) will affect the cost and thus determine the lowest-cost method for producing the product. *Operations management* is the management of the physical production of goods or services, and applies quantitative techniques such as forecasting and inventory modeling to solve manufacturing problems.

The development of computer technology has been an important force behind the use of management science. Most management science problems are practical to solve only with a computer. Logically, an outgrowth of management science is the development of *management information systems*, or computer systems designed to provide managers with timely and useful information for decision making.

By the mid-1960s, many companies were successfully applying management science to make a variety of decisions, such as scheduling production, selecting plant locations, and developing packaging for their products. Computers and information systems are increasingly being used for training, communication between employees, and as a substitute for human experts.

The Open Systems School

In the schools of thought described so far, the focus has been on the organization itself, as if it functions independently from the rest of the world. Of course, that is not the case. A step toward helping managers take a broader view is the **open systems school**, which describes organizations as systems that interact with their outside environment. Saying that an organization is a “system” means that it takes inputs from the environment and transforms them into outputs, which it offers to the environment. Feedback from the environment influences the future selection of inputs. The environment includes the outside social, political, and economic forces that affect the organization.

The open systems school is based on two assumptions. First, organizations are social systems. This means that changes in one part of the organization are reflected in other parts. If one part of the system fails (say, a top salesperson quits, a product is recalled, or workers go on strike), that failure will have immediate repercussions for other parts of the organization or system. The other parts adjust to accommodate the failure so that the system can continue functioning. The second assumption is that organizations are

influenced by the environment. They are formed to meet needs in the environment, and they can succeed if they actually meet those needs.

The Competitive Advantage School

From the preceding schools of thought, managers have learned that they can improve the organization's performance by looking objectively at ways to improve efficiency, by taking employees' needs into account, by using quantitative planning tools, and by considering the impact of the organization's environment. But while all these schools of thought address how to do better, none specifically looks at how to do *better than competitors*.

For today's manager, this is a serious shortcoming. Stiff competition from around the world means that only the organizations that excel can survive. Thus, modern management theory focuses on the search for **sustained competitive advantage**, or a strategy for value creation that competitors cannot match. In other words, when an organization has a sustained competitive advantage, other organizations cannot erase that advantage by copying it.

The competitive advantage school has been especially concerned with identifying sources of sustainable competitive advantage. Managers often assume that they can achieve such an advantage by bringing new products to market quickly and by using advanced technology. However, the advantages of such tactics are *not* sustainable; competitors can eventually copy the products or adopt the same technology and thereby gain equal footing.

The implications are quite practical. They show up in the way the market values companies – by their stock price. Business professor Jeffrey Pfeffer looked at stock prices between 1972 and 1992 and identified the top five performers. These companies (Plenum Publishing, Circuit City, Tyson Foods, Wal-Mart, and Southwest Airlines) were *not* the most technologically advanced, in the fastest-growing industries, or holders of impressive market share. Rather, their competitive advantage lies in the way they manage their work force. For example, Wal-Mart is noted for inspiring high levels of motivation in its employees, and Southwest Airlines for creating an enthusiastic culture where employees pitch in as needed, not just doing what their job descriptions call for.

In other words, the sources of competitive advantage that make a difference in the long run are the organization's people and, to a lesser extent, its systems. Managers who understand how organizations work and how to manage the people possess a rare blend of **business acumen** and **emotional intelligence**. They act as architects of organizational design and facilitators of human potential, rather than mere taskmasters.

VOCABULARY

A

accept [ək'sept] – принимать
accomplish [ə'kɒmplɪʃ] – достигать, выполнять
achieve [ə'ʃi:v] – достигать, добиваться
acquire [ə'kwaɪə] – приобретать, покупать
acquisition [ˌækwi'zɪʃ(ə)n] – приобретение
activities [æk'tɪvətɪz] – деятельность
adjustment [ə'dʒʌs(t)mənt] – корректировка, исправление
affect [ə'fekt] – влиять
aid [eɪd] – помогать
aim [eɪm] – цель
allocate [ˈæləkeɪt] – размещать, распределять
alternately [ɔ:l'tɜ:nətlɪ] – попеременно
amount [ə'maʊnt] – количество
apparent [ə'pærənt] – очевидный
appreciate [ə'pri:ʃieɪt] – понимать, принимать во внимание
approach [ə'prəʊtʃ] – подход
appropriate [ə'prəʊpriət] – подходящий, соответствующий
approve [ə'pru:v] – одобрять
assignment [ə'saɪnmənt] – назначение
at the expense [ɪk'spens] of – ценой чего-либо
attain [ə'teɪn] – достигать
attempt [ə'tempt] – пытаться, стараться
available [ə'veɪləb(ə)l] – имеющийся в распоряжении, наличный
aversion [ə'vɜ:ʃ(ə)n] – отвращение
avoid [ə'vɔɪd] – избегать

B

background [ˈbækgraʊnd] – истоки, происхождение
be faced [ˈfeɪst] with – сталкиваться
bear in mind – иметь в виду
borrowing [ˈbɒrəʊɪŋ] – одалживание, заимствование
broad [brɔ:d] – широкий
buddy system [ˈbʌdi ,sɪstəm] – работа новичка в паре с опытным специалистом
business [ˈbɪznəs] – предприятие, фирма
business environment [ɪn'vaɪərənmənt] – бизнес-среда; условия ведения бизнеса

С

cadre ['kɑ:də] – кадры
canvass ['kænvəs] – подробно обсуждать
casually ['kæʒuəli] – неформально
CEO [ˌsi: i: 'əʊ] – *сокр. от* Chief Executive Officer – главный исполнительный директор
chain of command – порядок соподчиненности в организации
circumstances ['sɜ:kəmstənsɪz] – обстоятельства
collaboration [kəˌlæbə'reɪʃ(ə)n] – сотрудничество
command respect [rɪ'spekt] – внушать уважение
commit [kə'mɪt] oneself to – быть преданным
commitment [kə'mɪtmənt] – ответственное отношение
communication [kəˌmjuːnɪ'keɪʃ(ə)n] – общение
competing [kəm'piːtɪŋ] – конкурирующий
complexity [kəm'pleksəti] – сложность
complicated – сложный
confine [kən'faɪn] – ограничивать
conflict (with) ['kɒnflɪkt wɪð] – противоречить чему-либо
consensus [kən'sensəs] – консенсус, выработанное общими усилиями мнение
consensus-driven – на основе консенсуса
consider [kən'sɪdə] – рассматривать; учитывать, принимать во внимание
constrain [kən'streɪn] – сдерживать, ограничивать
consumer electronics [kənˌʃjuːməˌelek'trɒnɪks] – бытовая электроника
continual [kən'tɪnjuəl] – постоянный, непрерывный
continuing [kən'tɪnjuːɪŋ] – постоянный, непрерывный
coordinating [kəʊˈɔːdɪneɪtɪŋ] – координация, согласование действий
corrective [kə'rektɪv] – корректирующий, исправительный
crop [krɒp] – (сельскохозяйственная) культура
crop production ['krɒp ˌprɒdʌkʃ(ə)n] – растениеводство
crucial ['kruːʃ(ə)l] – решающий

Д

blend – смешивать, сочетать
deadline ['dedlaɪn] – крайний срок
debt [det] – долг
defensive position – оборонительная позиция
deference ['defərəns] – уважение, почтение
delegation of authority [ˌdelɪ'geɪʃ(ə)n əv ɔː'θɒrəti] – передача полномочий
demanding – трудный, ответственный
dependence [dɪ'pendəns] – зависимость

determine [di'tɜːmɪn] – определять
directing [daɪ'rekʃn] – руководство, управление; указание, распоряжение
dissenting [dɪ'sentɪŋ] – несохожий; несогласный
drawback ['drɔːbæk] – недостаток, отрицательная сторона

Е

efficient [ɪ'fɪʃ(ə)nt] – эффективный
effort ['efət] – усилие
elite [i'li:t] – элита
embarrassment [ɪm'bærəsmənt] – смущение, затруднение
emphasis ['em fəsis] – особое внимание
employee [ˌemplɔɪ'i:] – служащий, работающий по найму
encourage [ɪn'kʌrɪdʒ] – поощрять
entire [ɪn'taɪə] – полный, целый, весь
equate [ɪ'kweɪt] – приравнивать
especially [ɪ'speʃ(ə)li] – особенно
essential [ɪ'senʃ(ə)l] – существенный, очень важный
establish goals [ɪ'stæblɪʃ 'gəʊlz] – устанавливать цели
European Union [ˌjʊərə'piːən 'juːniən] – Европейский союз
executive [ɪg'zekjʊtɪv] – должностное лицо, руководитель, администратор
exhibit [ɪg'zɪbɪt] – проявлять
exist [ɪg'zɪst] – существовать
expand [ɪk'spænd] – расширять(ся)
expectation [ˌekspek'teɪʃ(ə)n] – ожидание
expertise [ˌekspɜː'tiːz] – компетентность, знание дела

Ф

facial expression ['feɪʃ(ə)l ɪk'spreʃ(ə)n] – выражение лица
fail [feɪl] – потерпеть неудачу; не иметь успеха
failure ['feɪljə] – неудача, провал
farm operator ['fɑːm 'ɒrəreɪtə] – владелец фермы или ее управляющий
fear of exposure [ɪk'spəʊzə] – страх разоблачения
finite ['faɪnaɪt] – ограниченный, имеющий предел
focus ['fəʊkəs] – центр внимания; ключевая цель
force [fɔːs] – заставлять, вынуждать
foreclosure [ˌfɔː'kləʊzə] – лишение права выкупа заложенного имущества
foreign payments ['fɒrən 'peɪmənts] – международные платежи

Г

gauge [geɪdʒ] – мера; критерий, способ оценки
generalist ['dʒen(ə)rəlɪst] – специалист широкого профиля
get in touch with – вступить в контакт с (кем-л.); связаться с (кем-л.)

giant ['dʒaɪənt] – гигант
go broke [ˌgəʊ 'brəʊk] – разориться
goal [gəʊl] – цель
guide [gaɪd] – направлять, руководить

Н

headquarters [ˌhed 'kwɔ:tə] – штаб-квартира
hierarchy ['haɪərə:ki] – иерархия
highlight ['haɪlaɪt] – подчеркивать; придавать большое значение
homogeneous [ˌhɒmə'dʒi:nəs] – однотипный
hub [hʌb] – центр

И

impact ['ɪmpækt] – влияние
impersonal [ɪm 'pɜ:s(ə)nəl] – безличный
implementation [ˌɪmplɪmen'teɪʃ(ə)n] – выполнение, реализация
implementing [ˌɪmplɪ'mentɪŋ] – осуществление, выполнение
imply [ɪm 'plaɪ] – предполагать, подразумевать
in terms of – с точки зрения, в плане
income ['ɪnkʌm] – доход
in-company training [ɪn 'kʌmpəni 'treɪnɪŋ] – обучение, повышение квалификации по месту работы
increase profits [ɪn 'kri:s 'prɒfɪts] – увеличить прибыль, доход
independence [ˌɪndɪ'pendəns] – самостоятельность, независимость
indicate ['ɪndɪkeɪt] – показывать, указывать
individual [ˌɪndɪ'vɪdʒʊəl] – человек, отдельное лицо; физическое лицо
infinite ['ɪnfɪnət] – бесконечный, безграничный
information processing [ˌɪnfə'meɪʃ(ə)n 'prəʊsesɪŋ] – обработка информации
input ['ɪnpʊt] – вводимый ресурс, вводимый фактор производства
insight (into) ['ɪnsaɪt] – проникновение в суть
inspire [ɪn'spaɪə] – побуждать; вдохновлять
instruction [ɪn'strʌkʃən] – обучение
interaction [ˌɪntər'ækʃ(ə)n] – взаимодействие, общение
intercompany transferee [ˌɪntər 'kʌmpəni 'trænsfɜ:rɪ:] – сотрудник, переведенный из одной компании в другую
introduce [ˌɪntrə'dju:s] – внедрять
invite [ɪn'vaɪt] – приветствовать
involvement [ɪn'vɒlvmənt] – участие (в чем-либо)

Ж

job rotation ['dʒɒb rəʊ'teɪʃ(ə)n] – ротация рабочих мест, поочередное пребывание в должности

L

labor ['leɪbə] – труд
latent ['leɪt(ə)nt] – скрытый, потенциальный
leisure ['leɪzə] – досуг, свободное время
life issue ['ɪsju:] – жизненный вопрос
lifelong ['laɪflɒŋ] – пожизненный, продолжающийся всю жизнь
lifetime ['laɪftaɪm] – продолжительность жизни
livestock ['laɪvstɒk] – домашний скот
livestock production ['laɪvstɒk ,prədʌkʃ(ə)n] – животноводство
living expenses [ˌlɪvɪŋ ɪk'spænsɪz] – расходы на содержание семьи
location [lə(ʊ)'keɪʃ(ə)n] – местоположение, расположение
long-run ['lɒŋrʌn] – долгосрочный
loyalty ['lɔɪəlti] – верность, преданность; лояльность

M

majority [mə'dʒɔrəti] – большинство
make decisions [ˌmeɪk dɪ'sɪz(ə)nz] – принимать решения
manage ['mænɪdʒ] – руководить, управлять
management ['mænɪdʒmənt] – управление
manager ['mænɪdʒə] – управляющий, заведующий, директор
measurable ['meɪzərəb(ə)l] – измеримый
meet goals [ˌmi:t 'gəʊlz] – достигать целей
monitor ['mɒnɪtə] – контролировать, проверять
mutual ['mju:tʃuəl] – взаимный

N

necessarily [ˌnesə'serəli] – обязательно
negotiations [nɪˌɡəʊʃɪ'eɪʃ(ə)nz] – переговоры
net worth ['net ,wɜ:θ] – собственный капитал предприятия
newcomer ['nju:ˌkʌmə] – новоприбывший, новичок
non-confrontational – не склонный к конфронтации

O

objective [əb'dʒektɪv] – цель, задача
obtain [əb'teɪn] – получать; добиваться
obvious ['ɒbvɪəs] – очевидный
operation [ɒpə'reɪʃ(ə)n] – деятельность, работа
outcome ['aʊtkʌm] – результат, следствие
outlook ['aʊtlʊk] – перспектива
output ['aʊtpʊt] – выпуск продукции
outspoken [ˌaʊt'spəʊk(ə)n] – искренний, откровенный, прямой
overseeing [ˌəʊvə'si:ɪŋ] – надзор, наблюдение
overtly [ə(ʊ)'vɜ:tlɪ] – открыто, откровенно
owner ['əʊnə] – владелец, собственник

P

pace [peɪs] – скорость, темп
paternalistic attitude – патерналистское отношение
patient ['peɪʃ(ə)nt] – терпеливый
payroll ['peɪrəʊl] – платежная ведомость
personal dignity – личное достоинство
personality [ˌpɜːs(ə)'nælɪti] – личность
personnel [ˌpɜːsə'nel] – персонал, кадры
point – пункт, момент
post [pəʊst] – должность
problem-solving ['prɒbləm ˌsɒlvɪŋ] – решение проблем
proficiency [prə'fɪʃ(ə)nsi] – профессиональный уровень, квалификация
profitability [ˌprɒfɪtə'bɪləti] – прибыльность
proposal [prə'pəʊz(ə)l] – предложение
put into effect [ˌput ɪntu ə'fekt] – осуществлять, проводить в жизнь

R

ranch [rɑːntʃ] – ранчо, крупное фермерское хозяйство
rank first [ˌræŋk 'fɜːst] – занимать первое место
rate [reɪt] – норма, уровень
reach [riː tʃ] – достичь
recognition [ˌrekəg'nɪʃ(ə)n] – признание
record [rɪ'kɔːd] – записывать, регистрировать
refinement [rɪ'faɪnmənt] – усовершенствование
reject [rɪ'dʒekt] – отвергать
relocation – перемещение; перестановка
respectful [rɪ'spektf(ə)l] – почтительный; вежливый
responsibility [rɪ'spɒnsə'bɪləti] – обязанность
restructure [ˌriː'strʌktʃə] – реорганизовывать, реструктурировать
retain [ri'teɪn] – сохранять, удерживать
return on investment [rɪ ˈtʃɜːn ɒn ɪn'vestmənt] – доход от капиталовложения
revise [ri'vaɪz] – проверять, пересматривать
rigorous ['rɪɡərəs] – жесткий, строгий
rural ['ruərəl] – сельский

S

scarce ['skeəs] – недостаточный; дефицитный
schedule ['ʃedjuːl] – назначать, планировать
seniority [ˌsiːni'ɒrəti] – старшинство
separate ['sep(ə)rət] – отдельный
short-run ['ʃɔːtrʌn] – краткосрочный
signify ['sɪgnɪfaɪ] – означать

source [sɔ:s] – источник
 specific [spə'sɪfɪk] – определенный, точный, конкретный
 staffing ['stɑ:fɪŋ] – укомплектование штатов; набор кадров
 standard of living [ˌstændəd əv 'lɪvɪŋ] – уровень жизни
 state-run company – государственная компания
 steady ['stedɪ] – устойчивый, постоянный
 submit [səb'mɪt] – представить на рассмотрение
 subordinate (n) [sə'bɔ:dnət] – подчиненный
 suggestion [sə'dʒestʃən] – предложение
 suitable ['su:təb(ə)l] – подходящий, пригодный
 superior [su'pɪəriə] – начальник
 supersede [ˌsu:pə'si:d] – заменять, вытеснять
 supervising ['su:pəvaɪzɪŋ] – надзор, наблюдение
 supervisor ['su:pəvaɪzə] – начальник; контролер
 survival [sə'vaɪv(ə)l] – выживание
 swift ['swɪft] – скорый, быстрый

T

take command [kə'mɑ:nd] – принять управление
 tax advice ['tæks ədˌvaɪs] – консультация по налогам
 technique [tek'ni:k] – метод
 threaten ['θret(ə)n] – угрожать
 time-consuming ['taɪmkənˌsju:mɪŋ] – отнимающий много времени
 timetable ['taɪmˌteɪb(ə)l] – график, расписание
 title ['taɪtl] – название должности
 to the exclusion [ɪk'sklu:ʒ(ə)n] of – исключая
 track record – послужной список
 triple ['trɪpl] – утраивать(ся)
 trust [trʌst] – вера, доверие

U

urban ['ɜ:b(ə)n] – городской

V

value ['vælju:] – ценить
 variability [ˌveəriə'bɪlɪti] – изменчивость, неустойчивость
 view [vju:] – точка зрения, мнение
 vision ['vɪʒ(ə)n] – концепция, представление
 vital ['vaɪt(ə)l] – очень важный
 volatile ['vɒlətaɪl] – непостоянный, изменчивый

W

waste [weɪst] – терять даром, тратить впустую
 weakness ['wi:knəs] – слабость, недостаток

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СОДЕРЖАНИЕ

Введение	3
Part I. Farm Management.....	4
Unit 1	4
Unit 2	10
Unit 3	16
Unit 4	22
Unit 5	29
Part II. Management Practices Across Countries	35
Unit 6	35
Unit 7	41
Unit 8	46
Unit 9	52
Unit 10	59
Supplementary Texts	66
Vocabulary	72
Библиографический список	79