

英文影印版万国经济管理权威工具书系列

简明工商管理 大百科全书 (英文影印版)

THE CONCISE INTERNATIONAL
ENCYCLOPEDIA OF
BUSINESS & MANAGEMENT

马尔科姆·沃纳 主编
EDITED BY MALCOLM WARNER

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序 言

人类即将进入 21 世纪,随着信息技术的高速发展和全球经济一体化的进程,知识经济已初露端倪。管理知识,作为运用各种可利用资源实现组织目标的经验的结晶,在经济发展中起着越来越重要的作用。目前,管理学科和管理实务发展的重要特点是国际化与本地化同步进行,新理论与新规则层出不穷。面对快速变化的世界,从事工商管理的企业家、管理人员、研究管理的学者、关注经济活动的政府官员及公众都迫切需要方便、快捷地掌握管理的基本理论、一般规律和运行机制,对常用的术语有一个统一的理解,以达到交流的目的。《工商管理大百科全书》就是应时代发展的要求而编纂的大型工具书,全书 500 多条目由世界各地的 500 多位知名学者在多年研究的基础上分别撰写,再经专家的编辑与努力于 1996 年出版了这套全书的英文版。全书共分 13 个领域,它们是:管理一般、管理教育、国际工商管理、企业战略、组织行为、人力资源管理、会计、财务与金融、市场营销、运筹学、制造管理与运作管理、信息管理与工商经济。在工商管理领域,这部百科全书的内容覆盖范围之广,查阅检索之方便,以及参与撰写的作者的国际性与权威性都是空前的。

在中国,社会主义市场经济体制的确立,为中国的管理与科学开辟了广阔的发展空间。朱镕基总理指出“管理科学,兴国之道”。这既为我国管理学科的发展明确了目标与要求,也是对从事管理工作与管理科学的同志的巨大鼓励和鞭策,体现了党和国家对管理及科学的高度重视。为了进一步促进我国经济的发展,管理者应该掌握市场经济的一般规律,熟悉其运行规则,紧密结合我国实际,使我国的管理学科水平及管理水平赶超世界水平。这就要求我们应该大胆引进和借鉴世界各国先进的管理理论和方法,坚持以我为主、博采众长、融合提炼、自成一家的原则,使我国的管理水平及管理学科水平上一个新台阶。

我们出版这套全书的英文影印简明本,旨在向我国从事管理理论和管理实务工作的广大管理人员、专家学者、教师及学生推出一套方便实用的工具书,并且期望这套原汁原味的国外管理科学工具书能提高读者的专业外语水平,有利于国际交流。

清华大学经济管理学院第一副院长 赵纯均

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Introduction

What is management? Does it constitute a cohesive field of study? What are its main parts? Where do its boundaries lie? If we compiled what was known, would we be able to contain it within the confines of a manageable multi-volume work? These are some of the questions that faced me five years ago when I was approached with an invitation to put together a major new reference work, the *International Encyclopedia of Business and Management (IEBM)*. The *IEBM* was published in June 1996 with over 500 entries and as many authors. During the course of its development, these questions were hopefully answered and I outline the processes involved below. Creating this concise version of the encyclopedia raised its own set of problems: how after aiming for inclusivity could we pick out certain entries? On what criteria? And how concise could it be?

The aim with the *Concise IEBM* was two-fold: to create a representative selection of entries that together would form a cohesive whole and serve as an introduction to the *IEBM*'s wealth of business and management topics. The mission statement that shaped the full encyclopedia, 'to create a worldwide work of reference covering all aspects of management that is international both in terms of subject matter and its authorship' was followed once more. The 65 entries published here include flagship entries on major subject areas like accounting, human resource management, marketing and organization behaviour as well as others that cut across subject divisions like globalization, multinational corporations and systems.

The development of the *IEBM*

As Drucker has observed: 'Not in a very long time – not, perhaps, since the late 1940s or early 1950s – have there been as many new major management techniques as there are today' (1994:95). He then goes on to point out that such powerful tools as 'benchmarking',

'downsizing', 'total quality management' and the like are designed with a view to 'how to do' things differently; yet 'what to do' is now the main challenge to managements around the world. Drucker continues: 'The assumptions on which the organization has been built and is being run no longer fit reality. These are the assumptions that shape any organization's behaviour, dictate its decisions about what to do and what not to do and define what the organization considers meaningful results. These assumptions are about markets. They are about identifying customers and competitors, their values and behaviour. They are about technology and its dynamics, about a company's strengths and weaknesses. They are about what a company gets paid for. They are what I call a company's theory of business' (1994:95–6). As a result, for many of today's organizations, their theory of the business no longer works and their assumptions must be questioned anew.

We believe that those studying management need a new way of finding out about theories of business past, present and future and, in turn, about how businesses are changing what they do and how they do it, in order to best ascertain possible mismatches between theory and practice. In creating the *IEBM*, we thus aimed to cover the main disciplines and sub-disciplines that make up modern management. The nature of management has indeed a complex set of structures and processes and we attempted to be as inclusive as we could in what we wrote about. Some of these structures and processes are static, but many of them are dynamic. In the contemporary, increasingly interdependent world economy very little in international business stands still (Jones 1995). If we study a business or any other kind of purposive organization, we find that it is constantly trying to react to what some writers have called 'turbulence' and 'uncertainty' in the world surrounding it (see Emery and Trist 1965; Morgan 1986).

It appears that change in organizational environments has long been a concern of writers on organizations (see Pugh *et al.* 1996). Whichever part of management you look at, whether it be accounting systems, international business or marketing strategies, constant flux is to be found (Jacques 1996). In both theory and practice, there is a need for constant updating of background, analysis, tools, etc.

What we were to choose to produce was initially defined by what we did not want to see as the eventual publication. We did not set out to produce a short Dictionary of Management, which only provided crisp definitions of terms; nor did we intend to compile a Companion (or Handbook) of the subject, like the now much-used examples in the field (see March 1965; Nystrom and Starbuck 1981) with their extended essays on broad themes. What we envisaged was a halfway house, with some short but not too brief entries of about 2,000–3,000 words, some longer ones of 5,000 words and several in-depth pieces of 10,000 words. We were ultimately able to keep to these parameters with some exceptions.

Setting up the *IEBM*

One of the first steps in setting up the *IEBM* was to draw together an international Advisory Board. We set about choosing colleagues in our Anglo-American network, and then branched outwards covering as many major countries as we could. The list of countries covered ended up much wider than we had at first anticipated. It extended from Australia to the USA, in order of membership. We chose business school academics for the most part, not only from the G7 countries, but also from a wide range of places over the five continents. The full range of subjects in the *IEBM* was covered by this Advisory Board. These colleagues were to prove invaluable in reviewing our editorial strategy, assessing the potential readership, finding authors and vetting manuscripts. In addition, we received very sound advice from our designated Chief Advisory

Editor, John Kotter of the Harvard Business School, an expert on general management.

Choosing subject editors was also a priority. We chose most of these from Britain, then Europe and North America, based on existing collaboration with myself and the publishers. We started with Cambridge, England and Cambridge, Massachusetts; we then moved on to colleagues from Australia, Canada, Germany, Japan, Norway, Scotland, the USA, Wales, etc. The Subject Editors were: Estuo Abe, Michael Baker, Greg Bamber, Frank Fishwick, Michael Gregory, Stewart Hodges, Pat Joynt, Roger Mansfield, Elaine O'Brien, Michael Poole, Arndt Sorge, Rosalie Tung, Peter Walton and Milan Zeleny.

The role of the subject editors was pivotal in shaping the contribution of each major prop of the *IEBM*. In collaboration with the Editor-in-Chief, they decided what was to go into the range of items covered in, for example, accounting or marketing. They would normally choose and contact the authors, define the coverage sought, review the manuscript delivered, edit and cross-reference the final entry.

Defining our potential readership was a priority, and thus market research was a vital consideration from the outset. Exploring what typical future users might want to see included was a priority. We designed the work principally for the following: undergraduates studying for degrees in business and management; MBA students and postgraduates; management faculty; business practitioners; students of professional bodies in areas such as accounting and personnel; librarians and researchers.

An iterative process of devising a robust editorial strategy, testing it against outside advice (mainly but not only via our international editorial panel) and matching this against the potential market and readership, was ongoing. We carried out in-depth market research using focus groups and individual interviews with librarians as well as teachers and students of management at many levels. Feedback from colleagues in Europe, Japan, the USA and elsewhere at the initial (and indeed at all subsequent) stages was invaluable.

Introduction

I would like to thank all the authors, subject editors, advisory editors, copy-editors and everyone who offered advice and encouragement throughout the development of the *IEBM* project and especially those who helped create this concise version. On a personal level, I have found editing the *IEBM* a 'learning experience' and have not only enjoyed it immensely but also developed a deeper understanding of the interconnection of both theory and practice and of all the diverse disciplines that come together to constitute the field of international business and management.

MALCOLM WARNER

EDITOR-IN-CHIEF, CAMBRIDGE, JANUARY 1997

Further Reading

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Accounting

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- 2 Historical background
- 3 The regulation of accounting
- 4 The use of accounting in managerial decision making
- 5 Accounting in an international setting
- 6 The accounting discipline in the twenty-first century

Overview

Accounting is a discipline that seeks to provide information about a business entity. Such information is useful to those who are interested in making decisions that may affect the entity or one's relationship with the entity. This entry aims to provide a background to the accounting discipline that will enable the reader to fit the role of accounting into the broader arena of business and economic activity. It serves as an introduction to both managerial and financial accounting areas and related topics such as auditing and sets the stage for other entries which go into greater detail. However, no brief description of accounting can be expected to capture comprehensively the changing faces of the discipline over time or the impact of accounting on all business decisions, current and prospective.

1 Introduction

The term accounting conjures up a variety of images, ranging perhaps from that of a Dickensian clerk painstakingly recording an individual transaction, to that of the annual financial statements of a major multinational corporation, running to many pages of complex data. Both of these notions are valid, even if the clerk now uses the latest computer technology, but how do they fit together?

The term 'financial accounting' concerns the whole of the area of the capture of financial data concerning a company's transactions, its organization into a database and

the preparation of reports to shareholders, tax authorities and others outside the company, using aggregated data from the database. The term 'managerial accounting' concerns the use of accounting data internally, within a company, to help with management and decision making and to improve profitability.

Techniques developed to meet financial accounting requirements include the preparation of shareholder reports for groups of companies under the same economic control and segmental reporting, which concerns the breakdown of aggregated information in annual reports in order to help predict future performance. Inflation accounting addresses the shortcomings of traditional financial accounting measurement methods in a context where monetary values are not fixed while the objectives of 'creative accounting' are generally to improve reported earnings or to enhance a company's debt/equity ratio.

Cash flow accounting, an alternative approach to analysing transactions, concerns the preparation of the cash flow statement, which all major companies include in their annual external reporting package. The external reports of large companies are subjected to auditing in order to reassure shareholders and other users of their validity. People who read published accounts have developed special tools for extracting key information and the accounts are also used as the basis for corporate taxation.

Financial accounting does not comprise a given set of techniques that are undisputed and used uniformly throughout the world. The legal, economic and social context of accounting has an important influence on how it is formulated and, consequently, the measurements and objectives of accounting are often different in different countries. The area of accounting harmonization concerns various initiatives that have been taken to reduce these differences.

Managerial accounting is distinguished from financial accounting in many ways: for

example, it is intended purely for confidential use internal to the company, and it is not mandated by any legal or quasi-legal rules. The justification for management accounting is only that it is useful in managing the company, and its techniques therefore tend to travel more easily than those used in financial accounting.

The origins of managerial accounting are in costing, which is designed to provide information about the costs of individual products in order to control profitability and encourage efficiency. The information provided by these techniques can be used in decision making, using models such as cost-volume-profit (CVP) analysis. In recent years, there has been a revision of costing ideas with a technique known as activity-based costing, which aims to reflect modern production methods more faithfully. Cost information also feeds into systems for monitoring overall unit profitability, as in the practice of budgetary control. Companies establish 'budgets', or target costs and sales, for short periods ahead, and then feed actual performance data (often from the financial accounting database) into comparative reports. The compilation of such reports should reflect the organization needs of the company.

2 Historical background

The roots of accounting go back many centuries, to biblical times and earlier. Modern accounting, however, is generally perceived to date back to about 1494, to the inclusion of a chapter on double-entry book-keeping in an Italian mathematics book. The focus was on record keeping to facilitate a periodic summary of an entity's wealth at a given date and its performance over a period. The records kept were mostly of cash transactions, but the need to go beyond cash events to obtain more useful information was evident even in the earliest days.

The need for accounting grew slowly in the pre-industrial era. Land owners had a need to assess their wealth status from time to time: as the operations of property were turned over to non-owners for management, the now 'absentee' owners' needs for infor-

mation provided by accounting increased, partly as a check on the performance of managers. Throughout this period, the focus of accounting was on changes in the wealth owned by the entity (a business or an individual estate). Income for a period was viewed as the change in wealth between two dates, with accounting providing the measure of wealth at the two dates, as well as sufficient information about wealth changes to facilitate an understanding of the particular factors that contributed to the net change, or income, for the period.

Prior to the Industrial Revolution, many business activities were localized, which facilitated the measurement of values of resources periodically. Furthermore, technology as we know it today was minimal, and the resources comprising an entity's wealth were, therefore, relatively simple to value. Even business activities involved in world trade were structured in a manner that created few problems of valuation. Joint venture arrangements were common, and these were organized around limited activities within finite time intervals. The accounting notions of the day served users' needs well under these circumstances.

The Industrial Revolution created new challenges for accounting. The annual 'reckoning', or valuation of resources was no longer sufficient. Business operations became more complex and information was needed to facilitate those operations more frequently than on an annual basis. Manufacturing activities grew, and accounting was expected to provide information to assist in controlling costs, on the one hand, and in pricing products, on the other. Out of these needs grew cost accounting (now generally referred to as managerial accounting) notions. Gradually, the focus of accounting shifted to the cost of resources, rather than their value.

Coincident with the growth in industrial activity came the increasing need for capital by business entities. The corporate form of business organization flourished and capital providers became increasingly diverse, ceasing to have any other association with the entity. There was growing recognition that the accounting discipline was uniquely suited to

provide information for capital investment decisions, just as it had provided information to assist managers. Alongside this changing perception of accounting, a need arose for assurance that the information generated by the accounting discipline was fair and objective and that it could be relied upon for its intended purposes. Thus, the auditing profession grew in prominence, its mission being to assure users of audited financial information that the information represented the transactions and events of the entity fairly.

This brief summary brings the development of accounting up to the early 1900s. By this time, the accounting discipline had shown itself to be adaptable and had proved capable of providing information to meet the changing and growing needs of diverse user groups. While much of the change evolved in continental Europe, the greatest progress in the development of the accounting discipline was in the UK, at least until the early 1900s. The effects of these developments were felt across the Atlantic Ocean, where a growing US economy was generating an ever-increasing need for accounting information.

Twentieth-century developments

As awareness of financial reports and the accounting discipline grew, demand for accounting-trained personnel grew. While in the UK this demand was met largely through an apprenticeship system, in the USA, accounting studies became a part of university training in economics and later evolved into a discipline separate from, but related to, economics. The growing focus of business on periodic income, rather than on periodic wealth measurements, provided certain economists with a fertile new field of study to develop – the study of accountancy.

Increasingly, the study of accounting grew apart from economics and gradually evolved into the discipline we know today. Various tensions existed, principally between two schools of thought: those who argued that changes in wealth (value changes) were more relevant and meaningful for accounting information; and those who argued that accountability for invested costs and

measurement of revenue inflows and cost outflows were of prime importance.

During the 1920s, the proponents of accounting for value changes seemed to grow in prominence and asset re-measurements were common. However, the stock market crash of 1929 and the worldwide depression that followed seemed to impair the credibility of those favouring the measurement of changes in value. As a result, the focus on historical cost grew. Some considered this focus to be the most appropriate means of deriving information required to assess management accountability; others favoured it because it was seen to be a notion that was integral to the determination of income – that is, the difference between the revenues earned (and gains) and the costs and expenses (and losses) related to the earning activities.

The focus on historical cost was consolidated in 1936 with the publication of *An Introduction to Corporate Accounting Standards*, by William A. Paton and A.C. Littleton. While both authors were educated as economists, Paton favoured valuations and re-measurements, but Littleton did not. Littleton's views dominated the book and it became the cornerstone of influence in accounting education over the next half century. The separation of accounting from economics had become complete, even though calls frequently arose for accounting reports to do a better job of reflecting the economic reality of business operations, a notion that re-emerged in the 1990s as dissatisfaction with the perceived lack of relevance of historical cost information grew.

3 The regulation of accounting

Regulation in the United States of America

As the twentieth century evolved, business became increasingly complex and the accounting discipline expanded to meet increasingly diverse needs for financial information. In the USA, governmental intervention in the affairs of the market economy also became more pervasive. By the late 1930s it was clear that the emerging accounting profession had to step up its self-regulatory activities or it