

Unit 1 Planning



Sentence Patterns

1. The planning function involves defining an organization's goals, establishing an overall strategy for achieving these goals, and developing a comprehensive hierarchy of plans to integrate and coordinate activities.

计划职能包括定义组织的目标；制定全面战略以实现这些目标；开发一个全面的分层计划体系，以综合和协调各种活动。

2. Planning establishes coordinated effort. It gives direction, reduces the impact of change, minimizes waste and redundancy, and sets the standards used in controlling.

计划是一种协调过程。它指明方向，减小变化的冲击，使浪费和冗余减至最少，并设立控制的标准。

3. For the most part, operational planning dominates the planning activities of lower-level managers. As managers move up the hierarchy, their planning role becomes more strategy oriented.

在大多数情况下，基层管理者的计划活动主要是制定作业计划。当管理者在组织中的等级上升时，他的计划角色就更具战略导向作用。

4. Strategic plans cover an extensive time period (typically five or more years). cover broad issues, and include the formulation of objectives. Operational plans cover shorter periods of time, focus on specifics, and assume that objectives are already known.

战略计划覆盖较长的时间(通常为5年或更长)涉及广泛的问题,并包括制定目标。作业计划覆盖较短的时间,集中于具体的问题,并假定目标是已知的。

5. Directional plans are preferred over specific plans when uncertainty is high and when the organization is in the formative and the decline stages of its life cycle.

当环境的不确定性很高,以及当组织处于生命周期的形成阶段或衰退阶段时,指导性计划比具体计划更可取。

6. Commitment concept means that plans should extend far enough to meet those commitments made today. Planning for too long or for too short a period is inefficient.

许诺概念是指计划期限应该延伸到足够远,以便在此期限中能够实现当前的许诺。计划对太长的期限和太短的期限都是无效的。

7. Three contingency factors in planning include a manager's level in the organization, the degree of environmental uncertainty, and the length of future commitments.

计划过程存在着三种权变因素,包括管理者所处的组织层次,环境的不确定性以及未来许诺的时间长度。

8. Objectives are the foundation of planning
目标是计划的基础。

9. Objectives are desired outcomes for individuals, groups, or en

tire organizations.

目标是个人、小组或整个组织希望的成果。

10. Traditional objective setting is that objectives are set at the top and then broken down into subgoals for each level in an organization. The top imposes its standards on everyone below.

传统的目标设定的方法是指目标由组织的最高管理者设定，然后分解成子目标落实到组织的各个层次上。最高管理者将目标强加于下属。

11. Management by objectives (MBO) is a system in which specific performance objectives are jointly determined by subordinates and their superiors, progress toward objectives is periodically reviewed, and rewards are allocated on the basis of this progress.

目标管理是一套系统，在这个系统中，下级与他们的上司共同确定具体的绩效目标，并且定期检查完成目标的进展情况，而奖励则是根据目标的完成情况来确定的。

12. Strategic management process is an eight-step process that encompasses strategic planning, implementation and evaluation.

战略管理过程包含八个步骤，是一个制定战略计划，实施战略和评价战略的过程。

13. In a dynamic and uncertain environment, strategic planning is important because it can provide managers with a systematic and comprehensive means for analyzing the environment, assessing their organization's strengths and weaknesses, and identifying opportunities for which they could develop and exploit a competitive advantage.

在动态的和不确定的环境下，战略计划是重要的。这是因为它

能使管理者以系统的和综合的方式分析环境，评价组织的优势和劣势，以及发现组织有可能具有竞争优势的机会。

14. The term SWOT analysis refers to analyzing the organization's internal strengths and weaknesses as well as external opportunities and threats in order to identify a niche that the organization can exploit.

SWOT分析是指分析组织内部的优势和劣势以及外部的机会和威胁，以便发现组织能够开发的细分市场。

15. The BCG matrix identifies four business groups: stars, cash cows, question marks, and dogs

BCG矩阵区分出四种业务组合：吉星、现金牛、问号和瘦狗。

16. At the business level, there are four adaptive strategies. Defenders operate in stable environments and produce a limited set of products for a narrow market segment. Prospectors operate in a dynamic environment, innovate, and seek flexibility. Analyzers minimize risk and maximize profit opportunities by seeking both flexibility and stability. Reactors are inconsistent and reluctant to commit themselves to any one specific situation.

在事业层存在四种适应战略：防御者运作在稳定的环境中，为狭窄的细分市场生产有限的一组产品；探索者运作在动态的环境中，追求创新和灵活性；分析者同时寻求灵活性和稳定性，使风险最小化和利润机会最大化；反应者不能在任何特定情况下作出前后一致的和果断的承诺。

17. Management assesses its organization's competitive advantage by analyzing the forces that dictate the rules of competition within its industry (barriers to entry, substitutes, bargaining power of buyers and suppliers, and current competitive ri-

valry) and then selecting a strategy (cost leadership, differentiation, or focus) that best exploits its competitive advantage. 管理者通过分析产业中支配竞争规则的力量（进入障碍、替代品、购买者和供应者的讨价能力、竞争者之间的竞争），选择最能发挥竞争优势的竞争战略（成本领先、差别化、专一化战略）。

18. TQM(total quality management) can be used as a competitive weapon as many firms are applying it as a way to build competitive advantage.

全面质量管理被许多公司用作建立竞争优势的竞争武器。

19. Decision-making process is a set of eight steps that begins with identifying a problem and decision criteria, and allocating weights to those criteria; moves to developing, analyzing, and selecting an alternative that can resolve the problem; implements the alternative; and concludes with evaluating the decision's effectiveness.

决策制定过程由八个步骤组成：始于识别问题，确定决策标准和给标准分配权重 直至拟定方案、分析方案、选择方案和实施方案；最后结束于评价决策效果。

20. The rational decision maker is assumed to have a clear problem, have no goal conflict, know all options, have a clear preference ordering, keep all preferences constant, have no time or cost constraints, and select a final choice that maximizes his or her economic payoff.

理性决策者被假定为有明确的问题，无目标冲突，了解所有的选择 有明确的偏好顺序 保持所有偏好的一贯性 不存在时间和成本的约束，以及最终选择一个使他经济收益最大化的方案。

21. Decision-making can be divided into two categories, programmed decision and nonprogrammed decision.
决策可以分为两类：程序化决策和非程序化决策。
22. Managers face well-and ill-structured problems. Well-structured problems are straightforward, familiar, easily defined, and solved using programmed decisions. Ill-structured problems are new or unusual, involve ambiguous or incomplete information, and are solved using nonprogrammed decisions
管理者面对着结构良好的和结构不良的问题。结构良好的问题是那些直观的、熟悉的、易确定的，并可以采用程序化决策来解决的问题。结构不良的问题是新的或不寻常的，包含模糊的或信息不完整的问题，它适用于非程序化决策方法。
23. The ideal situation for making decisions occurs when the manager can make accurate decisions because he or she knows the outcome from every alternative. Such certainty, however, rarely occurs.
在理想的决策情况下，管理者能制定出精确的决策，因为他知道每一方案的结果。然而，这种确定性的情况很少出现。
24. Decision-making is part of all four managerial functions.
决策渗透于其他四项管理职能之中。
25. Budgets are popular planning devices, because money is a universal common denominator that can be used in all types of organizations and by managers at all levels.
预算是一种广泛应用的计划手段，因为货币是一种普遍的和共同的计量单位，可以用于各种类型的组织以及为各级管理者所利用。
26. Environmental scanning is the screening of large amounts of in-

formation to detect emerging trends and create scenarios.
环境扫描是指浏览大量的信息，以察觉正在出现的趋势和形成一套设想。

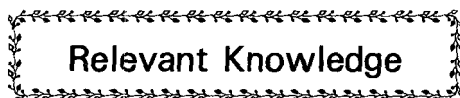


Professional Terms

1. Strategic plans 战略计划
2. Operational plans 作业计划
3. Short-term plans 短期计划
4. Long-term plans 长期计划
5. Specific plans 具体计划
6. Directional plans 指导性计划
7. Mission 宗旨
8. Objectives 目标
9. Stated objectives 宣称的目标
10. Real objectives 真实的目标
11. Strategy 战略
12. Corporate-level strategy 公司层战略
13. Stability strategy 稳定性战略
14. Growth strategy 增长战略
15. Retrenchment strategy 收缩战略
16. Combination strategy 组合战略
17. Business-level strategy 事业层战略
18. Adaptive strategy 适应战略
19. Competitive strategy 竞争战略
20. Cost-leadership strategy 成本领先战略
21. Differentiation strategy 差别化战略

22. Focus strategy 专一化战略
23. Functional-level strategy 职能层战略
24. Decision 决策
25. Procedure 程序
26. Well-structured problems 结构良好问题
27. Ill-structured problems 结构不良问题
28. Programmed decision 程序化决策
29. Nonprogrammed decision 非程序化决策
30. Group decision-making 群体决策
31. Individual decision making 个人决策
32. Brainstorming 头脑风暴法
33. Nominal group technique 名义群体法
34. Electronic meeting 电子会议
35. Rule 规则
36. Policy 政策
37. Budget 预算
38. Revenue budget 收入预算
39. Expense budget 费用预算
40. Profit budget 利润预算
41. Cash budget 现金预算
42. Capital expenditure budget 资本支出预算
43. Fixed budget 固定预算
44. Variable budget 可变预算
45. Incremental budget 增量预算
46. Zero-base budgeting 零基预算
47. Forecast 预测
48. Revenue forecasting 收入预测
49. Technological forecasting 技术预测
50. Quantitative forecasting 定量预测

- 51. Qualitative forecasting 定性预测
- 52. Scheduling 进度计划
- 53. Gantt chart 甘特图
- 54. Load chart 负荷图
- 55. Program evaluation and review technique 计划评审技术
- 56. PERT network PERT 网络



Relevant Knowledge

1. Planning Must be Flexible in a Rapidly Changing Environment

Even as little as twenty years ago, our “best managed” corporations had large planning departments. They generated numerous five-and ten-year plans, updated annually, of course. General Electric, for example, once had a planning staff of 350 who churned out hundreds of meticulously detailed reports. Now, however, planning is increasingly being done by divisional or unit managers as part of their management responsibilities, and the plans cover shorter periods of time and are more likely to consider a broader range of options. GE’s formal planning group is down to about twenty and their only role is to advise operating managers. The heads of each of GE’s business units now develop 5 one-page reports each year that identify possible opportunities and obstacles they see in their industries during the next two years.

In a volatile world, only the foolish are cocky enough to believe that they can accurately forecast the future. But that doesn’t diminish the importance of plans. Well-managed organizations are spend-

ing less time coming up with highly detailed, quantitative plans and instead are developing multiple scenarios of the future. For example, Southern California Edison, an electric utility serving over 4 million customers in California, has created twelve possible versions of the future based on an economic boom, a Mid-east oil crisis, expanded environmentalism efforts, and other developments. This approach to flexible planning came about after the utility's managers realized that every long-range plan they had painstakingly constructed during the 1970s and 1980s had been rendered virtually useless by unexpected events—from the Gulf War to nuclear accidents such as Chernobyl, to new regulatory restrictions on sulfur emissions. And of course, Southern California Edison is not unique in facing an increasingly uncertain world. Most businesses, including for-profit and nonprofit, are finding their environments becoming more dynamic and uncertain. These forces require managers to develop more flexible plans.

[中文提要]

通用电气公司曾经有一个庞大的计划部门，编制非常详细的计划书，随着时间的推移，专职从事计划工作的人越来越少，计划书越来越简单，这并不是说计划不重要了，而是由于环境中不确定因素的增加对计划提出了新的要求，计划逐渐转交给经营单位去做，成为经营单位中层管理者职责的一部分。同时，计划本身也只覆盖较短的时间，并只考虑那些可行的选择。由具体的计划变成指导性的计划，由长期计划变成短期计划，也就是说，环境的不确定性越大，计划就更应具有灵活性，计划的期限也应更短。

管理良好的组织很少在非常详细的、量化的计划上花费时间，而是开发面向未来的多种方案，南加利福尼亚州爱迪生公司是一家电力公用事业公司，向加利福尼亚的 400 万个居民提供服务。公司制定了 12 种未来的方案，这些方案基于经济繁荣、中东石油

危机、环境主义的传播，以及其他发展趋势。公司之所以采取了这种灵活的方式，是因为在 70 年代到 80 年代期间，那些费尽心机制定出来的长期计划，最终由于一些意外的事件发生而变得毫无意义。这些意外事件，如石油输出国组织冻结油价，切尔诺贝利核电站事故导致的对放射性污染的限制条例等，随时都可能发生。面对未来不可预知因素的增加，企业应制定多种方案，以应付环境的动态性和不确定性。

2. Myths about Planning

There is no shortage of myths and misconceptions about planning. We want to identify some of these common myths and try to clarify the misunderstandings behind them:

(1) Planning that proves inaccurate is a waste of management's time. The end result of planning is only one of its purposes. The process itself can be valuable even if the results miss the target. Planning requires management to think through what it wants to do and how it is going to do. This clarification can be important in and of itself. Management that does a good job of planning will have direction and purpose, and planning is likely to minimize wasted effort. All this can occur even if the objectives being sought are missed.

(2) Planning can eliminate changes. Planning cannot eliminate changes. Changes will happen no matter what management does. Managers engage in planning in order to anticipate changes and to develop the most effective response to them.

(3) Planning reduces flexibility. Planning implies commitments, but this is a constraint only if management stops planning after doing it once. Planning is an ongoing activity. The fact that formal plans have been thoroughly discussed and clearly articulated can

make them easier to revise than an ambiguous set of assumptions carried around in some executive's head. Also, some plans can be made to be more flexible than others.

[中文提要]

关于计划存在着不少误解，需要澄清的是：

(1)不准确的计划是在浪费管理者的时间。最终结果仅仅是计划的目的之一，即使最终结果没有完全达到预期的目标，过程本身就很有价值。计划要求管理者认真思考要干什么和怎么干。

(2)计划可以消除变化。计划不能够消除变化，无论管理者如何计划，变化总会发生。管理者制定计划的目的是预测变化和制定最有效的应变措施。

(3)计划降低灵活性。计划意味着承诺，它之所以成为一种约束，仅仅是因为管理者在制定出计划后就不再做任何修改了。实际上，计划是一种持续进行的活动，应根据环境的变化持续进行修改。

3. Does MBO Require Manipulation

A colleague once facetiously suggested that MBO stood for manipulating by objectives for the following reasons:

(1)Managers frequently have a specific set of goals in mind for an employee to work on before the manager and employee ever sits down to begin the MBO process. These preconceived standards define the minimum goals that the manager is willing to accept.

(2)Authentic employee participation therefore does not always take place. What occurs might be more appropriately called "pseudo-participation." that is, there is only the appearance of participation.

(3)Nothing in the MBO process clarifies how to arrive at goals if the manager and subordinate are unable to reach agreement.

(4)When conflicts exist, managers tend to use the power of

their position to impose their goals on the subordinate.

(5) This scenario suggests that MBO can be a device that allows managers to appear to be setting goals participatively when, in fact, the goals are really being assigned.

Proponents of MBO would counter that, although the preceding scenario undoubtedly happens, it is not really management by objectives. Moreover, managers must understand that anything less than complete participation by subordinates will undermine any MBO program's credibility and effectiveness. When differences occur, mature individuals can resolve them in ways that meet the needs of both the employee and the organization.

[中文提要]

目标管理是否意味着用目标进行操纵？关于这个问题有两种截然不同的看法。有人认为：在管理者与雇员坐下来开始进行目标管理过程之前，管理者头脑里已经有了一套对雇员的目标，这些事先设想好了的标准，是管理者愿意接受的最低目标。因此，目标管理决不会有雇员的真正参与，雇员只是表面的参与。目标管理过程没有说明当管理者与下级之间不能达成协议时怎么办。因此，当出现冲突时，管理者倾向于利用他的权力把目标强加给下级。所以，目标管理不过是一种工具，管理者看起来是通过参与的方式设立目标，实际上是分配目标。

目标管理的提倡者认为，虽然存在以上情况，但这不是真正意义上的目标管理，而且管理者必须认识到没有下级的真正参与，目标管理的可信性和有效性将大大下降。当管理者与下级意见不同时，成熟的管理者能够有效地协调组织和雇员的利益，解决分歧。

4. Sustaining a Competitive Advantage

Long-term success with any one of Porter's competitive strategies (cost-leadership strategy, differentiation strategy, focus strate-

gy) requires that the advantage be sustainable. That is, it must withstand actions of competitors or evolutionary changes in the industry. This isn't easy. Technology changes and so do consumers' tastes. Most importantly, some advantages can be easily imitated by competitors. Management needs to create "barriers" that make imitation difficult or that reduce competitive opportunities. For instance, Glaxo, the United Kingdom pharmaceutical maker, had been able to sustain its successful product innovations because it effectively protects its products from imitation. How can a company do this? Well, one thing a company can do is to have strong economies of scale so it can reduce price to gain volume. Also, it can lock in suppliers with exclusive contracts and thus limit competitors' access to these sources of supply. Or it can lobby for government policies that impose import tariffs, thus limiting foreign competition. Yet, whatever actions management takes to sustain a competitive advantage, it cannot become complacent. Sustaining a competitive advantage requires constant action by management to stay one step ahead of the competition.

[中文提要]

无论采取波特的三种基本战略中的任何一种，企业要获得长期的成功，都必须采取有利措施保持住竞争优势。以下是一些可供选择的策略：可以利用专利和版权减少竞争对手仿制的机会；利用规模效益降低价格扩大销售量提高市场占有率与供应商签订专供合同，限制竞争对手获得此类资源；鼓励政府对进口商品征税，以限制来自国外的竞争。不管采取以上哪种竞争策略，都不可能一劳永逸，管理者必须作出持续努力，使企业始终领先于竞争对手。



Reading Material

1. The Evolution of Management

Organized endeavors directed by people responsible for planning, organizing, leading, and controlling activities have existed for thousands of years. The Egyptian pyramids and the Great Wall of China are tangible evidence that projects of tremendous scope, employing tens of thousands of people, were undertaken well before modern times. The pyramids are a particularly interesting example. The construction of a single pyramid occupied over 100 000 people for twenty years. Who told each worker what to do? Who ensured there would be enough stones at the site to keep workers busy? The answer to such questions is management. Regardless of what managers were called at the time, someone had to plan what was to be done, organize people and materials to do it, lead and direct the workers, and impose some controls to ensure that everything was done as planned.

These examples from the past demonstrate that organizations have been with us for thousands of years and that management has been practiced for an equivalent period. However, it has been only in the past several hundred years, particularly in the last century, that management has undergone systematic^① investigation, acquired a common body of knowledge, and become a formal discipline for study. Two significant historical events also played a role in promoting the study of management.

The first half of this century was a period of contrasts in man-

agement thinking. Scientific management looked at management from the perspective of how to improve the productivity of operative personnel. The general administrative theorists were concerned with the overall organization and how to make it more effective. One group of writers and researchers emphasized the human resource or “people side” of management, while another group focused on developing and applying quantitative models. In this article we present the contributions of these four approaches. Keep in mind that each is concerned with the same “animal”; the differences reflect the backgrounds and interests of the writers. A relevant analogy is the classic story of the blind men and the elephant in which each man declares the elephant to be like the part he is feeling. The first man touches the side of the elephant and declares² that an elephant is like a wall. The second touches the trunk and says the elephant like a snake. The third feels one of the elephant’s tusks and believes the elephant to be like a spear. The fourth grabs a leg and says an elephant is like a tree. The fifth touches the elephant’s tail and concludes that the animal is like a rope. Each is encountering the same elephant, but what each observes depends on where he stands. Similarly, each of the following perspectives is correct and makes an important contribution to our overall understanding of management. However, each is also a limited view of a larger “animal.”

2. Scientific Management

If you had to point the year that modern management theory was born, 1911 would be a logical choice. That was the year that Frederick Winslow Taylor’s *Principles of Scientific Management* was published. Its contents would become widely accepted by managers throughout the world. The book described the theory of scien-

tific management—the use of scientific methods to define the “one best way” for a job to be done. The studies conducted before and after the book’s publication established^③ Taylor as the “father” of scientific management.

Frederick Taylor did most of his work at the Midvale and Bethlehem steel companies in Pennsylvania. As a mechanical engineer with a Quaker and Puritan background, he was continually appalled by workers’ inefficiencies. Employees used vastly different techniques to do the same job. They were inclined to “take it easy” on the job, and Taylor believed that worker output was only about a third of what was possible. Therefore, he set out to correct the situation by applying the scientific method to jobs on the shop floor. He spent more than two decades passionately pursuing^④ the “one best way” for each job to be done.

Taylor’s four principles of management:

(1) Develop a science for each element of an individual’s work, which replaces the old rule-thumb method.

(2) Scientifically select and then train, teach, and develop the worker. (Previously, workers chose their own work and trained themselves as best they could.)

(3) Heartily cooperate with the workers so as to ensure that all work is done in accordance with the principles of the science that has been developed.

(4) Divide work and responsibility almost equally between management and workers. Management takes over all work for which it is better fitted than the workers do. (Previously, almost all the work and the greater part of the responsibility were thrown on the workers).