第12回 われわれの事業は何か?

(123) (もしドラ1~6) 北京外大レジュメ

会計と経営のブラッシュアップ

平成 25 年 12 月 16 日

山内公認会計士事務所

(参考にして趣旨を学んだ本)

(1) もし高校野球の女子マネージャーがドラッカーの「マネジメント」を読んだら(2009 年ダイヤモンド社発行 岩崎夏海著)

(2) マネジメント 基本と原則 エッセンシャル版(2001年ダイヤモンド社発行 P・F・ドラッカー著 上田惇生編訳)

(3) 現代の経営(1996 年ダイヤモンド社発行 P・F・ドラッカー著 上田惇生訳)

(4) The Practice of Management(1954 年 Peter F. Drucker)

(5) ドラッカーへの旅(2009年ソフトバンク クリエイティブ発行 ジェフェリー・A・クレイムズ著、有賀裕子訳)

(6) ネクスト・ソサエティ(2002年ダイヤモンド社発行 P・F・ドラッカー著 上田惇生訳)

(7) マネジメント(1974 年ダイヤモンド社発行 P・F・ドラッカー著 野田一夫外監訳)

(8) 孫子兵法 連環画(1990 年浙江人民美術出版社発行)

(9) その他

(登場人物)

川島みなみ 都立程久保高校野球部のマネジャー 宮田夕紀 みなみの幼なじみ。野球部マネジャー(入院中) 柏木次郎 みなみの幼なじみ。キャッチャー 星 出 純 キャプテン、四番バッター

加地 誠 野球部の監督

プロローグ

「夏の大会」に負けて、3年生が引退した直後の高校2年生の7 月半ば、みなみは、野球部のマネジャーになった。そして、「野球 部を甲子園に連れていく」という明確な目標を持った。「どうやっ たら連れて行けるかを考える前に、それは、みなみにとって使命 だった。そう決めたら、すぐに行動に移した。

1. 野球部に入部して、みなみの言ったこと

ところが、いざ入部してみると愕然とさせられた。 みなみが初めて練習に参加した日、多くの部員が、ほとんどなん の理由もなしに、練習をさぼっていた。

「私はこの野球部を甲子園に連れて行きたいんです。」というみ なみの言葉に全部員 23 名のうち出席していた、たったの 5 名の 反応は、すべて否定的なものだった。監督の加地は、「それはさ すがにムリじゃないかな。その目標はあまりにも現実とかけ離れ ているよ。」と言った。 1

(1)

キャプテンの星出純は、「それは正直厳しいよ。この野球部には、 甲子園に行くために野球をやっているやつは一人もいないよ」と 言った。

野手で、幼なじみのキャッチャーの柏木次郎も、「おまえ、本気 なのか。初めから大きなことは言わないで、三回戦突破くらいを 目標にしておいた方が無難だよ」と言った。結局、みなみの考え に賛同したり、協力を申し出たりする人間は、一人もいなかった。

それでも、みなみはへこたれたりはしなかった。逆にモチベーシ ョンを高めていた。

2. 野球部のマネジャーになって、初めてマネジメントを読む

読み進めてみると、その本は意外に面白かった。そこには、企業 を含めた「組織」の経営全般についてが書かれていた。組織の経 営について知ることは、野球部の経営を知ることにもつながった。 読み進むうちに、不意に「マネジャーの資質」という言葉に突き 当って、みなみは自分にその資質があるのかと思って、ドキッと した。

そこにはこうあった。「マネジャーにできなければならない仕事 は、そのほとんどが教わらなくとも学ぶことができる。しかし、 学ぶことのできない資質、後天的に獲得することのできない資質、 始めから身につけていなければならない資質が一つだけある。才 能ではない。真摯さである」みなみは、その部分をくり返し読ん だ。

(注)真摯さとは人柄のことである

3. ドラッカーのマネジメントが理解できる本

(マネジメント・エッセンシャル版 29~36、137~141 頁)

集団が、一つの目標を達成しようという時、その集団(組織)に成果 をあげさせようというのがマネジメント(経営)である。

- ○目標設定において中心となるのは、マーケティングとイノベーションである。なぜなら、顧客が代価を支払うのは、この二つの分野における成果と貢献に対してだからである。
- ○市場についてのデュポン社の話は聴くに値する。同社が成功した時、独占的供給者の地位を維持するのは、開発コストを回収するところまでである。その後は、特許権を開放し、競争相手を作る。100の80%は、250の50%よりも小さい。供給者が複数の時、一社では想像できないような使途の発見と発展があり、市場は急速に拡大する。(創業者利益と拡大の弊害)
- ○アメリカで鉄道が衰退した理由はその職場に魅力が無くなったからである。経営資源の三つの目標が確保できなくなったからである。三つの経営資源である物的資源、人的資源、資金についての目標が必要である。特に良質の人材と資金を確保できなければ企業が永続できない。
- ○マーケティングの目標は複数存在する。①既存の製品についての 目標、②既存の製品の廃棄についての目標、③既存の市場におけ る新製品のついての目標、④新市場についての目標、⑤流通チャ ンネルについての目標、⑥アフターサービスについての目標、⑦ 信用供与についての目標である。
- ○必要なものは、長期計画ではなく戦略計画である。①戦略計画は 魔法の箱ではない。思考であり、資源を行動に結びつけるもので ある。②戦略計画は予測ではない。それらは道具にしかすぎない。 戦略計画とは、手法ではなく責任である。③戦略計画は、未来で はなく、現在の意思決定が未来において持つ意味(すでに起こっ た未来)に関るものである。④戦略計画は、リスクをなくすため のものではない。より大きなリスクを負担できるようにすること である。
- ○戦略計画とは、①リスクを伴う起業家的な意思決定を行い、②その実行に必要な活動を体系的に組織し、③それらの活動の成果を期待したものと比較測定するという連続したプロセスである。常に、「何を、いつ行うか」「何を、いつ止めるか」を問わねばならない。

組織に成果をあげさせる、その成果のいかんにすべてのことがかか わっている。しかし、現実との乖離はどうすればよいのか。

○世界中の先進社会が転換期にあるなかで、日本ほど大きな転換を 迫られている国はない。日本が50年代、60年代に発展させたシス テムは、他のいかなる国のものよりも大きな成果をあげた。しか し、そしてまさにそのゆえに、今日そのシステムが危機に瀕して いる。すでに周知のように、それらの多くは放棄して新たなもの を採用しなければならない。あるいは徹底的な検討のもとに再設 計しなければならない。今日の経済的、社会的な行き詰まりが要 求しているものがこれである。 (マネジメント・エッセンシャル版 まえがき、41~48、128~134 頁)

ドラッカーは、20世紀の世界は信じられないほどの短い間に、多元 的な組織社会になったと言う。社会の主な課題が、個人や家族から 組織の手にゆだねられた。従って組織に高度の成果をあげさせるこ とが社会の目標となる。(この傾向は今も進んでいるか)

- ○マネジャーの二つの役割。①投入した資源の総和よりも大きなものを 生み出す組織を創造すること、②ただちに必要とされているものと近 い将来必要とされるものを調和させること。
- ○マネジャーの仕事は、マネジメント以外のことに時間を使うことでは ない。共通の仕事は五つ、①目標を設定する、②組織する、③動機づ けとコミュニケーションを図る、④評価測定する、⑤人材を開発する。
- ○最大の貢献。イギリスのインド総督府の成功は、ミドルマネジメント。 即ち、「若者に広く、かつ挑戦的な仕事を与えた」こと。
- ○マネジャーの職務設計の誤り、①職務を狭く設計し、成長できなくす ること、②補佐役という職務や職務と言えないような仕事は有害であ る、③責任ある存在でない仕事、④十分な仕事を持たせない、⑤彼ー 人と直接の部下で遂行できる仕事、⑥会議や調整が頻繁な仕事は間違 っている、⑦仕事の不足をポストで補ってはならない、⑧後家づくり の仕事は設計しなおす必要がある。
- ○「マネジメントの限界の法則」によるマネジメントの階層の積み重ね はコミュニケーションの妨害となる。
- ○職務設計の重点、マネジャーが自らの仕事を主体的に知ることのできる状況を作る、①継続的な職務、市場調査部長や製造部長②貢献の責任の明確化③マネジャーの仕事は、上、下、横の関係によって規定される④必要な情報と提供できる情報の明確化。

すでに起きた未来……それは洞察力である

○企業も公的機関も成果について、6つの規律を自らに課す必要がある。
 ①「事業は何か、何であるか」を定義する、②その目的に関わる定義に
 従い、明確な目標を導き出す、③活動の優先順位を決める、④成果の
 尺度を定める、⑤自らの成果についてフィードバックを行う、⑥目標
 に照らし成果を監査する。

確かに、ドラッカーの言っていることの最重要なことは洞察力の問題 である (現代の経営 第1章マネジメントの役割を要約)

○経営管理者(マネジャー)は、事業に生命を与える力にあふれた存 在である。彼等のリーダーシップなくしては、生産のための資源 は、単なる資源にとどまり、生産は行われない。



事業経営の草を育てる者こそ、人類の福祉に真に
貢献するという思想の具現)

資源・物以上のものにする (価値を生む、生産的なものにする)

- ○マネジメントの出現(組織を預り、組織の成果をあげ、組織の継続 を図る)こそ、人間社会の歴史における画期的な出来事である。
- ○1950年代のアメリカは、さらに発展するよりも、今日有するもの を守ろうとする姿勢が見られる。多くの産業において、資本設備 が老朽化しつつある。生産性が急速に向上しているのは、いくつ かの新産業だけである。生産性は多くの産業において、低下はし てなくとも、停滞している。

マネジメントの現代の経済及び社会における役割について

Resources	+	Management	\rightarrow Production
(material)		(human)	(productive resources)

企業とは、(マネジメントの体系)

第一に、顧客のために成果を生み出す(経済的な機関) 第二に、人を雇用し、育成し、報酬を与える(人を生産的にする ための機関)

第三に、公益を増進する(社会的責任を持つ機関)

マネジメントとは作り上げる力である — 創造力

stake - an important part emergence - appearance, come inte

1-8

THE ROLE OF MANAGEMENT on important paint or point stuck, investment

The dynamic element in every business—A distinct and a leading group—The emergence) of management—The free world's stake in management. appearance, come inte existence

hapless - not lucky prevegative fork - an advantage belonging to 20C Resources + management > production (material) (human) productive recorces

THE manager is the dynamic, life-giving element in every business. Without his leadership the "resources of production" remain resources and never become production. In a competitive economy, above all, the quality and performance of the managers determine the success of a business, indeed they determine its <u>survival</u>. For the quality and performance of its managers is the only <u>effective</u> advantage an enterprise in a competitive economy can have.

Management is also a distinct and a leading group in industrial society. We no longer talk of "capital" and "labor"; we talk of a hight "management" and "labor." The "responsibilities of capital" have disappeared from our vocabulary together with the "rights of capital"; instead, we hear of the "responsibilities of management," and (a singularly hapless phrase) of the "prerogatives of management." and "We are building up a comprehensive and distinct system of "educaion for management." And when the Eisenhower Administration was formed in 1952, it was formed consciously as a "Management Administration." great importance of sta

The <u>emergence</u> of management as an essential, a distinct and a leading institution is a pivotal event in social history. Rarely, if ever, has a new basic institution, a new leading group, emerged as cont fast as has management since the turn of this century. Rarely in human history has a new institution proven indispensable so quickly;

hapless - unlacky, unifortunate

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necesary

and even less often has a new institution arrived with so little opposition, so little disturbance, so little controversy.

Management will remain a basic and dominant institution perhaps as long as Western civilization itself survives. For <u>management</u> is not only grounded in the nature of the modern industrial system and in the needs of the modern business enterprise to which an industrial system must entrust its productive resources both human and material. Management also expresses basic beliefs of modern Western society. It expresses the belief in the possibility of controlling man's livelihood through systematic organization of economic resources. It expresses the belief that economic change can be made into the most powerful engine for human betterment and social justice that, as Jonathan Swift first overstated it two hundred and fifty years ago, whoever makes two blades of grass grow where only one grew before deserves better of mankind than any speculative philowhere sopher or metaphysical system builder.

This belief that the material can and should be used to advance the human spirit is not just the age-old human heresy "materialism." In fact, it is incompatible with materialism as the term has always been understood. It is something new, distinctly modern, distinctly Western Prior to and outside of, the modern West, resources have always been considered a limit to man's activities, a restriction on his control over his environment—rather than an opportunity and a tool of his control over nature. They have always been considered God-given and unchangeable. Indeed all societies, except the modern West, have looked upon economic change as a danger to society and individual alike, and have considered it the first responsibility of government to keep the economy unchangeable.

Management, which is the organ of society specifically charged with making resources productive, that is, with the responsibility for organized economic advance, therefore reflects the basic spirit of the modern age. It is in fact indispensable and this explains why, once begotten, it grew so fast and with so little opposition.

The Importance of Management the shility to do st well

Management, its <u>competence</u>, its integrity and its performance will be <u>decisive</u> both to the United States and to the free world in decide

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the decades ahead. At the same time the demands on management /-/0 will be rising steadily and steeply.

A "Cold War" of indefinite duration not only puts heavy economic burdens on the economy, which only continuous economic advance can make bearable; it demands ability to satisfy the country's military needs while building up, at the same time, an expanding peacetime economy. It demands, indeed, an unprecedented ability of the entire economy to shift back and forth between peacetime and defense production, practically at an instant's notice. This demand, on the satisfaction of which our survival may well depend, is above all a demand on the competence of the managements, especially of our big enterprises. httpspect-thinking theat past decision

That the United States is the leader today, economically and socially, will make management performance decisive—and adequate management performance much harder. From the peak there is only one easy way to go: downwards. It always requires twice as much effort and skill to stay up as it did to climb up. In other words, there is real danger that in retrospect) the United States of 1950 will come to look like the Great Britain of 1880—doomed to decline for lack of vision and lack of effort. There are evidences of a tendency in this country to defend what we have rather than advance further; capital equipment is getting old in many industries; productivity is improving fast only in the very new industries, and may be stagnant if not declining in many others. Only superior management competence and continuously improved management performance can keep us progressing, can prevent our becoming smug, self-satisfied and lazy.

Outside the United States management has an even <u>more decisive</u> <u>function</u> and an even tougher job. Whether Europe regains her economic prosperity depends, above all, on the performance of her managements. And whether the formerly colonial and raw-material producing countries will succeed in developing their economies as free nations or will go Communist, depends to a large extent on their ability to produce competent and responsible managers in a hurry. Truly, the entire free world has an <u>immense</u> stake in the competence, skill and responsibility of management.

stake - role important point

extremely large or growt

= enor mouse stagnant - not development growing on a hanging - stagnent economy

- ○マネジメントの原理(目的) 経済的効果 企業のマネジメントは経済的な成果を第一義とし、経済的な成果 をあげることによってのみ、その存在と権威を正当化される。経 済的な成果とは、消費者が進んで支払う価格で、消費者の望む財 やサービスを提供することである。
- ○第1の機能(経済的成果)
 - 事業のマネジメントは勘や直観的な才能ではない。マネジメント の原則の体系的な研究、知識の体系的な取得、仕事の体系的な分 析によって事業のマネジメントの仕事が改善できる。しかし、マ ネジメントの評価の決定的な基準は、知識ではなくて、**事業上の 成果である。あくまで実務である。**したがって事業のマネジメン トとは、目標によるマネジメントである。
- ○第2の機能(結果>人的、物的資源)
 - 人的・物的資源を使って生産的な企業をつくることが、マネジメ ントの第二の機能である。具体的には経営管理者をマネジメント することである。企業とは、その構成要素たる資源の総計よりも 大きな、より優れたものを生むべき存在である。しかも、成長可 能な資源、成長と発展を期待できるものは人的資源だけである。 他の資源はすべて機械的な法則に従う。
- ○第3の機能(人と仕事のマネジメント)
 - 人に最も適するように仕事を組織し、最も生産的、効果的に仕事 ができるように人を組織することがマネジメントの仕事である。

○二つの時間

- マネジメントはつねに、現在と未来という二つの時間に生きなけ ればならない。長期的な利益を犠牲にして、目前の利益を得ても 成果をあげたことにはならない。また逆に、壮大な未来のために リスクを冒すような意思決定は無責任である。目覚ましい業績を あげても、あとは燃えつきて沈む船体を残しただけでは、現在と 未来のバランスに失敗した無責任なマネジメントである。
- マネジメントとは、社会に有用なものを創り上げることである

MAN

CHAPTER 2

THE JOBS OF MANAGEMENT

dimensions) combine many things

唐九 記底, 判查 System

nization

Management the least known of our basic <u>institutions</u>—The organ of the enterprise—The first function: economic performance—The first job: managing a business—Managing as creative action Management by objectives Managing managers—The enterprise as a <u>genuine</u> whole—Managers must manage—"It's the abilities, not the disabilities, that count" Managing worker and work—The two time dimensions of management—The integrated nature of management. Combine with many they?

DESPITE its crucial importance, its high visibility and its spectacular rise, management is the least known and the least understood of our basic <u>institutions</u>. Even the people in a business often do not know what their management does and what it is supposed to be doing, how it acts and why, whether it does a good job or not. Indeed, the typical picture of what goes on in the "front office" or on "the fourteenth floor" in the minds of otherwise sane, well-informed and intelligent employees (including, often, people themselves in responsible managerial and specialist positions) bears striking resemblance to the medieval geographer's picture of Africa as the stamping ground of the one-eyed ogre, the two-headed pygmy, the immortal phoenix and the elusive unicorn. What then is management: What does it do?

alarge important organization

There are two popular answers. One is that management is the <u>people at the top</u>—the term "management" being little more than euphemism for "the boss." The other one defines a manager as <u>someone who directs the work of others and who</u>, as a slogan puts it, "does his work by getting other people to do theirs."

But these are at best merely efforts to tell us who belongs in management (as we shall see, they don't even tell us that). They do not attempt to tell us what management is and what it does. These questions can only be answered by analyzing management's function. For management is an organ; and organs can be described and defined only through their function.

Management is the specific organ of the business enterprise. Whenever we talk of a business enterprise, say, the United States Steel Company or the British Coal Board, as deciding to build a new plant, laying off workers or treating its customers fairly, we actually talk of a management decision, a management action, a management behavior. The enterprise can decide, act and behave only as its managers do—by itself the enterprise has no effective existence. And conversely any business enterprise, no matter what its legal structure, <u>must have a management to be alive and function-</u> ing. (In this respect there is no difference between private enterprise, the nationalized industries of Great Britain, such old-established government monopolies as a Post Office, and the "ministries" and "trusts" of Communist Russia.)

That management is the specific organ of the business enterprise is so obvious that it tends to be taken for granted. But it sets management apart from all other governing organs of all other institutions. The Government, the Army or the Church—in fact, any major institution—has to have an organ which, in some of its function, is not unlike the management of the business enterprise. But management as such is the management of a *business* enterprise. And the reason for the existence of a business enterprise is that it supplies economic goods and services. To be sure, the business enterprise must discharge its economic responsibility so as to strengthen society, and in accordance with society's political and ethical beliefs. But these are (to use the logician's term) accidental conditions limiting, modifying, encouraging or retarding the economic activities of the business enterprise. The essence of business enterprise, the vital principle that determines_its nature, is economic performance.

The First Function: Economic Performance

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perf duty

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Management must always, in every decision and action, put economic performance first. It can only justify its existence and its

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1-13



THE PRACTICE OF MANAGEMENT

authority by the economic results it produces. There may be great non-economic results: the happiness of the members of the enterprise, the contribution to the welfare or culture of the community, etc. Yet management has failed if it fails to produce economic results. It has failed if it does not supply goods and services desired by the consumer at a price the consumer is willing to pay. It has failed if it does not improve or at least maintain the wealth-producing capacity of the economic resources entrusted to it

In this management is unique. A General Staff will ask itself quite legitimately whether its basic military decisions are compatible with the economic structure and welfare of the country. But it would be greatly remiss in its duty were it to start its military deliberations with the needs of the economy. The economic consequences of military decisions are <u>a secondary</u>, a limiting factor in these decisions, not their starting point or their rationale. A General Staff, being the specific organ of a military organization, must, by necessity, put military security first. To act differently would be a betrayal of its responsibility and dangerous malpractice. Similarly, management, while always taking into consideration the impact of its decisions on society, both within and without the enterprise, must always put economic performance first.

The first definition of management is therefore that it is an economic organ, indeed the specifically economic organ of an industrial society. Every act, every decision, every deliberation of management has as its first dimension an economic dimension.

とえ

Management's first job is managing a business

This apparently obvious statement leads to conclusions that are far from being obvious or generally accepted. It mplies both severe limitations on the scope of management and manager, and a major responsibility for creative action.

It means in the first place that the skills, the competence, the experience of management cannot, as such, be transferred and applied to the organization and running of other institutions. In particular a man's success in management carries by itself no promise —let alone a guarantee—of his being successful in government. A career in management is, by itself, not a preparation for major

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other. And while man can never really "master" his environment, while he is always held within a tight vise of possibilities, it is management's specific job to make what is desirable first possible and then actual. Management is not just a creature of the economy; it is a creator as well. And only to the extent to which it masters the economic circumstances, and alters them by conscious, directed action, does it really manage. To manage a business means, therefore, to manage by objectives. Throughout this book this will be a keynote.

Managing Managers - the second function

<u>To obtain economic performance there must be an enterprise</u>. Management's <u>second function</u> is therefore to <u>make a productive</u> <u>enterprise out of human and material resources</u>. <u>Concretely this is</u> the function of managing managers.

The enterprise, by definition, must be capable of producing more or better than all the resources that comprise it. It must be a genuine whole: greater than—or at least different from—the sum of its parts, with its output larger than the sum of all inputs.

The enterprise cannot therefore be a mechanical assemblage of resources. To make an enterprise out of resources it is not enough to put them together in logical order and then to throw the switch of capital as the nineteenth-century economists firmly believed (and as many of their successors among academic economists still believe). What is needed is a transmutation of the resources. And this cannot come from an inanimate resource such as capital. It requires management.

But it is also clear that the "resources" capable of enlargement can only be human resources. All other resources stand under the laws of mechanics. They can be better utilized or worse utilized, but they can never have an output greater than the sum of the inputs. On the contrary, the problem in putting non-human resources together is always to keep to a minimum the inevitable output-shrinkage through friction, etc. Man, alone of all the resources available to man, can grow and develop. Only what a great medieval political writer (Sir John Fortescue) called the "intencio populi," the directed, focused, united effort of free human beings, can produce a real whole. Indeed, to make the whole that is greater than the sum

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enough to make certain that the investment in managers, though, of course, never shown on the books, outweighs the investment in every other resource in practically all businesses. To utilize this investment as fully as possible is therefore a major requirement of managing a business.

To manage managers is therefore to make resources productive by making an enterprise out of them. And management is so complex and multi-faceted a thing, even in a very small business, that managing managers is inevitably not only a vital but a complex job.

Managing Worker and Work

The final function of management is to manage workers and work. Work has to be performed; and the resource to perform it with is workers-ranging from totally unskilled to artists, from wheelbarrow pushers to executive vice-presidents. This implies organization of the work so as to make it most suitable for human beings, and organization of people so as to make them work most productively and effectively. It implies consideration of the human being as a resource -that is, as something having peculiar physiological properties, abilities and limitations that require the same amount of engineering attention as the properties of any other resource, e. g., copper. It implies also consideration of the human resource as human beings having, unlike any other resource, personality, citizenship, control over whether they work, how much and how well, and thus requiring motivation, participation, satisfactions, incentives and rewards, leadership, status and function. And it is management, and management alone, that can satisfy these requirements. For they must be satisfied through work and job and within the enterprise; and management is the activating organ of the enterprise.

There is one more major factor in every management problem, every decision, every action—not, properly speaking, a fourth function of management, but an additional dimension: time. Management always has to consider both the present and the long-range future. A management problem is not solved if immediate profits are purchased by endangering the long-range profitability, perhaps even the survival, of the company. A management decision is irresponsible if it risks disaster this year for the sake of a grandiose

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ドラッカーへの旅

(知の巨人の思想と人生をたどる)

著者 ジェフリー・A・クレイムズ 訳者 有賀裕子 2009 年 8 月 30 日発行 ソフトバンク クリエイティブ株式会社発行

第1章 チャンスは自分でつかみとるもの(35~頁を読んで)

ドラッカーの住まいの内部は、実に質素で整然としており、目に入るのは、 本、日本の美術作品、淡い色のソファと椅子だけだ。

ファシズムを批判した処女作「経済人の終わり(1939年)」はウィンストン・ チャーチルの目に留まり、絶賛を浴びた。

ドイツのワハンブルクでアメリカ系大手金融機関の見習い社員として就職し たが、大暴落が起きて整理された。1929年イギリス系新聞社のフランクフルト 支局に勤務し、アメリカ産業界の動向を迫った。ドラッカーは記者生活を続け る中で、公法、および国際法の博士号を取得した。このころ、ヒットラーやゲ ッペルスにたびたびインタビューを行っている。

次にロンドンに移り、世界的な銀行で約3年間エコノミストの職に就いた。 この時期大学でケインズの講義を受ける。

1937年、同じドイツ系ユダヤ人のドリス・シュミットと結婚し、間もなくア メリカ合衆国へ移住する。

1942年にバーモント州のペニントン大学教授となり、GMの依頼により、GMの経営上層部の調査を行ない、約束により1946年「企業とは何か」を刊行し、 GMないし大企業の中枢におけるマネジメントの姿を描く。この記念碑的な作品は、分権制という実務に近い人々に判断の権限を委ねる仕組みの利点を説き、 飛ぶように売れた。1980年代にはフォーチェーン500社の4分の3以上が分権制を取り入れていた。

1950 年から 1971 年までの約 20 年間、ニューヨーク大学(現スターン経営大学院)の教授を勤めた。経営や社会をテーマに 30 冊を超える著作があり、日本 にもたびたび来日している。

2005年フレアモントの自宅にて 95歳で没する。

原文

孙子曰: 兵者, 国之大事也。死生之地, 存亡之道, 不可不 察也。

故经之以五,校之以计而索其情:一曰道,二曰天,三曰地, 四曰将,五曰法。道者,令民与上同意也。故可与之死,可与之 生,而不诡也。天者,阴阳、寒暑、时制也。地者,高下、远近、 险易、广狭、死生也。将者,智、信、仁、勇、严也。法者,曲 制、官道、主用也。凡此五者,将莫不闻,知之者胜,不知者不 胜。故校之以计,而索其情。曰:主孰有道,将孰有能,天地孰 得,法令孰行,兵众孰强,士卒孰练,赏罚孰明,吾以此知胜负 矣。

将听吾计,用之必胜,留之;将不听吾计,用之必败,去之。 计利以听,乃为之势,以佐其外。势者,因利而制权也。 兵者,诡道也。故能而示之不能,用而示之不用,近而示之 远,远而示之近。利而诱之,乱而取之,实而备之,强而避之, 怒而挠之,卑而骄之,佚而劳之,亲而离之。攻其无备,出其不 意。此兵家之胜,不可先传也。

夫未战而庙算胜者,得算多也;未战而庙算不胜者,得算少 也。多算胜,少算不胜,而况于无算乎,吾以此观之,胜负见矣。



1. 日産の再建

日本の経営者が、Why?と殺意をもって聞けば、下は本気でいい 仕事をする。そうしなければ、スペインやポルトガルのように、 かつての栄光を失い、経済小国になってしまう。日産はそうなり かけていた。

2. カルロス・ゴーンの再建の手法

(大前研一著 質問する力 2003.3 文芸春秋刊 を読んで)

ゴーン氏が行った日産の改革は、次の四つに要約できる。

- 部品のサプライヤーなど出入業者が 1,050 社あったのを、 600 社にまで減らした。
- ② そして、その仕入価格の 20% カットを行った。
- ③ 日産の OB が行っていた子会社、日産の資本の入っている 部品供給会社、販売会社から、全部 OB をやめさせて、血 縁関係をなくしたドライな関係に戻した。
- ④ゴーン氏が外国人であったこと。

日産が不調だったというのは、会社の持つ官僚的な体質が時 代にそぐわなくなったせいだ、逆にホンダのように反優等生 的な企業が好調なのは、人真似しないこと、自分で質問して 答を見つけてくからだと大前氏は考えている。

日産自動車の転落から再建にかけて

三方雅之

ウェブ(三方雅之氏から引用) 「一以下略」はウェブを確認されたい

第一章 日産はなぜ赤字になっていったのか?

本章では日産がなぜ転落していったかを考えていこうと思う。まず自動車 会社にとって最大の問題は工場をいかに稼働させるかっというのが問題であ る。日産自動車の工場は100%稼働していた。

しかしそれは販売台数を上回る車を作っていたことで、それが赤字の最大 の原因である。日産の工場は工場が自主的に生産過剰になっているのを判断 し、生産を止めるわけではなく工場はただただ車を作るという作業だけに徹 していた。そのため販売台数が落ちても生産は続けられていて、生産過剰と いう状態に陥っていた。

また日産の車種で売れていたのは 5 種類ぐらいしかなく、その中の一つも トヨタの同じような車種に抜かれつつあった。一以下略

第二章 日産のリバイバルプランを発足とそのきっかけ

日産は 91 年から 98 年までの 8 年で 7 回もの赤字を計上した。さらに 98 には負債が 2 超 1000 億にもなっていた。

日産の問題は財務だけではなかった。本業も低迷していた。

世界市場で 91 年に 6.6%あったシェアは、98 年には 4.9%と、実に 1.7%も 低下した。販売台数で表すと 60 万台以上の減少である。

「トヨタとホンダと日産に違いは一つしかなかった。それは販売をベース に生産体制を整えたのがトヨタとホンダである。日産はこれに対して清算を ベースに販売を整えた」と財部(2001)は述べている。つまり販売数量と生産数 量のバランスを考えずに生産を続けた結果、生産過剰から値引き販売、ブラ ンドイメージの低下、販売不振、生産過剰という悪循環が発生したと考えら れる。

また日産には顔がないことも問題とされている。一以下略

第三章 ルノーとの提携の経緯

さて日産はルノーとの提携によって様々な変化を遂げた。ではル ノーと日産の提携は一体どういうものであったのだろうか?

では日産はルノーから何を得たのかというところから考えてみたいと思う。

日産の CEO に就任したカルロス・ゴーン氏は、もともとルノーの 人間であり、ルノーと日産との提携を期に日産の CEO に就いた。そ れだけ日産の復活にルノーの存在は欠かすことのできない存在であ った。

ルノーと提携を結んだ頃の日産は赤字体質から抜け出す気配すら なく、どうすればいいのかというのを悩む日々であったと思われる。 そうした日産に対してルノーが最初に行ったことは、資金援助であ った。一以下略

第四章 工場閉鎖の経緯

さて少し話は戻るが日産はリバイバルプランによっていくつかの 工場を閉鎖することになった。その工場閉鎖については次の章で考 えることになる。

リバイバルプランのなかで最重要なことは、工場の閉鎖である。

自分の身の丈を忘れたトヨタへの過剰な意識から生まれた生産過 剰こそが、日産堕落の最大の要因でもあった。

[生産過剰→値引き販売→ブランドイメージの低下→販売不振→生 産過剰]と悪循環になっている。

この状態を脱するには生産を縮小しなければならない。そのため には世界トップクラスの工場でも閉鎖しなければならない状況であ った。一以下略

付 4

第五章 今後の日産の展望

第一節 ブランド力の強化

されこれまではルノーとの提携によってカルロス・ゴーンの CEO 就任によ ってリバイバルプランを遂行することになり日産自動車は意識改革から始ま り、工場閉鎖、コスト削減、部品などの合理化などを図り復活に力を注いでき ていた。

その結果日産自動車は息を吹き返したと言えるであろう。

しかし今と同じ事をいつまでもやっていても、いずれまたおおきな試練を迎 えてしまうと思う。そして以前のような悪循環を作らないためには今後どうす ればいいのであろうか?そして今後さらなる発展を日産自動車が目指すため には今後どうしていけばいいのだろうかということを考えていきたいと思う。

そのためにはいくつかの手段があると思う。そのいくつかの手段のうち一つ 目が、日産というブランド力の強化であると思う。一以下略

第二節 グループ化の強化

その一つがグループ化戦略ではないだろうか?一つ例をあげるとするとトヨタは以前からグループ関係の強化を強く口にしていた。

そのトヨタはダイハツ工場への出資率を 33%から 50%に引きあげることに して、ダイハツ工業を子会社にしてグループ拡大を図った勢力を強めている。

そのように今後の自動車メーカーはグループとしての強化が何よりも重要 であり、大きなグループだけが生き残っていく時代ではないであろうか。一以 下略

第六章 日産の未来

今後日産はどうなっていくのだろうか?上述したように今後の生き残り策 としてブランドカの強化、グループ化の強化などをあげた。そのような生き残 り策などを踏まえて日産の今後はどういったものになっていくのだろうか? また日産は何を今後目指していくのであろうかという疑問にあたると思う。

カルロス・ゴーン氏は今後の日産の未来について、今後のもしどんな問題が はっせいしてもほとんどの問題は全て内部に原因があることが多いと語って いる。

今回転落した原因も日産の内部で起こった問題がどんどん大きくなって大きな負債を抱えたりすることになったのが一番の例ではないだろうかと思う。

そのためにはカルロス・ゴーン氏はまず日産の本社の内部からの改革が必要 だと言っている。一以下略 "60 秒でサッと読めます" カルロス・ゴーンの日産リバイバルプラン



(会計にふくらみを 44)

平成24年12月5日(水)

有名なカルロス・ゴーンの日産リバイバルプランの実行の時の損益計算書は 次の通りである。それはやらなければならないことをやった結果である。

		· · ·				1
科目	1998 年度	1999 年度	2000年度	2001 年度	2002 年度	
17 1	(1998/4~1999/3)	(1999/4~2000/3)	(2000/4~2001/3)	(2001/4~2002/3)	(2002/4~2003/3)	
	十億円	十億円	十億円	十億円	十億円	
売 上 高	6,580	5,977	6,090	6,196	6,829	3
売 上 原 価	4,922	4,570	4,634	4,547	4,872	12
割賦販売利益調整高	0	2	0	1	_	
売 上 総 利 益	$1,\!659$	1,409	1,456	1,650	1,956	
(売上総利益率%)	(25.2)	(23.6)	(23.9)	(26.6)	(28.6)	2
販売費及び一般管理費	1,549	1,326	1,166	1,161	1,219	1
営業利益	110	83	290	489	737	4
(営業利益率%)	(1.7)	(1.4)	(4.8)	(7.9)	(10.8)	
営業外収益	116	62	89	27	61	
営業外費用	202	146	97	102	88	
経常利益	24	riangle 2	282	415	710	4
(経常利益率%)	(0.4)	(riangle 0.0)	(4.6)	(6.7)	(10.4)	
特別利益	30	39	88	67	89	
特别損失	55	750	81	118	105	1
税金等調整前当期純利益	riangle 1	riangle 713	290	364	695	
法人税、住民税及び事業税	14	41	68	87	113	
法人税等調整額	12	riangle 31	riangle 131	riangle 102	86	
少数株主利益	1	riangle 38	21	7	1	
当期純利益	riangle 28	riangle 684	331	372	495	4

1999年3月末日、日産の最高責任者となる

① 販管費など固定費の削減(歳出削減-出ずるを制す)に着手する

ルノーとの部品の共通化、購買の共同化、不振工場の閉鎖、子会社の統廃 合、余剰資産の売却、早期退職制度による人員の削減(余剰生産能力の削 減)

- ② 原価の削減による売上総利益(率)の向上(事業の再構築)
- ③ ①、②の後 売上高を上げる(明確なビジョン、従業員のやる気、ブランドカ) 2006 年度の売上高は 10,468 十億円、販売台数は 260 万台から 380 万台へ
- ④ 営業利益、経常利益、当期純利益が上がる(V字型回復)

1998年に2兆円あった有利子負債を削減、2003年6月には全額返済する

会計的に見ると、ゴーン氏の日産再建は、売上をあげることは後にして、先 ず(1)余剰生産能力の削減、(2)事業の再構築、ムダの排除と質の向上で利益を、 その後(3)売上の拡大により、更に利益の増加を図るという順序であった。

②(もしドラ3~4)北京外大レジュメ

(マーケティングとは?)

みなみは、入院している野球部のマネジャーの宮田夕紀の見舞に病院へ行っ た。夕紀は、野球部のマネジャーをしていたが、野球部が夏の大会の予選に負 けてすぐ、急に体調を崩して入院してしまったのだ。夕紀はみなみにとって、 幼なじみであると同時に、無二の親友でもあった。

みなみは鞄からマネジメントを取り出すとそれを開きながら言った。 「野球部とは一体何でしょう?」二人はみなみの疑問について意見を交換し合った。

1.2人は野球部とは何か、組織の定義づけについて話合った。

マネジメントというのは、先ず初めに、「組織の定義づけ」から始めなけれ ばならない。「マネジメントには、こうあるわ」とみなみは言った。

あらゆる組織において共通のものの見方、理解、方向づけを実現するには、 「われわれの事業は何か。何であるべきか」を定義することが不可欠であ る。

「つまり野球部をマネジメントするためには、先ず野球部は、どういう組織で、何をすべきかを、決めなければならないのよ」とみなみは言った。「野球部って、野球をするための組織じゃないの?」夕紀は、何気ない調子で言った。「それが違うらしいのよ」とみなみは言って、マネジメントの場所を指で示した。

2. 感動することと野球の定義

結局、**野球部の定義**は分からず終いだった。そこでみなみは、もう一度「マ ネジメント」を読み返した。

(1) 野球部は、野球をするための組織か?

…「夕紀はどうしてマネジャーになったの?」。夕紀は小学校の時の市の大会の決勝で、その時、みなみがサヨナラヒットを打った時の感動を、また味わいたいと思ってマネジャーになったと答えた。

(2) 夕紀は、あの時の感動を、また同じような感動を味わえるかもしれない と思って、野球部のマネジャーになりたいと思った。

(2)

(マネジメント・エッセンシャル版 9~16、22~26、29 頁)

- ○組織が存在するのは組織自体のためではない。組織は目的ではなく手段であ る。「その組織は何か」ではない。「その組織は何をなすべきか。機能は何か」 である。
- ○航空会社は貨物と乗客を運び、銀行は金を貸す。これは「その組織は何か」 に対する答にしかすぎない。「その組織は何をすべきか」の答ではない。実際には、「われわれの事業は何か」との問は、ほとんどの場合答えることが 難しい問題である。しかし、その答えを放置することはできない。
- ○中心となるのは、マーケティングとイノベーションである。なぜなら、顧客 が対価を支払うのは、この二つの分野における成果と貢献に対してだからで ある。
 - マーケティングの目標は一つではない。①既存の製品についての目標、②既 存製品の廃棄についての目標、③既存市場における新製品についての目標、 ④新市場についての目標、⑤流通チャンネルについての目標、⑥アフターサ ービスについての目標、⑦信用供与についての目標である。

事業を定義するとは、ある理念や価値によって表わすものではない。内部的に 考えたり、整理して結論を出しても企業としては全く意味はない。それが企業 の成果に結びつくことはない。

その問いは、企業を外部すなわち顧客と市場の観点から見て初めて答えること ができる。すなわち、顧客の価値、要求、期待、現実、状況からスタートすべ きである。それ以外には企業の役に立たない。

- ○企業とは営利組織であるという答は的はずれであるだけでなく害を与えている。利潤動機には意味がない。利潤動機によって人の行動を説明できる筈はない。(これも内部的な自己満足だと思う)
- ○企業の目的は外にある。企業は社会の機関であり、その目的は社会にある。 企業の目的の定義は一つしかない。それは顧客を創造することである。
- ○「顧客は誰か」の問いこそ、個々の企業の使命を定義するうえで、もっとも 重要な問いである。やさしい問いではない。答えのわかりきった問いでもな い。
- ○消費者だけが顧客ではない。顧客は常に一種類ではない。そして顧客によって、期待や価値観は異なる。買うものも異なる。

(現代の経営 第3章マネジメントへの挑戦)

○マネジメントに要求されるもの

分権化、柔軟性、自立性

環境への挑戦、変化への挑戦

これはプロセスに焦点を当てるということ、 (プロセスの管理) 技術や製品にではなくて・・・

マネジメントとはプロセスを効果的に管理することである。

○オートメーションとは何か (マネジメントすべきもの)

オートメーションは、仕事の組織についての概念である。従って 工場生産だけでなく、流通や事務の仕事の組織化にも適用される。

- ① それは概念であり、安定した一つの基本パターンが存在する
- ② 調和した一つの総体としての**プロセス**である
- ③ 目的と手段、投入と産出のバランスを図るための**コントロール** の概念である
- ① より多くの経営管理者を必要とする
- ② 責任と意思決定をトップに集中しようとする企業は恐竜のように亡びる
- ③ デジタル化は、非人間的機械的部分からのより高度な挑戦と思 える。
- ④ オートメーションの機械的部分を単に肉体的部分の効率化と 考え、それを組み入れたプロセスの調和を図り、プロセスをマ ネジメントすることが重要である。

オートメーションはプロセスであり、それを理解し、組織的に適用する国 がリーダー的な地位に立つことは疑う余地がない。

- (1) 20 世紀前半、大量生産を理解し、適用し、マネジメントすることに よって世界のリーダー的地位を得たアメリカ、
- (2) 今後は、オートメーションを理解し、それをプロセスとして適用する国が、その生産性と富において世界のリーダー的地位に立つ。

Man's task is separate on individual Automation task is systematic and comprehensive Division of labor CHAPTER is between () mol (3) 3 competence - akility gadget - useful small tool @ Automation is Man and Machine co-openation THE CHALLENGE TO MANAGEMENT @ t-1x-20000 flast # 5 & 1849 & Hunn # 1301-45K11 (2012) 1373 V-5-13 The new industrial revolution-Automation: science fiction and reality-What is Automation?-Conceptual principles, not techniques or gadgets-Automation and the worker-Automation, planning and monopoly-The demands on the manager. process, decentralization, flexibility imminent - happen very soon , management autonoming. compte competence - ability

MANAGEMENT faces the first great test of its competence and its hardest task in the imminent industrial revolution which we call "Automation."

A lot of rather lurid "science fiction" is being written today about Automation. The "push-button factory" is the least fantastic of them (though it, too, is largely nonsense). The coming of the new technology has revived all the slogans of the "planners" of the thirties. It is producing a new crop of penny-dreadfuls purporting to give us a glimpse of that nightmare, the technocrat's paradise, in which no human decisions, no human responsibility, no human management is needed, and in which the push button run by its own "electronic brain" produces and distributes abundant wealth.

Specifically we are being told in these mathematical romances that the new technology will require such capital investments as to make impossible all but the giant business. We are told—in Europe even more than here—that it will make almost inevitable the elimination of competition and will make both possible and necessary the nationalization of the resulting giant monopolies. We are told that the push-button factory of the future will have practically no workers (though who will buy the unlimited supply of goods being told). And those people that are still needed will be pure technicians—electronics engineers, theoretical physicists, mathematicians —or janitors. But managers will not be needed. Indeed, however much the prophets disagree on other points, they seem to be in emphatic agreement that managers will not be needed.

What Is Automation?

Yet every one of these assertions, conclusions and fears is the direct opposite of what the new technology really means. Indeed, we have enough examples of it around—in an oil refinery, for instance, or in a synthetic rubber plant—so that we do not have to speculate. We can show what Automation is and what its effects will be. speculate (speculate) guess

Automation is not "technical" in character. Like every technology it is primarily a system of concepts, and its technical aspects are results rather than causes.

The first concept is a metaphysical one: that there is a basic pattern of stability and predictability behind the seeming flux of phenomena. The second concept is one of the nature of work. The new technology does not, as did early individual production, focus on skill as the integrating principle of work. Nor does it, as did Henry Ford's concept of mass production, focus on the product as the organizing principle. It focuses on the process, which it sees as an integrated and harmonious whole. Its aim is to arrive at the best process—the process that will produce the greatest variety of goods with the greatest stability, at the lowest cost and with the least effort. Indeed the less variety and fluctuation there is in the process, the greater may be the variety of goods that can be produced.

Finally, the new technology has a concept of control to maintain the equilibrium between ends and means, output and effort. Auto-

unavoidable_

and to move it from one machine to the next. All materials handling—which contributes the bulk of unskilled repetitive work under mass production—can be mechanized. So can changes in machine setting and routine judgments (for instance, whether the machine has become too hot or the tool bit too blunt).

This mechanization is not, however, Automation itself. It is only the result of Automation and it is not essential to it. We have plenty of examples of effective mass production without a single conveyor belt; for instance, the sorting of checks in a clearing house. We will see examples of Automation without a single "automatic tool," let alone a single "push button."

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Techniques, tools and gadgets are thus in Automation, as in every technology, specific to the task and determined by it. They do not constitute Automation; nor does Automation consist in their application. Automation is a concept of the organization of work. It is therefore as applicable to the organization of distribution or of clerical work as to that of industrial production.

Automation and the Worker

The popular belief that the new technology will replace human labor by robots is utterly false.

"I was in charge of an analogue computer for some time," one of my students told me. "I am still appalled by the number of businessmen who believe that the machine was in charge of me."

Actually the new technology (though there will certainly be problems of displacement) will employ more people and, above all, more people who are highly skilled and highly trained.

A scant twenty years ago, it was widely believed that the massproduction technology—yesterday's industrial revolution—threw people out of work. Today we know that wherever it has been introduced, it has rapidly increased the number of job opportunities in industry. But it is still widely believed that mass production replaces skilled labor by unskilled labor. We know this today to be a fallacy. In the United States, for instance, where mass-production methods have been applied on the broadest scale, the class of employess that has been growing most rapidly in numbers and proportion is that of skilled and trained people. And the truly unskilled laborer of yesterday, who contributed only his brawn, has become new technology will demand the utmost in decentralization, in flexibility and in management autonomy. Any society in the era of the new technology would perish miserably were it to attempt to get rid of free management of autonomus enterprise so as to run the economy by central planning. And so would any enterprise that attempted to centralize responsibility and decision-making at the top. It would go under as did the great reptiles of the Saurian age who attempted to control a huge body by a small, centralized nervous system that could not adapt itself to rapid change in the environment.

For all of these reasons, no description of the nature of management will be complete that fails to take Automation into account. I am inclined to believe that Automation will not inundate us in a sudden flood but will seep in gradually though steadily. But there can be little doubt that it is coming. There can be little doubt that the industrial country that first understands Automation and first applies it systematically will lead in productivity and wealth during the second half of the twentieth century, just as the United States through understanding and applying mass production, came to lead the world during the first half of this century. And there is even less doubt that this leadership position will fall to the country whose managers understand and practice management in its fullest sense.

豆のこ前華 to lead the first of this century - just as the U.S.A. Through understanding and applying mass production.

200 1/2 \$ to lead the second half of the 20th certany - the first understands Automation and first applies it systematically



テクノロジー失業の襲来

(4月のごあいさつ)

平成25年4月1日(月)

沖縄は 22 度です。何か肌寒い感じがします。秋口、25 度位から 22 度になる のと春口 18 度位から 22 度になるのでは、少し寒さが違うようです。

「機械との競争」(2013 年日経 BP 社発行 エリック・ブリニュルフソン及びア ンドリュー・マカフィー著 村井章子訳)を読んでショックを受けた。情報技術が 雇用、技能、賃金、経済におよぼす影響についての MIT(マサチューセッツ工科 大学/研究チーム)による恐るべき最新レポートだ。

2007~9年のアメリカの大不況(Great Recession)は終結した。2010年、国内 総生産(GDP)は、年率2.6%の成長率を記録し、設備及びソフトウェアの投資は これまでのピークの95%にまで回復し、企業収益も史上最高水準に達したとい う。しかしアメリカ企業は大不況が終っても雇用を再開しなかった。失業率は 8%台から下がらず、労働年令人口の就業率は64%程度に止まっている。

仕事はどこへ行ってしまったのか?この社会現象は一体何を意味するのか? この問いに対する経済学者の説明は、①景気循環説 — ショックが大きすぎ て需要が不充分で、景気回復が弱い。1929年の大恐慌の後遺症ほどではないと しても。②停滞説 — 現在の苦境は景気循環の一局面ではなく、低迷、イノベ ーションを生み出す能力の長期的な低迷が原因だとする。手の届く枝から果実 が姿を消しつつあるということだ。③雇用喪失説 — 技術の進歩が早すぎ、人 間の役割が減っていく時代になった。本書はこの第3説の脅威を解説している。 数年先に、数10年先に、いつかの時点で、平均的な人間の従事している仕事を 機械がこなせるようになり、人は新たな職を見つけにくくなるという。

「人間の手が導かなくとも杼が布地を織り上げ、ばちが堅琴をかき鳴らすなら、 親方はもう職人がいらなくなるだろう – アリストテレス」(同書6頁から引用) コンピューターが人間の領分を今までにない速度と規模で浸食しはじめたので ある。

それがデジタルオートメーション、「第二の経済」の存在であるとする。ATM から現金を引出すとき、空港で自動チェックイン機を利用するとき、コンピュ ーターが自動車を運転するのを見たとき、テクノロジーが人手を駆逐したのに 気が付く。それが失業率の高止まりの原因、雇用喪失説だという。コンピュー ター(ハード、ソフト、ネットワーク)は、この先さらにパワフルに、高度になり、 人間の労働市場を脅かし、深刻で長期的な打撃を与えるのだ。人間のある種の スキルはこれまで以上に欠くことはできないが、それ以外の多くのスキルは高 度なデジタル時代には通用しなくなるかもしれない。ドラッカーが晩年になっ て、コンピューターは「愚か者」ではなく新しい産業の到来を告げるテクノロ ジーだと言った言葉(第四次情報革命)を想い出す。

(現代の経営 第4章シアーズ物語)

○**事業のマネジメントとは何か、**事業のマネジメントには何が必要か、

事業のマネジメントは何が原因で**変化**するか - この答はシアーズ・ローバックの物語に優るものはない

○農民の孤立した市場の理解と認識

- 新しい流通チャンネル

- ○五つの領域におけるイノベーション (第一期の事業環境への対応)
 - 農民のニーズに応える商品のメーカー
 - ② 大都市に行けない農民のための通信販売カタログ
 - ③ 売手は、「委細なく返却致します」
 - ④ 通信販売の低コスト輸送の発送工場
 - ⑤ 人間の組織を作りあげる

○経営者

リチャード・シアーズ(創業・社名)

- ジュリアス・ローゼンウォルド
- 第一期・農民ニーズに対応 オッド・ドアリング(発送工場)
- ー ロバート・E・ウッド(第二期・市場の変化、小売店に転換)
 ー T・V・ハウザー(組織と人材の育成)
- 時代の終りか(広報・女性向けファッション・通信販売)

(イノベーションとは?)

いかなる事業にも、三種類のイノベーションがある。すなわち、①製品と サービスにおけるイノベーション、②市場におけるイノベーションと消費 者の行動者価値観におけるイノベーション、③製品を市場へ持って行くま での間におけるイノベーションである。

eritable more exciting moto impressive ensuhl CHAPTER AF fuly THE SEARS STORY What is a business and how it is managed—Unexplored territory -Sears, Roebuck as an illustration-How Sears became a business -Rosenwald's innovations-Inventing the mail-order plant-General Wood and Sears's second phase-Merchandise planning and manager development-T. V. Houser and the challenges ahead. - V. 5 15 +++ Stor B WAY How to manage a business would seem to be of such importance as to insure a veritable flood of books on the subject. Actually there e almost none. Althought, Con thiss subject Wene published There are hundreds, if not thousands, of books on the manageare almost none. ment of the various functions of a business: production and marketing, finance and engineering, purchasing, personnel, public relaions and so forth (Bu) what it is to manage a business, what it requires, what management is supposed to do and how it should be doing it, have so the been neglected.¹ overshight This oversight is no accident. It reflects the absence of any tenable mistake mistake mistake instake out tenable tenable mistake the start out tenable tenchle theorizing ourselves, we shall therefore first take a good look at the -sesy to de conduct and behavior of an actual business enterprise And there is no better illustration of what a business is and what managing it means, that one of America's most successful enterprises: Sears, Roebuck and Company 2 ¹ The only exception I know of is the short essay by Oswald Knauth: Managerial Enterprise (New York: Norton, 1948). See also Joel Dean's Managerial Economics (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1951). Though Dean is concerned mainly with the adaptation of the economist's theoretical concepts and tools to business management, the book, especially its earlier, general parts, is required reading

² For the data on Sears I have drawn heavily on Emmet & Jenck Catalogues and

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for any manager.

人」からその変別目、 merchandise ride, classification to sell goods more explain THE PRACTICE OF MANAGEMENT Sears became a business around the turn of the century with the realization that the American farmer represented a separate and distinct market. (Separate, because of his isolation which made existing channels of distribution virtually inaccessible to him; distinct) because of his specific needs which, in important respects, were different from those of the city consumer. And while the farmer's purchasing power was individually low, it represented a tremendous, almost untached, buying potential in the aggregate. Smaller accounts if while a Un Tapp not To reach the farmer a new distribution channel had to be created. but not used Merchandise had to be produced to answer his needs and wants. It had to be brought to him in large quantities, at low price, and with a guarantee of regular supply. He had to be given a warranty of reliability and honesty on the part of the supplier, since his physical isolation made it impossible for him to inspect merchandise before delivery or to seek redress if cheated To create Sears, Roebuck as a business therefore required analysis of customer and market, and especially of what the farmer considered "value." Furthermore, it required innovation in five distinct areas. <u>(商</u>品町弦 First, it demanded systematic (merchandising), that is, the finding and developing of sources of supply for the particular goods the farmer needed, in the quality and quantity he needed them and at a price he could pay. Second) it required a mail-order catalogue capable of serving as adequate substitute for the shopping trips to the big city the farmer could not make. For this reason the catalogue had to become a regular publication rather than an announcement of spectacular "bargains" at irregular intervals. It had to break with the entire tradition of mail-selling and had to learn not to highpressure the farmer into buying by exaggerated boasts, but to give him instead a factual description of the goods offered. The aim had to be to create a permanent customer by convincing him of the reliability of the catalogue and of the company behind it; the catalogue had to become the "wish book" for the farmer. (Third) the age-old concept of "caveat emptop" had to be changed "caveat vendor"—the meaning of the famous Sears policy of our money back and no questions asked." Fourth, a way had to

Press, 1950), one of the best company histories written so far. For the interpretation of these data I am alone responsible, however; and I also bear sole

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be found to fill large quantities of customer orders cheaply and quickly. Without the mail-order plant, conduct of the business would have been physically impossible.

Finally, a human organization had to be built—and when Sears, Roebuck started to become a business, most of the necessary human skills were not available. There were, for instance, no buyers for this kind of an operation, no accountants versed in the new requirements of inventory control, <u>no</u> artists to illustrate the cata-logues, <u>no</u> clerks experienced in the handling of a huge volume of customer orders.

customer orders. ダ Richard Sears gave the company his name. But it was not he who Richard Sears gave the company his name. But it was not he who made it into a modern business enterprise. In fact, Sears's own operations could hardly be called a "business." He was a shrewd speculator, buying up distress-merchandise and offering it, one batch at a time, through spectacular advertising. Every one of his deals was a complete transaction in itself which, when finished, liquidated itself and the business with it. Sears could make a lot of

deals was a complete transaction in itself which, when hnished, liquidated itself and the business with it. Sears could make a lot of money for himself. But his way of operation could never found a business, let alone perpetuate it. In fact, he would have been forced out of business within a few years, as all the many people before him had been who operated on a similar basis.
It was Julius Rosenwald who made a business enterprise out of Sears in the ten years between 1895 when he took control, and 1905 when the Chicago mail-order plant was opened. He made the analysis of the market. He began the systematic development of merchandise sources. He invented the regular, factual mail-order catalogue and the policy of "satisfaction guaranteed or your money back." He built the productive human organization. He early gave to management people the maximum of authority and full responsibility for results. Later he gave every employee an ownership stake in the company bought for him out of profits. Rosenwald is thus the father not only of Sears, Roebuck bud of the "distribution revolution" which has made over twentieth century America and which is so vital a factor in our economic growth.
Only one basic contribution to the early history of Sears was not made by Rosenwald. The Chicago mail-order plant was designed by/Otto Doering in 1903. It was, five years before Henry Ford, the first modern mass-production plant, complete with breakdown of all work into simple repetitive operations, assembly

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line, conveyor belt, standardized, interchangeable parts-and, above all, with planned plant-wide scheduling.3

It was on these foundations that Sears had grown by the end of World War I into a national institution with its "wish-book" the only literature, outside of the Bible, to be found in many farm homes.

The second phase in the Sears story begins in the mid-twenties. Just as the first chapter was dominated by one man, Julius Rosenwald, the second chapter was dominated by another: General Robert E. Wood

By the mid-twenties, when Wood joined Sears, the original Sears market was changing rapidly. The farmer was no longer isolated; the automobile had enabled him to go to town and to shop there. He was no longer a distinct market but was, largely thanks to Sears, rapidly assimilating his way of life and his standard of living to those of the urban middle classes.

At the same time a vast urban market had come into being that was, in its way, as isolated and as badly supplied as the farmer had been twenty-five years earlier. The low-income groups in the cities had outgrown both their subsistence standards and their distinct "lower-class" habits. They were fast acquiring both the money and the desire to buy the same goods as the middle and upper classes. In other words, the country was rapidly becoming one big homogeneous market buy the distribution system was still one of separate and distinct class markets.

Wood had made this analysis even before he joined Sears. Out AFIX of it came the decision to switch Sears's emphasis over to retail 9 Xurt stores (equipped to serve) both) the motorized farmer (and) the city population.

体制酸 Again a whole series of innovations had to be undertaken to make ARTA this decision possible. To the finding of sources of supply and to the purchase of goods from them, merchandising had to add two new major functions: the design of products and the development of 实例) manufacturers capable of producing these products in large quan-9.9 Up

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tity. "Class market" products-for instance, refrigerators in the twenties-had to be redesigned for a "mass market" (with) limited purchasing power. Suppliers had to be created-often with Sears money and Sears-trained management—to produce these goods. This also required another important innovation: a basic policy for 8 the relations between Sears and its suppliers, especially those who depended on the company's purchases for the bulk of their business. Merchandise planning and research and the systematic building of hundreds of small suppliers capable of producing for a mass market had to be invented—largely by T. V. Houser, for many years the company's merchandising vice-president. They are as basic to mass distribution in Sears's second phase as mail-order house and cata-logue were in its first. And they are as distinct a contribution to the American economy.

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But to go into retail selling also meant getting store managers. Mail-order selling did not prepare a man for the management of a retail store. The greatest bottleneck for the first ten or fifteen years of Sears's retail operation, that is almost until World War II, was the shortage of managers. The most systematic innovations had to be in the field of manager development; and the Sears policies of the thirties became the starting point for all the work in manager development now going on in American industry.

Expansion into retail selling also meant radical innovations in organization structure. Mail-order selling is a highly centralized operation-or at least it has always been so in Sears. But retail stores cannot be run from headquarters two thousand miles away. They must be managed locally. Also only a few mail-order plants were needed to supply the country; but Sears today has seven hundred stores, each with its own market in its own locality. A decentralized organization structure, methods of managing a decentralized company, measuring the performance of store managers and maintaining corporate unity with maximum local autonomyall these had to be created to make possible retail selling. And new compensation policies had to be found to reward store managers for performance.

Finally, Sears had to turn innovator in respect to location, architecture and physical arrangement of the stores. The traditional retail store was unsuited for the Sears market. It was not

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and of providing it with an adequate parking lot. The whole concept of the retail store had to be changed. In fact, few people even at Sears realize how far this innovation has gone and how deeply it has influenced the shopping habits of the American people as well as the physical appearance of our towns. The suburban shopping center, touted today as a radical innovation in retail selling, is really nothing but an imitation of concepts and methods developed by Sears during the thirties.

The basic decisions underlying the expansion into retail stores were taken in the mid-twenties; the basic innovations had been made by the early thirties. This explains why Sears's volume of business and its profits grew right through depression, World War II and postwar boom. And yet, almost thirty years after these basic decisions were taken, they are still not fully carried through into practice.

Merchandise planning—the systematic design of quality goods for mass distribution, the systematic development of mass producers for them—<u>has still to be applied to the women's fashion field</u>. The traditional production organization for women's fashions—the New York "Garment District"—simply does not go with mass-distribution requirements. And <u>while Sears has been able to transform</u> other equally traditional industries to mass production and mass distribution—and is doing so today with singular success in Latin America—i<u>t has either been_unable or unwilling to change the</u> production system of women's fashion goods.

Another area in which the transition has not yet been completed is that of public relations. Sears, under Julius Rosenwald, pioneered in public relations; and everyone at Sears considers it a vitally important area. Yet although it was basic to the analysis that underlay the expansion into retail stores that the Sears market had become urban, at least in its shopping habits, <u>Sears's public</u> relations are still focused primarily on "Sears, the farmer's friend." In view of the reality of the Sears market, this can only be considered an agrarian nostalgia unsuited to the needs of the business.

General Wood retired from the chairmanship of Sears in the spring of 1954, and T. V. Houser took his place. This well symbolizes the end of an era for Sears, which now faces new problems and For the automobile that changed Sears's market once seems to be about to change it again. In most of our cities driving has become so unpleasant, and parking so difficult, that the automobile is rapidly ceasing to be an aid to the shopper and is becoming its own worst enemy. At the same time, the typical Sears customer, the housewife, tends more and more to be employed and at work during shopping hours. Or else she has small children and nobody to leave them with when she goes shopping.

12. If this interpretation is correct, Sears needs as searching an analysis of market and customer as was made in the two earlier turning points in its history. New objectives will have to be developed. A new type of distributive organization might be needed in which the local store becomes headquarters for order-taking salesmen, traveling (perhaps with a sample car) from house to house. Such a development might well be foreshadowed in the growing volume of door-to-door sales during the last few years. This change would almost certainly require new concepts of organization, new compensation policies and new methods. It would create a new problem of finding the right personnel as difficult as was finding retail store managers twenty years ago. Servicing the Sears products in the customer's home might well become of central importance-perhaps eventually as important as was the original money-back warranty of forty years ago. The bulk of customer buying might again shift to catalogue buying-though no longer by mail -either from a traveling salesman or over the telephone. And this in turn would require a technological change in the mail-order plant which, to this day, operates almost unchanged from the basic pattern developed fifty years ago by Otto Doering. The filling of customers' orders, whether received by mail, by telephone or through salesmen, would appear to demand a fully automatic plant based on a radical application of the principles of Automation and feed-back.

Even in merchandising there might be need for new objectives; for today's most important customer—the young married mother and housewife, who often holds down a job as well—is in many ways as distinct a market as the American farmer ever was in the days of his most complete isolation.

Once again, in other words, Sears may have to think through what its business is, where its markets are, and what innova-

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2-18

ドラッカーへの旅

(知の巨人の思想と人生をたどる)

著者 ジェフリー・A・クレイムズ 訳者 有賀裕子 2009年8月30日発行 ソフトバンク クリエイティブ株式会社発行

第2章 何よりも大切なのは学びである (48~頁を読んで)

著作には必ず、**どう行動するか**が経営の成否を決定づけると記さ れている。成果をあげる、組織をうまく動かす、備えを怠らない、 目標を達成する…。

ドラッカー思想を支える大きな前提は、「マネジメントの神髄は実 行にある」というものだ。企業が競争力を高めるためには実行力を 身につけなければならない。

○結果への責任をすべて果たす。

○自分の頭で徹底的に考え抜き、その結果をまわりにうまく伝える。
 ○ゼロから優先順位を考えなおす。

他社をしのぐ業績をあげるのは、時代遅れの戦略、製品、業務の やり方などを**捨てることができる**こと。このような過去を洗い流さ ないかぎり、組織の革新はありえない。

「捨てる」ことは、イノベーション実現のカギである。何かを諦めれば、そのおかげで必要なヒト、モノ、カネが得られる。

シアーズのイノベーション

- ① 農民のニーズ
- ④ 通信販売カタログ
- 信頼される売手
- ④ 通信販売のコスト低減
- ⑤ 人間の組織
- ⑥ 小売業への転換
- ⑦ その先・・・

原文

孙子曰: 凡用兵之法, 驰车千驷, 革车千乘, 带甲十万, 千 里馈粮; 则内外之费, 宾客之用, 胶漆之材, 车甲之奉, 日费千 金, 然后十万之师举矣。

其用战也, 胜久则钝兵挫锐, 攻城则力屈, 久暴师则国用不 足。夫钝兵挫锐, 屈力殚货, 则诸侯乘其弊而起, 虽有智者, 不 能善其后矣。故兵闻拙速, 未睹巧之久也。夫兵久而国利者, 未 之有也。故不尽知用兵之害者, 则不能尽知用兵之利也。

善用兵者,役不再籍,粮不三载,取用于国,因粮于敌,故 军食可足也。

国之贫于师者:远师者远输,远输则百姓贫。近师者贵卖, 贵卖则财竭,财竭则急于丘役。屈力中原,内虚于家,百姓之费 十去其七;公家之费,破车罢马,甲胄矢弩,戟盾矛橹,丘牛大 车,十去其六。

故智将务食于敌, 食敌一钟, 当吾二十钟, 惹秆一石, 当吾 二十石。

故杀敌者,怒也,取敌之利者,货也。故车战,得车十乘已 上,赏其先得者,而更其旌旗,车杂而乘之,卒善而养之,是谓 胜敌而益强。

故兵贵胜,不贵久。

故知兵之将, 民之司命, 国家安危之主也。



2

現代の経営(CHAPTER 4)

THE SEARS STORY (27~29 頁から一部引用)

What is a business and how it is managed—Unexplored territory—Sears, Roebuck as an illustration—How Sears became a business—Rosenwald's innovations —Inventing the mail-order plant—General Wood and Sears's second phase —Merchandise planning and manager development—T. V. Houser and the challenges ahead.

時代、代表者	顧客と市場[適切な問い]	イノベーション[答と実践]
(200前後のアメリカ) (1900 年~)	(顧客は誰か) (市場の分析)	(流通チャンネルの組成) (経営方針と実施)
シアーズ第1期	農民(孤立した存在)	どうようにして市場へ入り込むか
(20 世紀の最初の 30 年のために)	孤立した独自の市場 既存の流通チャンネ ルでは到達できない	流通チャンネルをどうするか メーリング発送工場 注文を効率的に、安価にさばく
偉大なイノベーシ ョンの実践		通信販売の発送工場 世界最大の大量生産工場
ジュリアス・ロー ゼンワルド	 一人ひとりは購買力は小さい 全体としては大きな市場 独自の巨大な市場 孤立した世界 	ニーズと欲末になる製品とカタログをどう変えるか 不定期から定期的なカタログ 宣伝より信頼、wish book 正直なカタログ、正直な販売者
1903 年シカゴ発送工場 オッド・ドアリング フォードに先んじること5年	孤立した世界の住人 都市の消費者とは異 なるニーズ チャンネルがない	農民は正直で信頼できる売手を求めている、継続的な事業 宣伝というより商品を客観的に説明できるもの 買物に行けない農民 危険負担は売手にある
アメリカ経済成長の型	農民にとって価値のあるものとは何か 事業のマネジメントとは何か マネジメントは何を行うべきか	安い価格で、安定的に、大量 に供給する必要性 商品のメーカーを見つけ育てる組織的な育成
第1次大戦の終り頃(1918) カタログと聖書は農家の必需品		システムと組織の確立 生産的な人間組織をどう作るか
商売、ビジネス-サヤ取り 的な発想の変革	市場ニーズ (不便さ)の解決とは	きっちりと商品配給できるシステム マネジメントに全権限と全責任 全従業員に自社株
	チャンネルを作れば そこは大きな市場	商売(商品提供)という概念の変更、変革 そのシステムを作り上げる商売、サヤ取り的な発想からの脱却
		事業とは継続 一時的なもうけではない

シアーズ物語①

時代、代表者	顧客と市場[適切な問い]	イノベーション[答と実践]
(1925~年)	(顧客の変化) (市場の分析)	(チャンネルに対応) (マネジメントの組成)
シアーズ第2期	農民は孤立した存在ではなくなった 巨大な農村市場の変化	どうようにして市場へ入り込むか
シアーズの市場の急激な変化 (1930~1960 の対応)		従来の流通システムは階層別市場に対して陳腐化 中央集権的組織(通信販売)の限界
ロバート・ウッド	自動車のおかげで町で買い物し、 生活水準の向上、中流化した 巨大な都市市場の出現	自動車を持つ農民と都市 人口は何を求めているか _(顧客対応)
	農民と都市労働者	店舗による小売業の必要性 中流階級向け商品の開発 冷蔵庫など上流品の設計変更 メーカーの育成
T・V・ハウザー 商品開発とメーカー組織化	都市の下流階層の所得上昇 と上流の階層と同じ商品欲求 国全体の同質的な市場 に対する対応とは何か 市場のニーズとは	小売業への進出の必然性 人の必要性 必需品商品の開発 大量生産できる数百社のメーカーの組織化 店舗を運営する店長の養成 組織構造の全面的な変革
人材の育成こそ、アメ リカ産業の発展の基礎	顧客層の明らかな変化 大量生産と大量流通の世界とはどんな世界か	分権化した組織の必要性 人材の必要性と育成 店舗ごとの店長の権限と業績評価 企業としての一体性と店舗の自立 店長と売場主任の体系的な育成
チャンネルは何か 変化への対応	事業のマネジメントとは何か マネジメントは何を行うべきか	買物の習慣の変化 「大量生産と大量流通への適応 」

時代、代表者	顧客と市場[適切な問い]	イノベーション[答と実践]
(1954~)	(将来の顧客) (将来の市場)	(イノベーションのヒント) (何を準備すべきか)
シアーズ第3期 ウッド会長退任	働く母親や主婦 働く母親や主婦とい	どのようにして市場へ入り込むか
ハウザー就任	う市場	
第3のイノベーション (1970 年~の対応)		主婦の勤務とシアーズの 営業時間
自らの事業は何か		訪問販売の可能性検討
市場はどこにあるか	顧客ニーズに応じるとは	再びカタログ販売か
どのようなイ ノベーション が必要か	ニーズ(不便さ)の 解決とは	オートメーションとフィードバ ックの原理を徹底的に適用した オートメーション工場の必要性
	事業のマネジメントとは何か マネジメントは何を行うべきか (何故第3回のイノベーシ	イノベーションとは付加 価値を付けることである、 経済学では土地や設備や 資金(資本)が付加価値を生
新しいチャン ネルは何か	ョ ンが出来なかったのか) イノベーションは(必要 性の)変化への対応である	むとされる。 経営においてはマネジメ ントの活動(イノベーショ ン)が付加価値を生産する

付





Sears may have to think through what its business is what inductions are needs. Where its market are.

1900 — The sales department will sell whatever the plant produces.

1950 — It is our job what market needs.

2000 -

Five elements to reserve

systematic merchandizing for the farmer.	商品開発	(1)道
a regular mail-order catalogue not for bargains	定期的なカタログ	(2)天
the concept of caveat venderar "your money back	満足商品の提供	(3)地
and no questions ashed"	(迄はお金は貴方のもの)	
the mail-order plants for large quantities of customer	製商品供給工場	(4)将
orders cheaply and quickly.		
a human organization had to be built.	マネジメント組織	(5)法
	the mail-order plants for large quantities of customer	a regular mail-order catalogue not for bargains the concept of caveat venderar "your money back and no questions ashed" the mail-order plants for large quantities of customer orders cheaply and quickly.

③ (もしドラ 5~6) 北京外大レジュメ

(イノベーションとは?)

会計と経営のブラッシュアップ

平成 25 年 9 月 16 日

山内公認会計士事務所

(登場人物)

- 川島みなみ都立程久保高校野球部のマネジャー
- 宮田夕紀 みなみの幼なじみ。野球部マネジャー(入院中)
- 星 出 純 キャプテン、四番バッター
- 柏木次郎 みなみの幼なじみ。キャッチャー
- 浅野慶一郎 野球部のエース
- 二階正義 野球部の補欠、マネジメントチームの一員、後のキャプテン
- 加 地 誠 野球部の監督

1. 野球部の顧客の定義は何か、顧客はどこにいるのか

みなみには、野球部の定義が「**野球をすること」**でないように、 野球部の顧客が「試合を見にくる人」というのもやっぱりしっく りこなかった。

(1)われわれの事業は何か、ミッションは何か

成功を収めている企業の成功は、「われわれの事業は何か」を 問い、その問いに対する答えを考え、明確にすることによっ てもたらされている。その問いは、企業を外部、すなわち顧 客と市場の観点から見て初めて答えることができる。 シアーズの物語をそれによく答えてくれる。

(2) 顧客は誰か

顧客「お客さん」が野球部にどうあてはまるのか分からなかった。「顧客とは何を指すのか。」誰なんだろう? 野球部の定義が「野球をすること」ではないように、野球部 の顧客が「観客」というのもやはり正しくないような気がした。ドラッカーが言うように、それが「やさしい問いではない」ことだけはよく分かった。 3

(3)

(1) 合宿のとき、みなみは野球部の観察をした

しかし、みなみは部員たちとコミュニケーションをはかるこ とがなかなかうまくできなかった。 野球部を観察して、すぐに気がついたことがあった。 エースの2年生の浅野慶一郎と監督の加地との間には目に見 えない壁のようなものがあった。

何かしっくり行かない弱いチームだ。仕方なく、キャプテン の星出純に尋ねてみた。彼は言いにくそうに、夏の大会で、 監督の加地の交代のさせ方に納得がいかなかったらしい。そ れ以来ずっとくさっているのだと言った。慶一郎はいつも決 まった少数の仲間といるか、一人の時は誰も寄せつけない雰 囲気であった。監督も部員とあまり話をしたがらない。どこ か他人行儀なところがあった。みなみは、暗い気持になった が、へこたれはしなかった。

(2) ドラッカーのマネジメント

迷ったらこの本に帰る。答は、必ずこの本の中にある。これ は単なる直感にすぎなかったが、みなみは一つの信念とした。 直感はこれまでずっと自分を助けてくれた大切なナビゲータ だった。誰もいなくなった食堂で、みなみは1人、「マネジメ ント」を読んでいた。これを読むと、みなみは落着き、元気 が出てくるのだ。

「何読んでるの?」と、突然後から声をかけられた。振り向 くと、補欠の二階正義が立っていた。彼は部員の中でも一番 野球が下手だった。みなみは、「マネジメント」の表紙を見せ た。「あれ、ドラッカーじゃないか」みなみは驚いた。「知っ てるの?」「知ってるも何も、大ファンなんだ。おれドラッカ ーならほとんど読んだぜ」正義は、みなみと「マネジメント」 を交互に見ながら、「野球部の女子マネジャーが、野球部のマ ネジメントをするのか」と驚いたように言った。

補欠の二階正義は野球は下手だったが、ドラッカーを読んで いた。 (マネジメント・エッセンシャル版 2~3、9~10、22~28 頁)

事業は何か、あらゆる組織において、共通のものの見方、理解、方 向づけ、努力を表現するには、「われわれの事業は何か。何であるべ きか」を定義することが不可欠である。われわれの事業はサービス であるとしたヴェイルの言葉こそ考え抜かれた定義である。

もしドラの特色(他にない長所)は、この点を問いつめていることで ある。「われわれの事業は何か、われわれのミッションは何か」この 問いを明確にすることによって、企業の姿が変わる。

- ○企業の目的と使命を定義するとき。出発点は一つしかない。 顧客を満足させることこそ、企業の使命であり目的である。した がって、「われわれの事業は何か」の問いは、企業を外部すなわち 顧客と市場の観点から見て、初めて答えることができる。
- ○したがって「顧客は誰か」の問いこそ、個々の企業の使命を定義 するうえで、もっとも重要な問いである。やさしい問いではない。 まして答えのわかりきった問いではない。しかるにこの問いに対 する答えによって、企業が自らをどう定義するかがほぼ決まって くる。

われわれのボスは誰か。顧客である。

○組織が存在するのは、組織自体のためではない。自らの機能を果たすことによって、社会、コミュニティ、個人のニーズを満たすためである。組織は目的ではなく手段である。したがって問題は、「その組織は何か」ではない。

「その組織は何をなすべきか、機能は何か」である。

それら組織の中核の機関、組織を働かせ、機能させるものがマネジ メントである。

1920年代シアーズが成功した秘密の一つは、顧客がそれまでとは違う場所にいることを発見したこととなった。農民は自動車を持ち、町で買い物をするようになっていた。

(現代の経営 第5章 事業とは何か)

○シアーズ物語から得られる第一の結論は、企業は人が創造し、人 がマネジメントすると言うことである。

人以外の「力」がマネジメントするものではない。

○経済的な力(市場の力)は機会(チャンス)でもあり、それ自体は力で あるが、それ自体では、事業が何であり、何をするかを決定しな い。マネジメントは、市場の力に事業を適用させるだけであると いうのはばかげている。市場の力を見い出すとともに、自らの行 動によって市場の力を生み出す。そしてそれぞれには必ず人を必 要とする。シアーズは繁栄を続けるか衰退するか、生き残るか消 減するかを決める意思決定のために、人を必要とした。

○具体的な表現が必要

抽象的な表現(あらゆる。管理する。明確にする。統合する…といった表現)からは、具体的な目的や現実は生まれない。 「利益最大化」という抽象的な表現は、あまりに一般的かつ曖昧なものとなってしまい、具体的な目的からはずれ、あらゆる目的を 網羅するような抽象的な表現になっている。

○事業の目的は外にある。

事業の目的として有効な定義はただ一つ。それは**顧客を創造する** ことである。

顧客が必要と考えるもの、価値と考えるものが、決定的に重要である。それらのものこそ事業が何であり、事業が成功するか否か を決定する。顧客が事業の土台であり、事業の存在を支える。 **顧客だけが雇用を創出する**。

市場は、神や自然や経済的な力によって創造されるのではない。 人によって創造される。従って事業の目的は外にある。

○マーケティング(市場の受入れ)

「工場が生産したものを販売する」→「市場が必要とするものを 提供する。」

○イノベーション(変化と成長)

企業とは、成長、拡大、変化のための機関である。 より優れた、より経済的な財やサービスを創造する。

○生産性の向上

それは肉体労働によって実現されない。 逆に、生産性の向上は、つねに肉体労働をなくす努力、肉体労働 を他のものに置き換える努力によってもたらされる。 patronable - plinicipt neuson

false idea

CHAPTER 5

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Business created and managed by people, not by forces—The fallacy of "profit maximization"—Profit the objective condition of economic activity, not its rationale—The purpose of a business: to create a customer—The two entrepreneurial functions? <u>marketing</u> and <u>innovation</u>—Marketing not a specialized activity—The General Electric solution—The enterprise as the organ of economic growth—The productive utilization of all wealth-producing resources—What is productive labor?—Time, product mix, process mix and <u>organization structure</u> as factors in productivity—The function of profit—How much profit is required?—Business management a rational activity.

@ innovation marketing @ phoducture lij Time, -> Not proof it productions, process mix, organization st. Business THE first conclusion to be drawn from the Sears story is that a business enterprise is created and managed by people. It is not managed by "forces." Economic forces set limits to what management can do. They create opportunities for management's action. But they, by themselves, do not determine what a business is or

But they, by themselves, do not determine what a business is or what it does. Nothing could be sillier than the oft-repeated assertion that "management only adapts the business to the forces of the market." Management not only finds these "forces"; management creates) them by its own action. Just as it took a Julius Rosenwald fifty years ago to make Sears into a business enterprise, and a General Wood twenty-five years ago to change its basic nature and thus insure its growth and success during the depression and World War II, it will take somebody—and probably quite a few people to make the decisions that will determine whether Sears is going to continue to prosper or will decline, whether it will survive or destroyed will eventually perish. And that is true of every business.

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The second conclusion is that a business cannot be defined or explained in terms of profit.

The average businessman when asked what a business is, is likely to answer: "An organization to make a profit." And the average economist is likely to give the same answer. But this answer is not only false; it is irrelevant.

Similarly, there is total bankruptcy in the prevailing economic theory of business enterprise and behavior: the theory of the "maximization of profits"—simply a complicated way of phrasing the old saw of "buying cheap and selling dear. This theorem may adequately explain how Richard Sears operated. But it is bankrupt precisely because it cannot explain how Sears, Roebuck—or any other business enterprise—operates, nor how it should operate.

This shows clearly in the attempts the economists themselves must make to salvage the theorem. Joel Dean, the most brilliant and fruitful of the economists analyzing business today, still maintains the theorem as such. But this is how he defines it:

Economic theory makes a fundamental assumption that maximizing profits is the basic objective of every firm. But in recent years "profit maximization" has been extensively qualified by theorists to refer to the long run; to refer to management's rather than to owners' income; to include non-financial income such as increased leisure for high-strung executives and more congenial relations between executive levels within the firm; and to make allowance for special considerations such as restraining competition, maintaining management control, warding off wage demands, and forestalling anti-trust suits. The concept has become so general and hazy that it seems to encompass most of men's aims in life.

This trend reflects a growing realization by theorists that many firms, and particularly the big ones, do not operate on the principle of profit maximizing in terms of marginal costs and revenues. . . .¹

Surely a <u>theorem</u> that can be used only when qualified out of existence has ceased to have meaning or usefulness.

This does not mean that profit and profitability are unimportant. - the It does mean that profitability is not the purpose of business enterprise and business activity but a limiting factor on it. Profit is not the explanation, cause or rationale of business behavior and business decisions, but the test of their validity. If archangels, instead of prop Managerial Economics (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1951), page 28.

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businessmen, sat in directors' chairs, they would still have to be concerned with profitability despite their total lack of personal interest in making profits. And this applies with equal force to those far from angelic individuals, the Commissars who run Soviet Russia's business enterprises. For the problem of any business is not the maximization of profit but the achievement of sufficient profit to cover the risks of economic activity and thus to avoid loss. The root of the confusion is the mistaken belief that the motive

The root of the confusion is the mistaken belief that the motive of a person—the so-called "profit motive" of the businessman—is an explanation of his behavior or his guide to right action. Whether there is such a thing as a profit motive at all is highly doubtful. It was invented by the classical economists to explain economic behavior that otherwise made no sense. Yet there has never been any but negative evidence for the existence of the profit motive. And we have long since found the true explanation of the phenomena of economic change and growth which the profit motive was first put forth to explain.

But it is irrelevant for an understanding of business behavior, including an understanding of profit and profitability, whether there is a profit motive or not. That Jim Smith is in business to make a profit concerns only him and the Recording Angel. It does not tell us what Jim Smith does and how he performs. We do not learn anything about the work of a prospector, hunting for uranium in the Nevada desert, by being told that he is trying to make his fortune. We do not learn anything about the work of a heart specialist by being told that he is trying to make a livelihood, or even that he is trying to benefit humanity. The profit motive and its offspring, maximization of profits, are just as irrelevant to the function of a business, the purpose of a business and the job of managing a business.

In fact, the concept is worse than irrelevant. It does harm. It is a major cause for the misunderstanding of the nature of profit in our society and for the deep-seated hostility to profit which are among the most dangerous diseases of an industrial society. It is largely responsible for the worst mistakes of public policy—in this country as well as in western Europe—which are squarely based on a lack of understanding of the nature, function and purpose of business enterprise.

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The Purpose of a Business

If we want to know what a business is we have to start with its *purpose*. And its purpose must lie outside of the business itself. In fact, it must lie in society since a business enterprise is an organ of society. There is only one valid definition of business purpose: to create a customer.

Markets are not created by God, nature or economic forces (but by businessmen. The want they satisfy may have been felt by the customer before he was offered the means of satisfying it. It may indeed, like the want for food in a famine, have dominated the customer's life and filled all his waking moments. But it was a theoretical want before; only when the action of businessmen makes it effective demand is there a customer, a market. It may have been an unfelt want. There may have been no want at all until business action created it—by advertising, by salesmanship, or by inventing something new. In every case it is business action that creates the customer.

It is the customer who determines what a business is. For it is the customer, and he alone, who through being willing to pay for a good or for a service, converts economic resources into wealth, things into goods. What the business thinks it produces is not of first importance—especially not to the future of the business and to its success. What the customer thinks he is buying, what he considers "value," is decisive—it determines what a business is, what it produces and whether it will prosper.

The customer is the foundation of a business and keeps it in existence. He alone gives employment. And it is to supply the consumer that society entrusts wealth-producing resources to the business enterprise.

The Two Entrepreneurial Functions

Because it is its purpose to create a customer, any business enterprise has two—and only these two—basic functions: <u>marketing</u> and innovation. They are the entrepreneurial functions.

<u>Marketing is the distinguishing</u>, the unique function of the business. A business is set apart from all other human organizations by the fact that it markets a product or a service. Neither Church,

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nor Army, nor School, nor State does that. Any organization that \Im fulfils itself through marketing a product or a service, is a business. Any organization in which marketing is either absent or incidental is not a business and should never be run as if it were one.

The first man to see marketing clearly as the unique and central function of the business enterprise, and the creation of a customer as the specific job of management, was Cyrus McCormick. The history books mention only that he invented a mechanical harvester. But he also invented the basic tools of modern marketing: market research and market analysis, the concept of market standing, modern pricing policies, the modern service-salesman, parts and service supply to the customer and installment credit. He is truly the father of business management. And he had done all this by (1850) It was not until fifty years later, however, that he was widely imitated even in his own country.

The economic revolution of the American economy since 1909 has in large part been a marketing revolution caused by the assumption of responsibility for creative, aggressive, pioneering marketing by American management. Fifty years ago the typical attitude of the American businessman toward marketing was still: "The sales department will sell whatever the plant produces." Today it is increasingly: "It is our job to produce what the market needs." But our economists and government officials are just beginning to understand this: only now, for instance, is the U. S. Department of Commerce setting up an Office of Distribution.

In Europe there is still almost no understanding that marketing is the specific business function—a major reason for the stagnation of the European economies of today. For to reach full realization of the importance of marketing requires overcoming a deep-rooted social prejudice against "selling" as ignoble and parasitical, and in favor of "production" as gentlemanly, with its resultant theoretical fallacy of considering production as the main and determining function of a business.

A good example of this historical attitude toward marketing are those big Italian companies which have no domestic sales managers even though the home market accounts for 70 per cent of their business.

Actually marketing is so basic that it is not just enough to have a strong sales department and to entrust marketing to it. Marketing

トヨタ ハッブリカ タシレオン is not only much broader than selling, it is not a specialized activity at all. It encompasses the entire business. It is the whole business seen from the point of view of its final result, that is, from the customer's point of view. Concern and responsibility for marketing must therefore permeate all areas of the enterprise.

One illustration of this concept of marketing is the policy worked out by the General Electric Company over the last ten years, which attempts to build customer and market appeal into the product from the design stage on. It considers the actual act of selling but the last step in a sales effort that began before the first engineer put pencil to drawing paper. This, according to a statement in the company's 1952 annual report, "introduces the marketing man at the beginning rather than the end of the production cycle and would integrate marketing into each phase of the business. Thus marketing, through its studies and research, will establish for the engineer, the designer and the manufacturing man what the customer wants in a given product, what price he is willing to pay, and where and when it will be wanted. Marketing would have authority in product planning, production scheduling and inventory control, as well as in the sales distribution and servicing of the product."

The Enterprise as the Organ of Economic Growth

But marketing alone does not make a business enterprise. In a static economy there are no "business enterprises." There are not even "businessmen." For the "middleman" of a static society is simply a "broker" who receives his compensation in the form of a fee.

A business enterprise can exist only in an expanding economy, or at least in one which considers change both natural and desirable. And business is the specific organ of growth, expansion and change. The second function of a business is therefore *innovation*, that is,

The second function of a business is therefore *innovation*, that is, the provision of better and more economic goods and services. It is not enough for the business to provide just any economic goods and services; it must provide better and more economic ones. It is not necessary for a business to grow bigger; but it is necessary that it constantly grow better.

<u>Innovation</u> may take the form of lower price—the form with which the economist has been most concerned, for the simple reason that it is the only one that can be handled by his quantitative tools. But it may also be a new and better product (even at a higher

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price), a new convenience or the creation of a new want. It may be finding new uses for old products. A salesman who succeeded in selling refrigerators to the Eskimos to prevent food from freezing would be an <u>"innovator"</u> quite as much as if he had developed brand-new processes or invented a new product. To sell the Eskimos a refrigerator to keep food cold, is finding a new market; to sell a refrigerator to keep food from getting too cold is actually creating a new product. Technologically there is, of course, only the same old product; but economically there is innovation.

(2) Innovation goes right through all phases of business. It may be innovation in design, in product, in marketing techniques. It may be innovation in price or in service to the customer. It may be innovation in management organization or in management methods. Or it may be a new insurance policy that makes it possible for a businessman to assume new risks. The most effective innovations in American industry in the last few years were probably not the much publicized new electronic or chemical products and processes but innovations in materials handling and in manager development.

Innovation extends through all forms of business. It is as important to a bank, an insurance company or a retail store as it is to a manufacturing or engineering business.

In the organization of business enterprise innovation can therefore no more be considered a separate function than marketing. It is not confined to engineering or research but extends across all parts of the business, all functions, all activities. It is not, to repeat, confined to manufacturing business alone. Innovation in distribution has been as important as innovation in manufacturing; and so has been innovation in an insurance company or in a bank.

The leadership in innovation with respect to product and service can normally be focused in one functional activity which is responsible for nothing else. This is always true in a business with a strong engineering or chemical flavor. In an insurance company, too, a special department charged with leadership responsibility for the development of new kinds of coverage is in order; and there might well be another such department charged with innovation in the organization of sales, the administration of policies and the settling of claims. For both together are the insurance company's business. (現代の経営 第6章 われわれの事業は何か、何でなければならないのか)

○事業とは何かに対して、正しい問いを明確に発し、これに十二分に検討して正確に答えることが事業存続のポイントとなるが、何故それが難しいのか。
 (事業とは何かを考えていない、全社的な問である、難しい問である、事業環境が変化する、内部が決めるものでなくて外部が決める)

○事業の本質 ― 簡単な言葉

アメリカの電信電話会社(ATT) — 「われわれの事業はサービスである」

(考え抜かれた末の回答である、表面的なものでなく真実である、 事実である)

- ○正面から真剣に受け止めるべき客観的な事実
 一 顧客が見、考え、欲するものこそ
 (企業の憶測ではない、決定権者の回答である、憶測と回答の違い)
- ○事業の失敗の最大原因
 (事業とは何かの問を明確に発し、十分に検討しないこと、事業が 成功している時に問う)
- ○顧客は何を買うか ― キャデラックの例
 (顧客は誰か、どのように買うか、ヒューズ Box メーカーの例)
- ○顧客にとって価値とは何か、何に支払っているか
 (正面から真剣に受けとめるべき客観的な事実、外部からの視点、 キャデラックの成功とパッカードの失敗)
- ○われわれの事業はなんでなければならないか、市場の変化 (何が最も重要であり、将来性があるか)
- ○自らの企業が何かという問いに答えることほど、簡単にわかりきったことはないかに見える。しかし、これに答えることは、つねに難しく、徹底的な思考と検討なくしては答えることはできない。

WHAT IS OUR BUSINESS— AND WHAT SHOULD IT BE?

What is our business, neither easy nor obvious—The Telephone Company example—Failure to answer the question a major source of business failure—Success in answering it a major reason for business growth and results—Question most important when business is successful—Who is the customer?—What does the customer buy?—Cadillac and Packard—What is value to the customer?—What will our business be?—What should our business be?—Profitability as an objective.

NOTHING may seem simpler or more obvious than to answer what a company's business is. A steel mill makes steel, a railroad runs trains accept to carry freight and passengers, an insurance company underwrites financial fire risks. Indeed, the question looks so simple that it is seldom risk raised, the answer seems so obvious that it is seldom given.

Actually "what is our business" is almost always a difficult question which can be answered only after hard thinking and studying. And the right answer is usually anything but obvious.

One of the earliest and most successful answers to the question was the one that Theodore N. Vail worked out for American Telephone and Telegraph almost fifty years ago: "Our business is service." This sounds obvious once it has been said. But first there had to be the realization that a telephone system, being a natural monopoly, was susceptible to nationalization, that indeed a privately owned telephone service in a developed and industrialized country was exceptional and needed community support for its survival. Secondly there had to be the realization

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that community support could not be obtained by propaganda campaigns or by attacking critics as "un-American" or "socialistic." It could only be obtained by creating customer-satisfaction. This realization meant radical innovations in business policy. It meant constant indoctrination in dedication to service for all employees; and public relations which stressed service. It meant emphasis on research and technological leadership; and a financial policy which assumed that the company had to give service wherever there was a demand, and that it was management's job to find the needed capital and to earn a return on it. In retrospect all these things are obvious; but it took well over a decade to work them out. Yet would we have gone through the New Deal period without a serious attempt at telephone nationalization but for the careful analysis of its business that the Telephone Company made around 1905?

What is our business is not determined by the produce but by the consumer. It is not defined by the company's name, statutes or articles of incorporation but by the want the consumer satisfies when he buys a product or a service. The question can therefore be answered only by looking at the business from the outside, from the point of view of the customer and the market. What the consumer sees, thinks, believes and wants at any given time must be accepted by management as an objective fact deserving to be taken as seriously as the reports of the salesman, the tests of the engineer or the figures of the accountant—something few managements find it easy to do. And management must make a conscious effort to get honest answers from the consumer himself rather than attempt to read his mind]

It is, then, the first responsibility of top management to ask the question "what is our business?" and to make sure that it is carefully studied and correctly answered. Indeed, the one sure way to tell whether a particular job is top management or not is to ask whether its holder is expected to be concerned with, and responsible for, that answer.

That the question is so rarely asked—at least in a clear and sharp form—and so rarely given adequate study and thought, is perhaps the most important single cause of business failure. Conversely, wherever we find an outstandingly successful business we will almost always find, as we did in the case of the Telephone Company or in that of Sears, that its success rests to a large extent on raising the question clearly and deliberately, and on answering it thoughtfully and thoroughly.

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"What Is Our Business?" Most Important in Successful Business

The example of Sears also shows that it is not a question that needs to be raised only at the inception of a business or when the company is in trouble. <u>On the contrary</u>: to raise the question and to study it thoroughly is most needed when a business is successful. For then failure to raise it may result in rapid decline.

At the very inception of a business, the question often cannot be raised meaningfully. The man who mixes up a new cleaning fluid and peddles it from door to door need not know more than that his mixture does a superior job taking stains out of rugs and upholstery fabrics. But when the product catches on; when he has to hire people to mix it and to sell it; when he has to decide whether to keep on selling it directly or through retail stores, whether through department stores, supermarkets, hardware stores or through all three; what additional products he needs for a full "line"—then he has to ask and to answer the question: "what is my business?" If he fails to answer it when successful, he will, even with the best of products, soon be back wearing out his own shoe leather peddling from door to door.

It is as important a question in a business that appears to have little control over what it produces physically—a copper mine, for instance, or a steel mill—as in a business such as a retail store or an insurance company, that seems to have a great deal of control. To be sure, a copper mine produces copper. If there is no demand for copper, it will have to shut down. But whether there is demand for copper depends substantially on management's action in creating markets, in finding new uses, and in spotting, well in advance, market or technological developments that might create opportunities for copper or threaten existing uses.

The product-determined or process-determined industries—steel making, petroleum chemistry, mining or railroading—differ from the rest only in their being, inevitably, in many businesses rather than in one. This means that they have a much more difficult task deciding which of the wants that customers satisfy with their products are most important or most promising.

What failure to do so can mean is shown by the fate of the American anthracite coal industry and by the steady decline of the railroads' competitive position in the freight and passenger business. Neither industry, it can be asserted with confidence, *need* have tumbled from the high estate it occupied less than a generation ago had managements thought through what business they were in, instead of considering the question so obvious as to answer itself. 2-18

Who Is the Customer?

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The first step toward finding out what our business is, is to raise the question: "Who is the customer?"—the actual customer and the potential customer? Where is he? How does he buy? How can he be reached?

One of the companies that had come into existence during World War II decided after the war to go into the production of fuse boxes and switch boxes for residential use. Immediately it had to decide whether its customer should be the electric contractor and builder or the homeowner making his own electric installations and repairs. To reach the first would require a major effort at building a distributive organization; the homeowner could be reached through the mail-order catalogues and retail stores of such existing distributive organizations as Sears, Roebuck and Montgomery Ward.

Having decided in favor of the electrical contractor as the larger as well as the stabler (though the more difficult and much more competitive) market, the company had to decide where the customer was. This innocent-sounding question required major analysis of population and market trends. In fact, to go by past experience would have meant disaster to the company. It would have led them to look for their customer in the big cities—and the postwar housing boom was primarily suburban. That the company foresaw this and built a marketing organization centering in the suburbs—unprecedented in the industry—was the first major reason for its success.

The question "how does the customer buy?" was fairly easy to answer in this case: the electrical contractor buys through specialty wholesalers. But the question of how best to reach him was hard—indeed, today, after almost ten years of operations, the company is still undecided and is still trying out various methods such as salesmen or manufacturer's agents. It has tried to sell direct to the contractor—by mail or out of central sales warehouses of its own. It has tried something never attempted before in the industry: to advertise its products directly to the public so as to build up ultimate-consumer demand. These experiments have been successful enough to warrant the suspicion that the first supplier who finds a way around the traditional wholesaling organization of the industry with its high distributive expenses will sweep the market.

The next question is: "(What) does the customer buy?" 2-19 Cadillac people say that they make an automobile and their busi-The ness is the Cadillac Motor Division of General Motors. But does the man who spends four thousand dollars on a new Cadillac buy transportation or does he buy primarily prestige? Does the Cadillac, in other words, compete with the Chevrolet and the Ford; or does it compete-to take an extreme example-with diamonds and mink

The best examples of both the right and the wrong answers to this question are found in the rise and fall of the Packard Motor Car Company, only a dozen years ago Cadillac's most formidable competitor. Packard, alone among the independent producers of high-priced cars, survived the early depression years. It prospered because it had shrewdly analyzed what the customer buys and had come up with the right answer for depression times: a high-priced but carefully engineered, solid and unostentatious car, sold and advertised as a symbol of conservative solvency and security in an insolvent and insecure world. By the mid-thirties, however, this was no longer adequate. Since then Packard has found it difficult to figure out what its market is. Though it has highly priced cars, they do not symbolize that the owner has "arrived"-perhaps because they are not high-priced enough. Though it brought out medium-priced cars, it did not succeed in making them symbolize the sterling worth and solid achievement of the successful professional. Even a new management recently come in did not find the right answer. As a result, Packard in the midst of a boom had to merge with another company to stave off disaster.

To raise the question "what does the customer buy?" is enough to prove inadequate the concepts of market and competition on which managements usually base their actions.

The manufacturer of gas kitchen stoves used to consider himself in competition only with the other manufacturers of gas stoves. But the housewife, his customer, does not buy a stove: she buys the easiest way to cook food. This may be an electric stove, a gas stove (whether for manufactured, natural or bottled gas), a coal stove, a wood stove, or any combination thereof. She only rules out-at least in today's Americathe kettle over the open fire. Tomorrow she might well consider a stove that uses supersonic waves or infra-red heat (or one that runs water over

a yet-to-be-discovered chemical). And since she, being the customer, decides what the manufacturer really produces, since she, being the customer alone can create an economic good, the gas-stove manufacturer has to consider his business as that of supplying an easy way to cook, his market as the cooking-implement market, his competition as all suppliers of acceptable ways of cooking food. $2-\mathcal{W}$

Another example:

Twenty-five years ago or so a small manufacturer of packaged and branded foods analyzed his business by raising the question of what his customer-the retail grocer-actually bought when he bought his product. The conclusion) and it took five years of hard work to reach it—was that the retail grocer looked to the manufacturer for managerial services, especially for advice on buying, inventory keeping, bookkeeping and display, rather than for goods which he could get from many other sources. As a result the company shifted the emphasis of its sales effort? The salesman has become a serviceman whose first responsibility is to help the customer work out his own problems. He will, of course, push the company's products. But he is expected to advise the customer objectively and impartially on how much of the competitors' products he needs, how to display them, how to sell them. And he is being judged by service standards and paid first for service performance. Selling the company's own product has become a by-product. It was this decision that the company still considers responsible for its rise from a fairly minor to a leading position in the industry.

What Is Value to the Customer? /

Finally, there is the most difficult question: "What does the customer consider value? What does he look for when he buys the product?"

Traditional economic theory has answered this question with the one word: price. But this is misleading. To be sure, there are few products in which price is not one of the major considerations. But, first, "price" is not a simple concept.

To return, for illustration's sake, to the fuse-box and switch-box manufacturer; his customers, the contractors, are extremely price-conscious. Since all the boxes they buy carry a quality guarantee accepted by the trade as well as by building inspectors and consumers (the Underwriters' Laboratories label), they make few quality distinctions between brands, but shop around for the cheapest product. But to read "cheap" as meaning

ドラッカーへの旅

(知の巨人の思想と人生をたどる)

著者 ジェフリー・A・クレイムズ 訳者 有賀裕子 2009年8月30日発行 ソフトバンク クリエイティブ株式会社発行

第3章 組織のほころび (61~頁を読んで)

企業の生き残りと繁栄を大きく左右する分野では、業績や成果についての目 標が欠かせないのだ。(60 頁から引用)

1980 年代半ば、ドラッカーは「アメリカ株式会社」に深い憤りを感じていた。 CEO たちが、あまりに法外な報酬を得ていたからである。彼等は何万人もの 従業員を解雇する一方、自分は何百万ドルもの給与やストックオプションを手 にしていたのだ。長期的な利益を犠牲にして足元の利益を増やそうとする。「強 欲もいいところだ」(62~63 頁から引用)

数十億ドルの企業買収も、大きな問題だとしていた。

記録的な人員カットが行われる中で、CEOの報酬が青天井で増えて行く。人材こそが企業にとっての最大の資産だという見方からは我慢のならないことだったのだろう。ドラッカーは、CEOの報酬は一般の働き手の20倍以内であるべきだというジェファーソン流の理念であった。つまり企業がほころびだらけになってしまったということである。

組織のほころびを防ぐ

- ① 適材適所を心がけ、強味を最大限に引き出す
- ② **優先すべき仕事**を紙に書き出す(但し、多くて2つまで)
- 外向きの発想をする
- ④ 制度、方針、業務の手順などを見直す
- ⑤ 報酬のあり方を再検討する

(68~69 頁から引用)

「病院は、重い病気に苦しむ患者(全体の20%)以外には真剣に対応しない」 が病院の使命は、「痛みや苦痛を感じる患者に安心をもたらす」ことだとした。 この使命は、患者全体の20%を占める重患だけでなく、残りの80%の患者を も尊重しているからだという。マネジャーの仕事は一般の働き手に具体的な指 令を示すことで、それがなければ一般の働き手は組織の目標に向けて自分はど う貢献すべきか解らないのだという。使命をはっきりすれば、出来の悪い組織 ですら、特定の分野で優れた成果をあげられる。

原文

孙子曰: 『利用兵之法, 全国为上, 破国次之; 全军为上, 破 军次之; 全旅为上, 破旅次之; 全卒为上, 破率次之; 全伍势生, 破伍次之。是故百战百胜, 非善之善者也; 不战而屈人之兵, 善 之善者也。

故上兵伐谋,其次伐交,其次伐兵,其下攻城。攻城之法, 为不得已。修橹辕辒,具器械,三月而后成,距阗,又三月而后 已。将不胜其忿而蚁附之,杀士三分之一,而城不拔者,此攻之 灾也。故善用兵者,屈人之兵而非战也,拔人之城而非攻也,毁 人之国而非久也,必以全争于天下,故兵不顿而利可全,此谋攻 之法也。

故用兵之法,十则围之,五则攻之,倍则战之,敌则能分之, 少则能守之,不若则能避之。故小敌之坚,大敌之擒也。

夫将者,国之辅也,辅周则国必强,辅隙则国必弱。

故君之所以患于军者三.不知军之不可以进而谓之进,不知 军之不可以退而谓之退,是谓縻军。不知三军之事,而同三军之 政,则军士惑矣。不知三军之权,而同三军之任,则军士疑矣。 三军既惑且疑,则诸侯之难至矣,是谓乱军引胜。

故知胜有五,知可以战与不可以战者胜,识众寡之用者胜, 上下同欲者胜,以虞待不虞者胜,将能而君不御者胜。此五者, 知胜之道也。

故曰:知彼知己,百战不殆,不知彼而知己,一胜一负;不 知彼不知己,每战必殆。



企業存続の要諦

H25.04.23

- 発明王エジソン(電気自動車)と自動車王フォード(ガソリン) 発明王-子供時代-1300件の特許-GE創業-自動車王 電気も120年以上、自動車も120年以上 ガソリン自動車の時代120年、次は電気自動車の時代か、ハイ ブリッド化、ガソリンスタンドの縮小
- 2.長寿企業と本業
 →顧客のニーズの充足→売上の維持、向上
 顧客の満足とはどういうことか-売上の継続、充実-①P/L売上
- 3.人材の養成 組織、役職員の働きと時間 人材の重要性とはどういうことか
 →資源、物の活性化-役職員の重要性-②P/L 人件費、物件費
- 目標と財務の充実
 財務の重要性とはどういうことか-③P/L 付加価値、利益
 ガチョウ、企業→金の卵、利益
- 5. 企業の全体像(包装)
 企業が全体として必要なことは何か-④、⑤、⑥企業として
 ④ガバナンス、⑤チャレンジ精神、⑥社会的責任 (イノベーション)

長寿企業のいいところは、理念の承継ができること。 財産はそのために必要なもの。 付 1

企業経営の要諦①~⑥

(モーニングセミナー)

平成25年4月23日中部倫理法人会



①~③は、キャッシュの流れでもあり、このキャッシュフローを④ ガバナンス、⑤イノベーション、⑥社会的責任により、維持し、有 効に活用する。

長寿企業は、④企業理念 ⑤チャレンジ精神 ⑥社会的責任を認識して、①顧客 ②人材 ③財務を企業の重要要件として経営している。

4 どうすれば沖縄を強くできるか(経営の共通項)

企業存続6つの要諦は経営の共通項となるか、否かについて、前出の既に公 表されている経営の諸原則と比較検討した。

6 つの要諦 	バランススコアカード	老舗企業の共通項	エクセレントカンパニー
調査結果	キャプラン、ノートンによる 戦略的なマネジメントシステム	野村教授の本の中の 老舗製造業5つの共通項	エクセレントカンパニー の8つの基本的特質
顧客の満足	顧客の視点	本業重視と時代への対応	顧客に密着
人財の育成	学習と成長の視点	良質な人材の登用	行動の重視 人を通じての生産性向上
財務の充実	財務の視点	—	単体な組織、小さい本社
ガバナンス	—	分をわきまえる こと	基軸から離れない 価値観に基づく実践
チャレンジ精神	プロセスの視点	時代の変化にしなやかな対応	自主性と企業家精神
社会的責任		公正な取引	_

6つの要諦 	企業永続の法則	C S R	近江商人
調査結果	佐々木直氏の 企業の永続発展の法則	沖縄企業のCSR調査	近江商人の経営理念
顧客の満足	社会と顧客への貢献	市場	顧客満足
人財の育成	自立した社員づくり	人間、労働者	人財教育
財務の充実	勤勉、誠実	—	会計、利益配分
ガバナンス	原理原則、経営理念、哲学	ガバナンス	金融、相互連携
チャレンジ精神	強靱な精神力、自立 次の製品、サービス、革新性		新商品開発

社会的責任 社会貢献、浮利は負わない 社会、環境に対する責任 三方よしの考え

ヒューズ Box メーカーの例

- 1. 事業の定義、顧客の定義
- 2. 顧客は誰か
- 3. どのように買っているか
- 4. どのように売り込むか

1. 顧客は誰か、2. どのように買っているか

誰が顧客か、卸売業者か、都市の大電気工事店か、郊外の電気工事店か、 どのように買ってもらうことが最も有りがたいか



3. どのように売り込むか



電気工事店にどのように売り込むか

代理店をつくったり、本社や事業所のセールスマンが調査したり、ダイレクト メールを送ったり、一般家庭向けの広告を出したり…

大都市の工事店ではなく、販売費のかかる卸売業者でなく郊外の電気工事店を 主とすることが市場を支配することであるということが正しいと解った。







