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Small business owners and entrepreneurs use demand forecasting to determine what their potential and existing customers will want in the future. This information helps you plan and develop new products and services, as well as expand your business into new markets. Simply put, forecasting demand helps you catch and ride the wave just as it starts to build and comb. There are several different types of methods used in demand forecasting, including buyer intent studies and other forms of quantitative testing. Demand forecasting also estimates how much a specific product customers might want to buy, allowing you to create reliable sales forecasts for your business. One type of demand forecasting uses price data from real markets to create a virtual market. Experts then analyse the data and compare it with other key economic factors such as employment, inflation and productivity indicators. Part of the process of creating and evaluating this virtual market is to incorporate predictable changes in the economy and the market. For example, experts can use current and historical data to create trend charts. This gives the analyst a crystal ball that can predict future trends such as employment policies, public funding plans and projected economic growth. Extrapolation uses mathematical principles to predict future behavior based on current and historical data. This is a data-driven look at consumer behavior, using quantitative research to access data about how your customers have behaved in the past toward your products and brand. Let's say your company sells artisanal cheeses, and over the last 15 months you've experienced a steady increase in goat cheese sales. You can reasonably extrapolate from this sample of data 15 months that the trend will continue and sales will continue to grow in month 16. The disadvantage of extrapolation is that it is limited to currently available data, when in fact future unforeseen events affect the markets at all times. Still, it's a helpful and simple demand forecasting method that most small businesses can use. Your customers can't always buy the perfect product. They may have to compromise somewhere. Either they will pay more than they planned for a particular feature or higher quality, or they will give up a particular feature for a lower price. Trade-offs in product features happen all the time and in many different scenarios. Convoy analysis begins with this simple premise: The customer cannot buy a product that meets all their preferences. Instead, customers find and buy products that have the features and attributes they most want and need, fulfilling as much of their preferences as possible. Convoy analysis is how to determine what these most preferred features are and what the client is willing to trade in return. For For The car manufacturer can find customers prices lower prices and lower fuel consumption in more interior space and more color options. Convoy analysis will use customer input to accurately discover which combinations of features buyers really value and prefer, ranking the main characteristics in order of preference. Then the analyst will use statistical models to evaluate these responses. The final product is a written report on the analysis of the consecrated market, which can help your company improve and improve sales, marketing and production plans to better meet customer needs and preferences. A small business can also research its potential customers about their intentions to forecast future demand. Intent surveys ask respondents what they intend to buy and when they intend to buy in the future. You've probably seen these surveys on the internet. For example, a media retail site might be prompted to complete a short survey to access the content. This survey may then raise two or three questions about your intention to purchase a particular product in the next six months, such as a new car or hot tub. Survey responses give an analyst a specific probability that the person answering the questions will act in a certain way. For example, if the question asks how likely it is to buy a new car in the next six months and gives a series of answers from zero (not at all likely) to 10 (certainty), the answer of eight can translate into an 80% probability. The aggregated probability may then suggest a way forward for the new product that the company is considering. There is another research-based demand forecasting method called Delphi or Delphi. However, instead of examining customers, this method surveys business experts. Another significant difference from the buyer's intent survey is that Delphi surveys are anonymously conducted in a series of rounds, interrupted by an analyst summarizing the opinions expressed in the previous round, and then using that analysis to create the next set of questions. Experts who are surveyed have access to a statistical summary as well as new questions. Each round asks the expert to either stick to his or her earlier answer or give him the opportunity to change his rating based on how other experts have reacted. Delphi's goal is therefore to help a group of experts in your field reach consensus. When a group of experts reaches this consensus about specific changes in your business market, you can use that consensus to help you grow future products, sales, and marketing campaigns. Forecasting is a term commonly used in business strategy and When companies make business decisions, including revenue and production, they must plan for at least a few years in the future. This requires interests of consumers and the efficiency of the company itself, both now and in the future. Creating strategies for long-term purposes can require intensive analysis, i.e. where forecasting and accounting become very important. Basically, forecasting is the process of predicting future numbers for a company. Many of these future numbers depend on business statistics from the past, so accountants typically do most of the forecasting work in companies. They use rates of return and rates of change to predict future data as accurately as possible. This helps the company decide what projects to implement and where to set goals. There are several specific areas where forecasting is used in budgets and similar financial statements. When a company first plans a new project or other cycle of operations, one of the first questions it asks is how much the plans will cost. Costs are crucial, not only in total, but also depending on when they occur during the operation. Your company needs to plan ways to finance projects to make them possible. So the key part of forecasting is going through future projects step by step, carefully analyzing each piece and linking it to the exact expense. The cost of producing goods and the costs associated with work and marketing are frequent calculations. Companies also need to plan their revenues to know how much money they have contributed to the business. In some cases, revenues are very easy to forecast as they may depend on stable investments or markets where sales are provided, at least to some extent. But in other industries, revenue can become difficult to predict, and companies use very tight budgets that require a thorough analysis of production and future sales. Accountants often use earlier numbers and trends to predict future revenue. From a broader point of view, accountants also need to forecast market developments and their impact on a wide variety of business factors, including costs and revenues. For example, if interest rates go up in the economy, then forecasts must show increased borrowing costs, but also increased returns on borrowed money. Inflation rates also change the current value of future gains. New technology, global connections, and more can impact the expenses and revenue the company can expect. Technology has been the dominant force in men's lives for years. However, it was only recently that managers in public and private organisations became aware of the need to anticipate technological changes and their impact on their activities. Economic forecasts, market forecasts, financial forecasts and even weather forecasts have become standard management tools. One day technological forecasting – now in its infancy – must become as accepted and useful as these other analytical devices. As traders believe that technology forecasting for their companies, they wonder about such questions: What are the goals of technological forecasting? What methods and approaches are useful? What are the options and limitations of these approaches? How can corporations organize themselves to forecast technology? What new data and techniques are needed to improve forecast values? In this article, I will try to answer these questions and present a certain perspective on how to integrate this new tool into decision-making processes as effectively as possible. Real goals Let's initially dismiss the source of the great confusion associated with technological forecasting – that's the purpose of this activity. In order to be useful, technological forecasts do not necessarily provide that the exact form of technology will be adopted in a given application within a certain time frame in the future. Like any other forecast, their goal is simply to help assess the likelihood and significance of various possible future changes so that managers can make better decisions. What can be predicted, but how can technology be predicted to include probability dimensions in the same way as other predictions do? Most people think of technology as a fairly specific physical unit. They cannot imagine this entity as having variable characteristics that would allow range predictions or probability statements. In their opinion, a precisely defined technology will either exist in a given situation or it will not exist. And the forecaster has to predict this exact event, otherwise he is wrong. This misunderstanding, which would put an impossible demand on any forecaster, causes a lot of confusion in the discussions about technological forecasting. The fact is that technology is not one unchanging piece of equipment or a bit of chemistry. It is simply knowledge – knowledge of physical relations – systematically applied to applied art. This knowledge can vary constantly over time. It can range from initial ejaculates on how the underlying phenomenon can be applied to solving a practical problem to a final product, device or production machine in a mature operating system. Even in the latter case, the performance characteristics of any machine, product or operating system are usually improved in small, continuous increments over time. What may seem like a function of gradual advances in technology is usually nothing more than a build-up of small advances that are not worth making individually until they make a significant change in the entire technology. In addition, the technology in question generally includes a number of competing devices, each with a distinctive balance between performance and economic characteristics that appeals only to certain people. Finally, of course, the or a product in technology may also quite divergent needs and perform very different functions for their different owners. In short, virtually every technology has a wide and relatively continuous range of characteristics in different applications over a given period of time. For example: A fuel cell that develops electricity directly from chemical sources is often treated as a single technology. But this technology covers a wide range of devices and states of art. There are many fuel cells, each with a different and constantly changing set of characteristics. Each set is located somewhere on the continuum towards the ultimate theoretical potential of a fuel cell with 100% energy conversion efficiency, total freedom from objectionable combustion waste, low maintenance costs, extremely long service life and possible cost-free fuel regeneration through the use of biological waste. While much of the basic work is still aimed at finding improved membrane materials, catalysts and fuel reagents, some fuel cells already provide energy in space applications. Individual fuel cells will slowly penetrate into other areas as their specific economic and technical characteristics improve and in each application they become slightly attractive compared to other fuel cells and competing energy conversion equipment. But the balance of physical and economic characteristics that makes fuel cells successful in one application, like space, may not be at all the same as this balance that allows penetration of other areas, such as mining equipment or individual power packs for the home. It is this relative continuity in the technical and economic characteristics of technology and potential applications that enables technological forecasting. With the exception of immediate direct extrapolation of current techniques, it is futile for the forecaster to predict the exact nature and form of the technology that will dominate the specific future application. But it may make predictions of the range of performance characteristics a given use may require in the future. It may make a statement of probability about what performance characteristics a given technology class will be able to provide at certain future dates. And it can analyze the potential implications of having these technical and economic opportunities available within the expected deadlines. Value for management In many respects, technological forecasts can be considered very similar to market or economic forecasts. No sophisticated manager would expect market forecasts to predict the exact size or characteristics of individual markets to the nearest decimal point. He would know that the probability of predicting the exact value of the dollar and cents market is virtually zero. However, he could reasonably ask his market analysts to estimate the most likely or expected size of the assessment of the likelihood and implications of other sizes. Similarly, in many circumstances, competent individuals can usefully anticipate the expected future technological possibilities and analyze the likelihood and implications of changes around them. To illustrate, here's this forecast: The odds are better than the 8 out of 10 that U.S. companies will be producing commercial supersonic transport (SST) in late 1972. The disaster program could speed up production by the 1970s, but major economic or military crises would likely delay its production indefinitely. Each unit will likely weigh about 700,000 pounds gross, be about 300 feet long, carry 300 to 350 passengers, cruise above 60,000 feet at speeds of about 1,800 miles per hour, and cost between \$30 million and \$35 million. The power plant for SST is likely to develop more than 60,000 pounds of string and require new technological advances in high-temperature materials, cooling systems and engine dynamics and noise control. While current knowledge makes a cruise speed of 1,800mph seem quite feasible, a gas turbine cycle, heat transfer problems and material constraints are likely to keep the SST cruise speed below 2,000mph by the late 1970s. By 1975, the SST would probably force conventional jets from first-class travel on hops over 1,500 miles, where route structures are favorable. In the mid-1970s, SST would probably make intercontinental travel more common for executives than New York to Chicago flights today. Forecasts made in this way can help you identify and assess opportunities and risks in your business environment so that managers can work more effectively to improve their company's future position. This should be the objectives of any predictive activity. Forecasts, regardless of accuracy, are useless unless they eventually affect performance. And this article will highlight the pragmatic aspects of both the creation of technological forecasts and their use by managers. Promising techniques Various techniques of technological forecasting have been developed. As with all other forecasting methods, the most effective are based on careful analysis of past experience combined with observations of competent and imaginative people. Each requires observation and measurement of basic data, trends and interactions. And each of them is subject to its own data errors and natural limitations of its human translators. In this sense, technological forecasts are no better and no worse than their economic, market or financial counterparts. Within these understandable limits, let's evaluate some of the more useful and widespread technology forecasting techniques and see how the information influence management decisions. The classification system I will use is somewhat arbitrary because, because differences between techniques are not always clear. In any event, different methods should in principle be used in combinations to stimulate imagination analysis, introduce additional objectivity and ensure that all relevant technological flows are taken into account. Demand assessment Several recent studies have suggested that clearly perceived demand, rather than overcapacity, seems to be the main driver of technological change.1 In fact, technology is only used when it responds to demand. Otherwise, it remains a capability and never becomes a functioning reality. Therefore, if important future needs that would be inadequately met by current technologies can be identified, it has an excellent starting point for analysing potential technological advances. If the anticipated demand is strong enough, it will generally call for the human and physical resources necessary to attack its technological problems. After stimulation and adequate support, the human imagination can solve these problems unless prevented by physical law or institutional barriers. And even institutions can change if demand is strong enough. Demographic and sociological analyses. Such research can often help to outline the nature and scope of future technological needs. Many studies have used such data to estimate total energy or food demand, communication channel requirements, traffic control requirements, natural resource depletion, and so on. Sometimes these analyses can determine not only the size of future requirements, but also the performance specifications that a device or system must achieve if it is to solve a specific problem. For example: For a future traffic control system, the likely density of vehicles (cars or aircraft) in the main centres, the flow of traffic and outflows that may hit these centres, the likely external changes (such as weather and crises) affecting the system, as well as the basic performance and cost criteria that a successful system would have to meet in ten years' time, can be determined. Such research may provide specific objectives for ongoing development or applied research programmes. Demographic and sociological analyses can easily show how certain problems, such as air pollution or waste disposal, will become completely intolerable if current population and wealth indicators persist. They can also identify opportunities that may arise from population and economic pressures on a limited resource base. To illustrate: It is unlikely that by the mid-1990s enough animals could be slaughtered around the world to provide the skin with shoes for the shoes of its population.2 And animal meat will become insignificant protein for most of the world. Therefore, some forms of synthetic leather and food will probably become necessary to maintain even today's living standards. Ale Ale the mere identification of such problems and opportunities is of little importance. To be useful, analyses must indicate the rate at which these basic demand factors will become strong enough to overcome social rigidity, political inertia and entrenched consumption habits that always inhibit change. Public opinion and price pressures will undoubtedly trigger the use of the best available technologies long before the final extremes are reached. Therefore, the forecaster must consider the strength of these pressures, the feasibility and pace of potential technical progress, the possibility of changes in institutional resistance and the likely future marginal preferences of society. Only from such analyses can it reach realistic estimates when new technologies actually meet the identified needs. Sociological and demographic analyses are the basis of many government R&D programs. But for most companies, such research provides only preliminary guidance. More detailed analyses are required to determine your needs in more detail. Conditional requisition analysis. They are used to predict the conditions under which new technology will be needed and the likelihood of this event occurring. To illustrate: Shale oil recovery techniques will be required in each of several circumstances- 1. If shale oil production, retorts and transport costs can be reduced so that shale oil in the refinery costs less than other oil sources. 2. If foreign oil supplies are severely limited. 3. Where shale oil allows a refinery to produce a starting mixture of sufficiently high value than other hydrocarbon sources. 4. If the international costs of scoundrels, lifting and transport exceed certain levels. 5. If related international oil prices become too high. Each oil company can calculate the points at which each of these events would affect its operations. The conditional probability, time, and impact of each event can be predicted using Bayesian analysis techniques and/or trends. While no one can justify research, development or other activities, the combined probabilities and effects of a few unforeseen may. The potential of different shale extraction processes can be assessed by analysing trends in technical progress and predicting the likelihood that each of them will overcome specific remaining barrier problems. Then the final forecast can predict: 1. Is there a strong enough need to justify the search for some technical solution. 2. Performance requirements, must meet any solution to succeed under different conditions. 3. How quickly current technical progress and vulnerability the envisaged roadblocks indicate that shale may replace other stocks under specific circumstances. 4. Probability of any future circumstance. 5. Withdrawal if the event takes place and if the state of the art is as expected. Techniques for identifying an opportunity. They help you manage isolating latent requirements for which new technological solutions will be needed or feasible. Often, areas that are easily identifiable through demographic analysis or through simple observation of human needs become heavily worked out by business and government technical groups. Companies are therefore motivated to look for areas where they can establish a strong technological position through unique entry and development. One interesting approach illustrates one interesting example: a chemical company analyses potential technical capabilities in some institutional markets by investigating the institution's day-to-day operations. For example, it sends small marketing and technical teams to hospitals to analyze the functional characteristics of each facility in the room. The wall is not considered a wall, but a barrier with certain soundproofing, strength, cleaning, life cycle and chemical properties. The teams then try to determine the exact operational properties that would allow chemicals to provide the same or improved functions at similar or lower costs. Teams are also trying to identify needs that hospital staff consider to be uneasy in relation to current products. And they are trying to redesign what new problems the hospital will encounter by expanding and updating its facilities for future patient care. The company's scientists and engineers then estimate the feasibility and time of predictable chemical solutions to the problems identified. Most capability identification techniques are essentially extensions of marketing research methodologies and as such do not pose real conceptual problems. But, unfortunately, traditional marketing research courses at universities or industry offer almost no help in developing the skills needed. Companies that now want such skills must develop them essentially through trial and error methods. Over time, individual companies may become more willing to share their experiences. The body of a more formalized technique will undoubtedly appear and will work its way up in marketing research training. Theoretical limit test In the meantime, companies are developing a number of other techniques to analyze both the possibilities and risks posed by new technologies. One of the most interesting of these methods is to push a known camera or phenomenon to its theoretical limits, and then try to visualize its potential implications. Na Lasers have the maximum potential to concentrate very high power levels (billions of watts per centimeter) and the supply of this energy over long distances via transparent media. These features suggest the use of laser beams to power distant objects in earth's atmosphere or space. In screening applications that may require such a level of energy, the possibility of transmitting directly from a synchronous communication satellite to domestic or commercial antennas on the ground is soon being considered. In order for this system to be commercially attractive, it would of course have to operate independently of weather conditions and be reasonably efficient in converting laser energy into transmitting energy. If clouds prevent reliable laser transmissions from ground to satellite, a Boeing 747 or C5A aircraft can be sent over a cloud layer using a laser on board. Light gas turbine generators carried by such an aircraft can generate tens of megawatts of electricity for a laser, more than enough for satellite transmitters. Conventional solar cells on the satellite can be made at least 70% to 80% efficient when irradiated with monochrome laser light. The attenuation of laser light in a bright atmosphere should be less than 10%. If technologies hidden in this concept can be realized, there may be a completely new approach to broadcasting, which has a huge impact on the fields of communication, household appliances and entertainment. Economic calculations of the cost of the system are not difficult and show a really fantastic opportunity. The real problem of forecasting in this case is to estimate when political considerations can allow the system to be used. When discovering new phenomena, it is often worth asking how they might affect your business if they were developed to your theoretical limits. To re-illustrate with lasers: The fact that light in the laser beam has a constant phase relationship has led to experiments to uncover the implications of this phenomenon. One of the first technologies to appear in such experiments is hologram photography— creating three-dimensional images in space through controlled distortion of single-phase light. This technology is now in its infancy, with many problems that have not yet been solved. But it is clear that hologram photographs will contain phase information not available in other photographic techniques. This allows you to specify the exact point-to-point distances between regions on the represented object. In addition, you can move around the projected hologram image to get different views, revealing hidden objects or outlines. Such development is obviously important for photo problems and many other users of display devices. But by extrapolating the unique functional characteristics of holograms, you can also less obvious, but direct applications in cryptography, multidimensional storage of information and display, display, design techniques, communication techniques and so on. Analysis of development-critical barriers, such as the stability of optical parameters, may enable companies interested in these areas to make strategic choices about the desired current level of their holography

commitments, the time during which they should monitor the development of the bystander hologram before making critical commitments, and the order in which key problems should be attacked. Unfortunately, the kinds of imaginative predictions hidden in this forecasting technique can quickly lead to science fiction opportunities that are too far into the future to have present significance. You should constantly be on guard against this trend and check the time and reality of your forecasts through pre-noted demand assessment techniques and approaches to be described later. Another way to test forecast logic is for a group of experts to improve their estimates through further approximation. Individuals or sub-groups are first asked to anticipate the time and/or implications of progress as technology advances towards its ultimate potential. Without allowing for direct confrontation, controlled feedback to experts identifies areas where they are in reasonable agreement and raises questions where there are divergent opinions. In later stages, the causes of more extreme reviews can be fed back to participants to stimulate their imagination and ensure proper consideration of all alternatives. Once a final forecast has been submitted by each person (or subgroup), the degree of consensus and the extent of diversity in the reports may be used as a basis for calculating the necessary probability reports in the consolidated forecast.3 Analysis of the parameters Technological projections must ultimately predict whether technical systems can reach or exceed key levels or performance parameters in the future. At the heart of the forecasting process is therefore the selection and prediction of these parameters. Recent studies suggest that when developing effective parameter forecasts for the test programmes used, a limited number of performance characteristics (from one to three) that can be quantifiable should be selected and which are significant measures of progress in an area or sub-area. 2. Take into account the ranges as well as the most likely values, where possible, of plotting the expected performance characteristics. 3. Specify exactly the phase of technological progress to be plotted. In the case of applied test progress, performance levels should normally be plotted at the time of statistical proof of technical feasibility in full, complete studies. Other phases may be more suitable for other purposes. 4. Document the main assumptions used in the preparation of the Assumptions may include the impact of decisions on external, external, the importance of interaction between selected parameters, interdependence with other technical areas, the size of the required breakthroughs and so on. 5. Take into account the best estimate of the probability of meeting, exceeding or missing a forecast, taking into account certain resource commitments.4 This framework has tested a number of specific parameter analysis techniques. I will briefly describe a few. Anticipating points of technological change. One technique helps define critical performance characteristics (quantifiable) that will allow one technology to be replaced with another in a given application class. As existing technology and its potential substitute progress, performance requirements to achieve change will usually be more severe over time. When using swap points to set goals for technical programs, be careful to take into account the dynamics of this relationship. Too many R&D programs are designed to be substituted in terms of technical requirements at the time of the launch of the program, rather than taking into account those characteristics that will be needed at the time of its completion. Equally important in applying this approach is the choice of appropriate performance factors for analysis. But unfortunately traditional thinking often causes analysts to focus on the wrong traits. Technology stories are filled with such errors, but one example from the industry should pay attention to: A successful manufacturer of piston engines for aircraft ignored the turbojet field because the company's management mistakenly thought that engine performance and fuel consumption were directed against jets that ever replace piston engines in commercial units. Although the jets were unprofitable in this respect, their cost-per-ton potential and cost per seat mile was so attractive that, after proving their operation, the jets quickly replaced the piston engines. Such errors can often be avoided by looking at the application as a total operating system and asking what factors (or factors) most critically affect the acceptability or output of the entire system. Analyze unique product properties. This method can help you identify situations where a product may be most easily replaced with other products. Here, of course, we consider functional substitutions of completely different products for each other, and not just replacements of different brands in the same product class. For example: Lightweight weight, high tensile strength and corrosion resistance of nylon suggests its potential use in cables and other structural reinforcement applications, which involves high performance requirements. Analysts can look for specific applications of this kind, determine the exact future cost and performance requirements needed to to make nylon competitive in these compare these requirements with trends in the technical and economic capabilities of nylon and estimate whether and when nylon could replace conventional materials in specific situations. Technical and marketing activities can then be applied to those applications where the existing or anticipated technical characteristics of nylon can most easily replace the product used. Trends in the plotting of technical and economic results. The purpose of this technique is to indicate to management when new technology will exceed critical thresholds. To illustrate: A recent RAND Corporation study (see Appendix I) plotted cost trends per mile of construction and operation of urban highways above ground, as opposed to the cost of building and operating a tunnel system of the same capacity. As highway costs rise while new technologies reduce tunnelling costs, the study finds that large underground highway and parking complexes are becoming economically feasible and aesthetically attractive alternatives to conventional highways in dense urban areas. However, there remain real questions about the final choices between tunnels and multi-level, ground-based motorway systems. Exhibition I. Cost of above-ground and underground highways in the U.S. Source: G. A. Hoffman, Urban Underground Highways and Parking Lots (Santa Monica, Calif., RAND Corporation, 1963). When making or interpreting such trend analyses, several important problems should be identified: (1) Research data must come from somewhat rare literature, supplemented by necessarily immaculate direct interviews. Therefore, earlier state of the art measurements are more likely to appear as scattered points in a parameter vs. time chart than as a smooth line. Nevertheless, such data often allow cautious analysts to identify important trends and use observed differences as a basis for making the necessary probability statements about the future. (2) Even if relatively complete data are available, technological progress is rarely a linear process. A curve representing a stable pace of change is more likely to approximate the true pace of technological progress. New technologies will develop faster than those that are not so new, and the different components of the whole technology will develop at different rates. Therefore, potential progress in the overall operating system should be checked for the progress of its various components. And the estimated rates of change should always reflect the expected differences in the number and quality of people who can work in this field. Any rational analysis must therefore determine not only where the technology lies on its specific learning curve, but also what specific predictive function most describes its likely, unique Progress. (3) It is dangerous to extend the extension the most rigorously analysed trends very far into the future. Projections that go beyond the normal technology development cycle increasingly run the risk that basic science or completely new approaches will completely change the field or that unforeseen factors will unduly affect the expected progress. Nevertheless, when developed with care and evaluation, trend analyses can provide policymakers with extremely valuable information. Analyze substitution growth curves. This type of study can help show how quickly one technology will actually take over from another. Such research usually suggests that replacing one technology for another tends to follow the familiar S-shaped curve of the fashion cycle. Substitution increases slowly at the beginning, faster as acceptance increases, and more slowly again as saturation approaches. Therefore, the analyst tries to assess the evolving technological trends to see where the technology is on its growth curve and how far it will eventually penetrate into the technology market for which it is replaced. In order to make realistic use of substitution analyses, substitution had to actually start, the beginning of the S-curve increase must be visible, further replacement of existing technology must seem technically feasible and any degree of potential replacement must be commensal. Dr. John Fisher of general electric company's Tempo (Technical Military Planning Operation) group has analyzed many historical cases and notes that in these circumstances there has been an extraordinary regularity in technological substitutions. Based on analyses of similar substitution patterns in the past, his group mathematically predicts the form of an S-shaped growth curve for the new technology. Interestingly, the main replacement of one technology for another usually takes decades, not years, as is commonly believed. Therefore, a flexible and warned company should be able to anticipate substitution and threat options and adjust its strategies accordingly. Annex II, which provides examples of actual historical growth curves for black and white and colour television, suggests how data on such analyses may appear at different times during the market development cycle. Annex II. Growth curves of black and white and color television Source: Economic Almanac 1964 (New York, National Industrial Conference Board, 1964), p. 414; Electronic Industries Yearbook 1966 (Washington, Electronic Industries Association, 1966), p. 6; Financial World, 24 August 1966, p. 6. Data from R.C. Goldstein. Diffusion studies. These are variations of the above analyses. The technological potential usually far exceeds the broad application of these potentials. This is because costly process processes usually cannot be obliterated overnight, conservative users change slowly, work and public relations problems need to be worked out, processes need to be debugged, and often different skills need to be acquired in order to use the new technology. As an illustration, Annex III shows two measures of how high-speed jets dispersed in the commercial field. As in many other cases, actual diffusion for commercial use does not largely correlate with changes in the potential of even the most dramatic and measurable performance of technology. It is necessary to beware of the tendency to think that just because there is technological potential, it will necessarily achieve wide application and acceptance. Analysts should monitor and forecast both the technological potential and the actual diffusion of technology. Companies that often monitor technological developments can see a slow initial introduction of new technologies, yet they still have enough time to adapt to them as planned. Annex III. Delay in using high-speed aircraft in commercial operations Source: James R. Bright, Research, Development and Technological Innovation (Homewood, Illinois, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1964), p. 762; and F. A. A. Statistical Handbook of Aviation, 1965 (Washington, D.C., Government Printer, 1965), Tables B.5 and 8.28. Analysis Systems Analysis. Several very useful approaches to the analysis of the technological future are offered by systems analysis. First, they can help management identify vulnerabilities in current operating systems that are vulnerable to technological change. In an analysis of aircraft company systems examined the field of a passenger car. In addition to many other design limitations, it was found that existing cars weighed 2,000 pounds per passenger (and much more than that if the diesel locomotive was used on a fairly short train). It was also found that speeds on current tracks were often limited by discomfort and danger for passengers of fast turns on existing tracks. Since the planes weigh only 600 pounds (dry weight) per passenger and solve difficult problems with centrifugal force through bank turns, the group reasoned that if the cars are brightened by the aircraft type design and suspended to bend over corners, then the railways could achieve the economy of locomotion and higher speeds while maintaining passenger comfort. With the use of gas turbines, further weight savings could be achieved and the use of equipment could be increased (by around 75%) thanks to increased engine reliability and better dispatching techniques. Weight savings would improve track maintenance costs and ensure smoother driving, while gas turbine-powered cars would increase Operation. The technologies needed to solve these problems already existed and the potential impact of using them in this new way could be calculated. System Systems Analysis Group that the benefit to the customer was large enough to be likely to change significantly. As a result, the company entered the railway equipment industry. A different approach to system analysis creates hypothetical or likely future problems and defines the characteristics of the technologies necessary to solve them. This technique is widely used to analyze potential military or space problems in which the analyst must anticipate events in environments where there can be no specific previous experience. For example, the military must be ready for a variety of attack patterns, from single inch rocket attacks to large-scale military maneuvers in the Arctic to individual jungle combat. System groups ask what will happen to refining the potential nature of any hypothetical situation. They then try to visualize and define the necessary performance characteristics of the technologies needed to handle specific unforeseen situations. The likelihood of each occurrence and the costs and potential benefits of different solutions indicate which problems justify the investments applied in research, development or equipment. The forecasts of these programmes indicate what future technologies will be available with what probabilities in the future. Yet another form of systems analysis, impact studies, can help management analyze what effects new technological solutions, if found, would have on existing or anticipated operating systems. Such research may simply start with the question: If technology could achieve the following possibilities, what would be the results? For example: What would happen if a computer system with a time-sharing of 200 stations could be developed with millisecond processing times per operation, a program capacity of 20,000 characters, relatively unlimited memory, and a total cost of \$300 per hour? Of course, the sensitivity of demand to changes in each characteristic could be tested, but the above are approximate proposed design data of one potential manufacturer. This is the result of some conclusions. Using stored accounting programs, at least 200 small businesses can handle all their accounting and tax reporting needs for about \$10 per week. Up to 40 secondary schools or small colleges can have significant low-cost access to a large computer facility, and maths and computer training at these levels can be drastically altered. A single computer installation would allow all interested students in the S main (500 students per graduation class) institution to train in programming and have relatively unlimited access to the computer for homework problems or experimentation. A brand new multibillion-dollar industry consisting of central equipment in any major city, it would likely expand and require a significant backup in software consulting to develop and maintain programs for small users. Many small individual computers and installations would be obsolete. Typically, impact studies first anticipate new technological possibilities and then try to predict the technical, social or economic implications of this new state of the art. In this context, system testing will normally... Determine the performance characteristics that will be necessary for the operating system to achieve each of several different service levels;... economic or social impact assessment of each level of service. The probability and cost of achieving each level of performance can be compared with its potential economic or social benefits, and the net incentive to achieve each level can be calculated. These calculations can then be combined with parameter analyses (discussed earlier) to serve as a basis for projecting the likely future state of the art and determining whether to support or monitor technological progress that may lead to solutions. Research A slightly different approach is needed to analyze the potential of applied and basic research in earlier stages. Here, the link between specific research programmes and technical solutions is much less direct. The very nature of such research means the search for new knowledge. Therefore, one cannot hope to predict the exact form of knowledge. Nevertheless, it can be predicted that some extremely useful projections can be made for the future nature and implications of early-stage research. In particular, it is possible to foresee: (a) the scientific fields likely to attract the greatest attention in the near future; (b) which areas are likely to acquire the most relevant knowledge, from the company's point of view, over the next few years; and (c) what research problems are almost certain, likely and most unlikely to be solved in the foreseeable future. To suggest how such predictions can be made systematically: Each year several companies are familiar with reviewing each significant scientific discipline (as defined in the List of Specialties for use in the National Register of Scientific and Technical Personnel) to determine its activities, promise and importance for the interests of the company. They try to evaluate and predict for each discipline - 1. The amount is currently unknown, but will eventually be known in this field. 2. The current speed at which the field generates new knowledge. 3. Development of research capacity and techniques to exploit remaining potential. 4. The likely importance of the most important recent and apparently imminent progress in this area. 5. Availability of good enthusiastic people to work in the field. 6. The expected level of government and competitor support for each of the specialties of the discipline. 7. Potential stimulation in this area may constitute for other scientific activities of the company. In some cases, management carries out this review. In other cases, a scientific advisory committee of scientists or an internal group of staff should be used. In yet another researchers are asked to forecast the scientific implications of their specialties. After initial inspection by such groups, the company can call additional experts from the university, consultancy, or government laboratories to help evaluate interesting disciplines in more detail. Unfortunately, there is a tendency to find fascinating opportunities and implications for all fields of science. But, properly done, studies of this kind give management useful guidance in assessing which fields can be scientifically dormant (cryogenic, active (virology) and growing (microbiology) in the near future. Research managers must apply restrictions to add new fields only if their promise at unit cost is greater than in all other areas. This requires managers to set careful criteria for supporting and ranking different options against several hypothetical budget levels to see how strong preferences are for one area rather than another. In some scientific fields, it can reasonably be predicted that global scientific and technical efforts are likely to solve specific problems within a specific date range without knowing the specific form in which the solution will occur. For example: In the field of human health, it is possible to observe how much effort has been put on a particular class of disease, to develop awareness of a particular progression and to estimate with reasonable accuracy that this type of ailment (or some of its forms) will be conquered by a reasonably predictable date. These projections can be further classified, according to which solutions are almost certain, highly likely, likely or improbable during the planning period. Several pharmaceutical companies use variations of this technique when choosing their research directions. No attempt is made to predict which specific chemical or biological approach will actually solve the problem. But the executives of these companies believe it is important to know which issues will be relevant and what markets are available to the company at different future dates. Such projections are, of course, based on previous experience in the field. They depend on previous patterns in the future. And they are not trying to predict miraculous scientific accidents, such as the discovery of penicillin, which can disrupt or open up entire scientific fields. Random results currently defy predictions. Competitors' actions. Some forecasting techniques are particularly related to anticipating the impact of competitors' technical activities on the company. Of course, many companies monitor publications, patents and so on. But few effectively integrate their own strategic decisions. Some interesting approaches may suggest how this can be better achieved: Life cycle models can show how competitors' actions tend to erode new product markets. Outlining their previous experience, some drug manufacturers have found that new formulations, combinations and substitute products have generally taken over the markets for new subjective drugs within five years. Several companies have created statistical models to predict the form and degree of such substitutions in the future. Unless specific information is available for a particular competitor, more powerful nuclear weapons, increased reliability and reduced size of semiconductor devices, the ability to deter and control computers, and the impact of new heat-resistant materials. Similarly, it is currently impossible to predict how biological studies of cellular and molecular coding will interact with extremely high-polyline studies, which are beginning to produce synthetic molecules with many characteristics of living organisms. In such advanced areas, it can only be considered that there is a high probability of potential interactions that will increase the importance of both areas and thus carry out more extensive research or monitor such activities more closely. In more applied fields, you can sometimes analyze how different advances in component technologies can affect the overall performance characteristics of a relatively simple system. But the total range of potentially supportive and competitive technologies is often so large that no forecaster can hope to take care of everything overtly. Usually, it can only determine the extent in which the most likely resulting impinging forces will lie. 2. Unprecedented requirements Completely unpredictable future conditions and events can sometimes create completely new areas of primary and secondary demand. So: The development of nuclear energy systems and missiles has created new computational requirements on a scale that has never conceived. Virtually no one in the late 1930s could have predicted that by the mid-1940s they would have created such requirements for completely new weapons systems. A hypothetical study of the type of systems what (if described earlier in this article) conducted by very imaginative people could consider such a need, but the probability of its occurrence would be assessed as very low. Looking ahead in 1937, the U.S. National Resources Committee did not even mention high-speed computing devices in its forecasts, although it made conditional statements about the development of nuclear energy. Highly ingenious systems and parameter analyses can sometimes help identify such potentials, but they will probably never be entirely satisfactory. Moreover, from time to time, the new technological capability in itself will create a whole new range of requirements that have never been recognized before. For example: In the early 1950s, they estimated that only about 30 electronic computers would be needed to handle all calculations in the United States. This apparent lack of demand has discouraged most potential producers from entering the field. It was only when actual use showed that the computer had made it possible to attack problems earlier beyond imagination that the true nature of the market became apparent. As a result, a huge new computational capacity was used to stimulate people to think about more complex problems that require calculations. Similarly, dry copy processes such as Xerox have not only taken over the photocopy market from previous decades. The ability to quickly create cheap, high-quality copies has changed writing practices, report distribution, the use of published materials in education, and so on. This technology has thus stimulated its own use in needs that people have never identified before. Dramatic new technologies will undoubtedly continue to have such a self-releasing impact on demand. The ingenious conception of producing use and formal planning to complement demand cycle? can help predict certain effects of this kind. But you can never hope to completely predict how the entire population consumes eventually to use the new technology. 3. Major discoveries. The discovery of completely new phenomena can open up much new technological possibilities. Virtually no one predicted such important discoveries as transistor effect, superconducting, lasers or steroid activity. Each of these major breakthroughs has opened up completely unexpected technological possibilities. The significance of such discoveries is so great that they are often cited as sufficient reasons to discount all technological forecasting attempts. It is overlooked that relatively few of these breakthroughs take place in one generation. In addition, in order to the earlier issue, the question of they are not always as unprecedented as people assume. For example, there is a lot of evidence that some substances such as penicillin was used in the Middle Ages. The basic knowledge needed to build lasers was essentially within reach in the 1930s, but the potential of such devices was unrecognized. In any case, such breakthroughs do not often simply explode in the world; They often result rather from long streams of work, with small increases in knowledge accumulating until they suddenly fit into new insight. Therefore, imaginative assessments of current scientific activities can sometimes anticipate the possibility and time of a significant breakthrough without being able to determine the exact form of its results. However, both the lack of imagination and the significant randomness of scientific discoveries will undoubtedly keep the average batting forecasters low in predicting these major breakthroughs, which for the first time reveal completely new phenomena. 4. Inadequate data Perhaps the only factor most limiting the development of better technological forecasts is the inadequacy of the source data. It was only since the mid-1950s that the United States had fairly reliable information on its scientific resource commitments. (Most of Western Europe is only now starting to have such data.) But aggregated data available through the Census Bureau and bureau of labor statistics have rarely been organized in a way that helps analyze either diffusion or the impact of technological change. Secondary sources provide only breakdowns about current developments. Industry data is severely limited by proprietary considerations. Economists have ignored the technology or adopted it as a constant, so long in their calculations that there is little previous historical research on which to base trend calculations. Therefore, there is not much organized data on which to assulate forecasts. All this means that forecasters often have to develop their own basic data before proceeding with analyses. Cost considerations typically limit the relevant population from which an analyst can taste. And the accuracy of his research can have an impact accordingly. Fortunately, in recent years, governments, foundations and large corporations have sponsored several important studies of specific issues and have introduced their findings into general literature. Reports from the RAND Corporation, Stanford Research Institute, TEMPO, the National Science Foundation, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, and Battelle Laboratories (among others) have excavated and presented important trends in the technological advances. These reports can now serve as references and checks for other forecasters. With concern in Washington, the data is also leading to an improvement in the classification of government data, much better data can be expected over time technological forecasting. Organizational approaches. Technological forecasting is a new field. And it will be years before you experience tests of the true capabilities of individual forecasters and techniques. But many companies experiment and accumulate experience with different organizational approaches. Only a few of the more interesting are described here. Scientific advisors Scientific advisory committees are usually composed of outstanding scientists from different fields. Researchers offer advice to both the office of the top management and the technical director of the company. Committees usually meet no more than every six months and/or on special request. Their functions are intended to help evaluate proposed scientific programs in areas new to the company to ensure that the R&D program remains relevant to the knowledge areas of committee members, to advise on the overall balance of the company's research program, and to serve as an objective sound board for researchers and company executives on specific scientific issues. In this way, they provide assistance in assessing the potential value and importance of specific scientific fields for the future of the company. Wild people. It's a name- the variety is wild birds - often given to one or two very imaginative and active individuals that some executives choose to stimulate really new thoughts about technological potential in their organizations. Wild people are usually very talented people who are temperamentally unsay to regular executive positions. They often report directly to the company's top technical officer and have almost complete organizational freedom. Some of them run their own small laboratories. Others can be expected to invent new technological needs and generate proposals for government contracts for extremely advanced technological concepts. Still others simply hesitate freely through the organization, stimulating individual scientists, engineers and managers where they can and trying to warn technical directors about unusual technological capabilities or threats that they may overlook. Wild people are always somewhat destructive elements in the organization. If they are able and sufficiently stimulating, however, they can be effective and widely appreciated. Companies working in companies have developed a number of formal employee organizations to focus on technology forecasting. To illustrate: Employee planning or program evaluation groups8 are the most common organizations for this purpose. In some cases, such as General Electric's TEMPO organization, fairly large groups have been set up at the corporate level with full-time responsibilities to assess different technological futures and advise corporate and division managers on perceived opportunities and risks. groups usually coordinate the development of technological forecasts in different departments. These groups help develop the forecast format, make sure that the marketing and technical groups that create the forecasts use consistent techniques and assumptions, and see that the forecasts are actually reviewed and presented in the department (and the company). Opportunity-seeking groups have been established in several large chemical companies. These groups usually report to the top management or to the chief technical officer. They contact customers or potential customers to explore how the company can help them solve technical issues and/or how some of the company's existing know-how can be used in new applications. Although they are expected to coordinate their activities with their marketing departments, such groups are deliberately established as independent entities so that they can think of long-term problems rather than being constantly distracted to fight brush fires (as it would seem if they were reporting directly to the marketing department). Technical information centres and/or commercial intelligence units have been set up in many companies to collect and evaluate data on the development of technical trends. Technical information centres usually monitor a wide range of publications, classify them in appropriate categories, warn technical groups of their content through abstract services and reports, and assess trends that they believe are potentially relevant. Commercial intelligence groups also evaluate unpublished leads on competing technologies, maintain hearing positions abroad to identify important advances in foreign laboratories, and serve as contact points for mutual licenses or know-how in trade with external sources. One of their primary actions is to analyse competitive technical progress and report anticipated risks to relevant managers. Of course, the technical staff of the R&D/D departments, system analysis or marketing of the company should always be a useful source of predictive data and analysis. Certainly, no forecasting organization is useful for all companies. Nor can a single forecasting center typically meet all the needs of an entire company. In fact, the key issue in the organization of technological forecasting is not the choice of a formal organizational structure for the company. Much greater importance is: (a) the filling of forecasting activities with high-quality staff; and (b) the proper integration of forecasts into decision-making processes. There is no need to dwell on the characteristics of imagination, hard-headedness, technical understanding, sales and analytical capabilities that are required in an effective technological forecaster. They are similar to the characteristics sought majority of high-level employees and line managers. But you can't need to include technological forecasts in the company's decision-making processes. This brings us to the next serious question - the possibility of better use of forecasts from a management point of view. Integration with decisions As in introducing a new management tool, no matter how much needed, it is difficult to convince managers who are not accustomed to using a technique that is valuable and perhaps necessary to make critical decisions. What approaches can best ensure that the right technology forecasts, which they were usually made, receive the right attention from management? Let us make four suggestions. 1. Forecasters should adopt a pragmatic insights needed to make their own decisions, rather than focusing on the generic problems of 2000 executives can often understand the need to look 3 to 10 years ahead. Payouts from current investments are influenced by factors during this period. And managers have some confidence in the validity of data and assumptions about such a relatively near future. But more distant events tend to lack reality unless they actually penetrate into current decisions. In order to increase their acceptability, forecasts should therefore focus on problems that require a decision between today and the next time a forecast can be reasonably developed and presented. This is true even in some cases, such as investments in the search for natural resources, which may require exploration well above 2000 2. Forecasters should put opportunities and threats in the right order of priorities. There is an almost infinite number of possible risks and technological capabilities in any reasonable future period. Therefore, the analyst must sort out those with the highest probability and potential impact, and then drum by understanding them. Many forecasters found it useful to demonstrate their techniques first on more obvious capabilities and threats. Then, when line managers gain confidence in their methodologies, it's easier to get approval for analysis on more complex issues. In all cases, the person who prepares the forecast must strive to make it as meaningful as possible to its audience, be prepared to teach its key elements to those who need to use it, and track it to be accepted. Otherwise, the forecast will become another forgotten report. 3. Forecasts shall be aligned with regular enforcement decision-making cycles in some cases the top management shall best inform before meetings of shareholders or security analysts when they need to publicly inform about the future of the company. I this management should have at least a broad environmental forecast before issuing guidelines for the preparation of the budget. Operational management usually needs more detailed analyses when preparing budget proposals to help assess the potential technological changes. Above all, however, top-level staff and executive groups reviewing operational and capital budgets should familiar with technological forecasts. 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Certainly, no forecasting organization is useful for all companies. Nor can a single forecasting center typically meet all the needs of an entire company. In fact, the key issue in the organization of technological forecasting is not the choice of a formal organizational structure for the company. Much greater importance is: (a) the filling of forecasting activities with high-quality staff; and (b) the proper integration of forecasts into decision-making processes. There is no need to dwell on the characteristics of imagination, hard-headedness, technical understanding, sales and analytical capabilities that are required in an effective technological forecaster. They are similar to the characteristics sought majority of high-level employees and line managers. But you can't need to include technological forecasts in the company's decision-making processes. This brings us to the next serious question - the possibility of better use of forecasts from a management point of view. Integration with decisions As in introducing a new management tool, no matter how much needed, it is difficult to convince managers who are not accustomed to using a technique that is valuable and perhaps necessary to make critical decisions. What approaches can best ensure that the right technology forecasts, which they were usually made, receive the right attention from management? Let us make four suggestions. 1. Forecasters should adopt a pragmatic insights needed to make their own decisions, rather than focusing on the generic problems of 2000 executives can often understand the need to look 3 to 10 years ahead. Payouts from current investments are influenced by factors during this period. And managers have some confidence in the validity of data and assumptions about such a relatively near future. But more distant events tend to lack reality unless they actually penetrate into current decisions. In order to increase their acceptability, forecasts should therefore focus on problems that require a decision between today and the next time a forecast can be reasonably developed and presented. This is true even in some cases, such as investments in the search for natural resources, which may require exploration well above 2000 2. Forecasters should put opportunities and threats in the right order of priorities. There is an almost infinite number of possible risks and technological capabilities in any reasonable future period. Therefore, the analyst must sort out those with the highest probability and potential impact, and then drum by understanding them. Many forecasters found it useful to demonstrate their techniques first on more obvious capabilities and threats. Then, when line managers gain confidence in their methodologies, it's easier to get approval for analysis on more complex issues. In all cases, the person who prepares the forecast must strive to make it as meaningful as possible to its audience, be prepared to teach its key elements to those who need to use it, and track it to be accepted. Otherwise, the forecast will become another forgotten report. 3. Forecasts shall be aligned with regular enforcement decision-making cycles in some cases the top management shall best inform before meetings of shareholders or security analysts when they need to publicly inform about the future of the company. I this management should have at least a broad environmental forecast before issuing guidelines for the preparation of the budget. Operational management usually needs more detailed analyses when preparing budget proposals to help assess the potential technological changes. Above all, however, top-level staff and executive groups reviewing operational and capital budgets should familiar with technological forecasts. With about 90% of most companies spending on periodic budget reviews, this is a key moment to make sure that the allocation reflects the best thinking about future technological realities. When important capital and operational decisions are taken between formal budget reviews, management should also consider the technological future, just as routinely as they consider it to be economic or political environments. The formality of forecasts and the way they are presented at different decision points must, of course, be adapted to the unique personality and organization of the company. But somehow linear leadership needs to be stimulated to be realistic and constant aware of the expected changes. Only then will their daily decisions really reflect the development of opportunities and threats. 4. Promising management should, as far as possible, be exposed to planning and forecasting activities as a routine part of their training. 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