

## LAMPIRAN



### Lampiran 1 BAB 1 : VISI

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158 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

This chapter focuses on the concepts and tools needed to evaluate and write business vision and mission statements. It also provides a practical framework for developing and creating effective vision and mission statements. Actual mission statements from large and small organizations and for-profit and nonprofit enterprises are presented and critiqued. The exemplary company examined in the beginning of this chapter, Samsung Electronics, is exemplary in terms of both its vision and mission concepts as well as its strategic management.

We can perhaps best understand vision and mission by focusing on a business when it is first started. In the beginning, a new business is simply a collection of ideas. Starting a new business rests on a set of beliefs that the new organization can offer some product or service to some customers in some geographic area using some type of technology at a profitable price. A new business owner typically believes his or her philosophy of the new enterprise will result in a favorable public image, and the business concept can be effectively communicated to and adopted by important constituencies. When the set of beliefs about a business at its inception is put into writing, the resulting document mirrors the same basic ideas that underlie vision and mission statements. As a business grows, owners or managers find it necessary to revise the founding set of beliefs, but those original ideas usually are reflected in the revised statements of vision and mission.

Vision and mission statements often can be found in the front of annual reports. They often are displayed throughout a firm's premises and are distributed with company information sent to constituencies. The statements are part of numerous internal reports, such as loan requests, supplier agreements, labor relations contracts, business plans, and customer service agreements.

#### Vision Statements: What Do We Want to Become?

It is especially important for managers and executives in any organization to agree on the basic vision that the firm strives to achieve in the long term. A vision statement should answer the basic question, "What do we want to become?" A clear vision provides the foundation for developing a comprehensive mission statement. Many organizations have both a vision and mission



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## Lampiran 2 BAB 3 : LIMA KEKUATAN PERSAINGAN MODEL PORTER

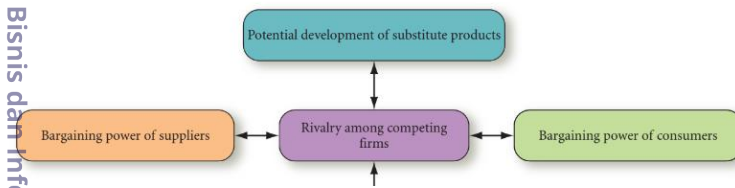
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process. Special characteristics of a successful CI program include flexibility, usefulness, timeliness, and cross-functional cooperation. Competitive intelligence is not corporate espionage; after all, 95 percent of the information a company needs to make strategic decisions is available and accessible to the public. Sources of competitive information include trade journals, want ads, newspaper articles, and government filings, as well as customers, suppliers, distributors, competitors themselves, and the Internet. Unethical tactics such as bribery, wiretapping, and computer hacking should never be used to obtain information. All the information a company needs can be collected without resorting to unethical tactics.

### Porter's Five-Forces Model

Former chair and CEO of PepsiCo Wayne Calloway said, "Nothing focuses the mind better than the constant sight of a competitor that wants to wipe you off the map." As illustrated in Figure 7-3, Porter's Five-Forces Model of competitive analysis is a widely used approach for developing strategies in many industries. The intensity of competition among firms varies widely across industries. Table 7-6 reveals the average gross profit margin and earnings per share (EPS) for firms in different industries. Note the substantial variation among industries. For example, note that industry operating margins range from 4 to 34 percent, whereas industry



## Lampiran 3 BAB 3 : COMPETITIVE PROFILE MATRIX

8. Trend toward healthy eating eroding concession sales	0.12	4	0.48
9. Demand for online movies and DVDs growing 10%	0.06	2	0.12
10. Commercial property adjacent to cinemas for sale	0.06	3	0.18
11. TDB University installing an on-campus movie theater	0.04	3	0.12
12. County and city property taxes increasing 25%	0.08	2	0.16
13. Local religious groups object to R-rated movies	0.04	3	0.12
14. Movies rented at local Red Box's up 12%	0.08	2	0.16
15. Movies rented last quarter from Time Warner up 15%	0.06	1	0.06
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>1.00</b>		<b>2.58</b>

and avoiding the threats facing the firm. There is definitely room for improvement, though, because the highest total weighted score would be 4.0. As indicated by ratings of 1, this business needs to capitalize more on the "Two new neighborhoods developing [nearby]" opportunity and the "movies rented from ... Time Warner" threat. Notice also that there are many percentage-based factors among the group. Be quantitative to the extent possible! Note, too, that the ratings range from 1 to 4 on both the opportunities and threats.

An actual EFE Matrix for the largest U.S. homebuilder, D. R. Horton, is given in Table 7-10. Note that the most important external threat facing the company, as indicated by a weight of 0.10, deals with labor and supplier costs. The key factors are listed in order beginning with the most important (highest weight). Notice how specific the factors are stated—specificity is essential. Also note that following DRH's EFE Matrix, an "author commentary" is given in Table 7-11, providing the rationale for each factor included.

Author commentary on each factor in the D. R. Horton EFE Matrix is given in Table 7-11 to provide insight on the thinking that needs to support not only inclusion of respective factors but also various weights and ratings assigned. Recall that mathematically, 0.04 is 33 percent more important than 0.03, and a rating of 3 is 50 percent higher than a rating of 2. Small judgments are helpful in moving forward toward larger decisions related to deployment of resources and money across regions and products.

### The Competitive Profile Matrix

The Competitive Profile Matrix (CPM) identifies a firm's major competitors and its particular strengths and weaknesses in relation to a sample firm's strategic position. The weights and total weighted scores in both a CPM and an EFE have the same meaning. However, critical success factors in a CPM include both internal and external issues; therefore, the ratings refer to strengths and weaknesses, where 4 = major strength, 3 = minor strength, 2 = minor weakness, and 1 = major weakness. The critical success factors in a CPM are not grouped

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## Lampiran 4 BAB 3 : ANALISIS SWOT

retailing services, are products too. We might call them *service products*. “Where is packaging?” the critics might ask. Marketers would answer that they include packaging as one of many product decisions. All said, as Figure 2.5 suggests, many marketing activities that might appear to be left out of the marketing mix are included under one of the four Ps. The issue is not whether there should be four, six, or ten Ps so much as what framework is most helpful in designing integrated marketing programs.

There is another concern, however, that is valid. It holds that the four Ps concept takes the seller’s view of the market, not the buyer’s view. From the buyer’s viewpoint, in this age of customer value and relationships, the four Ps might be better described as the four Cs:<sup>15</sup>

Four Ps	Four Cs
Product	Customer solution
Price	Customer cost
Place	Convenience
Promotion	Communication

Thus, whereas marketers see themselves as selling products, customers see themselves as buying value or solutions to their problems. And customers are interested in more than just the price; they are interested in the total costs of obtaining, using, and disposing of a product. Customers want the product and service to be as conveniently available as possible. Finally, they want two-way communication. Marketers would do well to think through the four Cs first and then build the four Ps on that platform.

### Managing the Marketing Effort

In addition to being good at the *marketing* in marketing management, companies also need to pay attention to the *management*. Managing the marketing process requires the five marketing management functions shown in Figure 2.6—*analysis, planning, implementation, organization, and control*. The company first develops company-wide strategic plans and then translates them into marketing and other plans for each division, product, and brand. Through implementation and organization, the company turns the plans into actions. Control consists of measuring and evaluating the results of marketing activities and taking corrective action where needed. Finally, marketing analysis provides the information and evaluations needed for all the other marketing activities.



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**Author Comment** So far we’ve focused on the *marketing* in marketing management. Now, let’s turn to the *management*.

**SWOT analysis** An overall evaluation of the company’s strengths (S), weaknesses (W), opportunities (O), and threats (T).

## Lampiran 5 BAB 4 : PRODUK

As the ESPN story shows, in their quest to create customer relationships, marketers must build and manage products and brands that connect with customers. This chapter begins with a deceptively simple question: *What is a product?* After addressing this question, we look at ways to classify products in consumer and business markets. Then we discuss the important decisions that marketers make regarding individual products, product lines, and product mixes. Next, we examine the characteristics and marketing requirements of a special form of product—services. Finally, we look into the critically important issue of how marketers build and manage product and service brands.

### What Is a Product?

We define a **product** as anything that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use, or consumption that might satisfy a want or need. Products include more than just tangible objects, such as cars, computers, or mobile phones. Broadly defined, *products* also include services, events, persons, places, organizations, and ideas, or a mixture of these. Throughout this text, we use the term *product* broadly to include any or all of these entities. Thus, an Apple iPhone, a Toyota Camry, and a Caffé Mocha at Starbucks are products. But so are a trip to Las Vegas, Schwab online investment services, your Facebook page, and advice from your family doctor.

Because of their importance in the world economy, we give special attention to services. **Services** are a form of product that consists of activities, benefits, or satisfactions offered for sale that are essentially intangible and do not result in the ownership of anything. Examples include banking, hotel, airline travel, retail, wireless communication, and home-repair services. We will look at services more closely later in this chapter.

**Author Comment** As you’ll see, this is a deceptively simple question with a very complex answer. For example, think back to the opening ESPN story. What is the ESPN “product”?

**Product** Anything that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use, or consumption that might satisfy a want or need.

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marketers go beyond this narrow definition. Instead, they define quality in terms of creating customer value and satisfaction. The American Society for Quality defines **quality as the characteristics** of a product or service that bear on its ability to satisfy stated or implied customer needs. Similarly, Siemens defines quality this way: "Quality is when our customers come back and our products don't."<sup>66</sup>

*Total quality management (TQM)* is an approach in which all of the company's people are involved in constantly improving the quality of products, services, and business processes. For most top companies, customer-driven quality has become a way of doing business. Today, companies are taking a *return-on-quality* approach, viewing quality as an investment and holding quality efforts accountable for bottom-line results.

Product quality has two dimensions: level and consistency. In developing a product, the marketer must first choose a *quality level* that will support the product's positioning. Here, product quality means *performance quality*—the product's ability to perform its functions. For example, a Rolls-Royce provides higher performance quality than a Chevrolet: It has a smoother ride, lasts longer, and provides more hand craftsmanship, luxury, and "creature comforts." Companies rarely try to offer the highest possible performance quality level; few customers want or can afford the high levels of quality offered in products such as a Rolls-Royce automobile, a Viking range, or a Rolex watch. Instead, companies choose a quality level that matches target market needs and the quality levels of competing products.

Beyond quality level, high quality also can mean high levels of quality consistency. Here, product quality means *conformance quality*—freedom from defects and consistency in delivering a targeted level of performance. All companies should strive for high levels of conformance quality. In this sense, a Chevrolet can have just as much quality as a Rolls-Royce. Although a Chevy doesn't perform at the same level as a Rolls-Royce, it can just as consistently deliver the quality that customers pay for and expect.

**Product Features.** A product can be offered with varying features. A stripped-down model, one without any extras, is the starting point. The company can then create higher-level models by adding more features. Features are a competitive tool for differentiating the company's product from competitors' products. Being the first producer to introduce a valued new feature is one of the most effective ways to compete.

How can a company identify new features and decide which ones to add to its product? It should periodically survey buyers who have used the product and ask these questions: How do you like the product? Which specific features of the product do you

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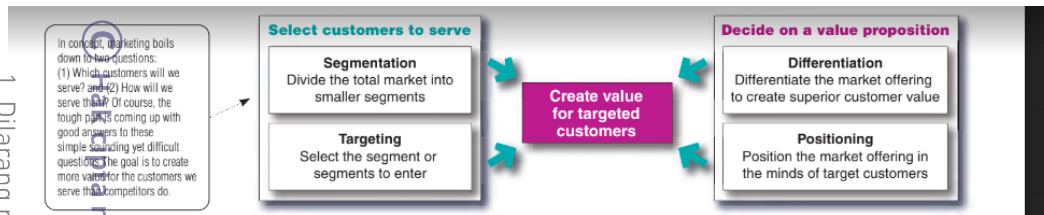


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## Lampiran 6 BAB 4 : SEGMENTASI PASAR



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**Positioning**  
Arranging for a market offering to occupy a clear, distinctive, and desirable place relative to competing products in the minds of target consumers.

**Author Commit**  
Market segmentation addresses the first simple-sounding marketing question: What customers will we serve?

market offering to create superior customer value. **Positioning** consists of arranging for a market offering to occupy a clear, distinctive, and desirable place relative to competing products in the minds of target consumers. We discuss each of these steps in turn.

### Market Segmentation

Buyers in any market differ in their wants, resources, locations, buying attitudes, and buying practices. **Through market segmentation**, companies divide large, heterogeneous markets into smaller segments that can be reached more efficiently and effectively with products and services that match their unique needs. In this section, we discuss four important segmentation topics: segmenting consumer markets, segmenting business markets, segmenting international markets, and the requirements for effective segmentation.

### Segmenting Consumer Markets

There is no single way to segment a market. A marketer has to try different segmentation variables, alone and in combination, to find the best way to view market structure. **Table 7.1** outlines variables that might be used in segmenting consumer markets. Here we look at the major *geographic, demographic, psychographic, and behavioral* variables.

### Geographic Segmentation

**Geographic segmentation** calls for dividing the market into different geographical units, such as nations, regions, states, counties, cities, or even neighborhoods. A company

**Geographic segmentation**  
Dividing a market into different geographical units, such as nations, states, regions, counties, cities, or even neighborhoods.

## Lampiran 7 BAB 5 : PRICE

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**● Pricing:** No matter what the state of the economy, companies should sell value, not price.  
magicoven/Shutterstock.com

**Price**  
The amount of money charged for a product or service, or the sum of the values that customers exchange for the benefits of having or using the product or service.

**Companies** today face a fierce and fast-changing pricing environment. Value-seeking customers have put increased pricing pressure on many companies. Thanks to tight economic times in recent years, the pricing power of the Internet, and value-driven retailers such as Walmart, today's more frugal consumers are pursuing spend-less strategies. In response, it seems that almost every company has been looking for ways to cut prices.

Yet, cutting prices is often not the best answer. Reducing prices unnecessarily can lead to lost profits and damaging price wars. It can cheapen a brand by signaling to customers that price is more important than the customer value a brand delivers. **● Instead**, in both good economic times and bad, companies should sell value, not price. In some cases, that means selling lesser products at rock-bottom prices. But in most cases, it means persuading customers that paying a higher price for the company's brand is justified by the greater value they gain.

### What Is a Price?

In the narrowest sense, **price is the amount of money** charged for a product or a service. More broadly, price is the sum of all the values that customers give up to gain the benefits of having or using a product or service. Historically, price has been the major factor affecting buyer choice. In recent decades, however, nonprice factors have gained increasing importance. Even so, price remains one of the most important elements that determine a firm's market share and profitability.

Price is the only element in the marketing mix that produces revenue; all other elements represent costs. Price is also one of the most flexible marketing mix elements. Unlike product features and channel commitments, prices can be changed quickly. At the same time, pricing is the number-one problem facing many marketing executives, and many companies do not handle pricing well. Some managers view pricing as a big headache, preferring instead to focus on other marketing mix elements.

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## Lampiran 8 BAB 6 : TENAGA KERJA

### LEARNING OBJECTIVE 1-1

**Explain** what human resource management is and how it relates to the management process.

#### organization

A group consisting of people with formally assigned roles who work together to achieve the organization's goals.

#### manager

Someone who is responsible for accomplishing the organization's goals, and who does so by managing the efforts of the organization's people.

#### managing

To perform the basic functions: planning, organizing, staffing, leading, and controlling.

#### management process

The five basic functions of planning, organizing, staffing, leading, and controlling.

#### human resource management (HRM)

The process of acquiring, training, appraising, and compensating employees, and of attending to their labor relations, health and safety, and fairness concerns.

## What Is Human Resource Management?

To understand what human resource management is, it's useful to start with what managers do. Upwork is an *organization*. An **organization** consists of people (in this case, people like Upwork's own in-house Web designers and managers) with formally assigned roles who work together to achieve the organization's goals. A **manager** is someone who is responsible for accomplishing the organization's goals, and who does so by managing the efforts of the organization's people.

Most writers agree that **managing** involves performing five basic functions: planning, organizing, staffing, leading, and controlling. In total, these functions represent the **management process**. Some of the specific activities involved in each function include

- **Planning.** Establishing goals and standards; developing rules and procedures; developing plans and forecasts
- **Organizing.** Giving each subordinate a specific task; establishing departments; delegating authority to subordinates; establishing channels of authority and communication; coordinating the work of subordinates
- **Staffing.** Determining what type of people should be hired; recruiting prospective employees; selecting employees; setting performance standards; compensating employees; evaluating performance; counseling employees; training and developing employees
- **Leading.** Getting others to get the job done; maintaining morale; motivating subordinates
- **Controlling.** Setting standards such as sales quotas, quality standards, or production levels; checking to see how actual performance compares with these standards; taking corrective action as needed

In this book, we will focus on one of these functions—the staffing, personnel management, or *human resource management* function. **Human resource management (HRM)** is the process of acquiring, training, appraising, and compensating employees, and of attending to their labor relations, health and safety, and fairness concerns. The topics we'll discuss should therefore provide you with the concepts and techniques every manager needs to perform the "people," or personnel, aspects of management. These include

- *Conducting job analyses* (determining the nature of each employee's job).
- *Planning labor needs and recruiting* job candidates.
- *Selecting* job candidates.
- *Orienting and training* new employees.
- *Managing wages and salaries* (compensating employees).
- *Providing incentives and benefits*.
- *Appraising performance*.
- *Communicating* (interviewing, counseling, disciplining).
- *Training employees and developing managers*.
- *Building employee relations and engagement*.

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## Lampiran 9 BAB 6 : URAIAN KERJA

**FIGURE 4-6 O\*NET Generalized Work Activities Categories**

*Note:* The U.S. Navy employees were asked to indicate if their jobs required them to engage in work activities such as: Getting Information; Monitoring Processes; Identifying Objects; Inspecting Equipment; and Estimating Quantifiable Characteristics.  
*Source:* From O\*NET Web site, [www.onetonline.org](http://www.onetonline.org).

Print-friendly Version  
(Outline View | Description View)

▼ Generalized Work Activities — General types of job behaviors occurring on multiple jobs

- Information Input — Where and how are the information and data gained that are needed to perform this job?
  - Looking for and Receiving Job-Related Information — How is information obtained to perform this job?
    - ☞ **Getting Information** — Observing, receiving, and otherwise obtaining information from all relevant sources.
    - ☞ **Monitor Processes, Materials, or Surroundings** — Monitoring and reviewing information from materials, events, or the environment, to detect or assess problems.
  - Identify and Evaluating Job-Relevant Information — How is information interpreted to perform this job?
    - ☞ **Identifying Objects, Actions, and Events** — Identifying information by categorizing, estimating, recognizing differences or similarities, and detecting changes in circumstances or events.
    - ☞ **Inspecting Equipment, Structures, or Material** — Inspecting equipment, structures, or materials to identify the cause of errors or other problems or defects.
    - ☞ **Estimating the Quantifiable Characteristics of Products, Events, or Information** — Estimating sizes, distances, and quantities; or determining time, costs, resources, or materials needed to perform a work activity.

### MyLab Management Apply It!

If your professor has assigned this activity, go to the Assignments section of [www.pearson.com/mylab/management](http://www.pearson.com/mylab/management) to complete the video exercise.



### Writing Job Descriptions

The most important product of job analysis is the job description. A job description is a written statement of what the worker actually does, how he or she does it, and what the job's working conditions are. You use this information to write a job specification; this lists the knowledge, abilities, and skills required to perform the job satisfactorily.<sup>28</sup>

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## Lampiran 10 BAB 6 : KUALIFIKASI DAN SPESIFIKASI KERJA

### MyLab Management Talk About It 2

If your professor has assigned this, go to the Assignments section of [www.pearson.com/mylab/management](http://www.pearson.com/mylab/management) to complete these discussion questions. Pick a job that someone with whom you are familiar is doing, such as a bus driver, mechanic, and so on. Review the O\*NET information for that job. To what extent does the person seem to have what it takes to do that job, based on the O\*NET information? How does that correspond to how he or she is actually doing?



### Writing Job Specifications

The job specification takes the job description and answers the question, “What human traits and experience are required to do this job effectively?” It shows what kind of person to recruit and for what qualities you should test that person. It may be a section of the job description, or a separate document. Often—as in Figure 4-7 (“REQUIRED KNOWLEDGE AND EXPERIENCE”) on pages 113–114—it is part of the job description.<sup>52</sup>

#### LEARNING OBJECTIVE 4-5

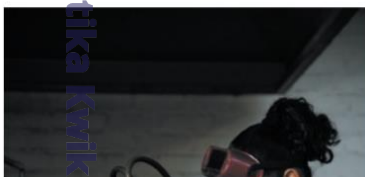
Explain how to write a job specification.

#### Specifications for Trained versus Untrained Personnel

Writing job specifications for trained and experienced employees is relatively straightforward. Here job specifications tend to focus on factors such as length of previous service, quality of relevant training, and previous job performance.

The problems are more complex when you're filling jobs with untrained people (with the intention of training them on the job). Here you must specify qualities such as physical traits, personality, interests, or sensory skills that imply some potential for performing the job or for trainability. Thus, for a job that requires detailed manipulation, you might want someone who scores high on a test of finger dexterity. Employers identify the job's human requirements either through a subjective, judgmental approach or through statistical analysis (or both).

Filling jobs with untrained employees requires identifying the personal traits that predict performance.



#### Specifications Based on Judgment

Most job specifications simply reflect the educated guesses of people like supervisors and human resource managers. The basic procedure here is to ask, “What does it take in terms of education, intelligence, training, and the like to do this job well?”

How does one make such “educated guesses”? You could simply review the job's duties, and deduce from those what human traits and skills the job requires. You can also observe

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## Lampiran 11 BAB 6 : STRUKTUR ORGANISASI

Even for a start-up with only a few employees, choosing an organizational structure requires far more than simply deciding who is the boss and how many employees are needed. The organization's structure determines what relationships form, the formality of those relationships, and many work outcomes. The structure may also change as organizations grow and shrink, as management trends dictate, and as research uncovers better ways of maximizing productivity.

Structural decisions are arguably the most fundamental ones that a leader must make toward sustaining organizational growth.<sup>1</sup> In this chapter, we'll explore how structure affects employee behavior and the organization as a whole.

### What Is Organizational Structure?

An organizational structure defines how job tasks are formally divided, grouped, and coordinated.<sup>2</sup> Seven key elements should be considered when designing an organization's structure: work specialization, departmentalization, chain of command, span of control, centralization and decentralization, formalization, and boundary spanning.<sup>3</sup> Exhibit 14-1 presents each element as the answer to an important structural question, and the following sections describe each one.

#### Work Specialization

Early in the twentieth century, Henry Ford became rich by building automobiles using an assembly line. Every worker was assigned a specific, repetitive task such as putting on the right front wheel or installing the right front door. By dividing jobs into small standardized tasks that could be performed over and over, Ford was able to produce a car every 10 seconds, using employees with relatively limited skills.<sup>4</sup>

**Work specialization**, or *division of labor*, describes the degree to which activities in the organization are divided into separate jobs.<sup>5</sup> The essence of work specialization is to divide a job into several steps, each completed by a separate individual. Individuals specialize in doing part of an activity rather than the entirety. Specialization is a means of making the most efficient use of employees' skills and even successfully improving them through repetition. Less time



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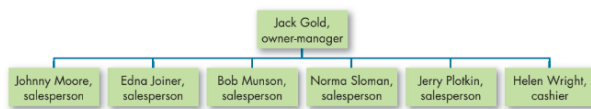
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**1-1** Identify seven elements of an organization's structure.  
**Organizational structure** The way in which tasks are formally divided, grouped, and coordinated.

**Work specialization** The degree to which tasks in an organization are subdivided into separate jobs.

**Simple structure** An organizational structure characterized by a low degree of departmentalization, wide spans of control, authority centralized in a single person, and little formalization.

Exhibit 14-4 A Simple Structure (Jack Gold's Men's Store)



#### The Simple Structure

What do a small retail store, an electronics firm run by a hard-driving entrepreneur, and an airline's war room during a pilot's strike have in common? They probably all use the simple structure.<sup>51</sup> The **simple structure** has a low degree of departmentalization, wide spans of control, authority centralized in a single person, and little formalization. It is a flat organization; it usually has only two or three vertical levels, a loose body of employees, and one individual with decision-making authority. Most companies start as a simple structure, and many innovative technology-based firms with short life spans, like cell phone app development firms, remain compact by design.<sup>52</sup>

Exhibit 14-4 is an organization chart for a retail men's store owned and managed by Jack Gold. Jack employs five full-time salespeople, a cashier, and extra workers for weekends and holidays, but he "runs the show." Although this type of organization is typical for a small business, in times of crisis large companies often simplify their structures (though not to this degree) as a means of focusing their resources.

The strength of the simple structure lies, of course, in its simplicity. It's fast, flexible, and inexpensive to operate, and accountability is clear. One major weakness is that it becomes increasingly inadequate as an organization grows because its low formalization and high centralization tend to create information overload at the top. Decision making typically becomes slower as the single executive tries to continue doing it all. This proves the undoing of many small businesses. If the structure isn't changed and made more elaborate, the firm often loses momentum and can eventually fail.<sup>53</sup> The simple structure's other weakness is that it's risky—everything depends on one person. An illness for the owner-manager can literally halt the organization's information and decision-making capabilities.<sup>54</sup>

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**functional structure** An organizational structure that groups employees by their similar specialties, roles, or tasks.



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## FUNCTIONAL STRUCTURE

**The Functional Structure** The **functional structure** groups employees by their similar specialties, roles, or tasks.<sup>59</sup> An organization organized into production, marketing, HR, and accounting departments is an example. Many large organizations utilize this structure, although this is evolving to allow for quick changes in response to business opportunities. One advantage of the functional structure is that specialists may be able to become experts more easily than if they worked in diversified units. Employees can also be motivated by a clear career path to the top of the organization chart specific to their specialties.

The functional structure works well if the organization is focused on one product or service. Unfortunately, it creates rigid, formal communications because the hierarchy dictates the communication protocol. Coordination

among many units is a problem, and infighting in units and between units can lead to reduced motivation.

**Divisional structure** An organizational structure that groups employees into units by product, service, customer, or geographical market area.

**The Divisional Structure** The **divisional structure** groups employees into units by product, service, customer, or geographical market area.<sup>60</sup> It is highly departmentalized. Sometimes this structure is known by the type of division structure it uses: *product/service organizational structure* (for example, units for cat food, dog food, and bird food that report to an animal food producer), *customer organizational structure* (for example, units for outpatient care, inpatient care, and pharmacy that report to hospital administration), or *geographic organizational structure* (for example, units for Europe, Asia, and South America that report to corporate headquarters).

The divisional structure has the opposite benefits and disadvantages of the functional structure. It facilitates coordination in units to achieve their goals while addressing the specific concerns of each unit. It provides clear responsibility for all activities related to a product but with duplication of functions and costs. Sometimes this is helpful, say, when the organization has a unit in Spain and another in China, which are very different markets, and a marketing strategy is needed for a new product. Marketing experts in both places can incorporate the appropriate cultural perspectives into their region's marketing campaign. However, the organization's marketing function employees in two places may represent an increased cost because they are doing basically the same task in two different countries. It appears as if organizations can shift from a divisional to a functional structure, and vice versa; however, those who shift from a functional to a divisional structure tend to perform the best.<sup>61</sup>

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Lampiran 12 BAB 7 : LAPORAN LABA RUGI

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**statement of cash flows**  
Provides a summary of the firm's operating, investment, and financing cash flows and reconciles them with changes in its cash and marketable securities during the period.

**THE FOUR KEY FINANCIAL STATEMENTS**

The four key financial statements required by the SEC for reporting to shareholders are (1) the income statement, (2) the balance sheet, (3) the statement of stockholders' equity, and (4) the statement of cash flows. The financial statements from the 2019 stockholders' report of Bartlett Company, a manufacturer of metal fasteners, are presented and briefly discussed in this section. Most likely, you have studied these four financial statements in an accounting course, so the purpose here is to refresh your memory of the basics rather than provide an exhaustive review.

**Income Statement**

The **income statement** provides a financial summary of the firm's operating results during a specified period, usually one quarter or one year. Companies produce and release to the public quarterly and annual income statements based on their fiscal year, which may or may not align with a calendar year. Kroger's fiscal year, for example, ends on or near January 31, so the company would report earnings for the fiscal year 2017 in January 2018. About 70% of U.S. public companies align their fiscal year with the calendar year. Most large companies produce income statements at least monthly, but they use these statements internally and do not publicly release them.

**FOCUS ON ETHICS** *in practice*

**Earnings Shenanigans**

Near the end of each quarter, many publicly traded companies unveil performance numbers in a Wall Street ritual known as "earnings season." Interest is high as media outlets race

on a new product in 2011 and, more generally, understating likely expenses on product warranties in 2012/2013—all just to meet earnings expectations. In October 2010, Logitech

wisdom to keep in mind when looking at financials: (i) weak accounting practices typically signify bigger problems, (ii) unintelligible information usually indicates shifty management, and

Lampiran 13 BAB 7 : LAPORAN ARUS KAS

**TABLE 3.3** Bartlett Company Statement of Retained Earnings (\$000) for the Year Ended December 31, 2019

Retained earnings balance (January 1, 2019)	\$1,012
Plus: Net profits after taxes (for 2019)	231
Less: Cash dividends (paid during 2019)	
Preferred stock	10
Common stock	98
Total dividends paid	<u>\$ 108</u>
Retained earnings balance (December 31, 2019)	<u>\$1,135</u>

company began the year with \$1,012,000 in retained earnings and had net profits after taxes of \$231,000, from which it paid a total of \$108,000 in dividends, resulting in year-end retained earnings of \$1,135,000. Thus, the net increase for Bartlett Company was \$123,000 (\$231,000 net profits after taxes minus \$108,000 in dividends) during 2019.

**Statement of Cash Flows**

The **statement of cash flows** is a summary of the cash flows over the period. The statement provides insight into the firm's operating, investment, and financing cash flows and reconciles them with changes in its cash and marketable securities during the period. Bartlett Company's statement of cash flows for the year ended December 31, 2019, appears in Table 3.4. We provide further insight into this statement in our discussion of cash flow later in this text.



## Lampiran 14 BAB 7 : LAPORAN NERACA

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PART TWO Financial Tools

During the year, the Smiths had total income of \$91,815 and total expenses of \$88,140, which left them with a cash surplus of \$3,675. They can save and invest the surplus. Notice that the \$3,675 represents just about 4% of the Smiths' total income. Most financial advisors would suggest a much higher savings rate, so Jan and Jon may want to take a hard look at their budget to see where they can cut expenses.

### Balance Sheet

The **balance sheet** presents a summary statement of the firm's financial position at a given time. The statement balances the firm's assets (what it owns) against its financing, which can be either debt (what it owes) or equity (what owners provided). Bartlett Company's balance sheets as of December 31 of 2019 and 2018 appear in Table 3.2. They show a variety of asset, liability (debt), and equity accounts.

TABLE 3.2 Bartlett Company Balance Sheets (\$000)

Assets	December 31	
	2019	2018
Cash	\$ 363	\$ 288
Marketable securities	68	51
Accounts receivable	503	365
Inventories	289	300
Total current assets	<u>\$1,223</u>	<u>\$1,004</u>
Land and buildings	\$2,072	\$1,903
Machinery and equipment	1,866	1,693
Furniture and fixtures	358	316
Vehicles	275	314
Other (includes financial leases)	98	96
Total gross fixed assets (at cost)	<u>\$4,669</u>	<u>\$4,322</u>
Less: Accumulated depreciation	2,295	2,056

### balance sheet

Summary statement of the firm's financial position at a given point in time.

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## Lampiran 15 BAB 7 : PAYBACK PERIOD

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### 10.2 Payback Period

### payback period

The time it takes an investment to generate cash inflows sufficient to recoup the initial outlay required to make the investment.

Small and medium-sized firms often use the payback period approach to evaluate proposed investments. The **payback period** is the time it takes an investment to generate cash inflows sufficient to recoup the initial outlay required to make the investment. In the case of an annuity (such as the Bennett Company's project A), you can calculate the payback period by dividing the initial investment by the annual cash inflow. For a mixed stream of cash inflows (such as project B), simply add up the yearly cash inflows until the accumulated sum equals (or exceeds) the initial investment.

Many firms use the payback period because it is simple to calculate and to understand. Unfortunately, the payback method has some serious flaws, which we will discuss shortly, and because of those flaws making investment decisions based on the payback period may not accomplish the firm's goal of maximizing shareholder wealth.

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## Lampiran 16 BAB 7 : NET PRESENT VALUE



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PART FIVE Long-Term Investment Decisions

### 10.3 Net Present Value (NPV)

The method used by most large companies to evaluate investment projects is called *net present value (NPV)*. The intuition behind the NPV method is simple. When firms make investments, they are spending money that they obtained, in one form or another, from investors. Investors expect a return on the money that they give to firms, so a firm should undertake an investment only if the present value of the cash flow that the investment generates is greater than the cost of making the investment in the first place. Because the NPV method takes into account the time value of investors' money, it is more likely to identify value-increasing investments than is the payback rule. The NPV method discounts the investment's cash flows at a rate that reflects the investment's risk—cash flows from riskier investments are discounted at higher rates. The discount rate in an NPV calculation is the minimum return that a project must earn to satisfy the firm's investors. Projects with lower returns fail to meet investors' expectations and therefore decrease the firm's value, and projects with higher returns increase the firm's value.

In many cases, an investment project begins with a cash outflow that is then followed by a series of cash inflows over several years. In this instance, the **net present value (NPV)** is found by subtracting a project's initial investment ( $CF_0$ ) from the present value of its cash inflows ( $CF_t$ ) discounted at a rate that is appropriate given the investment's risk ( $r$ ):

NPV = Present value of cash inflows – Initial investment

$$NPV = \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{CF_t}{(1+r)^t} - CF_0 \quad (10.1)$$

Of course, not every investment opportunity has this kind of standard cash flow pattern. Sometimes firms receive money up front and have to pay out cash in later years. Other times a project requires several years of cash outflows

**net present value (NPV)**  
A capital budgeting technique that measures an investment's value by calculating the present value of its cash inflows and outflows.

**breakeven analysis**  
Used to determine the level of operations necessary to cover all costs and to evaluate the profitability associated with various levels of sales; also called *cost-volume-profit analysis*.

**operating breakeven point**  
The level of sales necessary to cover all operating costs; the point at which EBIT = \$0.

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## Lampiran 17 BAB 7 : BREAK EVENT POINT

- **Financial leverage** relates to the relationship between the firm's EBIT and its common stock earnings per share (EPS). On the income statement, you can see that the deductions taken from EBIT to get to EPS include interest, taxes, and preferred dividends. Taxes are clearly variable, rising and falling with the firm's profits, but interest expense and preferred dividends are usually fixed. When these fixed items are large (i.e., when the firm has a lot of financial leverage), small changes in EBIT produce larger changes in EPS.
- **Total leverage** is the combined effect of operating and financial leverage. It relates to the relationship between the firm's sales revenue and EPS.

We will examine the three types of leverage concepts in detail. First, though, we look at breakeven analysis, which lays the foundation for leverage concepts by demonstrating how fixed costs affect the firm's operations.

### BREAKEVEN ANALYSIS

Firms use **breakeven analysis**, also called *cost-volume-profit analysis*, (1) to determine the level of operations necessary to cover all costs and (2) to evaluate the profitability associated with various levels of sales. The firm's **operating breakeven point** is the level of sales necessary to cover all operating costs. At that point, earnings before interest and taxes (EBIT) equal \$0.<sup>1</sup>

The first step in finding the operating breakeven point is to divide the cost of goods sold and operating expenses into fixed and variable operating costs. Fixed costs are costs that the firm must pay in a given period regardless of the sales volume achieved during that period. These costs are typically contractual; rent, for example, is a fixed cost. Because fixed costs do not vary with sales, we typically measure them relative to time. For instance, we would typically measure rent as the amount due per month. Variable costs vary directly with sales volume. Shipping costs, for example, are a variable cost.<sup>2</sup> We typically measure variable costs in dollars per unit sold.

### Algebraic Approach

Using the following variables, we can recast the operating portion of the firm's income statement given in Table 13.1 into the algebraic representation shown in Table 13.2, where





## Lampiran 18 HARGA PESAING: KINARI



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#### SPECIALTY

<b>Black</b>	30
<b>White</b>	35/32
<b>Split</b>	45/42
<b>Mocha</b>	40
<b>Filter</b>	35/48

#### COFFEE CREATIONS

<b>Jakarta</b>	36
<i>Putu flavored</i>	
<b>Dublin</b>	36
<i>Creamy &amp; sweet</i>	
<b>Osaka</b>	36
<i>Japanese floral</i>	
<b>San Fransisco</b>	36
<i>Sweet mint</i>	
<b>Kinari</b>	36
<i>Creamy palm sugar</i>	
<b>Barcelona</b>	42
<i>Non dairy sweet latte</i>	

#### Extras:

<b>Espresso</b>	10
<b>Flavour</b>	5

#### NON COFFEE CREATIONS

<b>Brussels</b>	35
<i>Chocolate cherry</i>	
<b>Edinburgh</b>	36
<i>Butterscotch &amp; biscoff</i>	
<b>Cape Town</b>	35
<i>Berries, mint, soda, &amp; tea</i>	
<b>Nairobi</b>	32
<i>Sour plum, soda, &amp; tea</i>	
<b>Kyoto</b>	36
<i>Sakura matcha with butter cream</i>	
<b>Okinawa</b>	35
<i>Sour matcha, coconut cream</i>	
<b>Canggu</b>	35
<i>Peach &amp; mint tea</i>	

#### SIMPLE BEVERAGES

<b>Chocolate</b>	33
<b>Matcha</b>	33
<b>Lychee Yakult</b>	36
<b>Lychee Tea</b>	35
<b>Jasmine Tea</b>	25
<b>Black Tea</b>	25

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**Lampiran 19 HARGA PESAING : KOCIL SPECIALTY COFFEE COCONUT TUSK**



**PACKAGES**

ES KOPI SUSU X20 -10%	360
ES KOPI SUSU X10 -5%	190

**KOPI PREMIUM**

	R	L
AFFOGATO	30	
CAPPUCCINO	28	41
LATTE	28	41
LONG BLACK	26	38
CORRADO	25	
MACHIATO	25	
PICCOLO	25	
ESPRESSO	22	

**KOPI SEHARI-HARI**

	R	L
KOPI ESKRIM	27	
KOPI HITAM	20	30
KOPI SUSU	20	30
KOPI ESPRESSO	17	

pergikuliner

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## Lampiran 20 : TARIF TENAGA LISTRIK



### PENETAPAN PENYESUAIAN TARIF TENAGA LISTRIK (TARIFF ADJUSTMENT)

JANUARI - MARET 2022

NO.	GOL. TARIF	BATAS DAYA	REGULER		PRA BAYAR (Rp/kWh)
			BIAYA BEBAN (Rp/kVA/bulan)	BIAYA PEMAKAIAN (Rp/kWh) DAN BIAYA kVArh (Rp/kVArh)	
1.	R-1/TR	900 VA-RTM	*	1.352,00	1.352,00
2.	R-1/TR	1.300 VA	*	1.444,70	1.444,70
3.	R-1/TR	2.200 VA	*	1.444,70	1.444,70
4.	R-2/TR	3.500 VA s.d. 5.500 VA	*	1.444,70	1.444,70
5.	R-3/TR	6.600 VA ke atas	*	1.444,70	1.444,70
6.	B-2/TR	6.600 VA s.d. 200 kVA	*	1.444,70	1.444,70
7.	B-3/TM	di atas 200 kVA	**	Blok WBP = $K \times 1.035,78$ Blok LWBP = $1.035,78$ kVArh = $1.114,74$ ****)	-
8.	I-3/TM	di atas 200 kVA	**	Blok WBP = $K \times 1.035,78$ Blok LWBP = $1.035,78$ kVArh = $1.114,74$ ****)	-
9.	I-4/TT	30.000 kVA ke atas	***	Blok WBP dan Blok LWBP = $996,74$ kVArh = $996,74$ ****)	-
10.	P-1/TR	6.600 VA s.d. 200 kVA	*	1.444,70	1.444,70
11.	P-2/TM	di atas 200 kVA	**	Blok WBP = $K \times 1.035,78$ Blok LWBP = $1.035,78$ kVArh = $1.114,74$ ****)	-
12.	P-3/TR		*	1.444,70	1.444,70
13.	L/TR, TM, TT		-	1.644,52	-

Catatan :

\*) Diterapkan Rekening Minimum (RM):  
 $RM1 = 40 \text{ (Jam Nyala)} \times \text{Daya tersambung (kVA)} \times \text{Biaya Pemakaian.}$

\*\*) Diterapkan Rekening Minimum (RM):  
 $RM2 = 40 \text{ (Jam Nyala)} \times \text{Daya tersambung (kVA)} \times \text{Biaya Pemakaian LWBP.}$   
 Jam nyala : kWh per bulan dibagi dengan kVA tersambung.

\*\*\*) Diterapkan Rekening Minimum (RM):  
 $RM3 = 40 \text{ (Jam Nyala)} \times \text{Daya tersambung (kVA)} \times \text{Biaya Pemakaian WBP dan LWBP.}$   
 Jam nyala : kWh per bulan dibagi dengan kVA tersambung.

\*\*\*\*) Biaya kelebihan pemakaian daya reaktif (kVArh) dikenakan dalam hal faktor daya rata-rata setiap bulan kurang dari 0,85 (delapan puluh lima per seratus).

K : Faktor perbandingan antara harga WBP dan LWBP sesuai dengan karakteristik beban sistem kelistrikan setempat ( $1,4 \leq K \leq 2$ ), ditetapkan oleh Direksi Perusahaan Perseroan (Persero) PT Perusahaan Listrik Negara.

WBP : Waktu Beban Puncak.  
 LWBP : Luar Waktu Beban Puncak.

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Lampiran 21 : TARIF AIR

I. TARIF AIR PERKELOMPOK PELANGGAN & BESARNYA PEMAKAIAN				
NO	KELOMPOK PELANGGAN	Blok Pemakaian & Tarif Air per m3		
		0 - 10 m3 Rp.	11 - 20 m3 Rp.	> 20 m3 Rp.
1	Kelompok I	1.050,-	1.050,-	1.050,-
2	Kelompok II	1.050,-	1.050,-	1.575,-
3	Kelompok III A	3.550,-	4.700,-	5.500,-
4	Kelompok III B	4.900,-	6.000,-	7.450,-
5	kelompok IV A	6.825,-	8.150,-	9.800,-
6	Kelompok IV B	12.550,-	12.550,-	12.550,-
7	kelompok V / Khusus	14.650,-	14.650,-	14.650,-

II. URAIAN KELOMPOK / GOLONGAN PELANGGAN			
<p><b>KELOMPOK I</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Tempat Ibadah</li> <li>- Hidran dan Ledeng Umum</li> <li>- Asrama Badan Sosial</li> <li>- Rumah Yatim Piatu</li> <li>- dan sejenisnya</li> </ul>	<p><b>KELOMPOK II</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Rumah Sakit Pemerintah</li> <li>- Rumah Tangga Sangat Sederhana</li> <li>- Rumah Susun Sangat Sederhana</li> <li>- dan sejenisnya</li> </ul>	<p><b>KELOMPOK III A</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Rumah Tangga Sederhana</li> <li>- Rumah Susun Sederhana</li> <li>- Stasiun Air &amp; Mobil Tangki</li> <li>- dan sejenisnya</li> </ul>	
<p><b>KELOMPOK III B</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Rumah Tangga Menengah</li> <li>- Rumah Susun Menengah</li> <li>- Kios/Warung</li> <li>- Bengkel Kecil</li> <li>- Usaha Kecil Dalam Rumah Tangga</li> <li>- Lembaga Swasta Non Komersial</li> <li>- Usaha Kecil</li> <li>- dan sejenisnya</li> </ul>	<p><b>KELOMPOK IV A</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Rumah Tangga di atas Menengah</li> <li>- Kedutaan / Konsulat</li> <li>- Kantor Instansi Pemerintah</li> <li>- Kantor Perwakilan Asing</li> <li>- Lembaga Swasta Komersial</li> <li>- Institusi Pendidikan / Kursus</li> <li>- Instansi TNI</li> <li>- Usaha Menengah</li> <li>- Usaha Menengah dalam Rumah Tangga</li> <li>- Tempat Pangkas Rambut</li> <li>- Penjahit</li> <li>- Rumah Makan / Restoran</li> <li>- Rumah Sakit Swasta / Poliklinik/ Laboratorium</li> <li>- Praktek Dokter</li> <li>- Kantor Pengacara</li> <li>- Hotel Melati / Non Bintang</li> <li>- Industri Kecil</li> <li>- Rumah Susun di Atas Menengah</li> <li>- Bengkel Menengah</li> <li>- dan sejenisnya</li> </ul>	<p><b>KELOMPOK IV B</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Hotel Berbintang 1, 2, 3 / Motel / Cottage</li> <li>- Steambath / Salon Kecantikan</li> <li>- Night Club / kafe</li> <li>- Bank</li> <li>- Service Station, Bengkel Besar</li> <li>- Perusahaan Perdagangan / Niaga / Ruko /Rukan</li> <li>- Hotel Berbintang 4, 5</li> <li>- Gedung Bertingkat Tinggi, Apartemen / Kondominium</li> <li>- Pabrik Es</li> <li>- Pabrik Makanan / Minuman</li> <li>- Pabrik Kimia / Obat / Kosmetik</li> <li>- Pabrik / Gudang / Perindustrian</li> <li>- Pabrik Tekstil</li> <li>- Pergudangan / Industri Lainnya</li> <li>- Tongkang Air</li> <li>- PT Jaya Ancol</li> <li>- dan sejenisnya</li> </ul>	
<p><b>KELOMPOK V / Khusus</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- BPR Tanjung Priok</li> <li>- dan sejenisnya</li> </ul>			

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## Lampiran 22 : TARIF INTERNET

**PROMO**

up to  
**20**  
Mbps

**IndiHome New HJM dengan akses Disney+  
Hotstar 2P Inet Phone Diskon PSB 77**

Cocok digunakan untuk 3 - 5 perangkat sekaligus

**Rp 275.000 /bulan**

**Berlangganan**

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### Lampiran 23 BAB 3 : CPM

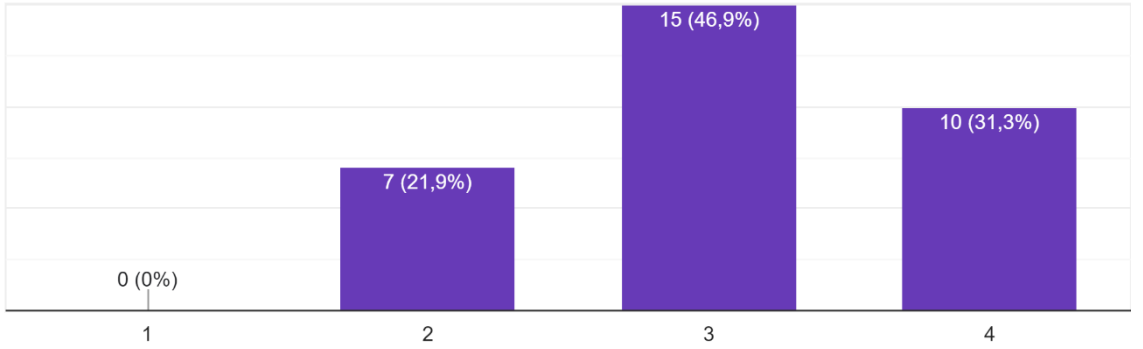
#### C Hak Cipta Dilindungi Undang-Undang

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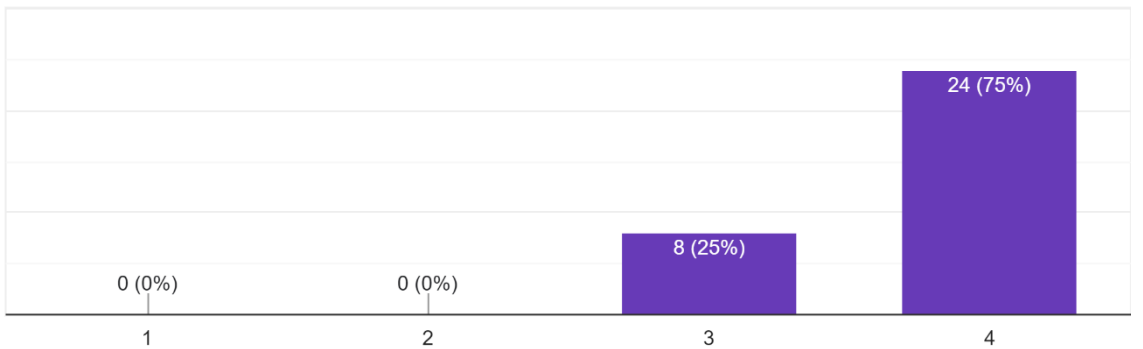
Apakah harga menjadi pertimbangan anda dalam membeli minuman kopi ?

32 jawaban



Apakah kualitas produk menjadi pertimbangan anda dalam membeli minuman kopi ?

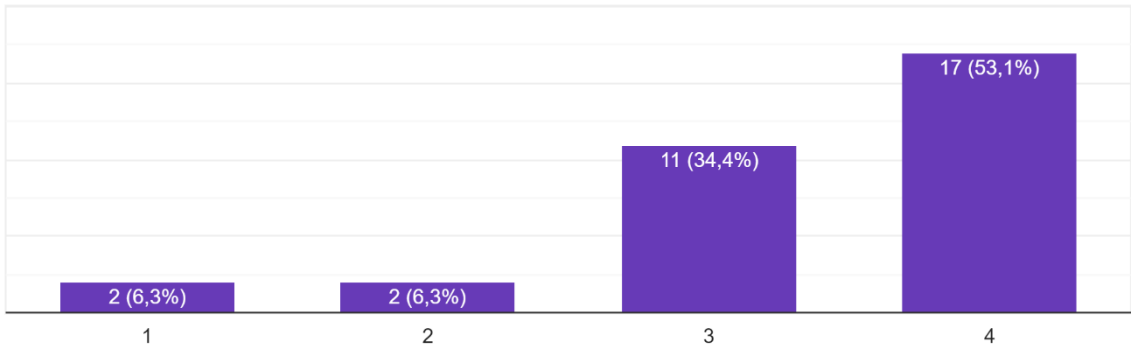
32 jawaban



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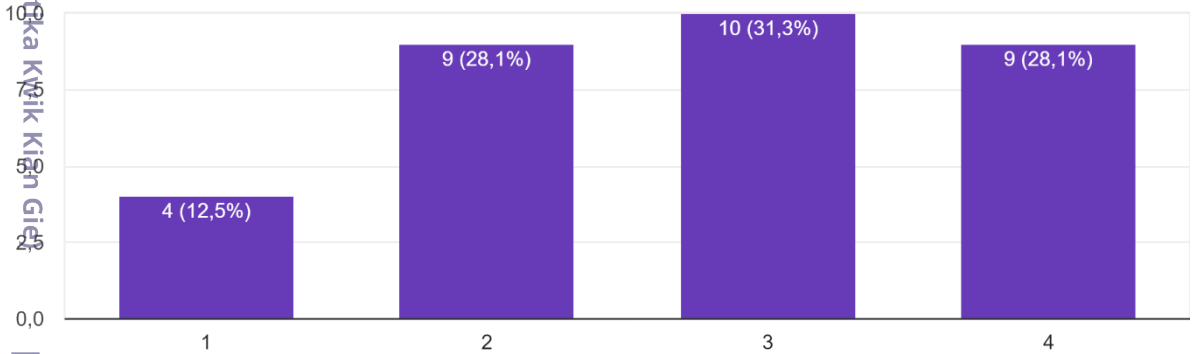
Apakah lokasi coffee shop menjadi pertimbangan anda dalam membeli minuman kopi ?

32 jawaban



Apakah kesadaran masyarakat tentang suatu brand coffee shop (popularitas) menjadi pertimbangan anda membeli kopi ?

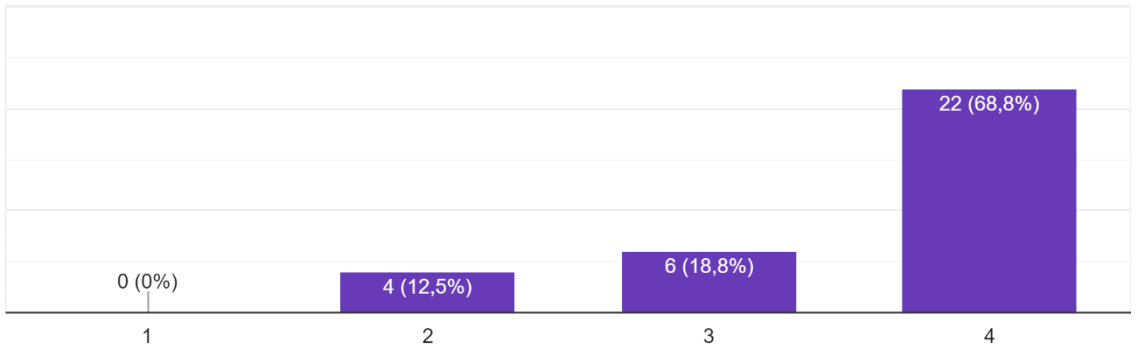
32 jawaban



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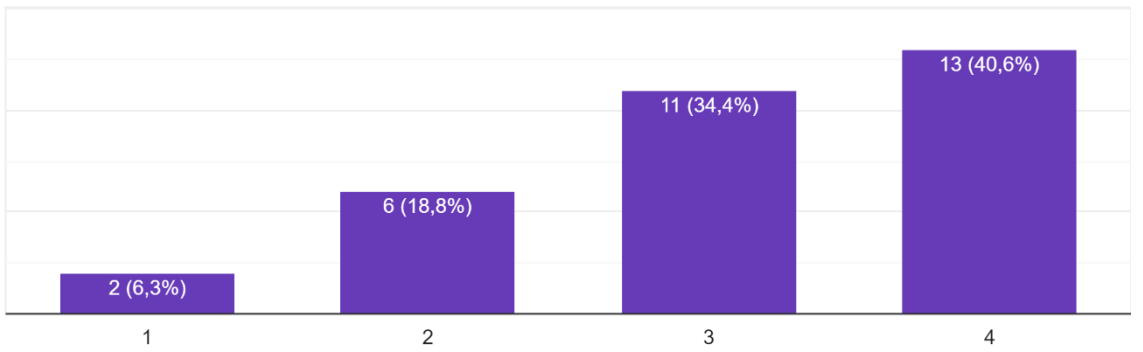
Apakah suasana di coffee shop menjadi pertimbangan anda membeli kopi ?

32 jawaban



Apakah varian produk menjadi pertimbangan anda membeli kopi ?

32 jawaban



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