CENTRE FOR DISTANCE & ONLINE EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF JAMMU

JAMMU

SELF LEARNING MATERIAL
OF
STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

For the examination to be held in 2025 onwards

M.Com Semester II **Unit: I - IV**

Course No. : MCOMC251 **Lesson No. 1-20**

Prof. Sandeep Kour Tandon
Coordinator

Dr. Deepti Abrol
Teacher- In-Charge

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STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

Written by:

Dr. Purnima Bakshi
Lecturer
GCW Parade, Jammu

Reviewed by:
Dr. Ritika Sambyal
Lecturer
Udhampur Campus
University of Jammu

Dr. Purnima Bakshi brings extensive experience in teaching and research within the field of business education. He holds a Ph.D. from the P.G. Department of Commerce, University of Jammu. In addition to his broad teaching background, he remains an enthusiastic researcher, particularly focused on exploring contemporary trends and emerging areas in management.

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CENTRE FOR DISTANCE AND ONLINE EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF JAMMU
M.COM. Semester – II (NON-CBCS)
STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT
(Core Course)

Course: MCOMC251	**Max Marks: 100 Marks**
Credit: 4	**External: 70 Marks**
Time: 3.00 Hrs.	**Internal: 30 Marks**

(Syllabus for the examinations to be held in May 2026, 2027, 2028)

COURSE OBJECTIVES

1. To impart knowledge about state-of the –art framework of strategic management.
2. To acquaint the students with external and internal dynamics of business and strategic alternatives.
3. To familiarise the students with structural and functional aspects of strategic implementation.
4. To recognise the complexities involved in strategic evaluation and contemporary issues in strategic management.

COURSE OUTCOMES

After the completion of this course, the students will be able to:

1. understand the conceptual framework of strategy and strategic management.
2. develop competency to analyse and evaluate the impact of internal and external forces on generating strategic alternatives and selection.
3. formulate structural design and strategic plans for implementation of strategy.
4. implement strategic evaluation & control techniques to achieve objectives.
5. design, implement and evaluate business strategy.

UNIT I FUNDAMENTALS OF STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

Strategy-Meaning, kinds & importance of strategy, shift from the term business policy to strategic management; Strategic management process; Vision, mission and philosophy; Schools of thought in strategic management; McKinsey 7s framework; Corporate Planning-Meaning, process, benefits approaches, why corporate planning fails and pre-requisites for its success.

UNIT II STRATEGY FORMULATION

Environmental analysis-Concept, components, environment scanning and appraising; Organisational appraisal-Dynamics for internal environment, organisational capability factors, techniques used for organisational appraisal; Strategic alternatives: Modernisation, diversification, integration, mergers, takeover, joint ventures, turnaround, disinvestment, liquidation, combination, strategic alliance; M.E Porter's Generic business strategies & competitive advantage; Strategic choice process; Corporate portfolio analysis; SWOT analysis; Subjective factors in strategic choice, contingency strategies and strategic plan.

UNIT III STRATEGIC IMPLEMENTATION

Strategy implementation-Issues, project implementation, procedural implementation, resource allocation, structural implementation; Strategy-structure relationship; Organisational design and change; Functional plans and policies-Marketing, operations, personnel, financial; Behavioural implementation: Leadership implementation, corporate culture, business ethics, social responsibilities.

UNIT IV STRATEGIC EVALUATION & CONTEMPORARY ISSUES

Strategic evaluation and control-Concept, need & importance; Types of control-Strategic & operational control; Role of organisational systems and control; Strategic audit; Global issues in strategic management; Fourth industrial revolution, de globalisation, corporate sustainability.

Suggestive Readings

1. Bhattacharya, S.K. and N. Venkataraman, Managing Business Enterprises: Strategies, Structures and Systems, Vikas Publishing House, New Delhi.
2. Budhiraja, S.B. and M.B. Athreya: Cases in Strategic Management, Tata McGraw Hill, New Delhi.
3. Porter,M. E. Business Policy Text and Cases, Irwin Inc., Homewood Illinois.
4. Coulter, M.K.Strategic Management in Action, Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
5. Kazmi, A. Business Policy, Tata McGraw Hill, Delhi.
6. Jeyarathnam, M. Business Policy and Strategic Management, Himalayan Publication, Delhi
7. Lawarance, R. Jaunch and William F. Fluock. Business Policy & Strategic Management, Tata McGraw Hill, Delhi.

Note for Paper Setting:

External (End Semester) Assessment will comprise of 70 Marks.

The Question Paper will be divided into two sections, covering whole of the syllabus.

Section A: This section will comprise of 4 questions of short answer type from all four units, selecting one from each unit. All questions will be compulsory and each question will carry 5 marks. (4 x 5 = 20 marks)

Section B: This section will comprise of six questions of long answer type from all four units, selecting at least one question from each unit. Students will be required to attempt any 5 questions and each question will carry 10 marks. (5 x 10 = 50 marks)

Dear Learners

Welcome to the Self-Learning Material (SLM) for the subject **Strategic Management** under the M.Com Distance Education Programme. This material has been specially designed to facilitate your understanding of strategic concepts, frameworks, and applications that are crucial for business decision-making and long-term planning.

Strategic Management is a dynamic and vital discipline that equips future managers and entrepreneurs with the analytical tools and insights required to navigate a competitive environment. The lessons in this SLM cover a range of topics including strategy formulation, implementation, corporate governance, competitive advantage and global strategic issues.

Each unit has been structured to promote self-paced learning with clear objectives, key concepts, illustrations, and review questions. You are encouraged to actively engage with the content, reflect on real-world examples, and apply theoretical knowledge to practical situations.

We hope this material supports your academic journey and helps you develop a strategic mindset essential for your professional growth.

Wishing you a fruitful and enriching learning experience!

Centre for Distance and Online Education
University of Jammu

STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

CONTENTS

CONTENTS

FUNDAMENTALS OF STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT
MEANING, LEVELS, KINDS AND IMPORTANCE OF STRATEGY

STRUCTURE

1.0 Learning Objectives and Outcomes
1.1 Introduction

1.2 Meaning of Strategy

1.3 Defining Strategy

1.4 Levels at which Strategy operates

1.5 Kinds of Strategies

1.6 Importance of Strategy

1.7 Strategists and their role in Strategic Management

- 1.7.1 Role of Board of Directors
- 1.7.2 Role of Chief Executives

1.8 Let Us Sum Up

1.9 Key words

1.10 Self Assessment Questions

1.11 Lesson End Exercise

1.12 Answer Key

1.13 Suggested Readings

1.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

- To define strategic management and its core components.
- To explain the importance of strategic management for organizational success in today's dynamic environment.
- To differentiate between strategic, tactical, and operational decisions.
- To discuss the evolution of strategic management thought.
- Recognize the different levels of strategy within an organization (corporate, business, functional).

Learning Outcomes

After Completing the lesson students will be able to:

- Know the meaning of strategy
- Discuss the role and characteristics of objectives.
- Evaluate upon the different kinds of strategies.
- Review the importance of strategy.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The term 'strategy' is derived from a Greek word 'strategos', which means generalship– the actual direction of military force, as distinct from the policy governing its deployment. Literally, therefore, theword' strategy' means the art of the general.Inbusiness parlance, there is no definite meaning assigned to strategy. A business strategy is a set of activities and decisions necessary to achieve specifi cbusiness goals.

1.2 MEANING OF STRATEGY

Strategy, as a concept,has been defined by many experts.Before we take up a few definitions for discussion, let us consider the following examples :

- A leading brand name in the pain balm market is that of Amrutanjan manufactured by Amrutanjan Ltd.With a 60 percent market share, the companyis well-entrenched in the marketbut increasing competition from companies like Zandu balm and Eskayef have forced Amrutanjan Ltd. to consider taking certain steps. These include market expansion, introduction of new products and taking up the distribution of other consumer products.

- Setupin1972, Apollo Tyres has been facing various problems during the last 20 years. After many remedial measures, taken during the last six years, the company is gradually trying to gain stability and become profitable. One of the measures taken relates to the product mix. The company has stopped the manufacturing of two- and three-wheeler tyres and is now concentrating only Campco, a cooperative of are canut and cocoa growers,entered the field of cocoa processing and chocolate manufacturing to safe guard the interest of its members who are small farmers spread in the backward areas of Karnataka and Kerala. It is now a successful venture competing with established companies like Hindustan Cocoa Products Ltd. and Gujarat Cooperative Milk Marketing Federation.
- Escorts Ltd, a reputed engineering firm, planned to invest Rs. 170 crore between 1986 and 1990 and take up the manufacture of petrochemicals, electro-medicalequipment andfoodpackagingmachinery. It hasalready started making electronic telephone exchange systems.
- Instead ofgraduallydeveloping a brand ofcomfortable and modern cars, Teslaimmediately declare itself a brand of expensive and luxurious vehicles.

The above illustrations show how different the companies react to their environment. In doing so,they adopta course of action which to them seems to be appropriate. Such a course of action may involve actions like diversification, expansion, aiming for stability or divesting a part of operations.

When an old established company which has been profitable in the past,starts facing new threats in the environment, like the emergence of competitors, it has to rethink the course of action it had been adopting.With such are thinking, newways are devised tocounter the threats. Alternatively, some new opportunities may emerge in the environment which were not there in the past.In order to take advantages to these opportunities, a company reassesses the approaches it had been following and changes its course of action. These courses of action are what we may call strategies. So we can conclude that, strategy is a plan of action to achieve short, middle and long term desired goals. Strategy is an action that manages take to attain one or more of the organisation’s goals.

Since strategy is the most important concept in business policy course, we will study a few definitions of strategy, given by different authors, and derive certain conclusions from them.

1.3 DEFINING STRATEGY

Strategyis an action that managers take to attain one or more of the organisation’s goals. Management is an art as well as science.Many concepts usedin building management theory have been derived from practice. Unlike pure sciences, which have their foundations on experimental research, management studiesdrawuponthepracticalexperiencesofmanagersin defining the concepts. Business policy is rooted in the practice of management and has passed through different phases before taking shape in its presentform of strategic management.One of the earliest contributors to this young subject was AlfredD. Chandler.

1. Alfred D.Chandler (1962)

Chandler made a comprehensive analysis of the interrelationships among the environment, strategy, and organization structure. He analyzed the history of organizational change in 70 manufacturing firms in the U.S. In doing so, Chandler defined strategy as:

"The determination of the basic long-term goals and objectives of an enterprise and the adoption of the courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals."

Chandler refers to three aspects:

- Determination of basic long-term goals and objectives;
- Adoption of courses of action to achieve these objectives; and
- Allocation of resources necessary for adopting the courses of action.

2. Kenneth Andrews (1965)

Andrews belongs to the group of Professors at Harvard Business School which was responsible for developing the subject of business policy and its teaching through the case study method.

Andrews defines strategy as:

“The pattern of objectives, purposes, goals, and the major policies and plans for achieving these goals stated in such a way so as to define what business the company is in or is to be and the kind of company it is or is to be.”

This definition refers to the ‘business definition,’ which is a way of stating the current and the desired future position of the company, and the objectives, purposes, goals, major policies and plans required for taking the company from where it is to where it wants to be.

3. Igor Ansoff(1965)

Professor Ansoff is a well-known authority in the field of strategic management and has been a prolific writer for the last three decades .In one of his earlier books *Corporate Strategy,* he explained the concept of strategy as :

“The common thread among the organisation's activities and product-markets as abovethat defines the essential nature of business that the organization was or planned to be in future."Ansoff stresses on the commonality of approach that exists in diverse organizational activities including the products and markets that define the current and the planned nature of business.

4. William F.Glueck(1972)

Another well-known author in the strategic management area was Glueck, whowasadistinguished Professor of Management at the University of Georgia till his death in 1980. He defines strategy precisely as :

"A unified, comprehensive and integrated plan designed to assure that the basic objectives of the enterprise are achieved."

The three adjectives, which Glueck uses to define a plan, make the definition quite adequate. Unified means that the plan joins all the parts of an enterprise together, comprehensive means it covers all the major aspects of the enterprise, and integrated means that the parts of the plan are compatible with each other.
It is to be noted that the four approaches to defining strategy cover a period often years only.This is an indication of how complex a concept strategy is and how various authors have attempted to define such a complex concept. In fact, we have tried to give you an assortment of definitions out of the many available. To put it another way: there are as many definitions as there are experts. The same authors may change an approach adopted earlier. Witness what Ansoff says 19 years later (in 1984; his earlier definition is of 1965):

“Basically, a strategy is a set of decision-making rules for guidance of organisationalbehaviour.”

By means of the deep insights that the authors have developed through years of experience and thinking, they have attempted to define the concept of strategy with greater clarity and precision. This comment is valid for most of the concepts in strategic managementsince this discipline is in the process of evolution and is yet to evolve a uniform terminology.

5. Arthur Sharplin (1985)

Sharplin refers to the Webster's Third New International Dictionary and defines strategy as :

"A plan or course of action which is of vital, pervasive, or continuing importance to the organisation as a whole."

Combining the above definitions,we will not attempt to define strategy in yet a novelway but try to analyse the elements we have come across. We note that a strategy is :

1. A plan or course of action or a set of decision rules making a pattern or creating a common thread;
2. The pattern or common thread related to the organisation's activities which are derived from the policies, objectives and goals;
3. Concerned with pursuing those activities which move an organization from its current position to a desired future state; and
4. Concerned with the resources necessary for implementing a plan or following a course of action.

1.4 LEVELS AT WHICH STRATEGY OPERATES

1. **Corporate Strategies** - Corporate level strategy is a long range, action oriented, integrated and comprehensive plan formulated by the top management.It is used to ascertain business lines, expansion and growth, takeovers and mergers, diversification, integration, new areas for investment and divestment, etc.
2. **Business Level Strategies** - The strategies that relate to a particular business are known as business - level strategies. It is developed by the general managers whoconverts mission and vision into concrete strategies. It is a blueprint of the entire business.
3. **Functional Level Strategies** - Developed by the first line managers or supervisors, functional level stretegy involves decision making at the operational level concerning particular functional areas like marketing, production, human resources, research development, finance, etc.

   It is not uncommon to find many companies,or a group of companies, working in different business lines with regard to either products/services, markets or technology. Here are a few illustrations :

- Flow more group of companies manufactures pumps for irrigation, arange of engineering products, turbines, castings, specialised conversion equipments,and has recently started. It also offers engineering consultancy services for power projects and environmental engineering.

- Brooke Bond India Ltd., offers a range of over 34 different products in product lines oftea, coffee and spices. Operating through a countrywide sales and marketing network for consumers, it also offers institutional business service for hotels, restaurants, clubs and other bulk buyers like canteens and industrial establishments. Thus, it serves two entirely different sets of customers : individual and institutional.

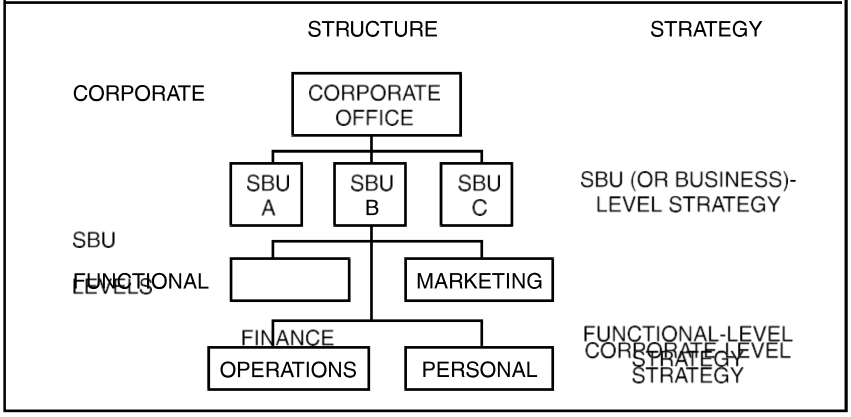
A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

TechSpark, a small software development company, initially intended to focus solely on developing customized software solutions for local businesses (intended strategy). However, due to an unexpected surge in demand for a specific internal project management tool they had created for their own use, they started receiving inquiries from other companies wanting to purchase it. Over time, this productized project management tool became their primary revenue driver and the core of their business.

- Analyze TechSpark's strategic evolution. Identify the intended strategy and the emergent strategy.

- Discuss the factors that might have contributed to the emergence of this new strategy. What are the potential implications of this shift for TechSpark's future strategic direction?

Exhibit1.3:*DifferentLevelsofStrategy*



- Sundaram Clayton and its associate companies TVS Suzuki, TVS Electronics, and TVS Whirpool-operate in technology areas diverse as brake and signal systems for railways, two-wheelers, computer peripherals and electrical appliances.

For many companies, such as illustrated above, a single strategy is not only inadequate but also inappropriate. The need is for multiple strategies at different levels. In order to segregate, different units or segments, each performing a common set of activities, many companies organise on the basis of operating divisions or, simply, divisions.These divisions may also be known as profit centres or strategic buisness units (SBUs). An SBU, as defined bySharplin, is "*any part of a business organisation whichis treated separately for strategic management purposes.”*

1.5 KINDS OF STRATEGIES

Though there is no universally accepted typology of strategies, there are certain common-classifications which are in use by practitioners and management academicians. Some of the well-known strategies are mentioned here.

A Growth Strategies

Growth strategy allows companies to expand their business. Growth is a major objective of most organizations. Guth has discussed seven growth strategies,

i. Hold relative position in high-growth product/market area;
ii. increase market share in high growth market;
iii. increase market share in mature markets;
iv. hold strong relative position in mature market, and use “excess” cashflow, fund-scapacity, and other resources to support penetration in multinational markets with

existing product line;

v. hold strong relative position in maturing market and use “excess” cashflow, externalfunds capability, and other, resources to support penetration of new products/market areas domestically.

vi. Hold strong relative position in multinational markets with present product line, and use "excess" cashflow, funds capability, and other resources to diversify products; and

vii. Hold strong relative position in diversified product line domestically and use "excess" cashflow, funds capability, and other resources to diversify markets.

B Dependency Reduction Strategies

Many organisations seek to reduce their dependence on other organisations. Thompson describes six strategic alternatives aimed at reducing an organisation's dependence on the environment,

i) “Maintaining alternatives” refer to options like arranging for alternative sources of supply; entering additional geographical regions to reduce uncertainty due to dependence on local market conditions; and diversifying into coal and shale (in the case of companies) to assure themselves of some source of energy.

ii) Organisations can reduce dependency by building a "positive image" as many organizations prefer to do business with those that have prestige.

(iii) “Direct confrontation" is astrategy that organisations canadopt to acquire power over those on whom they are dependent. It involves a direct show of power, which might involve price cutting, unfair competitive practices, espionage, pirating or sabotaging resources, law suits, and takeover, etc.

(iv) "Contracting" is a strategy used by organisations to reduce uncertainties associated with some dependencies. Contracts may be negotiated by organizations with their suppliers, competitors, customers or regulators.

(v) "Co-optation" is the strategy by which organisations attempt to achieve certainty of future, by absorbing representation of other organisations into policy-making positions.

(vi) "Coalitions" are cooperative relationships formed by organizations to achieve common goals like opposing a common enemy; promoting a product or service; construction of common facilities; and sharing the costs of expensive programmes or equipment, etc.

C Vertical Integration Strategies

It is a strategy that allows a company to streamline its operations by taking direct ownership of various stages. An organisation's move to produce inputs into its own manufacturing process is termed "backward vertical integration" while a move to gain control of the distribution of the outputs produced is called "forward vertical integration." Harrigan has analysed the advantages and disadvantages of vertical integration. The basic risk is that of losing flexibility.

D. **Generic Strategies**

According to Michael Porter there are three potentially successful generic competitive strategic approaches :

i) overall cost leadership

i) differentiation

iii) focus

Overall cost leadership requires efficient-scale plants, cost reduction from experience, tight cost and overhead control, and cost minimisation in R&D, service, salesforce, etc. Other implications are that the firm which pursues this strategy must have a high relative market share, and possibly a favourable access to raw materials.

A firm pursuing a strategy of differentiation ideally differentiates itself along several dimensions like design, technology, features, customer-service, dealer network, etc., to create an industry-wide perception of uniqueness.

Focus takes many forms: concentrating on a particular buyer group, segment of the product line, or geographic market. The entire strategy is built around serving a particular target well, and each functional policy is designed with this in mind.

E. Mergers and Joint Ventures

Merger involves the complete blending of assets and the formation of a new single organisation instead of the two original ones. In many cases, the name, facilities, and the personnel of the acquired firm are retained. What changes is the ownership. Control of resources and competition are probably the main reasons for mergers. Firms that view mergers from a portfolio perspective often acquire firms whose businesses may not have any relationship to their existing businesses. This kind of merger is called a conglomerate acquisition.

Joint ventures result from the collaboration of two or more organisations. They are jointly controlled and owned by two or more parents and involve only a partial mingling of assets. This strategy permits the pooling of risk in uncertain activities like research in state-of-the-art air transportation, oil exploration, etc.

F. Turnaround Strategies

Strategies adopted for reviving sick organizations are referred to as “turnaround strategies.” Hambrick and Schecter have classified turnaround strategies into two types; entrepreneurial and efficiency. The former type involves product/market refocusing and efforts to increase market share. Product/market realignment may be accomplished through new products, enhanced research and development, and improved product quality. Efficiency-oriented turnarounds are characterised by lowering of operating costs through reduction of direct product costs and increase in employee productivity and reduction of assets.

Khandwalla's research on turnaround management in India suggests that the major ingredients of successful turnaround are one or more powerful change agents; dramatic credibility-building actions by the change agent; mobilisation of organisation for turnaround through emphasis on company-wide missions and goals; concretisation of goals and problems and the involvement of personnel in the turnaround; quick pay-off action to generate badly needed cash and providing a success experience to cynical rank-and-file; negotiating with key outside pressure groups to get temporary relief from pressure; opportunistic harnessing of the external environment; selective strengthening of some of the mechanisms for influencing the external environment; selective changes in product-mix; selective professionalisation of management systems; motivational strategy; coordination strategy; performance control strategy; and institutionalisation of the appropriate style of management.

G. Business Unit Strategy and Corporate Strategy

Strategies may also be classified in terms of organisational level. A diversified corporation would have several separate businesses, each of which would have its own strategy. Hence, in a divisionalised corporation there would be at least two levels of strategy: business unit strategy and corporate strategy. The concept of strategy is applicable to both the levels in general, but there are some differences in the concerns of management and the specific content of strategy normally should indicate business domain and the products and services to be offered; differential advantages sought in terms of quality, price, service, and the basis on which these are to be achieved; strategic thrust through selected programmes and their timing; and the goals.

Corporate strategy is concerned with the total company consisting of a number of business units. Some units may have to be developed, some maintained, and others liquidated. Also, new units may need to be acquired or developed. The main elements of a corporate strategy should indicate the desired portfolio of business units and major moves regarding retention, addition, or deletion of business units, consolidated resource mobilisation, and plans.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q: Mark the statements as true or false.

1. An intended strategy is always fully realized as the organization's implemented strategy.
2. Cost leadership and differentiation are examples of business-level competitive strategies.
3. A stability strategy involves significant organizational growth and expansion into new markets.
4. Emergent strategies are planned and deliberately formulated by top management.
5. Strategic alliances and joint ventures are examples of cooperative strategies.
6. Strategic alliances and joint ventures are examples of cooperative strategies.

1.6 IMPORTANCE OF STRATEGY

The main purpose of a business strategy is to help businesses to maximise returns and find ways to map progress. There are various components of a business strategy, including a primary objective (which connects to the overall mission), core values (which hold employees accountable to organisational standards) and SWOT analysis (which helps organisations gauge their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats).

Here are some advantages that highlight the importance of business strategy.

1. Creates a Vision - The main purpose of a business strategy lies in creating a vision for an organisation that provides direction and guidance. All members need to have a clear picture of organisational goals and objectives to carry out their responsibilities. Business strategies help people stay focused on the big picture.

2. Identifies Important Trends - Business strategies can identify opportunities and trends that can inform decisions for the future. They can help analyse changes in the market or consumer behaviours so that businesses can develop tactics or modify them to generate positive outcomes. In short, trends are useful in informing future decisions.

3. Provides Competitive Advantage - An organisation can gain a competitive advantage by developing a sound business strategy. In other words, it can distinguish itself from competitors in the market. Business strategies help organisations understand themselves better and where they are headed.

Determining the strategy is the most significant area of management decision making and the most important one to make right decisions. According to Ansoff, there are three types of management decisions: strategic, administrative and operating. Operating decisions in a business organisation are concerned with resource conversion process and involve allocation of operation resources. Actual decision making tends to be with the operating managers in different units (or sub-units) of the organisation and decisions at this level are made all the time in an organisation. Many such decisions are repetitive. While such decisions may involve some risk and uncertainty, they are generally characterised by a relatively short time period between recognising the need to make such decisions and the completion of all the effects following from them.

Administrative decisions within an organisation are essentially facilitative. They establish policies and procedures for acquiring resources and ensure an appropriate internal structure of authority and responsibility among those working within the organisation and for managing the flow of information.

Strategic decisions, in contrast to the above two types of decisions, relate to the interface between the organisation and its external environments. Such decision making tends to be centralised at the top level of the organisation as the decisions are concerned with the allocation of the total resources. In contrast to operating decisions, strategic decisions are made relatively infrequently, though the analyses required for making such decisions may be a continuing exercise. The effects of strategic decisions will normally be felt by the organisation over a considerable period of time. The most challenging characteristic of strategic decisions is that in many cases the management does not receive any forewarning that such decisions are required to be made. That is why Ansoff refers to them as "non-self-generative decisions." This implies that although strategic decisions may be relatively few in number, the organisation must be constantly aware of a need to make such decisions. Therefore, it must ensure that a mechanism exists which would draw their attention to making such decisions.

Although in several cases an organisation's short-term survival is more affected by its operating and administrating efficiency, its success or failure in the long run however depends upon right strategic decision making, i.e., upon doing the right things rather than upon doing things right. Indeed, one of the problems faced by senior management, arising from the non-generative nature of strategic decisions, is that of concentrating upon day-to-day operating and administrating issues to the almost neglect of strategic issues. Two authors contrast the relative importance and outcome of efficiency in the area of operations and strategy in the form of a matrix shown in Exhibit 1.1

Exhibit 1.1 Comparison of Operating and Strategic Decisions

	WHAT	STRATEGIC DECISIONS	
How-		Clear	Unclear
OPERATING DECISIONS	Effective	I Clear strategy and effective operations have contributed to success in the past and will contribute to success in the future.	II Unclear strategy but effective operations have conbributed to success in the future is doubtful.
	Ineffective	III Clear strategy but ineffective operations have sometimes worked in the short run, but increasing competition makes success doubtful in the future.	IV Unclear strategy and ineffective operations have meant failure in the past and will be so in the future.

***Adapted from* :**Tragoe B. and J Zimmerman. 1980. Top Management Strategy, John Martin: London, p. 20.

The goal of top management should be the achievement of efficiency both at the strategic and operational fronts. While efficient operations without a current strategy may ensure short-term survival for the business, no organisation can survive without a clear and appropriate strategy in the long term.

1.7 STRATEGISTS AND THEIR ROLE IN STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

Strategists are individuals or groups who are primarily involved in the formulation, implementation, and evaluation of strategy. In a limited sense, all managers are strategists. There are persons, outside the organisation, who are also involved in various aspects of strategic management. They too are referred to as strategists. We could identify nine strategists who, as individuals or in groups, are concerned with and play a role in strategic management. In this section, we describe the roles of these strategists.

1.7.1 Role of Board of Directors

The ultimate legal authority of an organisation vests in the board of directors. The owners of the organization-shareholders, controlling agencies, government, financial institutions, holding company or the parent company-elect and appoint the directors on the board. The board is responsible to them for the governance of the organisation. As directors, the members of the board are responsible for providing guidance and establishing the directives according to which the managers of the organisation can operate. The board exercises its authority according to the memorandum of association and articles of association of the company. Legally, they have to conform to the various provisions of the Companies Act, 1956. Apart from the legal framework, the board acts according to the policies, rules, procedures, and conventions of the organisation.

In practice, however, there is a wide difference among the role played by the board in various types of organisations. These differences may arise due to the ownership patterns in public and private sector companies. Even within these sectors, there might be variations. Private sector companies which are family-owned differ from multinationals. Further, professionally managed companies may differ from family-owned concerns.

By definition, the board is only required to direct. But many operational matters of vital significance like technology collaborations, new product development, senior management appointments, etc., may also be referred to the board. The directing functions of the board have certain formal and informal components. Formally, the board is involved in reviewing and screening executive decisions in the light of their environmental, business, and organisational implications. Informally, the board seeks to direct the organisation’s activities so that they are in accordance with the prevailing social, economic, and political milieu. Because the board is considered as a vital link between the environment and the organisation, it usually does not concern itself with operational decision-making.

The role of the board in strategic management is to guide the senior management in setting and accomplishing objectives, reviewing and evaluating organisational performance, and appointing senior executives. However, there is no clarity regarding the exact role that the board should play in managing the affairs of the organisation. Much depends on the relative strength, in terms of power, held by the board and the chief executive. Where there is a high level of clarity regarding their respective roles, the relationship between the board and the chief executive is cordial and the functioning of the board is smooth. Where such clarity is less, problems occur.

1.7.2 Role of Chief Executives

The chief executive (CE) is the most important strategist who is responsible for all aspects of strategic management from formulation to evaluation of strategy. The CE is variously designated as managing director, executive director, president or general manager in business organisations. As the chief strategist, the CE plays a major role in strategic decision-making. Due to the importance assigned to the CE, many authors and researchers have attempted to define their roles, functions, and responsibilities. This is understandable since the CE of an organisation plays the most crucial role in determining whether an organisation is successful or not. Peters and Waterman say that "associated with almost every excellent company was a strong leader (or two) who seemed to have had a lot to do with making the company excellent in the first place."The role of the CE in strategic management is the most important among the roles played by different strategists. He is the person who is chiefly responsible for the execution of functions which are of strategic importance to the organisation. In other words, a CE performs the strategic tasks: actions which are necessary to provide a direction to the organisation so that it achieves its purpose. He plays a pivotal role in setting the mission of the organisation, deciding the objectives and goals, formulating and implementing the strategy and, in general, seeing to it that the organisation does not deviate from its predetermined path designed to move it from the position it is to where it wants to be.In short, a chief executive is primarily responsible for the strategic management of the organisation.

1.8 LET US SUM UP

We started this chapter with the discussion of the concept and definition of strategy. A strategy is a set of activities and decisions necessary to achieve the various goals of the organisation. There are three levels at which business operates, that is corporate level strategies, business level strategies, and functional level strategies. Corporate strategy is used to ascertain expansion, growth, diversification whereas the strategies which relate to the particular business are business level strategies like vision & mission.The main purpose of strategy is to help the business to maximise returns and create a vision, iden

tify important trades, and provide a competitive advantage. Strategists are individuals or groups who are primarily involved in the formulation, implementation, and evaluation of strategy. The chief executive is the most important strategist who is responsible for all aspects of strategic management from formulation to evaluation of strategy. The role of the board in strategic management is to guide senior management in setting and accomplishing objectives, reviewing and evaluating organisational performance.

1.9 KEY WORDS

- **Strategy:** A plan of action designed to achieve a long-term or overall aim.
- **Merger:** It involves the complete blending of assets and formation of a new single organisation.
- **Turnaround strategies:** Strategies adopted for reviving sick organisations are referred to as turnaround strategies.

1.10 SELF-ASSESSMENTQUESTIONS

Q1. What are the importance and role of strategy?

Q2. Give meaning and definition of a Strategy.

Q3. Discuss the levels at which strategy operates.

1.11 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q1: Describe the various competitive strategies that organizations can adopt to gain an advantage in the marketplace.

Q2: What are some examples of innovation strategies? How can organizations foster a culture of innovation to support their strategic goals?

Q3: Explain the difference between intended, deliberate, and emergent strategies. How do these different kinds of strategies shape an organization's direction?

1.12 ANSWER KEY

B. False, True, False, False, True , True

1.13 SUGGESTEDREADINGS

- Bhattachary, S.K. and N. Venkataramin, Managing Business Enterprises: Strategies, Structures and Systems, Vikas Publishing House, New Delhi, 1983.
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SHIFT FROM THE TERM BUSINESS POLICY TO STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT AND SCHOOLS OF THOUGHTS IN STRATEIC MANAGEMENT

STRUCTURE

2.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this lesson are:

(i) To know the meaning of school of thought.

(ii) To discuss different schools of thought.

(iii) To criticize different thoughts given by Mintzberg.

(iv) To understand the basic origin of strategic management.

(v) To identify the main elements of strategic management.Learning Outcomes

Learning Outcomes

After reading this lesson, the students will be able to:

- Identify and differentiate among the ten distinct schools of thought in strategic management understanding their core principles, underlying assumptions, and key proponents.
- Analyze diverse strategic situations and organizational contexts through the lens of different schools of thought
- Evaluate the strengths and limitations of each of the ten schools of thought, understanding their contributions to strategic thinking.
- Apply the concepts and frameworks of the ten schools of thought to analyze real-world business cases and strategic decisions.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

"Strategic management is an ongoing process that evaluates and controls the business and the industries in which the company is involved; assesses its competitors and sets goals and strategies to meet all existing and potential competitors; and then reassesses each strategy annually or quarterly. It is undeniable that strategical evolution is the fundamental element for the endurance and success of every business.

Evidently, each organization ought to have appropriate strategies and conform to the conditions that come up in a competitive market. It is an attempt to channelize those whose task it is to put strategy into exercise. Henry Mintzberg, et al. (1998) depicted the process of a 'strategy campaign' and has keyed out ten schools of thought in respect of strategy evolution. These schools have changed in popularity over time." The ten different schools were separated into the groups of prescriptive, descriptive, and synthesis. The difference point between the prescriptive schools and the descriptive ones is that the former concentrate on strategy preparation while the latter emphasizes strategy development.

The three prescriptive schools are considered the efficiency and constancy foundations which make directions as well as objectives for the growth of organizations. According to Stacey (2007), the three prescriptive schools are "the design school, the planning school, the positioning school." These three schools become both profound and preconditioned factors of strategic development for each organization expanded to these schools. The different descriptive schools which are entrepreneurial school, the cognitive school, the learning school, the power school, the cultural school, and the environmental school give deep insights in strategy preparation. The last group is synthesis that comprises of the configurations school, "which incorporates the aspects of all the other schools in terms of configurations or in terms of transformations." This school corresponds to an attempt at integration which definitively recognizes the complexness of strategy.

Strategic management is an ongoing process that evaluates and controls the business and the industries in which the company is involved; assesses its competitors and sets goals and strategies to meet all existing and potential competitors; and then reassesses each strategy annually or quarterly. It refers to the steps by which management converts a firm's mission, objectives and goals into a workable strategy.

2.2 MEANING OF SCHOOL OF THOUGHT

A school of thought refers to a doctrine, a feeling, an intellectual tradition collectively drawn by a group of people who share a common opinion or outlook of a philosophy/discipline/belief or social movement. It considers an intellectual tradition collectively drawn by a group of people who share common characteristics of opinion or outlook of a philosophy, discipline, belief, social movement, economics, culture, or art. In strategic management, the Ten Schools of Thought model by Henry Mintzberg is a framework that can be used to categorize the field of Strategic Management. Henry Mintzberg is an internationally acclaimed academician and author on business and management. The model describes each school in strategic perspective and provides a critical viewpoint. Thus, it acts as a very good overview to the entire field of Strategic Management. While academicians and consultants focus on narrow perspectives of strategies, the business managers are able to see the larger picture. One fact about strategies is they fail when they are seen very narrowly.

2.3 DIFFERENT SCHOOLS OF THOUGHT IN STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

Many companies and marketing managers have dedicated staff for strategy formulation. It is a very important process for the company, as it tells the future direction which the company has to take, and the way that the company can succeed. The 10 schools of thought tell us how strategy formulation can be done, and what are the various ways in which you can formulate a strategy.

2.3.1 THE DESIGN SCHOOL

In this thought process of strategy formulation, the focus is on conception of ideas and to design new ideas.

2.3.1.1 The company does an internal analysis with the help of SWOT analysis. 2.3.1.2 The company then tries to match its internal strength with the market strength which is required.

2.3.1.3 This works well in a stable environment, where competitors might not disrupt the market suddenly and it gives time to the firm to adapt.

However, we have to understand that conducting an internal analysis of the firm depends on the firm's own knowledge about itself. Similarly, matching the firm's internal abilities to the external market requires external market knowledge. Ultimately, knowledge is a limitation to the Design school of thought of strategy formulation. If proper knowledge is not used, this school of thought will fail.

The Design School: The design school proposes a model of strategy making: it looks at strategy formation as a process of conception. It is a fit between internal capabilities and external potentials. Strategy formulation is a deliberate process of conscious thought. The CEO is the key strategist who develops the strategy and controls its execution. Strategies become successful when the process of strategy formulation is kept simple and formal. Formulated strategies should be clear and the plan must be kept simple. The strategy design process is complete once a strategy is formulated. Strategies can only be implemented once they are fully formulated. The design school laid the foundation of strategic planning. Strategy formulation is a deliberate, conscious process and stating the need for both external and internal analysis.

The Critical View of Design School: It assesses strengths and weaknesses by bypassing the learning. Structure follows strategy, which makes strategy explicit. This promotes inflexibility. Under design school's thought, formulation of strategy gets separated from implementation of strategy which detaches thinking from acting.

2.3.2 THE PLANNING SCHOOL

In this thought process of strategy formulation, the focus runs towards planning the entire strategy in a rigorous manner, so that the firm advances forward.

2.3.2.1 The complete process and the plan which the company will implement is documented from the start to finish.

2.3.2.2 At all times, the plan is referred to whenever the management wants to take new decisions.

2.3.2.3 With the plan in hand, the management gets a clear direction to move in, helping the company to move forward unanimously.

The issue arises in the planning school of thoughts when anything happens out of plan. If you have planned for years in advance, and any new competitor pops up, or any external business variable is changed, then the complete plan gets affected. Hence, proper prediction is most essential when using the planning school of thought.

The Planning School: Here, strategy formation is considered a formal process. Also, the thought process runs towards planning the entire strategy in a rigorous manner, so that the firm advances forward. The complete process and the plan which the company implements is documented from the start to finish. In short, strategy planning is treated as distinctive processes. In the planning school of thought of strategy, the plan is given more importance whenever the management wants to take new decisions. With the plan in hand, the management gets a clear direction to move ahead, helping the company to move forward steadily.

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Innovate or Perish Inc. operates in a rapidly evolving technology sector. For years, their strategy was heavily reliant on the visionary leadership of their charismatic founder, who made bold decisions and quickly adapted to market changes based on his intuition and insights. While they experienced initial success, as the company grew and the industry became more complex, their lack of formal planning processes led to inconsistencies and missed opportunities. Recently, a new CEO was brought in to implement more structured strategic planning.

- Which of the 10 Schools of Thought best describes Innovate or Perish Inc.'s initial approach to strategy? Explain your reasoning.

2.3.3 THE POSITIONING SCHOOL

In this process of strategy formulation, the management decides that they want to position the product at the top of the mind and makes decisions accordingly.

2.3.3.1 The management has to determine the competition already present in the market, and where their own company is positioned.

2.3.3.2 It can use tools like Five Forces, Value Chain, BCG matrix and others to position its products.

2.3.3.3 Once the market has been analyzed, the right strategy is needed to improve the positioning of the product.

Again, in the positioning school of thought, the strategy assumes the market as it is, and does not take into consideration future entrants or change in business environment. Like the planning strategy, the positioning school of thought can also fail if there are major changes in the business environment.

The Planning School: Criticality Criticality arises when something happens out of plan. This typically happens when plans are made years in advance, and changes take place either in the industry or in the organization. When an internal or external variable changes, then the complete plan gets affected. Hence, proper prediction is most essential when using the planning school of thought.

The Positioning School: Here, the entire focus is on strategy content. The management of firms decides that they want to position the product at the top of the mind and make decisions accordingly. In this case, firms need to determine the competition already present in the market, and how the firm is positioned. Here the Five Force Model, Value chain, and BCG matrix are few strategic tools which can be used under the positioning school. Once the market is analyzed, the right strategy can be applied to improve the positioning of the firm's product.

The Critical View of Positioning School: In the positioning school of thought, the strategy assumes that the market will remain as it is, and it does not take into consideration new entrants or change in business environment. Like the planning strategy, the positioning school of thought can also fail if there are major changes in the business environment.

2.3.4 THE ENTREPRENEURIAL SCHOOL

This school of thought puts all the focus on the CEO of the company. Most observed in small businesses which want to make it large, or even large corporations which trust their leaders (Steve Jobs, Mark Zuckerberg), in this strategic process, the company follows whatever the CEO says.

2.3.4.1 In this case, the CEO needs to be visionary, needs strong leadership skills, and has to have the right judgment and direction.

2.3.4.2 This strategy has been proven right in very few cases over the years where the leaders were legendary by themselves. Steve Jobs, Bill Gates, Mark Zuckerberg are all examples of people who have grown companies to astounding proportions due to their leadership skills.

The problem with this management school of thought is a single one: How do you find such a leader? If you want to design your marketing strategy based on the recommendations by the leader of the company, then this leader can be wrong as well. And you need someone who is very strong on the business front and is dynamic to make the necessary changes.

The Entrepreneurial School: This school of thought considers strategy formation as a visionary process. The entrepreneurial school focuses on the CEO's vision as the key determinant of strategy. The leader has a particular perspective, a sense of long-term direction, a vision of the organization's future. The process of strategy formation occurs in a rather unconscious way. It is deep-rooted in the experience of the leader. The leader promotes the vision by maintaining close personal control of the implementation in order to be able to reformulate specific aspects as and when necessary. The organization responds to the leader's directives. The best examples of the Entrepreneurial school are examples in small businesses which want to make it large, or even large corporations which trust their leaders such as Apple Inc. employees trusted Steve Jobs, and the trust enjoyed by Mark Zuckerberg from his employees is explicit. The entrepreneurial school organizations follow only whatever the CEO says. Leadership pipeline models and situational leadership models are best tools to keep searching for good leadership in organizations.

The Critical View of Entrepreneurial School: The problem with this school is one question: Where to find a mature, experienced, talented, and honest leader? If an organization designs its strategies based on recommendations by the leader, he/she has to be a visionary and one who takes responsibilities for the success and failure of strategies.

2.3.5 THE COGNITIVE SCHOOL

In this thought process, people's perception and information is studied. One of the best examples of cognitive studies is the Johari window, wherein you can better your business by understanding your customers.

2.3.5.1 It is a mental and psychological process to find out what is in the minds of the consumer and how do we improve on that or use that information.

2.3.5.2 Once you know customers' perception and thought process about you, you can change the same with strategy. You can either improve or you can communicate better so that your customers have more information about you.

The problem with the cognitive model is that it is not practical beyond a certain point. A top company cannot rely on surveys alone to find new ideas or to make connections with their customers, because it has become a mass company by that time. Cognitive reasoning cannot be done at a mass stage.

Moreover, innovations are brought when you think of products which the customers have not thought of - which is not possible in the cognitive school of thought. Because you are only improving on the things which your customers perceive.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q: **Fill in the Blanks:**

1. The __________ School of thought views strategy formation as a deliberate, formal, and analytical process, often involving detailed plans and procedures.
2. The __________ School emphasizes the unique and often difficult-to-imitate resources and capabilities of an organization as the primary source of competitive advantage.
3. The __________ School suggests that strategy emerges over time through a series of small, incremental decisions and learning from past actions.
4. The __________ School focuses on the external industry structure and the organization's position within that structure as key determinants of strategic choices and performance.
5. The __________ School highlights the importance of shared values, beliefs, and assumptions within an organization in shaping its strategy.
6. The __________ School emphasizes the role of powerful individuals or groups and political processes in the formation of strategy.

The Cognitive School: Under this school of thought, organizations give a lot of importance to people's perception and their behavior. One of the best examples of cognitive studies is the Johari window, wherein organizations can do better business by understanding their employees, suppliers, and customers. Customer's perceptions matter and therefore, their information processing should be given a thought. This is where corporate communication plays an important role. Once the organization knows what their customers demand and wants, sending the right signals becomes easy for them. Even Howard-Sheth buyer behavior model is a good example of the cognitive school of thought. It attempts to explain the rationality of choice of the product by the consumer under conditions of incomplete information and reduced processing capability. It analyzes the external symptoms of behavior, reactions, and thought processes that cannot be subject to direct observation.

The Critical View of Cognitive School: The problem with the cognitive model is that it is not practical beyond a certain point. A top company cannot rely on surveys and marketing research reports alone to find new ideas or to make connections with their customers. The fact is that every day some new product gets introduced in the market and keeping a tab on each movement in the market is not possible in the cognitive school of thought.

2.3.6 THE LEARNING SCHOOL

In this thought process, management keeps a watch over what has already happened and then forms future strategy looking at the past. It might not necessarily look at its own past. It might look at the way things worked for some other company, or how some other company failed. And then decide on which strategy to implement and which one to ignore.

2.3.6.1 Implementation based on past successes

The company looks at things that worked and tries to implement the same thing over time with the assumption that it will work again.

2.3.6.2 Discarding past failures

The company also looks at things that did not work in its favor (or in favor of a competitor who tried the same thing), and discards such things/processes.

More than a strategy, the learning school of thought looks like maneuvering or guiding the company on the basis of the previous road that has gone by. We all know it is not a good decision because the road can change at any time. Hence, this thought process is not at all useful at a time of crisis, nor does it help in creating something outstanding. This strategy can be used when the firm is stable and wants to work on auto mode while it develops something else in the meantime.

The Learning School: Detailed View

Organizations which follow this thought process depend a lot on their experiences and market happenings. The complex and unpredictable nature of the business environment, coupled with a decentralized distribution of knowledge inside the organization, rules out deliberate control. Organizations following the learning school model make strategies looking at the past; not necessarily their own past. They take cues from strategies in the market which became successful or failed. Organizations following this school of thought look at things that worked in the market and try to implement the same thing over time with the assumption that it will work again. Such organizations discard strategies that didn't work for others.

The Critical View of Learning School

More than a strategy, the learning school of thought looks like steering or guiding the company on the basis of the previous roadmaps that have gone by. It is not advisable to depend on decisions of the past because change is constant in the market. This strategy can be used when the firm is stable, and wants to work on auto mode while it develops something else in the meantime.

2.3.7 The Power School

In this school of thought, the people who are in power take the decisions. These people can be your customers, they can be your stakeholders, they can also be certain people from within the management.

2.3.7.1 Driving force

Anyone who is known to have power over the company can drive the company forward.

2.3.7.2 Reduced resistance

This ensures that there is lesser resistance for the strategy to be implemented.

2.3.7.3 Realistic approach

It is a very realistic thought process, because in corporates, there are so many people that power should reside in few hands.

The problem with the **power school** happens when the powerful people stop listening to feedback or stop implementing measures of improvement, and only focus on minor improvements. At such times, the power needs to change hands so that the company keeps moving forward.

The Power School: Detailed View

This school of thought is power-centered. The people who are in power take the decisions. The power centers can be customers, suppliers, worker's unions, or leaders in the organization. The power school views designing strategy as a political process for negotiating, forming alliances, and promoting one's own interests. Strategy formation is shaped by using power and politics. Anyone who is known to have power over the company drives the company forward. The power center ensures that there is lesser resistance for implementing the strategy. Macropower sees strategy making as the interplay of stakeholders through persuasion, bargaining, negotiating and at times with direct confrontation. Power school revolves around political games and shifting coalitions. Politics as a system of influence can act in a Darwinian way to ensure that the strongest members of an organization are brought into positions of leadership. Politics can ensure that all sides of an issue are fully debated, whereas the other systems of influence may promote only one.

The Critical View of Power School

The problem with the power school happens when the powerful people stop listening to feedback from others and stop implementing measures of improvement, and only focus on minor improvements. At such times, the power needs to change hands so that the company keeps moving forward.

2.3.8 The Cultural School

The **cultural school of thought** says that the company has fantastic capital in terms of its human capital as well as its social capital. A positive culture in the firm can give a proper direction to the firm.

2.3.8.1 Involvement of departments

The cultural school tries to involve many different departments within a company.

2.3.8.2 Useful during M&A

It is most useful during mergers and acquisitions.

2.3.8.3 Emphasis on values and beliefs

It emphasizes the role of social values, beliefs and culture in decision-making.

There can be resistance to the cultural school as the same people whom we are trying to unite might not like the idea of change, due to which they become united and the company moves in the opposite direction. Moreover, even if you have got the people united, and have built a strong culture, your direction still remains unclear.

The Cultural School: Detailed View

The cultural school of thought says that human capital is most important in organizations. A positive culture in the firm harnesses innovations and entrepreneurial culture in organizations. Under the cultural school, strategy formation becomes subject to a company's unique values and subjective perspectives and styles of decision-making. Strategy formation is a process of social interaction which is based on the beliefs and understandings shared by the members of an organization. An individual acquires these beliefs through a process of socialization within the organization. Strategy takes the form of perspective, rooted in collective intentions and which is reflected in the patterns by which the embedded resources or capabilities of the organization are protected and used for competitive advantage. The cultural school believes in involving as many departments as possible within a company. This becomes very useful during mergers and acquisitions. Cultural school organizations emphasize the role of social values, beliefs and culture in decision-making.

The Critical View of Cultural School

Especially during any changes taking place in an organization, people resist it because they get used to a typical culture. Politics in organizations plays an important role. It is difficult to unite people in organizations; there are several groups with variety of ideologies. To get the people in an organization united, Herculean efforts are required and direction remains unclear. Because culture and especially ideology do not encourage strategic change; they tend to promote shifts in position within the organization's overall strategic perspective. But, this is the only school of thought which introduces a collectivist dimension of social process in strategy formation.

2.3.9 The Environmental School

More of a situational school of thought, the **environmental school** gives most of the importance to the environment. For example, in a paper industry, wood plays a major role. And if the wood is scarce, the strategy formulation will have to be done on the basis of wherever the wood is available.

2.3.9.1 Emphasis on environment

Major emphasis is on the environment - which can be a raw material or a major factor in the strategy of the company.

2.3.9.2 Situational analysis

Situational analysis is the most used tool in the environmental school.

Obviously, this thought process depends on the situation, and is used when there is total dependence on environmental factors.

The Environmental School: Detailed View

The environmental school of thought is more of situationally related. The environmental school gives most importance to the environment. For example, in the Information Technology industry, expertise of people matters and the knowledge of people needs regular up-gradation. When expert knowledge becomes scarce, the strategy formulation needs a change on the basis of available expertise of people. Under the given dimension, environment plays a major role. Therefore, situational analysis is the most used tool in the environmental school. Obviously, this thought process depends on the situation, and is used when there is total dependence on environmental factors.

The Critical View of Environmental School

Under this school of thought, the process entirely depends on the environment which constantly changes. It is difficult for organizations to keep changing their strategies constantly.

2.3.10 The Configuration School

One of the most preferred amongst the 10 Schools of thought is the **configuration school**. It basically says that the strategy needs to be configured. The strategy allows the firm to move from one position to another, hence a simple set of values will not help this movement.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q: **True or False:**

1. The Learning School believes that organizations develop strategies primarily through proactive planning rather than reactive adjustments.
2. The Power School suggests that internal political dynamics have little influence on the strategies an organization adopts.
3. The Cultural School emphasizes the importance of understanding the external environment before formulating strategy.
4. The Environmental School posits that organizations have complete control over their strategic choices, regardless of external pressures.
5. The Configuration School suggests that organizations can effectively maintain a single strategic approach throughout their entire lifecycle.

2.3.10.1 Strategy Configuration: As per the configuration school, strategy needs to consider a lot of things which can go wrong, and cannot be derived from simple set of values.

2.3.10.2 Value Transformation: Over a period of time, an organization forms various sets of values which have to be transformed so that the organization reaches the point that it desires.

2.3.10.3 Business Disruption and Reconfiguration: To do this, the organization's stable business might need to be disrupted, and the organization has to be configured so that it reaches the success it was looking for.

2.3.10.4 Iterative Configuration: Hence, the name configuration school, so that the organization is configured over and over again unless it reaches the desired result.

This school of thought tries to attain stability via various ways, and keeps transforming as long as needed.

The Configuration School: Detailed View

One of the most preferred amongst the 10 Schools of thought is the configuration school because the basic premise in this is that the strategy needs to be configured. The strategy allows the firm to move from one position to another, hence simple set of values will not help this movement. As per the configuration school, strategy needs to consider a lot of facts and cannot be derived from simple statistical data and values. The configuration school attempts to find a combination of all aspects of the nine other strategy schools. An organization stands on the basis of a stable configuration of its characteristics.

A Critical View of Configuration School

The organization's stable business needs to be disrupted, and the organization has to be configured so that it reaches the successes it aims at.

Overall Conclusion on Mintzberg's Schools of Thought

Overall, the Mintzberg's 10 schools of thought for strategy formulation are applicable even today. However, one firm can follow a single strategy only. And hence, deciding where your firm stands, the influencers in the firm, its dependency on environment and culture, and in general looking at your own firm, you can decide which of the 10 schools of thought of management are suitable for you.

2.4 ORIGIN OF STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

The strategic management discipline originated in the 1950s and 1960s. Among the numerous early contributors, the most influential were Alfred Chandler, Philip Selznick, Igor Ansoff, and Peter Drucker. The discipline draws from earlier thinking and texts on 'strategy' dating back thousands of years.

Alfred Chandler recognized the importance of coordinating management activity under an all-encompassing strategy. Interactions between functions were typically handled by managers who relayed information back and forth between departments. Chandler stressed the importance of taking a long-term perspective when looking to the future. In his 1962 groundbreaking work Strategy and Structure, Chandler showed that a long-term coordinated strategy was necessary to give a company structure, direction, and focus. He says it concisely, "structure follows strategy

In 1957, Philip Selznick formalized the idea of matching the organization's internal factors with external environmental circumstances. This core idea was developed into what we now call SWOT analysis by Learned, Kenneth R. Andrews, and others at the Harvard Business School, General Management Group. Strengths and weaknesses of the firm are assessed in light of the opportunities and threats in the business environment (SWOT analysis).

Igor Ansoff built on Chandler's work by adding concepts and inventing a vocabulary. He developed a grid that compared strategies for market penetration, product development, market development, and horizontal and vertical integration and diversification. He felt that management could use the grid to systematically prepare for the future. In his 1965 classic Corporate Strategy, he developed gap analysis to clarify and bridge the gap between the current reality and the goals and to develop what he called "gap reducing actions".

Peter Drucker was a prolific strategy theorist, author of dozens of management books, with a career spanning five decades. He stressed the value of managing by targeting well-defined objectives. This evolved into his theory of Management by Objectives (MBO). According to Drucker, the procedure of setting objectives and monitoring progress towards their achieving gives a boost to the entire organization. Strategy theorist Michael Porter argued that strategy targets either cost leadership, differentiation, or focus. These are known as Porter's three generic strategies and can be applied to any size or form of business. Porter claimed that a company must only choose one of the above three strategies or waste its precious resources.

W. Chan Kim and Renée Mauborgne countered that an organization can achieve high growth and profits by creating a Blue Ocean Strategy that breaks the tradeoff by pursuing both differentiation and low cost.

2.5 MAIN ELEMENTS OF STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT THEORY

In 1985, Ellen-Earle Chaffee summarized what she thought were the main elements of strategic management theory by the 1970s:

- Strategic management involves adapting the organization to its business environment.
- Strategic management is fluid and complex. Change creates novel combinations of circumstances requiring unstructured non-repetitive responses.
- Strategic management affects the entire organization by providing direction.
- Strategic management involves both strategy formation (she called it content) and also strategy implementation (she called it process).
- Strategic management is partially planned and partially unplanned.
- Strategic management is done at several levels: overall corporate strategy, and individual business strategies.
- Strategic management involves both conceptual and analytical thought processes.

2.6 GROWTH AND PORTFOLIO THEORY

Businesses need to implement sound strategies to succeed. Those strategies form part of an overall management and business policy that guides the business in connecting with customers, generating profits, and managing resources. The related concepts of strategic management and business policy are keys to help small business owners manage their responsibilities and set clear objectives.

Strategic management represents a theoretical concept first introduced by Peter Drucker in the mid-20th century. The idea behind strategic management is that organizations will be better equipped to meet their goals and objectives if the owners and managers adopt a clear business philosophy. For many businesses, that philosophy will be to increase their share of the market.

The generic term "business policy" refers to all of an organization's processes and procedures. This can range from human resources policies to the company's marketing agenda and its plans for growth and development. Business policy is closely related to strategic management because the policies are essentially the strategies put into action. If the strategy calls for an increased market share, for instance, the business policies would be constructed to match this strategy.

The two terms are so closely intertwined that they are often used interchangeably. Policies become strategies and vice versa. The important thing for a business owner to keep clear is that strategic management is a mindset or philosophy for doing business, but business policies are the specific methods for running the organization on a day-to-day business.

Thus, there is a shift of business policy towards strategic management which can be understood by the following difference:

1. Strategic Management deals with strategic decisions that decide the long-term health of an enterprise. It is a comprehensive plan of action designed to meet certain specific goals. Whereas Business Policy offers guidelines for managers to take appropriate decisions.

2. Strategic Management is a means of putting a policy into effect within certain time limits. In contrast, Business Policy is a general course of action with no defined time limits.

3. Strategic Management deals with those decisions which have not been encountered before in quite the same form, for which no predetermined and explicit set or ordered responses exist in the organization and which are important in terms of the resources committed or the precedents set. On the contrary, Business Policy is a guide to plan action in areas of repetitive activity.

4. Strategic Management deals with crucial decisions, whose implementation requires constant attention of top management. Business Policy decisions, once formulated, can be delegated and implemented by others independently.

5. Strategies are specific actions suggested to achieve the objectives. Policies are statements or a commonly accepted understanding of decision-making.

6. Strategies are action-oriented. Policies are thought-oriented.

7. In the case of Strategic Management, everyone is empowered to implement the strategy. In the case of Policies, power is delegated to the subordinates for implementation.

8. Strategies are means to an end. On the opposite side, Policies are guidelines.

9. Strategy is concerned with uncertainties, competitive situations, and risks etc. that are likely to take place at a future date. Policy is in general concerned with the course of action to fulfill the set objectives.

10. Strategy is deployed to mobilize the available resources in the best interest of the company. Whereas Policy is an overall guide that governs and controls the managerial action.

In the 1970s, much of strategic management dealt with size, growth, and portfolio theory. The long-term PIMS study, started in the 1960s and lasting for 19 years, attempted to understand the Profit Impact of Marketing Strategies (PIMS), particularly the effect of market share. It started at General Electric, moved to Harvard in the early 1970s, and then moved to the Strategic Planning Institute in the late 1970s. It now contains a lot of information on the relationship between profitability and strategy. Their initial conclusion was unambiguous: the greater a company's market share, the greater is their rate of profit. Market share provides economies of scale. It also provides experience and advantages. The combined effect is increased profits. The benefits of high market share naturally led to an interest in growth strategies. The relative advantages of horizontal integration, vertical integration, diversification, franchises, mergers and acquisitions, joint ventures, and organic growth were discussed.

By the early 1980s, the paradoxical conclusion was that high market share and low market share companies were often very profitable but most of the companies in between were not. This was sometimes called the "hole in the middle" problem. Porter explained this anomaly in the 1980s. The management of diversified organizations required additional techniques and ways of thinking. The first CEO to address the problem of a multi-divisional company was Alfred Sloan at General Motors. GM employed semi-autonomous “strategic business units” (SBUs), with centralized support functions. One of the most valuable concepts in the strategic management of multi-divisional companies was portfolio theory. In the previous decade, Harry Markowitz and other financial theorists developed modern portfolio theory. They concluded that a broad portfolio of financial assets could reduce specific risk. In the 1970s, marketers extended the theory to product portfolio decisions and managerial strategists extended it to operating division portfolios. Each of a company's operating divisions was seen as an element in the firm's portfolio. Each operating division was treated as a semi-independent profit center with its own revenues, costs, objectives, and strategies. Several techniques were developed to analyze the relationships between elements in a portfolio. B.C.G. Analysis, for example, was developed by the Boston Consulting Group in the early 1970s. Shortly after that, the G.E. multifactoral model was developed by General Electric. Companies continued to diversify until the 1980s when it was realized that in many cases a portfolio of operating divisions was worth more as separate completely independent companies.

2.7 SHIFT FROM BUSINESS POLICY TO STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

The 1970s saw the rise of the marketing-oriented firm guided by business policy. From the beginning of capitalism, it was assumed that the key requirement of business success was a product of high technical quality. If an organization produced a product that worked well and was durable, it was assumed the organization would have no difficulty in making profits. This was called the production orientation. The 1950s and 1960s were described as the "sales era." Its guiding philosophy of business is today called the "sales orientation."

In the early 1970s, Theodore Levitt and others at Harvard argued that the sales orientation had things backward. They claimed that instead of producing products and then trying to sell them to the customer, businesses should start with the customer, find out what they wanted, and then produce it for them. The customer became the driving force behind all strategic business decisions. This marketing concept, in the decades since its introduction, has been reformulated and repackaged under names including market orientation, customer orientation, customer intimacy, customer focus, customer-driven, and market focus. This is called strategic management. Strategic management analyzes the major initiatives taken by a company's top management on behalf of owners, involving resources and performance in internal and external environments. It means specifying the organization's mission, vision, and objectives, developing policies and plans, in terms of projects and programs, which are designed to achieve these objectives, and then allocating resources to implement the policies and plans, projects, and programs. A balanced scorecard is often used to evaluate the overall performance of the business and its progress towards objectives. Recent studies and leading management theorists have advocated that strategy needs to start with stakeholders' expectations and use a modified balanced scorecard which includes all stakeholders.

2.8 LET US SUM UP

A school of thought refers to a doctrine, a feeling, an intellectual tradition collectively drawn by a group of people who share a common opinion or outlook of a philosophy/discipline/belief or social movement. It considers an intellectual tradition collectively drawn by a group of people who share common characteristics of opinion or outlook of a philosophy, discipline, belief, social movement, economics, culture, or art. In strategic management, the Ten Schools of Thought model by Henry Mintzberg is a framework that can be used to categorize the field of Strategic Management. Henry Mintzberg is an internationally acclaimed academician and author on business and management. The model describes each school in strategic perspective and provides a critical viewpoint, thus, it acts as a very good overview to the entire field of Strategic Management.

Strategic management is a level of managerial activity below setting goals and above tactics. Strategic management provides overall direction to the enterprise and is closely related to the field of Organization Studies. In 1970, there was a shift of business policy towards strategic management which deals with taking crucial decisions, action-oriented management, and deciding long-term objectives of the organization.

2.9 KEY WORDS

- **School of Thought:** It is a set of assumptions or ideology shared by the members of an organization that employees use to identify what is important in the organization.
- **Strategic Management:** Formulation and implementation of the major goals and initiatives taken by a company's top management.
- **Management by Objective:** The procedure of setting objectives and monitoring progress towards achieving them.

2.10 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What are the different schools of thought in management?

2. Critically evaluate the Mintzberg school of thought in management.

3. Explain the Relevance of Growth and Portfolio theory in Strategic Management.

4. What are the basic elements in Strategic Management given by Ellen-Earle?

2.11 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q 1: Briefly explain the core idea behind the "Cognitive School" of strategic thought.

Q 2: How does the "Cultural School" view the role of organizational values in strategy formation?

Q 3: What are the key differences between the "Design School" and the "Learning School" in their approach to strategy development?

Q 4: Explain how the "Environmental School" suggests organizations should approach strategy..

Q 5: In what situations might the "Power School" provide particularly useful insights into strategic decision-making?

2.12 ANSWER KEY

B. Planning, Positioning, Learning, Positioning, Cultural, Power

C. False, False, False, False, False

2.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Porter,M. E. Business Policy Text and Cases, Irwin, Inc., Homewood Illinois, 1987.
- Coulter, M.K.Strategic Management in Action, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, 2009.
- Kazmi, A. Business Policy, Tata McGraw Hill, Delhi, 2008.
- Jeyarathnam, M: Business Policy and Strategic Management, Himalayan Publication, Delhi, 2015.
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UNIT –I (Credit-1) **M.Com. 2nd Semester**

Course No. MCOMC251 **Lesson No. 3**

STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS, VISION, MISSION AND PHILOSOPHY

STRUCTURE

3.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The Objectives of this lesson is:

- To understandtheprocessofstrategicmanagement.
- To concepted knowledge aboutmission,objectiveandgoals.
- To procedureoftheformation ofMission Stateements.
- To analysehowmissionandpurpose.

Learning Outcomes

After Reading this lesson, the students will be able to :

- Define and differentiate among an organization's mission, vision, and philosophy, understanding their individual roles they play in providing strategic direction and establishing organizational identity.

- Describe and explain the key stages of the strategic management process.

- Analyze existing mission and vision statements for their effectiveness and formulate clear, concise.

- Articulate the significance of an organization's philosophy or core values in shaping its culture, ethical behavior, and strategic decision-making.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Purposes, missions, objectives and policies are known as master strategies. Programme strategies refer to the specific action plans or methods to be used to achieve an already established objective.

3.2 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS

Strategic decision-making is done through the process of strategic management. Like other terms in business policy, strategic management has also been defined and interpreted differently by various authors. There are also differences of opinion regarding the phases in the strategic management process and the elements they contain. In this section, we deal with four aspects: how strategic management is defined; what are the different phases in the process of strategic management; what elements does this process contain; and lastly, models of strategic management.

Definitions of Strategic Management

Gullick defines strategic management as "a stream of decisions and actions which leads to the development of an effective strategy or strategies to help achieve corporate objectives." The end result of strategic management, as visualized by Gullick, is a strategy or a set of strategies for the organisation. Hofer and others consider strategic management as "the process which deals with fundamental organisational renewal and growth with the development of the strategies, structures and systems necessary to achieve such renewal and growth, and with the organisational systems needed to effectively manage the strategy formulation and implementation processes." First, these authors include two sub-processes within the overall strategic management process. Through the formulation and implementation sub-processes, the development of strategies, structures, and systems is done to achieve the objectives of organisational renewal and growth. Second, the strategic management process is also considered as managing the organisational systems which are required for strategic management. For instance, the administrative arrangements necessary for formulation and implementation of strategies would also be included in the process of strategic management. Sharplin defines strategic management as "the formulation and implementation of plans and the carrying out of activities relating to the matters which are of vital, pervasive, or continuing importance to the total organisation." This is an all-encompassing view of strategic management and considers all plans and activities which are important for an organisation. Lastly, we refer to the definition by Ansoff, which states that strategic management is “a systematic approach to a major and increasingly important responsibility of general management: to position and relate the firm to its environment in a way which will assure its continued success and make it secure from surprises.” The emphasis in this definition is on the environment-organisation relationship for the purpose of achieving the objectives of continued success and protection from environmental surprises through the adoption of a systematic approach to general management.

We observe that different authors have defined strategic management differently. Strategic management is considered as either decision-making and planning, or the set of activities related to the formulation and implementation of strategies to achieve organisational objectives. The emphasis in strategic management is on those general management responsibilities which are essential to relate the organisation to the environment in such a way that its objectives may be achieved.

3.3 PHASES IN STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS

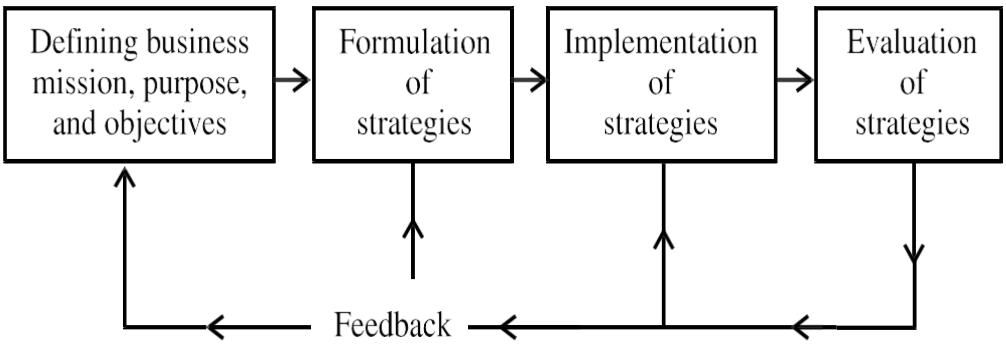
The strategic management process means defining the organisation’s strategy. The definitions quoted above give us the idea that, as a process, strategic management consists of different phases which are sequential in nature. It is a continuous process. Most authors agree that there are four essential phases in the strategic management process, though they may differ with regard to the sequence, emphasis or nomenclature. These four phases could be encapsulated as follows:

1. Defining business mission, purpose, and objectives;
2. Formulation of strategies;
3. Implementation of strategies; and
4. Evaluation of strategies.

These four phases are considered as sequentially linked to each other and each successive phase provides a feedback to the previous phases. The phases in strategic management are depicted in Exhibit 3.1.

However, in practice, the different phases of strategic management may not be clearly differentiable from each other. In fact, we prefer to call them phases rather than stages or steps (as some authors do) to signify that the different phases, at the interface, may exist simultaneously and the strategic activities gradually emerge in one phase to merge into the following phase. The feedback arising from each of the successive phases is meant to revise, reformulate or redefine the previous phases, if necessary. Such a representation yields a dynamic model of strategic management which takes into account the emerging factors as the process moves on.

Exhibit 3.1 Phases in strategic management.



The strategic management process has the following four steps/phases:

1. **Defining business mission, purpose, and objectives** - The first step is to analyze the mission, purpose, and objectives of the business, and this can be done through environmental scanning. Environmental scanning refers to a process of collecting, scrutinizing, and providing information for strategic purposes. It helps in analyzing the internal and external factors influencing an organization. After executing the environmental analysis process, management should evaluate it on a continuous basis and strive to improve it.

2. **Formulation of Strategy** - Strategy formulation is the process of deciding the best course of action for accomplishing organizational objectives and hence achieving organizational purpose. After conducting environment scanning, managers formulate corporate, business, and functional strategies.

3. **Implementation of Strategy** - Strategy implementation implies making the strategy work as intended or putting the organization's chosen strategy into action. Strategy implementation includes designing the organization's structure, distributing resources, developing decision-making processes, and managing human resources.

4. **Evaluation of Strategy** - Strategy evaluation is the final step of the strategy management process. The key strategy evaluation activities are: appraising internal

and external factors that are the root of present strategies, measuring performance, and taking remedial/corrective actions. Evaluation makes sure that the organizational strategy as well as its implementation meets the organizational objectives.

These components are steps that are carried, in chronological order, when creating a new strategic management plan. Present businesses that have already created a strategic management plan will revert to these steps as per the situation's requirement, so as to make essential changes.

3.4 ELEMENTS IN STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS

Each phase of the strategic management process consists of a number of elements, which are discrete and identifiable activities performed in logical and sequential steps. As many as twelve different elements could be identified in the models provided by various authors. From the literature on business policy, we note that most or all of the following activities are considered as parts of the strategic management process:

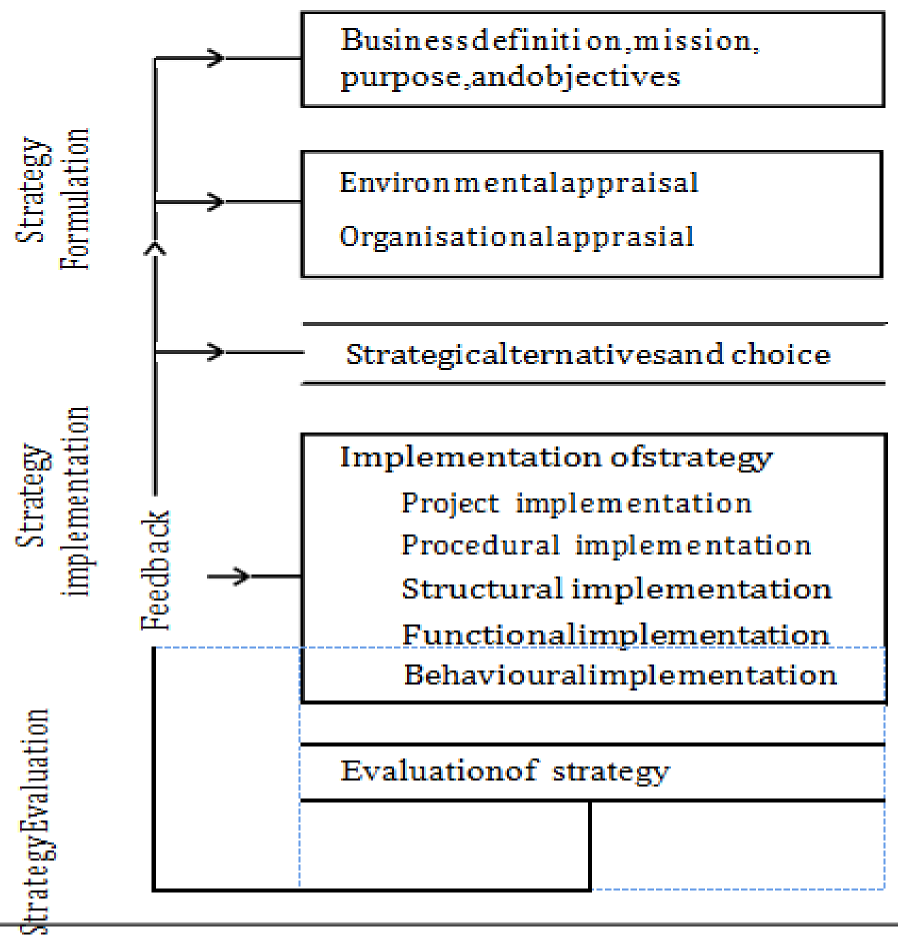
1. Definingbusiness;
2. Setting mission;
3. Determiningpurpose;
4. Establishing objectives;
5. Performingenvironmentalappraisal;
6. Doingcorporateappraisal;
7. Evolvingstrategicalternatives;
8. Exercisingstrategicchoice;
9. Formulatingstrategies;
10. Preparingstrategicplan;
11. Implementingstrategies:and
12. Evaluatingstrategies.

3.5 MODELS OF STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS

The process of strategic management is depicted through a model which consists of different phases; each phase having a number of elements. As we said earlier, most authorsagree ondividing the strategicmanagement processinto four phases consisting of about twelve elements. The models of strategic management that we adopt are provided in Exhibits 3.2 and 3.3.

In Exhibit 3.2,we provide a vertical representation of a comprehensive model of the strategic management process. In Exhibit 3.3, we depict the process laterally and provide a working model. Now, here we present a bird's eye view of the different elements of the strategic management process which are included in both models.

Exhibit 3.2 Acomprehensive model of the strategicmanagement process.



1. **Business mission, purpose and objectives:** Business definition, mission, purpose and objectives are concerned with laying the foundation for strategic management.

These relate the organisation to the society, state what it has to attain for the society, and for itself, and in the process achieve its objectives and goals. The end result of this set of elements is a hierarchy of objectives and critical success factors which serve as yardsticks and benchmarks for measuring organisational performance.

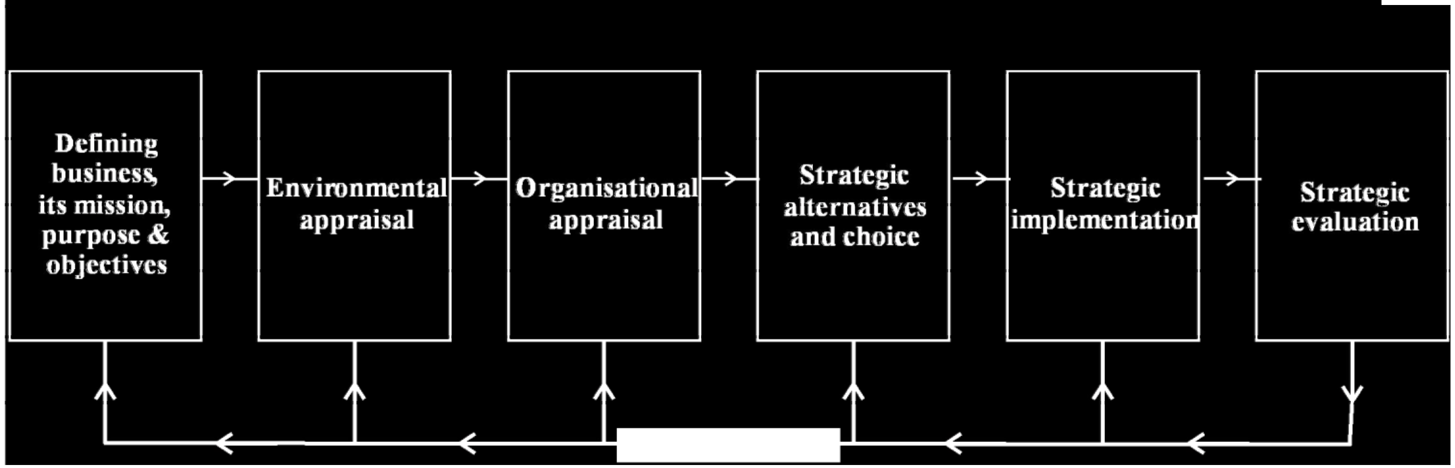
2. **Formulation of Strategy:** Environmental and organisational appraisal deal with finding out opportunities and threats operating in the environment and the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation in order to create a match between them. In such a manner, opportunities could be availed of and the impact of threats neutralised in order to capitalise on the organisational strengths and minimise the weaknesses.

3. **Choice of Strategy:** Strategic alternatives and choice are required for evolving alternative strategies, out of the many possible options, and choosing the most appropriate strategy or strategies in the light of environmental opportunities and threats and corporate strengths and weaknesses. The end result of this set of elements is a strategic plan to be implemented.

4. **Implementation of Strategy:** For implementation of strategy, the strategic plan is put into action through six sub-processes: project implementation, procedural implementation, resource allocation, structural, functional, and behavioural implementation. Project implementation deals with setting up the organisation. Procedural implementation deals with different aspects of regulatory framework within which Indian organisations have to operate. Resource allocation relates to the procurement and commitment of resources for implementation. The structural aspects of implementation deal with the design of appropriate organisational structures and reorganising for matching the structure to the needs of strategy. The functional aspects relate to the policies to be formulated in different functional areas. The behavioural aspects consider the leadership patterns for implementing strategies and other issues like social responsibility, business ethics, organisational culture and corporate politics. The emphasis in the implementation phase of strategic management is on action.

5. **Evaluation of Strategy:** The last phase of strategic evaluation appraises the implementation of strategies and measures organisational performance to exercise strategic control over the strategic management process. Strategies may be reformulated, if necessary.

Exhibit 3.3 - A working model of the strategic management process



3.6 COMPONENTS OF STRATEGY

3.6.1 Mission and Purpose

About two decades back, Peter F. Drucker raised important philosophical questions related to business: "What is our business? What will it be? and What should it be?" These three questions, though simply worded, are in reality, the most fundamental questions that any organisation can put to itself. The answers are based on the underlying need of the society that any organisation serves to fulfil. The satisfaction of that need is, then, the business of the organisation.

3.6.2 Understanding Mission and Purpose

Organizations relate their existence to satisfying a particular need of society. They do this in terms of their mission and purpose. We had described mission as "a statement which defines the role that an organisation plays in the society", and purpose as "anything which an organisation strives for." In business policy, both these terms are either used jointly or singly. Other terms used in this context are: ultimate purpose, aim, broad aim, ultimate goal, general objective, grand strategy, corporate objective, or corporate philosophy.

Since both mission and purpose go hand in hand, we prefer to use them together while maintaining the basic difference between them. Mission strictly refers to the particular needs of the society, for instance, its information needs. Purpose relates to what the organization strives to achieve in order to fulfil its mission to the society. A book publisher and a magazine editor are both engaged in satisfying the information needs of society, but they do it through different means. A book publisher may aim at producing excellent reading material while a magazine editor may strive to present news analysis in a balanced and unbiased manner. Both have different purposes but an identical mission. Exhibit 3.4 provides a few illustrations of mission statements that various organizations have set for themselves.

Exhibit 3.4 A few illustrations of mission statements.

Many organisations formally state their mission and also communicate it to insiders and outsiders. Others do not state their mission explicitly, and it has to be derived from what the organisation does. A mission could be called by other names too, but essentially it serves to link the organisation to the society.

Oil and Natural Gas Commission states its mission and purpose as: “To stimulate, continue and accelerate efforts to develop and maximise the contribution of the energy sector to the economy of the country”.

V. Sagar Sachdeva, managing director of Indian Aluminium Company Ltd. (INDAL), held several brainstorming sessions with his colleagues and redefined the statement of the corporate mission as: "INDAL will be the most innovative, diversified aluminium company in India. To achieve this, INDAL will be a customer-oriented enterprise committed to excellence and cost-effectiveness in its chosen aluminium business. Significant resources will be devoted to diversifying into hi-tech and market-oriented businesses with superior growth and profit potential. Consistent with national goals, INDAL will progressively increase exports. In the nineties, INDAL will achieve 14 per-cent or better returns on equity."

Bank of Madura Limited visualises itself as: "A vibrant bank committed to excellence in performing through customer satisfaction".

The specific mandate for which Electronics Corporation of India Ltd (ECIL) was set up in 1967 was: "to promote the development of industrial electronics with indigenous know-how and to attain self-sufficiency in atomic energy programmes.”

***Sources*:** Adapted from ONGC *Annual report,* 1982-83; "INDAL's growth strategy" in *Business World,* Aug. 3-16, 1987, p.p.19-20; *Chairman' sstatement*at 45th ,Annual general meeting (1988) of Bank of Madura Ltd ;" New vigourat ECIL" in *Business World,* Aug, 31-Sept. 13, 1987,p. 50.

3.6.3 Characteristics of a Mission Statement

Organisations legitimize themselves by performing some function that is valued by society. A mission statement defines the basic reason for the existence of an organization. Such a statement reflects the corporate philosophy, identity, character, and image of an organization. It may be defined explicitly or could be deduced from the management's actions, decisions, or the chief executive's press statements. When explicitly defined, it provides enlightenment to the insiders and outsiders about what the organization stands for. In order to be effective, a mission statement should possess the following seven characteristics:

1. **Feasible:** A mission should always aim high, but it should not be an impossible statement. It should be realistic and achievable – its followers must find it credible. But feasibility depends on the resources available to work towards a mission. In the sixties, the U.S. National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) had a mission to land on the moon. It was a feasible mission that was ultimately realized.

2. **Precise:** A mission statement should not be so narrow as to restrict the organization's activities, nor should it be too broad to make itself meaningless. 'Manufacturing bicycles' is a narrow mission since it severely limits the organization's activities, while 'mobility business' is too broad a term as it does not define the reasonable contour within which an organization could operate.

3. **Clear:** A mission should be clear enough to lead to action. It should not be a high-sounding set of platitudes meant for publicity purposes. Many organizations do adopt such statements, but probably they do so for emphasizing their identity and character. For example, Asian Paints stresses 'leadership through excellence,' India Today sees itself as 'the complete newsmagazine.' The Administrative Staff College of India considers itself as 'the college for practicing managers,' and Bajaj Auto believes in providing 'value for money, for years.' To be useful, a mission statement should be clear enough to lead to action. The ITC's stated corporate philosophy of aligning its organizational activities with national priorities helps it in choosing areas for diversification like hotel, paper, and agro-industry.

4. **Motivating:** A mission statement should be motivating for members of the organization and of society, and they should feel it worthwhile working for such an organization or being its customers. A bank which lays great emphasis on customer service is likely to motivate its employees to serve its customers well and to attract clients. Customer service, therefore, is an important purpose for a banking institution.

5. **Distinctive:** A mission statement which is indiscriminate is likely to have little impact. If all scooter manufacturers defined their mission in a similar fashion, there would not be much of a difference among them. But if one defines it as providing scooters that would provide value for money, for years, it creates an important distinction in the public mind.

6. **Indicate major components of strategy:** A mission statement, along with the organizational purpose, should indicate the major components of the strategy to

be adopted. The chief executive of Indian Aluminium Company Ltd. expresses his intentions by saying that his company "begins its fifth decade of committed entrepreneurship with the promise of a highly diversified company retaining aluminium as its mainline business, but with an active presence in the chemical, electronics and industrial equipment business." This statement indicates that the company is likely to follow a combination of stability, growth, and diversification strategies in the future.

7. **Indicate how objectives are to be accomplished:** Besides indicating the broad strategies to be adopted, a mission statement should also provide clues regarding the manner in which the objectives are to be accomplished. The Centre for Development of Telematics (C-DOT) had set its first three-year mission (1984-87) as developing, designing, and engineering a large digital exchange suitable for Indian conditions, and its second mission (1987-90) as developing the technological prerequisites for an integrated system digital network of the future. These mission statements specifically deal with objectives to be achieved within a given time period.

In day-to-day decision-making, managers are not concerned about survival and, therefore, do not actively think about their organization's mission for society. Thus, a mission statement becomes an ideology that is occasionally used for legitimization. But for strategic decision-making, it is important to consider the mission in each phase of the strategic management process.

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Which of the following is the first step in the strategic management process? a) Strategy Implementation b) Strategy Formulation c) Environmental Scanning d) Evaluation and Control
2. A statement that describes the organization's long-term aspirations and desired future state is known as its: a) Mission Statement b) Value Proposition c) Vision Statement d) Philosophy Statement
3. Which statement defines the organization's core purpose, what it does, and for whom? a) Vision Statement b) Strategic Objective c) Mission Statement d) Guiding Principle
4. An organization's fundamental beliefs, values, and ethical guidelines are typically outlined in its: a) Strategic Plan b) Mission Statement c) Vision Statement d) Philosophy Statement
5. The stage in the strategic management process that involves putting the formulated strategies into action is: a) Environmental Scanning b) Strategy Formulation c) Strategy Implementation d) Evaluation and Control

3.6.4 How Mission Statements are Formulated?

Most organisations derive their mission statements from a particular set of taskstheyarecalled uponto performinthe light ofnationalpriorities. Most public sector organisations, set up in India during the fifties and sixties, own their existence to the vision of Jawaharlal Nehru, the first prime minister, who enunciatedand tirelesslyworked forthenationalaimofbuilding astrong andself- reliant India by laying the foundations of many of our basic infrastructural industries. Mission statements, whether derived from national priorities or not, could be formulated either formally or informally.

Usually, entrepreneurs lay down the corporate philosophy which the organisation follows in its strategic and operational activities. Such a philosophy may not be consciously and formally stated but may gradually evolve due to the entrepreneur's actions. Generally an entrepreneur has a perception of the type of organisation that he wants his company to be. Mission statements could be formulated onthe basis ofthe organisationalpurpose that the entrepeneur decides in the initial stages of an organisation's growth.

Major strategists could also contribute to the development of a mission statement. They do this informally by lending a hand in the creation of a particular corporate identity or formally through discussions and the writing down of a mission statement. Chief executives play a major role in formulating a mission statement both formally and informally. They may set up executive committees to formally discuss and decide on a mission statement or enunciate a corporate philosophy to be followed for strategic management. Consultants may also be called upon to make an in-depth analysis of the organization to suggest an appropriate mission statement. B.N. Sinha, managing director of the Scientific Instrument Company Ltd., who took the help of a management consultant in deciding his company's mission and purpose, describes the process of formulating a mission: ".. as a starting point, we (i.e., the company managers, consultant, and the chief executive) spent quite a bit of time on identifying our 'mission' of business.....After a lot of discussion, we identified our mission as follows: to be a vibrant organization set on contributing to the scientific and technical progress of the country; keeping its customers and employees satisfied in terms of service and work reward; giving adequate return on investment to the shareholders."

A mission statement, once formulated, should serve the organization for many years. But a mission may become unclear as the organization grows and adds new products, markets, and technologies to its activities. Then the mission has to be reconsidered and re-examined to either change or discard it and evolve a fresh statement of organizational mission and purpose. A helpful approach to defining as well as refining a mission statement is to define the business itself.

The Product Concept

Like the business definition, an explicit product concept could have far-reaching implications for strategic management. A product concept is the manner in which a company perceives its product. Such a perception is based on how the product provides functions that satisfy customer needs. Consider the examples given below where companies define their product concepts and what implications such definitions have.

Modi Xerox views its product concept as providing neat reproduction facilities at a reasonable cost per copy.

Bhadrachalam Paperboards Ltd. views paper as a product and not as a commodity. As a result of this, it is able to consider the productivity of its customers and make tailor-made products for them. In the process, it comes into direct contact with customers rather than the wholesale agents, thus defying the traditional way in which paper business operates.

Hindustan Computers Ltd. perceives the computer not as a sophisticated, awe-inspiring machine but as an everyday commodity. Such a product concept prompted it to advertise the computer as a consumer durable available through an innovative hire-purchase scheme.

A product concept – carefully and innovatively defined – can prove to be of significant worth to strategists in different phases of strategic management. An explicit definition will provide definite pointers to the product concept. Both the business definition and product concept are powerful tools for strategic management.

The mission, purpose, business definition, and product concept serve to determine the basic philosophy that is adopted by an organization in the long run. To realize its mission and achieve its purpose, any organization will have to set objectives and goals to be pursued in the short run. The next section deals with objectives and goals.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q: Consider a well-known company (e.g., Apple, Google, Tesla).

1. Based on your understanding, briefly describe what you think their vision statement might be (or find their actual one if possible).
2. Similarly, describe what you think their mission statement might be (or find their actual one).
3. Identify one or two core values or philosophical principles that you believe guide this company's actions. Provide a brief example of how these values might influence a strategic decision.

3.6.5 What is a Vision Statement?

A **vision statement** describes what a company desires to achieve in the long run, generally in a time frame of five to ten years, or sometimes even longer. It depicts a vision of what the company will look like in the future and sets a defined direction for the planning and execution of corporate-level strategies. A vision serves the purpose of stating what an organization wishes to achieve in the long run.

According to Kotler, “It is a description of something (an organization, corporate culture, business, technology, and act) in the future.”

A vision is a mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the organization. A vision describes aspirations for the future - a destination for the organization. We can say that a vision is a dream - a distant, long-term dream. An organization's vision, which is often called 'purpose of the organization', is designed to express the fundamental reason for the organization's existence. A vision statement is used to refer to an understanding of why the organization exists. It provides direction for the organization. It provides a company the sense of 'where it is headed' or 'where we are going.' It describes management's aspirations for the future - a destination for the organization. We can say that a vision is a dream - a distant, long-term dream. An organization's management thus needs to be careful in developing a vision statement. All stakeholders should be involved in developing an organization's vision to ensure an effectively worded statement.

3.6.5.1 Characteristics of Vision

An effective vision should have the following characteristics so that it can-serve asamanagementtool for providing the company a sense of direction.

1. **Graphic:** The vision should draw a picture that can reveal where the company is heading and can also indicate clearly the market position.

2. **Directional:** It is able to provide clear direction to the managers and employees as well as describe a forward-looking picture of the company.

3. **Focused:** It can specifically guide managers in decision making and allocating resources of the company.

4. **Flexible:** It must be flexible enoughso that with changes in the products or technology or market, the vision itself can also be changed to keep pace with the changing situations.

5. **Feasible:**It should portray an expectation for the future that is achievable
    ii. –not just spelling out an expectation for the sake of telling aboutan expectation.

6. **Desirable:** It should be able to indicate; 'why the chosen path makes good business sense'.

7. **Easy to communicate:** The vision must be worded in such a waythat it can be communicated easily to the stakeholders, especially the shareholders, employees, and customers.

Examples of Vision Statements of Various Organizations

Let's see the vision statements of some of the popular organizations and companies in the world.

Exhibit 3.5 Few illustrations of Vision Statement

Name of the Organization	Vision Statements
Microsoft	To help people and businesses throughout the world realize their full potential.
Google	To organize the world's information and make it universally accessible and useful.
Tesla	To create the most compelling car company of the 21st century by driving the world's transition to electric vehicles.
IBM	To lead in the creation, development, and manufacture of the industry's most advanced information technologies, including computer systems, software, networking systems, storage devices, and microelectronics. We translate these advanced technologies into value for our customers through our professional solutions, services and consulting businesses worldwide.
Amazon	Our vision is to be earth's most customer-centric company; to build a place where people can come to find and discover anything they might want to buy online.
Huawei	Huawei's vision is to bring digital to every person, home and organization for a fully connected, intelligent world.
Alibaba	We aim to build the future infrastructure of commerce. We envision that our customers will meet, work and live at Alibaba, and that we will be a company that lasts at least 102 years.
Tata Power	To be the most admired and responsible Integrated Power Company with international footprint, delivering sustainable value to all stakeholders.
Etihad Airways	The goal and overall ambition of Etihad Airways is to be the best airline in the world.
JP Morgan	To be the best financial services company in the world. Chase

3.6.5.2 Importance of Vision in an Organization

Avisionstatementisimportanttoacompanyforavarietyofreasons.

1. **Give Directions:** It provides a clear direction about where the company is heading.
2. **Strategy Selection:** It has a strategy-making value in the sense that it indicates the type of strategy the company should follow to reach the dreamed destination.
3. **Analyse Various Issues:** It helps managers to think strategically about issues such as the advent of new technology, changes in the customer expectations and needs, available marketing opportunities and other environmental factors.
4. **Manage Change:**It helps managers to get an insight into drawing reasoned conclusions concerning winds of change and then selecting appropriate paths to deal with the change.

3.6.6 Meaning of Philosophy

Philosophy refers to a basic or core belief that starts with an individual and then expands to a group that is working together. The strategic philosophy refers to one's personal views concerning the nature of organizational strategy based on intuition, reason, and experience. One's strategic philosophy can be influenced by a variety of personal factors. The personalities and self-interests of managers at middle and upper levels have been linked to strategy formulation. Philosophy implies the existence of competing ideals and multiple perspectives on an issue.

The philosophy of any company serves as its blueprint for operation. This statement outlines the overall purpose of the business, along with its goals. A business philosophy might also list the company values that are important to the founders, executives, and employees. The philosophy of a company reflects its leaders' values, helping the business to feel more personal. A business philosophy is a set of principles and beliefs that a company uses to decide how to handle different areas of operation. A business philosophy outlines the business's purpose and its goals. It could also list the specific values that are important to the employees, executives, or boundaries, which can help the businesses feel more personal to those individuals.

Some of the business philosophies of large companies are well-known. For example, Google has several well-known attributes in its philosophy, including:

- You can make money without doing evil.
- It is best to do one thing really, really well.

After creating the business philosophy, the next step is articulating and communicating that philosophy to the company's employees. When business owners group practices, aims, principles, and beliefs together, this group creates the philosophy. This philosophy may pertain to:

- Profitability
- Customers
- Employees
- Services
- Products

Webster's Dictionary defines philosophy as a system of motivating or fundamental principles that serves as the basis for beliefs or actions. Those involved in the management of the company may wonder how this definition relates to success in the business world. Company managers and owners may be surprised to learn that a solid philosophy is a cornerstone to success in business. As you start to understand and develop the philosophy for your business, it becomes easier to build a productive and cohesive organization that can handle any challenges that may arise.

The idea of a business philosophy is similar to a roadmap for the company. If you were visiting a new city, it would be frustrating to try to navigate without GPS or a map. You don't know how to get to various places or how long it might take to get there. This same analogy can apply to a company without a solid business philosophy.

When the employees don't understand the values of the company or what goals they are working toward, they often feel lost when handling their daily work tasks. As a result, employees don't always work effectively or provide the best possible customer service. A business can avoid these types of issues by articulating the vision and establishing a mission statement that is clearly communicated.

Every business leader knows to make certain that the company mission and vision statement are clear and well-defined. It is the business philosophy that defines why you are doing things the way you are doing them. Your philosophy of business could be an unwritten attitude or a specifically-written philosophy that defines how your people will act and interact with each other and the general public.

3.6.6.1 Importance of Business Philosophy

1. **Serves as roadmap:** A business philosophy can serve as a roadmap for organizations, helping the executives and employees understand the goals and values they are continually working towards.
2. **Effective work:**A business philosophy helps employees work as effectively as possible.
3. **Best service:**It also encourages themto offer thebest possible customer service.

3.6.6.2 Composing a Business Philosophy

A well-structured business philosophy should include the company:

- Guiding principles
- Values
- Beliefs

The process of outlining and creating your business philosophy takes diligence and time. As you compose your philosophy, ask several key questions:

- What is the overall vision for the company?
- What is the nature of the business?
- Who are my customers?

By answering these questions, you can form the basis for your company's philosophy.

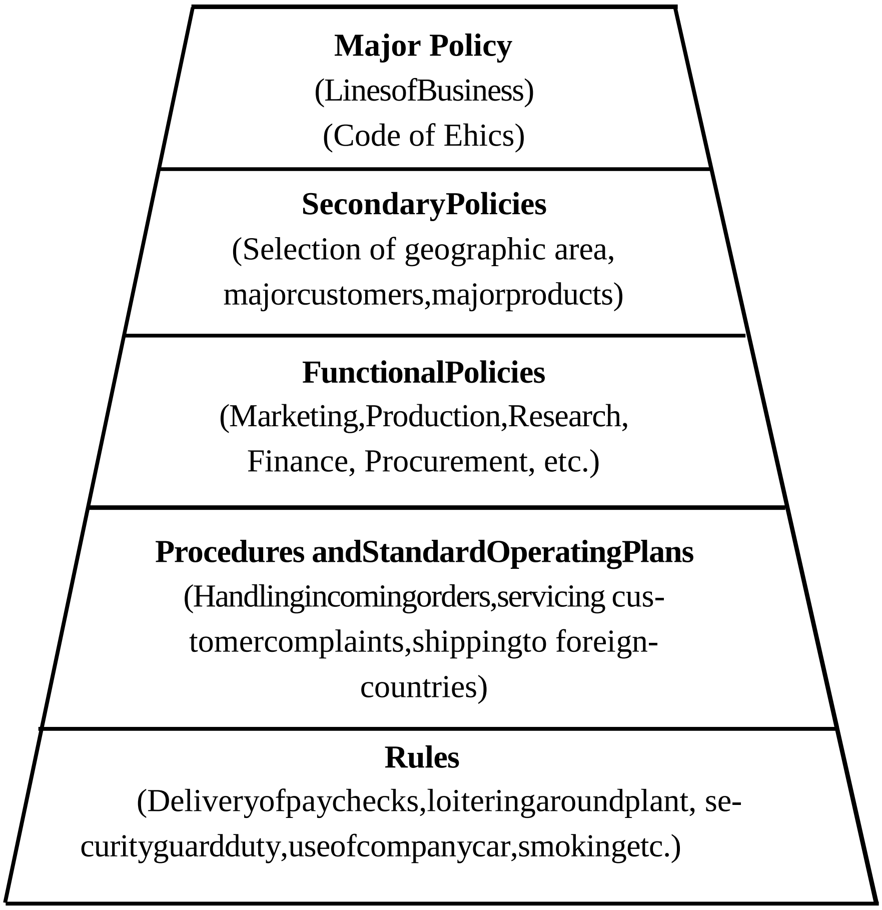
3.6.7 Policies

Policy is a guide to action. Newman and Logan define policy as a standing plan which is used to guide specifications. Steiner, Miner and Gray consider policies as "guides to action or channels to thinking." These definitions of policy more or less convey the same meaning of the term, i.e., policies are guides to action in organizations. A similar meaning is conveyed by a definition, used by the General Electric Company (of USA).

A policy is a definition of common purposes for organization components of the company as a whole in matters where, in the interest of achieving both component and overall company objectives, it is desirable that those responsible for implementation exercise discretion and good judgment in appraising and deciding among alternate courses of action.

Though the above definitions connote broadly the same meaning of the term "policy," in the business world there is a lack of consensus about it. The confusion about the nature of policies arises from a number of factors. Policies are not always clearly demarcated from the other elements of planning and plans. The process of strategic planning, which sometimes encompasses the formulation of important policies, is not publicized; hence it is shrouded in some kind of a mystery; and in some organizations some policies are considered to be confidential. As mentioned earlier, policy and strategy are sometimes used synonymously. This is true when strategy is considered to be a means for achieving the broader organizational purposes or missions. Some authors have conceptualized policies in a hierarchical relationship.

Figure 3.1 presents a hierarchical relationship between policies of great significance which are at the top of the pyramid and rules which are of much lesser importance.



Source: Steiner,G.A.*"Top Management Planning", p.*268

Figure3.1

Pyramid of Business Policies

Policies, procedures, standard operating plans and rules are all guides to action but differ in the degree of guidance provided or the freedom given. A procedure is a series of related steps in a sequence to achieve a certain end. A well-established and formalized procedure may be called a standard operating plan. A procedure or standard operating plan is in other words a means to implement a policy. Rules are specific courses of action which permit very little flexibility and freedom of interpretation.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q: "GreenTech Solutions was founded with the mission to 'provide affordable and sustainable energy solutions for communities worldwide.' Their vision is 'a future powered by clean and accessible energy for all.' One of their core principles is 'environmental responsibility in every action.' Recently, they faced a strategic decision: expand into a new market by either partnering with a company with a questionable environmental record or by investing significantly more resources to build their own infrastructure in that market."

1. How does GreenTech Solutions' philosophy statement influence this strategic decision?
2. Which option (partnership or independent infrastructure development) is more aligned with their mission and vision? Explain your reasoning.

3.7 LET US SUM UP

Purposes, missions, objectives, and policies are known as master strategies. Programme strategies refer to the specific action plans or methods to be used to achieve an already established objective. An organization might have decided upon a long-term objective of growth in sales turnover at the rate of 25 percent per year. To achieve this objective, the organization would have to formulate relevant programme strategies, e.g., new product development programme, product improvement programme, programme for certification of products by renowned inspection agencies, etc.

A programme is a collection of activities that are designed to achieve a certain end or a specific purpose. Programmes and projects have a finite life and have very clearly defined goals, e.g., "to improve productivity by 15 per cent in a period of one year."

3.8 KEY WORDS

- **Policy**: Policy is a guide to action.
- **Mission**: A statement that defines a company's business, its objectives, and its approach.
- **Critical Success Factors**: These are factors which are critical for organizational success.
- **Goal**: An aim or designed result.
- **Purpose**: The reason for which something is done or created.

- **Programme**: It is a collection of activities that are designed to achieve a certain end or a specific purpose.

3.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Briefly explain the importance of having a clear vision statement for an organization.

2. Wha t are the key components that a well-defined mission statement should typically include?

3. Why is the evaluation and control stage crucial in the strategic management process?

4. How does an organization's philosophy statement influence its strategic actions?

3.10 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. Explain the process of strategic management.

2. What is the difference between objective, mission and vision?

3. What is importance of Business Philosophy?

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____

4. What are the basic elements of strategic management process?

____

____

3.11 ANSWER KEY

A: c) Environmental Scanning; c) Vision Statement; c) Mission Statement; d) Philosophy Statement; c) Strategy Implementation

3.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Bhattachary, S.K. and N. Venkataramin, Managing Business Enterprises: Strategies, Structures and Systems, Vikas Publishing House, New Delhi, 1983.
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- Jeyarathnam, M: Business Policy and Strategic Management, Himalayan Publication, Delhi, 2015.
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THE McKINSEY 7-S FRAMEWORK

STRUCTURE

4.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this lesson are:

- To basic origin of strategic management.
- To Main elements of strategic management.
- To Relevance of Growth and Portfolio theory.
- To Reasons behind move from business policy to strategic management.

Learning Outcomes

After reading this lesson, the student is able to :

- Differentiate between 'hard' and 'soft' elements in the 7-S model and explain their roles in organisational performance.
- Analyze how the seven elements are interconnected and how changes in one element can affect others.
- Evaluate real-life business scenarios or case studies using the 7-S framework to diagnose organisational issues or assess alignment.
- Apply the framework as a tool for organisational planning and change management, especially during transformation or restructuring.
- Discuss the limitations and critiques of the 7-S model and understand how it complements other management tools.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Strategic planning refers to the management processes in organisations which help the management to determine the future impact of change and take current decisions to reach the designed future. The management literature is replete with instances of organisations which have laid stress on strategic planning but have not been phenomenally successful. The question then arises as to how organisations can ensure that they reach their envisioned future. The answer perhaps lies in the proper implementation of strategies.

The 7-S framework was developed by the consultants at The McKinsey Company, a very well-known management consultancy firm in the United States, towards the end of the 70s to diagnose the causes of organisational problems and to formulate programmes for improvement. In the following sections, we will discuss the major aspects of this framework.

4.2 MCKINSEY 7-S FRAMEWORK

According to Waterman et al., organisational change is not simply a matter of structure, although structure is a significant variable in the management of change. Again, it is also not a simple relationship between strategy and structure, although strategy is also a critical aspect. In their view, effective organisational change may be understood to be a complex relationship between strategy, structure, systems, style, skills, staff, and super ordinate goals. The complex relationship is diagrammatically presented in the figure given below.

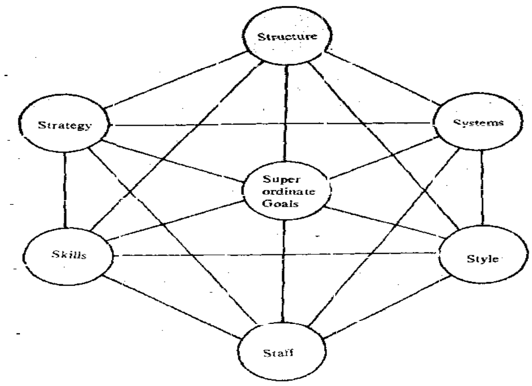

Chart Showing McKinsey 7-S Framework

Source: Thomas J. Peters and Robert H.Waterman, Jr. *In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best Run Companies,* p–10

The framework suggests that there is a multiplicity of factors that influence an organisation's ability to change and its proper mode of change. Because of the interconnectedness of the variables, it would be difficult to make significant progress in one area without making progress in the others as well. There is no starting point or implied hierarchy in the shape of the diagram, and it is not obvious which of the seven factors would be the driving force in changing a particular organisation at a certain point in time. The critical variables could be different across organisations and in the organisation at different points of time.

4.2.1 Strategy and Super Ordinate Goals

The concept of strategy, you are aware, was dwelt upon at length in the previous unit, and hence it would not be discussed in detail in the present one. However, it would be useful to point out that the concept of strategy, as discussed in the previous unit, includes purposes, missions, objectives, goals, and major action plans and policies. The concepts, as applicable to the 7-S framework, are somewhat narrower in scope. In the 7-S framework, there is one variable termed as "superordinate goals," which may be considered to be the equivalent of the term "organisational purpose" discussed in the previous unit. According to the proponents of the McKinsey framework, superordinate goals refer to "… a set of values and aspirations that goes beyond the conventional formal statement of corporate objectives. Superordinate goals are the fundamental ideas around which a business is built. They are its main values. They are the broad notions of future direction. That is the way the top management as a team wants to express itself. Examples would include Theodore Vail's universal services objectives, which have dominated AT&T of the USA; the strong drive to 'customer service' which guides IBM's marketing; GE's slogan, 'progress is our most important product,' which encourages engineers to tinker and innovate throughout the organisation; Hewlett-Packard's 'innovative people at all levels in organisation'; Dana's obsession with productivity for the total organisation, not just for the few at the top; and 3M's dominating culture of 'new ventures.'"

Superordinate goals may be compared with basic premises in a mathematical system. They are the basis on which the system is logically built but are not themselves logically derived. They are expressed at high levels of abstraction and may not mean very much to outsiders who are not very familiar with the organisation. But they have tremendous significance for those inside the organisation. Superordinate goals, when properly articulated, can provide a strong basis for the stability of an organisation in a rapidly changing setting by providing a basic meaning to people working for the organisation.

4.2.2 Structure

The design of organisational structure is a critical task of the top management of an organisation. It is the skeleton of the whole organisational edifice. Organisational structure refers to the relatively more durable organisational arrangements and relationships. It prescribes the formal relationship among various positions and activities.

Arrangements about reporting relationships, how an organisational member is to communicate with other members, what role she is to perform, and what rules and procedures exist to guide the various activities performed by members are all part of the organisational structure. Organisational structure performs three major functions:

i) It reduces external uncertainty through forecasting, research, and planning in the organisation;

ii) It reduces internal uncertainty arising out of variable, unpredictable, random human behaviour within the organisation through control mechanisms;

iii) It undertakes a wide variety of activities through devices such as departmentalisation, specialisation, division of labour, and delegation of authority;

iv) It enables the organisation to keep its activities coordinated and to have a focus in the midst of diversity in the pursuit of its objectives.

Organisational structure, as described in the 7-S framework, may be compared with the "superstructure" of an organisation. The other component of structure, according to Khandwalla, is the "infrastructure." The design of the superstructure involves such issues as division of organisational tasks and allocation of responsibilities among various positions, relationships between different departments. The superstructure of an organisation indicates how differentiated it is or, in other words, to what extent the activities of the organisation are specialised. One organisation may have an engineering department, a manufacturing department, and a quality control department. Another may have an engineering department, a manufacturing department, a production planning and control department, a materials planning department, and a research and development department. The superstructure also indicates some of the ways in which the organisation's tasks are integrated or coordinated. The superstructure is commonly depicted by the organisational chart.

Organisational infrastructure refers to the network of information and controls, rules and procedures, decision-making mechanisms, and authority relationships. These are the less visible aspects of organisations. Infrastructure also enables an organisation to undertake a number of diverse tasks and keep them coordinated for the achievement of organisational goals.

Organisational structure must be designed in accordance with the needs of the strategy. According to Chandler, changes in an organisation's strategy give rise to administrative problems which cannot be resolved with the help of the existing structure, thus necessitating a new structure.

According to proponents of the 7-S framework, the relationship between strategy and structure, though an important addition to the organisational toolkit, rarely provides unique structural solutions. Quite often, the main problem in strategy relates to execution.

4.2.3 Systems

"**Systems**" in the 7-S framework refer to all the rules, regulations, and procedures, both formal and informal, that complement the organisation structure. In other words, it is the equivalent of the term "infrastructure," which was used in the previous section. It includes production planning and control systems, cost accounting procedures, capital budgeting systems, recruitment, training and development systems, planning and budgeting systems, performance evaluation systems, etc. Often, changes in strategy may be implemented with some changes in "systems" rather than in the organisation's structure. Changes in organisational structure, for instance, from functional to divisional, functional to matrix, or divisional to matrix would also necessitate changes in the systems in various degrees.

The significance of "systems" in the functioning of organisations is aptly expressed in the following words:

"To many businessmen, the word 'systems' has a dull, plodding middle-management sound. Yet, it is astonishing how powerfully systems changes can enhance organisational

effectiveness—without the disruptive side effects—that so often ensue from changes in structures."

4.2.4 Style

Style is one of the seven levers that top managers can use to bring about organisational change. It is one of the so-called 'soft' Ss. Organisations differ from each other in their styles of working. The style of an organisation, according to the McKinsey framework, becomes evident through the patterns of actions taken by members of top management over a period of time. The aspects of business most emphasised by members of top management tend to be given more attention by people down in the organisation. Reporting relationships may also convey the style of the organisation.

In some organisations, the quality control function is embedded in the manufacturing function, but in others, it is a separate function directly under the chief executive officer. In some organisations, a Research and Development department may exist as part of an engineering department, but in others, it may be a separate one under the top management. Within the same organisation, reporting relationships may change as part of the evolutionary process, thus conveying changes in the style of management.

The McKinsey framework considers "style" as more than just the style of top management. Giving the example of an organisation that acquired another company after a thorough analysis but failed to make it successful, Waterman et al. contended that the failure was due to the mismatch of the corporate culture of the acquired organisation with that of the parent. In their own words: "…The acquisition has failed because it simply wasn't consistent with the established corporate culture of the parent organisation. It didn't fit their view of themselves. The will to make it work was absent. Time and again, strategic possibilities are blocked—slowed down—by cultural constraints…".

In the McKinsey framework, aspects of organisational culture also seem to be encompassed by the term "style." Waterman and his colleagues, however, have not attempted to elaborate on this.

Of late, organisational theorists have shown an increasing interest in studying organisational culture. There may be several reasons for this. Firstly, culture provides a way to bring in the people dimension in macro organisational analysis without using psychological models of human behaviour. Secondly, the concept of culture describes organisational realities that are difficult to define but are accepted by managers as relevant to running organisations. Thirdly, organisational culture requires researchers to study organisations in depth like anthropologists. A major impetus for the study of organisational culture has come from the recent focus on Japanese corporations because of their phenomenal success. Schein defines culture as:

"The pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to these problems."

Sathe defines culture as: *"The set of important understandings that members of a community share in common."* Rue and Byars have drawn an analogy between culture in an organisation and the personality of a person. Humans can be warm, aggressive, friendly, open, innovative, conservative, and so forth. So can organisations.

Organisational culture is expressed in a variety of ways: unwritten rules and traditions, shared norms about what is important, prejudices, standards for social etiquette and demeanour, established ways of relating with peers, subordinates, and superiors, etc. The culture that an organisation wishes to develop is conveyed through rites, rituals, myths, legends, and actions.

Different organisations develop different cultures. Some illustrations of the cultures developed by three well-known American firms are provided below in the table.

Table 4.2: Cultural Characteristics of Three Firms

Firm	Characteristics
IBM	Concern for marketing drives a service philosophy that is almost unparalleled. The company maintains a hotline round the clock, seven days a week, to service its products.
TTI	Financial discipline demands total dedication. Once, an executive phoned former chairman Harold Geneen at 3:00 a.m. to beat out the competition in a merger deal.
Delta Air Lines	Focus on customer service produces a high degree of framework. Employees will gladly substitute in other jobs to keep planes flying and baggage moving.

Sources : Adapted from Leslie W. Rue and Lilyd L. Byars, *"Management: Theory and Application",* 1986, p.569

4.2.5 Staff

Staffing is the process of acquiring human resources for the organisation and assuring that they have the potential to contribute to the achievement of the organisation's goals.

Brown and Moberg define staffing as, “the selection, placement, training and development of appropriately qualified employees,” which implies that it includes two fundamentally different processes: selecting people for specific organisational positions and developing in them the abilities and skills that they would need to be effective in those and subsequent assignments.

The staffing function applies to the whole organisation, i.e., it cuts across all organisational levels, though the processes may be different for different kinds of jobs. In the McKinsey 7-S framework, the term “staff” has a specific connotation. According to Waterman and his colleagues, the term “staff” refers to the way organisations introduce young recruits into the mainstream of their activities and the manner in which they manage their careers as the new entrants develop into future managers. They found that superbly performing companies paid attention to the development of managers.

They pointed out the examples of IBM, Texas Instruments, P&G, Hewlett-Packard, and CityBank, whose top managers took extraordinary care in moulding young persons into future managers. On the Indian scene, there are some examples of firms which are relatively more concerned about the process of management development. Larsen and Toubro Limited has a well-established system of recruiting graduate engineers from well-known technical institutions and providing them with on-the-job training in a number of functional areas before deciding on the final placement in consultation with the person concerned.

During the period of training, the trainees are also required to undergo short-duration training programmes on a variety of management-related subjects. Hindustan Lever Limited is well-known for its marketing orientation, which is considered to be one of its main strengths. To imbibe a marketing orientation, all new recruits for future management positions are required to spend a certain minimum period of time in the field.

Both Larsen and Toubro and Hindustan Lever are well-known for their consistently good performance. Japanese firms are known for their considerable investment in the development of their managers. Matsushita is one of the well-known examples.

4.2.6 Skills

Waterman considers “skills” as one of the most crucial attributes or capabilities of an organisation. The term “skills” includes those characteristics which most people use to describe a company. Hindustan Lever and Richardson Hindustan are known for their marketing skills. Larsen & Toubro and the Tata Engineering and Locomotive Company (Telco) are known for their engineering skills. IBM is known for its marketing orientation, customer service, and market power; DuPont for its research skills; and Sony for new product development.

Organisations have strengths in a number of areas, but their key strengths or dominant skills are few. These are developed over a period of time and are a result of the interaction of a number of factors-performing certain tasks successfully over time, the kind of people in the organisation, the top management style, the organisation structure, the management systems, the external environmental influences, etc. Hence, when organisations make a strategic shift, it becomes necessary to consciously build new skills.

Skills in the McKinsey framework are the equivalent of Selznick's "distinctive competence." The dominant skills or the distinctive competence of an organisation are part of its organisational character.

Consider this example: A company which decided to mass-produce a comparatively low-cost speedboat for wide distribution was unable to cope with the effort to shift commitments from its earlier products, which were high-quality craft, made of the finest materials and built by master boat-builders. Workers and supervisors continued to be preoccupied with high-cost and superior quality craftsmanship. The selling and marketing people could not shift emphasis from "snob appeal" to price appeal.

The quality commitment was so strong that a new plant, hundreds of miles away from the existing one, had to be set up, and new people had to be recruited to do the job successfully.

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q: Classify and understand the difference between hard and soft elements.

Instructions:

- Divide the class into small groups.
- Provide each group with cards labeled with the 7 elements (Strategy, Structure, Systems, Style, Staff, Skills, Shared Values).
- Ask the groups to sort the cards into "Hard Elements" and "Soft Elements", and then justify their choices in a brief 2-minute presentation.

Discussion Prompt:

- *Why do you think certain elements are considered "hard" while others are "soft"?*

4.3 REVIEW OF THE FRAMEWORK

The successful implementation of a strategy requires the right alignment of various activities and processes within the organisation, viz., structure, resource allocation, staffing (both managerial and technical), skills, styles and competencies, rewards and incentives, policies and procedures, shared values, and beliefs. The McKinsey consultants call "strategy" and "structure" the *hardware* of the organisation and suggest that the other five Ss-i.e., systems, style, staff, skills, and shared values-are the *software*, and are often ignored by corporate strategists (some authors consider "systems" also as a constituent of "hardware").

While strategy and structure are important to the organisation, they by themselves cannot assure success, which comes about through corporate commitment. It is the other five Ss which play an important role in creating a climate of commitment. The better the alignment between and among all the seven levers of the organisation, the better are likely to be the results.

Shared values, the central core of the framework, give rise to a certain spirit among organisational members regarding "who we are and where we are headed." The spirit permeating the organisation, in turn, is reflected in the values, attitudes, and philosophy of its members. The corporate values define the ideals and beliefs which guide the organisational operations. They lay down the foundation of the organisation's management philosophy and give rise to a particular culture.

The virtue of the 7-S framework is that it highlights some important organisational interconnections and their role in effecting change. Whether and to what extent the organisation will be able to bring about the needed shifts in strategy would depend upon the extent and pace of accomplishment of action plans in the spheres of the seven Ss.

The 7-S framework illustrates, in a simple way, that the real task of implementing strategy is one: bringing all seven Ss into harmony. *"When the seven Ss are in good alignment, an organisation is poised and energised to execute strategy to the best of its ability."* The McKinsey model provides a convenient checklist for judging whether an organisation is ripe for implementing strategy. It also helps in diagnosing why the results from the implementation of a strategy fell short of expectations and, therefore, what new "fits" would be required.

The framework helps strategists in evaluating their organisations along each of the seven dimensions, thereby identifying organisational strengths and weaknesses. Arguing forcefully for their model, McKinsey consultants say:

"In retrospect, what our framework has really done is to remind the world of professional managers that 'soft is hard.' It has enabled us to say, in effect, 'All that staff you have been dismissing for so long as the intractable, irrational, intuitive, informal organisation can be managed. Clearly, it has as much more to do with the way things work (or don't) around your companies as the formal structures and strategies do. Not only are you foolish to ignore it, but here's a way to think about it. Here are some tools for managing it. Here, really, is the way to develop a new skill.'"

The McKinsey Company was not the first to propose a multivariable model of organisational change. Harold Leavitt had, many years ago, proposed a model for analysing change in organisations. According to that model, organisational change—whether it originated in the organisational structure, the tasks, the technology deployed for performing the tasks, or the organisation's human component—was likely to have effects on the other three. The 7-S model, however, emphasizes a few other variables which Leavitt had not considered.

Though the research base for the framework may be the subject of considerable academic discussion and criticism, the framework is useful to practising managers as it is easy to remember (because of the alliteration) and also because it provides a useful checklist for a comprehensive look at managing organisational change.

Thus, the 7-S framework is a powerful expository tool. However, it may be stated that changing the culture of the organization-which is pivotal to the McKinsey model—is a difficult task. Even after prolonged efforts spanning a period of 5–7 years, the organisation may achieve only partial success. Nonetheless, the organisation must endeavour to recreate its culture if it is regarded as an important determinant of its success, as is envisaged in the 7-S model.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q: Apply the hard vs. soft element understanding in a real-world context.

Instructions:

- Present a short organisational change scenario (e.g., a company undergoing digital transformation).
- Assign each student (or pair) **one element** of the 7-S model.
- Ask them to **role-play how their assigned element (hard or soft) would respond to the change** and what challenges they might face.

Follow-up Question:

- *How do soft elements like "style" or "shared values" impact the success of changes made to hard elements like "strategy" or "structure"?*

4.4 LET US SUM UP

The 7-S Framework was developed by the McKinsey Company towards the end of the 1970s in response to a growing feeling of inadequacy of the then well-known structural solutions for strategic problems. The proponents of this framework emphasized that in a large number of cases, the problem in strategy lay in its execution, and structure was only one lever in the hands of management. The other levers were systems, staff, style, skills, and superordinate goals.

The successful execution of a strategy depends on the right alignment of all the Seven Ss. The shared values (a component of culture) play a crucial role in creating a climate of commitment among the members of the organisation. The 7-S Framework highlights the importance of some interconnections within the organisation and their role in successful execution of strategy. Changing the culture of the organisation, however, is not an easy task.

4.5 KEY WORDS

- **Skills:** The ability to do something.
- **Style:** A particular procedure to do something.
- **System:** All rules, regulations and procedures.
- **Staff:** Process of acquiring human resources for the organisation.

4.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q1. Describe the different components of strategy.

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Q2. Establish inter-relationship between strategy and super-ordinate goals.

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Q3. Explain how staff and systems are inter-linked.

Q4. Discuss the relationship of strategy and structure.

4.7 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q 1: Explain the importance of alignment among the seven elements of the McKinsey 7S Framework in achieving organizational effectiveness.

Q 2: How can the McKinsey 7S Framework be used to implement strategic change in an organization?

Q 3: Differentiate between the 'hard' and 'soft' elements of the McKinsey 7S Framework. Provide examples of each.

4.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Porter,M. E. Business Policy Text and Cases, Irwin, Inc., Homewood Illinois, 1987.
- Coulter, M.K.Strategic Management in Action, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, 2009.

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MEANING, PROCESS, BENEFITS, APPROACHES OF CORPORATE PLANNING, WHY CORPORATE PLANNING FAILS AND PRE-REQUISITES FOR ITS SUCCESS

STRUCTURE

5.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this leasson are:

- To make an assessment of the meaning of corporate planning.
- To evaluate upon different types of corporate plans.
- To discuss different benefits and limitations of corporate planning.
- To describe the steps of the corporate planning process.

Learning Outcomes

After Reading this lesson you will be able to :

- Formulate Strategic Objectives and Goals.
- Develop and Evaluate Strategic Alternatives.
- Create Comprehensive Corporate Plans.
- Implement and Monitor Strategic Initiatives.
- Analyze the Impact of External Factors on Corporate Strategy.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In management literature, sometimes even corporate planning, strategic planning, long-range planning are used interchangeably. This chapter provides an elaborate concept of corporate planning.

5.2 MEANING OF CORPORATE PLANNING

Corporate Planning means determining long term objectives of the organisation and devising strategies to achieve these objectives. Planning, to be effective, has to take into account all the internal and external environmental factors affecting the corporation. Planning would have been easy if these factors could be accurately forecasted. In that case, the job of the management would be to allocate the resources according to some mathematical model, and planning would be simple and straightforward. But in practice, it is the experience that it is not so. There are some people who are planning enthusiasts and would carry planning to extreme conditions and would find that it does not work. On the other hand, there are people who would say that planning does not serve any purpose. They would contend that the corporate business is subject to so many changing factors that it is very difficult to judge them with any degree of accuracy. Both these views are unjustifiable, and just because planning sometimes fails does not mean that it has no purpose or utility. Planning as a tool of corporate management has to be handled with proper training. If the worker who handles the tool makes mistakes, it does not mean that the tool is bad, but the worker needs training.

5.2.1 DEFINITIONS OF CORPORATE PLANNING

The various writers on the subject of Corporate Planning have defined it in different ways. We define it as follows:

Corporate Planning can be defined as follows: "It is to determine the long-term goals of a company as a whole and then to generate plans designed to achieve these goals, bearing in mind probable changes in its environment."

Corporate Planning may be defined as: "the systematic preparation of forward-looking strategic plans defining the objectives to be pursued in the long, medium, and short term, within the framework of corporate policy established by the board of directors for the business as a whole."

Corporate Planning may be defined as: "A continuous process of defining business, corporate objective time span of planning, and developing a system of objectives, quantifying them to identify gaps, evolve actions, and decide resources."

It can well be seen from the above definitions that corporate planning is concerned with the company as a whole. The purpose of corporate planning is to determine the long-range objectives of the company and to devise strategies and plans of action to achieve them, in conformation with the policy of the company. The planners should also take into account the environment in which the company has to function and make the plan flexible to adjust according to the changing environment.

Corporate planning, therefore, is an important tool of modern management, and in the context of modern-day business exigencies, corporate planning has come to achieve a predominant position in company management processes.

Today, it is recognized that maximization of profit is not the only objective of a company, though it still remains the prominent one. Return on invested capital is not the sole criterion for measuring the success of a business firm. Objectives such as survival and growth are equally important; in fact, it is the predominate goal of a company today. It cannot also forget in the present social and political context its social responsibility and its duty towards the employees and the consumers for whose betterment and benefit it professes to exist.

In order to fulfill all these varied goals, the company has to take into account diverse interests, both internal and external, and devise its course of action to satisfy the internal and external interests of many groups. Hence, the aim of corporate planning may be stated as, "the planning of resources to ensure their optimum utilization, to achieve an optimum rate of return on the capital employed, whilst optimizing the extent of customer satisfaction, but also ensuring the future survival of the business and the highest level of job enrichment possible for the personnel employed."

Corporate planning also requires the evaluation of alternative courses of action in a given situation, with an assessment of constraints to any particular line of action. These constraints may be limited to plant capacity, finance, shortage of manpower, availability of materials, know-how, etc. It should also be remembered that there is always at present an element of uncertainty or risk in any planning, and the probability factors for the areas of uncertainty should be considered and weighted carefully based on the available data and must be quantified so that a probable line of action may be drawn up. This will enable the management to take proper decisions.

5.2.2 NATURE OF CORPORATE PLANNING

(1) Nature of Business: Until a few decades ago, most of the companies were small, and almost all of them were run by one man-the owner. However, nowadays, there are thousands of small, medium, and large companies, which have multinational operations. Business operations have become complex and complicated and require the services of many persons. In the past, it was possible for the companies to make profits with little or no planning as there was rapid growth in production, demand, and a rise in population. There was also limited competition. Many companies earned remarkable returns on their investment.

(2) Environment: All this has changed now. Today, the companies are part and parcel of the environment in which they operate and depend upon various services and infrastructure provided by the public utilities and other very important services such as power supply, water supply, means of transport, communication systems like telephone and telegraph services, and the supply of rare and scarce raw materials over which they may have no control. They have to depend upon the public financial institutions for loans and advances for the supply of capital. The individuals invest, and the relation of the company with the shareholder is also very important. It has to take into account the Government's economic policy, tax legislation, and other relevant laws. It has to reckon with the labor and their unions, consumer movements, and the press. In other words, any activity the company plans to undertake in furtherance of its objectives now impinges on a variety of other activities, and it cannot undertake any activity without considering the various above factors. It will be realized that the corporation nowadays will have to plan in advance its various activities in order to be successful in its business operations.

(3) Specialisation: If we consider even the main activities of a business corporation such as production, finance, sales, and personnel and industrial relations, we will notice that each of these activities requires proper planning and execution. Production today is highly mechanized and specialized. It requires precision machinery, highly specialized staff and personnel, scientific layout of the factory, quality raw materials, inspection and quality control, and above all involves mass production. All these are clearly interlinked, and production planning has to be undertaken in a systematic manner in order to maintain a smooth flow of goods, keep down costs, avoid waste and bottlenecks. It is a highly specialized job. Similar is the case with financial planning. It has become highly complicated because of the diffusion of ownership and the emergence of financial institutions as the suppliers of capital and invertible funds. Such things as the maintenance of an adequate supply of working capital, cash flow of inventories, minimizing the burden of corporate taxes and adverse effects of inflation, maintaining a fair rate of dividend, etc.-all these call for proper planning of finances. This aspect of corporate activity is cardinal to the survival, success, and growth of the corporation. It is the basic function. Hence, financial planning is a sine qua non of corporate planning.

(4) Sales Planning: In the case of sales management, the distribution of goods and advertisement and providing various after-sales services are very important. In sales, the opinion of the customer, his likes and dislikes, his attitude towards the company, activities of competitors, packaging, and window displays are some of the important factors to be reckoned with. Nowadays, packaging plays an important part in distribution. It must fulfill the criteria of low cost, protection to the product, easy handling and transportation, and an attractive getup. All these activities call for proper planning. Sales planning, therefore, occupies an important place in the overall corporate planning

(5) Personnel Relation: Industrial and personnel relations have become highly important today. The smooth functioning of the corporation is largely dependent on the high morale and good industrial relations between the management and the employees. Personnel management as well as industrial relations has become a highly specialized subject and has emerged into a full-time function. In company administration, problems like collective bargaining, trade union activities, labor welfare measures, safety devices, medical care, and recreational and educational facilities occupy the attention of executives. These are sensitive areas and require tactful handling. The morale and attitude of the workers depend upon the solutions to these problems. It can be realized from the above discussion that each function of the corporation has become highly specialized, complex, and complicated and requires high skills of management. These various functions cannot be carried out by one man, however highly talented, experienced, and trained he may be, because of the complexities involved in the nature of corporate business. It is noticed that each main function requires proper planning, and even though each departmental activity should be properly planned, the overall planning of the corporate objectives cannot be lost sight of. Corporate planning is the integrated planning and inter-linking of various activities of the corporations so that an overall picture is derived about the future course of corporate activities. This is the job of the top management and should be undertaken by the board of directors with the help of a few top executives. It will be seen from the above analysis that a modern-day company cannot survive for long without proper planning.

(6) External Factors: Apart from the above main functions of the corporation, there are other factors that affect the activities of the corporation. These are external factors such as social conditions, sociological changes, political developments, technological changes, and population growth and migration, which compel the corporation to plan more comprehensively. The corporate planners will always have to bear in mind these underlying forces. These forces comprise an essential background and suggest a possible future development.

Though the need for corporate planning is obvious in the present context of environmental factors, there are so many companies that do not undertake planning. Even where planning is undertaken, it is left to various departments. Some companies have special staff for planning, and they help the executives to plan their activities. However, a vast number of companies do not have a special planning department or staff. “Many are too busy to do it properly, some do not know how to do it, and others do not want to; even if they did, they can only take a departmental view of any plan. These companies run the risk of stagnation, of running out of steam; corporate planning offers an approach to these twin problems.”

However, much remains to be accomplished in the development of corporate planning. So far, there are few established procedures and techniques. The subject of corporate planning cannot be put down in simple facts, universal truths, or easy how-to-do-it formulas. This is because the subject deals with a basic and more subtle aspect of business planning.

Comprehensive planning involves unforeseen factors, many imponderables, and difficulties of implementation. These cannot be avoided and have to be faced in the existing social, economic, and organizational development. However, it may be said that the modern manager is so overburdened with the day-to-day problems of management that he cannot be expected to find time to give thoughtful and undivided attention to comprehensive corporate planning. If there is any such manager, he should be considered an exception. Corporate planning is the job of a group of specialists who can delve deep into the problem of planning and, after careful and thoughtful analysis, come out with an integrated overall plan for the business of the corporation.

5.2.3 REQUIREMENTS OF CORPORATE PLANNING

Corporate planning is said to be a sound method of producing desirable results over a period of time. If this is so, then why is it not accepted and universally applied by all the managers of companies? This is because some managers are not prepared to accept the argument that corporate planning is desirable. They do not accept the fundamental requirements of planning. They believe that planning is not useful over long periods and it does not solve any problems. They think that planning involves many assumptions, or there are many imponderables, and hence its utility is limited. They reject planning out of improper understanding of the planning process. They believe that effective corporate planning is a difficult and long-drawn-out process. Their attitude towards planning is negative. Therefore, the most essential requirement of corporate planning is that it must be accepted by the top management without reservation. “The most important requirement is that the company's top management must really believe in a forward planning programme.” If this is not done, then planning will be a failure. It will be a failure not because corporate planning is itself unsound but because of haphazard planning and execution. Planning will get a bad name in the company for no fault of itself.

The following are some of the assumptions involved in corporate planning:

(1) Utilisation of Resources: Planning presupposes that money and resources will be spent in the present in order to realize desirable profits or benefits in the future. These profits or benefits are not assumed but are expected on the careful evaluation of past experience, present trends, and future probabilities. Implicit in this approach is the objective of earning better or higher profits over a period of time. It is not desired to increase returns in the immediate future. The objective is to earn optimum profits. In order to do this, the management should consider the alternative means of investment of corporate resources to achieve maximum benefits.

(2) Profit Motto: It is axiomatic that in order to achieve optimum profits, the company must have sufficient surplus resources in men, money, and materials. It is not enough that sufficient funds must be available, but the top management and the executives concerned must devote their undivided and careful attention to corporate planning. Many plans have become infructuous because of the failure of the management to execute them properly. There should be separate staff to undertake organized planning. “A company engaged in comprehensive planning evaluates its surplus resources not only in cash and credit but also in terms of executive attitudes, management time, and capability.”

(3) Business Risks: While planning for the future, the risks are always present. If future gains are to be achieved, then adequate preparatory action should be taken. It should be realized that “Planning is always a matter of estimating odds.” It is the function of corporate planning to recognize and identify the risks and evolve strategies to overcome them.

(4) Period: Planning is for the long-range future. It also considers medium- and short-range periods as well. But it is generally for five or ten years ahead. Consideration of the immediate future is not generally undertaken. Under corporate planning, the management should be prepared to act with reference to the long term and, therefore, more uncertain future. Some companies are not willing to see beyond the immediate future. So long as the company is making a profit, they do not see any reason for planning. It is only when they are faced with adverse conditions that they think of planning. Corporate planning is itself always active and progressive. It is the opposite of the status quo.

(5) Best Efforts: Corporate planning calls upon the best effort by the management. The success of corporate planning depends upon its effective implementation. Execution of plans demands personnel of the highest ability and capability. For future success, efforts must be made by individuals as well as groups in the company hierarchy of management. They must be able to take decisions and base judgments on facts and figures. They will have to make anticipatory decisions well in advance, whose effects will be known-whether they were right or wrong-only in the future. Plans will have to be constantly evaluated and re-examined, and efforts must be made to devise better methods and procedures to improve accomplishments. Efficient and forward-looking management is a pre-requisite of corporate planning.

(6) Fluctuations: In the life of a company, there are always good and bad times. When the times are good, that is, when the present sales and profits are satisfactory and the immediate future appears to be promising, the management may not think of planning. The management may even think that corporate planning is not necessary. But it must be remembered that the business conditions are always subject to fluctuation, and good times may be changed into hard times. The favorable conditions may not last long, and business situations are not basically permanent, and all the factors will not stay static for a considerable period of time. Taking this into consideration and bearing in mind that both internal conditions and the external environment of business change, the management should not only have a plan for the immediate future but also should have a planning policy based on a long-term view. Comprehensive corporate planning will not only help the company to meet any problems or crises but will enable it to circumvent any crisis and help the company to survive and grow. The management should, therefore, adopt a rational approach to planning and avoid a negative attitude toward it. In corporate planning, an element of change is always present. Planning is undertaken to minimize the adverse effects of the element of change and not to eliminate it. Corporate planning seeks to identify those forces which are beyond its control and affect its chances of success. “Not only does corporate planning seek to identify these forces, but in so far as possible, plans are drawn in terms of real expectation of chance events rather than any illusions of cause and effect.” The management should not base its expectations with respect to corporate planning on unrealistic premises.

(7) Variable Problems: There was a time when business problems were far simpler, and executives were able to define them and tackle them. Today, the problems are numerous and more variable, and the executive has to deal with complex and constantly changing situations. The fact that corporate planning is pre-eminently a fluid process engenders its own difficulties to acceptance by the management executives. But it is a fact that corporate planning is a tool of management and must be wholeheartedly accepted by the executives. If the executives are half-hearted about it or display mental reservations, then the success of corporate planning will be jeopardized. But many executives are unwilling to shoulder the responsibility of comprehensive corporate planning because it is a more challenging job. Many executives prefer to deal with fixed programmes and concrete facts which help them to make positive judgments. Such programmes are much simpler and easier to understand and manage than to handle a changing situation like comprehensive corporate planning. They are reluctant to take the responsibility of planning. They display an attitude of safety first and want to play safe. They do not want to take responsibility for decisions which may not turn out to be correct, and they fear that their personal advancement will be endangered. But they forget that "Nothing is permanent but change."

(8) Personal Reasons: Some executives may not accept corporate planning for personal reasons. He may be reluctant to delegate authority and responsibility. He does not want to free himself from the day-to-day management problems and concentrate and devote time to more important problems like the planning of corporate business. He feels that only he can deal with day-to-day problems as they arise, and his attention is needed more by those routine problems. He also may feel insecure and unequal to the task. He is at ease in dealing with a given problem than anticipating a situation and preparing for it. Thus, the executives may be reluctant to undertake corporate planning for many reasons. But it is a pre-requisite of corporate planning that it should be mentally accepted by the management executives for successfully putting it into operation.

(9) Open Opposition: "The most serious obstacle to long-range planning is not so much the drain on management time, the actual problems of doing good planning, or the danger of revealing the company strategy as it is subtle, but occasionally open opposition of some executives which appears in the early stages of development."

(10) Management Support: Hence, top management support is absolutely essential. If you add up all (those) who stipulate top management support in the area of their particular interests, each and every activity appears to need such backing—and that is a physical impossibility. But the argument in the case of long-range planning is over-riding, if only because the activity has always been thought of as so distinctly top-level."

5.2.4 IMPORTANCE OF CORPORATE PLANNING

(1) Uncertainty: It is an open secret that business operates in an environment of uncertainty, and this uncertainty not only brings the maximum amount of risk but gives birth to a number of problems. This situation can be faced successfully provided there is proper planning. Although it is not obligatory for every company to have planning, there may be very few companies that may not be having the project of planning. Companies having no planning generally "muddle" through and may get a result, but not the desired one.

(2) Competition: Similarly, where competition is strong, it will be very difficult for the company not wedded to planning to have victory over its competitors. It should be noted that all those concerns getting success in their lines have paid due respect to the planning department. Whatever result is obtained by them is the outcome of planning and not the effect of getting the "muddle" through. Planning is, therefore, so important that we have no other choice but to have it. Of course, the benefits of any individual plan are not assured but are probable, and it should be borne in mind that planning does not always lead to profit. This does not approach if we think in negative terms.

(3) Fulfilment of Objectives: In fact, every successful business concern is a planner and not a non-planner. As already pointed out, planning focuses attention on objectives. Under planning, one will have to look towards the future, and if there is no planning, the manager concerned would be too short-sighted. In the absence of planning, managers will fail to tackle the problems that crop up on account of changed conditions. Although they might be doing their day-to-day routine work, planning is becoming equally important for them on account of shifting time dimensions as new products come out of research and development. It is under such circumstances that the necessity of planning arises for disposing of such products.

(4) Changing Demands: Another salient feature of present-day products is that they have shorter life cycles, and therefore, it has become a problem for every modern management to keep up a regular flow of new products to meet new but ever-changing demands. These objects can be fulfilled only by having regularized planning.

(5) Control over Cost: Further, all actions to be undertaken from lower management to the top management are interconnected, and they are to be put into operation as per predetermined plans and decisions. It is here that full control over such actions is necessary if we want to accomplish our goals. To fulfill the object of having necessary control, planning is a must, and without it, coordination and control will go away. The importance of planning arises on account of its helping management to control and economize expenditure so as to see that the product is manufactured at a minimum cost and thereby helps to maximize profits. Planning with its basic plan will draw a number of derivative or subsidiary plans for each segment of the company, and thus each course of action of every department is properly and perpetually checked. This step indeed helps the company to: a. face uncertainty and any change, commercial or political; b. meet competition; c. minimize costs and maximize profits; and d. have proper control.

5.3 CORPORATE PLANNING PROCESS

The fundamental approach to corporate planning is essentially rational. The future planning is based on the analysis of data, statistical analysis, mathematical calculations, and to a certain extent on deduction. The facts and figures should be taken into account, and no ground should be given to hunches or intuitions. It should be remembered that the business conditions are subject to various influences such as economic, political, and social factors which cannot be absolutely forecasted, but they can be gauged, and from past experience and the present situation, reasonable projections can be derived. These situations cannot be based on the requirements of scientific methods. This does not mean that these situations, which are more fluid, cannot be properly taken into account in corporate planning.

Corporate planning is usually done for a long-term period. This period is usually between 5 to 10 years. The medium-term or intermediate period may be for 3 to 5 years, and the short-term period is usually a year. The top management is concerned with the formulation of corporate plans. The process of planning includes the formulation of various functional plans which are part of corporate plans and may involve various time ranges. It is easy to find out the lifespan of physical facilities, such as buildings, plant, and machinery, and to plan the replacement of obsolete equipment. Similarly, lifecycles of products, diversification of products, and the opening up of employer-employee relations on a sound basis-all these activities should be planned involving a reasonable period of time. This is a continuous process, and the planning has to be flexible and adjustable according to the available circumstances. One should understand the difference between a plan and planning. Plans are set programmes, whereas planning is a continuous process. Plans are the blueprints to a set course of action to accomplish given results. For example, an architect prepares a building plan and prepares the blueprints of the whole building. But before preparing the blueprints, he has to determine initial requirements, location, designing of the building, various uses to which it is to be put, changes in design during construction, modifications if necessary during the course of construction, various sizes of the rooms, and various types of materials to be used in the construction of the building and financing. All this involves the "planning process of the building," and after taking into consideration all these things and the purpose for which it is to be used, the architect prepares the plans of the building. He prepares the detailed plans for each floor of the building. These plans are blueprints for actual execution. Thus, a "plan is a means or mechanism of planning, the more static blue printing necessitated by the obvious fact that if everything changed all the time, there could be few tangible accomplishments." Corporate planning should be for a reasonable timespan and should be stable. It should not be constantly altered, for if it is changed often, it cannot achieve the desired results. "Unless the planning process itself is the cardinal emphasis and the plans are ancillary to it, the business will derive temporary benefit at best. Corporate planning, therefore, is never static. It adjusts as need be to changing conditions and goals."

It should be realized that in corporate planning, there are many indeterminate and uncertain factors. There is a changing environment, both internal and external, particularly external factors. Planning will depend upon the available information, data, and statistics, and the information that may be made available during the course of planning. Information may not be always relevant, and sometimes it is difficult and costly to obtain it. Decisions sometimes have to be taken on hunches or arbitrarily. Therefore, "an understanding of the inherent open-endedness of planning, a coming to terms with the scientifically indeterminate environment within which it must operate, and the establishment of an effective modus operandi are required for successful planning in general and corporate planning in particular."

5.3.1 STEPS IN CORPORATE PLANNING

It is observed above that corporate planning is a continuous process. It has four aspects or phases which may be termed as objectives, plans, integration decision, and implementation. Alterations may be carried out as required by the circumstances in any one or all of the phases. In order to do this, feedback of information and feedforward is required. A sound corporate plan should anticipate as far as possible; the procedure should provide room for adjustment. For example, a sales plan depends upon the estimation of consumer demand, which is difficult to predict correctly and is subject to various forces. A manufacturer of children's toys may not be able to adequately forecast his sales. Whereas, for a public utility, it is reasonably possible to plan for a long-range period. Thus, it will depend upon the circumstances and the nature of the business. However, as corporate planning becomes a familiar tool of management, the degree of adjustment variation will narrow down to manageable proportions as the internal deficiencies of the organizations will be smoothened out or eliminated.

(1) Objectives: The main purpose of corporate planning is to provide a plan of action to achieve certain pre-determined goals—a plan cannot be prepared without objectives. It is the duty and the responsibility of the top management to clearly define the corporate objectives so that what is to be accomplished is specifically laid down. These objectives are instrumental in chalking out a plan of action. These should be clearly stated and recognized. They are included and are implicit in the plan itself. The statement of objectives is the first basic factor in planning and gives a direction to it. The statement of objectives should be a logical sequence. A company may start the statement with its recent history and enunciate its current situation. It will include information on matters such as finance, sales and distribution, products and production, inventories, research, personnel, and other facilities. The influence of outside forces such as competition is included. All this is done to arrive at the probable future development of the organization, taking into account the external situation and internal constraints. The current trends are analyzed to predict the future possibilities and to contemplate changes in the existing line of action. This is necessary to establish a co-relation of what is and what is intended to be in the future. In this statement, it will include such environmental factors as socio-economic and political trends, domestic and foreign competition, consumer behavior, and technological developments. All this description will give a picture of existing conditions and the need for necessary action to accomplish the laid down objectives of the organization. The company, thus, forms an image of itself and projects as to how it would like to be some years hence forward. Corporate plans are devised to achieve this projected future picture of the company. This enables the company to formulate practical lines of action in its plans, which will permit it to achieve its objectives. The company arrives by such logical analysis at a combination of desirable and practical objectives. It results in long-range corporate plans and provides guidelines for operational plans. The top management will have to lay down the corporate objectives, and they will have to be reviewed continually. What is the nature of the business desired by the management say five or ten years hence? Since the business is carried on not in a static situation but in changing and dynamic conditions, there will always certainly be a need for adjustment and alteration as the circumstances change. Therefore, the corporate plans will be modified to suit the changing conditions.

(2) Plans: In the presence of corporate objectives, the company prepares plans both for the long term and also yearly plans. Similarly, each functional department of the corporation also prepares yearly plans and also a long-term plan. The yearly plans are generally specific and are based on budgetary allocations. The goals are determined, and the line of action is also laid down. Plans for additional years are not so specific, but they will include some definite forecast. The top management will have to decide how far below the levels of management sectional plans should be prepared. It is not necessary to prepare plans for each sub-unit. However, it will depend upon the nature and size of the business as to what level of administrations plans should be prepared. If there are no obvious advantages to be gained in respect of the evaluation of performance, training, delegation of responsibility, and authority, it is not necessary to prepare plans for sub-units. If there are a large number of such sub-units plans, then it will be difficult to collect information, achieve coordination, review, and modification of the operation of plans. It will lead to too much complication and consequently an increase in cost administration. Generally, the sub-unit plans include such information as the expected volume and value of its products, costs and profitability, personnel required, machinery, equipment, and facilities needed, specific programmes of improvement in management supervision, performance-productivity, morale organization, and other matters influencing operating achievement. These plans are not limited to activities which can be quantified and expressed directly and immediately in terms of profit and loss. These plans are, however, part of the overall corporate plans. It will be worthwhile to note certain benefits of unit plans. Firstly, the person responsible for the unit and other personnel in the unit are inspired and encouraged to think in advance. It is a method of stimulating forethought or thinking ahead. Of course, many unit heads do not do this thinking ahead. They are content to carry out the plan handed out to them. But there are many executives who think about the future of the organization where they work, and they have many useful ideas to contribute. When unit plants are prepared, they will be enabled to put their ideas into practice or make concrete and constructive suggestions. Secondly, planning promotes a comprehensive view. It not only encourages thinking ahead but also requires that all the important factors of the unit are taken into account and considered. Similarly, the corporate plan requires that various components of the business are integrated and projected in union. As a result of this, different units of the company are made conscious of what is happening in the entire company. They become aware of the activities below and above them. Such awareness of the various activities eliminates isolation and confusion. It also promotes identification with the problems of the business as a whole. Thirdly, plans also provide a measure of performance. They lay down what can be done and periodically review the actual achievement. Thus, plans help to accomplish a higher level of performance because of improvement in the efficiency of management. The next steps in the planning procedure are the formulation of departmental plans from unit plans. In big organizations, departmental plans may be grouped together in order to achieve greater coordination and integration. It may sometimes involve a re-appraisal of some unit plans—the sole purpose is to make the plans more effective.

(3) Integration Decision: It is the management of the company which takes the ultimate decisions and brings about integration in corporate planning. It must assess whether every important component plan is in order. It must see that there are no omissions. It should also see that each component plan is in accordance with the final corporate objectives. For example, it may be decided to have a particular production target, then it must be asked whether the plans are in accordance with the projected production. If a company decides to put the goods in a new market, then it must be found out whether the plans are ready to undertake the introduction. Is the publicity properly done? Is the packaging attractive? Has every arrangement been made to keep up the delivery schedule? It is also necessary to see whether the action of one unit is at variance with the general objectives and policy of the company. If one division which is decentralized decides to give a pay rise, it will have repercussions on other divisions of the company and will create the problem of industrial peace. The different divisions might not cooperate to the advantage of each other. Similarly, the allocation of funds to different units may not be properly scrutinized and synchronized. It may be sometimes necessary to divert funds from one division to another. Several such questions of practical implementation will have to be considered, identified, and decisions taken for better performance. As a result of such integration, it may be necessary to alter the component unit plans. When this is done, they are combined into a comprehensive plan for the business as a whole, which is the target for achievement. As has been already noted earlier, corporate planning is a continuous process, and if unforeseen situations of major importance arise, it requires review and revision of the corporate plan on the basis of current data available.

It has been already seen that analysis, integration, and decision are applied throughout the corporate planning procedure from the lowest level of organization. Each unit and department takes its own decision and prepares its proposed plans which are integrated by the top management at the apex level. It can be, therefore, easily understood that if any errors are committed at the lower level—there is always a possibility to make certain errors-the consequences to the company are limited to a smaller extent. But if errors of judgment are committed at the apex level of management by the chief executives, it can result in a very difficult situation for the company, sometimes resulting in heavy losses. It may also take a long time to wipe off the effects of such wrong decisions. Therefore, the top executives have to weigh the pros and cons of their decisions very carefully. In big corporations today, the line executives are so busy with their day-to-day operations that they have little time to pay attention to long-range planning. They have no time to formulate and maintain personally the factual background for corporate planning. Therefore, a flow of information and a system of analysis are organized and maintained according to the procedures and practices laid down by them to provide necessary data, properly evaluated and needed for judgment and decision. Today, separate planning staff who are specialists are appointed to “receive and correlate component plans, distill the most indicative data, integrate and analyze these data, project the resulting information into successive stages of future time, and finally present the composite corporate situation and the probable results of alternative courses of action." At the same time, the corporate planning staff is collecting information, generating special studies, and maintaining selected facts and figures relating to the national economy, government policies, financial trends, industry-wide competitions, and other developments which comprised the external environment within which business plans are drawn. In this way, the time and energies of the chief decision-makers are focused on the most crucial and difficult of their responsibilities: evaluation, choice, decision, and action.

It will be clear from the above observation that there is this combination of line and staff support throughout the organization. The staff support will depend upon the size of the company. The staff personnel are appointed at the departmental level also. The line management and staff advice and support are interdependent. Their mutual relation should be most cordial and cooperative, based on mutual confidence and respect for each other. Thus, it is quite self-evident that a constructive attitude on the part of line executives toward planning and the utility of analytical staff assistance is a prerequisite for the success of planning.

(4) Implementation: Implementation of corporate plans is the most significant aspect of planning. If plans are not implemented and carried out as far as practicable, then planning will be useless and will be an exercise in futility. In corporate planning, all units, departments, and divisions participate in its formulation, and because of this participation in planning and its acceptance, there is a general feeling of commitment to the plan throughout the organization. They know that they have prepared certain plans, formulated certain targets, and it is now their responsibility and duty to put them into practice successfully. They know that their achievement will depend upon the effective implementation of plans which they have themselves prepared. Since every manager at all levels of management has proposed his own plan for the future, he is involved in its implementation also. Such involvement is very important in successful implementation. In the beginning, when the plan is implemented, there may be a considerable difference between the plans and performance. By experience, this gap will be narrowed down, and very soon processes and procedures are well understood and adequately formulated, and there will be little variation between plans and accomplishments. The plans may have to be revised and reviewed only when the circumstances change beyond control. What is needed at such times is a flow of information which will help in revising the targets. Under corporate planning, the executive knows the target set and, therefore, he knows in what direction he has to move effectively and chart his course of action in accordance with the pre-determined line of action. Since all the plans of the units and the departments are correlated and coordinated, there will be less chance for mistakes. However, one of the most difficult decisions in implementation is when and how much to revise this plan when the basis on which it is prepared is altered by circumstances. He is in a dilemma in such a situation. He does not want to lose the benefits already achieved because of planning, and he also does not want to pursue the existing plan in the light of changed circumstances. If he persists in continuing the old plans, he may land himself in serious trouble and difficulties.

There is no complete escape from this dilemma. But if a plan is to be modified in midstream, its adverse effects can be softened by following certain principles and efficient management. It is true to say that, “it is a bad plan that admits of no modification.” If the original plans are flexible, then the impact of change can be mitigated by adjustments.

It is not necessary to be absolutely certain about future production in long-range comprehensive planning. What is required is the flow of information about current happenings, a clear picture of the present situation, and judgment about current trends and the ability to forecast the future in the short-run period. With such short-ranged plans, the variations in planning and implementation will be reduced to a minimum. It is like a sailing ship which has to align its sails according to the direction of the winds but always keeping to its course of destination. In the same manner, implementing the corporate plans, the manager may also have sometimes to adjust the plans but always keep in mind the goals of planning.

5.4 BENEFITS OF CORPORATE PLANNING

(1) Planning helps orderly and purposeful activities: To accomplish desired or predetermined results, efforts should be made. What is important is the determination of order or sequence in which the course of action is to be put. Any action that is to be taken should be purposeful so as to achieve the goal. Unproductive efforts should be eliminated. Thus, proper planning directs as to the purpose, elimination of unproductive labor, and the proper sequence of action.

(2) Planning points out the need for future change: Although the future is gloomy and uncertain, it can be properly visualized for necessary action through planning. With the help of statistical data of the enterprise and comparative study generally undertaken under planning, one can appraise the measures or steps for future programmes. Future reading with probable changes is possible only because of planning, which has a fundamental base of decision-making, leadership, and forecasting. Planning does come to the rescue of the manager to avoid the tendency to let things "run down" and to see things as they might be and not as they are. It is planning alone that makes managers and other top executives aware of future opportunities, possibilities, and changes. In other words, the future is clear and brought closer to the executives only through planning.

(3) Provides a basis for control: Every course of action must be properly guided, watched, and if necessary, modified when it is the desire of all to ensure the anticipated results. It is under planning that this object is fulfilled by having a controlling mechanism. Controlling is one of the elements of planning, and as such, planning functions are put under check through the so-called "Budgetary Controls." Through this technique, when and how a particular course of action is to start and close, how much amount is to be spent, what standard of performance is expected, etc., are controlled, and therefore, the controlling technique that is pre-determined under planning helps planners to achieve pre-determined goals. Timely checks over starting and completing each activity, setting limits for expenditure, etc., serve as a basis for controlling, which ultimately brings about the results sought.

(4) Encourages achievement: Under planning, not only are thoughts put on paper, but various measures for converting those thoughts into reality are also determined. Thus, the planners get necessary guidance as to what course of action to be taken, how, and when. Such full guidance positively encourages planners and executives concerned with the operation of planning to achieve the results sought. Achievement of results under planning is easier than under non-planning programmes because under planning, unproductive efforts are avoided, random activity is reduced, expenditure is incurred as per the planned budget, and sequences of actions are determined.

(5) Helps visualization for entirety: When any decision or action is taken, it should be properly checked. Evaluation of such decision or action is a must for the effective implementation of business policies. It is under planning that executives and managers can visualize, check, and make timely modifications in effecting the different courses of action. In addition to this, planning does help the executives to get a complete idea about the relationship between different bases upon which their actions are supported. In short, planning provides management with an overall picture of all commercial activities to be effected toward achieving pre-determined objectives. Further, a complete picture is made available by reducing isolation and confusion.

(6) Provides maximum utilization of facilities: The most important feature of planning is to chalk out a programme for getting the maximum benefit of available resources-material and financial. It also arranges to get additional facilities. Thus, planning helps executives to make the best use of available resources and facilities during a given period of time. To achieve this aim, the activities are so balanced in respect of timing and amount to be spent that mutual support is ensured among themselves. This is possible only under planning, which helps management to make the best use of available facilities.

(7) Helps manager in gaining status: Aggressive leadership is possible only when there is proper planning, and without confident leadership, no enterprise can expect any success. Planning, therefore, helps business executives to manage all affairs of the company under their control and guidance. Even where powers are delegated, it is done as per the planned programme. It is said by many executives that planning is an organized approach to future problems. Under well-thought-out plans, executives can ponder over things ahead of time, and therefore, planning further provides long-term stable guides. All these do help planners or managers to achieve goals as per schedule, and when plans are accomplished with success, that helps managers to enjoy high status in the world of trade, commerce, and industry.

(8) Helps management to implement future programmes: Planning helps management to implement future programmes in a systematic manner so that the management can get the maximum benefit out of the programmes chalked out. This will again indirectly lead to large-scale economies by avoiding the waste of men, material, money, and machinery. Under planning, the best course of action is generally selected, and thus it is so used to get the maximum utilization of available resources.

(9) Assists in toning up administration: Because of planning, other management aspects such as organization, coordination, and control are functioning in an orderly manner. Since under planning, a time schedule is required to be maintained. On account of planning, the structure of organization, selection of staff, assignment of duties and responsibilities, etc., are done beforehand so that the anticipated results may be obtained as per the plans.

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
State Whether the following statements are true or false:

1. Corporate planning is concerned only with short-term decision-making.

2. A good corporate plan provides a framework for aligning departmental goals with the overall business strategy.

3. Corporate planning excludes financial forecasting and budgeting activities.

4. Corporate planning helps in adapting to changes in the external environment.

5.5 APPROACHES OF CORPORATE PLANNING

All organizations plan; the only difference is their approach. Prior to starting a new strategic planning process, it will be necessary to access the past planning approach that has been used within the organization and determine how the organization's culture may have been affected. Addressing these cultural issues is critical to the success of the current planning process.

The four possible approaches to corporate planning are:

1. **Reactive - past oriented approach**

Reactive planning is an active attempt to turn back the clock to the past. The past, no matter how bad, is preferable to the present, and definitely better than the future. The past is romanticized, and there is a desire to return to the "good old days." These people seek to undo the change that has created the present, and they are scared about the future, which they try to prevent.

2. **Inactive - present oriented approach**

Inactive planning is an attempt to preserve the present, which is preferable to both the past and the future. While the present may have problems, yet it is better than the past. The expectation is that things are as good as they are likely to get, and the future will only be the worse. Organizations believe that any additional change is likely to be for the worse and should therefore be avoided.

3. **Preactive - predict the future approach**

Preactive planning is an attempt by an organization to predict the future and then to plan for that predicted future. Technological change is seen as the driving force bringing about the future, which will be better than the present or the past. The planning process will seek to position the organization to take advantage of the change that is happening around them.

4. **Proactive - create the future approach**

Proactive planning involves designing a desired future and then inventing ways to create that future state. Not only is the future a preferred state, but the organization can actively control the outcome of their actions. Planners actively shape the future, rather than just trying to get ahead of events outside of their control. The predicted changes of the preactive planner are seen not as absolute constraints but as obstacles that can be addressed and overcome by the organizations.

5.6 WHY CORPORATE PLANNING FAILS?

Below are some of the reasons for the failure of corporate planning in some cases:

(1) Accuracy of Information and Future Facts Limit the Scope of Planning: Planning is generally based on assumptions regarding the future. Correct evaluation of the future is one of the conditions of successful planning. It should be pointed out here that no expert planner or any experienced manager can predict completely and accurately the events of the future, which are always uncertain. If the future conditions on which the plan is framed undergo considerable change, implementation of the plan under such changed conditions will either be difficult or a failure, and thus much of the value of the plan will be lost.

(2) Planning is Costly: It is a general opinion of those directly concerned with planning. They are of the opinion that the money could better be spent in performing the physical work to be done correctly rather than sinking the same for the work to be done in the future, which is uncertain and difficult to predict completely and accurately. The high expenditure of planning could not be justified by planners who will have to work under odd future conditions. The difficulty in keeping pace with the individual circumstances, current as well as future, in respect of the amount and extent of planning activities makes planning costly on the whole.

(3) Planning Suffers from Psychological Barriers: In this regard, it can be said that "A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush." People have more regard for the present than the future. As it is, the present is more reliable, certain, and desirable with a minimum amount of risk, changes, and adjustments. Planning that is mainly dealing with the future course of action fails to impress people to go for planning with a free mind.

(4) Planning Hampers Initiative: Once the plan is chalked out, a number of rules and restrictions are laid down, and sometimes they are so rigid as to put limits on the powers of the managers supposed to execute the plan. These rigidities, along with procedural difficulties, restrict the flow of action in implementing the plan and also kill all initiative on the part of managers who have neither freedom of choice nor action. For effective planning, a certain degree of elasticity and interpretation of the plan in their application are provided so as to see that every last detail is carefully planned and spelled out so that the manager's initiative is not hampered. However, in practice, it does not always work. Planning decides the means and methods of production, fixes the responsibilities of the personnel, and frames rigid formulas to carry out the work. This type of rigid control and setting up of rigid formulas would kill the initiative and zeal of the worker in carrying out his daily work.

(5) Planning Machinery is Defective: The machinery of planning used in our country is not perfect. Forecasting methods, statistical data supplied, etc., are all inaccurate, and the results of operations research cannot be applied to all cases that come under planning.

(6) Planning Delays Action: Quick decision and prompt action is very essential in a business enterprise which is under emergencies and unusually difficult situations. Under planning, rigid rules are framed, and managers are expected to execute the plan within the framework of those rigid rules. Such a planning set-up prohibits managers from taking a particular course of action if someone does not fall within his area of action, for which he will have to seek permission from higher authority. Although we know quick action does not necessarily mean useful accomplishment, it cannot be denied that quick actions do help in accomplishing the plan aimed at achieving the goal within the stipulated period of time. Thus, the importance of quick action is not over-emphasized but is rather difficult to practice under the rigidities of planning.

(7) Planning is Overdone by Planners: Planners are generally overambitious and as such, they overdo their contribution. They prepare elaborate reports and instructions beyond any practical need. Plans prepared beyond the possibility of getting proper resources and manpower become unrealistic and financially non-viable. Many a time, endless follow-ups of results are practiced, and excessive time and money are spent on collecting data and information on different phases of planning. In this way, the whole plan is lacking a realistic approach and finally ends in failure.

5.7 PRE-REQUISITES FOR THE SUCCESS OF CORPORATE PLANNING

Corporate planning is a process, that is to say, it is an activity which has to be undertaken in a certain order of steps. For example, if an article is to be manufactured, certain steps are to be taken and the raw materials fashioned until the final step, when the finished product comes out of the machine. If any one is missed, then the final product will be distorted. The steps will be few and simple if the final product is simple. If the product is complicated, many series of steps will have to be taken to manufacture it successfully.

The corporate planner also has to take many steps—sometimes, hundreds of steps—to plan adequately and completely. But the various steps can be broadly classified into five main steps, namely:

1. Determine the company's objective and decide on a target.

2. Prepare a forecast and declare the probable error.

3. Calculate the planning gap and decide the task.

4. Decide constraints and means.

5. Draw up the plan.

The above broad five steps give a picture of how to go about corporate planning. It should be borne in mind that corporate planning is a continuous process—in fact, it is repetitive. It should be noted that the first step has to be reviewed independently and from the point of view of the overall objectives and the policies of the corporation. The other steps may be reviewed many times during the course of the plan, in consonance with the first step—that is, the overall objectives of the company.

The sequence of steps given above is only one of the many sequences possible. However, the above sequence is more practical and logical. The corporate planner may devise a plan following some other steps. But the above five steps can also be subdivided into the following nine steps:

1. Determine the company's objective.

2. Decide on a target.

3. Prepare a forecast.

4. Declare probable errors.

5. Calculate the planning gap.

6. Decide the task.

7. Decide constraints.

8. Decide means.

9. Draw up the plan.

Based on "Corporate Planning" by John Argenti

It is felt that the above nine steps as a guide to go about corporate planning are more satisfactory. Though the first step of determining the objectives of the company is independent of other steps, they are all interlinked, and the corporate planner will have to bear in mind this interdependence. The final corporate plan will be formulated after taking into account all possible weaknesses and strengths of the company.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
Fill in the blanks:

1. Corporate planning involves setting ___________, organizing resources, and formulating strategies to achieve long-term goals.

2. ___________ planning is a part of corporate planning that focuses on predicting and preparing for future business conditions.

3. Corporate planning is usually undertaken by ___________ management in an organization.

5.8 TYPES OF CORPORATE PLANS

(1) Financial or Money Plans

No plan can be chalked out unless we consider the financial resources available for its implementation. Different activities are allocated on the basis of the resources available during the planning period. While planning, we always consider on which item money is to be spent and, if so, how much during a stipulated period. Thus, every planning process has a monetary side. It is, therefore, under planning that we decide how much is to be spent to accomplish the goals of the near future. In other words, planning will have no importance if no attention is paid to the monetary resources of the company.

During business operations, there will be an inflow and outflow of money at different rates. Sometimes the enterprise may receive more or less money, and therefore, care should be taken to ensure that under the plan, there will be a regular flow of cash. It should be arranged in such a way that money is paid only after it is received. A cash squeeze can be anticipated from the cash flow plan, and if it is expected, expense reduction will be considered under the plan. Thus, we see that every plan with a money side helps us understand not only the financial position of the concern but also the measures to be taken for borrowing money, if necessary.

In short, financial planning includes "broadening the capital base of the company, greater attention to stockholders, relationships with investment banking concerns, setting conservative dividend policies, and considering opportunities for mergers and acquisitions."

(2) Formal Plans

Mere thinking about something is not “planning.” People may have different ideas about a particular objective. They may think of doing or undoing something. However, all of this does not constitute planning unless the ideas are put in writing — what to do, where, why, and how to do it. When all these ideas are documented with proper approval and description, they are considered formal plans.

Formal plans are more than just talk on paper. For example, when developing a particular department, planners must analyze strong and weak points, record them in black and white, and create a written plan to remove the weaknesses. Efforts directed toward these objectives will be considered a complete plan. In a formal plan, therefore, specific goals and data must be developed.

Planning is also made concerning sales — by product, area, and time. Even money plans are drawn, and the allocation of jobs and duties is made. From all this, one can assess whether the plans are feasible, which is the essence of a formal plan.

(3) Routine Planning

Every department of an enterprise regularly plans for sales promotion. A publication house, for instance, will plan at the beginning of the academic season, while a department store may prepare for sales during Christmas or Deepavali. Similarly, a factory manufacturing umbrellas will intensify planning as the monsoon approaches so that production is ready to meet demand.

According to Ralph Davis, this type of planning is known as **"Routine Planning"** because most of it is repetitive. In routine planning, the methods used to accomplish a specific goal during a particular period remain the same, with no significant changes. Methods are merely repeated under a structured program. Typically, routine planning is managed at a lower level of the organization. Although the plan may be revised, the basic procedures stay the same. Routine planning, therefore, does not require a high degree of ingenuity or creativity.

(4) Profit Planning

Every business person is interested in earning profit, but profit does not generate itself. Efforts must be made to achieve it. Profit planning is generally based on forecasting. To attain profit, specific steps must be taken, duties assigned, and future outcomes forecasted.

To have effective profit planning, there should be considerable freedom of movement. A profit plan suggests steps to increase the company's earnings. It sets profit objectives and guides management in achieving them. Some key strategies under profit planning include:

(a) Reduction of production cost

(b) Improvement of customer relations

(c) Development of new customers

(d) Improvement of product quality

(e) Training of sales personnel

(f) Entering fast-growing industries

Though these measures are not new, they must be implemented timely and by the right individuals. According to Moore**,** "a profit plan makes you push a little harder — it makes you put out a little extra effort, and that is what produces the results."

Advantages of Profit Plans:

1. Help management achieve higher levels of profit.
2. Assist in hiring skilled individuals to reduce costs and improve performance.
3. Create meaningful work environments beyond just profit-making.
4. Distinguish needs from wants — only necessary and beneficial actions are prioritized.
5. As a form of planning, they are forward-looking and goal-oriented.
6. Provide checkpoints for tracking progress, allowing adjustments when deviations occur.

(5) Long-Range Plans (LRPs)

In every walk of life, individuals prepare long-term career plans. Similarly, in business, long-range plans are common. These plans typically look five, seven, or even ten years ahead, with definite goals in mind. They are more profit-oriented than short-term plans and must address various contingencies and uncertainties due to the time span involved.

Since the future is unpredictable, long-range plans must be adaptable. They are usually developed by top-level management as they involve major commitments. These plans cover all levels, from the top to the bottom of the organization.

Though it may seem like long-range planning can be skipped, that’s partly an illusion. Today’s actions influence tomorrow’s outcomes — whether it’s choosing a product, raising loans, or constructing buildings. Hence, two plans — one optimistic and one pessimistic - are often kept ready to hedge against uncertainty.

Advantages of a Long-Range Plan (LRP):

1. Helps industry grow and increase profits.
2. Guides future business operations and cost-saving measures.
3. Strengthens performance and helps identify and correct weaknesses.

4. Forecasts manpower needs and aligns roles with future requirements.
5. Helps retain junior executives by preparing them for future responsibilities.

Difficulties with LRPs:

1. More likely to fall short of expectations compared to short-range plans.
2. Ineffective if no individual is made responsible for the planning program.
3. Time-consuming and may disrupt day-to-day operations.
4. Plans may become rigid and less adaptable to change.
5. Incur extra costs due to the need for a dedicated planning staff.

Characteristics of LRP and SRP (Short-Range Planning)

1. **Both are continuous:** Planning is never final. LRPs have deadlines for sequential segments, as do SRPs.
2. **LRPs are designed to avoid errors:** Planners have time to gather accurate information and refrain from making assumptions.
3. **SRPs are easier to evaluate:** Short-term outcomes are tangible and measurable.
4. **Both are detailed and complex:** Gathering and analyzing data is time-consuming and challenging.
5. **LRPs are typically handled by top managers in large enterprises:** These plans are most relevant to multi-product, multi-plant businesses.

5.9 LET US SUM UP

In management literature, sometimes even corporate planning, strategic planning, and long-range planning are used interchangeably. Hence, corporate planning includes the setting of objectives, organising the work, people, and systems to enable those objectives to be attained, and motivating through the planning process. Therefore, the concept of corporate planning may be taken as total planning activities in the organisation and not the total managerial functions.

5.10 KEY WORDS

- **Corporate Planning:** Aprocessusedbybusinessto mapout acourseofaction that results inrevenue growth and profits.
- **Budgetary Control:** Whenplanningareputundercheckthroughbudgets,itis called as

budgetary control.

5.11 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q1. Discuss the nature of corporate planning in detail.

Q2. Evaluate upon the importance of corporate planning.

Q3. Discuss the different steps involved in corporate planning process.

Q4. Describe the limitations of Corporate planning.

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Q5. Make an assessment of different types of corporate plans.

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5.12 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q1. Define corporate planning and explain its significance in strategic management.

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Q2. Differentiate between corporate planning, strategic planning, and long-range planning with suitable examples.

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Q3. How does corporate planning help an organization adapt to external environmental changes? Illustrate with a real or hypothetical scenario.

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Q4. What are the key components of an effective corporate plan? Discuss how each component contributes to achieving organizational goals.

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5.13 ANSWER KEY

A. False, True, False, True

B. Objectives, Strategic, top, goals

5.14 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT-II (Credit-1)	**M.Com 2nd Semester**
Course No.MCOMC251	**LessonNo.6**

ENVIRONMENTAL ANALYSIS-CONCEPT, COMPONENTS, ENVIRONMENT SCANNING AND APPRAISING

STRUCTURE

6.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this Lesson is :

- To discuss the concept of environment
- To discuss external and internal environment
- To make an assessment of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats
- To evaluate upon the factors to be considered for environmental scanning.

Learning Outcomes

After Reading this lesson, the students will be able to:

- Identify and categorize the key elements of an organization's external environment, including macro-environmental factors) and micro-environmental factors.
- Apply various environmental analysis tools and frameworks, such as SWOT analysis Porter's Five Forces, PESTLE analysis, and competitor analysis.
- Evaluate the potential impact of changes in the external environment.
- Synthesize insights from environmental analysis and integrate them into the strategic decision-making process.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The environment in which an organization exists could be broadly divided into two parts: the external environment and the internal environment. In this lesson, we deal with the appraisal of the external environment. We start with gaining an understanding of the concept of environment. This is done through a description of four important characteristics of the environment, dividing the environment into its external and internal parts, observing how a systematic approach like SWOT analysis can help in environmental appraisal, and classifying the external environment into two parts, the general and the relevant environment. Next, we see how the external environmentespecially that part which is more relevant to an organization-can be divided into different components.

For the purpose of understanding and analysis, we have discussed seven components of the external environment: the social, political, economic, regulatory, market, supplier and technological components of the external environment. This chapter, we deal with environmental scanning: the process through which strategists monitor the external environment and collect information for strategy formulation. Specifically, we deal with factors, approaches, sources of information, and methods and techniques for environmental scanning. Lastly, we describe the manner in which environmental appraisal takes place. We have pointed out the various factors that affect environmental scanning, how environmental issues can be identified and the way in which environmental appraisal can be structured.

6.2 CONCEPT OF ENVIRONMENTAL ANALYSIS

Environment literally means the surroundings, external objects, influences or circumstances under which someone or something exists. The environment of any organization is "the aggregate of all conditions, events and influences that surround and affect." Since the environment influences an organization in many ways, its understanding is of crucial importance. The concept of environment can be understood by looking at some of its characteristics. To analyze the various factors which affect the business internally and externally is known as Environmental Analysis.

6.2.1 Characteristics of Environment

Business environment (or simply environment) exhibits many characteristics. Some of the important-and obvious-characteristics are briefly described here.

1. **Environment is complex:** The environment consists of a number of factors, events, conditions, and influences arising from different sources. All these do not exist in isolation but interact with each other to create entirely new sets of influences. It is difficult to comprehend at once what factors constitute a given environment. All in all, environment is a complex phenomenon, relatively easier to understand in parts but difficult to grasp in its totality.

2. **Environment is dynamic:** The environment is constantly changing in nature. Due to the many and varied influences operating, there is dynamism in the environment causing it to continuously change its shape and character.

3. **Environment is multi-faceted:** What shape and character an environment assumes depends on the perception of the observer. A particular change in the environment, or a new development, may be viewed differently by different observers. This is frequently seen when the same development is welcomed as an opportunity by one company while another company perceives it as a threat.

4. **Environment has a far-reaching impact:** The environment has a far-reaching impact on organizations. The growth and profitability of an organization depends critically on the organization in several different ways.

Since the environment is complex, dynamic, multi-faceted and has a far-reaching impact, dividing it into external and internal components enables us to understand it better.

I . External and Internal Environment

The external environment includes all the factors outside the organization which provide opportunities or pose threats to the organization. The internal environment refers to all the factors within an organization which impart strengths or cause weaknesses of a strategic nature.

The environment in which an organization exists can, therefore, be described in terms of the opportunities and threats operating in the external environment apart from the strengths and weaknesses existing in the internal environment. The four environmental influences could be described as follows:

1. An **opportunity** is a favourable condition in the organization's environment which enables it to consolidate and strengthen its position. An example of an opportunity is growing demand for the products or services that a company provides.

2. A **threat** is an unfavourable condition in the organization's environment which creates a risk for, or causes damage to, the organization. An example of a threat is the emergence of strong new competitors who are likely to offer stiff competition to the existing companies in an industry.

3. A **strength** is an inherent capacity which an organization can use to gain strategic advantage over its competitors. An example of a strength is superior research and development skills which can be used for new product development so that the company gains competitive advantage.

4. A **weakness** is an inherent limitation or constraint which creates a strategic disadvantage. An example of a weakness is overdependence on a single product line, which is potentially risky for a company in times of crisis.

An understanding of the external environment, in terms of the opportunities and threats, and the internal environment, in terms of the strengths and weaknesses, is crucial for the existence, growth and profitability of any organization. A systematic approach to understanding the environment is the SWOT analysis.

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Environmental analysis primarily focuses on understanding an organization's internal resources and capabilities.

2. PESTLE analysis is a framework used to examine the micro-environmental factors affecting an organization.

3. Identifying potential opportunities and threats is a key outcome of environmental analysis.

4. Porter's Five Forces model helps analyze the general economic conditions impacting all industries.

5. Environmental analysis is a one-time activity conducted during the initial stages of strategic planning.

II. SWOT Analysis

Business firms undertake SWOT analysis to understand the external and internal environment. SWOT, which is the acronym for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, is also known as WOTS-UP analysis. Through such an analysis, the strengths and weaknesses existing within an organization can be matched with the opportunities and threats operating in the environment so that an effective strategy can be formulated. An effective organizational strategy, therefore, is one that capitalizes on the opportunities through the use of strengths and neutralizes the threats by minimizing the impact of weaknesses.

A. General versus Relevant Environment

The external environment, as we said earlier, consists of all the factors which provide opportunities or pose threats to an organisation. In a wider sense, the external environment encompasses a variety of factors like international, national, and local economy, social changes, demographic variables, political systems, technology, attitude towards business, energy sources, raw materials and other sources, and many other macro-level factors. We could designate such a wider perception of the environment as the general environment. All organisations, in some way or the other, are concerned about the general environment. But the immediate concerns of any organisation are confined to just a part of the general environment which is of high strategic relevance to the organisation. This part of the environment could be termed as the immediately relevant environment or simply, the relevant environment.

A conscious identification of the relevant environment enables the organisation to focus its attention on those factors which are intimately related to its mission, purpose, objectives, and strategies. Depending on its perception of the relevant environment, an organisation takes into account those influences in its surroundings which have an immediate impact on its strategic management process. Having identified its relevant environment, an organisation can systematically appraise it and incorporate the results of such an appraisal in strategic planning. In order to cope with the complexity of the environment, it is feasible to divide it into different components or sectors.

6.3 COMPONENTS OF ENVIRONMENT

The business environment is always changing and is uncertain. It is because of this that it is said that the business environment is the sum of all the factors outside the control of management of a company-the factors which are constantly changing and they carry with them both opportunities and risks or uncertainties which can make or mar the future of business. The business environment has some important components. The major components of the business environment include capital flow, required infrastructural facilities, suitable endowments, investment-friendly conditions, wide size of market, suitable industrial relations, adequate manpower and entrepreneurial ability, suitable law and order conditions, political stability, legal support, cultural setup, suitable natural environment etc. The aforesaid components are very important for maintaining a sound business environment in the country.

Andrews has also rightly defined the environment of a company as the pattern of all external influences that affect its life and development. Keith Davis too has also observed that the business environment is the aggregate of all conditions, events, and influences that surround and affect it.

Some of the components of the business environment are as follows:

A. Internal Environment

1. FinancialCapability
2. MarketingCapability
3. Operations Capability
4. PersonnelCapability
5. GeneralManagementCapability

B. External Environment

1. MicroEnvironment
2. MacroEnvironment.

Additionally,also learn about the other components of business environment:-

1. Economic Environment
2. TechnologicalEnvironment
3. SocialEnvironment
4. DemographicEnvironment

5. PoliticalandLegalEnvironment

6. GlobalEnvironment.

The classification of the relevant environment into components or sectors helps an organisation cope with its complexity, comprehend the different influences operating, and relate environmental changes to its strategic management process. Different bases for classification have been adopted by different authors, but the basis itself is not as important as the fact that all the relevant factors in the environment have to be considered. Depending on a variety of factors such as the size of the organisation, level and scope of activities, geographical spread of markets, nature of products, type of technology used, and managerial philosophy, an organisation may divide its relevant environment into components capable of being analysed conveniently. We are using a seven-category classification of environment. These seven components of the environment are: the social, political, economic, regulatory, market, supplier, and technological sectors of the environment. We will now take up each of these sectors for discussion.

1. Social Environment

The social environment consists of factors related to human relationships, and the development, forms and functions of such a relationship having a bearing on the business of an organisation. Some of the important factors and influences operating in the social environment are:

1. **Demographic characteristics**, such as population, its density and distribution, changes in population and age composition, inter-state migration and rural-urban mobility, and income distribution.

2. **Social concerns**, such as the role of business in society, environmental pollution, corruption, use of mass media, and consumerism.

3. **Social attitudes and values**, such as expectations of society from business, social customs, beliefs, rituals and practices, changing lifestyle patterns, and materialism.

4. **Family structure and changes in it**, attitude towards and within the family, and family values.

5. **Role of women in society**, position of children and adolescents in family and society.

6. **Educational levels, awareness and consciousness of rights, and work ethic** of members of society.

The social environment primarily affects the strategic management process within the organisation in the areas of mission and objective setting, and decisions related to products and markets. Strategists, in the Indian context, do not seem to be fully aware of the impact of the social environment on business, or they are so preoccupied with other environmental influences that they do not give a high priority to social factors. One reason for such a lack of interest could be the nature of social influences. The social changes take place very slowly and do not seem to have an immediate and direct impact on short-term strategic decisions. Nevertheless, some social changes are too prominent to be ignored. One such social change in the Indian context is the emergence of the middle-class as a powerful socio-economic group having considerable influence and purchasing power. Exhibit 6.2 describes a few aspects related to the emergence of the middle-class in India.

2. Political Environment

The political environment is the State Government & its institutions & leg of the Public-Private stakeholdings who operate & interact with the system. The political environment consists of factors related to management of public affairs and their impact on the business of an organisation. Some of the important factors and influences operating in the political environment are:

1. The **political system** and its features like nature of the political system, ideological forces, political parties and centres of power.

2. The **political structure**, its goals and stability.

3. **Political processes** like operation of the party system, elections, funding of elections, and legislation with respect to economic and industrial promotion and regulation.

4. **Political philosophy**, government's role in business, its policies and interventions in economic and business development.

India is a democratic country having a stable political system where the government plays an active role as planner, promoter and regulator of economic activity. Businessmen, therefore, are conscious of the political environment that their organisations face. Most governmental decisions related to business are based on political considerations in line with the political philosophy followed by the ruling party at the centre and the state levels. Here are a few examples of the impact of political environment on business.

1. The **Janata government**, during its three-year rule at the centre after 1977, followed a strict policy with regard to multinationals. As a result of the socialistic leanings of some of the ministers, Coca-Cola and IBM were forced to move out of India, causing a far-reaching impact on the business environment within the country. For instance, a vast market was opened up for indigenous soft drink manufacturers. The decision to allow PepsiCo to set up a plant in Punjab is viewed by many political commentators as a part of the government's policy to deal with the Punjab problem.

2. It is generally believed that the success or failure of a **public sector enterprise** hinges primarily on the kind of rapport a chief executive is able to maintain with the secretary and minister in the controlling ministry. When such a rapport does not exist, it proves to be detrimental to the strategic interests of the company.

3. An example where the political environment had a direct impact on a company is that of **Apollo Tyres Ltd**, set up in 1972 in Kerala. The company suffered on account of a hostile political environment and was taken over by the Janata government in 1978. Legal battles ensued till 1982, when the management was restored to its promoter, Raunaq Singh. After that, the company has turned around and is now on the path to stability and growth.

3. Economic Environment

The economic environment consists of macro-level factors related to the means of production and distribution of wealth that have an impact on the business of an organisation. Some of the important factors and influences operating in the economic environment are:

1. The **economic stages** existing at a given time in a country.

2. The **economic structure** adopted, such as a capitalistic, socialistic or mixed economy.

3. **Economic planning**, such as Five-Year Plans, annual budgets, etc.

4. **Economic policies** such as industrial, monetary and fiscal policies.

5. **Economic indices** like national income, distribution of income, rate and growth of Gross Net Profit per capita income, disposable personal income, rate of savings and investments, value of exports and imports, the balance of payments, etc.

6. **Infrastructural factors** such as financial institutions, banks, modes of transportation, communication facilities, energy sources, etc.

Strategists are acutely aware of the importance and impact of the economic environment on their organisations. Almost all annual company reports presented by the Chairman devote attention to the general economic environment prevailing and the specific aspects that have an impact on their organisations and the business they are in. We provide here two examples of the factors and influences operating in the Indian economic environment that have had a far-reaching impact on all business organisations.

1. **Liberalisation of the economy** since the last six years has had a mixed effect on Indian industry. While most of the companies have benefited in terms of the resulting freedom to alter product mix and capacities, there have been some adverse effects too. These have been in the areas of overcapacity and increased competition. Partial decontrol of cement in 1982 led to a rapid increase in production capacity and resultant supply, changing the market situation from that of acute scarcity to a comfortable surplus. Liberalisation of imports has led to increased competition in the capital goods industry, causing profits to decline and many companies not being able to sustain their business.

2. **Public savings in India** have been traditionally invested in fixed assets and precious metals. The share of savings entrusted to the government has been channelled through post offices and banks. However, after the seventies, investors have increasingly turned to other avenues like stock-markets and company deposits. Recent changes in economic and fiscal policies have led to many developments. Leasing and financing companies, public sector bonds, mutual funds, venture capital business, newer financial instruments, entry of banks and financial institutions in stock trading are some of these developments which provide the resources for capital markets and project financing.

4. Regulatory Environment

The regulatory environment consists of factors related to planning, promotion, and regulation of economic activities by the government that have an impact on the business of an organisation. Some of the important factors and influences operating in the regulatory environment are as follows:

1. The constitutional framework, directive principles, fundamental rights and division of legislative powers between central and state governments.
2. Policies related to licensing, monopolies, foreign investment and financing of industries.
3. Policies related to distribution and pricing, and their control.
4. Policies related to imports and exports.
5. Other policies related to the public sector, small-scale industries, sick industries, development of backward areas, control of environmental pollution and consumer protection.

Since the Indian economy is centrally planned and controlled, the principle of regulation of economic activities by public authorities in the larger interests has taken roots. Business and industry operate within a regulatory environment. The relationship between industry and the regulatory environment exists as a two-way process. The government lays down the policies, procedures and rules according to which the industry functions. Occasionally, the industry also tries to influence the government through lobbying, creating public awareness and opinion by issuing press advertisements, and through the parliamentary process to create a favourable policy framework for the benefit of its constituent businesses and companies. But such a two-way relationship is heavily tilted in favour of the government. It acts through its various ministries and agencies, both at the central and state levels, to regulate the activities of business. Owing to the controls exercised through the regulatory mechanism, the regulatory environment is one of the most important components that any organisation has to take into consideration for its strategic management.

There are a number of administrative controls over business that are exercised through the regulatory mechanism. Some of the important areas of control are:

1. Industrial policy and licensing
2. Monopolies and restrictive trade practices
3. Legislation related to company operations
4. Capital issues control and control over stock exchanges

5. Import and export control, and control over foreign exchange
6. Control over foreign investment and collaboration
7. Control over distribution and pricing of commodities
8. Control over development and regulation of industries
9. Control through consumer and regulation of industries
10. Control of environment pollution

During the course of its activities, the industry interacts with the government in innumerable ways. In fact, the industry often blames the government for exercising excessive control through a plethora of rules and regulations. On the other hand, the government holds the industry responsible for many of the economic problems, for not working within the framework of national priorities, and for failing to live up to the expectations of society in general. Such a love-hate relationship between the industry and the government is clearly evident when managers and bureaucrats interact with each other.

5. Market Environment

The market environment consists of factors related to the groups and other organisations that compete with and have an impact on an organisation's markets and business. Some of the important factors and influences operating in the market environment are as follows:

1. **Customer or client factors** such as the needs, preferences, perceptions, attitudes, values, bargaining power, buying behaviour and satisfaction of customers.
2. **Product factors** such as the demand, image, features, utility, function, design, life cycle, price, promotion, distribution, differentiation and availability of substitutes of products or services.
3. **Marketing intermediaries factors** such as levels and quality of customer service, middlemen, distribution channels, logistics, costs, delivery systems and financial intermediaries.
4. **Competitor-related factors** such as the different types of competitors, entry and exit of major competitors, nature of competition and relative strategic position of major competitors.

The market environment largely depends on the type of industry structure. In monopolies and oligopolies, the concern for the market environment is lesser than what it is under pure competition. In a controlled economy, like that of India, public utilities like electricity boards and most public sector companies such as petrol and cooking gas companies operate in a protected environment. In recent years, government policies have increasingly moved towards allowing limited competition within the public sector, such as between banks, and also between public and private sector companies, like in the case of television and computers. With liberalisation in the form of broad-boarding of licensing and minimum economic capacities, the market environment has assumed greater importance in strategic management. Here are several examples to show how the market environment affects, and is taken into consideration by, the companies.

1. Many companies make a special effort to be in touch with their **market environment**. For instance, Richardson Hindustan Ltd (now Proctor & Gamble) has made it mandatory for its executives to visit the market once a year, talk to twenty dealers and twenty housewives as a precondition to their annual salary reviews.

2. The **automobile industry** hardly seemed to care about its customers. The companies existed in a seller's market and customers had to wait for a long time in order to buy a car. Now the situation has changed to such an extent that companies carry unsold stocks, have to resort to various sales promotion measures, and provide new customer services in order to compete in the market.

3. About ten years ago, personal computers were sold at a unit price of Rs 1 lakh. In 1986, **Hindustan Computers Ltd** nearly halved its prices of personal computers, causing a dramatic impact on the strategic calculations of many companies in the computer industry.

4. **Sales promotion, advertising and market research**, which did not occupy an important position in the marketing policies of companies, have now assumed greater significance. Distribution has been straightened so that customers are not put to inconvenience. After-sales service, specially for consumer durables, has become significant in the context of marketing strategies of many companies.

6. Supplier Environment

The supplier environment consists of factors related to the cost, reliability and availability of the factors of production or service that have an impact on the business of an organisation. Some of the important factors and influences operating in the supplier environment are as follows:

1. Cost, availability and continuity of supply of raw materials, sub-assemblies, parts and components.
2. Cost and availability of finance for implementing plans and projects.
3. Cost, reliability and availability of energy used in production.
4. Cost, availability and dependability of human resources.
5. Cost, availability and the existence of sources and means for supply of plants and machinery, spare parts and after-sales service.
6. Infrastructural support and ease of availability of the different factors of production, bargaining power of suppliers and existence of substitutes.

A survey of domestic and multinational companies, with regard to the environmental factors for strategy formulation in the Indian context, reports that **availability of raw materials** is accorded the highest priority among 122 environment factors included in the survey. Both domestic as well as the multinational subsidiary companies lay great emphasis on the supplier environment. The supplier environment, therefore, occupies a dominant position in strategy formulation. This is understandable since India is a developing country having problems of scarcity of capital and appropriate raw material resources. Unlike some of the western nations and Japan, the reliability of supply is very low, causing companies to devote a lot of attention to, and energy in, maintaining continuity of supply. Almost all annual company reports lament the shortage of power and cite the high costs of raw materials as the reason for low profitability. Here are a few illustrations to highlight the importance of the supplier environment.

1. **Power shortage** affects industry considerably. The most energy-intensive industries in India are aluminium, cement, fertilisers, petrochemicals, pulps and paper refineries and steel. Considering the case of mini-steel plants, we find that their viability is critically dependent on the cost and availability of power, as nearly 15 per cent of the total manufacturing costs are accounted for by power. It is mainly

used in electric arc furnaces for both melting and refining scrap for steel manufacturing. Alternative sources of power supply like generating sets are not economical to use in mini-steel plants as large volumes of power are required.

2. Among infrastructural inputs, **road transport** is one of the most important in a developing economy of a large country like India. But there are many problems faced by this sector. For instance, high taxes on vehicles, tyres, diesel and spare parts; poor conditions of roads, and delay in transit are some of these problems. One company in this industry estimates that fuel wastage due to bad condition of roads could be around Rs 500 crore per year while delays at checkposts alone account for a loss of Rs 1,000 crore annually. These problems have a negative impact on the cost and timely delivery of raw materials and other inputs to the industry.

3. A specific example where the **supplier environment threatened the very existence of a company** is of Grasim Industries pulp unit at Mavoor in Kerala. It has faced, besides industrial relations problems, acute shortage of raw material and its high cost. It used bamboo and other softwood, supplied by the Kerala government, as its main raw materials. The price charged was thought to be unreasonably high and the supply was not only erratic but much less than required. Due to such an unfavourable supplier environment, the company had to temporarily close its factory in 1985.

7. Technological Environment

The technological environment consists of those factors related to knowledge applied, latest know-how and the materials and machines used in the production of goods and services that have an impact on the business of an organisation. Some of the important factors and influences operating in the technological environment are as follows:

1. Sources of technology like company sources, external sources and foreign sources; cost of technology acquisition; collaboration in, and transfer of, technology.

2. Technological development, stages of development, change and rate of change of technology, and research and development.

3. Impact of technology on human beings, the man-machine system, and the environmental effects of technology.

4. Communication and infrastructural technology, and technology in management.

Strategists can ill afford to ignore the technological environment, as technology, besides customer groups and customer functions, defines the business of their organisations. The strategic implications of technological change, according to Boris Petrov, are three: it can change relative competitive cost positions within a business; it can create new markets and new business segments; and it can collapse or merge previously independent businesses by reducing or eliminating their segment cost barriers. In the Indian context, we find that the state of technological development varies among different sectors of the industry. Generally, it is felt that the technology used depends on a number of factors such as cost and availability of technology, nature of competition, relevance to customer needs, and government policy. At the macro-level, foreign technical collaborations are popular in India but subjected to strict regulation regarding indigenisation, impact on local technological development and employment, export commitments, etc. Technology is often used as a strategic weapon by companies operating in a highly competitive environment.

A few specific examples of the factors operating in the technological environment and their impact on business are provided here.

1. Rising petrol prices have forced automobile manufacturers to emphasize **fuel economy**. Fuel economy is dependent on a variety of factors such as weight, aerodynamics, engine technology and frictional losses. The technological environment currently offers a few solutions to support these factors. For instance, aerodynamically designed cars to minimise resistance to air, front wheel drive to reduce fuel consumption, ceramic component technology for engine construction, and alternative fuels like diesel, vegetable oils and alcohol are some of the means to increase fuel economy.

2. The harmful side-effects of allopathic drugs and symptomatic relief that they offer have made many companies look towards alternative systems of medicines. Proctor and Gamble Ltd, through its acquired company Richardson Hindustan Ltd, is interested in exploiting the potential of ayurvedic technology in finding herbal solutions to common chronic ailments. The herbal research centre of the company is part of a worldwide programme in drug research on natural ingredients for respiratory, gastro-intestinal and inflammatory diseases.

3. In line with its concern for the technological environment, the Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India (ICICI) has set up the Technology Development Corporation (TDC) to finance ventures that have a high risk but possess

potential for growth, resulting from ideas coming from research institutions. The TDC also intends to provide a technology information service facility for industry.

This section of the chapter has been devoted to a discussion of seven different sectors constituting the relevant environment of an organisation. It should be noted that the classification of the relevant environment into sectors is artificial and is meant solely for gaining an understanding of the different environmental factors. In reality, the dividing line between the different sectors of the environment is hazy and there is a high level of interaction between variables belonging to various environmental sectors. For example, market demand, which is a part of the market environment, does not exist in isolation but is dependent on other factors such as the general state of the economy, buyer motivation or technical quality of the products. Apart from the inter-sectoral interaction, there are complex interlinkages existing between the factors in the same sector of the environment. To consider an example of such an interlinkage, the technological environment has a number of factors and influences. Among these, collaboration in, and transfer of, technology affect the development of technology in a particular company and also in the industry as a whole. When the technological level is raised, it has repercussions on human beings and the man-machine system. There are implications also for the environmental effects of technology. In this manner, both inter-sectoral and intra-sectoral interaction have to be considered while understanding the different environmental sectors. Strategists have to constantly monitor the environment, and its different sectors for opportunities and threats that have, or are likely to have, an impact on their organisations. Such a monitoring is done through environmental scanning.

6.4 ENVIRONMENTAL SCANNING

In the preceding two sections, we have seen how organisations can comprehend the environment in which they exist, identify their relevant environment, and classify it into different sectors. In this section, we return to the methods and techniques employed by organisations to monitor their relevant environment and to gather data to derive information about the opportunities and threats that affect their business. The process by which organisations monitor their relevant environment to identify opportunities and threats affecting their business is known as environmental scanning.

Environmental scanning is the ongoing tracking of trends and occurrences in an organisation's internal and external environment that is having bearing on its success currently and in future. It is an important component of strategic planning as it provides information on factors that will affect the organisation in the future. It refers to possession and utilisation of information about occasions, patterns, trends and relationships within an organisation's internal and external environment. It helps the managers to decide the future path of the organisation.

6.4.1 Factors to be Considered for Environmental Scanning

The external environment in which an organisation exists consists of a bewildering variety of factors. These factors (could also be termed as influences) are events, trends, issues and expectations of different interested groups.

1. **Events** are important and specific occurrences taking place in different environmental sectors.

2. **Trends** are the general tendencies or the courses of action along which events take place, e.g., sale trend of different products.

3. **Issues** are the current concerns that arise in response to events and trends.

4. **Expectations** are the demands made by interested groups in the light of their concern for issues. For example, the gas leakage accident at the Union Carbide factory at Bhopal and the resulting holocaust was an event. The trend that has arisen is a general tendency on the part of the regulatory authorities and organisations to be conscious about safety from hazardous exposure to chemicals. The issue is of arising concern about environmental pollution. The expectation of the general public from the government is of legislating changes in rules and regulations pertaining to safety measures and stricter enforcement through mechanisms. By monitoring the environment through environmental scanning, an organisation can consider the impact of the different events, trends, issues and expectations on its strategic management process. Since the environment facing any organisation is complex and its scanning absolutely essential, strategists have to deal cautiously with the process of environmental scanning. The effort has to be to deal with it in such a manner that unnecessary time and effort is not expended, while important factors are not ignored. For this to take place, it is important to devise an approach, or a combination of different approaches, to environmental scanning.

6.4.2 Approaches to Environmental Scanning

Kubr has suggested three approaches which could be adopted for sorting out information for environment scanning. We could call these approaches as systematic, ad hoc and processed-form approaches.

1. **Systematic approach**: Under this approach, information for environmental scanning is collected systematically. Information related to markets and customers, changes in legislation and regulations that have a direct impact on an organisation's activities, government policy statements pertaining to the organisation's business and industry, etc., could be collected continuously to monitor changes and take the relevant factors into account. Continuously updating such information is necessary not only for strategic management but also for operational activities.

2. **Ad hoc approach**: Using this approach, an organisation may conduct special surveys and studies to deal with specific environmental issues from time to time. Such studies may be conducted, for instance, when an organisation has to undertake special projects, evaluate existing strategies or devise new strategies. Changes and unforeseen developments may also be investigated with regard to their impact on the organisation.

3. **Processed-form approach**: For adopting this approach, the organisation uses information in a processed form available from different sources both inside and outside the organisation. When an organisation uses information supplied by government agencies or private institutions, it uses secondary sources of data and the information is available in a processed form.

Since environment scanning is absolutely necessary for strategy formulation, organisations use different practical combinations of approaches to monitor their relevant environments. These approaches may range from an informal assessment of environment factors to a highly systematic and formal procedure. Informal assessment may be adopted as a reactive measure to a crisis and ad hoc studies may be undertaken occasionally. A highly systematic and formal procedure may be used as a proactive measure in anticipation of changes in environment factors and structured data collection and processing systems may be used continuously. Between the two extremes of the informal and formal approaches may lie different stances adopted by organisations depending on varying degrees of concern. Such stances are situational. For example, when an issue-related decision has to be taken, periodic monitoring of the environment may be done. Systematic and ad hoc approaches can be used for the relevant environment of the organisation, while the processed-form approach could be used to appraise both the relevant as well as the general environment. Whatever approach is adopted for environmental scanning, data collection is necessary for deriving information about environment factors.

6.4.3 Sources of Information for Environmental Scanning

The various sources of information tapped for collecting data for environment scanning could be classified in different ways. There could be formal and informal sources. Then there could be written as well as verbal sources. In terms of origin, data sources could be external and internal. Given below are some of the important types of sources of information.

1. **Documentary or secondary sources of information** like different types of publications. These could be newspapers, magazines, journals, books, trade and industry association newsletters, government publications, annual reports of competitor companies, etc.

2. **Mass media** such as radio and television.

3. **Internal sources** like company files and documents, management information system, company employees, etc.

4. **External agencies** like customers, marketing intermediaries, suppliers, trade associations, government agencies, etc.

5. **Formal studies** done by employees, market research agencies, consultants and educational institutions.

6. **Spying and surveillance** through ex-employees of competitors, industrial espionage agencies, or by planting 'moles' in competitor companies.

Strategists use different information sources depending on their needs for environmental scanning. Government publications, though they are a rich and comprehensive source of information, usually are available after a considerable time lag. Private sources, though relevant and timely, are quite expensive to tap. Therefore, whenever a particular information source is used, it should be checked for its reliability, time frame, methods of data collection and analysis used, form of presentation, etc. Exhibit 6.4 provides some important information sources that could be used by strategists in the Indian context.

6.4.4 Methods and Techniques Used for Environmental Scanning

The range of methods and techniques available for environmental scanning is wide. There are formal and systematic techniques as well as intuitive methods available. Strategists may choose from among these methods and techniques those which suit their needs in terms of the quantity, quality, availability, timeliness, relevance and cost of environmental information.

Various authors have mentioned the methods and techniques used for environmental scanning. LeBell and Krasner outline nine groups of techniques: single-variable extrapolation, theoretical limit envelopes, dynamic modes, mapping, multi-variable interaction analysis, unstructured expert opinion, structured expert opinion, structured inexpert opinion and unstructured inexpert speculation. Fahey, King and Narayanan have included ten techniques in their survey of environmental scanning and forecasting in strategic planning. These are: scenario-writing, simulation, morphological analysis, PPBS, game theory, cross impact analysis, field anomaly-relation, multiechelon coordination and other forecasting techniques. While many of these techniques are based on statistical methods used for forecasting, some of them, like scenario-writing, may not use statistical information but employ informed judgement and intuition to predict what the future is most likely to be, expressed in the form of a descriptive statement or report. Different techniques are being used to scan a business environment. These are categorised as:

1. **Quest Analysis**: Environmental scanning can be done by strategists. We explain briefly a technique called QUEST (Quick Environmental Scanning Technique), proposed by B. Nanus. QUEST is a four-step process which uses scenario-writing for scanning the environment and identifying strategic options. The four steps involved in applying the technique are:

    1. Strategists make observations about the major events and trends in their industry.

    2. Then, they speculate on a wider range of important issues that might affect the future of their organisations by scanning the environment broadly and comprehensively.

    3. The QUEST director prepares a report summarising the major issues and their implications, and three to five scenarios incorporating the major themes of the discussion.

    4. The report and scenarios are reviewed by the group of strategists who identify feasible strategic options to deal with the evolving environment. The options are ranked and teams are designated to develop strategies.

After the environmental scanning process is complete, the strategists are faced with the questions of how to structure the mass of information available to them. The problem boils down to sifting the information in such a manner that a clear picture emerges of what opportunities and threats operating in different sectors of the environment face the organisation.

2. SWOT Analysis

SWOT analysis is a technique developed at Stanford in the 1970s, frequently used in strategic planning. SWOT is an acronym for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats and is a structured planning method that evaluates those four elements of an organization, project or business venture. A SWOT analysis is a simple, but powerful, framework for leveraging the organization's strengths, improving weaknesses, minimizing threats, and taking the greatest possible advantage of opportunities. SWOT Analysis is a tool that can help you to analyse what your company does best now, and to devise a successful strategy for the future. SWOT can also uncover areas of the business that are holding you back, or that your competitors could exploit if you don't protect yourself. A SWOT analysis examines both internal and external factors - that is, what's going on inside and outside your organization. So some of these factors will be within your control and some will not. In either case, the wisest action you can take in response will become clearer once you've discovered, recorded and analysed as many factors as you can.

Components of SWOT Analysis

a. **Strengths**: These are the factors that provide competitive advantage to the organisation. These factors collectively may allow an organisation to bring change in an organisation. These factors can be different for different organisations. These can be resources, skills, etc. For example, * Presence in global market & collaboration with reputed international firms. * Tie-ups with internationally reputed manufacturers and exporters. * Experience in tooling selectivity and metal cutting. * Manufacturers certified with ISO 9001 certification.

b. **Weaknesses**: Weaknesses are the factors that limit the growth of a company or restrict the company from moving in a desired direction. These factors also hinder the organisation from achieving success through internal capabilities. These factors vary as per the organisation. A weakness can be anything such as lack of resource, lack of market understanding, lack of fund, etc. For example, * Inconsistencies in cash flow system. * Lack of research facilities and use of outdated research data. * Lack of latest technologies and no web presence. * New firm and hence lack of goodwill.

2. **External Factors**: External factors reside outside the organisation. These are of two types:

   a. **Opportunities**: An opportunity is a major favourable situation in the firm's environment. The industry should build its production capacity to meet the upward moving demand, both for domestic and international markets. Opportunities are those factors which act as the favorable situations for the organisation. These situations encourage the organisation to grow more and earn more profits. For example, * Loyal customers in market. * High demand of certain products in a particular season. * Poor substitutes available in the market. * Obsolete technologies of the competitors.

   b. **Threats**: Threats are the external unfavourable conditions. They act as a barrier for the organisation in achieving its desired market position. These factors also differ as per the organisation and the areas in which it operates. For example, * Too many competitors of the similar product. * Introduction of taxes or increase in tax rates. * Recession in economy. * Latest technology used by competitors.

3. **ETOP Analysis**: ETOP (Environmental Threat and Opportunity Profile Analysis) is considered as a useful device that facilitates an assessment of information related to the environment and also in determining the relative significance of external environment threats and opportunities to systematically evaluate environmental scanning. By dividing the environment into different sections, the ETOP analysis helps in analysing its impact on the organization. The analysis is based on threats and opportunities in the environment.

4. **PEST Analysis**: PEST technique for a firm's environmental scanning includes analysis of political, economic, social, and technical factors of the environment.

   a. **Political/Legal factors**: Different factors like changes in tax policy, availability of raw material, etc., create a direct effect on a business. So organizations are required to constantly monitor tax-related policy changes as an increase in tax may increase the heavy financial burden on them. Similarly, different laws like "Consumer Protection Act" also play an important role in an organization's operational activities as it is important to abide by the act. More examples can be foreign trade policy, political changes, regulations in competition, trade restrictions, etc., also considered as different political/legal factors that exist in the external business environment.

b. **Economic factors**: Different economical Factors like the unemployment rate, inflation, cost of labor, economic trends, disposable income of consumers, monetary policies, etc., play an important role in environmental scanning. For example, in the case of high unemployment, a company may decrease the prices of its products or services and in the opposite situation, i.e., when the unemployment rate is low, then prices can be high. This happens because if more customers are unemployed then by lowering the prices, an organization can attract them.

c. **Social/Cultural factors**: Attitude, trends, and behavioral aspects of society also create an impact on the functioning of the organization. Studying and understanding the lifestyle of consumers is very much required to target the right audience and to offer the right product or services based on their preferences. For example, issues and policies related to the environment like pollution control are also being considered by organizations to ensure that it operates in an environment-friendly atmosphere. Taking care of the cultural aspect of different countries while doing business at the international level is also an important factor.

d. **Technological Factors**: Technological factors affect the way firms produce products and services as well as market them. Like, "processes based on new technologies" is one of the important factors of a technological environment. To maximize profits, production should be handled most cost-effectively and for this, technology has an important contribution. For example, an increase in computer and internet-based technology is playing a major role in the way organizations are distributing and marketing their products and services. Also, different advancements in technologies like automation of the manual process and use of machinery based on more advanced and latest technologies, more investment in research & development by organizations have increased their efficiency by increasing production in less time, cost-reduction and better investment in the long run.

6.5 APPRAISING THE ENVIRONMENT

In order to draw a clear picture of what opportunities and threats are facedby the organisation at a given time, it is necessary to appraise the environment. This is done by being aware of the factors that affect environmental appraisal, identifying the environmental factors, and structuring the results of environmental appraisal.

6.5.1 Factors Affecting Environmental Appraisal

Given the same environmental conditions, no two strategists or two organisations would appraise the environment in a similar fashion. This is due to the many factors that affect the process of environmental appraisal. We could identify these factors by classifying them into three categories : the strategist- related, organisation-related and environment-related factors.

6.5.1.1 *Strategist-related factors :*-There are many factors related to the strategist, which affect the process of environmental appraisal.Since strategists play a central role in the formulation of strategies, their characteristics such as age, education, experience,motivation level, cognitive styles,ability to withst and the time pressures and strain, etc. have an impact on the extent to which they are able to appraise their organisation's environment and how well they are able to do it. Apart from these factors, related to strategists as individuals, group characteristics too have an impact on how well environmental appraisal is done.Such group characteristics could be the interpersonal relations between the different strategists involved in appraisal,team spirit, and the power equations operating between them.

6.5.1.2 *Organisation-related factors*:-Like those of strategists, many characteristics of the organisation also have an impact on the environmental appraisal process. These characteristics are the nature of business the organisation is in,. its age, size and complexity, the nature of its markets, and the product or services that it provides

6.5.1.3 *Environment-relatedfactors:*- The nature of the environment facing an organisation determines how its appraisal could be done. The nature of the environment depends on its complexity, volatility or turbulence, hostility, and diversity.

In sum, how well environmental appraisal is done depends on the strategists, their organisations, and the environment in which their organisations exist.

Before strategists can structure the environmental appraisal, it is necessary to identify the environmental factors.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. **What is the primary purpose of environmental scanning?**

   a) To analyze internal organizational resources. b) To identify and analyze external factors that may affect an organization. c) To improve employee morale and productivity. d) To reduce operational costs in the short term.

2. **Which of the following is NOT typically considered a major category in environmental scanning frameworks like PESTLE?**

   a) Political factors b) Economic factors c) Technological factors d) Operational factors

3. **Monitoring inflation rates and unemployment levels falls under which category of environmental factors?**

   a) Social b) Technological c) Economic d) Legal

4. **Changes in consumer preferences and lifestyles are examples of which type of environmental factor?**

   a) Political b) Social c) Technological d) Environmental

5. **The introduction of artificial intelligence and automation in manufacturing represents a change in the:**

   a) Legal environment b) Economic environment c) Technological environment d) Social environment

6. **New regulations regarding data privacy and security are part of the:**

   a) Political environment b) Legal environment c) Social environment d) Technological environment

6.5.2 Identifying the Environmental Factors

Environmental scanning results in a mass of information related to different sectors of the environment. Without a technique to deal with this information, a strategist would be at a loss to comprehend and analyse the environmental factors. These factors are the events, trends, issues and expectations of different interested groups as described in the previous section. A feasible approach in identifying the important environmental factors is to test each factor with regard to its impact on the business of the organisation, and the probability of such an impact.

Environmental scanning leads to the identification of many issues that affect the organisation. These issues could be judged on the basis of the intensity of their impact on the business of the organisation and the relative probability of such an impact. In such a manner, environmental issues (and all the factors) could be distributed among the nine cells of the matrix. The issues which are most likely to have a high level of impact on the organisation are the critical issues and need immediate attention of the strategists. High priority issues are those which have a medium to high probability of impact, while those currently having a high level of impact but a low probability of occurrence need to be watched. All other issues could be considered as being of low priority but still requiring continuous monitoring as conditions may change later. In this way, strategists could narrow the range of environmental issues they have to focus their attention upon. These issues, when divided into opportunities and threats and allocated to different sectors of the environment, help in structuring of the environmental appraisal.

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6.5.3 Structuring Environmental Appraisal

The identification of environmental issues is helpful in structuring environmental appraisal so that strategists have a good idea of where the environmental opportunities and threats lie. Structuring the environmental appraisal is a difficult process as environmental issues do not lend themselves to a straightforward classification into neat categories. An issue may arise simultaneously from more than one sector of the environment. Strategists have to use their experience and judgment to place the different environmental issues to where they mainly belong so that a picture of the different opportunities and threats facing an organisation clearly emerges. There are many techniques available to structure the environmental appraisal. One such technique, suggested by Glueck, is that of preparing an environmental threat and opportunity profile (ETOP) for an organisation.

The preparation of ETOP involves dividing the environment into different sectors and then analysing the impact of each sector on the organisation. A comprehensive ETOP requires subdividing each environmental sector into subfactors and then the impact of each subfactor on the organisation is described in the form of a statement. A summary ETOP may only show the major factors for the sake of simplicity. Exhibit 6.6 provides an example of an ETOP prepared for an established company which is in the bicycle industry. The main business of the company is in sports cycle manufacturing for the domestic and export markets. This example relates to a hypothetical company, but the illustration is realistic based on the current Indian business environment.

Exhibit 6.6 Environmentalthreat and opportunityprofile (ETOP) for a bicycle company

Environmental Sectors	*Nature of Impact*	Impactofeachsector.
Social	↑	Customerpreferenceforsportscycleswhicharefashionable, easy toride and durable.
Political	→	Growing affluence amongurban consumers; exportspotential high.
Regulatory	↑	Bicycleindustryathrustareaforexports.
Market	↑	Industry growth rate is 7 to 8 per cent per year; for sports cycles growth rate is 30 per cent; largely unsaturated demand.
Supplies	↑	Mostlyancillariesandassociatedcompaniessupplyparts andcomponents;REPlicencsesforimportedraw materialsavailable.
Technological	↑	Technologicalupgradationofindustryinprogress:import of machinery under OGL list possible.

Uparrows indicate favourable impact, down arrows (if used) indicate unfavourable impact, while horizontal arrows indicate a neutral impact.

As observed from Exhibit 6.6, sports cycle manufacturing is an attractive proposition due to the many opportunities operating in the environment. The company can capitalise on the burgeoning demand by taking advantage of the various government policies and concessions. It can also take advantage of the high export potential that already exists. Since the company is an established manufacturer of bicycles, it has a favourable supplier as well as technological environment. But contrast the implications of this ETOP for a new manufacturer who is planning to enter this industry. Though the market environment would still be favourable, much would depend on the extent to which the company is able to ensure the supply of raw materials and components, and have access to the latest technology and have the facilities to use it.

The preparation of an ETOP provides a clear picture to the strategists of which sectors, and the different factors in each sector, have a favourable impact on the organisation. By means of an ETOP, the organisation knows where it stands with respect to its environment. Obviously, such an understanding can be of great help to an organisation in formulating appropriate strategies to take advantage of the opportunities and counter the threats in its environment,

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Case Study: Tech Innovate Inc.: Navigating the Shifting Sands of the EdTech Market

Tech Innovate Inc. (TII) was a pioneering company in the early 2010s, offering innovative learning management systems (LMS) primarily to universities. Their initial success was built on a user-friendly interface and robust features. However, the EdTech market has undergone significant transformations in recent years.

- **Technological Shifts:** The rise of AI-powered personalized learning platforms, the increasing accessibility of high-speed internet in rural areas, and the proliferation of mobile learning have created new avenues for education delivery.
- **Economic Pressures:** Universities are facing increasing pressure to reduce costs, leading them to explore more affordable EdTech solutions. Simultaneously, the growth of online learning has attracted new, often lower-priced, competitors.
- **Social Changes:** There's a growing demand for lifelong learning and upskilling, leading to the emergence of various online learning platforms targeting professionals and individuals outside traditional academic settings. The COVID-19 pandemic accelerated the adoption of online learning across all age groups.
- **Political & Legal Factors:** Governments are increasingly focusing on digital literacy and investing in online education infrastructure. Data privacy regulations and accessibility standards for online learning platforms are also becoming more stringent.
- **Competitive Landscape:** New entrants, including tech giants and specialized EdTech startups, are aggressively competing with established players like TII. Some offer niche solutions, while others provide comprehensive platforms at competitive prices.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS Continue…………..

TII's market share has been gradually declining over the past few years. The leadership team is now considering a strategic overhaul to revitalize the company and ensure its future sustainability.

Case Study Questions:

1. Identify the key environmental factors (using PESTLE or a similar framework) that are impacting Tech Innovate Inc.'s strategic position.
2. Analyze the opportunities and threats that these environmental factors present to Tech Innovate Inc.
3. How effectively do you think Tech Innovate Inc. has been monitoring and responding to its external environment so far?
4. Based on your environmental analysis, what strategic recommendations would you make to Tech Innovate Inc. to address the challenges and capitalize on the opportunities in the evolving EdTech market?
5. What specific environmental scanning activities should Tech Innovate Inc. undertake on an ongoing basis to remain competitive in the future?
6. Discuss the potential challenges Tech Innovate Inc. might face in implementing your strategic recommendations, considering the dynamic nature of the EdTech environment.

6.6 LET US SUM UP

Environment can be divided into external and internal parts. While the internal environment has been left for discussion in the next chapter, this chapter has dealt with different aspects of the external environment. The subject matter of the chapter is environmental appraisal, which is the process of identifying opportunities and threats facing an organisation for the purpose of strategy formulation.

In the first section of this chapter, we have attempted to clarify the concept of environment. The environment is complex, dynamic, multi-faceted and has a far-reaching impact on an organisation. It can be divided into external and internal parts. SWOT analysis is a systematic approach to find the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats pertaining to an organisation and its environment. Organisations are concerned about their external environment in general, but more attention is paid to the relevant environment which has an immediate and direct impact on their activities.

The relevant environment can be classified into different sectors or components. We have divided the relevant environment into seven components. The second section of this chapter deals with these seven environmental components. The components are social, political, economic, regulatory, market, supplier and technological environments. For each component, we have explained, through appropriate illustrations, the type of factors and influences which operate in that part of the environment, the significance of these factors for the strategic management of an organisation, in general, and strategy formulation in particular.

The different components of the environment have to be continuously monitored by strategists for factors that may create opportunities or threats. Such a monitoring is done through the process of environmental scanning which is the subject matter of the third section in this chapter. We have described the factors that have to be considered, the approaches to be adopted, the sources of information to be used, and the methods and techniques to be applied for environmental scanning.

The last section is devoted to a discussion of the process of environmental appraisal. Having discussed first the factors which affect environmental appraisal, we have described how environmental factors could be identified and the results of environmental appraisal structured.

6.7 KEY WORDS

- **Environmental Analysis:** A process to identify all the external & internal elements that affect organisation performance.
- **Trends:** These are general tendencies along which events take place.
- **Environmental Scanning:** The process by which organisations monitor their relevant environment to identify threats and opportunities affecting their business.

6.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.1 Mention some of the important characteristics of environment.

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Q.2 How is SWOT analysis done? Choose any industry andoutline thefactors that could either create opportunities or threats for companies within that industry in the near future.

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Q.3 What different types of factors effect the process ofenvironmental appraisal

?

Q.4 Differentiate clearly between the external and internal components of environment.

Q.5 How does the systematic approach to environmental scanning differ from the processed form approach ?

6.9 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q 1: How can environmental analysis help an organization adapt to rapid technological changes in its industry?

Q 2: When conducting a SWOT analysis, how can a company distinguish between internal weaknesses and external threats in a highly competitive market?

Q 3: What are the key tools and techniques used in environmental scanning, and how do they contribute to strategic decision-making?

Q 4: In what ways can combining SWOT analysis with environmental scanning enhance a company's ability to identify strategic growth opportunities?

6.10 ANSWER KEY

B. False, False, True, False, False

C. b,d,c,b,c,b

6.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT-II (Credit-1) **M.Com 2nd Semester**
Course No.MCOMC251 **Lesson No.7**

ORGANISATIONAL APPRAISAL- DYNAMICSFOR INTERNAL ENVIRONMENT, ORGANISATIONAL CAPABILITY FACTORS,TECHNIQUES USED FOR ORGANISATIONAL APPRAISAL

STRUCTURE

7.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The Ojectives of this lesson is:

- To understand the different organisational capability factors.
- To make an assessment of different approaches to organisational appraisal.
- To discuss the different methods and techniques used for organisational appraisal.

Learning Outcomes

After Reading this lesson, the learners will be able to:

- Articulate the definition, objectives, and various applications of organizational appraisal within different organizational contexts.
- Recognize and differentiate between various established organizational appraisal frameworks (e.g., Balanced Scorecard, EFQM Excellence Model, Malcolm Baldrige Criteria).
- Identify, interpret, and analyze relevant KPIs across different functional areas (e.g., financial, operational, customer-related, learning and growth).
- Conduct a thorough SWOT analysis of an organization based on appraisal data and internal/external environmental factors..
- translate the findings of an organizational appraisal into actionable recommendations and develop strategic and operational plans for improvement.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This lesson deals with the internal environment of an organisation. We build the foundation for understanding the internal environment through the explanation of its dynamics. The resources, behaviour, strengths and weaknesses, synergy, and distinctive competencies constitute the internal environment, and we deal briefly with each of these aspects initially. All these together determine the organisational capability.

Organisational capability could be understood in terms of the strengths and weaknesses existing in the different functional areas of an organisation. We consider five such areas, namely finance, marketing, operations, personnel, and general management. For each of these, we mention the important factors influencing them and through illustrations, clarify the nature of the various functional capability factors.

The various considerations involved in organisational appraisal are discussed next. We deal with the factors that affect appraisal, the approaches adopted for appraisal, and the sources of information used to perform organisational appraisal.

With regard to the methods and techniques used for organisational appraisal, we explain the methods of financial analysis and key factor rating. The application of these methods results in highlighting the strengths and weaknesses existing in different functional areas.

The results of organisational appraisal are structured through the preparation of an organisational capability profile and a strategic advantage profile.

7.2 DYNAMICS OF INTERNAL ENVIRONMENT

The dynamics of the internal environment of an organisation can be understood in terms of the organisational resources and behaviour, strengths and weaknesses, synergistic effects and the distinctive competencies.

An organisation uses different types of resources and exhibits a certain type of behaviour. The combination of these different resources along with the prevalent behaviour produces synergy or dysergy within an organisation, which leads to the development of strengths or weaknesses over a period of time. Some of these strengths make an organisation specially competent in a particular area of its activity causing it to develop a distinctive competence. Organisational capability rests on an organisation's capacity and ability to use its distinctive competencies to excel in a particular field.

The resources, behaviour, synergy, strengths and weaknesses, and distinctive competence of an organisation determine the nature of its internal environment. It is expected that readers of this book are aware of these terms in general. However, we briefly explain each of these terms to place them in the specific context of business policy.

7.2.1 Organisational Resources

Organisation resources are the physical and human resources used as inputs by an organisation to create outputs in the form of products and services through a transformation process. All organisations use resources of different types. Some of the important types of resources are people, money, materials, facilities, systems, and knowledge. Very few organisations, like individuals, are born with a silver spoon in the mouth; most organisations have to acquire resources the hard way. The cost and availability of resources are the most important factors on which the success of an organisation depends. If an organisation is favourably placed with respect to the cost and availability of a particular type of resource, it possesses an enduring strength which may be used as a strategic weapon by it against its competitors. Conversely, the high cost and scarce availability of a resource are a handicap which cause a persistent strategic weakness in an organisation.

7.2.2 Organisational Behaviour

Organisational behaviour is the manifestation of the various forces and influences operating in the internal environment of an organisation that create the ability of, or place constraints in, the usage of resources. Organisational behaviour is unique in the sense that it leads to the development of a special identity and character of an organisation. Some of the important forces and influences that affect organisational behaviour are: the quality of leadership, management philosophy, shared values and culture, quality of work environment and organisational climate, organisational politics, use of power, etc.

7.2.3 Strengths and Weaknesses

Organisational resources and behaviour do not exist in isolation. They combine in a complex fashion to create strengths and weaknesses within the internal environment of an organisation. A strength is an inherent capability which an organisation can use to gain strategic advantage. A weakness, on the other hand, is an inherent limitation or constraint which creates a strategic disadvantage for an organisation. Financial strength, for example, is a result of the availability of sources of finances, low cost of capital, efficient use of funds, etc. A weakness in the operation area results due to inappropriate plant location and layout, obsolete plant and machinery, uneconomical operations, etc. In the following section, we will take up a detailed discussion of strengths and weaknesses in different functional areas within an organisation.

Strengths and weaknesses do not exist in isolation but combine within a functional area, and also different functional areas, to create synergistic effects.

7.2.4 Synergistic Effects

It is the inherent nature of organisations that strengths and weaknesses, like resources and behaviour, do not exist individually but combine in a variety of ways. For instance, two strong points in a particular functional area add up to something more than double the strength. Likewise, two weaknesses acting in tandem result in more than double the damage. In effect, what we have is a situation where attributes do not add up mathematically but combine to produce an enhanced or a reduced impact. Such a phenomenon is known as the synergistic effect. Synergy is an idea that the whole is greater or lesser than the sum of its parts. It is also expressed as the two plus two is equal to five or three effect. Within an organisation, synergistic effects occur in a number of ways. For example, within a functional area, say of marketing, the synergistic effect may occur when the product, pricing, distribution and promotion aspects support each other, resulting in a high level of marketing synergy. At a higher level, the marketing and production areas may support each other, leading to operating synergy. On the other hand, if marketing inefficiency reduces production efficiency, the overall impact being negative, in which case dysergy (or negative synergy) occurs. In this manner, synergistic effects are an important determinant of the quality and type of the internal environment existing within an organisation and may lead to the development of distinctive competencies.

7.2.5 Distinctive Competence

On the basis of its resources and behaviour, an organisation develops certain strengths and weaknesses which when combined lead to synergistic effects. Such effects manifest themselves in terms of organisational competencies. In other words, the net result of the strategic advantages and disadvantages that exist for an organisation determines its ability to compete with its competitors. When a specific ability is possessed by a particular organisation exclusively or in relatively large measure, it is called a distinctive competence.

A distinctive competence is "any advantage a company has over its competitors because it can do something which they cannot or it can do something better than they can". It is not necessary, of course, for all organisations to possess a distinctive competence. Neither do all organisations, which possess certain distinctive competencies, use them for strategic purposes. Nevertheless, the concept of distinctive competence is useful for the purpose of strategy formulation. The importance of distinctive competence to strategy formulation rests with "the unique capability it gives an organisation in capitalising upon a particular opportunity, the competitive edge it may give a firm in the market place; and the potential for building a distinctive competence and making it the cornerstone of strategy".

Many organisations achieve strategic success by building distinctive competencies around the critical success factors. Recall that critical success factors are those which are crucial for organisational success. A few examples of distinctive competencies are given below:

7.2.5.1 **Superior product quality** on a particular attribute, say a two-wheeler which is more fuel-efficient than its competitor products.

7.2.5.2 **Creation of a marketing niche** by supplying highly specialised products to a particular market segment.

7.2.5.3 **Differential advantage**, based on superior research and development skills, of an organisation not possessed by its competitors.

7.2.5.4 **Access to a low-cost financial source** like equity shareholders by an organisation not available to its competitors.

Organisations build up distinctive competencies and use them for strategy formulation in many ways. We will refer to distinctive competencies and their role in strategy formulation in detail in the next chapter, where we discuss strategic alternatives. For the present, we move ahead to an explanation of the term 'organisational capability'.

7.2.6 Organisational Capability

Organisational capability is the inherent capacity or potential of an organisation to use its strengths and overcome its weaknesses in order to exploit opportunities and face threats in its external environment. Since organisational capability is the capacity or potential of an organisation, it means that it is a measurable attribute. And since it can be measured, it follows that organisational capability can be compared. But such a statement is obviously oversimplified. Organisational capability is a highly subjective attribute and is very difficult, if not impossible, to measure. As an attribute, it is the sum total of resources and behaviour, strengths and weaknesses, synergistic effects occurring in, and the distinctive competence of, any organisation.

Strategists are primarily interested in organisational capability because of two reasons. First, they wish to know what capacity exists within the organisation to exploit opportunities or face threats in its environment. Secondly, they are interested in knowing what potential should be developed within the organisation so that opportunities could be exploited and threats could be faced in the future. Organisational capability is measured and compared through the process of organisational appraisal. A feasible approach to appraising the organisation is to start with the factors and influences operating within the organisation. These could be organisational capability factors.

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

True or False:

1. Organizational appraisal primarily focuses on evaluating the performance of individual employees.
2. The Balanced Scorecard is an example of an organizational appraisal framework that considers financial, customer, internal processes, and learning & growth perspectives.
3. Organizational appraisal is a one-time event and does not typically involve ongoing monitoring or follow-up actions.
4. Identifying an organization's weaknesses is not a key objective of organizational appraisal.
5. Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) are quantitative measures used in organizational appraisal to track progress towards strategic goals.

7.3 ORGANISATIONAL CAPABILITY FACTORS

Organisational capability factors (or, simply, capability factors) are the strategic strengths and weaknesses existing in different functional areas within an organisation which are of crucial importance to strategy formulation. Other terms synonymous with organisational capability factors are: strategic factors, strategic advantage factors, strategic advantages, corporate competence factors, etc.

Different types of capability factors exist within the internal environment of an organisation. For the purpose of explanation, authors divide them into different functional areas. In this, we follow an approach of dividing the organisation into five largely accepted and commonly used functional areas: finance, marketing, operations, personnel, and general management. It should be remembered, however, that such a division is arbitrary and organisations need to choose a basis for classification that would be the most relevant to their structure, functions and activities. For instance, a service organisation like a corporate hospital may have, besides different specialties, functions such as a laboratory, radiology unit, therapy, purchase and stores, personnel housekeeping and accounting. The organisation of such a type would have functional areas based on its typical activities.

We now describe capability factors in the five functional areas of finance, marketing, operations, personnel, and general management. For each capability factor, we first define that factor, point out some of the important factors that support capability in an area, give a few illustrations of typical strengths, and lastly, provide a few examples from real-life business situations to enhance your understanding.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Fill-in-the-Blanks :

1. A common tool used in organizational appraisal to analyze internal strengths and weaknesses and external opportunities and threats is the _____________ analysis.
2. The _____________ Excellence Model is a non-prescriptive framework that helps organizations in Europe assess their level of excellence.
3. Organizational appraisal helps in making informed _____________ about resource allocation and strategic direction.
4. Benchmarking in organizational appraisal involves comparing an organization's performance against _____________ or industry best practices.
5. The ultimate goal of organizational appraisal is to improve organizational _____________ and achieve strategic objectives.

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all allied aspects that have a bearing on an organisation's capacity and ability to implement its strategies.

Some of the important factors which influence the financial capability of any organisation are as follows:

1. **Factors related to sources of funds**: Capital structure, procurement of capital, controllership, financing pattern, working capital availability, borrowings, capital and credit availability, reserves and surplus, and relationship with lenders, banks and financial institutions.

2. **Factors related to usage of funds**: Capital investment, fixed asset acquisition, current assets, loans and advances, dividend distribution, and relationship with shareholders.

3. **Factors related to management of funds**: Financial, accounting and budgeting systems; management control system, state of financial health, cash, inflation, credit, return and risk management; cost reduction and control; and tax planning and advantages.

Based on the above factors, a number of strengths and weaknesses can be found that affect the financial capability of an organisation. Exhibit 7.1 provides a few illustrations of strengths that support financial capability. The absence or unavailability of these factors leads to the occurrence of weaknesses. For instance, access to financial resources is a strength, while inaccessibility to them is a weakness.

The exhibit given below shows how strengths and weaknesses affect the financial capability of organisations.

Exhibit 7.1 Typical strengths that support financial capability

- Access to financial resources
- Amicable relationship with financial institutions
- High level of creditworthiness
- Efficient capital budgeting system
- Low cost of capital as compared to competitors
- High level of shareholder's confidence
- Effective management control system
- Tax benefits due to various government policies.

- LML Limited (formerly, Lohia Machines) had collected nearly Rs. 126 crore as advance for booking of scooters, but within five years, its cash position deteriorated owing to a sudden and unforeseen cancellation of bookings and withdrawal of deposits, resulting in a huge interest burden. This weakness has continually affected its profitability and is likely to cause difficulties in the near future. On the contrary, another new entrant in the highly competitive scooter market is Gujarat Narmada Auto Limited (GNAL), which has entered the industry on the strength of financial backing available from its highly profitable parent company, Gujarat Narmada Valley Fertiliser Company (GNFC). GNAL had borrowed nearly Rs. 27 crore as interest-free loan from GNFC and the government of Gujarat to support itself during the initial difficult years.

- Most companies have to keep their fixed deposit schemes open for months to collect the requisite amount from the general public. But Hindustan Cocoa Products, the manufacturer of Cadbury's brand of chocolates, collected the permissible amount of fixed deposit in less than a week when it opened its collection scheme in late 1987. Such a high level of investor confidence is a great strength and helps to build financial capability. Another example of a company which enjoys a high level of investor confidence is Reliance Textiles Ltd. Its subsidiary, Reliance Petrochemicals Ltd., made the largest ever public issue by any private sector company in India in August 1988 and in the process created several records. Access to public money is an advantage since it is the cheapest form of financing available.

7.3.2 Marketing Capability

Marketing capability factors relate to the pricing, promotion, and distribution of products or services, and all the allied aspects that have a bearing on an organisation's capacity and ability to implement its strategies. Some of the important factors which influence the marketing capability of an organisation are as follows:

1. **Product-related factors**: Variety, differentiation, mix, quality, positioning, packaging, etc.

2. **Price-related factors**: Pricing objectives, policies, changes, protection.

3. **Promotion-related factors**: Promotional tools, sales promotion, advertising, public relations, etc.

4. **Integrative and systemic factors**: Marketing mix, distribution system, market standing, company image, marketing organisation, marketing system, marketing management information system, etc.

Some of the typical strengths leading to marketing capability are given in the Exhibit below.

Exhibit 7.2 Typical strengths that support marketing capability

- Wide variety of products
- Better quality of products
- Low prices as compared to those of similar products in the market
- Price protection due to government policy
- Effective sales promotion

Here are a few real-life illustrations of organisations that possess either strengths or weaknesses which determine their marketing capability.

To expect public sector banks to adopt a marketing-based approach with regard to their services is unthinkable. But **Bank of India** offers an example where marketing capability is consciously being built. Under the leadership of its Chairman, R. Srinivasan, Bank of India plans to adopt a proactive stance and start a door-to-door campaign to promote its various deposit schemes. For this, young bank officers have been trained in developing marketing skills and asked to work on a deposit mobilisation campaign. These various steps have resulted in a strong marketing cadre within the bank.

For twenty years-from 1962 to 1982-**ACC-Babcock Ltd. (ABL)**, one of the two manufacturers (the other is BHEL) of power station boilers in India, had been working satisfactorily. It had a sort of informal agreement with BHEL for work-sharing till 1982. As soon as the agreement broke down, troubles began for ABL. The different weaknesses of the company came to the fore. BHEL has three times as much capacity as that of ABL; it could lower its price and offset this by marking up the prices of its other equipment; and it has a price advantage of 15 percent, being a public sector unit. Owing to these competitive advantages, BHEL prospered while ABL's capacity lay idle and its turnover and profits declined to such an extent that a rescue package had to be devised by IDBI to prevent the company from closing down.

An example of how weakness could be transformed to strength is the case of the **Vicks range of products** made by the chemists' association which demanded higher trade margins, a step which could have resulted in loss of sales and lower profitability. The company reclassified its products as Ayurvedic since herbs and plants are used as raw materials. Several advantages accrued from this, one being that the products could be sold by non-chemists also.

A company which has tried to build up its marketing capability is SIP Resins Ltd, which is competing with multinationals like Hindustan Ciba Geigy and Dr. Becks that dominate the epoxy resins market in India. The company realised early that its marketing set-up needed strengthening if it had to compete. Several steps were taken by the company. Sound marketing strategies were formulated to deal with competition. A marketing organisation, consisting of four regional offices in metropolitan centres, was set up and resident representatives appointed at major towns. A cell was established to specifically deal with customer complaints and technically qualified sales representatives were appointed. Special emphasis was laid on product quality. The initial pricing policy followed was of skimming through selling products at prices 3 to 5 per cent less than the market rate, albeit supported by higher profit margins. Personalised selling was done with the top management actively associated in marketing efforts. By 1987, the company had a turnover of Rs 6 crore and a 25 percent market share. SIP Resins, therefore, offers an example where marketing capability was sought to be built up systematically and comprehensively.

7.3.3 Operations Capability

Operationscapabilityfactorsrelateto theproductionofproductsor services, use of material resources, and all allied aspects that have a bearing on an organisation's capacity and ability to implement its strategies.

Some of the important factors which influence operations capability of an organisation are as follows :

1. *Factors related to the production system* Capacity, location, layout, product

or service design, work systems, degree of automation, extent of vertical integration, etc.

2. *Factors related to the operations and control system* Aggregate production planning, materials supply; inventory, cost and quality control; maintenance systems and procedures, etc.

3. *Factors related to the R & D system* Personnel, facilities, product development, patent rights, leveloftechnologyused, technicalcollaboration and support, etc.

Some typical strengths supporting the development of operations capability are given in Exhibit 7.3.

Exhibit 7.3 Typical strengths that support operations capability

- High level of capacity utilisation
- Favourable plant location
- High degree of vertical integration
- Reliable sources of supply
- Effective control of operational costs
- Existence of good inventory control system
- Availability of high caliber R&D personnel
- Technical collaboration with reputed firms abroad manufactures drug machinery.

Given below are a few illustration of how the existence of strengths or weaknesses can affect the operations capability of an organisation.

- Cadila Laboratories, part of the Cadila group of companies, is the third largestmanufacturer of drugs in India (Glaxoand Sarabhai Chemicals are the first two). It has been very successful in the drugs industry. Beginning with formulations, it integrated backwards into basic drugs and also manufacturing drug machinery.

- **One of its strengths lies in its R&D capability.** It claims to have developed the know-how for 15 drugs and has recently signed a protocol with the Soviet Institute of Immunology for a joint scientific research programme. The company also plans to set up a full-fledged biotech laboratory.

- **Bombay Dyeing**, a manufacturer of DMT (used in the production of polyester filament yarn), uses paraxylene as its basic raw material. Due to unfavourable government policy, it was not allowed to set up a paraxylene plant, as a result of which it has to depend on costly imports. Competition like IPCL and Bongaigaon Refineries have access to captive paraxylene units creating a strategic disadvantage for Bombay Dyeing and making it a high-cost producer of DMT.

- The capability to absorb imported technology is a great strength, as is evident in the case of **Lakshmi Machine Works**. It is one of the five companies in the world to make the entire range of textile spinning machinery and the largest such company in India. It has a collaboration with the Rieter Machine Works of Switzerland from which it has got the latest technology. The technology absorption capacity has played an important role in the company's success as compared to its other competitors like Mafatlal Engineering Company and Texmaco.

7.3.4 Personnel Capability

Personnel capability factors relate to the existence and use of human resources and skills, and all allied aspects that have a bearing on an organisation's capacity and ability to implement its strategies.

Some of the important factors which influence the personnel capability of an organisation are as follows:

1. **Factors related to the personnel system**: System for manpower planning, selection, development, compensation, communication, and appraisal, position of the personnel department within the organisation, procedures and standards, etc.
2. **Factors related to organisational and employees characteristics**: Corporate image, quality of managers, staff and workers; perception about and image of the organisation as an employer, availability of developmental.
3. **Factors related to industrial relations**: Union-management relationship, collective bargaining, safety, welfare and security; employee satisfaction and morale, etc.

Here are a few illustrations of how strengths and weaknesses affect the personnel capability of organisations.

- In the advertising business, personnel talent enjoys a high priority and status. Besides, being a competitive industry, personnel turnover is a problem which affects the efficiency of an advertising agency. **Lintas India Ltd**, which is considered a leading advertising agency, lays great emphasis on building up personnel capability by believing in the philosophy of offering a career, not just a job, and making large investments in training and development. The result is high productivity per employee and low overhead costs, creating a strategic advantage for the company.

- **Metal Box India Ltd** was a highly profitable company, but owing to various problems it had to shut down five out of its nine plants across the country. The root cause of the problem was the severe cash crunch which was largely the result of the high-cost structure owing to wage bills. The wages paid to workers amounted to 25 per cent of the turnover, that is, nearly double the industry's average. This resulted in a serious dent in the personnel capability of the company. Besides, a large and militant workforce was a weakness which the company had to overcome if it had to survive.

- **Apollo Tyres** has been adversely affected in the past due to the industrial relations problem. Its plant is situated in Kerala which has a highly literate, militant and unionised workforce. Due to this, the company has been plagued with a number of problems, including that of low productivity of workers. In order to overcome these weaknesses, which have affected its personnel capability, Apollo Tyres has formulated a personnel selection policy under which it has decided to hire plant workers who are above 28 years of age, are financially needy, married and settled. This is being done on the reasonable assumption that older and settled workers would be less militant and would be keen to hold on to their jobs. Besides this selection policy, the company has also shifted some areas of management-employee relations, such as productivity-linked bonus, out of the purview of collective bargaining. All these steps have led to a situation where the company has been largely successful in overcoming its weaknesses in the personnel area.

7.3.5 General Management Capability

General management capability relates to the integration, coordination, and direction of the functional capabilities towards common goals and all allied aspects that have a bearing on an organisation's capacity and ability to implement its strategies.

Some of the important factors which influence the general management capability of an organisation are as follows:

1. **Factors related to the general management system**: Strategic management system, processes related to mission-purpose and objective-setting, strategy system, processes related to mission-purpose and objective-setting, strategy formulation

and implementation machinery, strategy evaluation system, management information system, corporate planning system, rewards and incentives system for top managers, etc.

2. **Factors related to general managers**: Orientation, risk-propensity, values, norms, personal goals, competence, capacity for work, track record, balance of functional experience, etc.

3. **Factors related to external relationships**: Influence on and rapport with the government, regulatory agencies and financial institutions; public relations; sense of social responsibility, philanthropy, public image as corporate citizen, etc.

4. **Factors related to organisational climate**: Organisational culture, use of power, political processes, balance of vested interest; introduction, acceptance and management of change; nature of organisational structure and controls, etc.

We provide here a few illustrations of organisations which possess either strengths or weaknesses which affect their management capability.

- **SLM Maneklal Industries Ltd**, an ailing company, was taken over by the Munshaw group in 1986. The new management team has been able to consolidate the company's strengths and put it back on the path to profitability. The general management capability is reflected in the various steps taken by the top management. First, the cash flow situation was eased by convincing the financial institutions to reschedule the outstanding term loans and asking the bank to lend additional working capital. Next, modernisation of existing facilities and capacity expansion was done through a rehabilitation package from ICICI and IRCI, enabling the company to honour its order commitments for textile machinery. A new board was appointed comprising experienced professionals and autonomy was provided to the top managers. Apart from these steps, other actions were also taken by the top management to strengthen the company and make its manufacturing base diversified. The result of all this has been a renewed confidence in the company and the market price of its share has gone up considerably.

- The **Nagarjuna group of companies** has come to signify the coming of the first-generation technocrat-entrepreneurs. Led by K.V.K. Raju, the group has made rapid strides during the last decade. Though it is true that not all companies in the group are doing well, the group is known for attracting and retaining good top-level managers. For instance, Nagarjuna Finance is reputed to have some of the best leasing specialists, which is a great strength in a highly competitive industry such as leasing.

- The **Malayalam Manorama** is India's largest selling newspaper. Its roots go back to over a century to K.V. Mappilai who founded the company in 1888. Behind the success of the company is the unified, decisive, and unchallenged leadership of one family whose members have had a significant influence on the political and social life in Kerala. The stability provided by the family members and the favourable public image are great strengths for the enterprise. Today, the newspaper is considered to be the best edited and the most professionally produced newspaper in Malayalam.

Up till here, in this section, we have observed the manner in which the strengths and weaknesses in different functional areas have an impact on the capability of an organisation. It should be remembered, however, that dividing the organisation into different functional areas is done only for ease of understanding and analysis. In reality, capability factors in functional areas do not exist in isolation. Individual capability factors within a functional area and across different areas collide and combine in the internal environment in complex ways generating the overall organisational capability. Considering an example of intra-functional area interaction, the distribution capability of an organisation can only be utilised effectively if other marketing capability factors such as product, pricing, and promotion support its usage. Across different functional areas, if an organisation possesses a high level of operations capability, it can be used effectively only if other areas, such as marketing, support its usage.

At any given time, the internal environment of an organisation is virtually a melting pot of forces and influences. Strategists need to adopt some approach to deal with the complexity, and to comprehend, segregate, analyse and synthesise the various factors to determine the organisational capability. All this can be done through the process of organisational appraisal.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Future-Oriented Capability Planning (Small Group)

Scenario: Imagine a traditional brick-and-mortar retail business facing increasing competition from online retailers and changing consumer preferences.

Activity:

- **Identify 2-3 future-oriented organizational capabilities** that this business needs to develop to remain competitive in the next 5-10 years (e.g., digital marketing and e-commerce integration, data analytics and customer insights, agile supply chain, omnichannel customer experience).
- **Discuss the potential benefits and challenges** associated with developing these new capabilities.
- **Outline a high-level roadmap** suggesting the key steps the business should

7.4 TECHNIQUES USED FOR ORGANISATIONAL APPRAISAL

Organizational analysis involves the identification of factors which indicate the organizational capabilities. These factors are known as organizational capability factors, competitive advantage factors or strategic factors. The following are the organizational capability factors that exist within an organization and which are critical for the formulation and implementation of strategy:

1. **Financial Analysis** - Financial capability factors are concerned with the availability, usage and management of funds. Some of the important factors which influence an organization's financial capability are:
   - **Sources of funds**: Financing pattern (capital structure), cost of funds, financial leverage, reserves & surplus, relationship with provider of funds, etc.
   - **Usage of funds**: Fixed assets, current assets, loans & advances, dividend distribution.
   - **Management of funds**: Accounting and budgeting systems, financial control system, tax planning, return risk & management, etc.
2. **Marketing Analysis** - The main factors that influence the marketing capability of an organization are as follows:

- **Product related factors**: Product mix, branding, product positioning, differentiation, packaging, etc.
- **Price related factors**: Pricing policies, price competitiveness, value for money pricing, price changes, etc.
- **Place related factors**: Distribution network, transportation & logistics, relations with intermediaries, etc.
- **Promotion related factors**: Promotional mix, promotion tools, customer relationship management, etc.
- **Integration and control related factors**: Market standing, company image, marketing information system, marketing organization, etc.

3. **Operational Analysis -** Operations capability factors relate to the production of goods and services. Major factors influencing an organization's operation capability are as under:

    - **Production System**: Factors related to production system are plant location, capacity & its utilization, plant layout, product design, material supply system, degree of automation, extent of vertical integration, etc.
    - **Operations and Control System**: Factors related to operation & control system are production planning, inventory management, cost & quality control, maintenance system & procedures, etc.
    - **Research and Development**: Factors related to research & development are product development, R&D staff, technical collaboration & support, patent rights, level of technology used, etc.

4. **Human Resources Analysis -** In any organization, human resources make use of non-human resources. Human resource capabilities relate to the acquisition & use of human resources, skills, and all connected aspects that influence strategy formulation and implementation. Some of the important factors which determine human resource capability are given below.

    - **Factors related to the human resources system**: Human resource planning, recruitment and selection, training and development, human resource mobility, appraisal and compensation management, etc.

- **Factors related to employee retention**: Company's image as an employer, career development opportunities for employees, working conditions, employee benefits, employee motivation and morale, etc.
- **Factors related to industrial relations**: Union-Management relationship, collective bargaining, grievance handling.

The techniques used for organisational appraisal can be identical to those used for the performance evaluation of an organisation. But, there is an important difference between performance evaluation and organisational appraisal.

On the other hand, organisational appraisal is of a comprehensive and long term nature and the emphasis is not only on current behaviour but also on what the organisation needs to do in order to gain the capability to compete in the market, take advantage of the available opportunities, and overcome the threats operating in its relevant environment. Keeping in view the difference between performance evaluation and organisational appraisal, the methods and techniques used could be financial analysis and key factor rating.

D. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Case Study: Evaluating Performance at "Global Manufacturing Co."

Global Manufacturing Co. (GMC) is a large multinational corporation with several production facilities across the globe. For years, GMC has relied on a traditional annual performance review system for its employees, primarily focusing on individual goal achievement and supervisor ratings. However, the HR department has noticed several issues:

- **Low Employee Morale:** Many employees feel the annual reviews are subjective, stressful, and don't provide timely or constructive feedback for development.
- **Limited Differentiation:** The majority of employees tend to receive average ratings, making it difficult to identify high performers and those needing significant improvement.
- **Lack of Alignment with Strategic Goals:** Individual goals are not always clearly linked to the overall strategic objectives of the company.
- **Time-Consuming Process:** The annual review process is very bureaucratic and consumes a significant amount of time for both employees and managers.

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D. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS…..CONTINUE

Questions:

1. Identify at least three limitations of GMC's current traditional annual performance review system as described in the case study. Explain why each of these limitations can negatively impact the organization.
2. Suggest two alternative or supplementary organizational appraisal techniques that GMC could consider implementing. For each technique, briefly describe how it works and explain two potential benefits it could offer in addressing the limita-

7.5 LET US SUM UP

This chapter has been devoted to an understanding of the internal environment of the organisation. We started with an explanation of the dynamics of the internal environment in terms of organisational resources, behaviour, strengths and weaknesses, synergy, and distinctive competencies. All these determine the organisational capability.

Organisational capability could be understood in terms of the strengths and weaknesses existing in different functional areas. We have described organisational capability in terms of the five areas of finance, marketing, operations, personnel, and general management. For each area, we have defined the capability, listed some of the important factors that affect capability, provided a few illustrations of strengths, and some real-life examples.

The process of organisational appraisal deals with the determination of capability in terms of the strengths and weaknesses that operate in different functional areas. There are various considerations affecting organisational appraisal. We have touched upon the factors that affect such an appraisal, the approaches adopted, and the sources of information for appraisal.

Among the methods and techniques used for organisational appraisal, we have dealt with financial analysis and key factor rating. For financial analysis, we have suggested the use of the composite-index method and performance evaluation indicators, apart from the usual ratio analysis. For key factor rating, we have proposed a procedure consisting of asking questions related to different aspects in various functional areas.

Lastly, we have dealt with the structuring of organisational appraisal results. This could be done through making an organisational capability profile to be summarised in the form of a strategic advantage profile. With this, the process of organisational appraisal is completed. Organisational appraisal is used in conjunction with environmental appraisal to generate strategic alternatives and exercise strategic choice.

7.6 KEY WORDS

- **StrategicAlternatives :** These are developed to set direction in which huma and materialresources of a business will be applied to achieve the designed goal.

- **Distinctive Competence :** Anyadvantage a companyhasoveritscompetitors.

- **Market Capability :** It is related to factors like pricing, promotion and distribution.

7.7 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q1. Explain the different aspects of the internal environment emphasizing the nature of their impact on the capability of an organisation ?

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Q2. With the help of a few examples, illustrate how strengths or weaknesses create synergistic effects?

____

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Q3. What sources of information can be used for appraising an organisation?

Q4. How are the methods of financial analysis and key factor rating methods used for organisational appraisal ?

Q5. Why are strategists interested in determining organisation capability?

7.8 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q 1: Explain how an understanding of an organization's capability profile informs the selection and application of specific organizational appraisal techniques.?

Q 2: Describe at least three distinct techniques used in organizational appraisal (e.g., Benchmarking, SWOT Analysis, Organizational Audit). Highlight one key advantage and one key limitation of each technique.

Q 3: Discuss the relationship between organizational appraisal and the development of an organizational capability profile.

Q 4: Imagine an organization wants to develop a comprehensive organizational capability profile. Outline the key steps involved in this process, including how organizational appraisal techniques might be integrated at different stages.

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7.11 ANSWER KEY

A : False. True. False. False. True.

B. SWOT, EFQM, decisions, competitors, effectiveness

7.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

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STRATEGIC ALTERNATIVES

STRUCTURE

8.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this lesson are:

- To establish an inter-relationship between different strategic alternatives
- To make anassessment of diversified and integrated strategies.

Learning Outcomes

- Evaluate the appropriateness of different strategic alternatives based on an organization's internal strengths and weaknesses, external opportunities and threats (SWOT analysis), industry structure (Porter's Five Forces), and overall organizational objectives.
- Analyze the potential consequences and resource requirements associated with pursuing various strategic alternatives. apply relevant strategic management frameworks (e.g., Ansoff Matrix, Porter's Generic Strategies, BCG Matrix, Grand Strategy Matrix).
- Analyze different strategic situations and recommend suitable strategic alternatives.
- Develop and critically evaluate a range of strategic alternatives for organizations operating in diverse industries and facing different competitive environments.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Environment appraisal and organisational appraisal lead to the generation of strategic alternatives. These are the possible strategies that an organisation can consider for adoption. The choice of strategies is wide and much would depend on how an organisation perceives its strengths and weaknesses vis-a-vis the opportunities and threats the strategic alternatives that are present before any organisation. We first see a framework of grand strategies and then the dimensions along which these grand strategies could be defined. Further, we see the major types of strategies that are usually adopted by Indian organisations. We cover modernization, diversification, integration, merger, takeover, joint venture, turnaround, divestment, liquidation, and finally the combination strategies.

8.2 MEANING OF STRATEGIC ALTERNATIVES

Strategic alternatives are strategies that a business develops to set the direction for which human and material resources will be applied, for a greater chance of achieving selected goals. Generally, a company develops strategic alternatives when it's struggling and seeking a new direction to increase profits, or even simply to save itself from dissolution or bankruptcy.

8.3 TYPES OF STRATEGIES- GRAND STRATEGIES

Strategic alternatives are strategies that a business develops to set the direction for which human and material resources will be applied, for a greater chance of achieving selected goals. Generally, a company develops strategic alternatives when it's struggling and seeking a new direction to increase profits, or even simply to save itself from dissolution or bankruptcy..

8.3.1 Stability Strategies

Stability grand strategy is adopted by an organisation when it attempts at incremental improvement of functional performance in terms of its customer groups, customer

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A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Fill in the Blanks:

1. A ______ strategy is aimed at achieving growth through expanding operations or entering new markets.
2. The ______ strategy focuses on maintaining the current level of operations and avoiding major changes.
3. A ______ strategy is used when a company needs to reduce the scale or scope of its operations.
4. Diversification can be of two types: related and ______ diversification.
5. When a company expands by acquiring or merging with a firm at a different stage of the supply chain, it is called ______ integration.
6. In ______ integration, a company acquires or merges with a competitor in the same industry.

8.3.1.1 A packaged tea company provides special service to its institutional buyers in order to encourage bulk buying and thus improve its marketing efficiency.

8.3.1.2 A copier machine company provides better after-sales service to its existing customers to improve its company and product image and increase sales of accessories and consumables.

8.3.1.3 A steel company modernises its plant to improve efficiency and productivity.

Note that all three companies here do not go beyond what they are doing presently; they serve the same markets with the present products using the existing technology. The strategies aim at stability by causing the companies to marginally improve their performance or, at least, letting them remain where they are in case they face a volatile environment and a highly competitive market. The essence of stability strategy is, therefore, not doing nothing but sustaining moderate growth in line with the existing trends. Where substantial growth is aimed at, the strategy to be adopted is that of expansion.

8.3.2 Expansion Strategies

Expansion grand strategy is followed when an organization substantially broadens the scope of its customer groups, customer functions, and alternative technologies-singly or jointly-in order to improve its performance.

Because of the many reasons expansion strategies are quite popular. Given below are three examples to show how companies can aim at expansion either in terms of customer groups, customer functions, or alternative technologies.

8.3.2.1 A chocolate manufacturer expands its customer groups to include middle-aged and old persons to its existing customers comprising children and adolescents.

8.3.2.2 A stockbroker's firm offers personalized financial services to small investors apart from its normal function of dealing in shares and debentures in order to increase the scope of its business and spread its risks.

8.3.2.3 A printing firm changes from the traditional letterpress printing to desktop publishing in order to increase its production and efficiency.

In each of the above cases, the company moves in one or the other direction so as to substantially alter its present business definition. Expansion strategies have a profound impact on the company's internal configuration, causing extensive changes in almost all aspects of internal functioning. As compared to stability, expansion strategies are more risky.

Sometimes strategists-like army commanders do think it better to retreat than to advance. It is in such situations that retrenchment is a feasible strategic alternative.

8.3.3 Retrenchment Strategies

Retrenchment grand strategy is followed when an organization substantially reduces the scope of either its customer groups, customer functions, or alternative technologies-singly or jointly-in order to improve its performance.

Retrenchment involves total or partial withdrawal from either a customer group, customer function, or use of an alternative technology, as can be seen from the situations given below.

8.3.3.1 A pharmaceutical firm pulls out from retail selling to concentrate on institutional selling in order to reduce its sales force and increase marketing efficiency.

8.3.3.2 A corporate hospital decides to focus only on specialty treatment and realize higher revenues by reducing its commitment to general cases which are typically less profitable to deal with.

8.3.3.3 A training institution attempts to serve a large clientele through the distance learning system and discards its face-to-face interaction methodology of training in order to reduce its expenses and use the existing facilities and personnel more efficiently.

In this manner, retrenchment attempts to "trim the fat" and results in a "slimmer" organisation bereft of unprofitable customer groups, customer functions, or alternative technologies. All the situations described above are, in fact, an over-simplification of the complex reality that an organisation faces. In order to deal with real-life situations, organisations have to evolve a combination of the three grand strategies.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
Tick the Correct Answer:

1. **Which stability strategy involves making only minimal changes to maintain the status quo?**
   A. Growth strategy
   B. Profit strategy
   C. No-change strategy
   D. Pause/proceed-with-caution strategy
2. **A pause/proceed-with-caution strategy is usually adopted:**
   A. After a major expansion or acquisition
   B. When a company is about to shut down
   C. When a firm wants to immediately diversify
   D. During hostile takeovers
6. **Which of the following is a retrenchment strategy?**
   A. No-change strategy
   B. Horizontal integration
   C. Divestment
   D. Forward integration
7. **Which of the following involves selling off part of the business to raise funds or reduce losses?**
   A. Merger
   B. Divestment
   C. Joint venture
   D. No-change strategy
3. **Liquidation strategy means:**
   A. Merging with a competitor
   B. Selling off assets and ceasing operations
   C. Expanding through acquisition
   D. Increasing product lines**Which stability strategy involves making only minimal changes to maintain the status quo?**
   A. Growth strategy
   B. Profit strategy
   C. No-change strategy
   D. Pause/proceed-with-caution strategy
4. **A pause/proceed-with-caution strategy is usually adopted:**
   A. After a major expansion or acquisition
   B. When a company is about to shut down
   C. When a firm wants to immediately diversify
   D. During hostile takeovers
8. **Which of the following is a retrenchment strategy?**
   A. No-change strategy
   B. Horizontal integration
   C. Divestment
   D. Forward integration

8.3.4 Combination Strategies

Combination grand strategy is followed when an organisation adopts a mixture of stability, expansion, and retrenchment, either at the same time in its different businesses or at different times in the same business with the aim of improving its performance.

Any combination strategy is the result of a serious attempt on the part of strategists to take into account the variety of environmental and organizational factors that affect the process of strategy formulation. Complex situations generally require complex solutions. Combination strategies are the complex solutions that strategies have to offer when faced with the complications of real-life business. Observe how the two companies below deal with the complex situations they face.

A paints company augments its offerings of decorative paints to provide a wider variety to its customers (stability) and expands its product range to include industrial and automotive paints (expansion). Simultaneously, it decides to close down the division which undertakes large-scale painting contract jobs (retrenchment).

Over the years, strategic changes at a large business group indicate that it has been strengthening its manufacturing base and divesting its trading activities. Stability has been aimed at in some of its divisions by retrenching the unprofitable products and services while major expansion has taken place in the case of its industrial products and construction business. A variety of grand strategies have thus been followed, both sequentially and simultaneously, creating a complex structure of strategies in line with the nature of the conglomerate that the company actually is.

8.4 MODERNIZATION STRATEGIES

In developing countries like India, technology is often employed as a strategic and competitive tool. Modernization, which basically involves technological upgradation, is used to achieve organisational objectives such as increased production, lower costs, efficiency, productivity, etc. Here, modernization is dealt with, not in an operational manner indicating technological upgradation, but in a strategic sense. With respect to the classification of strategic alternatives (described in the previous section), modernisation could be considered as:

- Internal stability strategy if the pace of modernisation is low to moderate;
- Internal expansion strategy if the pace of modernisation is high;
- External expansion strategy if the organisation merges with or acquires another company for the purpose of modernisation;
- Internal retrenchment strategy if resources are redirected from one area to another with the aim of modernisation; and

- External retrenchment if part of the organisation is divested or liquidated with the aim of modernisation.

8.4.1 Reasons for Adopting Modernisation Strategies

Modernisation strategies are used for different reasons. As we pointed out earlier, some of these are: increasing production, lowering costs, improving efficiency and productivity, etc. Most of these objectives apparently seem to be aimed at improving the overall performance, but they may also be aimed at increasing competitive ability.

Consider these examples:

8.4.1.1 National Organic Chemicals Industries Ltd. (NOCIL), a major manufacturer of petrochemicals in the private sector, undertook a Rs. 100 crore modernisation plan in order to compete effectively.

8.4.1.2 Modi Industries Ltd has planned to invest Rs. 30 crore for technological upgradation of its steel unit, primarily for widening its product range.

8.4.1.3 The corporate planning team at Steel Authority of India Ltd. (SAIL) envisages a Rs. 15,000 crore capital spending programme spread over seven years to modernize its steel plants with a variety of objectives such as lower costs, energy saving, higher capacity utilisation, closing down unprofitable units, etc.

Modernisation could be used for different purposes as can be seen from the above examples. Some of these could be operational, but most modernisation programmes involve a huge amount of resources and are aimed at gaining competitive and strategic strengths. Some organisations, in fact, build their strategies around technology. The next sub-section deals with such strategies.

8.4.2 Technology as a Strategic Tool

In a developing country like India, technology assumes a special role in strategic management. Organisations look to different sources: in-house research and development, indigenous technologies, and foreign collaborations for technology employed for the production of goods and services. With increasing competitiveness and stress on quality, technology is increasingly being recognised as a strategic tool. A strong Research and Development set-up and trained technical personnel are viewed as corporate strengths. Lack of appreciation of the importance of technology often results in loss of competitiveness and, in extreme cases, may lead to a threat to profitable existence.

Modernisation strategies are extensively used by Indian organisations quite often for providing stability and sometimes as a prerequisite to the adoption of other strategies like expansion and diversification.

8.5 DIVERSIFICATION AND INTEGRATION STRATEGIES

Vertical integration involves a firm moving into a new part of a value chain that it is already within; diversification requires moving into an entirely new value chain.

Diversification is a much-used and much-talked-about strategy. In reality, it is not a strategy but a set of strategies. These strategies involve all the dimensions of strategic alternatives. Diversification may involve internal or external, related or unrelated, horizontal or vertical, and active or passive dimensions-either singly or collectively.

8.5.1 Different Types of Diversification Strategies

1. **Vertical Integration** :-When an organisation starts making new products that serve its own needs, vertical integrationtakes place. Inother words, anynew activity undertaken with the purpose of either supplying inputs (such as raw materials) orservingasacustomerforoutputs(suchasmarketingoffirm'sproduct) is vertical integration

   Vertical integration could be of two types: **backward and forward integration**. Backward integration means moving towards the source of raw materials, while forward integration involves taking up activities that will bring the organisation nearer to the ultimate customer.

2. **Horizontal Integration:** When an organisation takes up the same type of products at the same level of production or marketing process, it is said to follow a strategy of horizontal integration. When a luggage company takes over its rival luggage company, it is horizontal integration (or merger). Horizontal integration strategy may be frequently adopted with a view to geographically expand by taking up a competitor in another area, to increase the market share, and to benefit from economies of scale. For example, Solidaire India Ltd, a prominent manufacturer of TVs with a sizeable presence in markets in southern India, started with the name of HiBeam Electronics Ltd in 1974. Subsequently, this unit was merged with two other units to form a consortium called TriStar Electronics. In 1978, the brand name Solidaire was adopted. The growth strategy of the company in this manner started with horizontal integration. Another recent example of horizontal integration is the takeover of Neyveli

Ceramics and Refractories Ltd. (Neycer) by Spartek Ceramics India Ltd. Both companies are in sanitaryware and tile production. By acquiring Neycer, Spartek now becomes the largest ceramic tile manufacturer in the country.

3. **Concentric Diversification:** When an organisation takes up an activity in such a manner that it is related to its existing business definition either in terms of customer groups, customer functions, or alternative technologies, it is concentric diversification. Concentric diversification may be of three types:
   - **Marketing and technology-related concentric diversification:** When a similar type of product (or service) is provided with the help of related technology, e.g., a raincoat manufacturer makes other rubber-based items such as waterproof shoes and rubber gloves sold through the same retail outlets.
   - **Technology-related concentric diversification:** When a new type of product or service is provided with the help of related technology, e.g., a leasing firm offers hire-purchase services to institutional customers and consumer financing for purchase of durables to individual customers.
   - **Marketing-related concentric diversification:** When a similar type of product is offered with the help of unrelated technology, e.g., a company in the sewing machine business diversifies into kitchenware and household appliances, which are sold through a chain of retail stores to housewives.

4. **Conglomerate Diversification:** When an organisation adopts a strategy which requires taking up those activities which are unrelated to its existing business definition either in terms of customer groups, customer functions, or alternative technologies, it is conglomerate diversification. Frequently, such companies are referred to as conglomerates. There are several examples of Indian companies which have adopted a path of growth and expansion through conglomerate diversification. The classic example is of ITC, a cigarette company diversifying into the hotel industry. Some other recent examples are of the Essar Group (shipping, marine construction, oil support services, iron and steel); Shriram Fibres Ltd. (nylon industrial yarn, synthetic industrial fabrics, engineering plastics, fluorocarbon refrigerant gases, ball and needle bearings, auto-electricals, hire-purchase and leasing, and financial services); the Polar group (fans, marble, and granite), and the TTK group (pressure cookers, chemicals, pharmaceuticals, hosiery, contraceptives, publishing, etc.).

8.5.2 Why are Diversification Strategies Adopted?

There are many reasons why organisations adopt diversification strategies. The three basic and important reasons are:

1. Diversification strategies are adopted to minimise risk by spreading it over several businesses.

2. Diversification may be used to capitalise on organisational strength or minimise weaknesses.

3. Diversification may be the only way out if growth in existing businesses is blocked due to environmental and regulatory factors.

The different types of diversification strategies described above (vertical, horizontal, concentric, and conglomerate diversification) each have their own advantages and disadvantages.

Diversification strategies have been adopted by a number of business groups and individual companies both in the public and private sectors. While BHEL had undertaken the path of backward integration from the manufacture of assorted equipment such as switchgears and transformers to the full-fledged production of thermal, hydel, and nuclear power generation equipment, another public sector giant, Oil India Ltd (OIL), operating in oil exploration and production, plans to diversify into related areas such as gas cracking. The reputed multinational affiliate, ITC Ltd, claims to have diversified into hotels, papers; agri-business, packaging, and printing from its original cigarette business in response to national objectives and priorities. Smaller companies like Blowplast in the moulded luggage industry (now in plastic seating systems, and marketing of branded toys), Unitech in civil engineering (now in steelmaking, exports, consumer electronics, power transmission, and real estate) are some other examples of diversified companies. The services sector has not been left untouched by the motivation to diversify. LIC in insurance business is now also in a related area of mutual funds. Banks, like SBI and Canara Bank, too have moved from traditional banking to merchant and mutual funds. Peerless General Finance & Investment Co., the country's largest non-banking investment company with investible resources of about Rs. 800 crore, plans to move into related areas of finance, adopting a defensive diversification strategy to generate more resources to contain rising establishment costs.

It is not necessary that all diversification strategies prove to be successful. In fact, both related as well as unrelated diversification which have high-risk, high-return possibilities have often proved to be disasters. For example, Metal Box, the largest packaging company in India, has faced huge problems, mainly due to badly planned diversification into the manufacture of bearings. But even a high-risk unrelated diversification strategy may be adopted if it could be implemented properly. Exhibit 2.23 illustrates how a light engineering company managed its diversification into yarn manufacture.

Diversification strategies offer high rewards if steps are taken for their proper implementation. We will refer to this issue later when we deal with strategy implementation.

8.6 Merger, Takeover, and Joint Venture Strategies

Merger and takeover (or acquisition) strategies basically involve the external approach to expansion. Basically two, or occasionally more than two, entities are involved. There is not much difference in the three terms used for such types of strategies and they are frequently used synonymously. But a subtle distinction can be made. While mergers take place when the objectives of the buyer.

Takeover is a common way for acquisition and may be defined as “the attempt (often sprung as a surprise) of one firm to acquire ownership or control over another firm against the wishes of the latter’s management (and perhaps some of its stockholders)”. But this definition may not be taken very seriously as many takeovers, in practice, may not have any element of surprise, and may not necessarily be against the wishes of the acquired firm. In fact, takeovers are frequently classified as **hostile takeovers** (which are against the wishes of the acquired firm) and **friendly takeovers** (by mutual consent in which case they could also be described as a merger). Without being too fastidious, one can use these terms synonymously. (Remember Business Policy is in an evolutionary phase and such confusion in terms has often to be taken in one’s stride.)

Another important point to note, before we move further, is that these strategies are very often used as a means of diversification. Recall, for instance, the example in the previous section related to horizontal integration. Spartek took over Neycer in order to integrate horizontally. HiBeam Electronics merged with two other units to form Tristar Electronics, subsequently named as Solidaire India Ltd. Merger and takeover strategies are, therefore, also the means of achieving diversification and integration. Another means of diversification is that of joint ventures. We describe mergers, takeovers, and joint venture strategies below.

8.6.1 Merger Strategies

A **merger** is a combination (other terms used: amalgamation or consolidation or integration) of two or more organisations in which one acquires the assets and liabilities of the other in exchange for shares or cash, or both the organisations are dissolved, and assets and liabilities are combined and new stock is issued. For the organisation which acquires another, it is an acquisition. For the organisation which is acquired, it is a merger. If both organisations dissolve their identity to create a new organisation, it is consolidation.

Types of Mergers

Mergers may be of different types. Like integration, mergers may be classified as under:

1. **Horizontal mergers** take place when there is a combination of two or more organisations in the same business, or of organisations engaged in certain aspects of the production or marketing processes. For instance, a company making footwear combines with another footwear company, or a retailer of pharmaceuticals combines with another retailer in the same business.

2. **Vertical mergers** take place when there is a combination of two or more organisations, not necessarily in the same business, which create complementarity either in terms of supply of materials (inputs) or marketing of goods and services (outputs). For instance, a footwear company combines with a leather tannery or with a chain of shoe retail stores.

3. **Concentric mergers** take place when there is a combination of two or more organisations related to each other either in terms of customer functions, customer groups, or alternative technologies used. Thus, a footwear company combining with a hosiery firm making socks or another speciality footwear company, or with a leather goods company making purses, handbags, etc.

4. **Conglomerate mergers** take place when there is a combination of two or more organisations unrelated to each other, either in terms of customer functions, customer groups, or alternative technologies used, e.g., a footwear company combining with a pharmaceutical firm.

Reasons for Mergers

For a merger to take place, two organisations have to act. One is the buyer organisation and the other is the seller. Both these types of organizations have a set of reasons on the basis of which they merge. Glueck has identified the reasons as follows:

Why the buyer wishes to merge:

1. To increase the value of the organisation's stock.

2. To increase the growth rate and make a good investment.

3. To improve stability of earnings and sales.
4. To balance, complete, or diversify product line.
5. To reduce competition.
6. To acquire a needed resource quickly.
7. To avail tax concessions and benefits.
8. To take advantages of synergy.

Why the seller wishes to merge:

1. To increase the value of the owner's stock and investment.
2. To increase the growth rate.
3. To acquire resources to stabilise operations.
4. To benefit from tax legislation.
5. To deal with top management succession problem.

Important Issues in Mergers

There are many issues of importance that have to be dealt with in mergers. These are: the strategic, financial, managerial, and legal issues.

1. **Strategic issues** relate to the commonality of strategic interests between the buyer and seller firms. It is important to consider the extent to which a merger may lead to positive synergistic effects. For this, the strategic advantages and distinctive competencies of the merging firms have to be analyzed. Besides these, there has to be a match between the objectives of the firms. A merger should ideally lead to the generation of strengths that would help the post-merger organisation to achieve its objectives in a better manner.

2. **Financial issues** relate to the valuation of the seller firm and the sources of financing for mergers to take place. Valuation involves assessing the value of the seller firm. Though difficult, value may be assessed keeping in view the assets, market standing and opportunity, earnings potential, or stock value. A common procedure is to use the **discounted cash flow (DCF) method**. If liquidation of assets is involved, the **capital asset pricing method (CAPM)** may be used. The procedures of DCF, CAPM, and other methods for the valuation of firms are well-documented and available in most standard texts in the finance area. The other

major financial consideration is the source of financing. Acquisition of shares through exchange of debt and equity is a method. Often used abroad to avoid cash outflow, it is difficult in India due to the provisions of capital gains taxation. Banks, stock markets, and financial institutions are also sources but are not encouraged to provide finance for mergers to take place. Only in cases where the merger is a part of a rehabilitation plan is such financing overlooked. Non-resident Indians or resident shareholdings are also important sources. Industrialists also use previously collected funds lying idle owing to project implementation delays. Thus, the valuation of seller firms and the sources of merger financing are important financial issues in mergers.

3. **Managerial issues** in mergers relate to the problems of managing firms after the merger has taken place. It is important to note that the perception of how the management will take place after merger also matters and affects the process of the merger itself. Usually, mergers are followed by changes in staff, especially chief executives and top managers. If there is an assurance that merger will lead to a status quo, or that 'professional management' would be adopted, then the merger may take place smoothly. On the contrary, if the merger is threatening, it results in its opposition by well-entrenched groups of managers making the process of merger difficult.

4. **Legal issues** in mergers relate to the provisions made in law for the purpose of mergers. In India, the provisions relating to mergers and amalgamations, and other schemes are contained in Chapter V of the Companies Act, 1956. This chapter could be divided into three parts: Sections 390 to 394A and 396A, Section 395, and Section 396. Section 390 deals with the definitions of a company arrangement and unsecured creditors. Provisions of Sections 391, 392 and 394 relate to the procedure for obtaining the approval and powers of the court regarding compromise or arrangement to enforce these powers, and information as to compromises or arrangements with creditors and members. Section 394 states the provisions for facilitating reconstructions and amalgamations of companies. Section 394A empowers the central government to become a statutory party to petitions lying before High Courts. Section 395 provides for the power and duty to acquire shares of shareholders dissenting from the scheme of amalgamation or contract approval by majority. Section 396 states the powers of the central government to provide for the amalgamation of companies in the national interest. The last section in Chapter V of the Companies Act, 1956 deals with the preservation of books and papers of the amalgamated company.

The implementation of the strategies of mergers and takeovers requires a thorough understanding of the related legal provisions. It is interesting to note that the term 'merger' is not used in the Companies Act; only the term 'amalgamation' is used in Section 394 of the Act. The only section that deals with the transfer of shares (or takeover bids) is Section 395. Apart from the Companies Act, and the MRTP Act, Section 72A(I) of the Income Tax Act is also relevant for taxation purposes of amalgamated companies and provides for carrying accumulated losses and unabsorbed depreciation of the amalgamating company.

8.6.2 Takeover Strategies

Takeover or acquisition is currently the most popular strategy being adopted by Indian companies. During the three decades after Independence, the normal route of growth was through licensing and setting up new projects. The current decade has seen an increasing use of takeover strategies (or simply takeovers) as the means of rapid growth.

The Current Scene

The statistics related to takeovers are both revealing and interesting. Currently, of the top hundred private sector companies, more than **40** have been involved in takeovers either as "raiders" or "targets" or "victims". Out of a total market capitalisation of **Rs. 25,000 crore** in India in 1986-87, around **Rs. 18,000 crore (7% of the total)** changed hands. For 1988, it is expected to be **10%** and further increase is expected for 1989 and 1990. Almost all the top 20 business houses in the country have either taken over new companies, or handed control of their units to someone else. Major companies which have been taken over in the last few years include Shaw Wallace, Ashok Leyland, Dunlop, Harrison Malayalam, ICIM, ACC, L&T, Shalimar Paints, Scindia Steamship, and many others. The individuals involved in a majority of takeovers are non-resident Indians like Manu Chhabaria and the Hinduja brothers, local industrialists like R.P. Goenka, Dhirubhai Ambani, and Vijay Mallya. It is believed that the Chhabrias, who were virtually unknown till 1985, now have companies worth **Rs. 1,500 crore** and the Goenka group have gone up from **Rs. 70 crore** in 1979 to **Rs. 1000 crore** in ten years.

How Takeovers Take Place

Certain guidelines can be proposed for takeovers to take place systematically. For instance, a six-step procedure recommended for acquisition includes the following:

1. Spell out the objective.
2. Indicate how the objective would be achieved.

3. Assess managerial quality.
4. Check the compatibility of business styles.
5. Anticipate and solve problems early.
6. Treat people with dignity and concern.

It is interesting to know how the much-talked about takeovers take place in reality. First, the motivation for takeover is defined, albeit informally. The reasons for takeover may be many: quick growth, diversification, establishing oneself as an industrialist, reducing competition, increasing the market share, or even creating goodwill (if sick units are taken over for rehabilitation). Besides these 'rational' reasons, there might be others which are purely irrational such as greed or lust for becoming rich, to accumulate wealth, to build an "industrial empire", to humble competitors and business opponents. The second step in a takeover is to arrange for financing. We referred to the different modes of financing of mergers earlier in this section and they are valid for financing takeovers also. (In fact, much of what we said about mergers related to the types of reasons for, and issues in, mergers is relevant to takeovers as there is not much distinction between merger and acquisition). Apart from these, there are **leveraged buyouts (LBOs)** or **bootstrap acquisitions** which involve raising funds by pledging the assets of the firm to be taken over. After finances have been arranged, a move—usually discreet—is made through a trusted intermediary, who is either an accountant, a lawyer, or a businessman. Development and merchant bankers too act as intermediaries. Negotiations are made keeping in view a number of factors like the valuation of assets, business goodwill, market opportunities, growth potential, etc. and a final arrangement made by fixing the price to be paid for shares transfer. In this manner, a friendly takeover is consummated.

Hostile takeovers (where a takeover is resisted, or is expected to be opposed, by the existing management or professionals) follow a different route. Here the shares are picked from the open markets and controlling interests obtained. With the tacit help of other majority shareholders (usually one or more of the financial institutions), a bid is made to enter the company's board and to acquire control. Resistance is offered by the existing management by refusing to register the transfer of shares, or to forestall the moves by delays through court orders and injunctions. It is believed that political support matters a lot in the measure of success achieved in a bid to takeover a firm.

Pros and Cons of Takeovers

Arguments for and against are often put forth related to takeovers. One school of thought believes that takeovers are necessary and desirable (at least, not bad) because they ensure management accountability, offer easy growth opportunities, create mobility of resources, avoid gestation period and hurdles involved in new projects, offer a chance to sick units to survive, and open up alternatives for selective divestment. The opponents of takeovers argue that professionalism gets replaced by money power, that takeovers do not create any real assets for society and are detrimental to the national economy, the interest of minority shareholders is not protected, and unavoidable stress and strains are created in the companies taken over or exposed to the threat of takeovers.

Emerging Trends in Takeovers

Despite arguments against takeovers, the phenomenon is becoming rather common and is expected to proliferate in the near future. It is also evident that the criticism of unhealthy takeovers in business and popular opinion is going to create conditions to plug the loopholes in the mandatory and legal provision and streamline the process of takeovers. Even in the absence of such clear provisions, there are companies that have adopted a non-controversial method to take over other firms. An example of such a company is Tata Tea, which had made an open offer through the newspapers to acquire Consolidated Coffee Ltd., a company in which it already had a minority holding. Another form of takeover that may gain currency is using the concept of 'strategic alliance' in which an acquirer firm is helped to gain a foothold in the shareholding and allowed to take over the management. The original promoters retain their share and control. This sort of alliance is believed to work to the advantage of both the parties involved. Examples of 'strategic alliances' in India are the takeovers of International Computers India Manufacture Ltd (ICIM) and Harrisons and Malayalam Ltd, (HML) by the RPG (Goenka) group. For ICIM and HML, the advantages anticipated are: local management (since both are multinationals), dilution of the FERA image, greater flow of credit for meeting working capital requirements and access to industry and the government. For the RPG group the likely benefits are: a quick entry into promising areas of electronics and computers, consolidation in existing businesses of tyres, tea plantations, and agroproducts. Another interesting development is that of a sick company being taken over by workers. As part of a rehabilitation package, workers were allowed to take over Kamani Tubes Ltd. The takeover of a number of other companies is also under consideration.

Takeovers in India—though most of them have been controversial and, consequently, have faced adverse publicity—are expected to be a viable strategic alternative for organisations which choose the external expansion strategy. In fact, where the reasons for takeover are rational—making it a part of the investment portfolio, using it to consolidate capacities, taking assistance in diversification and integrations, and creating synergistic effects—there, a takeover strategy is a good proposition.

8.6.3 Joint Venture Strategies

Mergers refer to a combination of two or more companies into one company and may be possible in two ways-absorption and consolidation. Absorption takes place in mergers and acquisitions where the company acquires another company. Consolidation takes place when two or more companies combine to form a new company. **Joint ventures** are a special case of consolidation where "two or more companies form a temporary partnership (also called, 'consortium') for a specified purpose."

Conditions for Joint Ventures

Joint ventures may be useful to gain access to new business mainly under four conditions:

1. When an activity is uneconomical for an organisation to do alone.
2. When the risk of business has to be shared and, therefore, is reduced for the participating firms.
3. When the distinctive competence of two or more organisations can be brought together.
4. When setting up an organisation requires surmounting hurdles such as import quotas, tariffs, nationalistic political interests, and cultural roadblocks.

From the above conditions, it can be seen that joint ventures are an effective strategy when development costs have to be shared, risks spread out, and expertise combined to make effective use of resources.

Types of Joint Ventures

Joint ventures are common within industries and in various countries. But they are specially useful for entering international markets. From the point of view of Indian organisations, the following types of joint ventures are possible:

1. Between two firms in one industry.
2. Between two firms across different industries.

3. Between an Indian firm and a foreign company in India.
4. Between an Indian firm and a foreign company in that foreign country.
5. Between an Indian firm and a foreign company in a third country.

Strategic Issues in Joint Ventures

Joint ventures offer the advantage of achieving objectives mutually by the participating firms. Eliminating, controlling, or reducing competition may be of strategic importance and can be brought about through joint ventures. Increasing the market share can also be achieved. Diversification strategies may be adopted by participating firms if a joint venture is planned across different industries. If technology is a critical variable in strategy, then joint ventures with foreign companies can be feasible. If legal and regulatory hurdles come in the way of external expansion, they could be subverted through a joint venture strategy of combining with a foreign firm in that foreign country or in a third country. Environmental threats within the country or opportunities abroad may cause firms to undertake joint ventures.

Strategic advantages are important for joint ventures to be set up and sustained. Consider the following examples:

- Becon Kone Ltd was set up in 1987 by Best & Crompton Engineering Ltd in collaboration with Kone Corporation, Finland and the Finnish Fund for Industrial Development with equity participation. The major advantage expected is benefit of expertise in adopting expansion and diversification strategies by BEST & Crompton in future.
- Thermax Private Ltd is a major company and exporter in steam generation industry. Its strategy is built around technology and it has more than half-a-dozen foreign tie-ups. Its latest joint venture is with Babcock & Wilcox, which is a world leader in boiler technology. A major strategic advantage anticipated is that of extension of product lifecycle of its boilers and increase in capacity.
- Oil exploration is an activity that involves large investments and carries considerable risks. In India, it has been the exclusive preserve of public sector companies like ONGC. But now Hindustan Oil Exploration Co. Ltd (HOEC) plans to work in cooperation with Asia Foundations Construction Company (AFCC) and they have jointly established Hindustan Prakla Geophysical Company with technical collaboration with Prakla Seismos AG of West Germany. These two companies

HOEC and AFCC have also set up another joint venture, Hindage Oilfield Services with another collaboration with a Canadian company. Such a complex joint venture setup has been necessitated due to the strategic needs of getting the needed expertise and taking advantage of environmental opportunities.

- The prospects of higher profitability, expansion outside the ambit of MRTP restrictions, creation of future markets for replacement sales, and opportunities for regular technology upgradation have prompted many Indian companies to set up joint ventures abroad. The Tata group (hotels, commercial vehicles, leather); the Birlas (textile, sugar and viscose staple fibre); the Oberois (hotels); and the Kirloskars (engineering) are the large Indian companies which have joint ventures abroad.

- Finally, it is important to note that joint sector projects are a very common phenomenon in India. The major strategic advantages expected are: broad-based equity participation, access to governmental and political support, and entering new fields of business. Some examples of joint sector projects are: Pepsico-Voltas' Punjab Agro Industries Corporation; Haldia Petrochemicals (West Bengal Government and the R.P. Goenka group); and Nagarjuna Fertilisers (A.P. Government and the Nagarjuna group).

Benefits and Drawbacks in Joint Ventures

The major benefits that are likely to accrue from joint ventures include: minimising risk, reducing an individual company's investment, having access to foreign technology and equity participation, and synergistic advantages. The disadvantages that may arise in joint ventures are: problems in equity participation, foreign exchange regulations, lack of proper coordination among participating firms, cultural and behavioral differences, and the possibility of conflict among the partners.

A special mention need be made of joint ventures abroad by Indian companies as they have become significant in recent years. Sometimes, these take the form of joint enterprises with firms from other countries, which along with Indian firms set up projects in third countries. Administratively, the Ministry of Commerce deals with joint ventures. Increased liberalisation of policies since 1976 related to joint ventures has led to an increase in the number of joint ventures abroad, which in 1987 were about **180**. Despite the problems faced, joint ventures offer a viable strategic alternative for organisations interested in external expansion strategies.

8.7 TURNAROUND, DIVESTMENT AND LIQUIDATION STRATEGIES

In the beginning of this lesson we said that retrenchment grand strategy is followed when an organisation substantially reduces the scope of its activity. This is done through an attempt to find out the problem areas and diagnose the causes of the problems. Next, steps are taken to solve the problems. These steps result in different kinds of retrenchment strategies. If the organisation chooses to focus on ways and means to reverse the process of decline, it adopts a **turnaround strategy**. If it cuts off the loss-making units, divisions, or SBUs, curtails its product line, or reduces the functions performed, it adopts a **divestment (or divestiture) strategy**. If none of these actions work then it may choose to abandon the activities totally, resulting in a **liquidation strategy**. We deal with each of these strategies below.

8.7.1 Turnaround Strategies

Retrenchment may be done either internally or externally. For internal retrenchment to take place, emphasis is laid on improving internal efficiency. This usually takes the form of an **operating turnaround strategy**. In contrast, a **strategic turnaround** is a more serious form of external retrenchment and leads to divestment or liquidation. Turnaround strategies derive their name from the action involved, i.e., reversing a negative trend.

Conditions for Turnaround Strategies

There are certain conditions or indicators which point out that a turnaround is needed if the organisation has to survive. These danger signs are:

1. Persistent negative cash flow
2. Negative profits
3. Declining market share
4. Deterioration in physical facilities
5. Overmanning, high turnover of employees, and low morale
6. Uncompetitive products or services
7. Mismanagement

An organisation which faces one or more of these problems is often referred to as a 'sick' company.

Managing Turnaround

There are three ways in which turnarounds can be handled.

1. The existing chief executive and management team handles the entire turnaround strategy with the advisory support of a specialist external consultant. The use of this method can only be successful if the chief executive has a reasonable amount of credibility left with the banks and financial institutions, and a qualified consultant is available. This type of turnaround management, that is, under the existing team, is rarely attempted.

2. In another situation, the existing team withdraws temporarily and an executive consultant or turnaround specialist is employed to do the job. This person is usually deputed by the banks and financial institutions and after the job is over, reverts to the original position. This method is also very rarely used in India.

3. The last method-the one most difficult to attempt but that is most often used-involves replacement of the existing team, especially the chief executive, or merging the sick organisation with a healthy one.

Approaches to Turnaround

When a chief executive (CE) is replaced by another, the new incumbent can broadly follow two types of approaches; **surgical** or **humane**. The surgical approach to turnaround involves a tough attitude and the pattern of action followed is roughly the same everywhere. The new CE quickly asserts his authority by issuing orders.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Case Study:
A medium-sized electronics company has recently suffered heavy losses due to changing technology trends and stiff competition. The management is considering strategic alternatives to survive and grow.

Questions:

a. Which type of grand strategy should the company consider and why?

b. If the company decides to shut down one of its unprofitable units, which strategy is it using?

c. Suggest a stability strategy the company could adopt once it regains balance.

8.8 C

Com ... a mixt ... n occur either simultaneously across different business units or sequentially within the same business over different periods, all with the overarching goal of improving overall performance.

It's important to understand that a combination strategy isn't a standalone grand strategy itself, but rather a flexible approach that synthesizes the core elements of the other main grand strategies:

- **Stability Strategy:** Focuses on maintaining the current scope of operations, preserving market share, and achieving incremental growth. This could involve improving efficiency, optimizing existing processes, or focusing on customer retention.

- **Expansion (Growth) Strategy:** Aims to significantly increase the organization's scale of operations, market presence, and revenue. This can be achieved through various means like concentration (deepening presence in existing markets/products), integration (vertical or horizontal), diversification (related or unrelated), or internationalization.

- **Retrenchment Strategy:** Involves reducing the scope of the organization's activities, often to improve efficiency, cut losses, or refocus on core competencies. This includes strategies like turnaround (reversing decline), divestment (selling off parts of the business), or even liquidation (winding down operations).

Why are Combination Strategies Adopted?

Combination strategies are typically chosen when a single grand strategy isn't sufficient to address the complexities of a real-life business environment. This is particularly true for:

1. **Large and Complex Organizations:** Companies with multiple business units, diversified product portfolios, and operations across national or global markets often face varied conditions. A "one-size-fits-all" strategy won't work.

2. **Dynamic and Changing Environments:** In rapidly evolving markets, organizations need flexibility to adapt. Some parts of the business might be thriving and require expansion, while others might be struggling and need to be scaled back or revitalized.

3. **Serious Attempts at Holistic Improvement:** Strategists use combination strategies to account for various environmental and organizational factors that influence strategy formulation. It's a pragmatic approach to offering complex solutions for complex situations.

Types of Combination Strategies

Combination strategies can manifest in two primary ways:

1. **Simultaneous Combination:** This involves applying different grand strategies to different business units or divisions *at the same time*.
   - **Example:** A diversified conglomerate might pursue expansion in its fast-growing technology division, maintain stability in its mature manufacturing unit, and implement a retrenchment strategy (e.g., divestment) for an unprofitable consumer goods division, all concurrently.
2. **Sequential Combination:** This involves applying different grand strategies to the *same* business unit or organization *at different times* over a period.
   - **Example:** A company might initially focus on a turnaround strategy to revive a struggling product line (retrenchment). Once profitability is restored, it might then shift to an expansion strategy to grow that product line, and eventually settle into a stability strategy once it reaches maturity.

Examples of Combination Strategies (with an Indian context)

- **Paints Company Example (Simultaneous Combination):**
  - **Stability:** Augmenting decorative paints offerings with a wider variety. This strengthens the core business and ensures its continued relevance and competitiveness.
  - **Expansion:** Expanding the product range to include industrial and automotive paints. This is a diversification move (related diversification) to enter new market segments and drive growth.
  - **Retrenchment:** Closing down the division undertaking large-scale painting contract jobs. This suggests that the contract jobs division was likely unprofitable or no longer aligned with the company's core strategic focus, hence it's a divestment or strategic turnaround.
  - **Overall:** The company is managing its diverse portfolio by simultaneously stabilizing profitable areas, expanding into new growth avenues, and shedding non-performing or non-strategic operations.
- **Large Business Group Example (Both Sequential and Simultaneous Combination):**

- **Strengthening manufacturing base (Expansion/Stability):** This implies investment and focus on core manufacturing, which could be an expansion of capacity or a stability play to optimize existing operations.
- **Divesting trading activities (Retrenchment):** Selling off or closing down trading operations indicates a strategic decision to exit non-core or less profitable areas.
- **Stability by retrenching unprofitable products/services in some divisions:** This is a clear internal retrenchment within specific divisions to improve efficiency and profitability, aiming for overall stability in those areas.
- **Major expansion in industrial products and construction business:** This signifies a strong growth focus in these particular sectors, potentially through new projects, market development, or acquisitions.
- **Overall:** This conglomerate demonstrates a sophisticated combination strategy where different parts of its vast business are undergoing different strategic shifts simultaneously, and over time, the group itself has followed a sequence of strategies (e.g., initially expanding into trading, then retrenching from it).

- **ITC Ltd. (Conglomerate Diversification and Combination):**
    - ITC, originally a cigarette company, diversified into hotels, paper, agribusiness, packaging, and printing. This is a prime example of **conglomerate diversification** (a form of expansion).
    - Within these diverse businesses, ITC would undoubtedly be employing different strategies. For instance, its hotel business might be in an expansion phase, while its mature cigarette business might focus on stability with incremental growth, and any underperforming units might face retrenchment. This showcases a **simultaneous combination** of strategies across its vast portfolio.
- **Thermax Private Ltd. (Sequential Combination):**
    - Started with small boilers (stability/concentration).

- Expanded into related areas like water treatment and pollution control equipment (concentric diversification/expansion) over time.
- Latest joint venture with Babcock & Wilcox (expansion through alliance/technology acquisition) to extend product lifecycle.
- This shows a progression from concentration/stability to sequential expansion and strategic alliances over the years.

Advantages of Combination Strategies

- **Flexibility and Adaptability:** Allows organizations to respond effectively to varied and changing market conditions across different business units.
- **Risk Mitigation:** By spreading investments and strategic focus across different areas, the overall risk to the organization can be reduced. For example, if one business unit faces challenges, others might be performing well.
- **Optimized Resource Allocation:** Resources can be strategically redirected from declining or non-core businesses to high-growth opportunities.
- **Leveraging Strengths and Addressing Weaknesses:** Organizations can use strengths in one area to support growth in another, while addressing weaknesses in specific units through retrenchment or turnaround efforts.
- **Sustainable Growth:** By balancing growth with stability and necessary retrenchment, organizations can achieve more sustainable long-term performance.

Challenges of Combination Strategies

- **Complexity:** Managing multiple, sometimes conflicting, strategies simultaneously can be highly complex and demanding on management.
- **Resource Prioritization:** Deciding where to allocate limited resources among competing strategic initiatives can be challenging.
- **Coordination and Communication:** Ensuring proper coordination and communication across diverse business units pursuing different strategies is crucial.
- **Culture Clash:** Different strategic approaches might foster different organizational cultures, leading to internal friction.
- **Implementation Difficulties:** Each grand strategy has its own set of implementation challenges, and combining them multiplies these complexities.

Therefore, combination strategies are a sophisticated and often necessary approach for large, diversified organizations operating in dynamic environments. They enable a tailored response to varied market conditions, optimize resource utilization, and ultimately aim for improved overall performance and long-term sustainability.

8.9 LET US SUM UP

Grand strategies of stability, expansion, retrenchment, and combination, when defined along the internal/external, related/unrelated, horizontal/vertical, and active/passive dimensions, form the structure of strategic alternatives. This structure can form the basis for generating the strategic alternatives that are present before a firm.

The specific strategies dealt with in this chapter are modernisation; diversification and integration; mergers, takeovers and joint ventures; turnaround, divestment, and liquidation; and combination strategies. For each of these strategies, an attempt has been made to point out the reasons why the particular strategy is adopted, under what conditions, and their individually various advantages and disadvantages. Special attention has been paid to strategies such as mergers, takeovers, and turnaround strategies, which are currently the popular strategies being adopted by many Indian companies.

The last section related to combination strategy brings together the different strategies and illustrates how they could be adopted simultaneously and sequentially.

The present comprehensive chapter on strategic alternatives lays down the structure from which strategies could be chosen. The next chapter deals with how the choice is exercised.

8.10KEY WORDS

- **Strategic Alternatives:** These are developed to set the direction in which human and material resources of a business will be applied to achieve the desired goal.
- **Merger:** Combination of two or more companies into one company is called merger.
- **Divestment Strategies:** The sale or liquidation of a portion of business.

8.11SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q1. Write a comprehensive note on different types of grand strategies.

Q 2. List a few recent instances of Indian Companies that adopted diversification strategies and make observations on :

a) Why these companies diversified.

b) The types of diversification used?

Q 3. When is a disinvestment tstrategy necessary? What approaches could be adopted to adopt a disinvestment strategy?

Q4. What are danger signals that indicate a turnaround strategy should be adopted?

Q5. How can combination strategies be adopted? Simultaneously? Sequentially?

8.12LESSON END EXERCISE

Q 1. Explain the relevance of grand strategies in the formulation of corporate-level strategic plans.

Q 2. How can a company effectively implement a combination strategy? Provide a real or hypothetical example.

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Q 3. Describe the circumstances under which a firm may adopt a retrenchment strategy.

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Q4. How is the combination strategy useful for large conglomerates?

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8.13 ANSWER KEY

A: Growth, Stability, Retrenchment, Unrelated, Vertical, Horizontal, Divestment, Diversification

B: c, a, c, b, b.

8.14 SUGGESTED READINGS

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PORTER'S GENERIC BUSINESS STRATEGIES AND STAR-TEGIC ALLIANCE

STRUCTURE

9.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this lesson are:

- To comprehend Porter's generic business strategies and competitive advantage.
- To understand the nature of strategic alliance.
- To discuss the needs and benefits of strategic alliance.
- To explain the types of strategic alliance.

Learning Outcomes

After reading this lesson, the students will be able to:

- Understand the Core Strategies
- Learners will be able to analyze how each generic strategy aligns with an organization's resources, market conditions, and goals to create sustainable competitiveness.
- Evaluate how companies use these strategies to gain and sustain a competitive advantage in their industry.
- Porter's strategies to real-life business cases and recommend appropriate strategic choices based on industry dynamics and firm capabilities.

9.1 INTRODUCTION

Alliances are two businesses sharing their technological and marketing resources. An agreement between two or more individuals or entities stating that the involved parties will act in a certain way in order to achieve a common goal. Strategic alliances usually make sense when the parties involved have complementary strengths. Strategic alliances developed and propagated as formalized interorganizational relationships, particularly among companies in international business systems. These cooperative arrangements seek to achieve organizational objectives better through collaboration than through competition, but alliances also generate problems at several levels of analysis. A strategic alliance example: a six-company business alliance was created between Motorola, Apple, Philips, Sony, AT&T and Matsushita to form General Magic Corporation to create communications software.

Strategic alliances are critical to organizations for a number of key reasons:

1. Organic growth alone is insufficient for meeting most organizations' required rate of growth.
2. Speed to market is essential, and partnerships greatly improve it.
3. Complexity is increasing, and no single organization has the required total expertise to best serve the customer.
4. Partnerships can defray rising research and development costs.
5. Alliances facilitate access to global markets.

Strategic alliances are becoming an important form of business activity in many industries, particularly in view of the realization that companies are competing on a global field. Strategic alliances are not a panacea for every company and every situation. However, through strategic alliances, companies can improve their competitive positioning, gain entry to new markets, supplement critical skills, and share the risk and cost of major development projects.

A generic strategy is a general way of positioning a firm within an industry. Focusing on one generic strategy allows executives to concentrate on the core elements of firms' business-level strategies and avoid competing in the markets better served by other generic strategies. The most popular set of generic strategies is based on the work of Professor Michael Porter of the Harvard Business School and subsequent researchers that have built on Porter's initial ideas (Porter, 1980).

9.2 PORTER'S GENERIC BUSINESS STRATEGIES AND COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

The study of business strategy was strongly influenced by Michael Porter, Harvard Professor, and author. In 1985, he wrote the seminal text, *Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance,* concerning business strategy. In his text, he proposed 3 (or 4) categories of generic strategies for approaching a product market. According to Porter, any one of these strategies is capable of producing a competitive advantage for a business in a given market. It is important to note that, every strategy is not possible for a single firm. However, if the firm is capable and executes a strategy sufficiently, then it can achieve a competitive advantage in the market. A firm's relative position within its industry determines whether a firm's profitability is above or below the industry average. The fundamental basis of above-average profitability in the long run is sustainable competitive advantage. The two basic types of competitive advantage combined with the scope of activities for which a firm seeks to achieve them, lead to three generic strategies for achieving above-average performance in an industry: cost leadership, differentiation, and focus.

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Case : The Case of BudgetAir

Background:
BudgetAir is a low-cost airline that has gained popularity by offering minimal services at very low prices. However, rising fuel costs and customer demand for better service are threatening its position.

Questions:

1. Which generic strategy is BudgetAir using?
2. What competitive advantage has BudgetAir gained through this strategy?
3. What risks does it face in continuing this strategy?
4. Suggest ways BudgetAir could improve its service without losing its cost leadership.

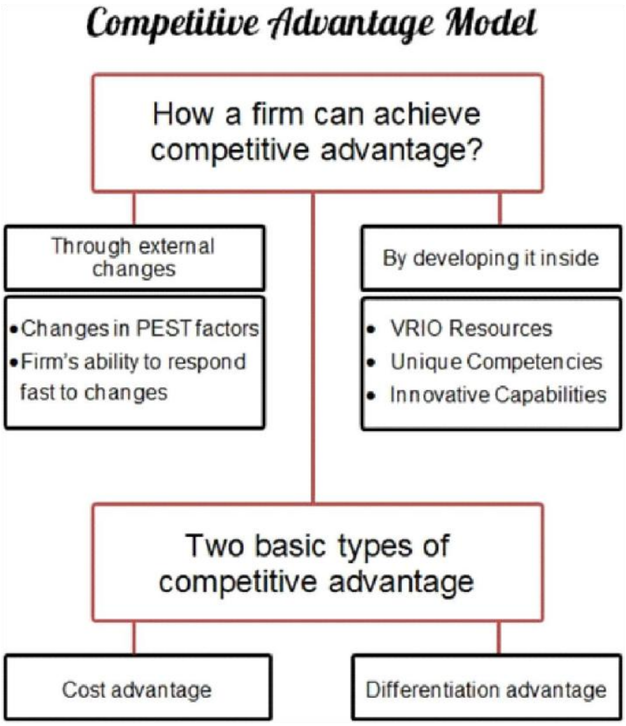
Concept of Competitive Adventage

Competitive advantage means superior performance relative to other competitors in the same industry or superior performance relative to the industry average. Competitive advantage refers to factors that allow a company to produce goods or services better or more cheaply than its rivals. These factors allow the productive entity to generate more sales or superior margins compared to its market rivals. Competitive advantages are attributed to a variety of factors including cost structure, branding, the quality of product offerings, the distribution network, intellectual property, and customer service.

Competitive advantages generate greater value for a firm and its shareholders because of certain strengths or conditions. The more sustainable the competitive advantage, the more difficult it is for competitors to neutralize the advantage. The two main types of competitive advantages are comparative advantage and differential advantage.

If a business can increase its market share through increased efficiency or productivity, it would have a competitive advantage over its competitors.

Model of Competitive Adventage



An organization can achieve an edge over its competitors in the following two ways:

1. **Through external changes:** When PEST factors change, many opportunities can appear that, if seized upon, could provide many benefits for an organization. A company can also gain an upper hand over its competitors when it's capable to respond to external changes faster than other organizations.

2. **By developing them inside the company:** A firm can achieve cost or differentiation advantage when it develops VRIO resources, unique competences, or through innovative processes and products.

External Changes

Changes in PEST factors: PEST stands for political, economic, socio-cultural, and technological factors that affect a firm's external environment. When these factors change, many opportunities arise that can be exploited by an organization to achieve superiority over its rivals. For example, new superior machinery, which is manufactured and sold only in South Korea, would result in lower production costs for Korean companies and they would gain cost advantage against competitors in a global environment. Changes in consumer demand, such as a trend for eating more healthy food, can be used to gain at least temporary differentiation advantage if a company would opt to sell mainly healthy food products while competitors wouldn't. For example, Subway and KFC. If opportunities appear due to changes in the external environment, why are not all companies able to profit from that? It's simple, companies have different resources, competences, and capabilities and are differently affected by industry or macro-environment changes.

Company's ability to respond fast to changes: The advantage can also be gained when a company is the first one to exploit the external change. Otherwise, if a company is slow to respond to changes, it may never benefit from the arising opportunities.

Internal Environment

VRIO resources: A company that possesses VRIO (valuable, rare, hard to imitate, and organized) resources has an edge over its competitors due to the superiority of such resources. If one company has gained a VRIO resource, no other company can acquire it (at least temporarily). The following resources have VRIO attributes:

- Intellectual property (patents, copyrights, trademarks)
- Brand equity
- Culture
- Know-how
- Reputation

Unique competences: Competence is an ability to perform tasks successfully and is a cluster of related skills, knowledge, capabilities, and processes. A company that has developed a competence in producing miniaturized electronics would get at least temporary advantage as other companies would find it very hard to replicate the processes, skills, knowledge, and capabilities needed for that competence.

Innovative capabilities: Most often, a company gains superiority through innovation. Innovative products, processes, or new business models provide strong competitive edge due to the first mover advantage. For example, Apple's introduction of tablets or its business model combining an mp3 device and iTunes online music store.

M. Porter has identified 2 basic types of competitive advantage: cost advantage and differentiation advantage.

There are two types of competitive advantage: **Cost advantage** and **Differentiation advantage**.

(i) **Cost advantage:** Porter argued that a company could achieve superior performance by producing similar quality products or services but at lower costs. In this case, a company sells products at the same price as competitors but reaps higher profit margins because of lower production costs. The company that tries to achieve cost advantage (like Amazon.com) is pursuing **cost leadership strategy**. Higher profit margins lead to further price reductions, more investments in process innovation, and ultimately greater value for customers.

(ii) **Differentiation advantage:** Differentiation advantage is achieved by offering unique products and services and charging a premium price for that. **Differentiation strategy** is used in this situation and a company positions itself more on branding, advertising, design, quality, and new product development (like Apple Inc. or even Starbucks) rather than efficiency, outsourcing, or process innovation. Customers are willing to pay a higher price only for unique features and the best quality.

The cost leadership and differentiation strategies are not the only strategies used to gain competitive advantage. **Innovation strategy** is used to develop new or better products, processes, or business models that grant competitive edge over competitors.

In summary, the strategies were as follows:

- **Cost Leadership:** Minimizing the costs incurred in providing value (product or service) to a customer or client.
- **Differentiation:** This means making one's product unique or special, compared to other competitors or substitute products in the market.

Porter's Generic Strategies are also called Porter marketing techniques. These strategic tactics are used by different companies in order to penetrate a market and after penetration then sustain a strong advantage over the competitions. It can also be elaborated as the primary aim of a company is to attract the industry in which it operates and the secondary purpose of the company is to position itself within that industry. A company positions itself or its products by the help of its strengths. The strengths may be product features and attributes or it may be well-trained company staff, a well-organized marketing campaign, etc. Michael Porter emphasized that strengths of a company lie in its cost advantage and positioning.

The table exemplifies the Michael Porter's Generic Strategies.

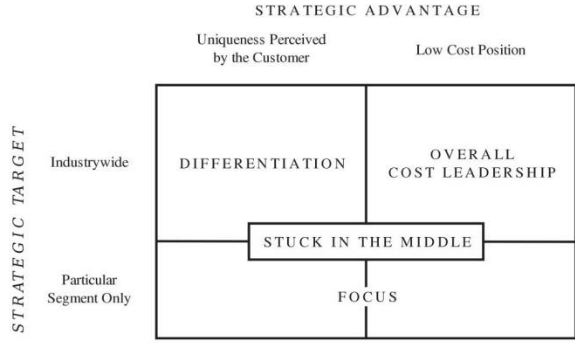


Fig.9.1Michael Porter's Generic Strategies

When a company applies these strengths this results in three generic strategies:

9.2.1 Cost Leadership Strategy

Cost Leadership marketing strategy is used to penetrate the industry by using the cost of a company's products or services. This could be possible when a company increases efficiency and lowers operation and production costs, a company will be able to offer its specific products or services at a much lower rate to its target market, which will effectively make a company more attractive than competitors. Cost Leadership strategy can be very effective for those companies who want to penetrate a targeted market that's dominated by a few high-cost companies. In order to sustain the advantage, a company also needs to regularly improve its product and services while maintaining cost leadership. In cost leadership, a firm sets out to become the low-cost producer in its industry. The sources of cost advantage are varied and depend on the structure of the industry. They may include the pursuit of economies of scale, proprietary technology, preferential access to raw materials, and other factors. A low-cost producer must find and exploit all sources of cost advantage. If a firm can achieve and sustain overall cost leadership, then it will be an above-average performer in its industry, provided it can command prices at or near the industry average. Some of the ways by which a company can acquire cost advantages are:

9.2.1.1 Improving process efficiencies

9.2.1.2 Gaining access to lower cost material

9.2.1.3 Making optimal outsourcing decisions

9.2.1.4 Vertical integration decisions or

9.2.1.5 Avoiding some costs altogether

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Activity : Strategy Matching

Instructions:
Match each of the following companies with the most appropriate Porter's generic strategy (Cost Leadership, Differentiation, Focus). Explain your reasoning.

- **Walmart**
- **Apple**
- **Rolls-Royce**
- **IKEA**
- **Patagonia**

Follow-up Questions:

- What is the main source of competitive advantage for each company?
- Can any of these companies be applying more than one strategy?

9.2.2 Differentiation Strategy

Nowadays, every company needs to tackle a saturated market as well as strong competition. Differentiation strategy means the development of such products and services which offer unique attributes that are valued by customers. So, a successful company needs to develop and design such products and services which differentiate it from competitors. In a differentiation strategy, a firm seeks to be unique in its industry along some dimensions that are widely valued by buyers. It selects one or more attributes that many buyers in an industry perceive as important, and uniquely positions itself to meet those needs. It is rewarded for its uniqueness with a premium price.

Differentiation strategy of a company requires the following internal strengths:

9.2.2.1 Well-established R&D department

9.2.2.2 Access to scientific research

9.2.2.3 Skilled product developers and manufacturers

9.2.2.4 Strong marketing and selling departments

9.2.2.5 Reputation of the company for innovation and quality

9.2.2.6 Reputed brand name

9.2.3 Focus Strategy

Focus strategy utilizes the old "divide-and-conquer" rule. Focus strategy includes the division of your target market into specific sections. Then a company needs to develop specific business marketing strategies for each section. In simple words, we can say that focus strategy targets segments to apply both cost leadership and differentiation strategies. The generic strategy of focus rests on the choice of a narrow competitive scope within an industry. The focuser selects a segment or group of segments in the industry and tailors its strategy to serving them to the exclusion of others.

The focus strategy has two variants. (a) In cost focus, a firm seeks a cost advantage in its target segment, while in (b) Differentiation focus, a firm seeks differentiation in its target segment.

Both variants of the focus strategy rest on differences between a focuser's target segment and other segments in the industry. The target segments must either have buyers with unusual needs or else the production and delivery system that best serves the target segment must differ from that of other industry segments. Cost focus exploits differences in cost behaviour in some segments, while differentiation focus exploits the special needs of buyers in certain segments.

Summing up all the above, as every company has its predefined goals and objectives. Now the company needs to achieve them by means of some market tactics, and these three Porter's Generic Strategies provide a basic platform for a company.

9.3 MEANING AND CHARACTERISTICS OF STRATEGI CALLIANCE

An alliance is a cooperative agreement or association between two or more independent enterprises, which will manage one specific project, with a determined duration, for which they will be together in order to improve their competencies. It is constituted to allow its partners to pool resources and coordinate efforts in order to achieve results that neither could obtain by acting alone. The key parameters surrounding alliances are opportunism, necessity, and speed.

Alliances are long-term, trust-based relationships that entail highly relationship-specific investments in ventures that cannot be fully specified in advance of their execution. Strategic alliances are agreements between companies (partners) to reach objectives of common interest. Strategic alliances are among the various options which companies can use to achieve their goals; they are based on cooperation between companies. Strategic alliances are agreements between companies that remain independent and are often in competition. In practice, they would be all relationships between companies, with the exception of transactions (acquisitions, sales, loans) based on short-term contracts (while a transaction from a multi-year agreement between a supplier and a buyer could be an alliance); agreement related to activities that are not strategic for the partners.

A strategic alliance is a contractual, temporary relationship between companies remaining independent, aimed at reducing the uncertainty around the realization of the partners' strategic objectives (for which the partners are mutually dependent) by means of coordinating or jointly executing one or several of the company's activities. Each of the partners is able to exert considerable influence upon the management or policy of the alliance. The partners are financially involved, although by definition not through participation, and share the costs, profits, and risks of the strategic alliance.

A strategic alliance is a particular mode of interorganizational relationship in which the partners make substantial investments in developing a long-term collaborative effort and common orientation. Strategic alliances are voluntary arrangements between firms involving exchange, sharing, or co-development of products, technologies, or services. A strategic alliance is a long-term agreement between firms that go beyond normal market transactions but fall short of a merger. Firms include joint ventures, licenses, long-term supply agreements, and other kinds of inter-firm relationships. A strategic alliance is a partnership between two or more firms that unite to pursue a set of agreed-upon goals but remain independent subsequent to the formation of the alliance, to contribute and to share benefits on a continuing basis in one or more key strategic areas, e.g., technology products. A strategic alliance can be described as a process wherein participants willingly modify their basic business practices with a purpose to reduce duplication and waste while facilitating improved performance. A strategic alliance has to contribute to the successful implementation of the strategic plan; therefore, the alliance must be strategic in nature. The relationship has to be supported by executive leadership and formed by lower management at the highest macro level.

At this stage, one might define, "a strategic alliance as a relationship between organisations for the purposes of achieving successful implementation of a strategic plan."

In simple words, "a strategic alliance is sometimes just referred to as 'partnership' that offers businesses a chance to join forces for a mutually beneficial opportunity and sustained competitive advantage." An alliance is a cooperative agreement or association between two or more independent enterprises, which will manage one specific project, with a determined duration, for which they will be together in order to improve their competencies. It is constituted to allow its partners to pool resources and coordinate efforts in order to achieve results that neither could obtain by acting alone. The key parameters surrounding alliances are opportunism, necessity, and speed.

Characteristics of Strategic Alliance

1. Two or more organizations (business units or companies) make an agreement to achieve objectives of a common interest considered important, while remaining independent with respect to the alliance. The partners share both the advantages and control of the management of the alliance for its entire duration.

2. The partners contribute, using their own resources and capabilities, to the development of one or more areas of the alliance (important for them). This could be technology, marketing, production, R&D, or other areas. Strategic alliances yield better results under certain conditions (Pellicelli, 2003): when each partner recognizes the need to have access to capabilities and competencies it cannot develop internally; when a gradual approach is preferable in accessing resources, capabilities, and competencies; uncertainties about the future evolution of demand and technology often advise flexibility. The alliance can provide this when it is not possible to acquire another company in order to achieve particular development goals. It is a fairly common belief that the management of an alliance must have qualities different, at least in part, from those of the parent company (the partners). The reason is simple: the management of a strategic alliance is profoundly different from that of a company that acts independently.

9.4 IMPORTANCE OF STRATEGIC ALLIANCE

The various points which show the importance of Strategic Alliances are as under:

i) The proposed alliance contributes to the mission or vision of the organization.

ii) The proposed alliance allows the organization to achieve its objectives more effectively and more efficiently. There are competitive advantages to forming this alliance. For example, this will allow the organization to mitigate risks, penetrate a new marketplace, or take advantage of a new opportunity that otherwise would not likely come to fruition.

iii) This alliance is important enough to be included in the strategic plan. This alliance is important enough that it will continue to receive the support and attention of upper management, even after its formation.

iv) Take advantage of partner's local market knowledge and working relationships with key Govt. officials in the host country.

v) Fill gaps in technical expertise or knowledge of local market; they will learn technical knowledge from each other.

vi) Allowing each partner to concentrate on activities that best match their capabilities.

vii) Learning from partners and developing competencies that may be more widely exploited elsewhere.

viii) Adequacy and suitability of the resources & competencies of an organisation for it to survive.

ix) The aspects of the strategic alliance worked well. The aspects of the strategic alliance were the hardest to work with.

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9.5 TYPES OF STRATEGIC ALLIANCE

There are various types of strategic alliances, which are listed below:

1. **Joint Ventures:** A joint venture is an agreement by two or more parties to form a single entity to undertake a certain project. Each of the businesses has an equity stake in the individual business and shares revenues, expenses, and profits. Joint ventures between small firms are very rare, primarily because of the required commitment and costs involved. For example, Co. A and Co. B (Parent Companies) can form a joint venture by creating Co. C (Child Company).

2. **Outsourcing:** The 1980s was the decade where outsourcing really rose to prominence, and this trend continued throughout the 1990s to today, although to a slightly lesser extent.

3. **Affiliate Marketing:** Affiliate Marketing has exploded over recent years, with the most successful online retailers using it to great effect. The nature of the internet means that referrals can be accurately tracked right through the order process. Amazon was the pioneer of affiliate marketing, and now has tens of thousands of websites promoting its products on a performance-based basis.

4. **Technology Licensing:** This is a contractual arrangement whereby trademarks, intellectual property, and trade secrets are licensed to an external firm. It is used mainly as a low-cost way to enter foreign markets. The main downside of licensing is the loss of control over the technology—as soon as it enters other hands, the possibility of exploitation arises.

5. **Product Licensing:** This is similar to technology licensing except that the license provided is only to manufacture and sell a certain product. Usually, each licensee will be given an exclusive geographic area to which they can sell to. It is a lower-risk way of expanding the reach of your product compared to building your manufacturing base and distribution reach.

6. **Franchising:** Franchising is an excellent way of quickly rolling out a successful concept nationwide. Franchisees pay a set-up fee and agree to ongoing payments so the process is financially risk-free for the company. However, downsides do exist, particularly with the loss of control over how franchisees run their franchise.

7. **R&D:** Strategic alliances based around R&D tend to fall into the joint venture category, where two or more businesses decide to embark on a research venture through forming a new entity.

8. **Distributors:** If you have a product, one of the best ways to market it is to recruit distributors, where each one has its own geographical area or type of product. This ensures that each distributor's success can be easily measured against other distributors.

9. **Distribution Relationships:** This is perhaps the most common form of alliance. Strategic alliances are usually formed because the businesses involved want more customers. The result is that cross-promotion agreements are established.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Case :
A fast-fashion retailer is facing increasing competition and pressure to reduce prices, while also being expected to offer trend-driven, high-quality designs.
Questions:
a. Which of Porter's strategies would best suit this company?
b. What are the challenges the company might face in implementing this strategy?
c. How can the company sustain its competitive advantage in such a dynamic market?

9.6 STAGES OF STRATEGIC ALLIANCE

A typical strategic alliance formation process involves these steps:

1. **Strategy Development:** Strategy development involves studying the alliance's feasibility, objectives and rationale, focusing on the major issues and challenges, and development of resource strategies for production, technology, and people. It requires aligning alliance objectives with the overall corporate strategy.

2. **Partner Assessment:** Partner assessment involves analyzing a potential partner's strengths and weaknesses, creating strategies for accommodating all partners'

management styles, preparing appropriate partner selection criteria, understanding a partner's motives for joining the alliance, and addressing resource capability gaps that may exist for a partner.

3. **Contract Negotiation:** Contract negotiations involves determining whether all parties have realistic objectives, forming high-calibre negotiating teams, defining each partner's contributions and rewards as well as protecting any proprietary information, addressing termination clauses, penalties for poor performance, and highlighting the degree to which arbitration procedures are clearly stated and understood.

4. **Alliance Operation:** Alliance operation involves addressing senior management's commitment, finding the calibre of resources devoted to the alliance, linking of budgets and resources with strategic priorities, measuring and rewarding alliance performance, and assessing the performance and results of the alliance.

5. **Alliance Termination:** Alliance termination involves winding down the alliance, for instance when its objectives have been met or cannot be met, or when a partner adjusts priorities or re-allocates resources elsewhere.

The advantages of strategic alliance include:

1. Allowing each partner to concentrate on activities that best match their capabilities.

2. Learning from partners and developing competencies that may be more widely exploited elsewhere.

3. Adequacy and suitability of the resources and competencies of an organization for it to survive.

9.7 LET US SUM UP

Porter's generic strategies describe how a company pursues competitive advantage across its chosen market scope. There are three/four generic strategies: either lower cost, differentiated, or focus. A company chooses to pursue one of two types of competitive advantage, either via lower costs than its competition or by differentiating itself along dimensions valued by customers to command a higher price. A company also chooses one of two types of scope, either focus (offering its products to selected segments of the market) or industry-wide, offering its product across many market segments.

Strategic alliances are no longer a strategic option but a necessity in many markets and industries. Dynamic markets for products and technologies, coupled with the increasing costs of doing business, have resulted in a significant increase in the use of alliances. Strategic alliances are increasingly becoming an important part of overall corporate strategy, as a way to grow product and service offerings, develop new markets, and leverage technology and R&D. Strategic alliances are an indispensable tool in today's competitive business environment. No longer can companies afford ad hoc approaches to alliance formation and management, any more than they can rely on a small number of talented alliance managers.

9.8 KEY WORDS

- **Strategic Alliance:** An agreement between two or more parties to pursue a set of agreed objectives.
- **Joint Venture:** A joint venture is an agreement by two or more parties to form a single entity to undertake a certain project.
- **Alliance Termination:** It involves winding down the alliance.
- **Cost Leadership:** Minimizing the costs incurred in providing value (product or service) to a customer or client.
- **Differentiation:** This means making one's product unique or special, compared to other competitors or substitute products in the market.

9.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What are the various characteristics of strategic alliance?

2. Explain the various stages of strategic alliance.

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3. Discuss the Porter's Generic Strategies in detail.

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4. Explain the differentiation strategy in Porter’s Model?

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9.10 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. Give examples of industries where focus strategies are commonly used.

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2. In which strategy does a firm aim to offer unique value to customers?

3. How does a company achieve cost leadership in a competitive market?

4. Explain how competitive advantage can be sustained through differentiation.

9.11 SUGGESTEDREADINGS

- Porter,M. E. Business Policy Text and Cases, Irwin, Inc., Homewood Illinois, 1987.
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STRATEGIC CHOICE PROCESS; CORPORATE PORTFOLIO ANALYSIS; SWOT ANALYSIS; SUBJECTIVE FACTORS IN STRATEGIC CHOICE, CONTINGENCY STRATEGIES AND STRATEGIC PLAN

STRUCTURE

10.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning objectives

The objectives of this lesson are:

- To discuss BCG matrix and GE nine-cell matrix.
- To discuss the subjective factors involved in strategic choice by making an analysis of different policies adopted by an enterprise.
- To evaluate upon the process of different strategic alternatives by focusing on different alternatives.

Learning outcomes

After Reading this lesson, the students will be able to:

- Identify and evaluate different strategic options available to an organization based on internal and external analysis.
- Apply criteria such as suitability, feasibility, and acceptability to assess and select the most appropriate strategic choice.
- Analyze the implications and trade-offs of various strategic choices in different business scenarios.
- Recommend and justify strategic choices that align with organizational goals, resources, and the competitive environment.

10.1INTRODUCTION

This lesson deals with the final step in the strategy formulation phase of strategic management. This Section describes the several strategic alternatives that are present before an organisation. Now a strategic choice is to be made from among these alternatives. The environmental appraisal and organisational appraisal help to point out the feasible strategies that could be adopted. However, there are several factors that affect the ultimate strategic choice that is made. We have divided these factors into two classes: objective and subjective factors. Both these types of factors have been taken for explanation. Then, there are certain strategies which are contingent upon situations: these are described under the heading of contingency strategies.

10.2 PROCESS OF STRATEGIC CHOICE

The process of strategic choice is essentially a decision-making process. Decision making consists of setting objectives, generating alternatives, choosing one or more alternatives that will help the organisation achieve its objectives in the best possible manner, and finally, implementing the chosen alternative. For making a choice from among the alternatives, a decision-maker has to set certain criteria on which to accept or reject alternatives. These criteria are the selection factors. They act as guides to decision-making and considerably simplify the process of selection which otherwise would be a very difficult task.

Strategic choice could be defined as ''the decision to select from among the grand strategies considered, the strategy which will best meet the enterprise's objectives. The decision involves focussing on a few alternatives, considering the selection factors, evaluating the alternatives against these criteria, and making the actual choice''.

The four steps in the process of strategic choice are described below.

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

LuxeSkin Naturals is a skincare brand known for its high-end, all-natural ingredients and elegant packaging. It charges premium prices and caters to a niche audience of eco-conscious consumers.

Questions:

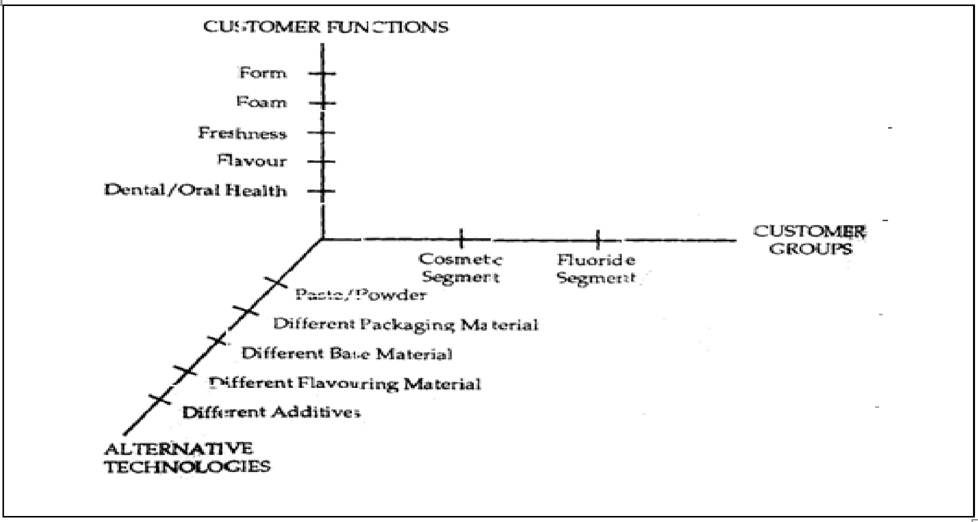
1. Identify the generic strategy LuxeSkin Naturals is following.
2. How does this strategy contribute to its competitive advantage?
3. What could be potential threats to this strategy?
4. How can LuxeSkin sustain its differentiation over time?

10.2.1 Focussing onAlternatives

The aim of focusing on a few alternatives is to narrow down the choice to a manageable number of feasible strategies. Theoretically, it is possible to consider all the alternatives. On the other hand, a decision maker would, in practice, limit the choice to a few alternatives. Such a situation frequently poses a dilemma before the decision maker: considering too many alternatives would make the process unwieldy and unproductive; but if only a few alternatives are considered, the decision maker may ignore others which he should have considered. For resolving this dilemma, a decision maker has to focus on a reasonable number of alternatives. It is still difficult to tell what that 'reasonable' number would be.

In deciding on what would be a reasonable number of alternatives, it is advisable to start with the business definition. The three dimensions along which a business is defined (customer groups, customer functions, and alternative technologies), enable a decision maker to think in a structured fashion and systematically move in one or more dimensions, generating a number of feasible alternatives. Exhibit 10.1 illustrates one way how this could be done for a company which is in the oral care business. Using a business definition, a company could generate strategic alternatives by working forward from the present to the future position it wishes to be in. For instance, a company catering to the cosmetic segment could cover the fluoride segment as well. Other alternatives could be to use alternative packaging (e.g., collapsible tube) or different additives (e.g., clove oil or neem). In this way, even within the context of an industry or business, several strategic alternatives can be considered.

Exhibit 10.1 Possible business definition of an oral care company



Focussing on alternatives could also be done by visualizing the future state and working backwards. This is done through gap analysis. A company sets objectives for a future period of time, say 3 to 5 years, and then works backward to find out where it can reach through the present level of efforts. By analyzing the difference between the projected and desired performance, a gap could be found.

Exhibit 10.2 Gap analysis for focusing on strategic alternatives

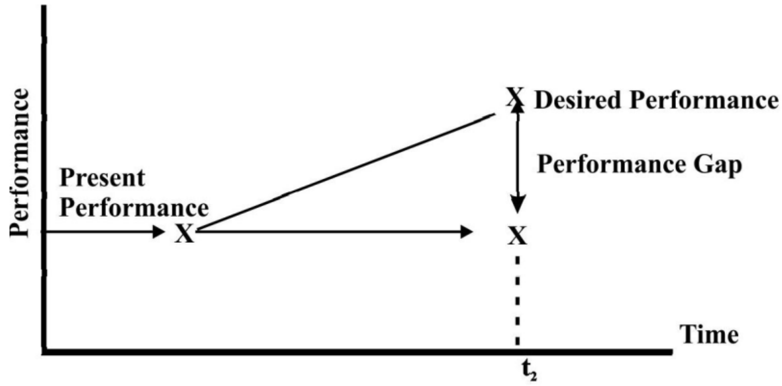


Exhibit 10.2 shows how gap analysis works. How wide or narrow the gap is, its importance, and the possibility of its being reduced influence the focus on alternatives. Where the gap is narrow, stability strategies would seem to be a feasible alternative. If the gap is large, due to expected environmental opportunities, expansion strategies are more likely. If it is large due to past and expected bad performance, retrenchment strategies may be more suitable.

10.2.2 Considering the Selection Factors

Narrowing down the strategic choice to a few feasible alternatives is facilitated by considering the business definition and through gap analysis. These alternatives have to be subjected to further analysis. Such an analysis has to rely on certain factors. These factors are termed as selection factors. They determine the criteria on the basis of which the evaluation of strategic alternatives can take place.

The selection factors can be broadly divided into two groups: the objective and subjective factors. Objective factors are based on analytical techniques and are hard facts or data used to facilitate a strategic choice. They could also be termed as rational, normative, or prescriptive factors. Subjective factors, on the other hand, are based on one's personal judgement, consensus, and non-numerical data. They could also be termed as intuitive or descriptive factors. For the present, it is important to note that the alternatives that are generated in the first step have to be subjected to analysis on the basis of these selection factors.

10.2.3 Evaluation of Strategic Alternatives

Selection factors are the criteria on the basis of which a final choice of strategy has to be made. Narrowing the choice leads to a few alternatives, each one of which has to be evaluated for its capability to help the organisation achieve its objectives. Evaluation of strategic alternatives basically involves bringing together the analysis done on the basis of the objective and subjective factors. Successive iterative steps of analyzing the different alternatives on the basis of selection factors lie at the heart of such an evaluation. There is no set procedure and strategists may use any approach which suits the circumstances. What is important to observe is that neither the objective nor the subjective factors can alone help in evaluation. Both the factors have to be considered together. How this is done is of considerable interest to management researchers and academicians. We had referred to strategic decision-making and the different approaches to strategic decision-making earlier. These issues are important in any exercise where evaluation of strategic alternatives is to be done.

10.2.4 Making the Strategic Choice

Evaluation of strategic choice should lead to a clear assessment of which alternative is the most suitable under the existing conditions. The final step is, therefore, of making the strategic choice. One or more strategies have to be chosen for implementation. A blue-print has to be made that will describe the strategies and the conditions under which they would operate. This blueprint is the strategic plan which is discussed in the last section of this chapter. Besides the chosen strategies, some contingency strategies would also have to be devised. Contingency strategies are described in the later Section.

The different analytical techniques used for considering the objective factors are the subject matter of the following two sections. We have selected corporate portfolio analysis, industry analysis, competitor analysis, and SWOT analysis for discussion as these cover all the major issues related to strategic choice.

10.3 CORPORATE PORTFOLIO ANALYSIS

Corporate portfolio analysis (or simply, portfolio analysis) is a set of techniques that evolved during the mid-1960s and soon became a management fad. During the 1970s, there arose a tendency to discredit the techniques when it was realised that the assumptions did not always hold good. Currently, however, it is accepted that these techniques are useful, not as being purely prescriptive, but as an important and decisive part of a set of criteria-normative as well as descriptive-that assist strategists in exercising a strategic choice.

Corporate portfolio analysis could be defined as a set of techniques that help strategists in taking strategic decisions with regard to individual products or businesses in a firm’s portfolio. It is primarily used for competitive analysis and corporate strategic planning in multi-product and multi-business firms. They may also be used in less-diversified firms, if these consist of a main business and other minor complementary interests. The main advantage in adopting a portfolio approach in a multi-product, multi-business firm is that resources could be channelised at the corporate level to those businesses that possess the greatest potential. For instance, a diversified company may decide to divert resources from its cash-rich businesses to more prospective ones that hold promise of a faster growth so that the company achieves its corporate level objectives in an optimal manner.

There are a number of techniques that could be considered as corporate portfolio analysis techniques. The most popular is the Boston Consulting Group (BCG) matrix or product portfolio matrix. But there are several other techniques that should be understood in order to have a comprehensive view of how objective factors can help strategists in exercising strategic choice. We start here with the concept of experience curve.

10.3.1 Experience Curve

Experience curve, per se, is not a portfolio analysis technique but is an important concept used for applying a portfolio approach. The concept is akin to a learning curve which explains the efficiency increase gained by workers through repetitive productive work. The experience curve is based on the commonly observed phenomenon that unit costs decline as a firm accumulates experience in terms of a cumulative volume of production. The implication is that larger firms in an industry would tend to have lower unit costs as compared to those for smaller companies, thereby gaining a competitive cost advantage. The experience curve results from a variety of factors such as learning effects, economies of scale, product redesign, and technological improvements in production.

The concept of the experience curve is relevant for a number of areas in strategic management. For instance, the experience curve is considered a barrier for new firms contemplating entry into an industry. It is also used to build market share and discourage competition. In the contemporary Indian two-wheeler market, the experience curve phenomenon seems to be working in favour of Bajaj Auto, which for the past decade has been selling, on an average, 5 lakh scooters a year and retains more than 60 per cent of the market. Its only serious competitor is LML Vespa Ltd, which has a far lesser share of the market. The primary strategic advantage that Bajaj Auto has is in terms of costs. Other competitors like Gujarat Narmada and Kinetic Honda, which are comparatively newcomers, find it extremely difficult to compete due to the cost differentials that currently exist. The likely strategic choice for underdog competitors could be a market niche approach or segmentation based on demography or geography.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

A small café in a tourist town offers local specialty coffee blends and cultural ambiance. It doesn’t compete on price but attracts a loyal customer base looking for an authentic experience.

Questions:

1. What generic strategy is the café using?
2. Is the café targeting a broad market or a narrow segment? Explain.
3. What makes its competitive advantage sustainable or vulnerable?
4. How can the café grow without losing its unique identity?

10.3.2 ProductLifeCycle

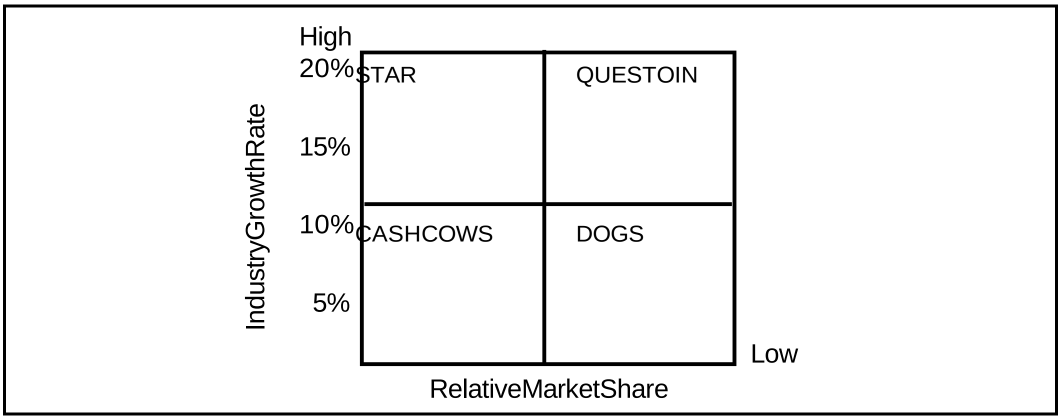
Another important concept in strategic choice is that of product life cycle (PLC). Like the experience curve, it is not actually a portfolio technique but is a useful concept for guiding strategic choice. Almost all marketing textbooks deal with PLC in detail. Essentially, PLC is an S-shaped curve which exhibits the relationship of sales with respect to time for a product that passes through the four successive stages of: introduction (slow sales growth), growth (rapid market acceptance), maturity (slowdown in growth rate), and decline (sharp downward drift). If businesses are substituted for product, the concept of PLC could work just as well. The main advantage of PLC is that it can be used to diagnose a portfolio of products (or businesses) in order to establish the stage at which each of them exists. Particular attention is to be paid to the businesses that are in the declining stage. Depending on the diagnosis, appropriate strategic choice could be made. For instance, expansion may be a feasible alternative for businesses in the introductory and growth stages. Mature businesses may be used as sources of cash for investment in other businesses which need resources. A combination of strategies like selective harvesting, retrenchment, etc., may be adopted for declining businesses. In this way, a balanced portfolio of businesses may be built up by exercising a strategic choice based on the PLC concept.

10.3.3 BCG Matrix

The Boston Consulting Group (BCG) matrix, such as one shown in Exhibit 10.3, classifies businesses in its portfolio on the basis of their relative market shares and industry growth rates. As shown in the exhibit, businesses could be classified on the BCG matrix as either low or high according to their industry growth rate and relative market share. The vertical axis denotes the rate of growth in sales in percentage for a particular industry. The horizontal axis represents the relative market share, which is the ratio of a company's sales to the sales of the industry's largest competitor or market leader. The low and high market shares are separated by a vertical line set at 1.0. This means that a company would have a relative market share of less than 1.0 if it does not have the largest share. A relative market share of more than 1.0 would occur for companies that are the largest sellers in their various industries. (In practice, the ratio of 1.0 is difficult to achieve and it is more realistic to place the vertical line at 0.75 or at the market share of the 'average firm' in the industry). Still, in order to get the maximum benefit out of the experience curve, the BCG matrix indicates that it is necessary to be the market leader. The result of combining the industry growth rate and relative market share, each along a high and low dimension, is a four-cell matrix. Each cell of this matrix has been given an interesting and appropriate name by the Boston Consulting Group.

The four cells of the BCG matrix have been termed as stars, cash cows, question marks (or problem children), and dogs. Each of these cells represents a particular type of business. These different types of businesses, with some contemporary examples from the Indian corporate world, are described below.

Exhibit 10.3 A typical BCG matrix



Stars

Stars are high-growth, high market share businesses which may or may not be self-sufficient in terms of cash flow. This cell corresponds closely to the growth phase of the product life cycle (PLC). A company generally pursues an expansion strategy to establish a strong competitive position with regard to a 'star' business. In the current Indian context, there are many businesses which could be considered as 'stars'. For instance, petrochemicals, electronics and telecommunications, fast foods, ceramic tiles, etc., are some of the industries which have a very high growth rate. To a large extent, government priorities seek to determine the 'star' status of any industry in India.

Cash Cows

As the term indicates, cash cows are businesses which generate large amounts of cash but their rate of growth is slow. In terms of PLC, these are generally mature businesses which are reaping the benefits of the experience curve. The cash generation exceeds the reinvestment that could profitably be made into 'cash cows'. These businesses could mainly adopt stability strategies. Where the long-term prospects are exceptionally bright, limited expansion could be adopted. As 'cash cow' industries lose their attractiveness and tend towards decline, a phased retrenchment strategy may be feasible. The cash generated by 'cash cows' is reinvested in 'stars' and 'question marks'. Companies which are well-entrenched in established markets enjoy the advantages of 'cash cows'. Scooters for Bajaj Auto, toothpaste for Colgate, decorative paints for Asian Paints, moulded luggage for Blowplast, India Today for Living Media are some of the 'cash cows' in the contemporary Indian markets.

Question Marks

Businesses with high industry growth but low market share for a company are 'question marks' or 'problem children'. They require large amounts of cash to maintain or gain market share. Question marks are usually new products or services which have good commercial potential.

The logic of the experience curve dictates that the company obtaining an early lead can expect cost advantages and market leadership and can successfully create entry barriers. No single set of strategies could be recommended. If the company feels that it can obtain a dominant market share, it may select expansion strategies, otherwise retrenchment may be a more realistic alternative. 'Question marks', therefore, may become 'stars' if enough investment is made or they may become 'dogs' if ignored. There are several industries in India where many companies find themselves holding businesses which are 'question marks'. Holiday resorts, light commercial vehicles, home improvement products are a few such examples. It is to be noted, however, that the list of 'question marks' keeps changing frequently with changes in government policy and other environmental factors.

Dogs

Those businesses which are related to slow-growth industries and where a company has a low relative market share are termed as 'dogs'. They neither generate nor require large amounts of cash. In terms of PLC, the 'dogs' are usually products in the late maturity or declining stage. The experience curve for the company shows that it faces cost disadvantages owing to a low market share. The only way for the company could be to gain market share at the expense of rival firms, a possibility that is remote owing to the high costs involved. So, retrenchment strategies are normally suggested. But government policies may prevent retrenchment and the 'dogs' may be artificially sustained, which explains the presence of many products in the Indian markets which would fade away if left on their own. Cotton textiles, jute, shipping, leasing, photocopiers are some of the products and services that have become 'dogs' for quite a few companies.

As seen from the above description of the BCG matrix, it is clear that its major advantage is the facility it offers for a visual examination of a portfolio of businesses of a company. However, there are some limitations too which arise from the assumptions on which the BCG matrix is based. For instance, the growth rate of an industry is taken as an indicator of its attractiveness and market share for profitability. Both these assumptions might not be always true.

Further, there are difficulties in practically measuring the respective market shares or deciding who the market leaders are. Lastly, most critics consider the BCG approach as too simplistic. With these limitations in view, many other approaches and techniques of corporate portfolio analysis have been proposed. We touch upon these in the following subsections.

10.3.4 GENine-cellMatrix

Another corporate portfolio analysis technique is based on the pioneering effort of General Electric (GE) Company of the United States, supported by the consulting firm of McKinsey & Company. Exhibit 10.4 shows a typical GE nine-cell matrix. The vertical axis represents **industry attractiveness**, which is a weighted composite rating based on several different factors. These factors often include: market size and growth rate, industry profit margins, competitive intensity, seasonality, cyclicality, economies of scale, technology, and social, environmental, legal, and human impacts. The horizontal axis represents **business strength/competitive position**, which is again a weighted composite rating based on several factors. These factors typically include: relative market share, profit margins, ability to compete on price and quality, knowledge of customer and market, competitive strengths and weaknesses, technological capability, and calibre of management. As can be seen from the list of the factors, good use can be made of the industry, competitor, and SWOT analyses information for determining the weightage and rating to assign to each factor.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Stellar Tech is a mid-sized IT services company specializing in legacy systems. With technological disruption and a decline in demand for older systems, the firm is considering three strategic alternatives:

- Diversifying into AI-driven services
- Acquiring a smaller software company
- Downsizing and focusing only on government contracts

Questions:

1. Apply the **strategic choice process** to evaluate each option. Which criteria (suitability, feasibility, acceptability) would you use?
2. Which strategy would you recommend? Justify your answer with reasoning.
3. What are the **risks and trade-offs** associated with your recommended choice?

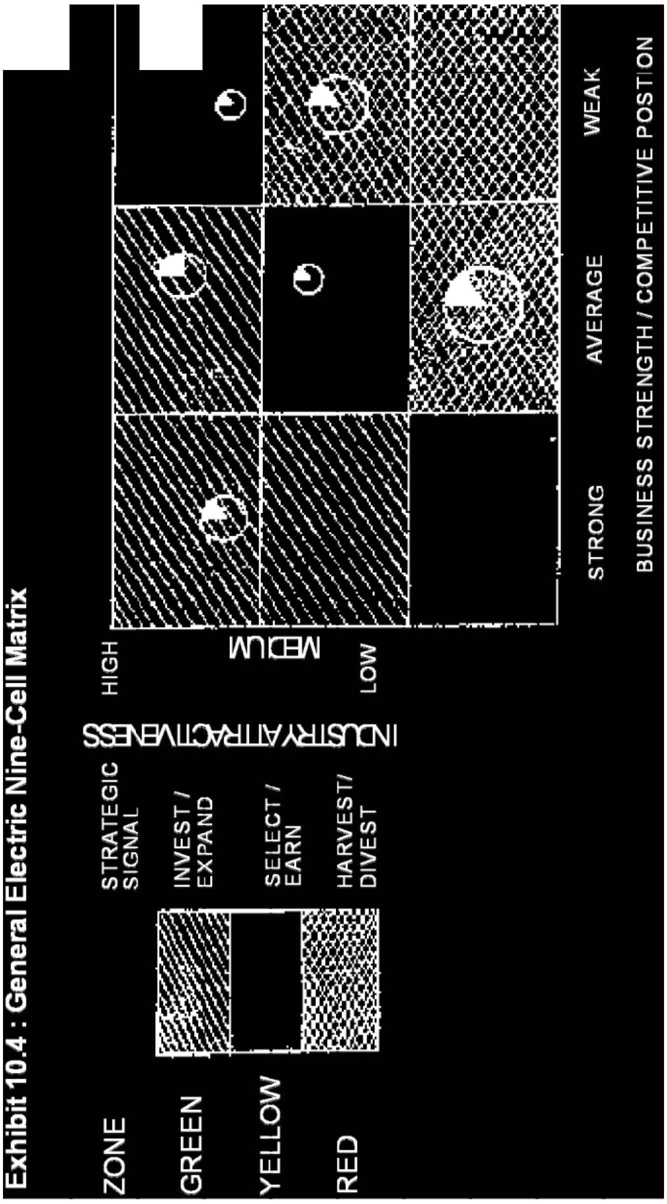
The two composite values for industry attractiveness and business strength/competitive position are plotted for each business in a company's portfolio. The pie charts (or circles) denote the proportional size of the industry and the dark segments represent the company's market share.

The nine cells of the GE matrix are grouped on the basis of low to high industry attractiveness, and weak to strong business strength. Three zones, of three cells each, are made, denoting different combinations represented by green, yellow, and red colours. For this reason, the GE matrix is also known as the stoplight strategy matrix. The different combinations can be seen from Exhibit 10.4. Based on the three zones, different strategic alternatives could be prescribed. For the green zone, the signal is 'go ahead', to grow and build, indicating expansion strategies. Businesses in the green zone attract major investment. For the yellow zone, the signal is 'wait and see' indicating hold-and-maintain type of strategies aimed at stability and consolidation. For the red zone, the signal is 'stop', indicating retrenchment strategies of divestment and liquidation or a rebuilding approach for adopting turnaround strategies.

The GE nine-cell matrix offers some distinct advantages. Compared to the BCG matrix, it offers intermediate classification of medium and average ratings. It incorporates a larger variety of strategic variables like the market share and industry size. The GE matrix is also a powerful analytical tool to channel corporate resources to businesses that combine medium to high industry attractiveness with average to strong business strength/competitive position. On the other hand, the major drawback of the GE matrix is that it only provides broad strategic prescriptions rather than the specifics of business strategy.

10.3.5 Hofer'sProduct-marketEvolutionMatrix

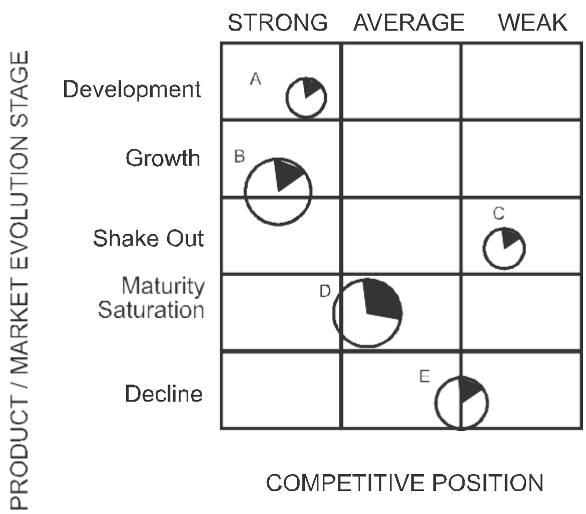
Hofer and Schendel proposed a **15-cell matrix** (often referred to as the Hofer Matrix or Product/Market Evolution Matrix) that goes beyond the simpler frameworks like the BCG and GE matrices.



businesses in a company's corporate portfolio. As in the GE nine-cell matrix, circles are plotted to represent the size of the industry while the segments denote the business market share. Exhibit 10.5 shows a typical product/market evolution matrix.

Five businesses have been shown with their respective market share with regard to the industry size. Business A represents a product/market that has a high potential and deserves expansion strategies through large investments. Business B has a strong competitive position but has a product that is entering the shakeout stage and, therefore, needs a cautious expansion strategy. Business C is probably

Exhibit 10.5 Hofer's Product/Market Evolution Matrix



a 'dog' while D represents a business which can be used for cash generation that could be diverted to A and B. Business E is a potential loser and may be considered for divestment. In this manner, the product/market evolution matrix portrays a company's corporate portfolio with a high level of accuracy and completeness.

10.3.5 Directional Policy Matrix

The directional policy matrix (DPM) developed by Shell Chemicals, U.K., uses the two parameters of ''business sector prospects'' and ''company's competitive abilities''. A number of factors such as market growth, market quality, market supply, etc., are used to rate the business sector prospects as unattractive, average, or attractive. A company's competitive abilities are similarly judged as weak, average, or strong on the basis of several factors. The 3x3 matrix when plotted as shown in Exhibit 10.6 forms the basis for recommending baseline strategies. One advantage of the DPM is that one of its extensions, ''risk matrix'' provides an alternative way to analyze environmental risk. In a risk matrix, environmental risk is taken as the third dimension and is divided into four categories from low risk to very high risk. Each risk position is determined on the basis of environmental threats and the probability of their occurrence.

10.3.6 Strategic Position and Action Evaluation

An approach that considers the company's strategic position in tandem with the strategic position of the industry is **Strategic Position and Action Evaluation (SPACE)**. The company's strategic position is determined on the basis of financial strength (ROI, leverage, liquidity, etc.) and competitive advantage (market share, product quality, etc.). The industry's strategic position is based on industry strength (growth and profit quality, etc.) and environmental

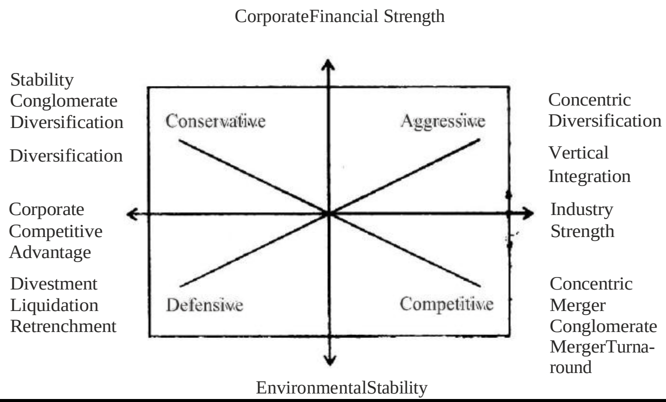
Exhibit 10.6 The directional policy matrix

Businesssectorprospects

Company's competitive abilities	Unattractive	Average	Attractive
Weak	Divestment	Imitation/ Phased withdrawal	Phased withdrawal/ cash generation
Average	Phased withdrawal/ merger	Maintenance of position/ market penetration	Expansion/product differentiation
Strong	Diversification/ cash generation	Growth/market segmentation	Market leadership innovation

stability (technological changes, competitive pressures, etc.). When these two dimensions are combined, a typical SPACE diagram would be like the one shown in Exhibit 10.7. Four strategic postures—aggressive, defensive, conservative, and competitive—are recommended based on the simpler rating system for the four dimensions as shown in the exhibit.

Exhibit 10.7 Space diagram and recommended strategies



Source: Adapted from A.J. Rowe, R.O. Mason, and K. Dickel: *Strategic ManagementandBusinessPolicy—MethodologicalApproach*(Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1982) p. 164.

10.3.7 Overall Assessment of Corporate Portfolio Analysis

Corporate portfolio analysis can help companies that are running diverse businesses to develop feasible strategic alternatives and to allocate resources among them. Other benefits include a better understanding of businesses leading to better strategic decisions and availability of an interesting vocabulary and graphical aids for communication.

Like all analytical techniques, portfolio analysis has its drawbacks. Problems arise in measuring parameters like the actual growth rate of business. There are also organisational and motivational problems arising due to the adoption of recommendations emerging out of portfolio analysis.

No organised evidence is available regarding the use and application of portfolio analysis techniques by Indian organisations. Research studies on corporate planning in Indian companies, though dealing with several issues, fail to take cognizance of the use of portfolio models.

However, these models do provide a powerful analytical tool and could be appropriately adapted to suit the Indian context. For instance, companies could take into account the governmental priorities and rate different businesses in their portfolio along the priority dimension (say, high, medium, or low). Whenever the businesses rate high in terms of governmental priorities, they may be considered as high potential businesses and vice-versa. The priority dimension may be used along with the other dimensions of product/market evolution or competitive position. What is being suggested, however, lies in the realm of conjecture and empirical evidence is needed first to establish the suitability of the portfolio models in the Indian context.

Portfolio analysis, and industry, competitor, and SWOT analyses, discussed in the following section, form the basis for dealing with the objective factors.

D. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Case : FreshDelight – A Corporate Portfolio Dilemma

FreshDelight is a food and beverage company with multiple product lines: dairy, juices, snacks, and plant-based drinks. A BCG matrix analysis shows:

- Dairy (Cash Cow)
- Juices (Question Mark)
- Snacks (Dog)
- Plant-based drinks (Star)

Questions:

1. Based on the BCG matrix, what strategic decisions should FreshDelight consider for each product line?
2. How can FreshDelight use corporate portfolio analysis to reallocate resources more effectively?
3. Suggest one strategic option for the "Question Mark" category and justify your recommendation.

10.4 SWOT ANALYSIS

Every organization is part of an industry. Almost all organizations face competition either directly or indirectly. Thus, the industry and competition are vital considerations in making a strategic choice. The industry provides the context in which an organization operates while competitors vie for the same set of customers by offering more or less identical products. It is quite obvious that any strategic choice made by an organization cannot be made unless the industry and competition have been analysed. Apart from the external forces that are present in industry and competitor analyses, it is useful to look inward and perform a SWOT analysis.

SWOT analysis is a technique developed at Stanford in the 1970s, frequently used in strategic planning. SWOT is an acronym for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats, and is a structured planning method that evaluates those four elements of an organization, project, or business venture. A SWOT analysis is a simple, but powerful, framework for leveraging the organization's strengths, improving weaknesses, minimizing threats, and taking the greatest possible advantage of opportunities. SWOT Analysis is a tool that can help you to analyze what your company does best now, and to devise a successful strategy for the future. SWOT can also uncover areas of the business that are holding you back, or that your competitors could exploit if you don't protect yourself. A SWOT analysis examines both internal and external factors—that is, what's going on inside and outside your organization. So some of these factors will be within your control and some will not. In either case, the wisest action you can take in response will become clearer once you've discovered, recorded, and analyzed as many factors as you can.

Components of SWOT Analysis

1. **Internal Factors:** The first two letters in the acronym S (strengths) and W (weaknesses) refer to internal factors that are the resources available in the organisation. These factors may impart strengths which can be utilized to exploit the opportunities or become a cause of weaknesses of a strategic nature for the organisation.

   a. **Strengths:** These are the factors that provide competitive advantage to the organisation. These factors collectively may allow an organisation to bring change in an organisation. These factors can be different for different organisations. These can be resources, skills, etc. For example: * Presence in global market & collaboration with reputed international firms. * Tie-ups with internationally reputed manufacturers and exporters. * Experience in tooling selectivity and metal cutting. * Manufacturers certified with ISO 9001 certification.

   b. **Weaknesses:** Weaknesses are the factors that limit the growth of a company or restrict the company from moving in a desired direction. These factors also hinder the organisation from achieving success through its internal capabilities. These factors vary as per the organisation. A weakness can be anything such as lack of resources, lack of market understanding, lack of funds, etc. For example: * Inconsistencies in cash flow system. * Lack of research facilities and use of outdated research data. * Lack of latest technologies and no web presence. * New firm and hence lack of goodwill.

2. **External Factors:** External factors reside outside the organisation. These are of two types:

   a. **Opportunities:** An opportunity is a major favorable situation in the firm's environment. The industry should build its production capacity to meet the upward moving demand, both for domestic and international markets. Opportunities are those factors which act as the favorable situations for the organisation. These situations encourage the organisation to grow more and earn more profits. For example: * Loyal customers in market. * High demand of certain products in a particular season. * Poor substitutes available in the market. * Obsolete technologies of the competitors.

   b. **Threats:** Threats are the external unfavorable conditions. They act as a barrier for the organisation in achieving its desired market position. These factors also differ as per the organisation and the areas in which it operates. For example: * Too many competitors of the similar product. * Introduction of taxes or increase in tax rates. * Recession in economy. * Latest technology used by competitors.

Exhibit 10.9 SWOT Profile

Strengths	**Weaknesses**
• PrimeLocation • ExceptionalStaff • ExperiencesHR • SuperbQuality	• Needsfunding & capital • Needstobuilditscredibility
Opportunities	**Threats**
• Increasingpopularity • Growthamongdemographic segments • Expansion • Planahead	• NoefficientHRtoreachdeeper market • Instabilityinmarketduetovarious factors e.g. Covid-19 etc. • Notcompletebyendline

SWOT analysis can be applied in order to generate feasible strategic alternatives. Based on the information contained, it can be said that expansion strategies seem to be more likely. The socio-economic factors are supportive while market opportunities both in the domestic and export markets are significant. Based on a fortuitous match between the technological and supplier environment on the one hand, and operations-related internal factors on the other, the firm is most likely to be a high-quality producer. This strength can stand the firm in good stead in its local marketing and exports efforts. General management can take proactive steps in order to sustain marketing efforts. Good personnel may prove to be of value in various activities that the firm undertakes. Finance is the only problem area and cannot be neglected at any cost. It is quite possible that major investments have been made in plant, equipment, and facilities and the pay-off may be expected in the long run. In such a case, the financial problems can be assumed to be of transparent nature. Should this be true, the firm can hope to overcome its negative financial features provided it adopts prudent financial policies in the near future. Expansion strategies, therefore, seem to offer a feasible approach to strategy formulation. Of course, expansion itself could take place through various means. For instance, internal expansion could be possible if the firm is in a position to garner additional financial resources. If this is difficult, then external expansion may be the way out. Depending on whether other units are available for acquisition, the firm could contemplate a takeover. But this would again require immediate resources. Expansion strategies could be preceded by a short period of stability also if the financial position can improve in the meantime.

The analysis attempted in the paragraph above can be continued till the strategists are able to shortlist feasible strategic alternatives. Of course, the line of thought adopted by others may be different from that followed by us. But it can be safely assumed that since the SWOT profiles are the same, different analysts are likely to reach more or less the same set of conclusions. Much would depend on other factors, for instance, the willingness of the management to take risks. But factors like these will be discussed in the next section. A good and meaningful SWOT analysis is likely to bring out a few feasible strategic alternatives. These could be subjected to further analysis based on subjective factors that are discussed in the following section.

10.5 SUBJECTIVE FACTORS IN STRATEGIC CHOICE

It is widely accepted that strategic decision-making is a complex affair. No one set of factors can be sufficient for exercising a strategic choice. How strategists actually make a choice among several alternative strategies has been a subject of considerable interest to researchers in management in general, and business policy, in particular. We dealt with the different approaches to strategic decision-making in Section 3.2 and the patterns of strategic behaviour in Section 3.3. Here, we are specifically concerned about the subjective factors in strategic choice. Subjective factors are essentially intuitive and descriptive in nature. Not many ‘cut and dried’ analytical models can be used. But this does not mean that subjective factors are irrational or non-analytical. Rather, they attempt to consider many of the issues that cannot—and probably should not—be dealt with the application of analytical models. Six types of subjective factors are discussed below:

1. Considerations for governmental policies
2. Perception of critical success factors (CSFs) and distinctive competencies
3. Commitment to past strategic actions
4. Strategist's decision styles and attitude to risk
5. Internal political considerations
6. Timing and competitor considerations

10.5.1 Considerations for Governmental Policies

A significant feature of the Indian economy is that it is centrally planned and regulated. State intervention in business is very evident. Strategists within organisations are aware of the crucial role that the government plays in setting down policies and priorities. In fact, in several cases, government policies are the deciding factors: a shift in policies can have a significant impact on the future prospects of companies. Strategic alternatives considered by companies have to be seen in the context of governmental policies. Expansion, retrenchment, or liquidation strategies can only be feasible if the governmental policies do not come in the way of their adoption. In this way, policies act as a major subjective factor in screening alternatives. (We consider policies as a subjective factor since the perception that strategists have about them is more important from the long-term viewpoint).

Multinational companies in India such as Hindustan Lever Ltd and ITC Ltd acknowledge that the strategic choices made by them have been dictated by ''national industrial and economic policies formulated by Government.'' Change in the government, either at the central or state levels, is of much significance to industrialists as they are concerned about the shift in policies and priorities, and the likely impact they would have on business. Annual reports by chairmen of different companies invariably devote a lot of attention to the government's policies and their impact on different industries and businesses. In this manner, it is seen that considerations to governmental policies and priorities is one of the most important subjective factors that strategists take into account while exercising a strategic choice.

10.5.2 Perception of CSFs and Distinctive Competencies

Critical success factors and distinctive competencies are important issues in environmental and organisational appraisal. How they are perceived by strategists make them important subjective factors in strategic choice. While considering several strategic alternatives, strategists could be guided by the distinctive competencies that the organisation possesses, and the CSFs that ensure success in an industry. The important thing is to focus on the extent of match that exists between the competencies and the CSFs. The industries, which the strategic alternatives would lead to, have their own CSFs. If its distinctive competence can lead the organisation to build its strategy around the CSFs, then success is more likely. For instance, if the CSFs in a particular industry are: low-cost production, ensured raw materials supply, and the quality of after-sales service, then an organisation can evaluate itself on these bases and conclude whether it possesses significant strengths in these areas or not. If it does, the alternative of entering that industry is open, otherwise it should consider other alternatives. In this way, strategic choice can be guided by the perception that strategists have with regard to the match that exists between the CSFs and distinctive competencies.

10.5.3 Commitment to Past Strategic Actions

It is rare that an organisation completely breaks away from its past strategies and embarks upon a totally new course of action. Experience shows that they move in an incremental fashion. Called upon to exercise a strategic choice, strategists are more likely to start from where the organisation is, and what way had been adopted by it to reach where it was. In this way, the strategic choice is more likely to be for those alternatives which arise out of past strategic actions.

There is another practical reason why past strategic actions affect strategic choice. Strategic actions involve not only the formulation of particular strategies, but also, commitment in terms of resources and personnel. Having made a serious commitment, it is difficult to move to areas where existing resources and personnel become redundant. Therefore, strategists tend to eliminate the strategic alternatives that lead the organisation too far away from their existing positions. Only under pressing circumstances and imminent threat from the environment does an organisation move, or is forced to move, away from its existing position. This gives rise to another subjective factor in strategic choice, i.e. decision styles and attitude to risk.

10.5.4 Strategist’s Decision Style and Attitude to Risk

The decision (or management) style adopted by strategists, particularly the chief executive (CE), and their attitude to risk is a determining subjective factor in strategic choice.

While discussing the roles that different strategists play, we had referred to the impact that CEs and other strategists have on different aspects of strategic management. It is of much interest to note that given the same set of environmental factors, and identical organisational factors, two organisations may follow different strategic paths. One may act in an aggressive manner and adopt a proactive stance with regard to strategy formulation, while the other may act defensively and react to changes. The crucial variable responsible for the difference between the two approaches is the decision style and attitude to risk of the respective strategists.

There are several examples to show how individuals have had a far-reaching impact on strategic choice. Currently, there are industrialists like Vijay Mallya of the UB Group, Ruia brothers of the Essar Group, and many others (who are not in the limelight) who have adopted an aggressive posture and formulated expansion strategies. There are others who have acted conservatively and have not done well. A typical example is of the erstwhile successful business group of the Sarabhais. But risk aversion is not necessarily detrimental to strategic interests. The Bajaj group is generally considered to be a cautious and conservative business group. In Bajaj Auto, the CE, Rahul Bajaj, has consistently followed a stability strategy and tried to expand within the existing business. There are several strategic alternatives that the company could have considered but has chosen to ''stick-to-the-knitting''. It could be concluded that the decision style and attitude to risk are contingent upon the requirements of a particular business and the environment in which it operates. In this way, they act as significant subjective factors in strategic choice.

10.5.5 Internal Political Considerations

By internal political considerations is meant the strategists' interrelationship, and power structure and balance. When strategy formulation is viewed as a political process, strategists are viewed as a coalition of interests. A dominant chief executive (CE) is able to affect strategic choice decisively. Where the CE is perceived as weak, or invites participation, interest groups or cliques emerge which affect the strategic choice process and try to make the process work in their favour. It should be noted, however, that politics and the use of power are not necessarily bad. ''Political behaviour in organization is perfectly natural and legitimate Politics and power are neither good nor bad. They are neutral.'' The main issue for the CE is to see that they do not adversely affect the process of negotiations and support conditions that are necessary for the coalition of interests to work. Internal political considerations are crucial for strategic choice as such a choice determines where the resources of organisations will be allocated.

It is difficult to illustrate how internal political considerations play a role in strategic choice as power struggles are rarely publicised. But instances of a dominant strategist guiding strategic choice or of tussles within a family group affecting strategies are available. Prominent CEs like Ashok Ganguly of Hindustan Lever, C.H. Choksey of Asian Paints, V. Krishnamurthy of BHEL and several others have played a decisive role in exercising strategic choice in their respective organisations. The differences among members of family groups such as the Birlas, Modis, Shriram, etc. (apart from those relating to company and asset-sharing) have arisen because of conflicting personalities and power play. Another point to note is that, in the context of the public sector, bureaucrats in the administrative ministries also play a political role in strategy formulation. Likewise, in multinational subsidiaries, the parent company may exercise a political influence on strategic choice keeping in view its own objectives and strategies. All in all, internal political considerations are an important subjective factor in strategic choice.

10.5.6 Timing and Competitor Considerations

The time element and competitor considerations is another set of important subjective factors that influence strategic choice.

Timing answers the following questions: when to exercise a strategic choice, when a particular strategic choice is to be made and, for what time period (short-run or long-run) is a strategic choice to be made? A strategic choice has to be exercised when the strategists are sufficiently satisfied that all possible alternatives have been considered and the environmental analysis and diagnosis indicates that no other feasible alternatives are likely to emerge in the near future. A particular strategic choice, say of related diversification, could be made when no other alternative is as attractive and the required resources are available or could be procured. Finally, it is to be seen whether the strategic choice, for instance, stability strategy, is for the short or long-run. Short-run strategic choices should be seen as a stop-gap arrangement before the organisation moves onto a more permanent, long-run strategy.

Competitor actions (and reactions) are also to be considered in strategic choice. If it is expected that a particular strategy would elicit an aggressive response, then it should only be chosen if the company is in a position to counteract. The timing of competitor action is also significant.

The leasing industry offers a good illustration of timing and competitor considerations in strategic choice. Comparatively a new industry in India, it has attracted so many industrialists and businessmen, and banking and financial institutions that their provision of service exceeds the demand. The industry is highly competitive. Given this scenario, many successful companies have had to diversify their operations. For example, Apple Leasing and Industries Ltd has diversified from leasing to computers and computer education. But it has firmly kept its major stake in leasing as, according to law, it can borrow up to 10 times its net worth and pay little tax because of the high depreciation rates allowed. Obviously, the timing is not ripe for major strategic shifts. An alternative is to have a subsidiary to look after hire-purchase business (currently 8 per cent of the total) and leave 51 per cent to leasing and the balance 41 percent to computer-related activities. Computer business could also be retrenched internally but that would leave the company with lesser profits, and less investor-attractiveness so necessary to maintain the sources of finances. Again, internal retrenchment strategies are not timely. Then there is the question of formidable competition in leasing as well as computer-related activities. The result is that it has started consolidation of activities and is planning to enter the publication of computer-related books.

Besides the six factors discussed above, there might be several others that qualify as subjective factors (e.g. management philosophy, corporate ethics, social responsibility, etc.) and should be taken into consideration.

The subjective and objective factors, described in the previous section, both have a collective impact on strategic choice. How a strategist goes about assimilating information from a subjective and objective analysis is a matter of personal choice. The main thrust of strategic choice is to evolve a suitable mechanism for screening all possible strategic alternatives, narrowing the choice down to a few feasible alternatives, and then to choose an optimal strategy. But still an optimal strategy might not be the best. Changing circumstances may render the strategic choice partly irrelevant. It is necessary, therefore, to frame contingency strategies. These are discussed in the brief section that follows.

10.6 CONTINGENCY STRATEGIES

Strategic choice is made on the basis of certain conditions, assumptions, and premises. When there is a change of condition, shift in assumptions, and premises do not turn out to be wholly valid, then the strategy chosen becomes partly irrelevant. If the changes are drastic, the chosen strategies may have to be abandoned. If they are not unsettling, the strategies may have to be modified. Often, the shift in assumptions is sudden, leaving very little time for the strategists to reorient strategies. Contingency strategies are formulated in advance to deal with uncertainties that are a natural part of the business.

Most changes occur in the company's environment. Certain components of the environment, such as the social environment, alter gradually and such changes can be anticipated well in advance. Then there are other types of environment, for instance, the market or regulatory environment, where changes could be sudden and leave little time for the strategists to readjust to the situation. The environment differs for different types of industries. Certain industries face a turbulent environment while others face a relatively placid environment. Businesses that exist in industries which face a turbulent environment feel a greater need for contingency strategies than those which exist in a relatively tranquil environment.

There are many industries in India at present which operate in an environment characterised by fast-moving developments. Indian companies which follow a formal, structured approach to corporate planning take care to formulate contingency strategies in order to cope with environmental changes and the uncertainties associated with environmental forecasting.

Strategists at L & T ''develop three scenarios or models-pessimistic, most likely, and optimistic-based on different assumptions in relation to key variables.'' Another company which needed reorientation of its strategies in the light of changes in government policy is Indal. The company, which till recently was not doing well, earlier tried for a merger with Mahindra & Mahindra unsuccessfully. In March, 1988 the government allowed decontrol in pricing and distribution of aluminium, which is the main business of the company. This policy change caused the company to drop its plan to invest in other areas and instead focus on its aluminium business. Accordingly, expansion and diversification strategies have been formulated to capitalise on the new opportunities now available.

There are a few approaches to help companies develop and implement contingency strategies. One such approach is based on a model of contingency planning process. The model consists of three steps: identifying the contingent events; establishing the trigger points; and developing strategies and tactics. Essentially, the requirements of the model are to list events that may occur in future that are critical to a company's strategy formulation process. Trigger points in the form of indicators are established that signal the impending occurrence of these events after which strategies or tactics are employed to deal with the changed situation. Contingency strategies have received a fair amount of attention from policy researchers as they are of immense value to strategists who have to deal with a transparency phenomenon like the business environment.

The final step, before a strategy is implemented, is the formulation of a strategic plan.

10.7 STRATEGIC PLAN

Having traversed the different elements of strategy formulation, it is time now to pause and look back before we proceed to the next phase of strategy implementation. A strategic plan (also corporate, group, or perspective plan), is a document which provides information regarding the different elements of strategic management and the manner in which an organisation and its strategists propose to put the strategies into action.

Based on the structure of this section, certain components of the strategic plan could be suggested. A comprehensive strategic plan document could contain the following information:

1. A clear statement of business definition, mission, purpose, and objectives.
2. Results of environmental appraisal, major opportunities and threats, and critical success factors.
3. Results of corporate appraisal, major strengths and weaknesses, and distinctive competencies.
4. Strategic choice made and the assumptions under which the strategies would be relevant. Contingent strategies to be used under different conditions.
5. Strategic budget for the purpose of resource allocation for implementing strategies and the schedule for implementation.
6. Measures to be used to evaluate performance and assess the success of strategy implementation.

Typically, a strategic plan document could run into several pages and be treated as a formal report. Another possibility is that a brief document of 3 to 5 pages could briefly cover the points mentioned above. Much would depend on the nature and size of the company and the management policies regarding the preparation of the strategic plan document. It must be remembered, however, that when approved and accepted, a strategic plan document has to be communicated down the line to middle-level managers who will be responsible for its implementation. Most large-sized companies in India formulate strategic plans. Medium-sized and small-scale companies also perform the exercise though not necessarily in a formal and structured manner. A special feature of strategic plans is that many companies consciously formulate their plans keeping in view the time framework adopted for national-level planning. Thus, companies normally have a five-year planning period which is synchronised with that of the national Five Year Plans. In fact, core public enterprises have to link their corporate plans with national Five Year Plans.

Many public sector enterprises such as SAIL, BHEL, HMT and others have formulated corporate plans of varying duration. SAIL has drawn up an ambitious 15-year corporate plan till 2000 A.D. while corporate planning at BHEL has taken shape in the form of the first corporate plan which started in 1974.

Like public sector enterprises, private sector companies too formulate strategic plans. Multinational subsidiaries often have to prepare plan documents to be submitted to their parent companies for approval. Often, the MNC subsidiaries draw their strategic plans on the basis of guidelines provided by their parent institutions. Professional private sector companies may have executive committees consisting of senior level managers who formulate strategic plans. Family groups often draft group strategic plans to provide strategic directions to the different companies in the group.

The formulation of a strategic plan document provides a means not only to formalise the effort that goes in strategic planning but also for communicating to insiders and outsiders what the company stands for, and what it plans to do in a given future time period. A strategic plan is not always publicised. Rather, companies prefer to treat it as confidential, primarily for protecting their competitive interests. But the main features of the plan are often spelt out for communication to outsiders and for public relations purposes.

10.8 LET US SUM UP

The basic theme of this chapter is strategic choice. Strategists set objectives for their firms. These objectives can be achieved through different means, which are alternative strategies. The problem before strategists is to choose from among these alternatives those that will be the best for achieving their objectives. Essentially, the choice process is based on strategic decision-making which is a highly complex affair. In order to deal with the complexity, the factors that matter in the process of choice have to be divided into the objective and subjective types of factors. Objective factors, which are based on facts and figures, could be dealt with by the help of analytical models. Since there are many such models, we have described them under two separate headings.

First, we have the corporate portfolio analysis techniques. Starting with the concepts of experience curve and product lifecycle, we have proceeded to describe BCG, GE nine-cell, Hofer's product-market evolution, directional policy, and strategic position and action evaluation matrices. Each of these matrices has its advantages and disadvantages and each could be applied under certain conditions. Under the next heading, we have discussed industry, competitor, and SWOT analyses, which are helpful in exercising a strategic choice at the business-level formulation of strategies.

Six subjective factors have been described further. In the Indian context, consideration for government policies and priorities seems to be the most critical selection factor. Strategists' perception related to the CSFs and the firm's distinctive competencies, their commitment to past strategic actions, their decision styles and attitude to risk are the other major subjective factors. Apart from these, internal political considerations and timing and competitor reactions also matter in strategic choice.

10.9 KEY WORDS

- **Corporate Portfolio Analysis:** It means concerted effort to optimise an organisation's resource allocation to develop a bridge between finance and strategy.

- **Strategic Plan:** It is a document which provides information regarding the different elements of strategic management.

- **Cash Cows:** Cash Cows are businesses which generate large amounts of cash but their rate of growth is slow.

10.10 SELF-ASSESSMENTQUESTIONS

Q1. Describe the manner in which the process of strategic choice works?

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Q 2. Critically comment on the use of corporate portfolio analysis for examining the objective factors involved in exercising a strategic choice?

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Q3. Explain the following terms used in the BCG matrix:

(a) Stars (b) Question Marks

(c) Cash Cows (d) Dogs

Q 4. Differentiate between the objective and subjective strategy selection plan for a medium-sized company ?

10.11 LESSON END EXERCISE

Q1. How can corporate portfolio analysis influence resource allocation decisions within a diversified business group? Provide an example to support your answer.

Q 2. Differentiate between the BCG Matrix and the GE/McKinsey Matrix. How do these tools aid in strategic decision-making?

Q3. What is corporate portfolio analysis? Describe any two techniques commonly used for analyzing a corporate portfolio

Q 4. Explain the role of the SAF model (Suitability, Acceptability, Feasibility) in the strategic choice process. How does it help managers select the most appropriate strategy?

10.13 SUGGESTEDREADINGS

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UNIT-III (Credit-1) **M.Com 2nd Semester**

Course No.MCOMC251 **Lesson No. 11**

STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION-ISSUES, PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION, PROCEDURAL IMPLEMENTATION, AND RESOURCE ALLOCATION

STRUCTURE

11.0 Learning Objectives and Outcomes

11.1 Introduction

11.2 Interrelationship between Formulation and Implementation

- 11.2.1 Forward linkages
- 11.2.2 Backward linkages

11.3 Issues in Strategy Implementation

11.4 Project Implementation

- 11.4.1 Phases of project

11.5 Procedural Implementation

- 11.5.1 Licensing procedure
- 11.5.2 Foreign collaboration procedure
- 11.5.3 FERA requirements
- 11.5.4 MRTP requirements
- 11.5.5 Capital issue control requirements
- 11.5.6 Import and export requirements
- 11.5.7 Benefits from incentives and facilities
- 11.5.8 Overview of procedural implementation

11.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this lesson are:

- To establish an inter relationship between strategy formulation and implementation.
- To discuss the procedural implementation aspects related with strategy.
- To make an assessmentof the approaches and difficulties relating resource allocation

Learning Outcomes

After reading this lesson, the students will be able to:

- explain the process of strategy implementation and its significance in achieving organizational goals.
- identify the key elements required for successfully translating strategic plans into actionable steps.

- to propose solutions to overcome implementation issues, focusing on communication, leadership, and organizational alignment.
- to evaluate methods for prioritizing and distributing resources (financial, human, and technological) in line with strategic priorities.

11.1 INTRODUCTION

The tasks of strategic management are far from complete even after strategies have been formulated and a concrete strategic plan has been prepared. It is the job of strategists to put the plan into action. We start with pointing out the interrelationship between the formulation and implementation of strategies in the form of forward and backward linkages. Issues in strategy implementation are described next, followed by the first step of project implementation. Procedural implementation deals with the different aspects of the regulatory framework that Indian companies have to consider. The last section consists of the various issues involved in resource allocation.

11.2 INTERRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FORMULATION AND IMPLEMENTATION

Before we move to an examination of the different issues involved in implementing strategies, it is important to consider the interrelationship between the formulation and implementation of strategies.

It is to be noted that the division of strategic management into different phases is only for the purpose of orderly study. In real life, the formulation and implementation processes are intertwined. Two types of linkages exist between these two phases of strategic management. The forward linkages deal with the impact of the formulation on implementation, while the backward linkages are concerned with the impact in the opposite direction.

11.2.1 Forward Linkages

The different elements in strategy formulation, starting with objective setting through environmental and organisational appraisal, strategic alternatives and choice to the strategic plan, determine the course that an organisation adopts for itself. With the formulation of new strategies, or reformulation of existing strategies, many changes have to be effected within the organisation. For instance, the organisational structure has to undergo a change in the light of the requirements of the modified or new strategy. The style of leadership has to be adapted to the needs of the modified or new strategies. In this way, the formulation of strategies has forward linkages with their implementation.

11.2.2 Backward Linkages

Just as implementation is determined by the formulation of strategies, the formulation process is also affected by factors related to implementation. Recall that in the previous chapter, while dealing with strategic choice, we observed that past strategic actions also determine the choice of strategy. Organisations tend to adopt those strategies which can be implemented with the help of the present structure of resources combined with some additional efforts. Such incremental changes, over a period of time, take the organisation from where it is to where it wishes to be.

It is to be noted that while strategy formulation is primarily an entrepreneurial activity, based on strategic decision-making, the implementation of strategy is mainly an administrative task based on strategic as well as operational decision-making. The next section focuses on the various issues involved in the implementation of strategies.

11.3 ISSUES IN STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION

The different issues involved in strategy implementation cover practically everything that is included in the discipline of management studies. A strategist, therefore, has to bring to his or her task a wide range of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and abilities. The implementation tasks put to test the strategists' abilities to allocate resources, design structures, formulate functional policies, and take into account the leadership styles required, besides dealing with various other issues.

The strategic plan devised by the organisation proposes the manner in which the strategies could be put into action. Strategies, by themselves, do not lead to action. They are, in a sense, a statement of intent: implementation tasks are meant to realise the intent. Strategies, therefore, have to be activated through implementation.

Strategies should lead to plans. For instance, if stability strategies have been formulated, they may lead to the formulation of various plans. One such plan could be a modernisation plan. If expansion strategies have been adopted, various types of expansion plans will have to be formulated. An expansion plan could be designed to set up an additional plant to manufacture the same products. Similarly, diversification strategies could lead to new product development plans.

Plans result in different kinds of programmes. A programme is a broad term which includes goals, policies, procedures, rules, and steps to be taken in putting a plan into action. Programmes are usually supported by funds allocated for plan implementation. An example of a programme is a research and development programme for the development of a new product.

Programmes lead to the formulation of projects. A project is a highly specific programme for which the time schedule and costs are predetermined. It requires allocation of funds based on capital budgeting by organisations. Thus, research and development programmes may consist of several projects, each of which is intended to achieve a specific and limited objective, requires separate allocation of funds, and is to be completed within a set time schedule.

Projects create the needed infrastructure for the day-to-day operations in an organisation. They may be used for setting up new or additional plants, modernising the existing facilities, installation of new systems, and for several other activities that are needed for the implementation of strategies.

Implementation of strategies is not limited to formulation of plans, programmes, and projects. We deal with the following issues in strategy implementation in this section:

1. Project implementation;
2. Procedural implementation;
3. Resource allocation;
4. Structural implementation;
5. Functional implementation;
6. Behavioural implementation;

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Activity : Think of an organization (real or hypothetical) that failed or struggled during the strategy implementation phase.

Task:

- List 3 key issues it faced in implementation (e.g., poor communication, resistance to change).
- Suggest solutions for overcoming each issue.
- Discuss how timely **resource allocation** could have improved the outcome.

11.4PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

Strategies lead to plans, programmes, and projects. Knowledge related to project formulation and implementation is covered under the discipline of project management. The Project Management Institute of the U.S. defines a project as "a one-short, time-limited, goal-directed, major undertaking, requiring the commitment of varied skill and resources." The goals for a project are derived from the plans and programmes, which are based on the strategies adopted. A project passes through various phases before a set of tasks can be accomplished.

Phases of Project: A project passes through different phases, not necessary in the order listed below:

1. **Conception phase:** This phase is an extension of the strategy formulation phase of strategic management. Ideas generated during the process of strategic alternatives and choice consideration form the core of the future projects that may be undertaken by the organisation. The project ideas that are conceived have to be allocated priorities on the basis of which they will be chosen for further development.

2. **Definition phase:** After a set of projects have been identified and arranged according to their priority, they have to be subjected to a preliminary project analysis which examines the marketing, technical, financial, and economic aspects. This analysis is done to find out whether it would stand the scrutiny of the financial institutions, banks, and investors. After this screening, the viable projects are taken up and feasibility studies conducted. Feasibility studies are done for in-depth, detailed project analysis and result in an adequately formulated project. The results are documented in the form of a project or feasibility report. After the project definition phase, the project is cleared for implementation. But before being implemented, the project has to be further planned.

3. **Planning and organising phase:** Detailed planning related to different aspects of the projects such as infrastructure, engineering designs, schedules and budgets, finance, etc. has to be completed. A project structure has also to be created which would deal with the organisation and manpower, systems, and procedures, etc. which would enable the project manager to implement the project.

4. **Implementation phase:** The detailed engineering, orders placement for equipment and material, awarding contracts, civil and other types of construction, etc. have to be undertaken during the implementation phase leading to the testing, trial, and commissioning of the plant.

5. **Clean-up phase:** The final phase in project implementation deals with disbanding the project infrastructure and handing over the plant to the operating personnel.

It is to be noted that the above phases in a project are more relevant to new plants that are set up to implement expansion and diversification strategies. But for other minor projects like relocation of facilities, modernisation and upgradation of technology, etc., a similar, though less detailed process, may be followed.

While dealing with project implementation, we did not refer to the formalities that have to be completed by the organisation before a strategy can be implemented in the form of a project. Indian organisations operate within a regulatory framework where many procedural formalities have to be completed. The next section is devoted to an overview of the procedural aspects of strategy implementation.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Activity : Choose a strategic project (e.g., launching a new product, expanding into a new market).

Task:

- Break down the major **procedural steps** needed to implement the project.
- Assign resources (people, time, money) to each step.
- Identify potential bottlenecks and how to avoid them.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

A telecom company launched a strategic plan to expand into rural markets. Despite strong planning, the project implementation failed due to internal miscommunication, delays in fund release, and lack of trained personnel.

Questions:

1. What were the major **issues in strategy implementation** in this case?
2. How could better **project and procedural implementation** have helped?
3. What role does **resource allocation** play in the success of such a strategy?

11.5 PROCEDURALIMPLEMENTATION

Any organisation which is planning to implement strategies must be aware of the regulatory framework within which the plans, programmes, and projects have to be approved by the government (central and state). Following the procedures laid down for implementation constitutes an important component of strategy implementation in the Indian context.

While the original text refers to “Guidelines for Industries, Part I, Policy and Procedures (New Delhi: India Investment Centre),” it’s crucial to note that India's regulatory framework has undergone **drastic changes** since the major economic reforms initiated in 1991, and subsequently with ongoing efforts to improve the "ease of doing business." Many of the specific controls and procedures that were prevalent in the past, often associated with a more controlled economy, have been significantly liberalized, simplified, or even abolished.

Here, we will briefly review some of the major elements of the current government regulatory framework that affect strategy formulation and implementation within organisations, keeping in mind the historical context but emphasizing the contemporary landscape:

11.5.1 LicensingProcedure

The system of planning (or planned development) historically rested on three key policy documents: the Industrial Policy Resolution, 1956; the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951 (IDRA); and the Industrial Licensing Policy, 1973. Besides these, there were the Industrial Policy statements of 1978, 1980, 1982, and the most recent statement of 1991.

The Policy Resolutions classified industries into three categories. The first category consisted of industries that were directly under the government (public sector). The second category comprised industries promoted by the government, with the private sector supplementing these efforts. The third category industries were left for the private sector.

The Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, provided for a licensing system for the development and regulation of "scheduled industries"—those industries listed in the First Schedule of the Act. Section 30 of the IDRA Act dealt with the Registration and Licensing of Industrial Undertaking Rules. Under this Act, a licence was necessary for establishing a new unit, manufacturing a 'new article' (any item related to a scheduled industry other than those specified in the licence), substantial expansion of capacity in existing business, and changing location.

Recent liberalization measures (prior to and including the 1991 policy) were aimed at providing broad-banding facilities to enable an adjustment of the product mix, extension of delicensing to MRTP/FERA companies subject to certain restrictions, re-endorsement of capacity, specifying minimum economic capacities, raising the limit of foreign exchange, allowing modernization resulting in capacity expansion, and many other objectives with a view to create a more realistic regulatory framework.

The licensing procedure required the applicant to approach the Secretariat for Industrial Approvals (SIA), which was a common secretariat for receiving and processing all types of applications related to industrial projects. Composite applications (licensing plus other applications) were dealt with by the Project Appraisal Board. The application was considered by a number of government agencies and ministries before a Letter of Intent was issued, which stipulated certain conditions. After the conditions were fulfilled, the Letter of Intent was converted into an industrial licence. The organisations which were granted a licence had to submit periodical returns after the commencement of production. After the implementation of the new Industrial Policy (1991), this procedure was expected to be considerably diluted as licensing was proposed to be abolished for all, except 18 industries.

11.5.2 Foreign Collaboration Procedure

Many strategic alternatives (for instance, expansion/diversification into high-technology industries) historically called for foreign collaboration and investment. The government policy, in general, previously allowed foreign investment and collaboration on a selective basis in priority areas, export-oriented or high-technology industries, and permitted existing foreign investment in non-priority areas up to 40% of the equity holding. This limit was subsequently raised to 51% in 34 high-priority industries.

Historically, all proposals to set up projects with foreign collaboration required prior government approval. The regulatory framework dealt with the need for foreign technology, royalty payments, terms and conditions for collaboration agreement, and foreign investment.

The procedural aspects of foreign collaboration previously included preliminary evaluation by the promoter, obtaining industrial licence (if necessary), or registration with the Directorate General of Technical Development, obtaining clearance under the MRTP Act, applying for foreign collaboration to the Foreign Investment Board, applying for import of capital goods (if required), finalisation of agreement, and clearance from the Reserve Bank of India.

11.5.3 FERA Requirements

The Foreign Exchange Regulation Act (FERA), 1973, historically related to the control of foreign-controlled companies in India. Foreign companies, i.e., companies in which non-resident interest was more than 40% of equity holding, had to obtain permission of the Reserve Bank of India (RBI) regarding different activities like investment, issue of shares, acquiring an Indian unit, remittances of technical know-how fees, royalties, etc. under the collaboration agreement, and dividends, etc. The FERA requirements were expected to be amended in the light of the new Industrial Policy with a view to attract more investment and a higher level of technology transfer.

11.5.4 MRTP Requirements

The Monopolies and Restrictive Trade Practices (MRTP) Act, 1969, sought to prevent monopolistic and restrictive trade practices, and the concentration of economic power. The major implication of the MRTP Act with regard to strategy implementation arose from its power to prevent the concentration of economic power.

The MRTP Act required that any substantial expansion which increased the assets or productive capacity or supply for distribution by not less than 25 percent required the approval of the central government. The MRTP Act applied to four types of undertakings: an undertaking having gross assets of Rs 100 crore and above; interconnected undertakings which together had assets of Rs 100 crore or above; a dominant undertaking (one which produced, supplied, or controlled one-third of any goods in the country) having assets of Rs 1 crore and above; and interconnected dominant undertakings.

The MRTP Act provisions significantly affected stability strategies (a company may expand at a constant rate of less than 25 percent without attracting the provisions), expansion strategies (if substantial expansion occurred then the Act came into operation), and diversification strategies (the MRTP Act was relevant if it was related; for unrelated diversification, the Act apparently did not apply). Besides these implications, the MRTP Act also affected mergers, amalgamations, and takeovers involving a large business house or a dominant undertaking. According to the recent policy proposal (referring to the 1991 reforms), the MRTP assets limit was to be removed completely and no prior approval might be required for MRTP companies.

11.5.5 Capital Issue Control Requirements

The issue of capital by companies was historically regulated through the Capital Issues (Control) Act, 1956 and the Securities Contracts (Regulation) Act, 1956. This regulation aimed at ensuring investments were made in priority areas, promoting capital markets, and protecting shareholders. For the purpose of strategy implementation, these Acts were relevant insofar as the provision of financial resources was concerned. Apart from this, these Acts also affected mergers and amalgamations as they regulated the capital reorganisation plans for mergers.

The Controller of Capital Issues (CCI) under the Department of Economic Affairs, Ministry of Finance, was the nodal agency for the administration of the Acts. All proposals for fresh issues of equity or preference capital, issue of rights shares, bonus shares, debentures, etc., and capitalisation of free reserves had to be scrutinised by the CCI. It was noted, however, that with the setting up of the Securities and Exchange Board, the functions of CCI were expected to be reduced drastically.

D. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Case : TechNova decided to shift from B2B software to a cloud-based SaaS model. The company allocated sufficient funds but faced delays due to unclear roles, poor inter-departmental coordination, and resistance from senior staff**.**

Questions:

1. Identify key procedural issues TechNova faced in implementing its strategy.
2. How did human resource challenges affect the implementation?
3. Suggest steps to streamline project execution and improve acceptance among employees.

11.5.6 Import and Export Requirements

Strategy implementation in areas such as modernization, expansion, and diversification requires the consideration of import and export requirements. Imports are vital for capital goods and raw material provision for new and existing projects. The high priority accorded to import substitution by the government often offers a viable alternative to companies for setting up new projects or for introducing new products or services. Export considerations by the companies usually arise in the form of statutory stipulation in lieu of foreign collaboration and investments, and imports. In certain cases, exports offer an expansion opportunity for companies which operate in markets which are highly competitive or saturated. Thus, imports and exports requirements constitute an important part of any strategy implementation scheme.

The legal framework for imports and exports in India was historically provided by the Import and Export (Control) Act, 1947. The Import Trade Control Policy Book (popularly called the Red Book) was an annual government publication which outlined the import licensing policy for individual industries and for different categories of importers (established, actual users, and registered). Through the Import Control Order and Export Control Order, the government had delegated the power to issue licenses and to administer the Act to the Chief Controller of Imports and Exports. For capital goods imports, an inter-ministerial committee cleared proposals, taking into account the essentiality of the import, indigenous availability, and potential for export-oriented industries and utilization of installed capacity through higher production levels and productivity.

Benefit from Incentives and Facilities

The primary instrument for achieving national plan objectives was historically through regulation. Promotional activities, however, did play an important role. The fiscal, monetary, and budgetary policies of the government were aimed at promotion. Tariff and taxation, coupled with incentives, were aimed at stimulation of activity in the priority industrial sectors.

Discretionary control over money supply and banks and financial institutions' lending rates were used to affect industrial activity. Budget pronouncements might result in reduction of excise duties, corporate and personal taxation rates, etc., which increase availability of finance for expansion activities.

The government also played a promotional role in terms of purchasing, pricing, distribution, availability of raw materials, and provision of infrastructural facilities. A number of industries were critically dependent on government purchases. The Directorate General of Supplies and Disposals was the largest purchasing agency in the country. The system of administered pricing had a far-reaching impact on many industries such as steel, cement, fertilizers, etc. The distribution of many goods such as agricultural produce, fuel (commonly known as essential commodities) affected industries such as sugar, vanaspati, edible oils, common cloth, and several others. The government also undertook the supply of essential raw materials or scarce imported raw materials (e.g., newsprint) which affected the supplier environment in many industries. In many industries, the critical success factors included the regular availability of vital raw material in sufficient quantities. Through the provision of infrastructural facilities such as power, water, skilled manpower, banking and financial services, health services, public utilities like transportation, and industrial sites and sheds, the government sought to ensure balanced regional development through dispersal of industries. From the point of view of strategic management, all the above measures undertaken by the government were highly relevant for business organisations. Strategic decision-making had to take these factors into account in objective-setting, strategic choice, and strategy implementation.

Certain other specific measures which were undertaken by the government related to backward area incentives, development of small-scale industries, and export promotion. Backward area incentives, announced by the Government from time to time, included the Central Investment Subsidy Scheme, Concessional Finance Scheme, Transport Subsidy

Scheme, Infrastructural Development Scheme, income-tax incentives, etc. Various State governments and Union Territory administrations offered additional schemes. The schemes were administered through the central and state level ministries and departments by involving financial institutions. Expansion strategies could be implemented profitably if the various incentives could be availed of under the different government schemes. In the special case of small-scale industries wishing to implement their strategies, various benefits could be availed of under the comprehensive assistance programmes administered through the Development Commissioner of Small-scale Industries and its various agencies situated at various places in India. Export promotion efforts by the government took the form of several incentives like permission for a higher level of foreign equity, liberal import facilities, priority in financing and transportation, etc. 100 per cent export-oriented units and units in free trade zones enjoyed special incentives and facilities.

Overview of Procedural Implementation

In the preceding sections, we have attempted to provide information related to the regulatory framework within which Indian organisations historically operated. It is to be observed that the role of the government was quite comprehensive and affected practically each and every aspect of an organisation's management, especially activities related to strategic management. While there were differing viewpoints regarding the extent and manner in which the regulatory framework should operate, an 'existentialist' view for strategists was to continually look for opportunities within the business environment as such an environment was primarily the creation of government plans, priorities, policies and actions. Strategy formulation and implementation, within organisations, had to closely follow the ground rules laid by the government. We have indicated the major regulatory and promotional aspects that had to be considered by strategists.

Several organisations-usually large ones and, ironically, even public enterprises-had to maintain a close liaison with various governmental agencies in order to get approvals, sanctions, permissions, and statutory benefits. This liaison was usually exercised through formal as well as informal means. Formally, companies maintained liaison offices in New Delhi and State capitals or employed advisors and consultants who assisted and guided the organisation regarding governmental matters. Informally, organisations sought to co-ordinate and influence governmental action through unconventional means such as political donations and lobbying.

Project and procedural implementation resulted in the necessary infrastructure and required permission for an organisation to proceed with other aspects of strategy implementation. The first issue that a strategist is called upon to deal with is that of resource allocation, and is the subject matter of the next section..

11.6 RESOURCE ALLOCATION

A strategic plan is the representation of hopes and aspirations of strategists. Project implementation is for the creation of infrastructure to enable them to put such a plan into action. Procedural implementation provides the 'go-ahead' signal. But nothing really happens until resources are procured and allocated to tasks for accomplishment of objectives. Resource allocation deals with the procurement and commitment of financial, physical, and human resources to strategic tasks for the achievement of organisational objectives.

Resource allocation is both a one-time and a continuous process. When a new project is implemented, it would require resources. An on-going concern would also require periodic allocation of resources. Strategy implementation should deal with both these types of resource allocation. Several questions have to be dealt with in resource allocation: what sources can be tapped for resources? what factors affect resource allocation? what different approaches could be adopted? how does resource allocation take place? and finally, what difficulties are encountered? We deal with these questions in the following subsections.

11.6.1 Procurement of Resources

The different types of resources—financial, physical, and human—are derived from different sources. But finance is generally considered to be the primary source; it is used for creation and maintenance of other resources.

Basically, there are two types of finances—long-term and short-term. Long-term finance is required for creation of capital assets. Short-term finance is for working capital. Both types of finances can be procured from internal and external sources.

Internal sources include retained earnings, depreciation provisions, taxation provisions, and other types of reserves like development rebate and investment allowance reserves. External sources consist of equity and loans (generally for long-term finance) and bank credit, hire-purchase debt, trade credit, and fixed deposits (generally for short-term finances). While both internal and external sources carry benefits as well as disadvantages, given a choice a business firm would prefer the internal sources. But much depends on management policy related to financing. The cost of capital from different sources has to be considered.

When modernization, expansion, and diversification strategies lead to the creation of a new company or require additional investments, and when external sources of financing are tapped, certain important issues have to be considered. These are the requirements of the Controller of Capital Issues and financial institutions, and the stipulations of stock exchanges. The Controller of Capital Issues would consider the total capital cost outlays and the scheme of finance for a project, debt-equity ratio, and equity-preference ratio. The financial institutions (IFCI, ICICI, IDBI, IRCI, LIC, UTI, NSIC, which are central level institutions besides the State level SFCs and SIDCs) have their own norms and specific areas and types of financing. The primary support for working capital is provided by commercial banks.

Having procured financial resources, the strategists set out to implement the strategies in right earnest. The first task is to distribute the resources within the organisation to different SBUs, divisions, departments, functions, tasks and individuals. The next section looks at the approaches that could be adopted for resource allocation.

11.6.2 Approaches to Resource Allocation

The main instrument for resource allocation is a budget. Broadly, there could be three approaches to resource allocation. The first type is a top-down approach where resources are distributed through a process of segregation down to the operating levels. The corporate management, consisting of the Board of Directors, managing director, and executive committee, could decide the requirements and distribute resources accordingly. The second type is a bottom-up approach where resources are allocated after a process of aggregation from the operating level. The top-down approach is usually adopted in an entrepreneurial mode of strategy implementation. A third type of approach is a mix of these two and involves an iterative form of strategic decision-making between different levels of management. This approach (or others similar approaches) has been termed as strategic budgeting. Besides the strategic budget, there are several other means of resource allocation such as the BCG matrix, PLC, etc.

11.6.3 Means of Resource Allocation

Strategic budgeting is a common technique used as a planning, coordination, and control device in management. Its use is widespread in organisations. The topic of budgeting is covered exhaustively in texts in the area of financial management. But apart from traditional budgeting, where stress is on accounting, a budget is increasingly being used as a dynamic management tool. The difference lies in the way budgeting exercise is carried out in an iterative manner between different managerial levels and the assumptions made before the formulation of budgets. Exhibit 11.3 illustrates a probable way in which a strategic budget could be prepared. Position papers on different aspects such as environment, distinctive competence, marketing, past performance, etc. are prepared and presented to the top management which uses them in formulating corporate policy guidelines and stating long- and short-term goals. The operating management meanwhile prepares operational plans and sets targets which are coordinated with the corporate objectives through the executive management. Based on resources availability and corporate guidelines, the strategic budget is prepared by the executive-level committee and presented to the top management for approval and sanction. The strategic budget is then communicated down the line and the tasks of implementation taken up.

As can be seen from the above description, strategic budgeting is an iterative process involving a multi-level, organisation-wide effort and, therefore, needs to carry the approval of all concerned. More importantly, it takes into account strategic factors such as environmental changes and their likely impact on the implementation of strategies, and the corporate distinctive competencies and their probable effect on the objective-achieving capability of the organisation. This is the reason why it is termed as a strategic budget. Besides, this type of budgeting, there are also other means of resource allocation.

- **BCG-based budgeting:** The BCG matrix can also be used for resource allocation. In a BCG matrix, SBUs or products are identified as 'stars', 'question marks', 'cash cows' and 'dogs'. Investment and cash flow decisions can be made on the basis of the type of SBU. For instance, resources can be diverted from a 'cash cow' to a 'question mark' or a 'star'. The BCG matrix can, therefore, play a useful role in a multi-SBU-division or -department company where resources have to be allocated.

- **PLC-based budgeting:** Resource allocation could be linked to the different stages in a product's (or SBU's) lifecycle. A product in the introduction and growth stages may attract more resources and these resources may be diverted from the high-profit yielding products that have reached the maturity stage of their lifecycle.

- **Capital budgeting:** Resource allocation for new projects or products could be done on the basis of capital budgeting. Existing projects, in cases of restructuring and modernization, could also use capital budgeting for resource allocation.

- **Zero-based budgeting (ZBB):** Zero-based budgeting is an operation planning and budgeting process that requires each strategist to justify resource allocation demand not on the basis of previous years' budget but on ‘‘ground zero’’, which is based on a fresh calculation of costs each time a plan is to be implemented. The strategic plan is divided into operational plans, goals and activities, and resource requirements are calculated every time a budget is prepared. ZBB can be used for effective resource allocation among competing units on the basis of strategic priorities since costs are related to benefits for each strategic task undertaken.
- **Parta system:** The parta system is an indigenous form of control device used for exercising management control. Though essentially, parta is a control tool used for the daily assessment of net cash inflow from operations, before tax and dividends, the budgeted parta is a pre-determined amount agreed upon between the chairperson of the company and the business unit in charge. The total parta system is a daily budgeting and reporting system.

Having discussed the approaches to and means of resource allocation, we now turn to the factors that affect resource allocation.

11.6.4 Factors Affecting Resource Allocation

Resource allocation deals with the commitment and distribution of resources. Since resources are almost always scarce, the process of resource allocation is quite complex. The basic question before the strategists is how to allocate scarce resources to competitive strategic tasks that lead to the accomplishment of organisational objectives. It would be easier for strategists to allocate resources if the strategic priorities are clear. But setting clear priorities practically is often a daunting task. This is so because a variety of factors affect the process of resource allocation. These factors could be: the objectives of the organisation, preference of dominant strategists, internal politics, and external influences.

While dealing with objectives, we stated that objective-setting is a complex process. There are a number of objectives. Some are official (or explicit) while others are operative (or implicit). Employees of any organisation tend to judge the importance given by strategists to tasks on the basis of the amount of resources allocated to them. If the chairperson of a company, while presenting the annual report, waxes eloquently on the virtues of human resources but the actual resource allocation does not reflect the importance given to these resources, then human resource development is certainly not a priority strategic task. Operative objectives tend to affect the pattern of resource allocation to the maximum extent.

The dominant strategists—most often the chief executive–tend to affect the process of resource allocation. Their preferences are reflected in the way how resources get allocated. Perceptive SBU, divisional and departmental heads know that such preferences matter and try to present their demands in line with them or attempt creating interest in the dominant strategists for their demands so that resources can be attracted easily.

Resources are often misconstrued as power. Those departmental units which are able to attract more resources are considered more powerful. Executives who are in a position to affect the process of resource allocation in their favour are perceived to be more effective. These perceptions make resource allocation a rational-political process. Internal politics within the organisation therefore, affects the process of resource allocation.

Apart from internal politics, external influences also affect resource allocation. These influences arise due to government policy and stipulations, the demands of external shareholders, financial institutions, community, and others. For instance, conditions imposed in the letter of intent issued to a company may require additional investment in pollution control and safety equipment before its conversion to an industrial licence. The shareholders may expect a higher dividend or bonus shares and resources may have to be diverted to them. Financial institutions may impose restrictions or require companies to invest in technology upgradation. The discharging of social responsibilities such as contribution to community services may require allocation of funds. Thus, external influences affect the process of resource allocation considerably.

If we look back to the factors described above, it is easy to recognise that in the absence of clear strategic priorities, the process of resource allocation could be distorted to a great extent. The value of an explicit corporate strategy, clearly laid down objectives, and setting down of strategic priorities lies in a balanced allocation of resources. Several authors and practitioners stress on the strengthening of links between strategies and budgeting and resource allocation. In fact, the absence of clear strategic priorities is often the reason why the process of resource allocation gets distorted. We refer below, to some of the difficulties faced in resource allocation.

11.6.5 Difficulties in Resource Allocation

The previous sub-section described the factors that affect the process of resource allocation. These factors, combined with the fact that the resource allocation process is highly complex, create several difficulties for the strategists.

The major difficulty arises due to a scarcity of resources. Financial, physical, and human resources are hard to find. Firms will usually face difficulties in procuring finance. Even if finance is available, the cost of capital is a constraint. Those firms which enjoy investor confidence and high creditworthiness possess a distinctive competence as it increases their resource-generation capability. Physical resources would consist of assets such as land, machinery, and equipment. In a developing country like India, many capital goods have to be imported. The government can provide a limited amount of foreign exchange and this places a restriction on firms wishing to procure physical resources. Human resources are seemingly in abundance but the problem arises due to the non-availability of skills that are specially required. Computer professionals, advertising personnel, and chemical engineers are currently scarce in India. This places severe restrictions on firms wishing to attract and retain personnel. In sum, the availability of scarce resources is a very real problem faced in resource allocation.

Within organisations, there are several difficulties encountered in resource allocation. The usual budgeting for existing SBUs, divisions, and departments places restrictions on generating resources for newer units and those with a greater potential for growth. Overstatement of needs is another frequent problem in a bottom-up approach to resource allocation. The budgeting and corporate planning departments may have to face the ire of those executives who do not get resources according to their expectations. Such negative reactions may hamper the process of strategic planning itself.

When strategic budgeting is used for resource allocation, powerful units may be divested of resources for reallocation to potential units. ‘‘Budget battles’’ may ensue if resource allocation affects vested interests. It must be pointed out, however, that the chief executive has a major role to play in managing the process of resource allocation. Strategic management, based on a participative mode, and communication of strategic plan to all executives creates a congenial environment where the resource allocation decisions may be taken amicably.

Having done the resource allocation, the strategist has to move now to another major aspect of strategy implementation, i.e., structural implementation.

11.7 LET US SUM UP

We started this section with a description of the inter-relationship that exists between the formulation and implementation of strategies. The inter-relationship has been described in terms of two types of linkages that exist: the forward and the backward linkages. From these, it should be clear that the formulation and implementation processes are interdependent.

Next, we have taken up the delineation of several issues that have to be dealt with in strategy implementation. Three of these issues are discussed in this section while structural, behavioural, and functional implementation are left to be discussed further.

Project implementation deals with the various aspects of setting up new projects or extending existing projects. This issue of implementation is relevant to strategies such as modernization, expansion, and diversification. We have described the different phases of projects.

Procedural implementation is concerned with the major elements of the government regulatory framework within which Indian companies operate. We have dealt with the licensing and foreign collaboration procedures, requirements under the FERA and MRTP Acts, capital issues control, and import and export besides the benefits available under different government plans and schemes. An overview of procedural implementation has been provided at the end of this section.

Resource allocation, which is an important and necessary activity in strategy implementation, has been discussed at the end of this section. Various aspects related to resource allocation have been taken up for discussion. First, we have pointed out the various sources of finance available in India. Next, we have dealt with the three approaches to resource allocation followed by a brief explanation of six means that could be adopted for resource allocation. We have rounded up the discussion by pointing out the factors that affect

11.8 KEY WORDS

- **Strategic Implementation:** A term used to describe the activities within an organization to manage the activities associated with the delivery of a strategic plan.
- **Resource Allocation:** It deals with the procurement and commitment of financial, physical, and human resources to strategic tasks for the achievement of organisational objectives.

11.9 SELFASSESSMENTQUESTIONS

1. How does the formulation affect the implementation of strategies?

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2. What types of strategies would requirean industrial licence for

implementation?

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3. Point out how external influences may prove to be beneficial for resource allocation?

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4. Discuss the nature of inter-relationship that exists between formulation and implementation of strategies?

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5. Howcantheavailabilityofincentivesandotherfacilitiesaffectstrat-egyimplementation?

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11.10 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. Differentiate between project implementation and procedural implementation**.**

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2. Explain the role of leadership in overcoming resistance to change during implementation.

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3. Evaluate the relationship between strategic planning and implementation. Why do strategies often fail despite careful planning?

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4. Identify and explain the major barriers to strategy implementation in large organizations.

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5. Give one example of a resource that must be allocated during implementation.

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11.11 ANSWER KEY

E: Poor communication, Strategy implementation, Resource allocation, Change, Procedural

11.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

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STRUCTURAL IMPLEMENTATION AND STRATEGY-STRUCTURE RELATIONSHIP

STRUCTURE

12.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this lesson are:

- To the nature of structural mechanism.
- To evaluates different stages of structural development
- To establishes inter-relationship between oragnisational design and change.
- To makes an assessment of organisational systems implemented in an enterprise.

Learning Outcomes

After Reading this Lesson, the students will be able to:

- Identify and apply appropriate structural design patterns (e.g., Adapter, Composite, Decorator) to enhance code modularity and maintainability.
- Demonstrate the ability to analyze existing system architectures and implement structural changes to improve scalability, performance, and reliability.
- Implement and integrate modular components within a system, ensuring proper interaction between subsystems while maintaining structural integrity.
- Apply abstraction and encapsulation principles to structural implementation to manage system complexity and enhance code reusability.
- Critically evaluate how structural implementation choices affect overall system behavior, including maintainability, flexibility, and technical debt.

12.1INTRODUCTION

A whole branch of knowledge which spans several disciplines is related to the study of organisations. Our intention is not to attempt a summary of the concepts and techniques related to organisational structure design and change.We aim at an exposition of the critical interrelationship that exists between strategy and structure.Thefocusin this section therefore,will beon howto adapt structural factors to the requirements ofstrategy.

We start with an understanding of what we understand by the term ‘‘structure’’in the context of strategic management, followed byan exposition of different structural mechanisms. Structure is intimately related to strategy and environment and this relationship is discussed, followed by an explanation of the four stages of development that describe how an organisation matures from a simple to a complex structure.

In ‘‘structures for strategy’’, we describe five major types of structures: entrepreneurial, functional, divisional, SBU, and matrix, besides five other types of structures.

The section of organisational design and changes deals with the process of development of organisation structure and how changes have to be brought about sothat the structure continues to satisfy the requirements of strategy.

Six organisational systems of information, control, appraisal, motivation, development, and planning are described in the last section ending with an overview of these organisational systems.

12.2STRUCTURAL CONSIDERATIONS

We usually conceive of organisation structure as a chart consisting of boxes in which the name of position or designation of personnel (and sometimes the name of the person occupying the position) is written in a hierarchical order along with the depiction of relationship that exists between various positions. To a strategist, an organisation structure is not only a chart but much more.

12.2.1 What is Structure?

An organisation structure is the way how tasks and sub-tasks required to implement a strategy are arranged. The diagrammatical representation of structure could be an organisation chart, but a chart shows only the 'skeleton'. The 'flesh and blood' that bring to life an organisation are the several mechanisms that support the structure. All these cannot be depicted on a chart. But a strategist has to grapple with the complexities of creating the structure, making it work, redesigning when required, and implementing changes that will keep the structure relevant to the needs of the strategies that have to be implemented.

12.2.2 Structural Mechanisms

For finding out what the structural mechanisms are, it is useful to consider the case of a new organisation which has decided to achieve a set of objectives through the implementation of certain strategies. In the next two paragraphs, we relate the 'story' of how structural mechanisms evolve.

The implementation of strategies would require the performance of tasks. Some of these tasks are related to the formulation and implementation of programmes and projects. We dealt with these tasks in the previous chapter on activating strategies. Having laid the foundations of an organisation, the strategists have now to devote their attention to the tasks that would have to be performed on a continuing basis for the implementation of strategies. It would be practically impossible to list all such tasks so the strategists would attempt to enumerate the major tasks. These major tasks would have to be grouped into convenient categories on the basis of commonality of the skills required to perform them.

Having grouped the major tasks, each category will have to be again segregated on the basis of the ability of an individual to perform a unit of tasks. This is the process through which organisational units such as departments are created and hierarchies defined.

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Structural implementation in strategic management involves aligning the ………………………with the overall ……….. of the company.

2. A ………….. structure groups employees based on specialized roles, such as marketing, finance, and operations.

3. The …………structure is often used by large companies operating in different ……………. or product lines.

4. One key goal of structural implementation is to ensure …………… and ………………….. across all levels of the organization.

5. The ……………… structure combines both ………..and ………… structures, allowing for greater flexibility and collaboration.

The total responsibility to implement strategies has to be sub-divided and distributed to different organisational units. The authority to discharge the responsibilities will also have to be delegated if the tasks have to be performed. To ensure that different organisational units do not work at cross-purpose, coordination will have to be ensured through communication. The performance will have to be appraised and controlled so that tasks are performed in sequence and according to a schedule. Desirable behaviour to perform these tasks will have to be encouraged and undesirable behaviour curbed. For this, rewards and penalties will have to be used. Since the performance of tasks cannot be left to chance, motivation will have to be provided so that organisational effort is directed towards a common purpose. Further, individuals will have to be developed so that objective-achieving capability is created and sustained.

In the manner described above, the new organisation that has been exemplified will come into being and start functioning. All the activities mentioned will now have to be performed on a continuing basis.

We can now derive the different mechanisms on the basis of the above example. These are summarised below:

12.2.2.1 Defining the major tasks required to implement a strategy

12.2.2.2 Grouping tasks on the basis of common skill requirements

12.2.2.3 Sub-division of responsibility and delegation of authority to perform tasks.
12.2.2.4 Coordination of divided responsibility

12.2.2.5 Design and administration of the information system

12.2.2.6 Design and administration of the control system

12.2.2.7 Design and administration of the appraisal system

12.2.2.8 Design and administration of the motivation system

12.2.2.9 Design and administration of the development system

12.2.2.10 Design and administration of the planning system.

The first four of these mechanisms will lead to the creation of the structure. The other six mechanisms are devised to hold and sustain the structure. Collectively, we could refer to these six mechanisms as organisational systems.

Note that structural mechanisms alone will not fulfil the requirements of strategy implementation. Two other major aspects of implementation relate to the formulation and integration of functional policies, and leadership and other related issues. Here, we focus our attention on the structural mechanisms required for the implementation of strategies. But before we move to a discussion of structures for strategy and other aspects, it is essential to understand how environment, strategy, and structure are related, and how a structure evolves.

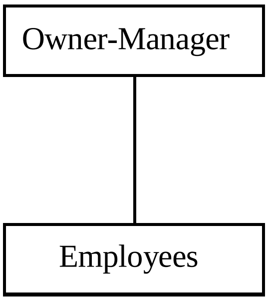
12.3 STRUCTURES FOR STRATEGIES

There are several types of structures that are found in organisations. Here, some major types of 'pure' structures are described, with special emphasis ontheir appropriateness for the different types of strategies. In practice, the actual organisational structure maybe a combination of these 'pure'structures.

12.3.1 Entrepreneurial Structure

The entrepreneurial structure, shown in Exhibit 12.1, is the most elementary form of structure and is appropriate for an organisation that is owned and managed by one person. A small-scale industrial unit, a small proprietary concern, or a mini-service outlet may exhibit the characteristics of organisations which are based on an entrepreneurial structure. Typically, these organisations are single-business-product or -service firms that serve local markets. The owner-manager looks after all decisions, whether they are day-to-day operational matters or of a strategic nature.

Exhibit 12.1 Entrepreneurialstructure



The advantages that the entrepreneurial structure offers are:

- Quick decision-making, as power is centralized;
- Timely response to environmental changes; and
- Informal and simple organisation systems.

The disadvantages of the entrepreneurial structure are:

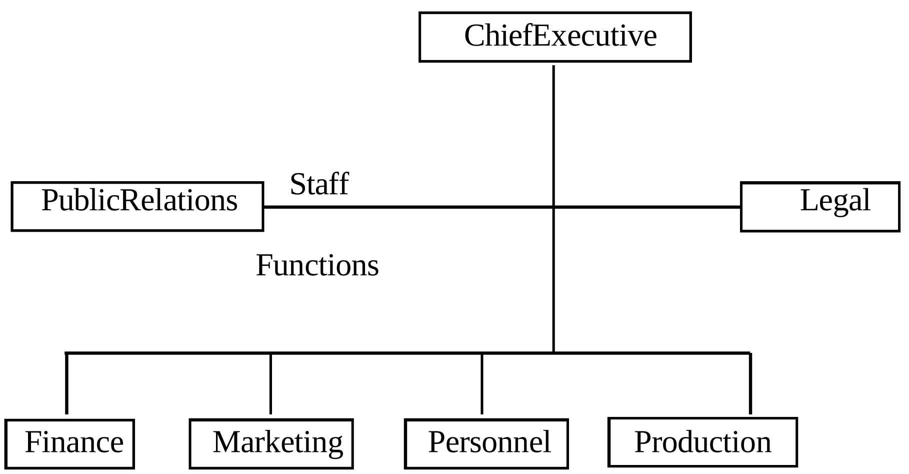
- Excessive reliance on owner-manager and proves to be demanding;
- May divert attention of owner-manager to day-to-day operational matters and ignore strategic decisions; and
- Increasingly inadequate for future requirements if volume of business expands.

12.3.2 Functional Structure

As the volume of business expands, the entrepreneurial structure outlives its usefulness. The need arises for specialised skills and delegation of authority to managers who can look after different functional areas. A typical functional structure is shown in Exhibit 12.2. Note that specialisation of skills is both along line and staff functions.

The functional structure seeks to distribute decision-making and operational authority along functional lines.

Exhibit 12.2 Functional structure



The advantages that a functional structure offers are:

- Efficient distribution of work through specialization;
- Delegation of day-to-day operational functions; and
- Providing time for the top management to focus on strategic decisions.

The disadvantages of a functional structure are:

- Creates difficulty in coordination among different functional areas;
- Creates specialists which results in narrow specialization, often at the cost of the overall benefit of the organisation;
- Leads to functional, line, and staff conflicts.

Despite the disadvantages, the functional structure is quite common and exists in its original or a modified form as the organisation evolves from the initial to the mature stages of development.

12.3.3 Divisional Structure

The structural needs of expansion and growth are satisfied by the functional structure but only up to a limit. There comes a time in the life of organisations when growth and increasing complexity in terms of geographic expansion, market segmentation, and diversification make the functional structure inadequate. Some form of divisional structure is necessary to deal with such situations. A divisional structure is shown in Exhibit 12.3. Basically, work is divided on the basis of product lines, type of customers served, or geographic area covered and then separate divisions or groups are created and placed under the divisional level management. Within divisions, the functional structure may still operate.

Production

The advantages that a divisional structure offers are:

- Enables grouping of functions required for the performance of activities related to a division;
- Generates quick response to environmental changes affecting the business of different divisions; and
- Enables the top management to focus on strategic matters.

The disadvantages of divisional structure are:

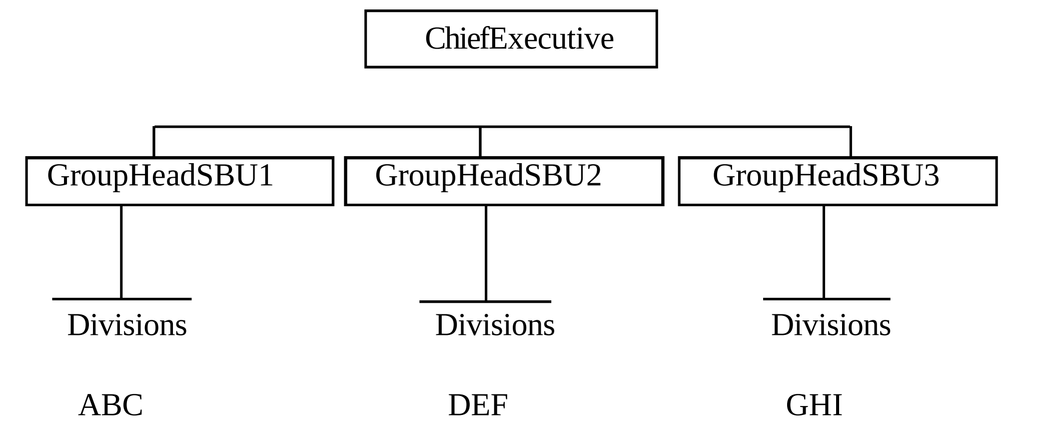
- Problems in the allocation of resources and corporate overhead costs, particularly if the business and corporate objectives are ill-defined;
- Inconsistency arising from the sharing of authority between the corporate and divisional levels; and
- Policy inconsistencies between the different divisions.

12.3.4 Strategic Business Unit (SBU)

Strategic Business Unit (SBU) has been defined by Sharplin as ‘‘any part of a business organisation which is treated separately for strategic management purposes.’’ When organisations face difficulty in managing divisional operations due to an increasing diversity, size, and number of divisions, it becomes difficult for the top management to exercise strategic control. Here, the concept of SBU is helpful in creating an SBU organisational structure.

Conceptually, SBU is ‘‘a discrete element of the business serving specific products-markets with readily identifiable competitors and for which strategic planning can be conducted.’’ Essentially, SBUs can be created by adding another level of management in a divisional structure after the divisions have been grouped under a divisional top management authority on the basis of common strategic interests. Exhibit 12.4 provides an illustration of an SBU organisational structure.

Exhibit 12.4 SBU organisational structure



The advantages that the SBU organisational structure offers are:

- Establishes coordination between divisions having common strategic interests;

- Facilitates strategic management and control of large, diverse organisations; and
- Fixes accountability at the level of distinct business units.

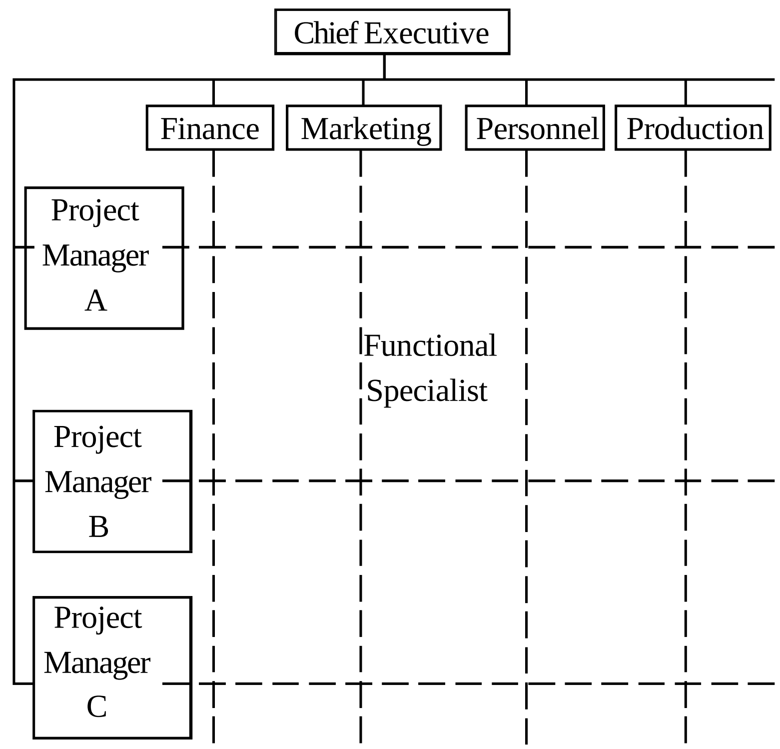
The disadvantages of the SBU organisational structure are:

- There are too many different SBUs to handle effectively in a large, diverse organisation;
- Difficulty in assigning responsibility and defining autonomy for SBU heads; and
- Addition of another layer of management between corporate and divisional management.

12.3.5 Matrix Structure

In large organisations, there is often a need to work on major products or projects, each of which is strategically significant. The result is the requirement of a matrix type of organisation structure. Exhibit 12.5 illustrates a matrix structure. Essentially, such a type of structure is created by assigning functional specialists, who normally work in a department in their area of specialisation, to work on a special project or a new product or service. For the duration of the project, the specialists from different areas form a group or team and report to a team leader. Simultaneously, they may also work in their respective parent departments. Once the project is completed, the team members fully revert to their parent departments.

Exhibit 12.5 Matrix organizational structure



The advantages that the matrix structure offers are:

- Allows individual specialists to be assigned where their talent is the most needed;
- Fosters creativity because of pooling of diverse talents; and
- Provides good exposure to specialists in general management.

The disadvantages of matrix structure are:

- Dual accountability creates confusion and difficulty for individual team members;
- Requires a high level of vertical and horizontal coordination; and
- Shared authority may create communication problems.

12.3.6 Other Types of Structures

Besides the five major structures described above, there are several other types of structures that are used in organisations. We briefly describe five structures below.

Product-based Structures: The grouping of activities on the basis of the product or product lines is followed by organisations where there is a need to delegate to a division all functions related to that particular product or product line. Such a need arises when the strategy adopted requires exclusive attention to a product or a group of products. Expansion and diversification strategies may require a product-based structure as it facilitates the addition or deletion of product divisions. Besides, a product-based structure offers the advantages of an optimum use of specialised skills and equipments, increases coordination, and enables fixation of responsibility for profit-making and usage of resources. However, a product-based structure can only be justified where the volume of sales of the product or product line is large enough to create an optimum use of resources and skills.

Customer-based structure: In some organisations, divisions may be created on the basis of the customer groups served. The rationale for a customer-based structure is that grouping of activities on the basis of customers would enable the organisation to provide exclusive attention to separate and distinct customer groups. Thus, an organisation may have individual sales divisions and institutional sales divisions to serve consumers and institutions respectively. The advantages that a customer-based structure offers are: employing marketing-orientation to serve customers better; use of specialised skills, specially in marketing; and timely response to changing customer needs. However, a customer-based structure is useful only when the sales volume from individual customer groups justifies the creation of separate divisions.

Process-based structure: In organisations where production or service is organised on the basis of process (or equipments), a process-based structure is feasible. Here, it is possible to reap the benefits of economies of scale and put specialised skills, specially technical skills, to good use. However, process-based structure has a limited use and is often best suited for the production function.

Geographic structure: Multi-plant or multi-unit organisations which have several factories and offices dispersed geographically are usually organised on the basis of geographic (or territorial) structure. This type of structure evolves in the process of expansion and diversification. When an organisation acquires another firm or wishes to set up additional factories at different sites, geographic structure is a natural choice. Such a structure offers the advantages of decentralisation to a local level, the use of locally available resources and raw materials, and nearness to markets. But geographic structure can be put to good use only if there is a high level of coordination at top level and communication between different units and with the central corporate departments.

Entrepreneurial structure: As described in one of the previous sections in this study, the evolution of organisational structure often starts with the entrepreneurial structure. At the other extreme, a state is reached when organisations become too large, diverse, and complex. As a result, they usually become slow-moving, bureaucratic, and resistant to change. The entrepreneurial structure offers the advantage of revitalising organisations by creating opportunities for innovative and talented individuals within organisations to act as entrepreneurs to apply exclusive attention to the development of new ideas, products, or services. Organisational resources may be allocated to such development efforts and if they prove to be promising, a new venture department may be created which can see to further development. In time, the new products or services can be incorporated within the overall organisation structure in the form of divisions or could be spun-off as separate companies to be managed by entrepreneurs. The advantages of entrepreneurial structure are obvious: innovation and creativity within organisations is fostered, new products or services are developed optimally, and work becomes satisfying and motivating for highly-qualified individuals. However, the entrepreneurial structure benefits only in cases where it is possible to manage and coordinate several small groups and the organisation is in a position to risk time and resources when projects are not successful.

12.4 STRATEGY STRUCTURE DEFINED

Strategy is the direction and scope of an organization over the long-term which achieves advantage for the organization through its configuration of resources within a challenging environment, to meet the needs of markets and to fulfill stakeholder expectations (Johnson et al. 2008). Strategy refers to the determination of long-term goals and objectives, the adoption of courses of action and associated allocation of resources required to achieve goals. Strategy is concerned with long-term direction of an organization and strategic decisions are mainly concerned with the scope of an organization's activities. It is the direction and scope of an organization over the long-term which achieves advantage in a changing environment through its configuration of resources and competences with the aim of fulfilling stakeholder's expectations.

Structure is a fundamental, tangible or intangible notion referring to the recognition, observation, nature, and permanence of patterns and relationships of entities. This notion may itself be an object, such as a built structure, or an attribute, such as the structure of society. Structure, whether formally or informally defined, has two aspects. It includes, first, the lines of authority and communication between different administrative offices and officers, and second, the information and data that flows through the lines of communication and authority. It is at once formal distribution of roles and the administrative mechanisms which facilitate the control and integration of the different activities performed. Consequently structure is more than just a planned network; it is also what happens in the network, or the process that takes place within and between the constituent parts.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
Activity:
Create an organizational chart for a fictional company pursuing a global expansion strategy.
Question:
How would you design the structure to support operations in multiple countries while maintaining strategic control from headquarters?

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Activity:
Hold a classroom debate: *"Matrix structure is the most effective for implementing strategy in modern businesses."*
Question:
What are the strengths and weaknesses of the matrix structure in strategic implementation? Do you agree or disagree with the statement? Why?

12.4.5 Relationship Between Structure and Strategy

The strategy of a firm must align itself to the remote and operating environment. Simply put, environmental forces are so powerful for a single firm, even a constellation of firms, to influence. Therefore, astute firms must adapt and adopt to the environmental change, dynamism, and turbulence. Environmental forces constitute a big driver to change in organizations. Once strategy has been directed by the environmental forces, then strategists identify a structure to match with the strategy. This is referred to as the strategic alignment – aligning the strategy and the structure to the environment. This is followed closely by the matching of the strategy and structure to the capability of the firm, an exercise called matching.

Alignment and matching are very key processes that firms must consider when embracing strategic management. It is this fit between strategy, structure, the environment, and the firm's capability that must be cultivated to break the ice.

An organization's strategy is its plan for the whole business that sets out how the organization will use its major resources. In other words, an organization's strategy is a plan of action aimed at reaching specific goals and staying in good stead with clients and vendors. On the other hand, an organization's structure is the way the pieces of the organization fit together internally. For the organization to deliver its plans, the strategy and the structure must be woven together seamlessly. In other words, organizational structure is a term used to highlight the way a company thinks about hierarchy, assigns tasks to personnel, and ensures its workforce works collaboratively to achieve a common goal. The goal is to avoid task overlap and workforce confusion, especially when it comes to laying a strong foundation for long-term productivity. Task overlap, a situation in which two or more employees perform the same task in different departments, costs a company money. This creates confusion, inefficiencies, and lack of accountability -- because no employee ultimately has a clear responsibility over who does what, where, and when.

It is important to highlight that for too long, structure has been viewed as something separate from strategy. Revising structures are often seen as ways to improve efficiency, promote teamwork, create synergy, eliminate or create new departments, or reduce cost, including personnel. Yes, restructuring can do all that and more. What has been less obvious is that structure and strategy are dependent on each other. You can create the most efficient, team-oriented, synergistic structure possible and still end up in the same place you are or worse if a good strategy is not adopted.

Organizational structure and strategy are related because organizational strategy helps a company define and build its organizational structure. A company's organizational structure is based on the result of the analysis of organizational strategy. The company will use these results to determine its areas of concentration and how to position itself in order to succeed.

One of the first steps a company takes in its initial stages is assessing its operational environment in order to determine the conditions in which it must operate. This involves checking out the competition, consumer trends, culture, and other factors. The company will find out the strengths and weaknesses of its competition, the buying habits of the consumers, and its economic capabilities. The relationship between organizational structure and strategy becomes clearer when the company's strategy is in place. With a clear focus of what it wants to achieve, the organization will proceed to align its structure in such a manner to best achieve this. It will allocate responsibilities for optimal results, create branches, and decide whether individual efforts or group participation is the best method for it to achieve its goals. The organizational structure and strategy will also help the company decide if the tone of the company should be strictly formal, semi-formal, or informal. All of these decisions can be made after determining the organizational strategy of the company.

Structure is not simply an organization chart. Structure is all the people, positions, procedures, processes, culture, technology, and related elements that comprise the organization. It defines how all the pieces, parts, and processes work together. This structure must be totally integrated with strategy for the organization to achieve its mission and goals. Structure supports strategy. If an organization changes its strategy, it must change its structure to support the new strategy. When it doesn't, the structure acts like a bungee cord and pulls the organization back to its old strategy.

Strategy follows structure. What the organization does defines the strategy. Changing strategy means changing what everyone in the organization does. When an organization changes its structure and not its strategy, the strategy will change to fit the new structure. Strategy follows structure. Suddenly management realizes the organization's strategy has shifted in an undesirable way. It appears to have done it on its own. In reality, an organization's structure is a powerful force. You can't direct it to do something for any length of time unless the structure is capable of supporting that strategy.

The sum total of how an organization goes about its work is its strategy. Structure and strategy are married to each other. When a company makes major changes, it must carefully think out every aspect of the structure required to support the strategy. That is the only way to implement lasting improvements. Every part of an organization, every person working for that organization needs to be focused on supporting the vision and direction. How everything is done and everything operates needs to be integrated so all the effort and resources support the strategy.

It takes the right structure for a strategy to succeed. Management that is solely focused on results can have a tendency to direct everyone on what they need to do without paying attention to the current way the organization works. While people may carry out these actions individually, it is only when their daily way of working is integrated to support strategy that the organization's direction is sustainable over time.

Top management can't just send out a proclamation about a new strategy, direction, and vision and expect everyone to follow it. To implement such a strategic shift requires a complete change within the organization itself. Strategy and structure are married to each other. A decision to change one requires an all-out effort to change the other. But that structural change must be well thought out and based on a thorough cause and effect analysis. You don't just change a structure to change it. You have to make sure the changes will support that strategy. At the same time, you don't just implement a better leadership and engagement approach in a company or alter the organizational chart without evaluating how that is going to affect the firm's ability to carry out its current strategies.

Structure follows strategy implies that every organizational structure is mainly developed based on the strategy of the organization and therefore successful implementation of an organization's strategy will depend on the firm's primary organizational structure. This is so because the firm's key activities and the way in which they will be coordinated to achieve the firm's strategic purpose depends on the structure of the organization. The primary structure of an organization is one of the basic means through which strategists position the firm so as to execute the strategy in a manner that balances internal efficiency and effectiveness.

12.5 LET US SUM UP

This section has been devoted to an understanding of five major and five other types of structures that can be used for designing organisation structures. These structures are however, just building blocks and it is up to the strategists within organisations to decide which way to use them. During the implementation of strategy, a strategist may often be faced with issues like the choice of structural components and the manner in which these components could be brought together to design an overall structure that satisfies the requirements of existing or proposed strategies.

12.6 KEY WORDS

- **Matrix Structure:** It is a company structure in which reporting relationships are set up as a grid or matrix rather than in the traditional hierarchy.
- **Strategic Business Unit:** Any part of a business organisation which is treated separately for strategic management purposes.
- **Structure:** It is the way how tasks and sub-tasks required to implement a strategy are arranged.

12.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Evaluate and discuss the different stages of structural development?

2. What do you meant by organisational design and change?

3. Establish the basic relationship between strategy and structure?

12.8 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. How does an organization's chosen strategy influence the design of its structure, and why is alignment between the two critical for success?

2. What are the potential risks or consequences of a mismatch between strategy and organizational structure in the implementation phase?

3. Can a flexible organizational structure support multiple strategies simultaneously? Explain with examples.

12.9 ANSWER KEY

A: organizational structure, strategy; functional; divisional, geographical areas; efficient communication, decision-making ; matrix, functional, project-based

12.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Bhattachary, S.K. and N. Venkataramin, Managing Business Enterprises: Strategies, Structures and Systems, Vikas Publishing House, New Delhi, 1983.
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UNIT-III (Credit-1) **M.Com 2nd Semester**

Course No.MCOMC251 **Lesson No. 13**

ORGANISATIONAL DESIGN AND CHANGE

STRUCTURE

13.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this lesson are:

- To know about the Organistion Design
- To collect knowledge about Organisation Structure
- To know the overview of OrganisationSystem

Learning Outcomes

After reading this lesson, the students will be:

- explain key principles and elements of organisational design, including structure, hierarchy, span of control, and departmentalization.
- evaluate how internal and external factors drive change and assess their impact on organisational structure, culture, and performance.
- able to apply appropriate organisational design frameworks (e.g., Mintzberg's configurations, McKinsey 7S) to real-world business scenarios.
- design and recommend effective change management strategies to support smooth transitions during organisational restructuring or transformation.

13.1 INTRODUCTION

This lesson has dealt with an extremely important aspect of strategy implementation, i.e., structural implementation. It started with defining structure in the context of strategic management and then explained how the structural mechanisms work.

13.2 ORGANISATIONAL DESIGN AND CHANGE

It is an extremely difficult proposition to decide which type of structure would satisfy the requirements of a particular strategy. In general, strategists have to ask themselves: ''What is required to implement the strategic plan and how best can it be done?'' This entails what we indicated in the first section of this study: organisation structure has to be based on those functions and activities that are critical from the viewpoint of strat-egy.

We first take up the discussion of design of organisational structure and then move on to the issue of structural change.

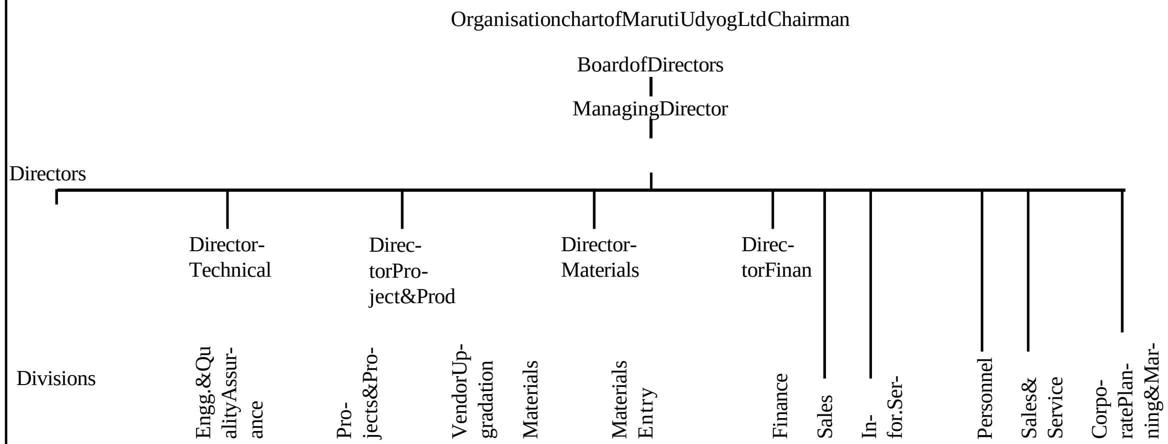
13.2.1 Organisational Design

There is no clear-cut answer to the question: ''Which structure is best suited to a partic-ular strategy?''. Frequently, structures evolve as the organisation moves from one stage of growth to the next. The external and the internal environments affect the structural design in different ways. For instance, an organisation which faces a stable environment may use a functional structure since there is less need for interdepartmental coordination and communication, and innovation. On the other hand, a volatile environment demands a rapid-response capability, flexibility and quick decision-making. Such demands can be

better met by the creation of a divisional or a matrix type of structure. The internal environment may also affect the structure in a similar fashion. A bureaucratic, slow-moving organisation may work better with a functional structure while a dynamic and innovative organisation may have to use a divisional structure. In sum, it could be said that there is no one absolutely correct way to organise and the organisational design has to be based on the particular needs ofthe organisation at a given time. Exhibit 13.1 illustrates awayhowstructurehasbeenorganisedinamajorcarmanufacturingcompanyin
India.

Exhibit13.1 OrganisationstructureatMarutiUdyogLtd

TheaccompanyingchartshowshowthestructurehasbeendesignedatMarutiUdyogLtd(MUL).Seeminglyunconventional,thestructureisinlinewithcurrentstrategicrequirementsofMUL.ThoughMULisapublicsectorcompany,itoperatesinamarketthatincreasinglybecomingcompetitive.Givenitsmissionofbecominganinternationallycompetitivefirmintheautomobilesector,highemphasisisplacedonindigenisation,qualitycontrol,andcostcontrol.



ThestructureatMULconsistsoftwoparallelstructures.First,thereisasimplelineandstafftypeofresponsibility-rolehierarchy.This consists of four directorates,nine divisions(shown in chart) and fifty one departments. The second part of structure is based on a salaryhierarchyfromlevel1to19in successivelyincreasinggrades.Both theseparametersoftheorganisationstructure,thoughdelinkedfromeachother,describethedifferentpositionswithinMUL.

*Source:*Basedon''MarutiUdyogLimited''inBSKSChopra:*CasesinCorporatePlanning*(Pune:TimesResearchFoundaion,1989)pp. 139–165.

The needs of the organisation can be derived from the mission and objectives. These needs are those key activities which have to be performed to achieve objectives and realise the mission. Organisation design, therefore, starts with the identification of such key activities. The sequence of steps followed in organisation design could be described as below.

13.2.1.1 Identification of key activities necessary to be performed for the achievement of objectives and realisation of mission through the formulated strategy.

13.2.1.2 Grouping of activities that are similar in nature and need a common set of skills to be performed.

13.2.1.3 Choice of structure that could accommodate the different groups of activities.
13.2.1.4 Creation of departments, divisions, etc. to which the group of activities could be assigned.

13.2.1.5 Establishing interrelationship between different departments for the purpose of coordination and communication.

These five steps lead to the development of an organisation design but the process of organisation is not complete. There are various other issues to be tackled to see that the organisation is an effective medium for the implementation of strategy. The major issues are of the span of management, basic departmentation, line and staff relationships, and the use of committees and group decision-making.

The span of management refers to the ways in which activities can be grouped. The different structures described in the previous section consist of various departments, each of which deals with a distinct group of activities. These structures form the core of basic departmentation.

Line and staff relationship describes the way in which authority is dispersed within the organisation structure. Where a higher level manager exercises direct supervision over a subordinate, authority is delegated in a direct line or steps. Staff positions are advisory in nature. Within the staff departments, however, authority may again be delegated on the basis of line relationship.

The use of committees and group decision-making is often done as an organisational device though it is not per se a part of the organisational structure. Still committees are considered an inseparable part of structure. When they are constituted formally on a permanent basis, the committees work on the basis of specifically delegated authority and responsibility.

The above description of the five essential steps and four related issues in organisational design are, in fact, a theoretical basis for the creation of structure. It is up to the strategists to use this theoretical foundation to design an organisation structure that would suit the requirements of a particular strategy. The skills of strategists are put to test when they design an appropriate organisational structure. Again, a more rigorous test is faced when the existing structure has to be changed to suit the requirements of a modified or new strategy.

13.2.2 Organisational Change

Right at the outset, it must be pointed out that organisational change takes place along two broad dimensions: the structural changes and the accompanying behavioural changes. The first type of change is related to modifications in structural relationship and may entail the creation or disbandment of departments or managerial positions. The second type of change relates to the concomitant behavioural modifications that are essential to absorb the impact of organisational changes.

An example will serve to illustrate the nature of structural and behavioural changes. An organisation which follows a stability strategy has a simple functional structure in existence. This firm now plans to diversify into a related area, and this strategic shift has to be reflected in organisational changes. The choice of structure leads to a divisional form of structure where a new division with a few departments is created to support the related product lines. Some of the functions like personnel and finance are retained at the corporate level as centralised departments. This is the structural change that is envisaged. But organisational changes go beyond mere structural modifications and encompass the issues of how people would react to the changed situation, how the new relationships would be managed, and in what manner would the cohesiveness of the organisation be maintained. These are issues and will be taken up for discussion in a subsequent study dealing with behavioural implementation. Here, we focus only on the structural dimension of organisational change.

Exhibit 13.2 Structural Changes at Modi Rubber Limited

Modi RubberLtd(MRL)hasitscorporateheadquartersatModipuram in UttarPreadesh.Itisaleadingtyremanufacturerofthe country and,beingin thehigh-growthindustry withrelatively high-gradetechnology,thetopmanagementhasalwaysbeen open to changesandadaptation.

Exhibit3.10(a)OrganisationalstructureofMRLduring1982-83

Chairman

ViceChairman

ManagingDirector

- Commercial Manager
  - Purchase
  - Stores
  - Transport
  - Excise
  - Customs
  - Insurance
- Technical Consultant
  - Laboratory
  - Process controlA
  - R&D Process controlB
  - Technical Process control C
  - Training
- General Manager
  - Production
  - Planning
  - Maintenance
  - Mechanical
  - Electrical
  - Production
  - A.B.C.
  - Utilities
  - Industrial
  - Engg.
  - Projects
- Personnel Manager
  - LabourWelfare & Administration Security
  - Medical
  - Timekeeper
  - Social
  - Estate
- ChiefAccounts Controller
  - Costing
  - Purchase
  - Sales
  - General
- QualityControl Manager
  - Quality Audit
  - WasteControl

Exhibit 13.3(b) Organisational structure of MR Lduring 1985-86

ChairmanVice-
Chairman
ManagingDirector

Manager Commerical
- Mgr. Stores Administration Excise Spares&
- import Substitution
- Insurance

General Manager
- Production Mgr.
- ChiefCivil Engg.
- Mgr. Industrial Engg.
- Planning
- Maintenance
- Projects

Manager Personnel
- Industrial Relations
- Training
- Security
- Medical

Manager Fi-nance&Mgt.
- Accounting
- Mgr.Costing
- Mgr. Accounts
- Mgr. Corporate Planning
- Mgr.Time Office

Technical Manager
- Mgr.Factory
- Mgr. Q/C
- Mgr R & D
- Technical Executive
- Mgr.Service & Development

Manufacturing Adviser
- Manager M.I.S.
- Mgr. Systems & Mgt. Services
- Mgr. Computer Operations

Thestructuralchangesthathavetakenplaceduringthefour-yearperiodfrom1982to1986atMRLreflecteffortsatrationalisationoffunctions.For-instance,thetrainingfunctionhasbeenshiftedtothepersonneldepartmentwher-ethescopeoflabourwelfaeandadministrationfunctionshavebeenenlargedandthefunctionitselfhasbeenrenamedasIndustrialRelations.Qualitycontrolhasbeenallocatedto the Technical Manager and a new department of M.I.S. has been created to deal with systems and mangement services. In this manner, thecompanyhastriedtoadjustitsstructurewiththeemergingneedsofitsenvironment.

Source: UnpublishedMBAdissertationtitled *"Acomparativeanalysisofchangesinorganisationalstructureinthepub-licandprivatesectorcompanies"* byE.A.HazarikasupervisedbyDr.AzharKazmi(DepartmentofBusinessAdministration,AMU,Aligarh,1988).

13.3 ORGANISATIONAL SYSTEMS

The organisational structure provides the mechanisms for the distribution of authority and responsibility within the organisation. The net result is a framework of organisational units such as departments and divisions that consist of several positions of authority. Another way to look at organisational structure is to view it as a means of subdividing the total authority and responsibility among different organisational units and positions. Since the organisation has to perform a set of tasks designed to achieve its objectives, a need arises to evolve a system that would bind the different units and positions so that the performance of activities takes place in a coordinated manner. These systems could be collectively referred to as organisational systems.

In this section, we describe six types of organisational systems, laying special emphasis on the role that each of these systems plays in strategy implementation.

13.3.1 Information System

Structure subdivides the total responsibility while the information system serves to coordinate the divided responsibility. If strategy is to be effectively implemented, organisational arrangements are necessary that provide the information to managers to perform their tasks and relate their work to others. The information system, therefore, serves two important purposes: it enables the managers to know what they need to know in order to perform their tasks and also to coordinate their activities with others.

A broader term "management information system" (MIS) is used to denote the organisational arrangement designed to aid managers in performing their activities. Other synonymous terms such as "total system" or "integrated system" are also indicative of the fact that the information system is basically devised to link the different activities being performed in an organisation and to ensure that it works in a coordinated manner. In terms of management levels, MIS has generally been thought of as being more feasible for the middle and operating management rather than the top management. This is so because the middle management is typically involved more in routine and repetitive tasks as compared to that of top management which operates in a longer strategic framework, thus reducing the need for real-time access to information. However, advances in technology underlying MIS may create a situation where the information system design can serve the needs of the top management as well.

The technological advancement in the processing and usage of information has been made by increasing the application of computers as an aid in management. Another term “computerised information system” (CIS) is often used to denote the organisational arrangement that is based on the usage of computers to provide information to managers. It is also proposed that with an appropriate design, CIS that is consonant with strategy, structure and style of an organisation's administrative system will contribute to more effective management.

In the design and administration of the information system, strategists have to concern themselves with the need to have appropriate organisational arrangement that will support the implementation of a particular strategy. Often, the question is of having a primarily informal or a formal system for information. Organisations, in an initial growth phase, having an entrepreneurial or simple functional structure may do with a relatively simple type of information system. As the complexity and diversity of operations increases, the need for a more formal information system arises.

Exhibit 13.4 presents the key dimensions of CIS as relevant to the different types of generic strategies. The key dimensions are three, viz., policy stance (strict, flexible); hardware configuration (mainframe, microcomputers); and the system (transaction processing system, decision support system). Stability strategies require an efficiency orientation that leads to increased efficiency without appreciable increase in the volume of activity. In such a situation, an information system that requires a certain level of rigidity for efficient performance of clearly defined responsibilities, based on access to mainframe computer and transaction processing system aimed at repetitive, programmed decision-making, would be more feasible. On the other hand, a growth strategy would require a decisional orientation that needs quick action and creative response. In such a situation, an information system that adopts a flexible policy stance, uses microcomputers, and adopts a decision support system would be more feasible. In between the two extreme dimensions lie several possible alternatives that could guide the design and administration of information system for different types of strategies.

Exhibit 13.4 Generic strategies and key dimensions of computerised information system

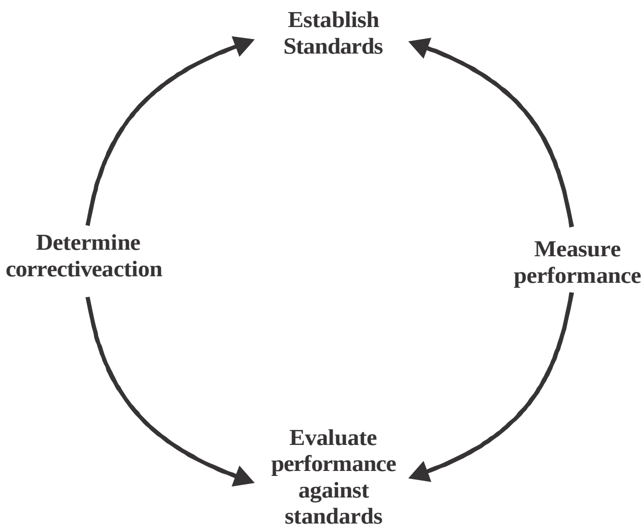
Genericstrategies	Stability—Retrenchment—Growth	
	Rigidpolicy———Flexiblepolicy	
	stance	stance
Keydimensions	Mainframe———Microcomputers computers	
	Transaction processing — —- —support systems	Decision systems

Source: AdaptedfromJ.C.CamillusandA.L.Lederer"Corporatestrategyandthe designofcomputerisedinformationsystems"in*SloanManagementReview,* Spring 1985, pp. 35-42.

13.3.2 Control System

Control has traditionally been considered as a major management function. In controlling, the manager essentially deals with "the measurement and correction of the performance of activities of subordinates in order to make sure that enterprise objectives and plans devised to attain them are being accomplished." In other words, control ensures that the implementation of strategy takes place according to predetermined plans.

The control cycle



Basically, control operates in a cyclical manner as shown in Exhibit 3.12. It is viewed as a four-step process consisting of: (i) establishing standards; (ii) measuring actual performance; (iii) evaluating actual performance against standards; and (iv) determining corrective action to bring performance in line with the predetermined plan. Standards are in the form of budgeted performance. Measurement of performance is done through an appraisal system discussed in the next sub-section. The actual performance is evaluated with reference to the standards and positive or negative variation is observed. Corrective action follows so that the performance corresponds to the standards. This is the manner in which any control system works. In practice, there are several issues that strategists have to consider so that the control system works effectively and satisfies the requirements of the strategy being implemented.

The first issue is the need for a control system. The need for control arises from the fact that the result of sub-division of responsibility and creation of structure is dispersal of the total strategic tasks among different organisational units. Since the activities of each of these units are to be coordinated, controls are necessary. Controls are, in fact, devices to enforce strategic behaviour so that the organisation, as an entity, moves towards the predetermined goals. All types of organisations—successful or inefficient—need controls.

Another important issue is the type of controls to be used. Controls may be classified as formal (or direct) and informal (or indirect or social) controls. Formal controls are prescribed in nature and are based on quantitative, objective data. For instance, financial controls are based on accounting data and are used to quantify performance in fiscal terms. Informal controls are emergent in nature and are based on quantitative, subjective data. For example, adherence to ethical standards can only be ensured through informal means.

Besides the types of controls, strategists have to consider the issue of integrating the formal and informal controls. Since both types of controls are important, they have to be used by strategists in tandem. But it is important to decide the primacy to be given to either of them. In general, the lower the level of management where the control is to be exercised, the greater is the need for formal controls. Conversely, the higher the level of control, the lesser is the need for formal controls. These propositions are understandable because greater structural proximity progressively obviates the need for formal controls. The top management can more effectively control the behaviour and performance of managers who are in direct, personal touch. For employees below, who have to be indirectly controlled, greater reliance is placed on formal controls. The integration of formal and informal controls does not resolve the problem of changing the control mix as strategy changes. Here, strategists have to understand that strategies which require short-term efficiency of operations (e.g., stability strategies) would be more effective with a higher proportion of formal controls. Likewise, strategies which lay stress on long-term efficiency of operations and require speedy implementation (e.g., expansion strategies) will have to use relatively more informal controls.

Next, we see the most important component of the control system, i.e., appraisal.

13.3.3 Appraisal System

The achievement of organisational objectives has to be monitored if the implementation of strategy is to take place. The appraisal system performs this critical role of evaluating managerial performance in the light of organisational objectives. Managerial appraisal is an important element in the total control system that has been discussed in the preceding sub-section.

Several issues regarding the appraisal system have to be considered by the strategists as appraisal serves an auditing function regarding individual managers, groups, and divisions. Appraisal also provides inputs to the personnel functions such as salary determination, rewards and incentive payments, management development, placement, and promotion. From the viewpoint of strategy implementation, the major issues relate to the choice of factors used in managerial appraisal, relevance of the appraisal method to strategy, and the procedure of appraisal.

The choice of factors used in managerial appraisal is critical to the success of the appraisal system as a component of strategy implementation. It is better to use multiple criteria rather than a single criterion like return on investment or profit as no single measure can encompass the total contribution of an individual (or group) either to immediate and long-term results or to the effort of others. Further, it is not only important to evaluate performance in achieving objectives but also to evaluate performance as managers. Regarding the type of factors, it is essential to have a judicious mix of quantitative or objective factors and qualitative or subjective factors so that the results of appraisal are reliable and valid.

There are several appraisal methods available like rating forms, ranking appraisal, behavioural methods etc. Rather than the method alone, its relevance to the nature of strategy is more important. For instance, stability strategies typically stress on improving efficiency in current operations and would require appraisal methods that primarily use objective criteria. On the other hand, expansion strategies aim at performance improvement in the long-run and short-term efficiency may have to be overlooked. An appraisal method that uses objective criteria and evaluates short-range performance is likely to be inappropriate. The real need may be for a broad-based appraisal method that takes into account subjective factors and measures long-range performance.

The third major issue before strategists is the procedure of appraisal. Here, questions like who makes the appraisal, when and how the results would be used have to be answered. In an entrepreneurial structure, the owner-manager is responsible for appraisal but as structure becomes more complex, the responsibility for appraisal has to be shared by other managers. While delegating the responsibility for appraisal, it has to be seen that the appraiser is in close contact with the person whose performance is being evaluated. Regarding the timing of appraisal, the organisational policy may be to have a periodical appraisal which may be yearly or biannual. But when the performance of a project group has to be evaluated, it should be done at the end of the natural period of completion. The use of the results of appraisal have to be guided by the true function of measurement, which is “to increase the perceptions of the problems limiting achievement”. Only a system of appraisal that provides the strategists an understanding of the problems before managers, who are responsible for implementation, is an effective system.

In this context, Management By Objectives (MBO) provides a participatory method of performance and objective-setting where managers can be involved in appraisal so that they themselves and their superiors know what has prevented them from achieving the desired objectives.

13.3.4 Motivation System

Any organisation is a conglomeration of human beings. The individual objectives of organisational members may not be consistent with the objectives of the organisation. A system of motivation attempts to neutralise this dichotomy.

Motivation is a complex behavioural phenomenon and it has been studied in depth by specialists in several fields. But, as yet, there is no complete understanding of how motivation works. However, it is known that incentives play an important role in motivation.

Incentives are the means by which individuals can be encouraged to perform better. Generally, the incentives are divided into two groups: the monetary and the non-monetary incentives. Monetary incentives are provided in the form of money. Salary, bonus, profit-sharing plans, etc., are common monetary incentives. Non-monetary incentives are in the form of rewards, recognition, designation, perquisites, etc. Both types of incentives are important and are used by all types of organisations. However, there are limitations within which these incentives can be used. For instance, salary and other monetary payments are limited due to ceiling on managerial remuneration.

Strategists have to deal with the contentious issues related to the design and administration of motivation system as it is an important organisational arrangement to induce strategically desired behaviour. There are no set rules to decide the quantum and nature of incentives and much depends on an organisation's ability and willingness to provide money, its culture, the industry in which it exists, the general living and economic conditions, and statutory obligations. Within organisations, the conditions are of maintaining a parity among managers who perform similar work or carry nearly equal responsibility and to differentiate between unequal grades of employees.

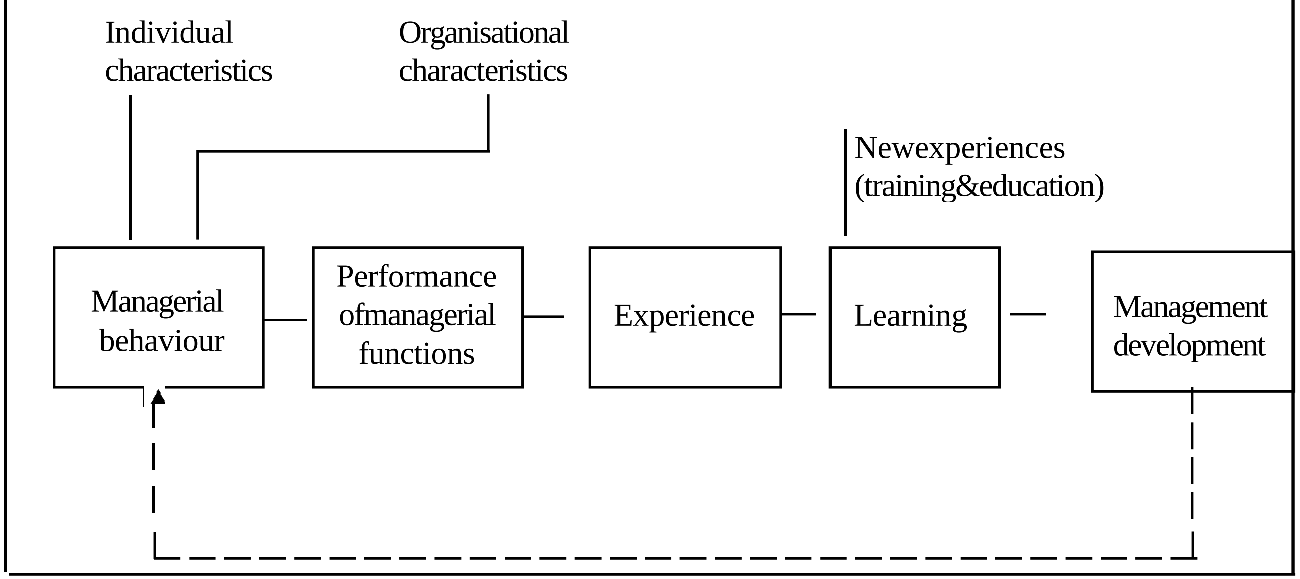
Strategic and structural changes are likely to have an impact on the design and administration of the motivation system. In entrepreneurial organisations, the motivation system could operate in an informal manner as the size of organisation is small and there is a direct contact between the owner-manager and employees. As organisations become increasingly complex, the need for creating formal systems for motivation arises. Organisations in the expansion mode may require lesser monetary incentives as growth itself brings opportunities of better prospects for employees and ensures motivation. Conversely, stable organisations would need a mix of monetary and non-monetary incentives. The limit of monetary incentives may be reached in extremely large and complex organisations which provide creative outlets for individual managers who have reached the saturation level as far as monetary incentives are concerned.

The phenomenon of motivation is extremely complex and multi-faceted. It offers enough scope for strategists, chief executives, and managers for improvisation. In nature, it is related to another complex managerial phenomenon, i.e., leadership and is contingent upon the situation prevailing in any given organisation.

13.3.5 Development System

Management development is considered to be a "process of gradual, systematic improvement in the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and performance of those individuals in an organisation who carry management responsibilities." Schematically, the process of development could be viewed as shown in Exhibit 13.5.

Exhibit 13.5 The process of management development



Source: adaptedfromA.Kazmi:ManagementDevelopmentRationaleandPurpose,*IndianJournalof Training & Development*, *Jan-Mar. 198*

Managerial behaviour is the product of individual characteristics and organisational environment. The environment of organisation is shaped by interacting systems of information, control, appraisal, and motivation. Managerial behaviour is, therefore, the result of the processes that operate within the organisational systems. Management development is the outcome of experience and learning that takes place due to the performance of managerial functions. It is logical to assume that development is a natural process and takes place irrespective of whether it is planned or not. Planned development takes place when new experience is provided in the form of education and training.

The strategic aim of a development system is to see that the new experience is provided in the light of strategic tasks required for the implementation of strategy. Changes in strategy, or adoption of a new strategy, results in a modified set of strategic tasks. The development system has to be activated in such a manner that it prepares the managers to perform this modified set of tasks. It can be seen that the development system performs a vital function in strategy implementation. Practically, the development system may consist of:

- Recruitment of personnel, if not available within the organisation, to handle the emerging strategic tasks;
- Education and training of managers through internal and external training programs to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes to managers for the performance of strategic tasks;
- Career planning and development of managers to prepare them to perform future strategic tasks;
- Organisation development in the form of planned intervention to ensure a smooth transition from one strategic phase to the next and minimise resistance to change.

The four components of the development system, as indicated above, may be used individually or jointly to implement the strategy of the organisation.

Finally, we briefly refer to the planning system that acts as a link between the formulation of strategy and the implementation of plans.

13.3.6 Planning System

Some additional comments are made on the role of the planning system in implementation and changes that might have to be undertaken in the light of a new or modified strategy.

The role of the planning system, per se, does not include implementation as it is mainly related to the formulation of strategy. But forward linkages between the formulation of strategy and the implementation of plans do exist. For instance, the extent of participation of managers in planning and the relative involvement of line and staff managers does affect the manner in which a strategy is implemented. The practices of planning differ from organisation to organisation. In some organisations, the formulation of strategy is a centralised activity and plans are provided in a packaged form for implementation. Under decentralised planning, on the other hand, the participation of managers is of a high order. It is generally felt that when managers, who are ultimately responsible for the implementation of plans, are actively involved in the formulation of strategies, the probability of successful implementation is enhanced. This feeling is based on the assumption that participation affects commitment to successful implementation in a positive manner. The other view is that the tasks of formulation and implementation of strategy are distinct and, therefore, should be performed separately. From this viewpoint, the function of formulation is a staff function while the implementation of strategy is a line function. Both these views prevail and affect organisational policies related to the role of the planning system. Hence, one finds organisations where planning committees act in a centralised structure, either as task groups or staff departments, and mainly perform the functions of formulating the strategies and overseeing their implementation. There are also organisations where formulation and implementation are decentralised to the level of divisions or SBUs, and the overall corporate strategy performs a directive role for the different divisions or the concerned SBUs.

Strategists are concerned with the mechanisms of the planning system and the way it should be changed to suit the requirements of a new or modified strategy. It would be natural to expect that the planning system would work better in a centralised manner in entrepreneurial and functionally structured organisations. In divisional organisations, the planning system could be a decentralised one with the active involvement of SBU-level managers in the formulation as well as implementation of strategy. Thus, it is important to adapt the planning system to the requirements of the strategy that is to be implemented.

Before we end this section, let us have an overview of the six organisational systems that we have discussed in this section.

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A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Activity:

Form groups where each represents a leadership team in a company facing major changes (e.g., rapid growth, digital transformation, or downsizing).

Question:

Design a new organizational structure for your company. Justify your choices and present your structure to the class with an explanation of how it supports the company’s strategic goals.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Activity:

Ask students to interview a professional or manager about an organizational change they experienced.

Question:

What kind of structural change was implemented? How was it received by employees, and what lessons can be learned from the process?

13.4 OVERVIEW OF ORGANISATIONAL SYSTEMS

As we took up the discussion of the six organisational systems one by one, it was clear that each of these systems plays a vital role in the implementation of strategy. Further, changes in strategy create new requirements that have to be satisfied through modifications in the existing organisational systems.

Exhibit 13.6 attempts to bring together what has been discussed, in the form of a matrix showing the predominant organisational system characteristics required for implementing various strategies through the adoption of different types of structures. It should be noted, however, that either end of the systematic continuum does not preclude the possibility of using the characteristics at the other end. The systemic characteristics are indicative rather than definitive and are intended to provide strategists an idea of the relative priority to be accorded to either of the two ends of the continuum. For instance, the control system for implementation of stability strategies should preferably be formal, but the use of certain informal controls is not entirely ruled out. Further, in divisional or SBU structures, the implementation of the expansion strategy should preferably be through informal controls operating between the corporate and SBU levels, but within SBUs formal controls may still operate.

Similarly, the prescribed development system for the

Exhibit 13.6 Predominant system characteristics vis-a-vis strategic continuum and structural alternatives

Strategic continuum	Stability—————————		Expansion
Structural alternatives	Entrepreneurial/——————— Functional	SBU	Divisional
Information	Efficiency-orientation		Decisional orientation
Control	Formal-direct		Informal-indirect
Appraisal	Efficiency-based; quantitative/objective		Broad-based; qualitative/subjective
Motivation	Monetary—informal		Non-monetary-formal
Development	Internal—focussed; programmed, promotion of personnel from within side use of OD techniques		External—focussed; Need-based; recruitment from out-
Planning	Directive		Participative

The implementation of stability strategy is internally focussed, systematic and programmed and is based primarily on the promotion of personnel from within. The implementation of expansion strategies could be more feasible with a development system that is externally focussed as it involves the generation of new skills that may not be available within the organisation. Further, the development system is to be need-based and may require exposure of personnel to specialised training programmes offered by external agencies. Career planning and development will have to take into account recruitment from outside sources. Organisation development may prove to be useful as strategic changes may be extreme and require planned interventions to manage organisational change. But all these prescriptions do not preclude the possibility of using these characteristics, though in a small way, to design and administer a development system to be used for the implementation of stability strategies.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

A mid-sized tech company, "InnovSoft," has experienced rapid growth over the past three years. Initially operating with a flat, informal structure, the company is now struggling with communication delays, overlapping responsibilities, and lack of coordination between teams. To manage this growth, the leadership is considering moving to a more formal, divisional structure. However, some employees are resistant to the proposed changes, fearing loss of flexibility and innovation.

Questions:

1. What challenges in InnovSoft's current structure are prompting the need for organizational change? How can these be addressed through rede-

It is an extremely difficult proposition to find a real organisation which has followed all the prescriptions of changes in organisational systems in line with strategic changes. This is owing to the fact that organistional changes are oftennot planned systematically, or, if such changes do take place, they occur in the manner oforganic adaptation in response to the requirements ofthe new strategy. In practice, therefore, organisational changes occur in bits and pieces rather than asa systematicwhole. Anotherreason forthisslow reaction tostrategicchange is the organisational inertia arising out of the commitment to strategies followed earlier that prevents a clean break from the past. Despite these real difficulties,one occasionally comes across an organisation which apparently seems to have made attempts to implement planned organisational system changes in responseto the requirements of a new strategy.

13.5 LET US SUM UP

This section has dealt with an extremely important aspect of strategy implementation, i.e., structural implementation. We started with defining structure in the context of strategic management and then explained how the structural mechanisms work. This has been done through the example of a new organisation that has decided to implement a strategy to achieve its objectives. The relationship of structure and strategy has long been debated upon. Our view is that any strategy creates its own special requirements that should be satisfied by the structure. Stages of development theories is another issue that has attracted the attention of several authors attempting to explain how an organisation matures from simplicity to complexity in terms of structure.

There are several alternatives of structural designs that could be used to create an organisational structure. Five major types and five other types of structures have been described in this section. For each type of structure, we have pointed out the important advantages and disadvantages that show how and under what circumstances each of these structures could be used.

There is no unanimity with regard to the type of structure that satisfies the requirements of a particular strategy. The section on organisation design and change offers some insights as to how the special needs of an organisation could be assessed to decide what type of structure would be the most suitable.

Organisational systems like information, control, appraisal, motivation, development, and planning form the core of any structure. They are the flesh and blood for a skeleton that is the structure. The design and administration of organisational systems is a challenging task for strategists as it is the way how these systems are managed which determines the success of their implementation. While describing each system, special effort has been made to highlight the manner in which these systems have to be changed to suit the requirements of a new or modified strategy. The study ended with an overview of organisational systems where a comprehensive assessment of system characteristics was done to explain how these change in response to strategy and structural changes.

The next step of implementation is that of policy implementation and is the subject of the next topic.

13.6 KEY WORDS

- **Organisational Design:** It is a step-by-step methodology which identifies dysfunctional aspects of work flow, procedure, structures & rhythms.

- **Span of management:** It refers to ways in which activities can be grouped.

- **Organisational Structure:** It provides the mechanisms for the distribution of authority and responsibility.

13.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS:

1. What is a strategists view of oragnisational structure.

2. Highlight the role of the planning system in strategy evaluation.

3. Outline the issues that strategists have to consider in the design and administration of an appraisal system.

4. What are the implications for structure iforagnisational growth is viewed in terms of stages of development?

5. Discuss th eimportance ofstrategic changes for the following organisational systems :

   a)Information; b)Control;

   c)Appraisal ; d)Motivation;

   e)Development;and f)Planning.

13.8 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. Select a real or fictional organization undergoing major change (e.g., digital transformation, downsizing, expansion). How should its structure evolve to support this change effectively?

2. A company is shifting from a traditional hierarchical structure to a team-based approach. What changes in roles, communication, and leadership might be necessary?

3. How can leadership style impact the success of organizational change efforts? Provide one positive and one negative example.

13.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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FUNCTIONAL PLANS AND POLICIES

STRUCTURE

14.0 Learning Objectives and Outcomes

14.1 Introduction

14.2 Functional Plans and Policies

14.2.1 Nature of Functional Plans and Policies

14.2.2 Need for Functional Plansand Policies

14.2.3 Development of Functional Plans and Policies

14.3 Financial Plans and Policies

14.3.1 Sources of Funds

14.3.2 Usage of Funds

14.3.3 Management of funds

14.4 Marketing Plans and Policies

14.4.1 Product

14.4.2 Pricing

14.4.3 Place

14.4.4 Promotion

14.5 Operations Plans and Policies

14.5.1 Production syste

14.5.2 Operations planning and control

14.5.3 Research and development

14.6 Personnel Plans and Policies

14.6.1 Personnel system

14.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The Objectives of this lesson are:

- To know the Functional plans and policies are needed to be properly developed in the organisation
- To evaluate upon the nature of functional plans and policies implemented by an enterprise.
- To make an assessment of different marketing plans & policies.

Learning Outcomes

After reading this lesson, the students will be able to:

- able to explain how functional plans (e.g., marketing, finance, operations, HR) support the overall strategic objectives of an organization.
- able to design functional-level policies that align with and reinforce the organization's broader strategic direction.
- evaluate how csoordination across functional departments contributes to effective strategy execution and organizational performance.
- demonstrate the ability to use appropriate tools (e.g., budgeting, capacity planning, workforce planning) to create actionable and measurable functional plans.

14.1INTRODUCTION

This lesson deals with the formulation and implementation of functional plans and policies. The emphasis is on the formulation and implementation of functional plans and policies, and the changes to be made in them according to the strategic changes. The study starts with an explanation of the nature, need, and the process of development of functional plans and policies. For each functional area, first the major sub-areas are identified and then follows a discussion of each of these sub-functional areas regarding the content of plans and policies, important factors, and their importance in the process of strategy implementation. The study ends with a section on the integration of functional plans and policies. Five major considerations for strategists are identified and discussed so that effective integration can take place.

14.2FUNCTIONAL PLANS AND POLICIES

For effective implementation, strategists have to provide directions to functional managers regarding the plans and policies to be adopted. In fact, the effectiveness of strategic management depends critically on the manner in which strategies are implemented. In this section, we see the nature of functional plans and policies, why they are needed, and how they are developed.

14.2.1 Nature of Functional Plans and Policies

In terms of the levels of strategy formulation, functional strategies operate below the SBU or business-level strategies. Within functional strategies there might be several sub-functional areas. Thus, a company might have a textile division among its several SBU or business areas. Within the textile division, there might be functional areas such as marketing, production, research and development, etc. Further, the functional area of marketing may have sub-functions such as product development, advertising and sales promotion, market research, etc.

Functional strategies, or more appropriately, functional plans and policies—as they actually are plans or tactics to implement business strategies—are made within the guidelines set at higher levels. Plans are made to select a course of action while policies are required to act as guidelines to action. Functional plans and policies, therefore, are operational plans and tactics to make a strategy work.

Functional managers need guidance from the business strategy in order to make decisions. Operational plans tell the functional managers what has to be done while policies state how the plans are to be implemented.

14.2.2 Need for Functional Plans and Policies

Glueck suggests five reasons why functional plans and policies are needed. Functional plans and policies are developed to ensure that:

Strategic decisions are implemented by all parts of an organization.

There is a basis available for controlling activities in the different functional areas of business.

The time spent by functional managers in decision-making is reduced as plans lay down clearly what is to be done, and policies provide the discretionary framework within which decisions need to be taken.

Similar situations occurring in different functional areas are handled in a consistent manner by the functional managers.

Coordination across the different functions takes place where necessary.

14.2.3 Development of Functional Plans and Policies

The development of functional plans and policies is aimed at making the strategies-formulated at the top management level-practically feasible at the functional level. Strategies need to be segregated into viable functional plans and policies that are compatible with each other. In this way, strategies can be implemented by the functional managers.

The process of development of functional plans and policies may range from the formal to informal. Larger and more complex organizations may have several hundred policies related to every major aspect. Many of these policies could have been formulated through the formal process and laid down in company manuals and documents. Smaller organizations with simpler business may operate with a few policies, most of which could be informal and understood rather than written down.

The process of development of functional plans and policies—whether formal or informal—is similar to that for strategy formulation. Environmental factors relevant to each functional area have an impact on the choice of plans and policies. Organizational plans and policies affect the choice of functional plans and policies. Finally, the actual process of choice is influenced by objective as well as subjective factors. Functional plans and policies affect, and are affected by, resource allocation decisions.

At last, we take up a discussion of the important aspects of each functional area for which plans and policies may be needed. The discussion will be guided by the functional capability factors that were identified. Before going ahead, readers may find it useful to briefly review that section. At the end of this chapter, integration of plans will be discussed so that it is clear that plans have also to be brought together for the sake of consistency and compatibility.

But before we move to the next section, two points have to be noted. First, functional areas have been traditionally segregated into finance, marketing, production, and personnel, and so we follow this pattern in subsequent discussions. But not all organizations divide functional areas traditionally; they do it on the basis of what they actually need. For instance, service organizations have a different set of functional areas. Secondly, the discussion of functional plans and policies that follows is only indicative and not exhaustive. This is understandable because functional managers in each area would formulate plans and policies in greater detail than we can possibly do here. Therefore, for each functional area, only the major issues and decisions have been highlighted.

14.3FINANCIAL PLANS AND POLICIES

The financial plans and policies of an organization are related to the availability, usage, and management of funds. Strategists need to formulate plans and policies in these areas so that strategies are implemented. We discuss below each of these plans and policies and point out the significant decisions that have to be taken.

14.3.1 Sources of Funds

Plans and policies related to the sources of funds deal with financing or capital mix decisions. The major factors regarding which plans and policies have to be made are: capital structure, procurement of capital and working capital borrowings, reserves and surplus as sources of funds, and relationship with lenders, banks and financial institutions.

Plans and policies related to the sources of funds are important since they determine how financial resources will be made available for the implementation of strategies.

Organizations have a range of alternatives regarding the sources of funds. While one company may rely on external borrowings, another may follow a policy of internal financing. For instance, Ingersoll-Rand Ltd has adopted a conservative policy for its strategies of expansion and growth. Nearly 70 per cent of its post-tax profits have been ploughed back, thus reducing dependence on borrowed funds and helping it in keeping interest cost low. Another company, Sudarshan Chemicals, relied entirely on internal accruals in the past to finance its expansion and diversification plans. Now, when it plans to invest Rs. 20 crore on upgradation of technology for its main business of pigment manufacturing, the capital-mix is based on internal accruals as well as term loans.

14.3.2 Usage of Funds

Plans and policies for the usage of funds deal with investment or asset-mix decisions. The important factors regarding which plans and policies are to be made are: capital investment, fixed asset acquisition, current assets, loans and advances, dividend decisions and relationship with shareholders. Usage of funds is important since it relates to the efficiency and effectiveness of resource utilization in the process of strategy implementation.

Implementation of projects in pursuance of expansion strategies typically results in an increase in capital work in progress and current assets. If plans and policies are not clear, the usage of funds is inefficient, leading to less than an optimum utilization of resources. An example is Modi Cement, which followed a deliberate policy of generous capital investment in setting up its plant based on the latest technology. As compared to its competitor Jaypee Rewa's plant, which cost Rs 120 crore, Modi's plant had an investment of Rs 153 crore. The result was high interest liability and depreciation, causing a serious dent in profitability in the initial years. Other factors of usage of funds are also considered by companies to attract and retain shareholders' interest. Payout policies for dividends and bonus distribution play an important role in the usage of funds. Facit Asia, the well-known typewriter company, follows a generous payout policy and has a 25-years' unbroken dividend record, besides several rights and bonus issues of shares. Lakshmi Machine Works has also adopted a consistent policy of rewarding its shareholders with dividends and bonuses. In this manner, companies use financial plans and policies to implement their strategies.

14.3.3 Management of Funds

The management of funds is an important area of financial plans and policies. It basically deals with decisions related to the systemic aspects of financial management. The major factors regarding which plans and policies related to the management of funds have to be made are: the systems of finance, accounting, and budgeting; management control system; cash, credit, and risk management; cost control and reduction; and tax planning and advantages.

The management of funds can play a pivotal role in strategy implementation as it aims at the conservation and optimum utilization of funds—objectives which are central to any strategic action. Organizations that implement strategies of stability, growth or retrenchment cannot escape the rigours of a proper management of funds. In fact, good management of funds often creates the difference between a strategically successful and unsuccessful company. For instance, Gujarat Ambuja Cements, currently the most profitable cement company in the country, has achieved tremendous financial success primarily on the basis of its policies of cost control. This company has been particularly successful in maintaining a low cost for power, which is a major input in cement manufacturing. Similarly, Tata Chemicals maintains a competitive edge, due to its policy of conservation of resources through internal power generation, over its competitors like DCW, GHCL and Gujarat Alkalies. Another company, Asahi India Glass follows a policy of managing its cash flows strategically through conservation in the form of depreciation, which it does through the written-down value method. Finolex Cables has implemented its competitive growth strategies by following a policy of better management of project costs, which were less than half of what its competitor spent, and recovering these project costs much before its competitors could even break even. In this way, through a judicious management of funds, companies can implement their strategies in a better manner.

Exhibit 14.1 :Differing priorities of management and shareholders and the probable Areas of conflict.

Financial Policyarea	Management priorities	Shareholders' priorities	Probablearea ofconflict
1. Sourcesof funds	— Retained earnings — Long-termdebt — Newcommon stock	— Debt — Retained earning —Newcommon stock	— Extentofuse of these resources in financing growth
2. Usage of funds (investment proposals)	— Internalrateof return on the basisof past performance	— Externalaswell asinternal investment opportunity rates including competing businessorgani- sationsof comparablerisk — Anticipated changes in sharevalues asmeasured bytrends in earningspershare anddividends	— Cut-off rate ofacceptable investment opportunities andamounts committedto perpetuate existing investments
3. *Management* offunds	— Measuring financial performance on thebasis ofanticipated changesinspecific cash flows in the foreseeablefuture–amount,certainty andtiming — Acceptablerisk onthe basis of preserving the individual corporateentity andmanagement goals.	— Acceptable riskonthe basis ofa portfolioof investment overseveral companies	— Rankingof investment alternatives; depreciation policy,stock option, acquisition, mergers,etc. — Diversification ofproducts and markets; debt-equity proportions

Source: Adapted from D.B.Ekpenyong: "Strategic financial planning for emergencies"in *The Chartered Accountant, Mar.1989,p.799.*

14.4 MARKETING PLANS AND POLICIES

Plans and policies related to marketing have to be formulated and implemented on the basis of the 4 Ps of the marketing mix, i.e., product, pricing, place (distribution), and promotion. The major issues and decisions relate to these marketing mix factors. Questions such as: what types of products to offer? at what prices? through which distribution channel? and, by the use of which promotional tool? have to be answered.

14.4.1 Product

Product denotes the goods and services that an organization offers to its target markets. Plans and policies related to the product and market need to be formulated and implemented on the basis of characteristics such as quality, features, choice of models, brand name, packaging, etc. Strategies dictate the manner in which product and market characteristics would be defined. Thus, competitive strategies may be implemented by stressing on high quality, better and more features. The growth strategy of Bajaj Auto has the quality of its vehicles as a prominent factor. The product policy of Reliance is to offer high fashion fabrics of new varieties and design. Not only consumer goods companies but industrial products manufacturers may also have to consider the product characteristics, as mentioned above, to set marketing plans and policies. Thermax offers a service franchise scheme to implement its marketing policy for boilers. This policy is based on the thinking that if service is assured in a competitive market, sales will follow. In this manner, product and service characteristics help a company in implementing its strategy just like a strategy guides the formulation and implementation of product plans and policies.

14.4.2 Pricing

Price denotes the money that customers pay in exchange for goods and services. It is important to the seller because it represents the returns of efforts. To a buyer, price is the value that is assigned to the satisfaction of needs and wants. Several price characteristics such as discount, mode of payment, allowances, payment period, credit terms, etc., affect pricing plans and policies. The use of high or low prices for their products is extensively used by companies as a competitive tool. For instance, HCL has based its marketing policy on low-priced copiers and competes with its rivals, mainly Modi Xerox, by claiming a better price-performance relationship of its products. This is done through a promotional policy of comparative advertising. Prices are often used as a determinant of market segmentation, which in turn becomes the basis for creating different models of the same product. The market for soaps, for instance, is divided into premium and popular segments representing the high-priced and low-priced soaps. A segmentation of this type has implications for all the factors in marketing mix, apart from pricing, and helps in implementing marketing policies such as market penetration or partial retrenchment from markets.

14.4.3 Place

Place (or distribution) is the process by which goods or services are made available to the customers. Distribution plans and policies address themselves to issues such as the channels to be used; transportation, logistics, and inventory storage management; coverage of markets; etc.

The use of distribution plans and policies in the marketing function as well as strategy implementation is important. The success of market-oriented strategies, specially in a competitive environment, rests on the efficiency and effectiveness of the distribution system. Several companies realize this importance and make efforts to use their distribution systems strategically. For instance, Food Specialities Ltd. (FSL) has a conscious policy of regarding the retailer as an important link in the distribution system. It offers better margins, facilities and support to its retailers. In contrast, Glaxo—its competitor in the baby foods market—failed to react favourably to retailers' demand for better margins during the 1970s as a result of which its popular brand Farex lost out to Nestle's (now FSL) brand Cerelac, a competitive disadvantage that still exists.

14.4.4 Promotion

Promotion deals with marketing communication intended to convey the company and product or service image to prospective buyers. The promotional mix consists of four activities: advertising, personal selling, sales promotion, and publicity.

Promotional plans and policies have to consider the basic question of what promotional mix to adopt so that promotional activities can be used to implement strategies.

The increasing competitiveness in several industries in India has prompted companies to adopt promotion as a strategic tool. The availability of the medium of television has encouraged small companies making products like Vicco creams, Lijjat Papad, Pan Parag, Promise toothpaste, Nirma and several others to adopt a promotional policy of using TV advertising extensively. The nature of product/industry also determines the type of promotional tool used. The promotional policy of Lohia Machines for LML Vespa Scooters currently rests on using safety as a unique selling proposition as scooters are considered as vehicles mainly for the middle-class men. Eureka Forbes has adopted a deliberate sales promotion policy of door-to-door selling and demonstrations at exhibitions for its home improvement products.

Before we move to the next area of functional implementation, it should be noted that the plans and policies in sub-functions do not operate in isolation; they interact with each other. For instance, product decisions in marketing cannot be taken without considering its pricing, distribution, and promotion aspects. Neither can pricing decisions be taken without considering the other factors in the marketing mix.

14.5 OPERATIONS PLANS AND POLICIES

The plans and policies for operations are related to the production system, operational planning and control, and research and development (R&D). Exhibit 14.3 shows how strategies may influence operations plans and policies.

The strategy adopted affects the nature of product/service, the markets to be served, and the manner in which the markets are to be served. All these collectively influence the operations system structure and objectives which are used to determine the operations plans and policies. Thus, a strategy of expansion through related diversification, for instance, will affect what products are offered to which market and how these markets are served. The operations system structure, which is concerned with the manufacturing/service and supply/delivery system, and operations system objectives, which are related to customer service and resource utilization, both determine what operations, plans and policies are set.

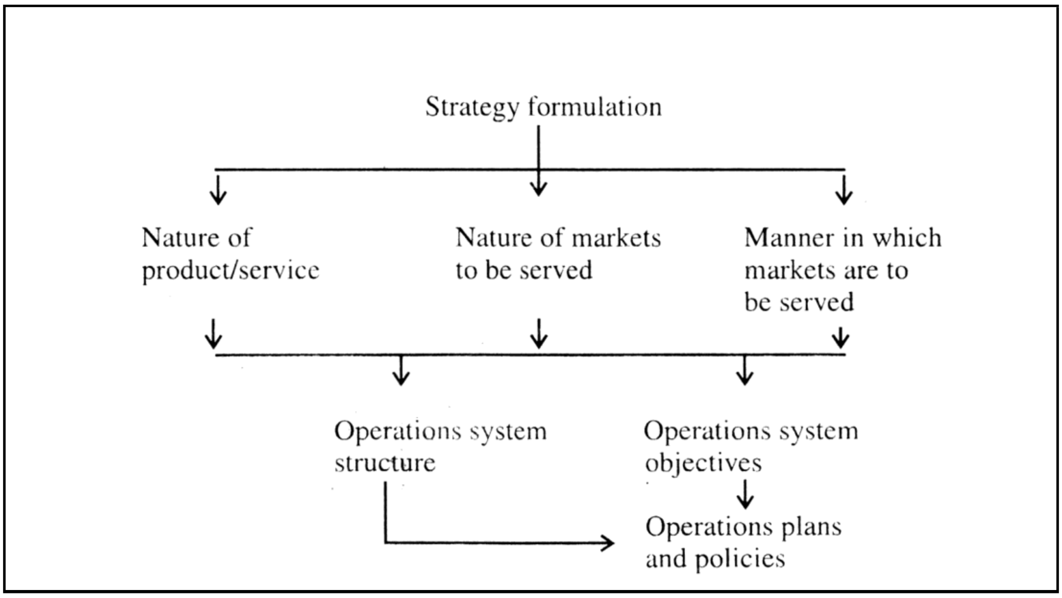

Exhibit 14.3 Impact of strategy on operations plans and policies

We will now delve into a discussion of the three core components of operations plans and policies: the production system, operations planning and control, and Research and Development (R&D).

14.5.1 Production System

The production system encompasses factors such as capacity, location, layout, product or service design, work systems, degree of automation, extent of vertical integration, and similar considerations. Plans and policies related to the production system are significant as they address vital issues affecting the organization's capability to achieve its objectives.

Strategy implementation must account for production system factors, as these involve long-term decisions that influence not only an organization's operational capability but also its ability to implement strategies and achieve objectives. For example, Excel Industries, a pioneering company in industrial and agrochemicals, adopts a policy of successive vertical integration for import substitution. It begins with the end product and then integrates backward to produce its own raw materials. Endosulfan insecticide, a major company product, is produced using raw materials like phosphorus and butenediol, 50% of which are manufactured by the company itself. Another example is Lakshmi Machine Works, where the operations policy related to its product range aims at the successive enlargement of its textile machinery range. This is achieved through a policy of mastering the production process via technology absorption, indigenization, and adaptation to customer needs.

14.5.2 Operations Planning and Control

Plans and policies related to operations planning and control are concerned with aggregate production planning; materials supply; inventory, cost, and quality management; and maintenance of plant and equipment. Here, the aim of strategy implementation is to see how efficiently resources are utilized and in what manner the day-to-day operations can be managed in the light of long-term objectives.

Operations planning and control provides an example of an organizational activity that is aimed at translating the objectives into reality. For instance,

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Fill in the Blanks

1. Functional plans translate __________ strategies into specific actions for departments.

2. A __________ is a standing decision that guides repetitive actions in a functional area.

3. The __________ function is responsible for budgeting, investment planning, and cost control.

4. HR policies support strategic goals by managing __________, training, and employee relations.

5. The coordination of all functional plans ensures organizational __________ and goal alignment.

Instrumentation Ltd. is a public sector company engaged in the business of process control and automation, currently pursuing a strategy of expansion and diversification. Operations planning and control at this company are based on a policy of ancillarisation. Approximately 259 ancillary units supply sub-assemblies and components. The company's centralized production is located at Kota in Rajasthan, and its operations plans are intrinsically linked to the plans of its ancillary units. The centralized production provides all basic inputs to these ancillaries and undertakes the functions of testing, standardizing, and fabricating the equipment.

Another public sector company, Maruti Udyog Ltd (MUL), employs indigenization as a core element of its expansion and growth strategy. Component supply is a significant part of these indigenization efforts, as 75% of a car's value is procured from vendors, making component supply to MUL a substantial Rs. 450 crore industry currently. In line with this policy, MUL recently established a vendor upgradation division to offer technology support, advice on new facilities and systems, and ideas for low-cost automation and process control to its vendors.

Some companies leverage quality as a strategic tool. The operations policies at KSB Pumps Ltd. place significant emphasis on quality aspects. In implementing its strategy of stable growth, KSB Pumps has cultivated a strong reputation for its quality products. Structurally, it features a separate quality assurance department, comprising two groups:

quality inspection and quality engineering. This ensures that quality is not merely a consideration at the inspection stage but is inherently built into the product design itself.

14.5.3 Research and Development

Plans and policies for Research and Development (R&D) deal with product development, personnel and facilities, the level of technology used, technology transfer and absorption, and technological collaboration and support. R&D holds a significant position in operations management, especially in the Indian context, as companies have access to multiple sources of technology, including foreign sources in developed countries.

For strategy implementation, R&D serves as a foundation for strategies such as product development and diversification. R&D is also utilized as a competitive strategic tool. For instance, paint-making has traditionally been considered a middle-level technology, low-capital business in India. However, Jenson & Nicholson (India) Ltd. has placed great emphasis on its R&D policies. This has enabled the company to adopt competitive strategies even though the paints industry, on the whole, is not very profitable. With a high level of R&D investment, this company has ensured a competitive edge, better quality products, and lower production costs. Another example is Gujarat Communication and Electronics Ltd., a public sector undertaking in the business of professional electronics. Its R&D policies are aimed at borrowing technical know-how from several sources, such as foreign companies and national laboratories, in addition to internal R&D, and exploiting it for production and development in the areas of printed circuit boards, integrated circuits, and electronic circuitry.

In this section, we have observed how the production system, operations planning and control, and R&D play a role in strategy implementation. In the next section, we take up the issue of human resources and their role in strategy implementation.

14.6 PERSONNEL PLANS AND POLICIES

Personnel plans and policies are crucial for effective strategy implementation and cover three key areas: the personnel system, organizational and employee characteristics, and industrial relations..

14.6.1 Personnel System

Plans and policies related to the personnel system deal with factors like manpower planning, selection, development, compensation, communication, and appraisal. The importance of such plans and policies lies in the role that personnel systems play in providing and maintaining human resources.

While implementing strategies, companies often rely on personnel systems. Guest Keen Williams (GKW) is a large engineering company which was not doing well in the past. Now it is in the process of a turnaround. One major component of its turnaround strategy has been rationalization of the labor force to improve its financial position and productivity. This has been done through the implementation of a voluntary retirement scheme and entering into a productivity-linked wage agreement with the trade unions. Often, competitive success or failure could also depend on the manner in which personnel systems are designed and used. National Radio and Electronics Company (NELCO) is a Tata group company operating in the area of industrial and business systems, and office and consumer electronics products. It has not been a very successful company owing to marketing-related weaknesses. Personnel policies related to computer manpower have been a major cause for the company's inability to retain employees. This inability arose because of a compensation policy that equated computer professionals with those in other divisions, although the employment market offers much more to computer-trained people as compared to others. Thus, it can be seen that a strategic weakness could be ascribed to a lacuna in the personnel policy related to compensation. Naturally, the removal of a weakness or, alternatively, the creation of a strength could be done through the means of functional policies. Lakhanpal National Ltd, a maker of dry cells, has emerged as a formidable competitor in a highly competitive market. Apart from its strength in technology and marketing, the company has adopted the Japanese principles in designing and operating its personnel systems. For instance, it has an open communication policy and the top management shares the details of production, sales, and marketing with workers every month. The result is high motivation and quality consciousness.

14.6.2 Organisational and Employee Characteristics

Organisational and employee characteristics encompass factors such as the corporate image, the quality of managers, staff, and workers, the perception and image of the organization as an employer, the availability of development opportunities for employees, and working conditions.

Plans and policies related to these factors must be formulated for proper strategy implementation. The true value of organizational and employee characteristics lies in creating an appropriate environment for strategy implementation. Personnel systems, as discussed previously, and other behavioral inputs can be utilized to foster such an ambience. S.K. Bhattacharya, in his pioneering study "Achieving Managerial Excellence," attributes the success of Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation of India (ICICI) to the vision of its ex-Chairman H.T. Parekh. Parekh's leadership style had several facets, one of which was a truly open-door policy based on open communication and information sharing. This resulted in a genuinely consensual mode of decision-making and a supportive environment, enabling this development banking organization to implement its strategies. Certain companies can build strategic competence through effective use of organizational and employee characteristics, which they can then leverage for market competition. Jindal Strips Ltd. is a successful medium-sized steel-making company. Its strengths lie in its R&D skills and the development of indigenous technology. The company derives its strength from its personnel policy of building and sustaining a strong team of engineers who are experts in developing steel-making technology at a much lower cost compared to its competitors. Even a successful public sector company like HMT Ltd. did not have a proper promotion policy until a few years ago. When HMT was restructured into four business groups, a lack of personnel rotation resulted in lopsided promotional opportunities for employees. However, the policy was later reformulated to enable intergroup transfers supported by a need-based HRD program for the development of better team spirit and communication.

14.6.3 Industrial Relations

Plans and policies related to industrial relations deal with issues such as union-management relationships, collective bargaining, safety, welfare, security, employee satisfaction, and morale.

Industrial relations assume special significance in an environment where several factors exist, such as a pro-labor attitude of the government, a plethora of legislations, rules and regulations related to unions and workers, multiplicity of unions, political interference, etc. Within this framework, companies have several options with regard to the plans and policies related to industrial relations. Tata Iron and Steel Company Ltd. (TISCO) claims to have never had a major industrial relations problem for the last six decades. The prevalence of a congenial industrial relations environment is mainly attributed to the personnel plans and policies of the company. For instance, there is genuine consultative participation of workers in management. Besides, there is a clear "no retrenchment" policy, and any dislocation of workers due to upgradation of technology and modernization is dealt with by retraining the workers. Recent years have seen a drastic change in management's attitude towards workers and their unions. Employers have started adopting a tough attitude and, consequently, industrial relations policies have become strict. Hindustan Lever, when it faced problems in the competitive detergent markets, had to adopt a rigid stand and decided to lock out its Bombay unit rather than concede to the union's demands for increased wages. Instead, the company insisted on having a policy of linking wages to productivity and redeployment of workers within the factory as it wanted.

This section has covered the three broad areas for which personnel plans and policies could be set. In the preceding sections, we have outlined the major functional plans and policies. These, however, do not exhaustively cover all the aspects of plan and policy implementation. Several organizations—depending on their needs—could have other functional areas also. For instance, public relations, legal affairs, projects, management information systems, exports, etc., are other functions which could be significant in a business and, therefore, could be grouped in the form of a separate division or department in the organizational structure. Furthermore, non-manufacturing organizations, like service organizations, could have an entirely different set of functional areas.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Multiple Choice Questions (MCQs)

1. Which of the following best describes a functional plan?
   A. Long-term vision of the company
   B. Department-specific plan supporting the overall strategy
   C. Broad statement of organizational purpose
   D. Emergency response plan
   Answer: B, B, D

2. What is the main purpose of functional policies?
   A. To define the company's mission
   B. To guide day-to-day decision-making within departments
   C. To allocate shares in the company
   D. To regulate competitors' actions

3. Which of the following is NOT a typical function involved in functional planning?
   A. Human Resources
   B. Marketing
   C. Finance
   D. Legislature

Service organizations could have an entirely different set of functional areas. Hotels, for instance, might have departments like food and beverages, banqueting, housekeeping, kitchen services, and reception. Keeping in view this functional segregation of activities, plans and policies would have to be set for these different functional areas. Moreover, these plans and policies will need to be changed or modified to suit the requirements of the strategy that the organization implements.

Before the functional plans and policies are implemented, there is a need for their integration. The last section in this study deals with the integration of functional plans and policies.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. **Functional Strategy Mapping**
   Activity: Divide the class into groups, assign each a functional area (HR, Marketing, Operations, Finance).
   Task: Develop a short-term and long-term plan that supports a fictional company's goal of expanding into a new international market.

2. **Policy Drafting Workshop**
   Activity: Choose a functional department and write a policy to support strategic growth (e.g., "Remote Work Policy" for HR or "Customer Retention Policy" for Marketing).
   Task: Present how the policy aligns with overall business strategy.

3. **Cross-Functional Planning Simulation**
   Activity: Simulate a strategic meeting where representatives from all departments must create aligned functional plans to launch a new product.
   Task: Discuss how different departments need to collaborate and what conflicts may arise.

D. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Case :

A mid-size consumer electronics company, "TechSmart," is launching a new smart home product line. The CEO has asked all functional departments to develop supporting plans and policies. The marketing department must target tech-savvy millennials, finance needs to manage costs and funding, HR must hire specialists, and operations must optimize production.

1. What should be the key focus areas for the marketing, finance, HR, and operations departments in their functional plans?

2. Identify one possible policy each department could introduce to support the successful launch of the product.

3. How can coordination between these departments ensure smooth implementation of the corporate strategy?

14.7 LET US SUM UP

Functional implementation deals with how various functional plans and policies are formulated and implemented. Functional plans are created in line with strategic tasks and are intended to serve as a course of action. Policies provide guidelines for functional managers' actions. Both functional plans and policies are crucial for effective strategy implementation. Their development is based on segregating key tasks required to implement strategies and can be done formally or informally.

Financial plans and policies concern the sources, usage, and management of funds. Marketing plans and policies address product, pricing, distribution, and promotion. Operations plans and policies focus on the production system, operations planning and control, and research and development (R&D). Personnel plans and policies cover personnel systems, organizational and employee characteristics, and industrial relations.

As the development of functional plans and policies involves segregation, integration is necessary to bring these functions together effectively. Strategists must consider factors such as the need for internal consistency, relevance to organizational capability, trade-offs, intensity of linkages, and the timing of functional plans and policies to achieve effective integration.

14.8 KEY WORDS

- **Plan:** A detailed proposal or set of decisions for achieving an objective, along with the method for its implementation.
- **Policies:** Principles or guidelines that shape actions and decisions to achieve a plan's objectives.
- **Functional Implementation:** The process of putting various functional plans and policies into practice.

14.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Enumerate and discuss the major considerations strategists in the intergration offunctionalplans and policies?

2. Describethemajorconcernsoffinancial,marketing,operationsandpersonnel plans and policies?

3. Discussthesignificanceofeachfunctionalareaplansandpoliciesforstrategy implementation?

4. What aretheconcernsofoperationsplansandpoliciesandhowtheseare implemented?

5. Consideranyorganisationalofyourchoice.Adoptthe frameworkusedinthe chapterandoutlinethevariousfunctionalplansandpoliciesthatarebeing formulatedand implemented?

14.10 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. Explain the difference between a functional plan and a functional policy. Why are both important in achieving strategic goals?

2. Choose one functional area (e.g., marketing, finance, operations, or HR) and describe two key policies that can support long-term strategic objectives.

2. How do functional plans contribute to the successful implementation of corporate strategy? Provide one example from any functional area.

14.12 ANSWER KEY

A: corporate, policy, finance, recruitment, efficiency

B: B, B, D

14.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

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UNIT-III (Credit-1) **M.Com 2nd Semester**

Course No.MCOMC251 **Lesson No. 15**

BEHAVIOURAL IMPLEMENTATION-LEADERSHIP IMPLEMENTATION, CORPORATE CULTURE, BUSINESS ETHICS, SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES

STRUCTURE

15.0 Learning Objectives and Outcomes

15.1 Introduction

15.2 Leadership Implementation

- 15.2.1 Theoretical Underpinning of Leadership
- 15.2.2 Strategists' Style and Strategy
- 15.2.3 Development of Strategists

15.3 Corporate Culture

- 15.3.1 Composition of Corporate Culture
- 15.3.2 Impact of Culture on Corporate Life
- 15.3.3 Strategy-culture Relationship

15.4 Business Ethics

- 15.4.1 The meaning of Values and Ethics
- 15.4.2 Importance of Values and Ethics
- 15.4.3 Values, Ethics, and Strategy

15.5 Social Responsibilities

- 15.5.1 Different Views on Social Responsibility
- 15.5.2 Scope of Social Responsibility
- 15.5.3 Social responsiveness and strategic management

15.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

After reading this lesson, the students should be able to:

(i) analysestrategy-culturerelationship.

(ii) makeanassessment ofpersonalvalues andbusinessethicsinacorporate world.

Learning Outcomes

- Define key terms related to behavioral implementation, such as reinforcement, punishment, shaping, modeling, cueing, and task analysis.
- Explain the principles of operant and classical conditioning and how they apply to behavioral change.
- Differentiate between various behavioral implementation strategies (e.g., positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, token economies, behavior contracts, direct instruction).
- Articulate the benefits of using a behavioral approach to foster desirable behaviors and achieve specific outcomes.

15.1INTRODUCTION

This section deals with behavioral implementation, focusing on aspects of strategy implementation that influence the behavior of strategists. We will examine five major issues: leadership, corporate culture, corporate politics and the use of power, personal values and business ethics, and social responsibility. These topics are currently gaining significant attention from both academicians and managers in India.

It is assumed that readers are familiar with the concept of leadership. Our aim here is not to delve into leadership theories but to extract current trends in leadership thinking specifically within the context of strategy implementation. We are also interested in understanding how strategy should shape leadership style and how the development of strategists should be approached.

Corporate culture is often considered the hidden factor behind the success or failure of companies. The task of behavioral implementation is to mold an organization's culture to effectively implement strategies. We will explore what constitutes corporate culture, how it affects corporate life, and the relationship between strategy and culture.

Understanding corporate politics and the use of power is imperative for strategists, as these are realities present in all organizations. Rather than allowing strategy implementation to suffer due to internal politics and power dynamics, strategists must learn to leverage them to facilitate strategy execution.

The meaning and importance of personal values and business ethics must be clear to strategists. Furthermore, it is necessary to understand how these impact strategy implementation. We will clarify what values and ethics mean, why they are important, and how they affect strategy implementation.

Social responsibility is a controversial issue, but within the liberal-professional ethos emerging in Indian organizations, the responsibility of business to society is increasingly viewed as important. In the final section of this study, we will describe how social responsiveness can be developed, enhanced, and operationalized through strategic management.

15.2LEADERSHIP IMPLEMENTATION

The role of appropriate leadershipin strategic success is highly significant.It has repeatedlybeen observed that leadership plays a criticalrole in the success or failure of an enterprise and 'It has been considered one of the most important elements affecting organisationalperformance. For the manager, leadership is the focus of activity through which the goals and objectives of the organisation are accomplished.

Exhibit15.1 Theory and Practive of leadership.Albert S.King traces the historical development of leadership theories and identifies nine evolutionary eras,each era focusing

Era		Focus on
1.	Personality	Traitsandqualitiesandgreatpersonalities
2.	Influence	Relationshipbetweenindividuals
3.	Behaviour	Actionsofleaders
4.	Situation	Situationinwhichtheleaderoperates

5.Contingency	Dependenceonbehaviour,personalityinfluenceexertedby leader onsubordinates, and situation
6.Transactional	Roledifferentiationandsocialinteractionbetweentheleader andsubordinates
7. Anti-leadership	Absenceofarealconceptofleadership Culture
8. Culture	ofthe entireorganisation
9. Transformational	Useofinfluencetocreateintrinsicmotivation

Thetenthera,whichKingtermsastheintegrativeera,mayprobablyfocuson integration of the different approaches.

Theevolutionaryeras, as classifiedbyKing,bring intoclearfocus the changing emphasis of different theories of leadership.A greater understanding of the phenomenon of leadership may come through the integration of the different approaches in future.

15.2.1 Theoretical Underpinning of Leadership

Leadership has been a subject of extensive study and research for many years, leading to numerous theories and models. While no universally accepted theoretical framework has yet emerged, a considerable amount of knowledge exists to understand the various factors that influence the context and process of leadership. Exhibit 15.1 (which is not provided here but is referenced) likely offers an overview of leadership theory through different evolutionary eras, highlighting the emphasis in each. It's important to note that these "eras" are not strictly chronological but categorize theories based on similar approaches. Thus, an era represents a group of leadership theories sharing a similar methodological perspective.

King suggests that future developments in leadership theory may be based on an integrated approach. Sziglayi and Wallace have indeed proposed an integrative model of leadership drawing on three distinct theoretical approaches: trait (or personality), behavioral, and situational theories. Their integrative model of leadership identifies four key factors that behavioral scientists and practicing managers can use to understand leadership:

- **The Leader:** This includes individual characteristics, leadership style, dimensions, and reinforcing power.
- **The Subordinate:** This encompasses individual characteristics and their perceptions.
- **The Situation:** This factor considers the nature of the task, the nature of the group, organizational factors, and sources of influence other than the leader.
- **The Performance Outcomes:** The results achieved through leadership.

From the above, it's clear that leadership remains an elusive concept. However, the diverse attempts to explain it have significantly enhanced our understanding and provided crucial insights into its complexities.

Several conclusions can be drawn from leadership theory regarding how strategists can implement leadership effectively. Based on the current state of knowledge, it can be stated that a leader must:

- **Develop new qualities to perform effectively:** Leaders need to continuously adapt and acquire new skills relevant to evolving challenges.
- **Be a visionary, willing to take risks, and be highly adaptable to change:** Strategic leaders must be able to envision the future, embrace calculated risks, and navigate dynamic environments.
- **Exemplify the values, goals, and culture of the organization, and be aware of the environmental factors affecting the organization:** Leaders serve as role models, embodying the organization's essence and staying attuned to external influences.
- **Pay attention to strategic thinking and intellectual activities:** Leadership involves deep analytical thought and the ability to formulate robust strategies.
- **Adopt a collective view of leadership in which the leader's influence is dispersed across all levels of the organization:** Leadership is not solely top-down but involves empowering individuals throughout the hierarchy.
- **Lead by empowering others and place increasing emphasis on statesmanship:** True leadership involves enabling others to succeed and demonstrating broad, long-term perspectives.
- **Adopt a new perspective on power to build subordinate skills and confidence to make them agents of change:** Power should be used to uplift and equip subordinates, fostering their capacity for innovation and adaptation.
- **Create leadership at lower levels and facilitate the transformation of followers into leaders:** A key role of a leader is to cultivate new leaders and inspire growth within the team.
- **Delegate authority and place emphasis on innovation:** Empowering others through delegation and fostering a culture that prioritizes new ideas and approaches are essential.

We will delve into several of these issues in this and subsequent sections.

15.2.2 Strategists' Style and Strategy

"Style describes how top managers behave in leading and motivating their organizations to achieve their desired ends." The style adopted by a strategist relates to the basic leadership functions of leading and motivating. The importance of style in organizational success can be gauged from the fact that it is considered as one of the elements in McKinsey's 7-S framework.

Several leadership theories have been developed based on two or more contrasting styles. For instance, behavior theories like the Ohio State Studies (initiating structure and consideration styles) and University of Michigan Studies (job-centered and employee-centered styles) are based on two contrasting styles of leadership. In this sense, the theoretical approach is based on a static formulation of style, and proposals are made to suggest an appropriate style of leadership.

In the Indian context, Sinha suggests that a purely authoritarian or a purely participative style may not be effective. Instead, he proposes a nurturant-task leadership style which could be more relevant. Nurturant-task leadership combines concern for task with concern for subordinates, and is both directive and paternalistic in its approach. According to Maheshwari, who has studied the relationship between decision styles and organizational effectiveness, Indian organizations are neither authoritarian nor highly participative. The predominant decision style is consultation with limited participation rather than joint decision-making or system-wide participation. Organizational effectiveness is positively related to an entrepreneurial style, as opposed to a bureaucratic style of decision-making. With regard to organizational policy implementation, Maheshwari believes that while the external environment in India plays the most important role in success, internal dynamics and the choice of decision styles should be used to build internal strength.

An interesting and relevant research work relating management styles, the environment (and strategy), and organizational effectiveness has been conducted by Khandwalla. He identified seven fundamental management styles: entrepreneurial, neo-scientific, quasi-scientific, muddling-through, conservative, democratic, and middle-of-the-road. Each of these styles can be characterized based on five dimensions:

1. **Risk-taking**: The willingness to make risky decisions.
2. **Technocracy**: The extent of using planning, qualified personnel, and specific techniques.
3. **Organicity**: The degree of organizational structural flexibility.
4. **Participation**: The involvement of managers in decision-making.
5. **Coercion**: The level of domination by top management.

For example, an **entrepreneurial style** might be characterized by high risk-taking, moderate to low technocracy, moderate to low organicity, moderate to low participation, and variable coercion. Conversely, a **democratic style** could be described as having moderate to low risk-taking, moderate to low technocracy, moderate to high organicity, high participation, and variable coercion.

Beyond characterizing management styles on these five dimensions, the environment can also be rated on factors such as turbulence or volatility, hostility, heterogeneity, restrictiveness, and technological sophistication. Khandwalla's research further demonstrates which management style is best suited to which type of environment. A significant contribution of this research is the finding that when management style matched the environment (and strategy), the firm was more effective than when the management style did not align with the environment.

The practical significance of Khandwalla's research lies in its suggestion for strategists to match their management style to the environment in which their company operates and the strategy adopted.

15.2.3 Development of Strategists

Like other personnel, strategists must be developed before they can undertake the tasks of strategy formulation and implementation. It is the responsibility of top management to oversee the development of strategists, thereby linking leadership implementation to this crucial process.

The methods for developing strategists vary across organizations. However, three key issues are paramount for top management: the choice of future strategists, their career planning and development, and succession planning.

The **choice of future strategists** must be made with great care by top management. While business organizations in India-multinational, family-owned, and professionally managed private companies-may differ in their policies, generally, talented individuals are identified early in their careers to be groomed for top positions. For example, Sumant Moolgaokar, former Chairman of TELCO, was known for his astute judgment of character. He would select potential strategists from junior ranks, assign them significant responsibilities, supervise them closely, and promote them to top positions if they proved suitable. The increasing use of executive assistants in all types of companies, including public sector ones, provides opportunities for top management to select, train, and appraise future strategists. Many companies like TISCO, ITC, ONGC, and Air India adopt this approach. The Tata group of companies primarily relies on the Tata Administrative Services for sourcing future strategists.

The **career planning and development of future strategists** can be approached formally or informally. Executives with a formal professional management education are often familiar with the intricacies of strategic management due to exposure to integrative courses like Business Policy. Those without such a background may undergo specialized training, often at external institutions. In family businesses, top management may typically opt for an informal approach. It's also possible to combine formal and informal methods, where potential executives receive training and development programs followed by individual guidance and counseling from senior executives within the organization.

While the selection of strategists and their career development help build a talent reservoir, **succession planning** enables top management to prepare contingency plans for replacing existing key managers whenever needed. Small organizations often depend solely on the leadership of a single entrepreneur. Large organizations, too, sometimes become excessively reliant on one chief executive. The crucial question for top management should be: "What should happen if the entrepreneur or chief executive is not there?" Unfortunately, death and disability often occur without notice, and a top executive may also be lured away by better prospects. Planning for management succession can address these contingencies.

In this section, we have examined three important issues related to leadership implementation. These issues address the tasks of strategists in leadership positions. However, the true test of leadership lies in viewing it as an ongoing process. The functions of leadership cannot be performed solely by occupying top positions; they involve exerting leadership in several areas. For instance, strategists are called upon to make significant contributions to developing an appropriate corporate culture, managing corporate politics, exemplifying personal values, and helping the organization discharge its social responsibilities. Moreover, all these tasks must be performed within the broader context of behavioral implementation of strategy. The following sections will delve into these issues further.

15.3CORPORATE CULTURE

The phenomenon that often distinguishes successful organizations from less successful ones can be summed up as "corporate culture." Well-managed organizations apparently possess distinctive cultures that are, in some way, responsible for successfully implementing strategies. "It has been clearly demonstrated that every corporation has a culture (which often includes several sub-cultures) that exerts powerful influences on the behavior of managers." Below, we will explore what corporate culture is, how it influences corporate life, and how it can be managed to become strategy-supportive.

15.3.1 Composition of Corporate Culture

"Organizational (or corporate) culture is the set of important assumptions—often unstated-that members of an organization share in common." These shared assumptions primarily consist of beliefs and values. Beliefs are assumptions about reality, derived and reinforced by experience. Values are assumptions about ideals that are desirable and worth striving for. When these beliefs and values are shared within an organization, they create its corporate culture.

The manifestation of corporate culture within an organization is evident in:

- **Shared things:** (e.g., the way people dress, office décor, symbols)
- **Shared sayings:** (e.g., common phrases, slogans, stories like "let's get down to work")

- **Shared actions:** (e.g., a service-oriented approach, decision-making processes, meeting protocols)
- **Shared feelings:** (e.g., the general atmosphere, morale, perceptions like "hard work is not rewarded here")

These shared assumptions help to decipher the composition of any organization's corporate culture.

15.3.2 Impact of Culture on Corporate Life

"Culture affects not only the way managers behave within the organization but also the decisions they make about the organization's relationships with its environment and its strategy." "Culture is a strength that can also be a weakness." As a strength, culture can facilitate communication, decision-making, and control, and it can foster cooperation and commitment. As a weakness, culture may interfere with the smooth implementation of strategy by creating resistance to change.

15.3.3 Strategy-Culture Relationship

Having discussed what constitutes corporate culture and how it affects corporate life, it's crucial to understand its relationship with strategy. Since each strategy creates its own unique set of managerial tasks, strategy implementation must consider the behavioral aspects and ensure these tasks are performed efficiently and effectively. Managerial behavior, stemming from corporate culture, can either facilitate or obstruct the smooth implementation of strategy. The basic question for strategists, therefore, is how to create a strategy-supportive corporate culture. In other words, a major role of leadership within an organization is to create an appropriate strategy-culture fit.

Strategists have four approaches to create a strategy-supportive culture:

1. To ignore corporate culture;
2. To adapt strategy implementation to suit corporate culture;
3. To change the corporate culture to suit strategic requirements; and
4. To change the strategy to fit the corporate culture.
5. The first approach, ignoring corporate culture, may be followed when it is nearly impossible to change the culture. This is often advisable because changing a nebulous phenomenon like corporate culture is genuinely difficult. Furthermore,

forced cultural changes in a short duration can be traumatic for organizational members.

6. It is generally easier to adapt implementation to suit the requirements of corporate culture. This is possible because the behavioral aspects of implementation offer strategists a range of flexible alternatives in terms of structure, systems, and processes. These variables can be manipulated to align with the interests of the existing corporate culture. However, each situation would call for an innovative solution and would test the capabilities of managers as strategists.

7. As mentioned, it is extremely difficult to change corporate culture. But in some cases, it may be imperative. For instance, the recent surge of takeovers and acquisitions in Indian industry has led to situations where many erstwhile multinational subsidiaries have been acquired by family business groups. This has initiated a process-often prolonged and painful-of cultural transition. Such a transition can be brought about by a careful understanding of the existing culture, making strategic tasks explicit, assessing the risks of cultural change, enhancing managerial capability to imbibe changes, and, most importantly, exhibiting strong, assertive leadership.

8. Rather than changing strategy to suit culture, it is often better and more economical to consider the cultural dimension while formulating strategy. One important factor is commitment to past strategic actions, which suggests that strategic changes should be incremental rather than drastic, allowing cultural ripple effects to settle down and create a more conducive environment for strategy implementation. However, if an impregnable cultural barrier is faced after strategy implementation, it may be better to abandon the strategy or use a combination of the above three approaches.

The next important issue of behavioral implementation relates to corporate politics and the use of power.

In the Indian context, the presence of politics and the use of power are, perhaps, more visible than in other cultures. This may be due to the pervasive "enviousness" (competitive or self-interested behavior) often exhibited in Indian organizations. Managers not only have to deal with-and are affected by-intra-corporate politics but also inter-corporate politics between rival companies. At a higher level, Indian industry is plagued with politics between associations and federations of business, public versus private sector, small versus large sector, multinational versus local firms, and technocrats versus bureaucrats.

In such a milieu, strategists must be aware of not only internal political considerations but also the politics and power play present in other organizations, particularly government departments and ministries, with which they have to deal.

Discussing corporate politics and the use of power involves navigating a fine line between moral and amoral use of these forces. It is easy for strategists to often forget the distinction between using politics and power for self-benefit versus for the benefit of the organization or society. What blurs this distinction is often a lack of personal values and a sense of business ethics. We will discuss these issues in the next section.

15.4BUSINESS ETHICS

As we have said above, only personal values and a sense of business ethics can help a strategist to distinguish between moral and amoral use of politics and power as a means to attain organisational goals. What are personal values and business ethics and how are they important to strategists ? How are values and ethics relevant to strategic management? We attempt to answer these questions below.

15.4.1 The Meaning of Value and Ethics

Personal values refer to a conception of what an individual or group regards as desirable. A value is a view of life and a judgment of what is desirable that is very much part of a person's personality and a group's morale. Thus, a benign attitude to labor welfare is a value which may prompt an industrialist to do much more for workers than the labor laws stipulate. Service-mindedness is a value which, when cherished in an organization, manifests in better customer satisfaction. Personal values are imbibed from parents, teachers, and elders, and as an individual grows, values are adapted and refined in the light of new knowledge and experiences. Within an organization, values are imparted by the founder-entrepreneur or a dominant chief executive and they remain in some form long after that person is not there. J.R.D. Tata, the previous chairman of the Tata group, when asked to define the House of Tata and what links the different Tata companies together, said: "I would call it a group of individually managed companies united by two factors. First, a feeling that they are part of a larger group which carries the name and prestige of Tatas, and public recognition of honesty and reliability—trustworthiness. The other reason is more metaphysical. There is an innate loyalty, a sharing of certain beliefs. We all feel a certain pride that we are somewhat different from others.” The several values that J.R.D. Tata refers to have been derived from the ideals of J.N. Tata, the founder of the Tata group.

Business ethics operate as a system of values and "is concerned primarily with the relationship of business goals and techniques to specifically human ends." "Specially human ends" mean viewing the needs and aspirations of individuals not merely as individuals but as a part of society. It also means the realization of the personal dignity of human beings.

A major task of leadership is to inculcate personal values and impart a sense of business ethics to the organizational members. At one end, values and ethics shape the corporate culture and dictate how politics and power will be used, and at the other end, clarify the social responsibility of the organization.

15.4.2 Importance of Values and Ethics

A typical dilemma faced by strategists is to somehow reconcile the pragmatic demands of work (which often degenerate into distortion of values and unethical business practices) to the call of the "inner voice" which somehow prevents them from using unethical means for achieving organizational goals. This dilemma stems from the fact that apparently the value system of the organization has already been contaminated beyond redemption. Some analysts attribute this to acceptable behavior in society at a particular point in time or justify it in terms of the rapid transition of a developing society where social mechanisms become obsolete.

Corruption in industry, which is a major by-product of degradation of values and ethics, is also related to the inability of industry to stand up to the discretionary powers of a regulatory system designed and administered by an unholy alliance of bureaucrats and politicians. But repeated observations have shown that excellent organizations that-besides other values-have explicit belief in, and recognition of, the importance of economic growth and profits, are driven by values rather than avarice. It has been possible for Indian companies such as Asian Paints, Bajaj Auto, ICICI, and Amul to excel on the basis of superordinate goals-a set of values and aspirations and corporate culture. Strategists, therefore, have to provide the right values and ethical sense to the organizations they manage.

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Behavioral implementation focuses on aligning __________ and __________ with the strategic goals of the organization.

15.4

2. __________ is the process of encouraging and reinforcing desired behaviors that support strategic initiatives.

3. Behavioral resistance to change often stems from __________ and __________.

Personal values and ethics are fundamental for all human beings. They are especially critical for strategists, who act as custodians of the immense economic power society vests in business organizations. While it's one thing for strategists to possess personal values, the question of whether these values *should* influence considerations for strategy formulation and implementation is tricky. A more relevant question is: can strategists *prevent* their personal values from affecting strategy formulation and implementation?

Christensen and others offer an answer: "Executives in charge of company destinies do not look exclusively at what a company might do or can do. In apparent disregard of the second of these considerations, they sometimes seem heavily influenced by what they personally want to do." If we refer to the final proposition in Exhibit 1.6 (not provided here), we would likely find this to be true. Guided by this, it can be added that "purity of mind" can only come from having the right connection between values, ethics, and strategy. It is imperative that strategists make strategic decisions not only based on purely economic reasons but also by considering values and ethics.

At this point, it is necessary to differentiate values and ethics. Values are personal in nature (e.g., a belief in providing customer satisfaction and being a good paymaster), while ethics is a generalized value system (e.g., avoiding discrimination in recruitment and adopting fair business practices). Business ethics can provide the general guidelines within which strategic management can operate. Values, however, offer alternatives to choose from. For example, philanthropy as a business policy is optional. A strategist may or may not possess this value and still remain within the limits of business ethics.

It is values, therefore, that vary among strategists in an organization, and such a variance may be a source of conflict at the time of strategy formulation and implementation. Strategists have to reconcile divergent values and modify values, if necessary. A typical situation of value divergence may arise while setting objectives and determining the precedence of different objectives. One group of strategists (perhaps a coalition) might be interested in production-oriented objectives-such as standardization and mass production-while another group may stress marketing-related objectives-like product quality and variety, small-lot production, etc. These interests may be legitimate in the sense that they arise from their functional bias. It is then up to the chief executive to reconcile these divergent values. Obviously, this can best be done in light of strategic requirements and environmental considerations.

Modification of values is frequently required for strategy implementation. A particular strategy, say of expansion, may create value requirements such as a stress on efficiency, a risk-taking attitude, etc. Implementation may be sub-optimal if existing values do not conform to these requirements. In such cases, modification of values is necessary. However, what was said of corporate culture is true for values too: they are difficult, if not impossible, to change quickly. A judicious use of politics and power, redesigning of corporate culture, and making systematic changes in organizations can help to modify values gradually.

15.5SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Strategic planning, through environmental and corporate appraisals, provides answers to what an organization might and can do. Personal values justify what an organization wants to do. Social responsibility, along with business ethics, tells what an organization ought to do. The issue of responsibilities of business towards society merits consideration in all phases of strategic management, but to make it explicit and meaningful, it should be brought to the foreground during strategy implementation. In this last section of the study, we will first present the differing views on social responsibility, describe its scope, and then, finally, demonstrate how social responsibilities could be imbibed in strategic management.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Which of the following best describes behavioral implementation?
   A. Designing an organization's financial strategy
   B. Adjusting employee attitudes and behavior to support strategy
   C. Developing product innovation strategies
   D. Acquiring external funding for expansion

2. A major barrier to effective behavioral implementation is:
   A. High production cost
   B. Technological advancement
   C. Employee resistance to change
   D. Competitive pricing

3. Which of the following tools is most useful for promoting positive behavior during implementation?
   A. Job rotation
   B. Corporate tax planning
   C. Training and development programs
   D. Market analysis

15.5.1 Differing Views on Social Responsibility

The issue of social responsibility in business evokes varying—and often, extreme—responses from academicians and businessmen. At one end, a body of opinion clearly does not favor including social responsibility in business considerations. Under this view, notably propounded by economists Adam Smith and Milton Friedman, the sole responsibility of business is to perform its economic functions efficiently, provide goods and services for society, and earn maximum profits. By doing so, it is felt that market forces would ensure that business fulfills its economic functions and leaves social functions to other societal institutions such as the government. However, this view has been severely criticized on several grounds, particularly the inadequacy of market forces and competition to ensure accountability.

At the other extreme, there is an opposite view which favors the position that it is imperative for business to be socially responsible. This is based on the argument that business organizations are a part of society and must serve primarily societal interests rather than narrow economic objectives such as profit generation. In doing so, they have to deal with social concerns and issues and allocate resources for solving social problems.

In between these two extreme views, there is considerable support for the opinion that business organizations should not attempt to solve all, or any, types of social problems. Rather, social responsiveness should be exercised on a selective basis, and responsibility should be discharged in such a manner that corporate competence acts as a limitation. The scope of social responsibility should be limited to those areas where the business organization can achieve its self-enlightened objectives, which need not be contradictory to each other and should be achieved simultaneously.

15.5.2 Scope of Social Responsibility

The scope of social responsibility is wide and can be considered in terms of different factors. Some people define social responsibility in terms of **claimants or stakeholders**: the insiders and outsiders. The insiders are the employees and shareholders, while the outsiders include customers, suppliers, creditors, the government, unions, competitors, and the general public.

Another way to define the scope of social responsibility is in terms of **social concern**. Thus, business organizations, depending on their nature, size, and breadth of activity, could extend social responsiveness to the problems of the whole world, nation, local community, industry, and to themselves.

Business organizations could also classify social responsibility in terms of its **relatedness to their own activities**. In this way, social responsibility discharged to secure advantages for itself, for example, the promotion of market-related activities (a tractor manufacturer educating farmers on agricultural mechanization) or product-related activities (an electronics company sponsoring a technical institute for the supply of technology or trained personnel) could be termed as **business-related social responsibility**. Some business organizations, however, undertake **philanthropic activities** in areas of community welfare, rural development, the arts, or sports, which are in no way directly related to their own activities.

Untill now, we have not brought the strategic angle into discussion, but a discerning reader must havenotedthe nature ofrelationship that anorganisation's social responsiveness has with its strategic management. The next sub-section attempts to clarify this relationship.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Case :

A company, "GreenTech Innovations," is implementing a sustainability strategy. However, employees are not fully adopting the new eco-friendly practices. Surveys show a lack of motivation and understanding of the new policies.

1. What behavioral challenges is GreenTech facing in implementing its new strategy?
2. Suggest two behavioral tools or techniques management can use to increase employee buy-in.
3. How can leaders serve as role models to influence employee behavior during the transition?

15.5.3 Social Responsiveness and Strategic Management

We may consider **social responsiveness** as the level of interest exhibited by an organization in discharging social responsibility. It is generally the top management which makes the major decisions regarding the choice of social concerns, definition of the scope of activities, and resource allocation to social responsibility functions. These decisions are based on the views, opinions, personal values, and considerations of the business ethics of the top management. Having decided, in principle, to discharge social responsibility, the top management should seek to align its social responsiveness with strategic management. By such an alignment is meant the reflection of social responsiveness in all the phases of strategic management. Thus, the role of strategists, strategy formulation and implementation, and evaluation will be affected by social responsiveness.

The role of the board of directors is crucial in generating a high level of social responsiveness. Then it is for the chief executive to take up the tasks involved in discharging social responsibility. The mission of the organization could be stated in such a manner that the role of the organization in society is clear. This should be reflected in objective-setting. Besides economic objectives, non-economic objectives should be set that can help an organization to decide what has to be achieved in the areas of social responsibility. The environmental appraisal, which includes an assessment of the social environment, should help an organization's strategists to forecast social concerns and issues that need urgent attention. Corporate appraisal should assist the strategists in assessing corporate competence to tackle the social problems, which should, in addition, help the top management in setting the priorities of social responsiveness. The choice of strategic alternatives could be guided by these priorities. In fact, there is a strong case to argue that "the inner coherence of the corporate strategy would be extended by choosing (social) issues most closely related to the economic strategy of the company, to the expansion of its markets, to the health of its immediate environment, and to its own industry and internal problems".

When it comes to strategy implementation, social responsiveness would seek to alter the pattern of resource allocation. This is a crucial test for the top management to stick to its convictions. Without adequate allocation of funds, not much headway can be made. Business organizations that are believers in social activism will have to assign duties and responsibilities to personnel or may even have to create specific positions and systems so that social responsiveness does not suffer. Policies and procedures will have to be set for an effective discharge of social responsibility functions. The leadership role of strategists will be exhibited if they take a lead in promoting social responsiveness among organizational members and set an example by developing and inculcating personal values which support rather than impede the discharge of social responsibility functions. Up till now, we have seen how social responsiveness can be aligned with strategy formulation and implementation. But social responsibility functions, just like other business functions, need to be evaluated with regard to their effectiveness.

Social audits can serve the purpose of evaluation of social performance. The social audit is "a commitment to systematic assessment of and reporting on some meaningful, definable domain of the company's activities that have social impact." "Organizations like TISCO and ITC have been pacesetters so far as the introduction of social audit as a means for measuring their social performance is concerned."

All in all, it can be said that social responsiveness can be operationalized and activated by aligning it with the strategic management process. The quality of social responsiveness can also be considerably enhanced by doing so.

Our discussion of social audit has already moved us to a point where we have referred to evaluation. The next topic deals with strategy evaluation—the last phase of strategic management-in detail.

D. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
Activity:

1. **Behavior Audit Simulation**
   Task: Analyze a fictional or real company. Identify behaviors that are misaligned with its strategy and suggest interventions to bring alignment.

2. **Change Communication Plan**
   Task: Create a communication plan to address employee concerns and motivate them during a major strategic change (e.g., digital transformation or restructuring).

3. **Role-Play Exercise**
   Task: Role-play a manager handling employee resistance during a strategic implementation. Discuss the importance of empathy, feedback, and motivation.

15.6LET US SUM UP

This unit has addressed several issues relevant to the behavioral aspects of strategy implementation. Our continuous effort has been to place these important issues, often covered in other management program courses, within the context of strategic management.

We began by describing the evolution of various leadership theories, leading to an integrative approach. This approach provides very useful insights into how the complex phenomenon of leadership likely works, and we listed several practical prescriptions for strategists. The chosen strategy significantly impacts leadership style, and strategists must adapt their style to suit the requirements of a particular strategy. The development of strategists is the responsibility of top management, and they achieve this through careful selection of strategists, their career planning and development, and succession planning.

Corporate culture is composed of beliefs and values that organizational members share in common. These have a significant impact on corporate life, and no strategy implementation effort can succeed if the culture is not strategy-supportive. By relating strategy to culture, we have described how strategists can develop a meaningful approach to creating a good strategy-culture fit.

The positive use of politics and power is gaining ground, and "politics" is no longer solely a negative term. The theme of the section on corporate politics and the use of power is to demonstrate how strategists should understand corporate politics and how power should be utilized to facilitate strategy implementation.

Personal values and business ethics aim to prevent the indiscriminate use of power politics within organizations. Strategy has a moral component, which strategists often recognize but find difficult to operationalize. Through behavioral implementation, it is possible to modify and reconcile divergent personal values of dominant stakeholders within organizations.

Social responsibility is a contentious issue. We presented three different views to the reader: those for and against responsibility, and a third view advocating for consistency between economic goals and social performance. Due to a combination of internal and external factors, business opinion in the Indian industry is moving towards a gradual acceptance of social responsibility. To give a practical orientation to the discharge of social responsibility, strategists must define its scope and then align social responsiveness with the strategic management process.

With this chapter, we have concluded our discussion of strategy implementation. The next topic will delve into the final phase of strategic management: strategy evaluation.

15.7KEY WORDS

- **Corporate Culture:** Refers to the shared beliefs, values, and behaviors that determine how a company's employees and management interact and conduct business.

- **Business Ethics:** The study and application of moral principles and values that guide decision-making and conduct in business operations and practices.

- **Social Responsibility:** The obligation of an organization to consider and address its impact on society and the environment, beyond its direct economic functions.

15.8SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS.

1. Write a descriptive note onthe importance of leadership style instrategy implementation.

2. Whatis corporate culture composed of and make an assessment of theimpact of culture on corporate life?

3. How do values and ethical considerations affect behavioural implementation?

4. How can strategists limit the scope of social responsibility?

5. What is meant by aligning social responsiveness to strategic management?

15.9LESSON END EXERCISE

1. What is behavioral implementation in strategic management, and why is it critical for successful strategy execution?

2. Explain how organizational culture influences behavioral implementation.

3. Discuss the role of leadership in shaping employee behavior during strategy implementation.

____

____

15.9 ANSWER KEY

A: employee behavior, organizational culture; Motivation; fear of the unknown, lack of communication

B: B **,**C **,** C

15.10 SUGGESTED READINDS

- Bhattachary, S.K. and N. Venkataramin, Managing Business Enterprises: Strategies, Structures and Systems, Vikas Publishing House, New Delhi, 1983.
- Porter,M. E. Business Policy Text and Cases, Irwin, Inc., Homewood Illinois, 1987.
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ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL SYSTEMS AND CONTROL

STRUCTURE

16.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this lesson are:

- To discuss the role of Organizational Systems and Control.
- To evaluate the role of Organizational Systems and Control.

Learning Outcomes

After reading this lesson, the students will be able to:

- Explain how organizational systems support strategic evaluation and control by ensuring alignment between strategic goals and operational activities.
- Able to assess various tools and techniques (e.g., KPIs, dashboards, balanced scorecards) used within organizational systems to monitor performance and progress toward strategic objectives.
- able to evaluate how feedback mechanisms within organizational systems help in identifying deviations from strategic plans and facilitate corrective actions.

16.1INTRODUCTION

As we took up the discussion of the six organizational systems one by one, it is clear that each of these systems plays a vital role in the implementation of strategy. Further, changes in strategy create new requirements that have to be satisfied through modifications in the existing organizational systems.

Exhibit-16.1 attempts to bring together what has been discussed in the form of a matrix showing the predominant organizational system characteristics required for implementing various strategies through the adoption of different types of structures. We have included the characteristics of the economy and the environment to provide a holistic perspective to the relation of the external environment and the core systems within an organization.

It should be noted, however, that either end of the systematic continuum does not fully preclude the possibility of using the characteristics at the other end. The systemic characteristics are indicative rather than definitive and are intended to provide strategists an idea of the relative priority to be accorded to either of the two ends of the continuum. For instance, the control-system for the implementation of stability strategies should preferably be formal but the use of certain informal controls is not entirely ruled out. Further, in divisional or SBU-structures, the implementation of the expansion strategy should preferably be through informal controls operating between the corporate and SBU-levels, but within SBUs, formal controls may still operate.

Exhibit-16.1 Predominant System Characteristics vis-à-vis Strategic Continuum and structural Alternatives.

NatureofEconomy	**Controlled,protected, andregulated**	**Globalised,liberalized andprivatized**
Environmental characteristics Strategiccontinuum Structuralalternatives	Certain,stableand predictable Stability/controlled growth Entrepreneurial / Functional	Unstable,volatileand bewildering Focused expansion / selective divestment Division/SBU/alternate andnewforms
Information Control Appraisal Motivation Development Planning	Efficiency– orientation Formal – direct Efficiency based Quantitative/objective Monetary-informal internal-focussed; Programmed;promotionof personal Directive	Decisional-orientation informal-indirect Broad-based; Quantative/subjective Non-Monetary-formal External-focussed Need-based;recruitment Fromoutside;useofOD techniques Participative

The organizational system characteristics as follows :-

1. **Information System:** Change from a restrictive style of decision-making to a participative style supported by better communication through a decentralized structure.
2. **Control System:** Change from a system of monthly performance reports to a more result-oriented review and control mechanism which updated operating results of each line of business through monthly operating reviews by presidents/group VPs.
3. **Appraisal System:** Change from a traditional appraisal to a performance-based appraisal system aimed at creating an atmosphere that supported professionalism.

4. **Motivation System:** Change to an informal and accommodating style of management from a restrictive traditional style. Compensation packages for managers were based on an "assigned job values" system and not on designation. Beyond a certain rank, there was only a minimum for a salary grade and no maximum. There were no fixed increments.

5. **Development System:** For senior managers, a planned system of deputation from corporate planning to line function existed. External recruitment was done if positions could not be filled through promotions from within.

16.2ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL SYSTEMS IN EVALUATION

The process of strategic evaluation and control does not operate in isolation. Rather, it works on the basis of different organizational systems that are used to implement strategies. Earlier, we described six organizational systems: information, control, appraisal, motivation, development, and planning. There, the thrust of discussion was to understand the role that these systems play in strategy implementation and how they have to be adapted to suit the requirements of changing strategies. Here, we briefly review the role of organizational systems in valuation.

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Activity 1: Organizational Structure Analysis

- **Scenario:** You are a new consultant hired by "EcoSolutions Inc.," a rapidly growing startup focused on sustainable packaging. Currently, all decisions go through the CEO, leading to bottlenecks and slow responses. The team is feeling overwhelmed and confused about who is responsible for what.
- **Task:**
    1. **Analyze:** What type of organizational structure does EcoSolutions Inc. currently seem to have (e.g., highly centralized, flat, hierarchical)? What are the potential pros and cons of this structure for a growing startup?
    2. **Propose:** Based on the scenario, propose **two specific changes** to their organizational structure (e.g., introduce departments, define clear reporting lines, delegate authority).
    3. **Justify:** Explain how each proposed change would improve efficiency, reduce bottlenecks, and clarify roles, directly linking it to the principles of effective organizational systems.

16.2.1 Information System

Evaluation is done by comparing actual performance with standards. The measurement of performance is done on the basis of reports generated through the information system. In fact, the purpose of a management information system is to enable managers to keep track of performance through control reports. Several of the techniques described in the previous section, whether for strategic surveillance or financial analysis, are based on the use of an information system to provide relevant and timely data to managers to evaluate performance and strategy and initiate corrective action.

16.2.2 Control System

The control system, of course, is at the heart of any evaluation process for setting standards, measuring performance, analyzing variances, and taking corrective actions. The central role of the control system in evaluation is evident from our discussion of the process of evaluation.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Activity 5: Mapping Systems and Control

- **Scenario:** Consider a common, everyday organizational system you are familiar with (e.g., a university's course registration system, a restaurant's order-taking and food preparation process, a library's book lending system).
- **Task:**
  1. **Describe the System:** Briefly describe the key components and flow of the chosen organizational system.
  2. **Identify Control Points:** Pinpoint at least **three distinct control points** within this system. For each control point, identify:
     - What is being controlled?
     - What is the standard or desired outcome?
     - What type of control is primarily being used (e.g., feedforward, concurrent, feedback)?
     - What action is taken if the standard is not met?
  3. **Evaluate:** How effective are these control points in ensuring the system functions as intended? Are there any weaknesses or areas for improvement?

16.2.3 Appraisal System

The appraisal system actually evaluates performance and so is a part of a wider control system. Its significant role in evaluation, however, is to be assured. In practice, it is difficult to differentiate strictly between the performance of individuals and that of the organizational units they belong to.

Thus, the achievement of a department or a profit center is the sum total (or even more; synergistically) of the individual performance of managers and employees in that department or profit center. The evaluation process, through the appraisal system, measures the actual performance and provides the basis for the control system to work.

16.2.4 Motivation System

The central role of the motivation system is to induce strategically desirable behavior so that managers are encouraged to work towards the achievement of organizational objectives. Now, if we look at the way that the evaluation process works, we will observe that its efficacy depends on the extent to which it is able to bring actual performance to the level of standards. In other words, the lesser the deviation of actual performance from standards, the higher is the efficacy of the evaluation process.

The motivation system plays a significant role in ensuring that deviations do not occur, or if they do, then they are corrected by means of rewards and penalties. Incentive systems are directly related to the amount of deviation. Performance checks, which are a feedback in the evaluation process, are done through the motivation system.

16.2.5 Development System

The development system prepares the managers for performing strategic and operational tasks. Among the several aims of development, the most important is to match a person with the job to be performed. This, in other words, is matching actual performance with standards. This matching can be done provided it is known what a manager is required to do, and what is deficient in terms of knowledge, skills, and attitude. Such a deficiency is found out through the appraisal system. What we term as corrective action in the evaluation process is, in reality, the taking of steps that would lead to the development of individuals so as to enable them to perform as required. The role of the development system in evaluation is, therefore, to help strategists to initiate and implement corrective action.

16.2.6 Planning System

With regard to the planning system (that is more concerned with the formulation of strategies), we deal with the issue of "planning for evaluation." Since the evaluation process is a part of strategic management, therefore, it is to be planned for. Questions such as the following are to be dealt with: Who will perform evaluation? How will the information generated be used? How much resources will be required? To what extent will control be exercised so that it is cost-effective? What administrative systems will be required to support the evaluation system? etc. Further, the evaluation process also provides feedback to the planning system for the reformulation of strategies, plans, and objectives. Thus, the planning system closely interacts with the evaluation process on a continuing basis.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Multiple Choice Questions (MCQs)

1. A well-designed Management Information System (MIS) contributes to strategic evaluation and control by: a) Limiting access to sensitive strategic data. b) Generating timely and relevant data for performance analysis. c) Automating routine administrative tasks only. d) Replacing the need for human judgment in strategic decisions. **Answer:** b) ;c); c)

2. Which type of organizational system focuses on establishing clear performance targets and measuring actual performance against these targets? a) Human Resource Management System (HRMS) b) Financial Accounting System c) Performance Management System d) Customer Relationship Management System (CRM)

3. The balanced scorecard is an example of a(n): a) Operational control system. b) Strategic formulation tool. c) Strategic performance measurement and control system. d) Marketing automation platform.

16.3 LET US SUM UP

Withthereformulationofobjectives,wehavereachedtheendofourintellectual journey or, may be, the beginning of a new one. The process is cyclical and recommences to traverse the path we have charted in the course of our study of strategicmanagement.

16.4 KEY WORDS

- **Organisational Control:** Refers to the process by which an organisation influences its subunits and members to behave in ways that lead to the attainment of organisational goals.

- **Motivation System:** This is the system to induce strategically desirable behaviour so that managers are encouraged to work towards the achievement of objectives.

16.5 SELFASSESSMENTQUESTIONS

1. Explain the role of Organisational System.

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2. Statet the Difference between Appraisal System and Motivation System.

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3. Explain the process of Evalualtion.

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16.6 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. How do organizational systems support the monitoring and measurement of strategic performance against set objectives?

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2. In what ways can integrated information systems enhance decision-making during the strategic evaluation and control process?

___

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3. What role do feedback and control mechanisms within organizational systems play in adapting strategies to changing internal and external environments?

16.7 ANSWER KEY

C. b, c, c

16.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Bhattachary, S.K. and N. Venkataramin, Managing Business Enterprises: Strategies, Structures and Systems, Vikas Publishing House, New Delhi, 1983.
- Porter,M. E. Business Policy Text and Cases, Irwin, Inc., Homewood Illinois, 1987.
- Coulter, M.K.Strategic Management in Action, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, 2009.
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TYPES OF CONTROL-STRATEGIC AND OPERATIONAL CONTROL

STRUCTURE

17.0 Learning Objectives and Outcomes

17.1 Introduction

17.2 An overview of strategic control

17.3 Types of Strategic control

17.3.1 Premise Control.

17.3.2 Implementation Control.

17.3.3 Strategic Surveillance

17.3.4 Special alert control

17.4 An overview of operational control

17.5 Steps of operational control

17.5.1 Establishing Criteria and standards.

17.5.2 Measuring and comparing performance.

17.5.3 Performance gap analysis.

17.5.4 Taking Corrective measure.

17.6 Types of Operational Control

17.6.1 Budgeting

17.6.2 Scheduling

17.7.3 Key Sucess Factor

17.7 Let us Sum Up

17.8 Key Words

17.9 Self Assessment Questions

17.10 Lesson End Exercise

17.11 Answer Key

17.8 Suggested Readings

17.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this lesson are:

- To discuss the participants in strategic control.
- To evaluate upon strategic surveillance.
- To discuss the steps and types of operational control.

Learning Outcomes

After reading this lesson, the students will be able to:

- Differentiate between strategic control and operational control, and explain their respective roles in organizational success.
- Evaluate various types of strategic control (e.g., premise control, implementation control, strategic surveillance, and special alert control) and assess their effectiveness in guiding long-term objectives.
- Analyze how operational control mechanisms ensure the efficient execution of day-to-day activities aligned with strategic goals.
- Apply appropriate control tools and techniques to monitor, assess, and adjust strategies and operations in dynamic business environments.

17.1 INTRODUCTION

The traditional approach to control is to compare the actual performance with the standards established and to take corrective measures if there are deviations. This reactive measure is not sufficient to control a strategy that takes a long period for implementation and to produce results. The uncertain future environment makes continuous evaluation of the planning premise and strategy implementation necessary.

There are thus two broad types of control, viz:

1. Strategic control and
2. Operational control

Strategic control augmented by operational control makes strategic implementation more effective.

17.2 AN OVERVIEW OF STRATEGIC CONTROL

Pearce and Robinson point out that there are four basic types of strategic control viz., premise control, implementation control,strategic surveillance and special alert.

17.3TYPES OF STRATEGIC CONTROL

17.3.1 Premises Control

Strategies are often based on premises, i.e., assumptions or predicted conditions. A strategy may be valid only as long as the planning premises remain valid. Hence the importance of premise control which "is designed to check systematically and continuously whether or not the premises set during the planning and implementation process are still valid."

A strategy may be based on certain premises related to the industry like the industry structure and competition and other environmental factors like government policies and regulations, socio-demographic factors, economic conditions, etc. Changes in the vital premises may necessitate changes in strategy.

An early detection of invalid premises is necessary for making valid changes in the strategy. For example, following the recommendation of a consultant, the IDBI had undergone a total restructuring through the setting up of a committee-based structure and was to go ahead with a strategy to maintain its leadership in the market, but two developments had overtaken the strategy. The Reserve Bank of India threw open the world of short-term financing and the Tarapore Panel suggested capital account convertibility (CAC) of the rupee within three years. These called for a change in the complexion of IDBI's business strategies. Following the liberalisation of external commercial borrowing, in July 1997, Reliance Industries refinanced its entire $150 million seven-year syndicated loan arranged in July 1995, resulting in the company saving close to Rs 10 crore in interest costs, besides other advantages.

The Apollo Tyres 'reworked' its strategic alliance with Continental AG of Germany for the production of passenger car radial tyres in view of the slowdown in the economy and changed demand in the tyre industry.

17.3.2 Implementation Control

In several cases, the implementation of a strategy may not progress as planned, or the cost, sales volume, revenue, etc. may be at considerable variance with the planned ones. The lessons of the first phases of the implementation could be helpful in the implementation of the subsequent phases. For example, take the case of a company implementing a project involving a chain of holiday resorts in a phased manner. The experience gained from implementing the resort in the first phase would help to make the implementation of the subsequent phases more efficient.

Similarly, when a product is planned to be launched nationally in a phased way, the experience with the early launches could help better the launches in the remaining sectors of the national market. For example, the phased launch of pagers in India enabled Motorola to redefine its target consumers and modify its promotion strategy as it expanded the market coverage.

In short, "implementation control is designed to assess whether the overall strategy should be changed in the light of unfolding events and results associated with incremental steps and actions that implement the overall strategy."

17.3.3 Strategic Surveillance

"Strategic surveillance is designed to monitor a broad range of events, inside and outside the company, that are likely to threaten the course of the firm's strategy." The strategy of a company could be defeated by certain such events. It is, therefore, necessary that the company exercise surveillance for timely detection of such developments and corrective action.

The success of Arvind Mills' Ruf & Tuf encouraged rampant sale of spurious products under the same brand name, compelling the company to form vigilance to crack down on the unscrupulous businessmen.

17.3.4 Special Alert Control

Sudden and unexpected developments like an alliance between competitors, a takeover, mergers, a political coup, a major competitive move by a competitor, etc., could have a serious impact on a firm's strategy. A "special alert control is then the need to thoroughly, and often suddenly, reconsider the firm's basic strategy based on a sudden unexpected event."

In the wake of the consolidation of market power by Hindustan Lever by taking over Tomco and the growing competition by the global majors, Godrej Soaps felt insecure and forged an alliance with Procter and Gamble.

17.4AN OVERVIEW OF OPERATIONAL CONTROL

Strategic controls by which top management monitors and steers the basic direction of the company should be supplemented by a control system at the operational level of strategy implementation. "Operational control systems guide, monitor, and evaluate progress in meeting annual objectives. While strategic controls attempt to steer the company over an extended time period (usually five years or more), operational controls provide post-action evaluation and control over short time periods, usually from one month to one year."

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. **Control System Mapping Activity:**
   Choose a real or hypothetical company and identify the strategic and operational control systems in place. Create a flowchart or diagram showing how these systems interact to support the company's goals.

2. **Gap Analysis Task:**
   Analyze a business scenario where performance outcomes differ from strategic goals. Identify where control mechanisms failed and suggest improvements to both strategic and operational controls.

3. **Control Audit Simulation:**
   Conduct a mock audit of an organization's control processes. List the tools they use for strategic and operational control and evaluate their effectiveness based on current business challenges.

17.5STEPS OF OPERATIONAL CONTROL

17.5.1 ESTABLISHING CRITERIA AND STANDARDS

Criteria and standards provide the basis for evaluation. "Criteria for evaluating strategies should be measurable and easily verifiable. Criteria that predict results may be more important than those that reveal what already has happened. For example, strategists do not want to find out that sales last quarter were 20 percent under what were expected. More importantly, they need to know that sales next quarter may be 20 percent below standard unless some action is taken to counter the trend. Really effective control requires accurate forecasting."

Selection of the criteria for evaluation depends on a number of factors such as the purpose of evaluation, the accuracy required, the critical importance of the variable evaluated, the strategy, internal and external environment, management philosophy, etc. For example, the evaluation criteria appropriate for a stability strategy may not be appropriate for a growth strategy or retrenchment strategy.

There are broadly two types of criteria, viz., quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative factors are those results which can be measured in precise quantitative terms such as ROI, profitability, market share, growth rate, etc. Qualitative criteria are rather subjective and are not amenable to precise quantitative measurement. Such factors include company image, employee morale/motivation, customer satisfaction, etc.

Having decided the criteria for evaluation, the next step is to establish standards (i.e., the planned level of performance). It should be ensured that the standards set are realistic.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
Case: "ABC Corp's Expansion Plan"
ABC Corp launched an international expansion strategy, but failed to meet expected outcomes.
Question: What strategic control mechanisms should ABC Corp have implemented to monitor the execution of its expansion strategy? How could operational control have helped manage resources more effectively?

Case: "Digital Shift at Retail Co"
Retail Co is undergoing digital transformation but is struggling to manage employee adaptation and system integration.
Question: Which strategic and operational control systems should RetailCo employ to ensure successful implementation and ongoing performance measurement of its digital strategy?

17.5.2 MEASURING AND COMPARING PERFORMANCE

The actual performance is measured and iscompared with the standards to identify the short falls if any.

17.5.3 PERFORMANCE GAP ANALYSIS

Performance gap is the difference between the actual performance of a given organisational unit and the planned performance of that unit.

If there is any performance gap,it is necessary to identify the reasons for the gap to determine the appropriate corrective measure. In other words, performance gap analysis is a diagnostic step.

17.5.4 TAKING CORRECTIVE MEASURES

Performance gap analysis will reveal the reasons for the gap and will help decide the corrective measures.

Corrective measures will depend on the reasons for the gap, the extent of the gap, and, in some cases, a reassessment of the SWOT.

Depending on the nature and characteristics of the performance gap, corrective measures may include any one or more measures such as steps for more effective implementation of the strategy, modification of the objectives, strategy, standards, etc.

Continuous monitoring of the environment and implementation of the strategy is essential. In Fig. 17.1, the loop connecting the evaluation and control to the starting point of the strategic management process indicates that strategic management is a continuous process, with evaluation providing the feedback for modifications.

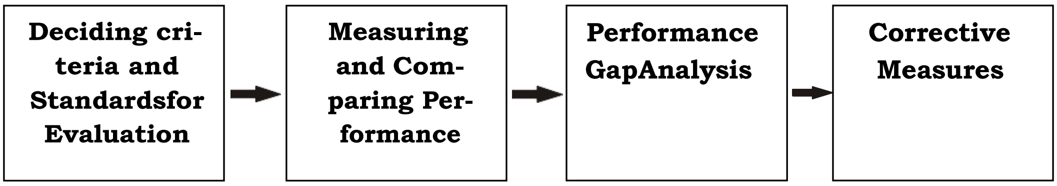

Figure17.1 Strategy Evaluation and Control Process

17.6TYPES OF OPERATIONAL CONTROL

There are three important types of operational control systems, namely budgeting, scheduling and focusing on key success factors.

C. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Case: "XYZ Manufacturing and Quality Decline"
XYZ Manufacturing is facing a decline in product quality despite strong strategic growth plans.
Question: *Evaluate the role of operational control in maintaining quality standards. How can the company align its operational controls with its long-term strategy?*

17.6.1 BUDGETING

Budgeting system is a forerunner of strategic management. With the emergence of strategic management, it has become an important tool to translate strategic plans into concrete activities.

A budget is a statement of planned or estimated expenditure or receipts in respect of a specific purpose or function over a specific period of time. Budgets themselves do not control anything, but they set standards against which performance can be compared.

Budgeting may be done in respect of all important activities. For example, there may be sales budgets estimating sales for a future period, territory-wise, product-wise, salesperson-wise, customers/customer group-wise, etc. Similarly, there could be corresponding sales expenditure budgets. Resource allocation for projects/fixed assets is done by capital budgeting.

Budgets may be in financial or physical terms, or both. Production budgets are often in physical terms. Sales budgets may have both physical and revenue estimates.

17.6.2 SCHEDULING

Scheduling is a very important planning tool for allocating the use of a time-constrained resource or arranging the sequence of interdependent activities. Scheduling helps optimum utilization of facilities. It also helps operations with minimum inventory and to adhere to delivery schedules. Scheduling is very important in project implementation. It is the process of arranging, controlling, and optimizing work in a production process.

17.6.3 KEY SUCCESS FACTORS

Another important way to effect operational control is to focus on key success factors, i.e., critical factors that contribute to success such as productivity, quality, employee morale, and market share. Key success factors state the important elements required for a company to compete in its target market.

17.7 LET US SUM UP

Strataegic controlis a warning system that differs from post action control that evaluates only after the implementation of strategy.

17.8KEY WORDS

- **Strategic Control:** The processs used by organisations to control the function and execution of strategic plans.
- **Budget:** It is a statement of planned or estimated expenditure or receipts in specified period of time.

17.9SELF ASSESSMENTQUESTIONS:

Q1. What is Strategic Control?

Q2. Types of Strategic Control?

Q3. Discussthestrategicevaluationprocess.

17.10 LESSON END EXERCISE

1. How does strategic control differ from operational control in terms of scope, focus, and time horizon?

Q2. What are the key tools and techniques used to implement effective strategic and operational controls within an organization?

Q3. How can the integration of strategic and operational control contribute to improved organizational performance and adaptability?

17.11 SUGGESTED READINGS

- Porter,M. E. Business Policy Text and Cases, Irwin, Inc., Homewood Illinois, 1987.

- Coulter, M.K.Strategic Management in Action, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, 2009.
- Kazmi, A. Business Policy, Tata McGraw Hill, Delhi, 2008.
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UNIT-IV (Credit-1) M.Com 2nd Semester

Course No.MCOMC251 Lesson No. 18

CONCEPT, NEED AND IMPORTANCE OF STRATEGIC EVALUATION AND CONTROL

STRUCTURE

18.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

- To study the need and importance of strategic evaluation and control.
- To discuss the techniques of strategic evaluation.

Learning Outcomes

- Analyze the effectiveness of tools such as the Balanced Scorecard, Key Performance Indicators (KPIs), and Benchmarking in assessing strategic performance.

- Apply appropriate strategic evaluation techniques to real-world business scenarios to measure goal achievement and performance gaps.

18.1 INTRODUCTION

Strategic evaluations are the mode for testing the efficiency and effectiveness of business strategies, and a way to determine whether the strategy that is being implemented is moving in the right direction or not. Evaluations also help identify the areas of improvement and the actions necessary to bring the performance back in line with organizational objectives. After you have successfully evaluated the changes required, you try to take control by implementing measures to help you get back on track. As we took up the discussion of the six organizational systems one by one, it is clear that each of these systems plays a vital role in the implementation of strategy. Further, changes in strategy create new requirements that have to be satisfied through modifications in the existing organizational systems.

18.2CONCEPT, NEED AND IMPORTANCE OF STRATEGIC EVALUATION AND CONTROL

18.2.1 Meaning of Strategic Evaluation and Control

Strategic evaluation is an important tool for assessing how well your business has performed, relative to its goals. Strategic evaluation can be defined as a process of measuring the performance: if the implemented strategy has successfully met with the objectives of the organisation, and what kind of remedial actions need to be taken by the organisation to address any shortcomings. It's an important way to reflect on achievements and shortcomings, and is also useful for re-examining the goals themselves, which may have been set at a different time, under different circumstances.

Strategic control is a method of managing the execution of a strategic plan. It's considered unique in the management process, as it can handle the unknown and ambiguous while tracking a strategy's implementation and the subsequent results. In other words, strategic control is a way to find different methods of strategy implementation by adapting to changing external and internal factors to achieve strategic goals. The strategic control definition shows us that it's an evaluation exercise focused on achieving the strategic goals set by an organization. The process is crucial in bridging gaps and adapting to changes during the implementation period.

18.2.2 Need of Strategic Evaluation and Control

The phase of strategy evaluation helps ensure that the implementation of the particular strategy will help the organization achieve its objectives. Without this step of strategic evaluation and control in the strategy management process, it would prove difficult to identify whether the strategy implemented is generating the desired effect. In addition, strategy evaluation also helps:

1. Check the validity of the strategic choices that are made by the organization.
2. Assess whether the decisions made during the strategy implementation stage meet the intended strategy requirements.
3. Provide insight and experience into the strategists that can be used in reformulating or planning new strategies.
4. Shed light on issues caused by changes in the internal and external environment and take precautions and avoid making wrong decisions.

A. CHECK YOUR ROGRESS

Fill in the Blanks

1. The __________ **Scorecard** is used to measure organizational performance from multiple perspectives beyond financial results.
2. __________ **Indicators** are measurable values used to track progress towards strategic goals.
3. __________ **analysis** identifies internal strengths and weaknesses along with external opportunities and threats.
4. __________ involves comparing an organization's processes and performance metrics to industry bests or best practices.

18.2.3 Importance of Strategic Evaluation and Control

Strategic evaluation helps the organisation to find the flaws in the current implementation and to make suitable changes where necessary. Following points determine the importance of strategic evaluation:

1. **Performance Measurement:** The strategic evaluation process provides the organisation a set of both qualitative and quantitative criteria against which the performance of both individuals as well as the organisation can be measured. The qualitative criteria contain soft factors like skills, competencies, and flexibility, whereas the quantitative criteria contain more hard factors like the return on equity, ROI, profitability, etc.

2. **Helps in Analysis:** The basic premise of strategic evaluation is that the environment of the organisation is dynamic. Some amount of variability between the performance and the standard is natural and expected. Regular exercise of strategic evaluation helps the organisation to gauge the success of the adopted strategy and to incorporate any changes where required. A positive difference between the performance and the standard will show that the strategy is working and the organisation needs to carry on what it is doing, whereas a negative difference will mean that there is a shortcoming in the strategy and that changes need to be made.

3. **Corrective Actions:** The organisation can take remedial action on the points which are identified as weak areas by strategic evaluation. For example, if it emerges that the lack of skills of the employees is a major hurdle behind the failure of the strategy to meet objectives, then a massive training program can be initiated by the organisation. Similarly, if it is found that the organisation has set unrealistic sales targets, then course correction can be attempted.

4. **Reassessing Goals:** The evaluation of the performance of the organisation could also lead to a questioning of the goals and objectives of the organisation. For example, the underperformance of a team to implement the strategy could be due to factors like lack of team support, change in market dynamics, or faulty strategy definition.

5. **Alerts from Threat:** Strategic evaluation also makes the organisation future-ready. It identifies issues and problems in the initial stage so that the organisation can take steps to tackle the same in the first step itself before they become too big to conquer. Strategists need to combine the virtues of patience and rapid action.

6. **Ongoing Analysis:** Strategic evaluations work under the assumption that because the business environment is fluid and constantly changing, variances will commonly exist between ideal and actual performance. Regular strategic evaluations provide an objective, effective way for a business to evaluate, analyze, and modify performance expectations. A positive variance can tell a business what it's doing right and confirm

it's on the right track, while a negative variance can be a signal that the performance

B. CHECK YOUR ROGRESS

Multiple Choice Questions (MCQs)

1. **Which of the following is NOT a perspective of the Balanced Scorecard?**
   a) Financial
   b) Customer
   c) Environmental
   d) Learning and Growth

2. **What is the main goal of strategic evaluation and control techniques?**
   a) To design new products
   b) To assess and improve strategic performance
   c) To recruit employees
   d) To manage daily operations

3. **Which technique is best used to identify performance gaps by comparing with industry leaders?**
   a) SWOT Analysis
   b) KPI Tracking
   c) Benchmarking
   d) Balanced Scorecard

18.3TECHNIQUES OF STRATEGIC EVALUATION AND CONTROL

It is necessary for strategists to have an idea about the techniques of strategic evaluation and control in order to make a choice from among the many available and to use them. Several of the techniques of evaluation are traditional and have been in usage for long, while there are some other techniques that are of a recent origin. This section describes briefly the techniques for strategic control and operational control.

18.3.1 Evaluation Techniques for Strategic Control

As we said earlier in this chapter, the essence of strategic control is to continually assess the changing environment to uncover events that may significantly affect the course of an organisation's strategy. Techniques for strategic control could be classified into two groups on the basis of the type of environment. Organisations that operate in a relatively stable environment may use strategic momentum control, while those which face a relatively turbulent environment may find strategic leap control more appropriate.

1. **Strategic Momentum Control:** These types of evaluation techniques are aimed at assuring that the assumptions on the basis of which strategies were formulated are still valid and what needs to be done in order to allow the organisation to maintain its existing strategic momentum. There are three techniques which could be used to achieve the aims: responsibility control centres, underlying success factors, and generic strategies.

   i) **Responsibility Control Centres** form the core of management control systems and are of four types: revenue, expense, profit, and investment centres. Each of these centres is designed on the basis of the measurement of inputs and outputs. The study and application of responsibility centres is done in the discipline of management control systems.

   ii) **The Underlying Success Factors** enable organisations to focus on key success factors to examine the factors that contribute to the success of strategies. By managing on the basis of the key success factors, the strategists can continually evaluate the strategies to assess whether or not these are helping the organisation to achieve its objectives.

   iii) **Generic Strategies Approach to Strategic Control** is based on the assumption that the strategies adopted by firms similar to an organisation are comparable. Based on such a comparison, an organisation can study why and how other firms are implementing strategies and assess whether or not its own strategy is following a similar path.

C. CHECK YOUR ROGRESS

Case Study:

XYZ Pvt. Ltd. is a mid-sized technology firm that implemented a new digital transformation strategy two years ago. The management now wants to assess the impact of this strategy. They used the Balanced Scorecard to evaluate performance in areas like customer satisfaction, employee learning, operational efficiency, and financial outcomes. The results showed improved customer satisfaction and learning metrics, but operational costs and profits did not meet expectations.

Question:
Which strategic evaluation and control techniques can XYZ Pvt. Ltd. use to further investigate and address the gaps in financial performance, and what corrective actions could be recommended?

1. **Strategic Leap Control:** Where the environment is relatively unstable, organisations are required to make strategic leaps in order to make significant changes. Strategic leap control can assist such organisations by helping to define the new strategic requirements and to cope with emerging environmental realities. There are four techniques of evaluation used for exercising strategic leap control such as strategic issue management, strategic field analysis, systems modelling, and scenarios.

   i) **Strategic Issue Management** is aimed at identifying one or more strategic issues and assessing their impact on the organisation. A strategic issue is "a forthcoming development, either inside or outside of the organisation, which is likely to have an important impact on the ability of the enterprise to meet its objectives." By managing on the basis of strategic issues, the strategists can avoid being overtaken by surprising environmental changes and design contingency plans to shift strategies whenever required.

   ii) **Strategic Field Analysis** is a way of examining the nature and extent of synergies that exist or are lacking between the components of an organisation. Wherever synergies exist, the strategists can assess the ability of the firm to take the advantages. Alternatively, the strategists evaluate the firm's ability to generate synergies where they do not exist.

   iii) **Systems Modelling** is based on computer-based models that simulate the essential features of the organisation and its environment. Through systems modelling, organisations may exercise pre-action control by assessing the impact of the environment on the organisation through the adoption of a particular strategy.

   iv) **Scenarios** are perceptions about the likely environment a firm would face in future. In environmental appraisal, scenario-writing was discussed as a technique for analysing the environment. Its use could be extended to evaluation by enabling organisations to focus strategies on the basis of forthcoming developments in the environment.

Several of the above techniques for strategic control - except with the possible exception of responsibility centres - are of relatively recent origin. The development of these techniques is an evidence of the expanding body of knowledge in business policy and strategic management. As the use and application of strategic management gains approval, it is quite likely that organisations would start using such techniques.

Operational control, however, uses more familiar techniques which have traditionally been used by strategists. In the next part of this section, we look at techniques for operational control.

18.3.2 Evaluation Techniques for Operational Control

Operational control, as we said in the beginning, is aimed at the allocation and use of organisational resources. Evaluation techniques for operational control, therefore, are based on internal analysis rather than environmental monitoring, as is the case with strategic control. We indicate here several representative techniques that are used for operational control. Since almost all these techniques are described in-depth in finance, accounting, and other areas - and the readers of this book are expected to be familiar with them - we only focus on their relevance to operational control. The techniques are classified into four groups: financial techniques, network techniques, management by objectives (MBO), and memorandum of understanding (MOU).

1. **Financial Techniques:** There are several techniques such as budgetary control, zero-based budgeting, financial analysis, and the parta system that can be used for operational control.

i) **Budgetary control** is "used to indicate the appraisal of performance by a comparison of the actuals with the budget and the corrective action initiated thereby." Thus, budgetary control focuses on the use of budget as an instrument of control.

ii) **Zero-based budgeting** works on the principle of periodic (usually annual) re-valuation of plans, programmes, and projects to decide whether or not a change in resource allocation is required to achieve goals. Operational control is, therefore, inherent in the process of zero-based budgeting.

iii) **Financial analysis**, including ratio analysis and sources and uses of funds analysis, is a frequently used method for assessing the financial health of any organisation. Besides evaluating the current performance, these techniques can also be used for analysing the comparative performance over a number of years and across firms in an industry. Thus, financial analysis is a powerful tool for operational control.

iv) **The parta system** is an indigenous system adopted usually by Marwari firms to keep track of daily cash generation. "Parta is the pre-determined budget of the net cash inflows from operations before tax and dividend." The parta is decided in advance between the family group and company head, and the actual performance is compared to this budgeted parta on a daily basis, thus making parta an effective operational control device.

2. **Network Techniques:** The network techniques, such as PERT, CPM, and their variants, are extensively used for operational control of scheduling and resource allocation in projects. When network techniques are modified for use as a cost accounting system, they become highly effective operational controls for project costs and performance.

3. **Management by Objectives (MBO)** is the system, proposed by Drucker, which is based on regular evaluation of performance against objectives that are decided upon mutually by the superior and the subordinate. By the process of consultation, objective setting leads to the establishment of a control system that operates on the basis of commitment and self-control. Thus, the scope of MBO to be used as an operational control is quite extensive.

4. **Memorandum of Understanding (MOU):** Just like MBO is a commitment to objectives between individuals, a memorandum of understanding (MOU) is "an agreement between a public enterprise and the Government, represented by the administrative ministry in which both parties clearly specify their commitments and responsibilities." Having done that, the enterprises are evaluated on the basis of the MOU. Though an MOU is usually thought of as a technique used solely in the context of public enterprise, its use can be extended to any situation where an external agency is required to evaluate a firm's performance. Thus, the multinational company can set an MOU with its subsidiary; a family business group council can use an MOU to evaluate its constituent companies. But since the current usage of MOU is largely confined to evaluation of performance in public enterprise, we will take this opportunity to provide an exhibit which describes the context in which MOUs are used.

18.4LET US SUM UP

Strategic evaluations are the mode for testing the efficiency and effectiveness of business strategies, and a way to determine whether the strategy that is being implemented is moving in the right direction or not. Evaluations also help identify the areas of improvement and the actions necessary to bring the performance back in line with organizational objectives. The different techniques discussed in this section have their merits and demerits.

Strategists have to exercise a choice from among the techniques to be used for strategic evaluation and control. It is also clear that both strategic and operational controls have to be used in tandem to have an effective evaluation system.

18.5KEY WORDS

- **Process Evaluation:** Method of assessing how a programme is being implemented.
- **Standard**: It is the yardstick for measurement of performance.
- **Strategic control:** It is concerned with tracking a strategy.
- **Budgetary control:** It is used to indicate the appraisal of performancebya comparison of the actual with the budget and the corrective action initiated thereby.

18.6SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain in detail the process of evaluation?

2. What are the various techniques of strategic evaluation and control?

3. What are the basic techniques of operational control?

4. Explain the significance of strategic evaluation and control.

18.7LESSON END EXERCISE

1. Discuss how Benchmarking can support continuous improvement in strategic management. What are the potential challenges of implementing it effectively?

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   ____

2. How can the Balanced Scorecard be used as a strategic control tool to evaluate organizational performance across different perspectives?

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3. Explain the use of Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) in strategic evaluation. How do they help in identifying performance gaps?

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4. Discuss how Benchmarking can support continuous improvement in strategic management. What are the potential challenges of implementing it effectively?

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18.8 ANSWER KEY

A: Balanced **,** Key Performance, SWOT, Benchmarking

B: c) **,** b)**,** c)

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FOURTH INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION, DE-GLOBALISATION AND CORPORATE SUSTAINABILITY

STRUCTURE

19.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this lesson are:

- To analyse the concept of fourth industrial revolution with its impact.
- To understand the causes and impact of deglobalisation.
- To comprehend corporate sustainability and its pillars in detail.

Learning Outcomes

- Explain the concept and components of Industry 4.0 and how it impacts business operations.
- Analyze the causes and consequences of de-globalisation on international trade and economies.
- Evaluate the principles and importance of corporate sustainability in modern businesses.

19.1INTRODUCTION

The Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) is radically transforming the roles and responsibilities of librarians in different types of libraries. This calls for a fundamental rethink in order to retool the competencies and skills of librarians to ensure that they deliver efficient services to patrons who have diverse and dynamic information needs. This chapter documents continuous professional development and provides librarians with an opportunity to re-profile their competencies and reinvent themselves in order to remain relevant. Whereas, de-globalization is the process of contracting interdependence and integration between businesses and countries. For example, growth of trade in goods and services and investment flows between countries declines. Likewise, corporate sustainability is an approach aiming to create long-term stakeholder value through the implementation of a business strategy that focuses on the ethical, social, environmental, cultural, and economic dimensions of doing business. The strategies created are intended to foster longevity, transparency, and proper employee development within business organizations.

19.2FOURTH INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Fourth Industrial Revolution is a way of describing the blurring of boundaries between the physical, digital, and biological worlds. It's a fusion of advances in artificial intelligence (AI), robotics, the Internet of Things (IoT), 3D printing, genetic engineering, quantum computing, and other technologies. It's the collective force behind many products and services that are fast becoming indispensable to modern life. The Fourth Industrial Revolution heralds a series of social, political, cultural, and economic upheavals that will unfold over the 21st century. Building on the widespread availability of digital technologies that were the result of the Third Industrial, or Digital, Revolution, the Fourth Industrial Revolution will be driven largely by the convergence of digital, biological, and physical innovations.

Like the First Industrial Revolution's steam-powered factories, the Second Industrial Revolution's application of science to mass production and manufacturing, and the Third Industrial Revolution's start into digitization, the Fourth Industrial Revolution's technologies, such as artificial intelligence, genome editing, augmented reality, robotics, and 3-D printing, are rapidly changing the way humans create, exchange, and distribute value. As occurred in the previous revolutions, this will profoundly transform institutions, industries, and individuals. More importantly, this revolution will be guided by the choices that people make today: the world in 50 to 100 years from now will owe a lot of its character to how we think about, invest in, and deploy these powerful new technologies. It's important to appreciate that the Fourth Industrial Revolution involves a systemic change across many sectors and aspects of human life: the crosscutting impacts of emerging technologies are even more important than the exciting capabilities they represent. Our ability to edit the building blocks of life has recently been massively expanded by low-cost gene sequencing and techniques such as CRISPR; artificial intelligence is augmenting processes and skill in every industry; neurotechnology is making unprecedented strides in how we can use and influence the brain as the last frontier of human biology; automation is disrupting century-old transport and manufacturing paradigms; and technologies such as blockchain and smart materials are redefining and blurring the boundary between the digital and physical worlds.

The result of all this is societal transformation at a global scale. By affecting the incentives, rules, and norms of economic life, it transforms how we communicate, learn, entertain ourselves, and relate to one another and how we understand ourselves as human beings. Furthermore, the sense that new technologies are being developed and implemented at an increasingly rapid pace has an impact on human identities, communities, and political structures. As a result, our responsibilities to one another, our opportunities for self-realization, and our ability to positively impact the world are intricately tied to and shaped by how we engage with the technologies of the Fourth Industrial Revolution. This revolution is not just happening to us—we are not its victims—but rather we have the opportunity and even responsibility to give it structure and purpose.

As economists Erik Brynjolfsson and Andrew McAfee have pointed out, this revolution could yield greater inequality, particularly in its potential to disrupt labour markets. As automation substitutes for labor across the entire economy, the net displacement of workers by machines might exacerbate the gap between returns to capital and returns to labor. On the other hand, it is also possible that the displacement of workers by technology will, in aggregate, result in a net increase in safe and rewarding jobs.

All previous industrial revolutions have had both positive and negative impacts on different stakeholders. Nations have become wealthier, and technologies have helped pull entire societies out of poverty, but the inability to fairly distribute the resulting benefits or anticipate externalities has resulted in global challenges. By recognizing the risks, whether cybersecurity threats, misinformation on a massive scale through digital media, potential unemployment, or increasing social and income inequality, we can take the steps to align common human values with our technological progress and ensure that the Fourth Industrial Revolution benefits human beings first and foremost.

We cannot foresee at this point which scenario is likely to emerge from this new revolution. However, it is apprehended that in the future, talent, more than capital, will represent the critical factor of production.

While the Fourth Industrial Revolution (sometimes called the 4IR or Industry 4.0) is set to change society like never before, it builds on foundations laid by the first three industrial revolutions. The advent of the steam engine in the 18th century led to the first industrial revolution, allowing production to be mechanized for the first time, and driving social change as people became increasingly urbanized. In the second industrial revolution, electricity and other scientific advancements led to mass production. A third industrial revolution, beginning in the 1950s, saw the emergence of computers and digital technology. This led to the increasing automation of manufacturing and the disruption of industries including banking, energy, and communications.

The First Industrial Revolution It used water and steam power to mechanize production. The implementation of new technologies took a long time, the period between 1760 and 1820, or 1840 in Europe and the United States. Textile manufacturing was the first to adopt such changes and saw profound consequences. Eventually, the iron industry, agriculture, and mining were taken over. It also had societal effects with an ever stronger middle class.

The Second Industrial Revolution It used electric power to create mass production. This is also called the technological revolution and is the period between 1871 and 1914. It resulted from extensive railroad and telegraph networks, which allowed for faster transfer of people and ideas, along with electricity. Electrification allowed factories to develop the modern production line. It was a period of great economic growth, with an increase in productivity. But it also caused a surge in unemployment since many factory workers were replaced by machines.

The Third Industrial Revolution It is used electronics and information technology to automate production. It is also called the digital revolution and occurred in the late 20th century after the end of two world wars. The slowdown of industrialization and technological advancement pushed for this revolution. The production of the computer (which used floating-point numbers and Boolean logic) was the beginning of digital development. The supercomputer was the next significant development in communication technologies. And with the extensive use of computer and communication technologies in the production process, machinery began to replace the need for human power.

The Fourth Industrial Revolution The Fourth Industrial Revolution is a continuation of the Third, the digital revolution that has been occurring since the middle of the last century. It is characterized by a fusion of technologies that is blurring the lines between the physical, digital, and biological spheres. This was coined by the World Economic Forum founder and Executive Chairman Klaus Schwab. The Fourth Industrial Revolution is a fusion of technologies like artificial intelligence (AI), robotics, the Internet of Things (IoT), 3D printing, genetic engineering, quantum computing, and other technologies. It's the collective force behind many products and services that are fast becoming indispensable to modern life. These are rapidly changing the way humans create, exchange, and distribute value.

19.2.1 What are the technologies driving the change?

The easiest way to understand the Fourth Industrial Revolution is to focus on the technologies driving it. These include the following:

19.1.1.1 **Artificial Intelligence**

Artificial Intelligence describes computers that can "think" like humans. They can recognize complex patterns, process information, draw conclusions, and make recommendations. Artificial Intelligence is used in many ways, from spotting patterns in huge piles of unstructured data to powering the autocorrect on your phone.

19.1.1.2 **Blockchain**

Blockchain is a secure, decentralized, and transparent way of recording and sharing data, with no need to rely on third-party intermediaries. The digital currency Bitcoin is the best known blockchain application. However, the technology can be used in other ways, including making supply chains traceable, securing sensitive medical data anonymously, and combating voter fraud.

19.1.1.3 **Faster computer processing**

New computational technologies are making computers smarter. They enable computers to process vast amounts of data faster than ever before, while the advent of the cloud has allowed businesses to safely store and access their information from anywhere with internet access. Quantum computing technologies now in development will eventually make computers millions of times more powerful. These computers will have the potential to supercharge Artificial Intelligence, create highly complex data models in seconds, and speed up the discovery of new materials.

19.1.1.4 **Virtual reality and augmented reality**

Virtual Reality offers immersive digital experiences (using a Virtual Reality headset) that simulate the real world, while augmented reality merges the digital and physical worlds. Examples include L'Oréal's makeup app, which allows users to digitally experiment with makeup products before buying them, and the Google Translate phone app, which allows users to scan and instantly translate street signs, menus, and other text.

19.1.1.5 **Biotechnology**

Biotechnology harnesses cellular and biomolecular processes to develop new technologies and products for a range of uses, including developing new pharmaceuticals and materials, more efficient industrial manufacturing processes, and cleaner, more efficient energy sources. Researchers in Stockholm, for example, are working on what is being touted as the strongest biomaterial ever produced.

19.1.1.6 **Robotics**

Robotics refers to the design, manufacture, and use of robots for personal and commercial use. While we're yet to see robot assistants in every home, technological advances have made robots increasingly complex and sophisticated. They are used in fields as wide-ranging as manufacturing, health and safety, and human assistance.

19.1.1.7 **The Internet of Things**

The Internet of Things describes everyday items - from medical wearables that monitor users' physical condition, to cars and tracking devices inserted into parcels - connected to the internet and identifiable by other devices. A big plus for businesses is that they can collect customer data from constantly connected products, allowing them to better gauge how customers use products and tailor marketing campaigns accordingly. There are also many industrial applications, such as farmers putting Internet of Things sensors into fields to monitor soil attributes and inform decisions such as when to fertilize.

19.1.1.8 **3D Printing**

3D Printing allows manufacturing businesses to print their own parts, with less tooling, at a lower cost, and faster than via traditional processes. Plus, designs can be customized to ensure a perfect fit.

19.1.1.9 **Innovative Materials**

Innovative materials, including plastics, metal alloys, and biomaterials, promise to shake up sectors including manufacturing, renewable energy, construction, and healthcare. Energy capture, storage, and transmission represent a growing market sector, spurred by the falling cost of renewable energy technologies and improvements in battery storage capacity.

19.2.2 How will the Fourth Industrial Revolution affect business?

As these technologies change what's possible, they're also transforming customers' expectations. A global survey from Salesforce Research shows that a majority of those surveyed believe that these technologies-and the experiences they enable-will transform their interactions with companies within five years. Nowhere will this be more evident than in customer experience. With technology enabling businesses to offer greater personalization and more valuable, connected experiences across bricks-and-mortar and online channels, customers already have more options than ever, and they're not afraid to switch brands for a better experience.

19.2.3 How will the Fourth Industrial Revolution affect the future of work?

Nowhere is the upheaval of the Fourth Industrial Revolution more likely to be felt than the workplace. As with previous industrial revolutions, the Fourth Industrial Revolution will profoundly affect people's lives as Artificial Intelligence and increased automation see many types of jobs disappear. At the same time, entirely new categories of jobs are emerging.

Strategic business and technology advisor Bernard Marr said that computers and automation will come "together in an entirely new way, with robotics connected remotely to computer systems equipped with machine-learning algorithms that can learn and control the robotics with very little input from human operators.” He added, “Industry 4.0 introduces what has been called the 'smart factory,' in which cyber-physical systems monitor the physical processes of the factory and make decentralized decisions.”

As the Fourth Industrial Revolution reshapes the future of work, businesses must prepare their people for the new world that lies ahead. This often means an increased focus on continual learning, upskilling to new types of jobs, and a commitment to diversity.

19.3DE-GLOBALISATION

Deglobalization is the process of diminishing interdependence and integration between certain units around the world, typically nation-states. The term "deglobalization" has derived from some of the very profound changes in many developed nations, where trade as a proportion of total economic activity until the 1970s was below previous peak levels in the early 1910s. This decline reflects that their economies become less integrated with the rest of the world economies in spite of the deepening scope of economic globalization. At the global level, only two longer periods of deglobalization occurred, namely in the 1930s during the Great Depression and the 2010s, when following the Great Trade Collapse, the period of the World Trade Slowdown. It is widely used to describe the periods of history when economic trade and investment between countries decline. It stands in contrast to globalization, in which units become increasingly integrated over time, and generally spans the time between periods of globalization. While globalization and deglobalization are antitheses, they are not mirror images.

De-globalization is the process of contracting interdependence and integration between businesses and countries. For example, growth of trade in goods and services and investment flows between countries declines.

According to Walden Bello and Focus on the Global South, who coined the term "deglobalization", the objective is not to withdraw from the global economy, but rather to trigger a process of restructuring the world economic and political system so as to strengthen local and national economies instead of weakening them. Deglobalizing means starting to think and build an integration process based on the needs of peoples, nations, communities, and ecosystems. Deglobalization does not oppose trade nor the exchange of products or services, but proposes that trade is not done at the expense of the communities, the local and national economies, and the diversity of its products, whether agricultural or industrial.

Principles of De-globalisation by Walden Bello

1. Production for the domestic market rather than production for export markets must again become the center of gravity of the economy.

2. The principle of subsidiarity should be enshrined in economic life by encouraging production of goods at the level of the community and at the national level if this can be done at reasonable cost in order to preserve community.

3. Trade policy - that is, quotas and tariffs - should be used to protect the local economy from destruction by corporate-subsidized commodities with artificially low prices.

4. Industrial policy - including subsidies, tariffs, and trade - should be used to revitalize and strengthen the manufacturing sector.

5. Long-postponed measures of equitable income redistribution and land redistribution (including urban land reform) must be implemented to create a vibrant internal market that would serve as the anchor of the economy and produce local financial resources for investment.

6. De-emphasizing growth, emphasizing upgrading the quality of life, and maximizing equity will reduce environmental disequilibrium.

7. The power and transportation systems must be transformed into decentralized systems based on renewable sources.

8. A healthy balance must be maintained between the country's carrying capacity and the size of its population.

9. Environmentally congenial technology must be developed and diffused in both agriculture and industry.

10. A gender lens must be applied in all areas of economic decision-making so as to ensure gender equity.

11. Strategic economic decisions must not be left to the market or to technocrats. Instead, the scope of democratic decision-making in the economy should be expanded so that all vital economic issues - such as which industries to develop or phase out, what proportion of the government budget to devote to agriculture, etc. - become subject to democratic discussion and choice. This will entail the demystification of economics and a return to its origins as political economy and moral economy.

12. Civil society must constantly monitor and supervise the private sector and the state, a process that should be institutionalized.

13. The property complex should be transformed into a "mixed economy" that includes community cooperatives, private enterprises, and state enterprises, and excludes transnational corporations.

14. Centralized global institutions like the IMF and the World Bank should be replaced with regional institutions built not on free trade and capital mobility but on principles of cooperation that, to use the words of Hugo Chavez in describing the Bolivarian Alternative for the Peoples of Our Americas (ALBA), "transcend the logic of capitalism."

Some drivers that might be causing de-globalisation are as under:-

- Rise of populist politics and return to protectionism (including many non-tariff barriers) - a response to trade imbalances caused by deglobalization.

- Shift towards bilateral and regional trade deals and decline in the influence of the World Trade Organization (WTO) give birth to deglobalization.

- Some return to capital controls and managed floating exchange rates, especially after the global financial crisis, caused deglobalization.

- Economic nationalism - such as disputes over vaccine exports, controlled mergers and acquisitions, and technology rivalries are sources of deglobalization.

- Businesses shifting away from reliance on extended global supply chains (some reshoring of manufacturing).

- **Movement away from free movement of labour across borders** - greater use of migration controls is the main reason for diminishing interdependence.

- **Immediate impact of the 2020-21 COVID pandemic, threats to supply chains, and reductions in labour movement** grounds deglobalization.

19.3.1 What are the reasons for this new trend of Deglobalisation

There are several reasons behind this trend today. Some of them are:

- Unequal distribution of benefits of globalization, rising inequalities, and job loss, especially in developed countries.
- MNCs across the countries and workers from developing countries benefited the most, leading to a perception that workers from developing countries have stolen jobs from developed countries. This led to demands for stricter visa regimes and relocation of industries.
- Global slowdown exacerbated the above-mentioned situation and led to an increase in demand for protectionist measures across the globe.
- Rise of ISIS, increased instances of terrorist attacks, and emerging security threats across the globe. The immigration crisis further accentuated the security situation, and as it is happening at the time of economic slowdown, it is leading to an anti-immigrant stand.
- Rise of populist leaders globally re-enforces the trend.

19.3.2 Impact of Deglobalisation on India

- **Economic Impact:** Deglobalization will lead to a reduction in the rate of economic growth of India.

  - It will lead to protectionism with reduced cooperation among countries that will hurt Indian trade and exports.

- Deglobalization will lead to a reduction in competition and a rise in general prices of goods and services.

- It will destroy employment opportunities because it will prevent the outflow of skilled people due to protectionist measures like visa regulations. This will impact their employability and remittances to the nation.

- It may lead to increased import costs due to lesser choice and options, and manufacturers and producers would have to pay more for equipment, commodities, and intermediate products from foreign markets.

- **Social Impact:**

  - It will lead to a decrease in standards of living as it will impact exports and economic growth, impacting the welfare of the poor and their standard of lives.

  - It will lead to a rise in conflicts economically and politically.

- **Political Impact:** It would affect polity, leading to instability in the political framework of nations due to a rise in prices and cost of living, which may lead to civil uprisings.

- **Impact on Technology:** These tendencies limit technological advancement of the world as a whole and of developing countries in particular. Limited knowledge sharing and lack of flow of technology to developing countries limit advancement in science; this is the impact on technology.

- **Impact on Environmental Conservation:** Due to non-cooperation among nations, it will impact environment conservation efforts in India. It will reduce required funding and would jeopardize efforts to conserve the environment and tackle environmental change. It would lead to a lack of coordination at international organizations like the UN where countries may not come to a common point on various problems like environmental change. It destroys the international order. This would impact India's interests.

- **Impact on Women Employment:** Deglobalization would impact women empowerment efforts as it will impact women's movements across the globe. Lack of coordination will reduce opportunities for women across the world.

- **Impact on Security:** Due to a lack of coordination among various nations, security around the world along with India would be impacted. It will not only increase economic risks but would provide an opportunity for terrorists to carry out violence due to a lack of coordination among various law enforcement agencies.

- **Impact on Farmers:** A less coordinating world means an impact on agricultural exports and Indian farmers. Indian farmers would face the double whammy of environmental change and deglobalization.

A. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Multiple Choice Questions (MCQs)

1. Which of the following is **not** a component of Industry 4.0?
   a) Internet of Things (IoT)
   b) Artificial Intelligence (AI)
   c) Steam Engine
   d) Cyber-Physical Systems

2. De-globalisation refers to:
   a) The integration of global economies
   b) The reduction of international trade and cooperation
   c) The advancement of digital technologies
   d) The expansion of global markets

3. Corporate sustainability focuses on:
   a) Increasing short-term profits
   b) Reducing employee benefits
   c) Environmental, social, and economic responsibilities
   d) Downsizing operations

4. One potential **disadvantage** of de-globalisation is:
   a) Increased innovation
   b) Enhanced local industries
   c) Reduced global interdependence
   d) Higher production costs

19.4CORPORATE SUSTAINIBILITY

Corporate sustainability is the strategy whereby a business delivers its goods and services in a manner that is both environmentally sustainable and supports its economic growth. Corporate sustainability (also called as corporate social responsibility, corporate conscience, corporate citizenship, social performance, or sustainable responsible business) is a form of corporate self-regulation integrated into a business model. Corporate sustainability starts with a company's value system and a principled approach to doing business. This means operating in ways that, at a minimum, meet fundamental responsibilities in the areas of human rights, labour, environment and anti-corruption. Responsible businesses enact the same values and principles wherever they have a presence, and know that good practices in one area do not offset harm in another.

Sustainability is most often defined as meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet theirs. Broadly speaking, a company implements sustainable practice by reducing its consumption of limited resources, or finding alternative resources with lower environmental consequences.

Corporate sustainability is a growing concern among investors who seek not only economic profit but also social good.

Sustainability has three main pillars: economic, environmental, and social. These three pillars are informally referred to as people, planet, and profits.

1. **The Environmental Pillar** The environmental pillar often gets the most attention. Many companies are focused on reducing their carbon footprints, packaging waste, water usage, or other damage to the environment. Besides helping the planet, these practices can also have a positive financial impact. For example, reducing the use of packaging materials means lower spending, and improved fuel efficiency also helps with the company's budget. Companies can improve their environmental sustainability by reducing their carbon footprint or wasteful practices.

2. **The Social Pillar** The social pillar ties back into another poorly defined concept: social license. A sustainable business should have the support and approval of its employees, stakeholders, and the community it operates in. The approaches to securing and maintaining this support are various, but it comes down to treating employees fairly and being a good neighbour and community member, both locally and globally.

3. **The Economic Pillar** The economic pillar of sustainability is where most businesses feel they are on firm ground. To be sustainable, a business must be profitable. That said, profit cannot trump the other two pillars. In fact, profit at any cost is not at all what the economic pillar is about. Activities that fit under the economic pillar include compliance, proper governance, and risk management. While these are already table stakes for most North American companies, they are not the global standard. The economic, or governance, pillar refers to maintaining honest and transparent accounting practices and regulatory compliance. Sometimes, this pillar is referred to as the governance pillar, referring to good corporate governance. This means

that boards of directors and management align with shareholders' interests as well as that of the company's community, value chains, and end-user customers.

Impact of Sustainability

The main question for investors and executives is whether or not sustainability is an advantage for a company. In practical terms, all the strategies under sustainability have been co-opted from other business movements like Kaizen, community engagement, the BHAG (Big Hairy Audacious Goal), talent acquisition, and so on. Sustainability provides a larger purpose and some new deliverables for companies to strive for and helps them renew their commitments to basic goals like efficiency, sustainable growth, and shareholder value.

Perhaps more importantly, a sustainability strategy that is publicly shared can deliver hard-to-quantify benefits such as public goodwill and a better reputation. If it helps a company get credit for things they are already doing, then why not? For the companies that cannot point to an overall vision to improve in these three pillars, however, there isn't a real market consequence—yet.

The trend seems to be making sustainability and a public commitment to its basic business practices, much like compliance is for publicly traded companies. If this comes to pass, then companies lacking a sustainability plan could see a market penalty, rather than proactive companies seeing a market premium.

For some companies, sustainability represents an opportunity to organize diverse efforts under one umbrella concept and gain public credit for it. For other companies, sustainability means answering hard questions about the how and why of their business practices that could have a serious, if gradual, impact on their operations.

Corporate sustainability is a new and evolving corporate management paradigm. Although the concept acknowledges the need for profitability, it differs from the traditional growth and profit-maximization model in that it places a much greater emphasis on environmental, social, and economic performance, and the public reporting on this performance.

Corporate sustainability borrows elements from four other concepts. Sustainable development sets out the performance areas that companies should focus on, and also contributes the vision and societal goals that the corporation should work toward, namely environmental protection, social justice and equity, and economic development. Corporate social responsibility contributes ethical arguments, and stakeholder theory provides business arguments as to why corporations should work towards these goals. Corporate accountability provides the rationale as to why companies should report to society on their performance in these areas.

Not all companies currently subscribe to the principles of corporate sustainability, and it is unlikely that all will, at least not voluntarily. However, a significant number of companies have made public commitments to environmental protection, social justice and equity, and economic development. Their number continues to grow. This trend will be reinforced if shareholders and other stakeholders support and reward companies that conduct their operations in the spirit of sustainability.

Corporate sustainability is an approach aiming to create long-term stakeholder value through the implementation of a business strategy that focuses on the ethical, social, environmental, cultural, and economic dimensions of doing business. The strategies created are intended to foster longevity, transparency, and proper employee development within business organizations.

Corporate sustainability is often confused with corporate social responsibility (CSR), though the two are not the same. Bansal and DesJardine (2014) state that the notion of 'time' discriminates sustainability from CSR and other similar concepts. Whereas ethics, morality, and norms permeate CSR, sustainability only obliges businesses to make intertemporal trade-offs to safeguard intergenerational equity. Short-termism is the bane of sustainability.

Corporate sustainability can be viewed as a new and evolving corporate management paradigm. The term 'paradigm' is used deliberately, in that corporate sustainability is an alternative to the traditional growth and profit-maximization model. While corporate sustainability recognizes that corporate growth and profitability are important, it also requires the corporation to pursue societal goals, specifically those relating to sustainable development—environmental protection, social justice and equity, and economic development. A review of the literature suggests that the concept of corporate sustainability borrows elements from four more established concepts:

1) Sustainable Development

2) Corporate Social Responsibility

3) Stakeholder Theory

4) Corporate Accountability Theory

The contributions of these four concepts are illustrated below: Each concept, and its relationship to corporate sustainability,is discussed below.

1) Sustainable Development

Sustainable development is a broad, dialectical concept that balances the need for economic growth with environmental protection and social equity. The term was first popularized in 1987, in *Our Common Future,* a book published by the World Commission for Environment and Development (WCED). The WCED described sustainable development as development that met the needs of present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs. Or, as described in the book, it is "a process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development, and institutional change are all in harmony and enhance both current and future potential to meet human needs and aspirations." Sustainable development is a broad concept in that it combines economics, social justice, environmental science and management, business management, politics and law. It is a dialectical concept in that, like justice, democracy, fairness, and other important societal concepts, it defies a concise analytical definition, although one can often point to examples that illustrate its principles.

In *Our Common Future* (Oxford University Press, 1987), the WCED recognized that the achievement of sustainable development could not be simply left to government regulators and policy makers. It recognized that industry had a significant role to play. The authors argued that while corporations have always been the engines for economic development, they needed to be more proactive in balancing this drive with social equity and environmental protection, partly because they have been the cause of some of the unsustainable conditions, but also because they have access to the resources necessary to address the problems.

Industry's response to the WCED's call came in stages as everyone wrestled with what sustainable development in action should look like. The first serious sign of support came from the International Chamber paper. A 1973 article by Nicholas Eberstadt traced the history of CSR back to ancient Greece, when governing bodies set out rules of conduct for businessmen and merchants (*Managing Corporate Social Responsibility*, Little, Brown and Company, 1977). The role of business in society has been debated ever since. According to Archie B. Carroll, one of the most prolific authors on CSR, the modern era of CSR began with the publication of the book

Social Responsibilities of the Businessman by Howard Bowen in 1953. Since then, many authors have written on the topic. For the first few decades after 1953, the main focus of these writings was whether corporate managers had an ethical responsibility to consider the needs of society. By 1980, it was generally agreed that corporate managers did have this ethical responsibility, and the focus changed to what CSR looked like in practice. The arguments in favour of corporate managers having an ethical responsibility to society draw from four philosophical theories:

a. **Social contract theory** The central tenet of social contract theory is that society consists of a series of explicit and implicit contracts between individuals, organizations, and institutions. These contracts evolved so that exchanges could be made between parties in an environment of trust and harmony. According to social contract theory, corporations, as organizations, enter into these contracts with other members of society, and receive resources, goods, and societal approval to operate in exchange for good behaviour.

b. **Social justice theory** Social justice theory, which is a variation (and sometimes a contrasting view) of social contract theory, focuses on fairness and distributive justice—how, and according to what principles, society's goods (here meaning wealth, power, and other intangibles) are distributed amongst the members of society. Proponents of social justice theory argue that a fair society is one in which the needs of all members of society are considered, not just those with power and wealth. As a result, corporate managers need to consider how these goods can be most appropriately distributed in society.

c. **Rights theory** Rights theory, not surprisingly, is concerned with the meaning of rights, including basic human rights and property rights. One argument in rights theory is that property rights should not override human rights. From a CSR perspective, this would mean that while shareholders of a corporation have certain property rights, this does not give them license to override the basic human rights of employees, local community members, and other stakeholders.

d. **Deontological theory** Deontological theory deals with the belief that everyone, including corporate managers, has a moral duty to treat everyone else with respect, including listening and considering their needs. This is sometimes referred to as the "Golden Rule." Corporate Social Responsibility contributes to corporate sustainability by providing ethical arguments as to why corporate managers should work towards sustainable development. If society in general believes that sustainable development is a worthwhile goal, corporations have an ethical obligation to help society move in that direction.

2) Corporate Social Responsibility

CSR is a process with the aim to embrace responsibility for the company's actions and encourage a positive impact through its activities on the environment, consumers, employees, communities, stakeholders, and all other members of the public sphere who may also be considered as stakeholders.

The term "corporate social responsibility" became popular in the 1960s and has remained a term used indiscriminately by many to cover legal and moral responsibility more narrowly construed. Proponents argue that corporations make more long-term profits by operating with a perspective, while critics argue that CSR distracts from the economic role of businesses. McWilliams and Siegel's article (2000), published in the *Strategic Management Journal*, cited by over 1000 academics, compared existing econometric studies of the relationship between social and financial performance. They concluded that the contradictory results of previous studies reporting positive, negative, and neutral financial impact, were due to flawed empirical analysis. McWilliams and Siegel demonstrated that when the model is properly specified; that is, when you control for investment in Research and Development, an important determinant of financial performance, CSR has a neutral impact on financial outcomes. In his widely cited book entitled *Misguided Virtue: False Notions of Corporate Social Responsibility* (2001), David Henderson argued forcefully against the way in which CSR broke from traditional corporate value-setting. He questioned the "lofty" and sometimes "unrealistic expectations" in CSR. Some argue that CSR is merely window-dressing, or an attempt to pre-empt the role of governments as a watchdog over powerful multinational corporations. Political sociologists became interested in CSR in the context of theories of globalisation, neo-liberalism, and late capitalism. Adopting a critical approach, sociologists emphasize CSR as a form of capitalist legitimacy and in particular point out that what has begun as a social movement against uninhibited corporate power has been co-opted by and transformed by corporations into a 'business model' and a 'risk management' device, often with questionable results.

3) Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholder theory, which is short for stakeholder theory of the firm, is a relatively modern concept. It was first popularized by R. Edward Freeman in his 1984 book *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach* (Pitman Books, Boston, Mass, 1984). Freeman defined a stakeholder as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives." The basic premise of stakeholder theory is that the stronger your relationships are with other external parties, the easier it will be to meet your corporate business objectives; the worse your relationships, the harder it will be. Strong relationships with stakeholders are those based on trust, respect, and cooperation. Unlike CSR, which is largely a philosophical concept, stakeholder theory was originally, and is still primarily, a strategic management concept. The goal of stakeholder theory is to help corporations strengthen relationships with external groups in order to develop a competitive advantage.

One of the first challenges for companies is to identify their stakeholders. There appears to be general agreement among companies that certain groups are stakeholders—shareholders and investors, employees, customers, and suppliers. Beyond these, however, it becomes more challenging because there are no clear criteria for defining stakeholders. Most authors agree that if the term 'stakeholder' is to be meaningful, there must be some way of separating stakeholders from non-stakeholders. Some authors have suggested that stakeholders are those that have a stake in the company's activities—something at risk. Other authors have suggested that if you consider the global impacts of industry—such as climate change or cultural changes due to marketing and advertising—everyone is a stakeholder. The issue of qualifying criteria for stakeholder status is currently being debated.

Assuming that the main stakeholders have been identified, the next challenge for corporate managers is to develop strategies for dealing with them. This is a challenge because different stakeholder groups can, and often do, have different goals, priorities, and demands. Shareholders and investors want optimum return on their investments; employees want safe workplaces, competitive salaries, and job security; customers want quality goods and services at fair prices; local communities want community investment; regulators want full compliance with applicable regulations. However, there is a general acknowledgement that the goals of economic stability, environmental protection, and social justice are common across many stakeholder groups. Few groups would argue against these goals, although they may debate the level of priority or urgency.

The contribution of stakeholder theory to corporate sustainability is the addition of business arguments as to why companies should work toward sustainable development. Stakeholder theory suggests that it is in the company's own best economic interest to work in this direction because doing so will strengthen its relationship with stakeholders, which in turn will help the company meet its business objectives.

4) Corporate Accountability

The fourth and final concept underlying corporate sustainability is corporate accountability. Accountability is the legal or ethical responsibility to provide an account or reckoning of the actions for which one is held responsible. Accountability differs from responsibility in that the latter refers to one's duty to act in a certain way, whereas accountability refers to one's duty to explain, justify, or report on his or her actions.

In the corporate world, there are many different accountability relationships, but the relevant one in the context of this paper is the relationship between corporate management and shareholders. This relationship is based on the fiduciary model, which in turn is based on agency theory and agency law, wherein corporate management is the 'agent' and the shareholders the 'principal'. This relationship can be viewed as a contract in which the principal entrusts the agent with capital and the agent is responsible for using that capital in the principal's best interest. The agent is also held accountable by the principal for how that capital is used and the return on the investment.

Corporate accountability need not be restricted to the traditional fiduciary model, nor only to the relationship between corporate management and shareholders. Companies enter into contracts (both explicit and implicit) with other stakeholder groups as a matter of everyday business, and these contractual arrangements can serve as the basis for accountability relationships. For example, companies that receive environmental permits and approvals from regulators to operate facilities are often held accountable by the regulators for whether the terms of the approval are being met. Proponents of social contract theory often argue that corporations are given a 'licence to operate' by society in exchange for good behaviour, and as such the corporations should be accountable to society for their performance.

The contribution of corporate accountability theory to corporate sustainability is that it helps define the nature of the relationship between corporate managers and the rest of society. It also sets out the arguments as to why companies should report on their environmental, social, and economic performance, not just financial performance. In 1997, John Elkington of the UK consultancy, SustainAbility, called this type of accounting on environmental, social, and economic performance as 'triple bottom line' reporting.

According to the concept of Social Responsibility of business, the objective of managers for taking decisions related to business is not only to maximize profit or shareholder value but also to serve and protect the interest of other members of its society like consumers, workers, and the community as a whole.

B. CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
True/False:

1. Industry 4.0 has no impact on traditional manufacturing systems.
   False
2. De-globalisation can result in more localized supply chains.
3. Corporate sustainability ignores social responsibilities and focuses only on profit.
4. Artificial Intelligence is a key enabler of Industry 4.0.

LET US SUM SUP

The Fourth Industrial Revolution is a continuation of the Third, the digital revolution that has been occurring since the middle of the last century. It is characterized by a fusion of technologies that is blurring the lines between the physical, digital, and biological spheres. Deglobalizing means starting to think and build an integration process based on the needs of peoples, nations, communities, and eco-systems. Sustainability is most often defined as meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet theirs.

KEY WORDS

- **Artificial Intelligence:** It describes computers that can think like humans, that recognize complex patterns, draw conclusions, and make recommendations.
- **Blockchain:** Blockchain is a secure, decentralized, and transparent way of recording and sharing data, with no need to rely on third-party intermediaries.
- **Robotics:** Robotics refers to the design, manufacture, and use of robots for personal and commercial use.
- **Deglobalisation:** It is the process of diminishing interdependence and integration between certain units around the world, typically nation-states.

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. How willtheFourthIndustrialRevolutionaffectbusiness?

   ____

   ____

2. Discuss the pillars and impact of sustainability.

   ____

   ____

3. What are the causes of de-globalisation?

4. What are the technologies driving change?

LESSON END EXERCISE

1. What are the key technologies driving Industry 4.0, and how do they influence productivity?

2. How is de-globalisation reshaping global supply chains? Discuss with recent examples.

3. Describe how corporate sustainability strategies can lead to long-term business success and environmental benefits.

19.9 ANSWER KEY

A: c, b, c, d

B: True **,** False **,**True

19.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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GLOBAL ISSUES IN STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT AND STRATEGIC AUDIT

STRUCTURE:

20.0 LEARNING OBJECTIVES AND OUTCOMES

Learning Objectives

The objectives of this lesson are:

- To theroleplayedbystrategicmanagementincorporateplanning
- To Variousglobalissuesinstrategicmanagement

Learning Outcomes

- Identify and explain major global issues impacting strategic management such as globalization, cultural diversity, and international competition.
- Evaluate the role of global economic, political, and legal environments in shaping strategic decisions.
- Analyze strategies multinational corporations use to adapt to global challenges.
- Propose solutions to strategic problems using international frameworks and cross-cultural considerations.

20.1 INTRODUCTION

This lesson deals with the final phase of strategic management ,i.e. strategic evaluation and control.

20.2 GLOBAL ISSUES IN STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

International Strategic Management (ISM) is an ongoing management planning process aimed at developing strategies to allow an organization to expand abroad and compete internationally. Strategic planning is used in the process of developing a particular international strategy. Developing business strategy on a global basis has become more important as worldwide communications grow.

An organization must be able to determine what products or services they intend to sell, where and how the organization will make these products or services, where they will sell them, and how the organization will acquire the necessary resources for these tasks. Even more importantly, an organization must have a strategy on how it expects to outperform its competitors. When an organization moves from being a domestic entity to an international organization, it must consider the possible broad complexities that accompany such a decision. In a domestic country, an organization must only consider one national government, a single currency and accounting system, one political and legal system, and usually a similar culture.

Entering into one or more foreign countries can involve multiple governments, currencies, accounting systems, legal systems, and a large variety of languages and cultures. This can create numerous barriers to entry for an organization looking to expand internationally. Every strategic manager should keep several global concerns in mind as plans are made and executed.

A. CHECK YOU PROGRESS

Fill in the Blanks

1. The process of expanding a business's operations into international markets is known as **__________**.
2. A key risk associated with operating in multiple countries is **__________ risk**, which refers to changes in exchange rates.
3. Strategies that involve tailoring products to local markets are referred to as **__________ strategies**.
4. A **__________ advantage** gives a company an edge over competitors on a global scale.

20.2.1 Issues in Global strategic management

In foreign countries, there are the possibilities of:

20.2.1.1 Local languages required in many situations.

20.2.1.2 Inadequate or limited communication.

20.2.1.3 Very diverse cultures, both between countries and sometimes even within countries.

20.2.1.4 Often volatile politics.

20.2.1.5 Varied economic systems.

20.2.1.6 Scarcity of skilled labour, with possible costs in training labour or redesigning procedures.

20.2.1.7 Poorly-developed financial markets and government-controlled capital flows, in some of the countries.

20.2.1.8 Problems and exorbitant costs in obtaining market research data.

20.2.1.9 Limited advertising, subjected to lots of restrictions.

20.2.1.10 Possible low literacy rates, not to mention the possibility of making mistakes in the language when advertising.

20.2.1.11 Currency exchange fluctuations.

20.2.1.12 Mandatory worker participation in management in some countries.

20.2.1.13 Legal restrictions on laying off of workers.

The organizations, while performing, ought to deal with the above-mentioned situations in a very efficient manner in order to survive and compete in a fast-changing business scenario. In addition, the following issues in strategic management are found globally:

1. **Alignment across teams:** It is a struggle for most organizations to find a cut away to align their functions and ensure that they understand what a global strategy entails. This lack of alignment is usually what causes issues in proper implementation or execution of strategy.

2. **Market Knowledge:** While this seems to be the most common thing and natural aspect to cover, many depth of knowledge is critical to the success of the global strategy.

3. **Readiness to the current leadership:** The leadership teams that will spearhead the growth or globalization process have to be in a state of readiness. This is a significant change, and many organizations find it difficult to get their current leadership to scale up and also become change-ready immediately.

4. **Politics and Economics:** Political factors, such as Govt. stability, trade regulations, tax policies, and other laws, impact an organization's ability to achieve strategic goals in some countries. Economic factors like low credit accessibility, high unemployment rates, and rising interest rates can also make it difficult for a company to conduct business in some locations.

5. **Social Trends:** Global strategic management activities may not produce the desired results if company leaders fail to assess local social factors accurately. Businesses also need to take into account lifestyle changes, such as reliance on social networking websites, when planning marketing and advertising campaigns.

Local languages required in many situations:

a) **Technology:** Innovation occurs at a rapid pace. Companies need to bring products to market faster than their competitors in order to achieve their strategic goals and maintain a competitive edge. By using the latest technology, such as DVDs instead of VHS tapes, businesses reach the largest audience. Unless they adapt to these changes, companies risk being left behind and becoming obsolete and unprofitable.

b) **Environment and Law:** Environmental factors like local waste disposal laws and energy consumption regulations can impact how a company does business. Many times global strategic management initiatives may be difficult to implement because of local rules, including health and safety regulations. By adhering to laws that govern employment and business conduct, companies can avoid costly lawsuits.

20.3STRATEGIC AUDIT

The strategic audit is a system to identify the extent of implementing a company's strategies, its purposes, and how to reach its goals. It requires drawing a strategic plan and seeking to implement this plan in order to achieve the company's message and goals. Strategic audit is an objective review and evaluation of a strategic plan (or set of plans) that have been put into motion by senior leaders and key stakeholders designed to meet an organization's future objective. The audit ensures that strategic plans are pinpointed, remain relevant, and continue to create value for the organization. A strategic audit is an in-depth review to determine whether a company is meeting its organizational objectives in the most efficient way. Additionally, it examines whether the company is utilizing its resources fully. A successful strategic audit is beneficial to any company. It assesses various aspects of a business and evaluates and determines the most appropriate direction for the company to move toward in achieving its goals. An important part of business strategy is concerned with ensuring that these resources and competencies are understood and evaluated - a process that is often known as Strategic Audit. Complete a strategic audit utilizing six phases.

B. CHECK YOU PROGRESS
Activity

Title: *Global Strategy Mapping*

Instructions: Divide students into small groups. Assign each group a multinational corporation (e.g., Coca-Cola, Toyota, Apple, Unilever). Ask them to:

- Identify the key global issues faced by the company (e.g., tariffs, cultural differences, political instability).
- Analyze how the company responded to these issues strategically.
- Present their findings in a 5-minute presentation to the class.

20.3.1 Phases of Strategic Audit

18.8.1 **Resource Audit** : Conduct a full assessment of all resources owned or allocated by the business that are utilized to carry out organizational objectives. Cash balances and capital are included in this tally. Determining resources requires accounting for physical property such as buildings and lots. Additionally, categorize human resources by assessing staffers' skillset. Also account for intangible resources such as reputations and brand name power.

18.8.2 **Value Chain Analysis** Inspect all business activities to determine how each one contributes or hinders organizational objectives. M.E. Porter separated activities into two categories: primary and support activities. Primary activities consist of in-bound and out-bound logistics, or materials and products coming in and moving out of the company. Primary activities also include operations, marketing and sales. Support activities are made up of human resources, procurement, and infrastructure.

C. CHECK YOU PROGRESS

Case Study: McDonald’s Global Adaptation Strategy

McDonald's, the global fast-food giant, has faced a variety of global issues—from different dietary preferences and cultural attitudes to political and economic pressures in various countries. In India, McDonald’s removed beef from its menu to respect cultural norms. In Europe, it introduced organic food items and eco-friendly packaging to appeal to environmentally conscious customers.

Discussion Questions:

- What global issues did McDonald’s face in different regions?
- How did the company adapt its strategy to local environments?
- What are the benefits and risks of such adaptation?

18.8.3 **Core Competence Analysis** Determine the core competence that distinguishes your company from its competitors. Traditionally, there are four core competencies: quality, service, cost, and flexibility. Quality-driven organizations focus on carving a niche by supplying the best quality products and developing a reliable and trustworthy reputation. Alternatively, a cost-driven strategy involves offering products or services more cost-effective than the competition.

18.8.4 **Performance Analysis** Evaluate the performance of the company against established information obtained in the earlier phases. For example, with full knowledge of all company resources, gauge whether the business is utilizing those completely or whether there are areas that need improvement. Performance evaluations can consist of comparing past performance with current performance or assessing and measuring against competitors.

18.8.5 **Portfolio Analysis** Inventory the overall securities, investments, and business units of the company and analyze them in relation to risk vs. return. A portfolio analysis allows companies to understand better which areas to highlight and which areas to phase out. This criterion can provide information through multiple resources to identify products that are not selling well. This enables you to allocate funds and resources more efficiently to the products or services that offer a larger return.

18.8.6 **SWOT Analysis** A SWOT analysis stands for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats. Utilize a SWOT analysis to assess the company, its resources, and its environment by examining internal and external influences. Internal influences are the company's strengths and weaknesses. External influences contain opportunities and threats. A SWOT analysis yields information and direction to transform weaknesses into strengths, emphasize opportunities for improvement, and minimize threats.

20.3.2 Importance of Strategic Audit

Carrying out a strategic audit means analyzing or diagnosing the overall internal and external situation of a company in order to inform decision-making on future changes, investments, or developments. A strategic audit helps small business owners to assess whether internal processes move the needle towards their strategic goals.

Here are the key stages of a strategic audit:

1. **Understanding the Strategic Audit:** A business needs a strategic plan that includes short-term and long-term goals. Establishing the strategic plan gives auditors a baseline for their work.

2. **Implementing a Plan:** With the strategic plan in place, auditors examine business functions and assess each function to see if the work it does furthers the plan.

3. **The Auditor Report:** The strategic audit compares the state of a business as it exists on the day of the audit to the state of business the way it would have looked and operated had it achieved its goals.

4. **The Audit Cycle:** As one of many business strategies, a strategic audit is an ongoing process. A business owner implements changes based on the audit report, and the auditor team checks in periodically to re-evaluate the performance of each unit.

20.4LET US SUM UP

A successful strategic audit is beneficial and important to any company. A strategic audit utilizes six phases, which include: resource audit, value chain analysis, core competence analysis, and performance analysis. A strategic audit is an objective review and evaluation of a strategic plan. An important part of business strategy is concerned with ensuring that resources and competencies are understood and evaluated-a process known as strategic audit.

20.5KEY WORDS

- **Strategic Audit:** An in-depth review to determine whether a company is effectively utilizing its resources in an international context.

- **Strategic Planning:** The process of developing a specific international strategy.

20.6SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS:

1. Discuss the importance of Strategic Audit.

2. What are the phases of Strategic Audit.

3. Highlight the various issues in global strategic management.

20.7LESSON END EXERCISE

1. What are the main global challenges that affect strategic management decisions?

2. How does cultural diversity influence international strategic planning?

3. Discuss the difference between global standardization and localization strategies with examples.

20.8 ANSWER KEY

A: globalization, currency, localization, competitive

20.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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