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Turning Great Strategy into Great Strategy into Great Performance by Michael C. Mankins and Richard Steele Who Has the D? How Clear Decision Roles Enhance Organizational Effectiveness Is Not Strategy For almost two decades,
managers have been learning to play by a new set of rules. Companies must be flexible to respond rapidly to competitive and market changes. They must outsource aggressively to gain efficiencies. And they must nurture a few core competencies in race to stay ahead of rivals. Positioning—
once the heart of strategy—is rejected as too static for today's dynamic market and changing technologies. According to the new dogma, rivals can quickly copy any market position, and tompetitive advantage is, at best, temporary. But those beliefs are dangerous half-truths, and they are leading more and more companies down the path of mutually
destructive competition. True, some barriers to competition are falling as regulation eases and markets become global. True, companies have properly invested energy in becoming leaner and more nimble. In many industries, however, what some call hypercompetition is a self-inflicted wound, not the inevitable outcome of a changing paradigm of
competition. The root of the problem is the failure to distinguish between operational effectiveness and strategy. The quest for productivity, quality, and speed has spawned a remarkable number of management tools and techniques: total quality management, benchmarking, time-based competition, outsourcing, partnering, reengineering, change
management. Although the resulting operational improvements have often been dramatic, many companies have been frustrated by their inability to translate those gains into sustainable profitability. And bit by bit, almost improve on all fronts, they move farther
away from viable competitive positions. Operational effectiveness: necessary but not sufficient Operational effectiveness and strategy are both essential to superior perform rivals only if it can establish a difference that it can
preserve. It must deliver greater value to customers or create comparable value at a lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, or do both. The arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, and the arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, and the arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, and the arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, and the arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, and the arithmetic of superior profitability then follows: delivering greater value at lower cost, and the arithmetic of superior profitability at lower cost, and
price derive from the hundreds of activities required to create, products, and deliver their products, and training employees. Cost is generated by performing activities more efficiently than competitors. Similarly,
differentiation arises from both the choice of activities and how they are performed. Activities, then, are the basic units of competitive advantage or disadvantage or disadvantage or disadvantage or disadvantage. Overall advantage or disadvantage or disadvantage or disadvantage or disadvantage.
effectiveness includes but is not limited to efficiency. It refers to any number of practices that allow a company to better utilize its inputs by, for example, reducing defects in products or developing better products faster. In contrast, strategic positioning means performing different activities from rivals' or performing similar activities in different
ways. Differences in operational effectiveness among companies are pervasive. Some companies are able to get more out of their inputs than others because they eliminate wasted effort, employ more advanced technology, motivate employees better, or have greater insight into managing particular activities or sets of activities. Such differences in
operational effectiveness are an important source of differences in profitability among competitors because they directly affect relative cost positions and levels of differentiation. Idea in Brief The myriad activities that go into creating, producing, selling, and delivering a product or service are the basic units of competitive advantage. Operational
effectiveness means performing these activities better—that is, faster, or with fewer inputs and defects—than rivals. Companies can reap enormous advantages from operational effectiveness, as Japanese firms demonstrated in the 1970s and 1980s with such practices as total quality management and continuous improvement. But from a competitive
standpoint, the problem with operational effectiveness is that best practices are easily emulated. As all competitors in an industry adopt them, the productivity frontier—the maximum value a company can deliver at a given cost, given the best available technology, skills, and management techniques—shifts outward, lowering costs and improving
value at the same time. Such competition produces absolute improvement in operational effectiveness, but relative improvement for no one. And the more benchmarking that companies do, the more competitive convergence you have—that is, the more indistinguishable companies are from one another. Strategic positioning attempts to achieve
sustainable competitive advantage by preserving what is distinctive about a company. It means performing similar activities in different ways. Differences in operational effectiveness were at the heart of the Japanese challenge to Western companies in the 1980s. The Japanese were so far ahead of rivals in
operational effectiveness that they could offer lower cost and superior quality at the same time. It is worth dwelling on this point, because so much recent thinking about competition depends on it. Imagine for a moment a productivity frontier that constitutes the sum of all existing best practices at any given time. Think of it as the maximum value that
a company delivering a particular product or service can create at a given cost, using the best available technologies, skills, management techniques, and purchased inputs. The productivity frontier can apply to individual activities such as order processing and manufacturing, and to an entire company's activities. When a
company improves its operational effectiveness, it moves toward the frontier. Doing so may require capital investment, different personnel, or simply new ways of managing. Idea in Practice Three key principles underlie strategic positioning. 1. Strateg
position emerges from three distinct sources: • serving few needs of many customers (Jiffy Lube provides only auto lubricants) • serving broad needs of few customers (Bessemer Trust targets only in cities with a population under
200,000) 2. Strategy requires you to make trade-offs in competitive activities are incompatible; thus, gains in one area can be achieved only at the expense of another area. For example, Neutrogena soap is positioned more as a medicinal product than as a cleansing agent. The company says no to sales
based on deodorizing, gives up large volume, and sacrifices manufacturing efficiencies. By contrast, Maytag's decision to extend its product line and acquire other brands represented a failure to make difficult trade-offs: the boost in revenues came at the expense of return on sales. 3. Strategy involves creating fit among a company's activities. Fit has
to do with the ways a company's activities interact and reinforce one another. For example, Vanguard Group aligns all of its activities with a low-cost strategy; it distributes funds directly to consumers and minimizes portfolio turnover. Fit drives both competitive advantage and sustainability: when activities mutually reinforce each other, competitors
can't easily imitate them. When Continental Lite tried to match a few of Southwest Airlines' activities, but not the whole interlocking system, the results were disastrous. Employees need guidance about how to deepen a strategic position rather than broaden or compromise it. About how to extend the company's uniqueness while strengthening the fit
among its activities. This work of deciding which target group of customers and needs to serve requires discipline, the ability to set limits, and forthright communication. Clearly, strategy and leadership are inextricably linked. The productivity frontier is constantly shifting outward as new technologies and management approaches are developed and
as new inputs become available. Laptop computers, mobile communications, the Internet, and software such as Lotus Notes, for example, have redefined the productivity frontier for sales-force operations and created rich possibilities for linking sales with such activities as order processing and after-sales support. Similarly, lean production, which
involves a family of activities, has allowed substantial improvements in manufacturing productivity and asset utilization. Operational effectiveness versus strategic positioning For at least the past decade, managers have been preoccupied with improving operational effectiveness. Through programs such as TQM, time-based competition, and
benchmarking, they have changed how they perform activities in order to eliminate inefficiencies, improve customer satisfaction, and achieve best practice. Hoping to keep up with shifts in the productivity frontier, managers have embraced continuous improvement, empowerment, change management, and the so-called learning organization. The
popularity of outsourcing and the virtual corporation reflect the growing recognition that it is difficult to perform all activities as productively as specialists. As companies move to the frontier, they can often improve on multiple dimensions of performance at the same time. For example, manufacturers that adopted the Japanese practice of rapid
changeovers in the 1980s were able to lower cost and improve differentiation simultaneously. What were once believed to be real trade-offs—between defects and costs, for example—turned out to be illusions created by poor operational
effectiveness is necessary to achieve superior profitability. However, it is not usually sufficient. Few companies have competed successfully on the basis of operational effectiveness over an extended period, and staying ahead of rivals gets harder every day. The most obvious reason for that is the rapid diffusion of best practices. Competitors can
quickly imitate management techniques, new technologies, input improvements, and superior ways of meeting customers' needs. The most generic solutions—those that can be used in multiple settings—diffuse the fastest. Witness the proliferation of OE techniques accelerated by support from consultants. OE competition shifts the productivity
frontier outward, effectively raising the bar for everyone. But although such competition produces absolute improvement in operational effectiveness, it leads to relative improvement for no one. Consider the $5 billion-plus U.S. commercial-printing industry. The major players—R.R. Donnelley & Sons Company, Quebecor, World Color Press, and Big
Flower Press—are competing head to head, serving all types of customers, offering the same array of printing technologies (gravure and web offset), investing heavily in the same new equipment, running their presses faster, and reducing crew sizes. But the resulting major productivity gains are being captured by customers and equipment suppliers,
not retained in superior profitability. Even industry-leader Donnelley's profit margin, consistently higher than 7% in the 1980s, fell to less than 4.6% in 1995. This pattern is playing itself out in industry after industry. Even the Japanese Companies Rarely
Have Strategies.") The second reason that improved operational effectiveness is insufficient—competitive convergence—is more subtle and insidious. The more that rivals outsource activities to efficient third parties, often the same ones, the more generic those activities become. As
rivals imitate one another's improvements in quality, cycle times, or supplier partnerships, strategies converge and competition becomes a series of races down identical paths that no one can win. Competition becomes a series of races down identical paths that no one can win.
The recent wave of industry consolidation through mergers makes sense in the context of OE competition. Driven by performance pressures but lacking strategic vision, company after company has had no better idea than to buy up its rivals. The competitors left standing are often those that outlasted others, not companies with real advantage. After a
decade of impressive gains in operational effectiveness, many companies are facing diminishing returns. Continuous improvement has been etched on managers' brains. But its tools unwittingly draw companies toward imitation and homogeneity. Gradually, managers have let operational effectiveness suppliant strategy. The result is zero-sum
competition, static or declining prices, and pressures on costs that compromise companies' ability to invest in the business for the long term. Japanese Companies Rarely Have Strategies THE JAPANESE TRIGGERED A GLOBAL revolution in operational effectiveness in the 1970s and 1980s, pioneering practices such as total quality management and
continuous improvement. As a result, Japanese manufacturers enjoyed substantial cost and quality advantages for many years. But Japanese companies rarely developed distinct strategic positions of the kind discussed in this article. Those that did—Sony, Canon, and Sega, for example—were the exception rather than the rule. Most Japanese
companies imitate and emulate one another. All rivals offer most if not all product varieties, features, and services; they employ all channels and match one anothers' plant configurations. The dangers of Japanese-style competition are now becoming easier to recognize. In the 1980s, with rivals operating far from the productivity frontier, it seemed
possible to win on both cost and quality indefinitely. Japanese companies were all able to grow in an expanding domestic economy and by penetrating global markets. They appeared unstoppable. But as the gap in operational effectiveness narrows, Japanese companies are increasingly caught in a trap of their own making. If they are to escape the
mutually destructive battles now ravaging their performance, Japan is notoriously consensus oriented, and companies will have to overcome strong cultural barriers. Japan is notoriously consensus oriented, and companies will have to overcome strong cultural barriers.
hand, requires hard choices. The Japanese also have a deeply ingrained service tradition that predisposes them to go to great lengths to satisfy any need a customer expresses. Companies that compete in that way end up blurring their distinct positioning, becoming all things to all customers. This discussion of Japan is drawn from the author's
research with Hirotaka Takeuchi, with help from Mariko Sakakibara. II. Strategy Rests on Unique Activities Competitive strategy is about being different set of activities to deliver a unique mix of value. Southwest Airlines Company, for example, offers short-haul, low-cost, point-to-point service between
midsize cities and secondary airports in large cities. Southwest avoids large airports and does not fly great distances. Its customers include business travelers, families, and students. Southwest's frequent departures and low fares attract price-sensitive customers who otherwise would travel by bus or car, and convenience-oriented travelers who
would choose a full-service airline on other routes. Most managers describe strategic positioning in terms of their customers: Southwest Airlines serves price- and convenience-sensitive travelers, for example. But the essence of strategy is in the activities—choosing to perform activities differently or to perform different activities than rivals.
Otherwise, a strategy is nothing more than a marketing slogan that will not withstand competition. A full-service airline is configured to get passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations and serve passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations and serve passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations and serve passengers with connecting flights, full-service airline is configured to get passengers with connecting flights, full-service airline is configured to get passengers with connecting flights, full-service airline is configured to get passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations and serve passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations and serve passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations and serve passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations and serve passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations and serve passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations and serve passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations and serve passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations are not always and the serve passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations are not always and the serve passengers from almost any point B. To reach a large number of destinations are not always and the serve passengers from always are not always and the serve passengers from always are not always and the serve passengers from always are not always and the serve passengers from always are not always and the serve passengers from always are not always are not always and the serve passengers from always are not always are not always and the serve passengers are not always are no
airports. To attract passengers who desire more comfort, they offer first-class or business-class service. To accommodate passengers who must change planes, they coordinate schedules and check and transfer baggage. Because some passengers who must change planes, they coordinate schedules and check and transfer baggage. Because some passengers who must change planes, they coordinate schedules and check and transfer baggage.
activities to deliver low-cost, convenient service on its particular type of route. Through fast turnarounds at the gate of only 15 minutes, Southwest does not offer meals, assigned seats, interline baggage checking, or premium classes
of service. Automated ticketing at the gate encourages customers to bypass travel agents, allowing Southwest to avoid their commissions. A standardized fleet of 737 aircraft boosts the efficiency of maintenance. Southwest has staked out a unique and valuable strategic position based on a tailored set of activities. On the routes served by Southwest, a
full-service airline could never be as convenient or as low cost. Ikea, the global furniture retailer based in Sweden, also has a clear strategic positioning is the tailored set of activities that make it work. Like Southwest, Ikea
has chosen to perform activities differently from its rivals. Finding New Positions: The Entrepreneurial Edge STRATEGIC COMPETITION CAN BE THOUGHT of as the process of perceiving new positions that woo customers from established positions or draw new customers into the market. For example, superstores offering depth of merchandise in a
single product category take market share from broad-line department stores offering a more limited selection in many categories. Mail-order catalogs pick off customers who crave convenience. In principle, incumbents and entrepreneurs face the same challenges in finding new strategic positions. In practice, new entrants often have the edge.
Strategic positionings are often not obvious, and finding them requires creativity and insight. New entrants often discover unique positions that have been available but simply overlooked by established competitors. Ikea, for example, recognized a customer group that had been ignored or served poorly. Circuit City Stores' entry into used cars,
CarMax, is based on a new way of performing activities—extensive refurbishing of cars, product guarantees, no-haggle pricing, sophisticated use of in-house customer financing—that has long been open to incumbents. New entrants can prosper by occupying a position that a competitor once held but has ceded through years of imitation and
straddling. And entrants coming from other industries can create new positions because of distinctive activities in consumer electronics retailing. Most commonly, however, new positions open up because of
change. New customer groups or purchase occasions arise; new needs emerge as societies evolve; new distribution channels appear; new technologies are developed; new machinery or information systems become available. When such changes happen, new entrants, unencumbered by a long history in the industry, can often more easily perceive the
 potential for a new way of competing. Unlike incumbents, newcomers can be more flexible because they face no trade-offs with their existing activities. One area might contain 25 sofas: another will display five dining tables. But those items represent only a fraction
of the choices available to customers. Dozens of books displaying fabric swatches or wood samples or alternate styles offer customers through the store, answering questions and helping them navigate this maze of choices. Once a customer makes a selection, the order
is relayed to a third-party manufacturer. With luck, the furniture will be delivered to the customer's home within six to eight weeks. This is a value chain that maximizes customers who are happy to trade off service for cost. Instead of having a sales associate trail customers
around the store, Ikea uses a self-service model based on clear, in-store displays. Rather than rely solely on third-party manufacturers, Ikea designs its own low-cost, modular, ready-to-assemble furniture to fit its positioning. In huge stores, Ikea designs its own low-cost, modular, ready-to-assemble furniture to fit its positioning. In huge stores, Ikea designs its own low-cost, modular, ready-to-assemble furniture to fit its positioning.
imagine how to put the pieces together. Adjacent to the furnished showrooms is a warehouse section with the products in boxes on pallets. Customers are expected to do their own pickup and delivery, and Ikea will even sell you a roof rack for your car that you can return for a refund on your next visit. Although much of its low-cost position comes
from having customers do it themselves, Ikea offers a number of extra services that its competitors do not. In-store child care is one. Extended hours are another. Those services are uniquely aligned with the needs of its customers, who are young, not wealthy, likely to have children (but no nanny), and, because they work for a living, have a need to
shop at odd hours. The origins of strategic positions Strategic positions emerge from three distinct sources, which are not mutually exclusive and often overlap. First, positioning can be based on producing a subset of an industry's products or services. I call this variety-based positioning because it is based on the choice of product or service varieties
rather than customer segments. Variety-based positioning makes economic sense when a company can best produce particular products or services using distinctive sets of activities. Jiffy Lube International, for instance, specializes in automotive lubricants and does not offer other car repair or maintenance services. Its value chain produces faster
service at a lower cost than broader line repair shops, a combination so attractive that many customers subdivide their purchases, buying oil changes from the focused competitor, Jiffy Lube, and going to rivals for other services. The Vanguard Group, a leader in the mutual fund industry, is another example of variety-based positioning. Vanguard
provides an array of common stock, bond, and money market funds that offer predictable performance and rock-bottom expenses. The company's
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