After studying this chapter, you will be able to:

♦ Describe the process of Strategy Management: From Formulation to Implementation
♦ Evaluate the salience of strategy implementation.
♦ Explain Strategic Change through Digital Transformation
♦ Differentiate between Organisation Structure (hard) and Culture (soft)
♦ Signify the meaning and importance of Strategic Leadership
♦ Discuss the role of Strategic Control
♦ Identify and Classify Strategic Performance Measures

“Effective leadership is not about making speeches or being liked; leadership is defined by results not attributes”. - Peter Drucker

“A leader is one who knows the way, goes the way, and shows the way” - John Maxwell
5.1 INTRODUCTION

Strategy implementation and evaluation are critical phases of the process of strategic management in an organization. Implementation involves putting the plans and initiatives developed as part of the strategy into action, while evaluation refers to the process of measuring and assessing the effectiveness of these actions. In this chapter, we will explore various implementation and evaluation methods that organizations can use to assess the success of their strategy implementation and identify areas for improvement. This chapter will provide a comprehensive overview of the implementation and evaluation process and equip readers with the knowledge and skills needed to effectively execute and assess their organization’s strategies. To begin with an overview of the process of strategic management is provided in the next section.
5.2 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS

The process of developing an organisation’s strategy is quite methodical. The organisation first develops a clear vision, mission, values and goals. They then must discuss and analyse a number of themes to determine which options are most promising. All these aspects come together in a strategic plan that details the organisation’s vision, mission, values, goals, strategic themes, a high-level implementation plan and key performance measures. The key performance measures are included in the strategic plan and are used to link the themes back to the organisation’s goals and to measure the success of the strategy after it is implemented.

The strategic management process is dynamic and continuous. A change in any one of the major components in the model can necessitate a change in any or all of the other components. For instance, a shift in the economy could represent a major opportunity and require a change in long-term objectives and strategies; a failure to accomplish annual objectives could require a change in policy; or a major competitor’s change in strategy could require a change in the firm’s mission.

Therefore, strategy formulation, implementation, and evaluation activities should be performed on a continual basis, not just at the end of the year or semi-annually. The strategic management process never really ends.

Figure: Strategic Management Model (Fred R David)
The strategic management process can best be studied and applied using a model. Every model represents some kind of process. The model illustrated in the Figure: Strategic Management Model (Fred R David) is a widely accepted, comprehensive. This model like any other model of management does not guarantee sure-shot success, but it does represent a clear and practical approach for formulating, implementing, and evaluating strategies. Relationships among major components of the strategic management process are shown in the model.

In practice, strategists do not go through the process in lockstep fashion. Generally, there is give-and-take among hierarchical levels of an organisation. The process essentially is iterative and involves a lot of back-and-forth considerations across different stages in the strategic management process. Many organisations conduct formal meetings semi-annually to discuss and update the firm’s vision/mission, opportunities/threats, strengths/weaknesses, strategies, objectives, policies, and performance. Creativity from participants is encouraged in meeting. Good communication and feedback are needed throughout the strategic management process.

### 5.2.1 Stages in Strategic Management

Crafting and executing strategy are the heart and soul of managing a business enterprise. But exactly what is involved in developing a strategy and executing it proficiently? And who besides top management has strategy – formulation – executing responsibility?

Strategic management involves the following stages:

1. Developing a strategic vision and formulation of statement of mission, goals and objectives.
2. Environmental and organisational analysis.
3. Formulation of strategy.
4. Implementation of strategy.
5. Strategic evaluation and control.
Stage 1: Strategic Vision, Mission and Objectives

First a company must determine what directional path the company should take and what changes in the company’s product – market – customer – technology – focus would improve its current market position and its future prospect. Deciding to commit the company to one path versus other pushes managers to draw some carefully reasoned conclusions about how to try to modify the company’s business makeup and the market position it should carve out. Top management’s views and conclusions about the company’s direction and the product-customer-market-technology focus constitute a strategic vision for the company. A strategic vision delineates management’s aspirations for the organisation and highlights a particular direction, or strategic path for it to follow in preparing for the future and molds its identity. A clearly articulated strategic vision communicates management’s aspirations to stakeholders and helps steer the energies of company personnel in a common direction.

Mission and Strategic Intent: Managers need to be clear about what they see as the role of their organisation, and this is often expressed in terms of a statement of mission. This is important because both external stakeholders and other managers in the organisation need to be clear about what the organisation is seeking to achieve and, in broad terms, how it expects to do so. At this level, strategy is not concerned with the details of SBU competitive strategy or the directions and methods the businesses might take to achieve competitive advantage. Rather, the concern here is overall strategic direction.

Corporate goals and objectives flow from the mission and growth ambition of the corporation. Basically, they represent the quantum of growth the firm seeks to achieve in the given time frame. They also endow the firm with characteristics that ensure the projected growth. Through the objective setting process, the firm is tackling the environment and deciding the focus it should have in the environment. The objective provides the basis for major decisions of the firm and also helps the organisational performance to be realized at each level. The managerial purpose of setting objectives is to convert the strategic vision into specific performance targets – basically the results and outcomes the management wants to achieve - and then use these objectives as yardsticks for tracking the company’s progress and performance.
Ideally, managers ought to use the objective-setting exercise as a tool for truly stretching an organisation to reach its full potential. Challenging company personnel to go all out and deliver big gains in performance pushes an enterprise to be more inventive, to exhibit some urgency in improving both its financial performance and its business position, and to be more intentional and focused in its actions.

Objectives are needed at all organisational levels. Objective setting should not stop with top management’s establishing of companywide performance targets. Company objectives need to be broken down into performance targets for each separate business, product line, functional department, and individual work unit. Company performance can’t reach full potential unless each area of the organisation does its part and contributes directly to the desired companywide outcomes and results. This means setting performance targets for each organisation unit that support—rather than conflict with or negate—the achievement of companywide strategic and financial objectives.

**Stage 2: Environmental and Organisational Analysis**

This stage is the diagnostic phase of strategic analysis. It entails two types of analysis:

1. Environmental scanning
2. Organisational analysis

The external environment of a firm consists of economic, social, technological, market and other forces which affect its functioning. The firm’s external environment is dynamic and uncertain. So, the management must systematically be analysed various elements of environment to determine opportunities and threats for the firm in future.

Organisational analysis involved a review of financial resources, technological resources, productive capacity, marketing and distribution effectiveness, research and development, human resource skills and so on. This would reveal organisational strengths and weaknesses which could be matched with the threats and opportunities in the external environment. This would provide us a framework for SWOT analysis (Strength, Weakness, Opportunity and Threat) which could be in
the form of a table highlighting various strengths and weaknesses of the firm and opportunities and threats which the environment we create for the firm.

**Stage 3: Formulating Strategy**

The first step in strategy formulation is developing strategic alternatives in the light of organisation strengths and weaknesses, and opportunities and threats in the environment. The second step is the deep analysis of various strategic alternatives for the purpose of choosing the most appropriate alternative which will serve as the strategy of the firm.

A company may be confronted with several alternatives such as:

i. Should the company continue in the same business carrying on the same volume of activities?

ii. If it should continue in the same business, should it grow by expanding the existing units or by establishing new units or by acquiring other units in the industry?

iii. If it should diversify, should it diversify into related areas or unrelated areas?

iv. Should it get out of an existing business fully or partially?

The above strategic alternatives may be designated as stability strategy, growth/expansion strategy and retrenchment strategy. A company may also follow a combination of these alternatives called combination strategy.

**Stage 4: Implementation of Strategy**

Implementation and execution are an operations-oriented activity aimed at shaping the performance of core business activities in a strategy-supportive manner. It is the most demanding and time-consuming part of the strategy-management process. To convert strategic plans into actions and results, a manager must be able to direct organisational change, motivate people, build and strengthen company competencies and competitive capabilities, create a strategy-supportive work climate, and meet or beat performance targets.

In most situations, strategy-execution process includes the following principal aspects:

♦ Developing budgets that steer ample resources into those activities critical to strategic success.
Staffing the organisation with the needed skills and expertise, consciously building and strengthening strategy-supportive competencies and competitive capabilities and organising the work effort.

Ensuring that policies and operating procedures facilitate rather than impede effective execution.

Using the best-known practices to perform core business activities and pushing for continuous improvement.

Installing information and operating systems that enable company personnel to better carry out their strategic roles day in and day out.

Motivating people to pursue the target objectives energetically.

Creating a company culture and work climate conducive to successful strategy implementation and execution.

Exerting the internal leadership needed to drive implementation forward and keep improving strategy execution. When the organisation encounters stumbling blocks or weaknesses, management has to see that they are addressed and rectified quickly.

Good strategy execution involves creating strong “fits” between strategy and organisational capabilities, between strategy and the reward structure, between strategy and internal operating systems, and between strategy and the organisation’s work climate and culture.

**Stage 5: Strategic Evaluation and Control**

The final stage of strategic management process – evaluating the company’s progress, assessing the impact of new external developments, and making corrective adjustments – is the trigger point for deciding whether to continue or change the company’s vision, objectives, strategy, and/or strategy-execution methods. So long as the company’s direction and strategy seem well matched to industry and competitive conditions and performance targets are being met, company executives may decide to stay the course. Simply fine-tuning the strategic plan and continuing with ongoing efforts to improve strategy execution are sufficient.
But whenever a company encounters disruptive changes in its external environment, questions need to be raised about the appropriateness of its direction and strategy. If a company experiences a downturn in its market position or shortfalls in performance, then company managers are obligated to ferret out whether the causes relate to poor strategy, poor execution, or both and then to take timely corrective action. A company’s direction, objectives, and strategy have to be revisited anytime external or internal conditions warrant. It is to be expected that a company will modify its strategic vision, direction, objectives, and strategy over time.

Proficient strategy execution is always the product of much organisational learning. It is achieved unevenly – coming quickly in some areas and proving nettlesome and problematic in others. Periodically assessing what aspects of strategy execution are working well and what needs improving is normal and desirable. Successful strategy execution entails vigilantly searching for ways or continuously improve and then making corrective adjustments whenever and wherever it is useful to do so.

### 5.2.2 Strategy Formulation

**Corporate Strategy**

Planning entails choosing what has to be done in the future (today, next week, next month, next year, over the next couple of years, etc.) and creating action plans. An essential element of effective management is adequate planning. Choosing a path of action to achieve defined goals is a part of planning.

The game plan that really directs the company towards success is called “corporate strategy”. Planning may be operational or strategic. Senior management develops strategic plans for the entire organisation after evaluating the organization’s strengths and weaknesses in light of potential possibilities and dangers in the outside world. They involve gathering and allocating resources in order to achieve organisational goals. But operational plans on the other hand are made at the middle and lower-level management. They provide specifics on how the resources are to be used effectively to achieve the goals.
Strategic Planning: The game plan that really directs the company towards success is called “corporate strategy”. The success of the company depends on how well this game plan works. Because of this, the core of the process of strategic planning is the formation of corporate strategy. The formation of corporate strategy is the result of a process known as strategic planning.

♦ Strategic planning is the process of determining the objectives of the firm, resources required to attain these objectives and formulation of policies to govern the acquisition, use and disposition of resources.
Strategic planning involves a fact of interactive and overlapping decisions leading to the development of an effective strategy for the firm.

Strategic planning determines where an organisation is going over the next year or more and the ways for going there.

The process is organisation-wide or focused on a major function such as a division or other major function.

**Strategic uncertainty and how to deal with it?**

Strategic uncertainty refers to the unpredictability and unpredictability of future events and circumstances that can impact an organization’s strategy and goals. It can be driven by factors such as changes in the market, technology, competition, regulation, and other external factors. Dealing with strategic uncertainty can be challenging and organizations need to have the flexibility, resilience, and agility to quickly respond to changes in the environment and minimize its impact. To be manageable, they need to be grouped into logical clusters or themes. It is then useful to assess the importance of each cluster in order to set priorities with respect to Information gathering and analysis.

- **Flexibility:** Organizations can build flexibility into their strategies to quickly adapt to changes in the environment.

- **Diversification:** Diversifying the organization's product portfolio, markets, and customer base can reduce the impact of strategic uncertainty.

- **Monitoring and Scenario Planning:** Organizations can regularly monitor key indicators of change and conduct scenario planning to understand how different future scenarios might impact their strategies.

- **Building Resilience:** Organizations can invest in building internal resilience, such as strengthening their operational processes, increasing their financial flexibility, and improving their risk management capabilities.

- **Collaboration and Partnerships:** Collaborating with other organizations, suppliers, customers, and partners can help organizations pool resources, share risk, and gain access to new markets and technologies.

**Impact of uncertainty:** Each element of strategic uncertainty involves potential trends or events that could have an impact on present, proposed, and even potential businesses., a trend toward natural foods may present opportunities for
juices for a firm producing aerated drinks on the basis of a strategic uncertainty. The impact of a strategic uncertainty will depend on the importance of the impacted SBU to a firm. Some SBUs are more important than others. The importance of established SBUs may be indicated by their associated sales, profits, or costs. However, such measures might need to be supplemented for potential growth as present sales, profits, or costs may not reflect the true value.

5.2.3 Strategy Implementation

Strategy implementation concerns the managerial exercise of putting a freshly chosen strategy into action. It deals with the managerial exercise of supervising the ongoing pursuit of strategy, making it work, improving the competence with which it is executed and showing measurable progress in achieving the targeted results. Strategic implementation is concerned with translating a strategic decision into action, which presupposes that the decision itself (i.e., the strategic choice) was made with some thought being given to feasibility and acceptability. The allocation of resources to new courses of action will need to be undertaken, and there may be a need for adapting the organization’s structure to handle new activities as well as training personnel and devising appropriate systems.

Relationship with strategy formulation

Many managers fail to distinguish between strategy formulation and strategy implementation. Yet, it is crucial to realize the difference between the two because they both require very different skills. Also, a company will be successful only when the strategy formulation is sound and implementation is excellent. There is no such thing as successful strategic design. This sounds obvious, but in practice the distinction is not always made. Often people, blame the strategy model for the failure of a company while the main flaw might lie in failed implementation. Thus, organizational success is a function of good strategy and proper implementation. The matrix in the figure below represents various combinations of strategy formulation and implementation:
The above-mentioned figure depicts the distinction between sound/flawed strategy formulation and excellent/weak strategy implementation.

Square A is the situation where a company apparently has formulated a very competitive strategy but is showing difficulties in implementing it successfully. This can be due to various factors, such as the lack of experience (e.g., for startups), the lack of resources, missing leadership and so on. In such a situation the company will aim at moving from square A to square B, given they realize their implementation difficulties. Square B is the ideal situation where a company has succeeded in designing a sound and competitive strategy and has been successful in implementing it.

Square D is the situation where the strategy formulation is flawed, but the company is showing excellent implementation skills. When a company finds itself in square D the first thing, they have to do is to redesign their strategy before readjusting their implementation/execution skills.

Square C is denotes for companies that haven’t succeeded in coming up with a sound strategy formulation and in addition are bad at implementing their flawed strategic model. Their path to success also goes through business model redesign and implementation/execution readjustment.

Taken together all the elements of business strategy, it is to be seen as a chosen set of actions by means of which a market position relative to the competing enterprises is sought and maintained. This gives us the notion of competitive position.
It needs to be emphasized that ‘strategy’ is not synonymous with ‘long-term plan’ but rather consists of an enterprise’s attempts to reach some preferred future state by adapting its competitive position as circumstances change. While a series of strategic moves may be planned, competitors’ actions will mean that the actual moves will have to be modified to take account of those actions.

In contrast to this view of strategy there is another approach to management practice, which has been followed in many organizations. In organizations that lack strategic direction there has been a tendency to look inwards in times of stress, and for management to devote their attention to cost cutting and to shedding unprofitable divisions. In other words, the focus has been on efficiency (i.e., the relationship between inputs and outputs, usually with a short time horizon) rather than on effectiveness (which is concerned with the attainment of organisational goals - including that of desired competitive position). While efficiency is essentially introspective, effectiveness highlights the links between the organization and its environment. The responsibility for efficiency lies with operational managers, with top management having the primary responsibility for the strategic orientation of the organization.

An organization that finds itself in cell 1 is well placed and thrives, since it is achieving what it aspires to achieve with an efficient output/input ratio. In contrast, an organization in cell 2 or 4 is doomed, unless it can establish some strategic direction. The particular point to note is that cell 2 is a worse place to be than is cell 3 since, in the latter, the strategic direction is present to ensure effectiveness.
even if rather too much input is being used to generate outputs. To be effective is to survive whereas to be efficient is not in itself either necessary or sufficient for survival.

**In crude terms, to be effective is to do the right thing, while to be efficient is to do the thing right.** An emphasis on efficiency rather than on effectiveness is clearly wrong. But who determines effectiveness? Any organization can be portrayed as a coalition of diverse interest groups each of which participates in the coalition in order to secure some advantage. This advantage (or inducement) may be in the form of dividends to shareholders, wages to employees, continued business to suppliers of goods and services, satisfaction on the part of consumers, legal compliance from the viewpoint of government, responsible behaviour towards society and the environment from the perspective of pressure groups, and so on.

Even the most technically perfect strategic plan will serve little purpose if it is not implemented effectively. Many organizations tend to spend an inordinate amount of time, money, and effort on developing the strategic plan, treating the means and circumstances under which it will be implemented as afterthoughts. Change comes through implementation and evaluation, not through the plan. A technically imperfect plan that is implemented well will achieve more than the perfect plan that never gets off the paper on which it is typed.

Successful strategy formulation does not guarantee successful strategy implementation. It is always more difficult to do something (strategy implementation) than to say you are going to do it (strategy formulation).

**5.2.4 Difference between Strategy Formulation and Implementation**

Although inextricably linked, strategy implementation is fundamentally different from strategy formulation. Summarized are the key distinctions between strategy formulation and strategy implementation:
## Strategy Formulation Vs. Strategy Implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy Formulation</th>
<th>Strategy Implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategy Formulation includes planning and decision-making involved in developing organization’s strategic goals and plans.</td>
<td>Strategy Implementation involves all those means related to executing the strategic plans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In short, Strategy Formulation is <strong>placing the Forces before the action.</strong></td>
<td>In short, Strategy Implementation is <strong>managing forces during the action.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An <strong>Entrepreneurial Activity</strong> based on strategic decision-making.</td>
<td>An <strong>Administrative Task</strong> based on strategic and operational decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasizes on <strong>effectiveness.</strong></td>
<td>Emphasizes on <strong>efficiency.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primarily an <strong>intellectual and rational process.</strong></td>
<td>Primarily an <strong>operational process.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requires co-ordination among few individuals at the top level.</td>
<td>Requires co-ordination among many individuals at the middle and lower levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requires a great deal of <strong>initiative, logical skills, conceptual intuitive and analytical skills.</strong></td>
<td>Requires specific <strong>motivational and leadership traits.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Strategy formulation concepts and tools do not differ greatly for small, large, for-profit, or non-profit organizations. However, strategy implementation varies substantially among different types and sizes of organizations. Implementation of strategies requires such actions as altering sales territories, adding new departments, closing facilities, hiring new employees, changing an organization’s pricing strategy, developing financial budgets, developing new employee benefits, establishing cost-control procedures, changing advertising strategies, building new facilities, training new employees, transferring managers among divisions, and building a better management information system. These types of activities
obviously differ greatly among manufacturing, service, and governmental organizations.

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 strategy formulation on strategy implementation while the backward linkages are concerned with the impact in the opposite direction.

### 5.2.5 Linkages and Issues in Strategy Implementation

**Linkages**

Noteworthy is the fact 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.

**Forward Linkages:** The different elements in strategy formulation starting with objective setting through environmental and organizational appraisal, strategic alternatives and choice to the strategic plan determine the course that an organization adopts for itself. With the formulation of new strategies, or reformulation of existing strategies, many changes have to be affected within the organization. For instance, the organizational 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.

**Backward Linkages:** Just as implementation is determined by the formulation of strategies, the formulation process is also affected by factors related with implementation. While dealing with strategic choice, remember that past strategic actions also determine the choice of strategy. Organizations 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 organization from where it is to where it wishes to be.
Issues in Strategy Implementation

This section focuses on the various issues involved in the implementation of strategies. 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 a wide range of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and abilities. The implementation tasks put to test the strategists’ abilities to allocate resources, design organisational structure, formulate functional policies, and to provide strategic leadership.

♦ The strategic plan devised by the organization 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 formulation of 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.

♦ 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 organizations. Thus, research and development programme 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.

Implementation of strategies is not limited to formulation of plans, programmes, and projects. Projects would also require resources. After resources have been provided, it would be essential to see that a proper organizational structure is designed, systems are installed, functional policies are devised, and various behavioural inputs are provided so that plans may work.

Given below in sequential manner the issues in strategy implementation which are to be considered:

♦ Project implementation
♦ Procedural implementation
♦ Resource allocation
♦ Structural implementation
♦ Functional implementation
♦ Behavioural implementation

It should be noted that the sequence does not mean that each of the above activities are necessarily performed one after another. Many activities can be performed simultaneously, certain other activities may be repeated over time; and there are activities, which are performed only once. Thus, there can be overlapping and changes in the order in which these activities are performed.

In all but the smallest organizations, the transition from strategy formulation to strategy implementation requires a shift in responsibility from strategists to divisional and functional managers. Implementation problems can arise because of this shift in responsibility, especially if strategic decisions come as a surprise to middle and lower-level managers. Managers and employees are motivated more by perceived self-interests than by organizational interests, unless the two coincide. Therefore, it is essential that divisional and functional managers be involved as much as possible in the strategy-formulation process. Similarly, strategists should also be involved as much as possible in strategy-implementation activities.

Management issues central to strategy implementation include establishing annual objectives, devising policies, allocating resources, altering an existing organizational structure, restructuring and reengineering, revising reward and incentive plans, minimizing resistance to change, developing a strategy-supportive culture, adapting production/operations processes, developing an effective human resource system and, if necessary, downsizing. Management changes are necessarily more extensive when strategies to be implemented move a firm in a new direction.

Managers and employees throughout an organization should participate early and directly in strategy-implementation activities. Their role in strategy implementation should build upon prior involvement in strategy-formulation activities. Strategists’ genuine personal commitment to implementation is a necessary and powerful motivational force for managers and employees. Too often, strategists are too busy
to actively support strategy-implementation efforts, and their lack of interest can be detrimental to organizational success. The rationale for objectives and strategies should be understood clearly throughout the organization. Major competitors’ accomplishments, products, plans, actions, and performance should be apparent to all organizational members. Major external opportunities and threats should be clear, and managers and employees’ questions should be answered satisfactorily. Top-down flow of communication is essential for developing bottom-up support.

Firms need to develop a competitor focus on all hierarchical levels by gathering and widely distributing competitive intelligence; every employee should be able to benchmark her or his efforts against best-in-class competitors so that the challenge becomes personal. This is a challenge for strategists of the firm. Firms should provide training for both managers and employees to ensure that they have and maintain the skills necessary to be world-class performers.

### 5.3 Strategic Change Through Digital Transformation

Organizations are being pushed harder than ever to shift digitally in order to stay competitive. Digital transformation, however, may be a difficult and complicated process. To guarantee that projects for digital transformation are effective, change management is crucial. We will now examine change management’s function in the digital transformation.

#### 5.3.1 Strategic Change

The changes in the environmental forces often require businesses to make modifications in their existing strategies and bring out new strategies. Strategic change is a complex process that involves a corporate strategy focused on new markets, products, services and new ways of doing business.

**Steps to initiate strategic change:** For initiating strategic change, three steps can be identified as under:

1. **Recognize the need for change:** The first step is to diagnose which facets of the present corporate culture are strategy supportive and which are not. This basically means going for environmental scanning involving appraisal of both
internal and external capabilities may be through SWOT analysis and then determining where the lacuna lies and scope for change exists.

(ii) **Create a shared vision to manage change:** Objectives of both individuals and organization should coincide. There should be no conflict between them. This is possible only if the management and the organization members follow a shared vision. Senior managers need to constantly and consistently communicate the vision to all the organizational members. They have to convince all those concerned that the change in business culture is not superficial or cosmetic. The actions taken have to be credible, highly visible and unmistakably indicative of management’s seriousness to new strategic initiatives and associated changes.

(iii) **Institutionalise the change:** This is basically an action stage which requires implementation of changed strategy. Creating and sustaining a different attitude towards change is essential to ensure that the firm does not slip back into old ways of thinking or doing things. Capacity for self-renewal should be a fundamental anchor of the new culture of the firm. Besides, change process must be regularly monitored and reviewed to analyse the after-effects of change. Any discrepancy or deviation should be brought to the notice of persons concerned so that the necessary corrective actions are taken. It takes time for the changed culture to prevail.

**Kurt Lewin’s Model of Change:** To make the change lasting, Kurt Lewin proposed three phases of the change process for moving the organization from the present to the future. These stages are unfreezing, changing and refreezing.

(a) **Unfreezing the situation:** The process of unfreezing simply makes the individuals aware of the necessity for change and prepares them for such a change. Lewin proposes that the changes should not come as a surprise to the members of the organization. Sudden and unannounced change would be socially destructive and morale lowering. The management must pave the way for the change by first “unfreezing the situation”, so that members would be willing and ready to accept the change.

Unfreezing is the process of breaking down the old attitudes and behaviours, customs and traditions so that they start with a clean slate. This can be
achieved by making announcements, holding meetings and promoting the new ideas throughout the organization.

(b) **Changing to the new situation:** Once the unfreezing process has been completed and the members of the organization recognise the need for change and have been fully prepared to accept such change, their behaviour patterns need to be redefined. H.C. Kellman has proposed three methods for reassigning new patterns of behaviour. These are compliance, identification and internalization.

- **Compliance:** It is achieved by strictly enforcing the reward and punishment strategy for good or bad behaviour. Fear of punishment, actual punishment or actual reward seems to change behaviour for the better.

- **Identification:** Identification occurs when members are psychologically impressed upon to identify themselves with some given role models whose behaviour they would like to adopt and try to become like them.

- **Internalization:** Internalization involves some internal changing of the individual’s thought processes in order to adjust to the changes introduced. They have given freedom to learn and adopt new behaviour in order to succeed in the new set of circumstances.

(c) **Refreezing:** Refreezing occurs when the new behaviour becomes a normal way of life. The new behaviour must replace the former behaviour completely for successful and permanent change to take place. In order for the new behaviour to become permanent, it must be continuously reinforced so that this new acquired behaviour does not diminish or extinguish.

Change process is not a one-time application but a continuous process due to dynamism and ever changing environment. The process of unfreezing, changing and refreezing is a cyclical one and remains continuously in action.
5.3.2 How does digital transformation work?

The use of digital technologies to develop fresh, improved, or entirely new company procedures, goods, or services is known as "digital transformation." It's a fundamental adjustment that can be challenging to identify and even more challenging to implement.

Change management enters into the picture here. Organizations can plan, prepare for, and carry out changes to their operations, including digital transformations, with the aid of the discipline of change management. When implemented correctly, change management may assist firms in overcoming the obstacles posed by the digital transition and reaping the full rewards of their investment.

But how does change management appear when applied to digital transformation?

Change management in the digital transition consists of four essential elements:

1. Defining the goals and objectives of the transformation
2. Assessing the current state of the organization and identifying gaps
3. Creating a roadmap for change that outlines the steps needed to reach the desired state
4. Implementing and managing the change at every level of the organization

To navigate a digital transformation successfully, each of these elements is necessary. But what matters most is how they collaborate to support organisations in achieving their goals.

**How does change management work?**

Change management is a process or set of tools and best practices used to manage changes in an organization. It assists in making changes in a safe and regulated manner, reducing the possibility of detrimental effects on the company. Any sort of organisation, including enterprises, organisations, governmental bodies, and even families, can utilise change management to manage changes.

Change management models and methods come in a wide variety, but they all have key things in common. These include creating a clear vision for the change, involving stakeholders in the process, coming up with a plan for putting the change into action, and keeping an eye on the results. Although change management is
frequently viewed as a difficult and complicated process, it is vital for ensuring that
digital transformation projects are successful.

The role of change management in digital transformation

Digital transformation is a process of organizational change that enables an
organization to use technology to create new value for customers, employees, and
other stakeholders. A good change management strategy is necessary for a
successful digital transformation.

Change management is the process of planning, implementing, and monitoring
changes in an organization. It provides organizations in achieving their objectives
while reducing risks and disruptions. For any organisation undergoing a digital
transition, change management is crucial.

A properly implemented change management strategy can help an organization to:
♦ Specify the parameters and goals of the digital transformation
♦ Determine which procedures and tools need to be modified.
♦ Make a plan for implementing the improvements.
♦ Involve staff members and parties involved in the transformation process.
♦ Track progress and make required course corrections

A crucial component of any digital transition is change management. Why it gains
more importance in the current times is because organizations can improve their
chances of success by approaching change in a proactive and organized manner.

5.3.3 Change Management Strategies for Digital Transformation

One of the most important area of focus for guaranteeing a successful
transformation is change management. Businesses nowadays increasingly find
themselves responsible for managing more than simply their staff, clients, and
products. Additionally, they are handling the introduction of new technology, the
unexpected emergence of new market opportunities, and changes in customer
preferences regarding the brands they choose, interact with, and hold to. In
essence, modern firms must be able to manage change. They must modify their
management techniques in order to achieve this. The five best practices for managing change in small and medium-sized businesses are:

1. **Begin at the top**: A focused, invested, united leadership that is on the same page about the company's future is reflected in change that begins at the top. The culture that will motivate the rest of the organisation to accept change can only be generated and promoted in this way.

2. **Ensure that the change is both necessary and desired**: The fact that decision-makers are unaware of how to properly handle a digital transformation and the effects it will have on their firm is one of the main causes of this. If a corporation doesn’t have a sound strategy in place, introducing too much too fast can frequently become a major issue down the road.

3. **Reduce disruption**: Employee perceptions of what is required or desirable change can differ by department, rank, or performance history. It's crucial to lessen how changes affect staff. The introduction of new tactics or technologies intended to improve management and corporate operations causes employee concern about change. It is possible to reduce workplace disruption by:
   a. Getting the word out early and preparing for some interruption.
   b. Giving staff members the knowledge and tools, they need to adjust to change.
   c. Creating an environment that encourages transformation or change.
   d. Empowering change agents to provide context and clarity for changes, such as project managers or team leaders.
   e. Ensuring that IT department is informed of changes in technology or infrastructure and is prepared to support them.

4. **Encourage communication**: Create channels so that workers may contact you with queries or complaints. Encourage departmental collaboration to propagate ideas and innovations as new procedures take root. Communication promotes efficiency and has the power to influence culture, just like your vision. The people who will be affected the most by these
changes are reassured that they are not in danger through effective communication, which keeps everyone on the same page.

5. **Recognize that change is the norm, not the exception**: Change readiness may be defined as “the ability to continuously initiate and respond to change in ways that create advantage, minimize risk, and sustain performance.” In order to keep up with the customers, businesses must also adapt their operations. They must prepare for change in advance and expect them. It may run into difficulties because change is not a project but rather an ongoing process.

**5.3.4 How to manage change during digital transformation?**

Any organisation may find the work of digital transformation challenging and overwhelming. To ensure that a digital transition is effective, change management is essential. Here are some pointers for navigating change during the digital transformation:

1. **Specify the digital transformation’s aims and objectives**: What is the intended outcome? What are the precise objectives that must be accomplished? It will be easier to make sure that everyone is on the same page and pursuing the same aims if everyone has a clear grasp of the goals.

2. **Always, always, always communicate**: It might be challenging for people to accept change and adjust to it. Ensure that you routinely and honestly discuss the objectives of the digital transformation and how they will affect stakeholders, including employees, clients, and other parties.

3. **Be ready for resistance**: Even when a change is for the better, it can be challenging for people to embrace it. Have a strategy in place for dealing with any resistance that may arise.

4. **Implement changes gradually**: Changes should ideally be implemented gradually rather than all at once. In order to avoid overwhelming individuals with too much change at once, this will give people time to become used to the new way of doing things.
STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION

5. **Offer assistance and training:** Workers will need guidance in the new procedures, software applications, etc.

In conclusion, effective completion of the massive project known as digital transformation depends on meticulous planning and change management. Digital transformation efforts are more likely to fail without change management. Organizations can successfully integrate a new digital system by planning for and managing the changes that must take place. Any project involving digital transformation must include it.

5.4 **Organisational Framework**

The McKinsey 7S Model refers to a tool that analyzes a company’s “organizational design.” The goal of the model is to depict how effectiveness can be achieved in an organization through the interactions of hard and soft elements. The McKinsey 7s Model focuses on how the "Soft Ss" and "Hard Ss" elements are interrelated, suggesting that modifying one aspect might have a ripple effect on the other elements in order to maintain an effective balance.

**Hard elements are:**
- **Strategy:** What steps does the company intend to take to address current and futures challenges?
- **Structure:** How is work divided, how do different departments work and collaborate?
- **Systems:** Which formal and informal processes is the company’s structure based on?

**Soft elements are:**
- **Shared Values:** What is the idea the organization subscribes to? Is this idea communicated credibly to others?
- **Staff:** This elements refers to employees development and relevant processes, performances and feedback programs etc.
- **Skill:** What is the company’s base of skills and competencies?
- **Style:** This depicts the leadership style and how it influences the strategic decisions of the organization.
The Hard elements are directly controlled by the management. The following elements are the hard elements in an organization.

- **Strategy**: the direction of the organization, a blueprint to build on a core competency and achieve competitive advantage to drive margins and lead the industry.

- **Structure**: depending on the availability of resources and the degree of centralisation or decentralization that the management desires, it chooses from the available alternatives of organizational structures.

- **Systems**: the development of daily tasks, operations and teams to execute the goals and objectives in the most efficient and effective manner.

The Soft elements are difficult to define as they are more governed by the culture. But these soft elements are equally important in determining an organization’s success as well as growth in the industry. The following are the soft elements in this model;

- **Shared Values**: The core values which get reflected within the organizational culture or influence the code of ethics of the management.

- **Style**: This depicts the leadership style and how it influences the strategic decisions of the organisation. It also revolves around people motivation and organizational delivery of goals.

- **Staff**: The talent pool of the organisation.

- **Skills**: The core competencies or the key skills of the employees play a vital role in defining the organizational success.

But like any other strategic model, this model has its limitations as well;

- It ignores the importance of the external environment and depicts only the most crucial elements within the organization.

- The model does not clearly explain the concept of organizational effectiveness or performance.

- The model is considered to be more static and less flexible for decision making.

- It is generally criticized for missing out the real gaps in conceptualization and execution of strategy.
5.4.1 Organization Structure

The ideal organizational structure is a place where ideas filter up as well as down, where the merit of ideas carries more weight than their source, and where participation and shared objectives are valued more than executive order.

– Edson Spencer

Changes in corporate strategy often require changes in the way an organization is structured for two major reasons. First, structure largely dictates how operational objectives and policies will be established to achieve the strategic objectives. For example, objectives and policies established under a geographic organizational structure are couched in geographic terms. Objectives and policies are stated largely in terms of products in an organization whose structure is based on product groups. The structural format for developing objectives and policies can significantly impact all other strategy-implementation activities.

The second major reason why changes in strategy often require changes in structure is that structure dictates how resources will be allocated to achieve strategic objectives. If an organization’s structure is based on customer groups, then resources will be allocated in that manner. Similarly, if an organization’s structure is set up along functional business lines, then resources are allocated by functional areas.

According to Chandler, changes in strategy lead to changes in organizational structure. Structure should be designed or redesigned to facilitate the strategic pursuit of a firm and, therefore, structure should follow strategy. Chandler found a particular structure sequence to be often repeated as organizations grow and change strategy over time. There is no one optimal organizational design or structure for a given strategy. What is appropriate for one organization may not be appropriate for a similar firm, although successful firms in a given industry do tend to organize themselves in a similar way. For example, consumer goods companies tend to emulate the divisional structure-by-product form of organization. Small firms tend to be functionally structured (centralized). Medium-size firms tend to be divisionally structured (decentralized). Large firms tend to use an SBU (strategic business unit) or matrix structure. As organizations grow, their structures generally change from simple to complex as a result of linking together of several basic strategies.
Every firm is influenced by numerous external and internal forces. But no firm can change its structure in response to each of these forces, because to do so would lead to chaos. However, when a firm changes its strategy, the existing organizational structure may become ineffective. Symptoms of an ineffective organizational structure include too many levels of management, too many meetings attended by too many people, too much attention being directed toward solving interdepartmental conflicts, too large a span of control, and too many unachieved objectives. Changes in organizational structure can facilitate strategy-implementation efforts, but changes in structure should not be expected to make a bad strategy good, to make bad managers good, or to make bad products sell.

Structure can also influence strategy. If a proposed strategy required massive structural changes, it would not be an attractive choice. In this way, structure can shape the choice of strategy. But a more important concern is determining what types of structural changes are needed to implement new strategies and how these changes can best be accomplished. We will examine this issue by focusing on the following basic types of organizational structure: functional, divisional by geographic area, divisional by product, divisional by customer, divisional process, strategic business unit (SBU), and matrix.
In order to implement and manage strategies that have been formulated, all companies need some form of organizational structure. And, as companies formulate new strategies, increase in size, or change their level of diversification, new organizational structures may be required.

**Types of Organization Structure**

Organizational structure is the company’s formal configuration of its intended roles, procedures, governance mechanisms, authority, and decision-making processes. Organizational structure, influenced by factors such as an organization’s age and size, acts as a framework which reflects managers’ determination of what a company does and how tasks are completed, given the chosen strategy. The most important issue is that the company’s structure must be congruent with or fit with the company’s strategy.

**A Simple Structure**

Simple organizational structure is most appropriate for companies that follow a single-business strategy and offer a line of products in a single geographic market. The simple structure also is appropriate for companies implementing focused cost leadership or focused differentiation strategies. A simple structure is an organizational form in which the owner-manager makes all major decisions directly and monitors all activities, while the company’s staff merely serves as an executor.

Little specialization of tasks, few rules, little formalization, unsophisticated information systems and direct involvement of owner-manager in all phases of day-to-day operations characterise the simple structure. In the simple structure, communication is frequent and direct, and new products tend to be introduced to the market quickly, which can result in a competitive advantage. Because of these characteristics, few of the coordination problems that are common in larger organizations exist.

A simple organizational structure may result in competitive advantages for some small companies relative to their larger counterparts. These potential competitive advantages include a broad-based openness to innovation, greater structural flexibility, and an ability to respond more rapidly to environmental changes. However, if they are successful, small companies grow larger. As a result of this growth, the company outgrows the simple structure. Generally, there are significant increases in the amount of competitively relevant information that requires
processing. More extensive and complicated information-processing requirements place significant pressures on owner-managers (often due to a lack of organizational skills or experience or simply due to lack of time).

Thus, it is incumbent on the company’s managers to recognise the inadequacies or inefficiencies of the simple structure and change it to one that is more consistent with company’s strategy.

To coordinate more complex organizational functions, companies should abandon the simple structure in favour of the functional structure. The functional structure is used by larger companies and by companies with low levels of diversification.

B Functional Structure

A widely used structure in business organisations is functional type because of its simplicity and low cost. A functional structure groups tasks and activities by business function, such as production/operations, marketing, finance/accounting, research and development, and management information systems. Besides being simple and inexpensive, a functional structure also promotes specialization of labour, encourages efficiency, minimizes the need for an elaborate control system, and allows rapid decision making.

The functional structure consists of a chief executive officer or a managing director and supported by corporate staff with functional line managers in dominant functions such as production, financial accounting, marketing, R&D, engineering, and human resources. The functional structure enables the company to overcome the growth-related constraints of the simple structure, enabling or facilitating communication and coordination.
However, compared to the simple structure, there also are some potential problems. Differences in functional specialization and orientation may impede communications and coordination. Thus, the chief executive officer must integrate functional decision-making and coordinate actions of the overall business across functions. Functional specialists often may develop a myopic (or narrow) perspective, losing sight of the company’s strategic vision and mission. When this happens, this problem can be overcome by implementing the multidivisional structure.

C Divisional Structure

As a firm, grows year after year it faces difficulty in managing different products and services in different markets. Some form of divisional structure generally becomes necessary to motivate employees, control operations, and compete successfully in diverse locations. The divisional structure can be organized in one of the four ways: by geographic area, by product or service, by customer, or by process. With a divisional structure, functional activities are performed both centrally and in each division separately.

A divisional structure has some clear advantages. First and the foremost, accountability is clear. That is, divisional managers can be held responsible for sales and profit levels. Because a divisional structure is based on extensive delegation of authority, managers and employees can easily see the results of their good or bad
performances. As a result, employee morale is generally higher in a divisional structure than it is in centralized structure. Other advantages of the divisional design are that it creates career development opportunities for managers, allows local control of local situations, leads to a competitive climate within an organization, and allows new businesses and products in be added easily.

The divisional design is not without some limitations. Perhaps the most important limitation is that a divisional structure is costly, for a number of reasons. First, each division requires functional specialists who must be paid. Second, there exists some duplication of staff services, facilities, and personnel; for instance, functional specialists are also needed centrally (at headquarters) to coordinate divisional activities. Third, managers must be well qualified because the divisional design forces delegation of authority better-qualified individuals requires higher salaries. A divisional structure can also be costly because it requires an elaborate, headquarters-driven control system. Finally, certain regions, products, or customers may sometimes receive special treatment, and it may be difficult to maintain consistent, companywide practices. Nonetheless, for most large organizations and many small firms, the advantages of a divisional structure more than offset the potential limitations.

A divisional structure by geographic area is appropriate for organizations whose strategies are formulated to fit the particular needs and characteristics of customers in different geographic areas. This type of structure can be most appropriate for organizations that have similar branch facilities located in widely dispersed areas. A divisional structure by geographic area allows local participation in decision making and improved coordination within a region.

The divisional structure by product (or services) is most effective for implementing strategies when specific products or services need special emphasis. Also, this type of structure is widely used when an organization offers only a few products or services, when an organization’s products or services differ substantially. The divisional structure allows strict control over and attention to product lines, but it may also require a more skilled management force and reduced top management control. For example, General Motors, DuPont, and Procter & Gamble use a divisional structure by product to implement strategies.
When a few major customers are of paramount importance and many different services are provided to these customers, then a divisional structure by customer can be the most effective way to implement strategies. This structure allows an organization to cater effectively to the requirements of clearly defined customer groups. For example, book-publishing companies often organize their activities around customer groups such as colleges, secondary schools, and private commercial schools. Some airline companies have two major customer divisions: passengers and freight or cargo services. Bulks are often organized in divisions such as personal banking corporate banking, etc.

A divisional structure by process is similar to a functional structure, because activities are organized according to the way work is actually performed. However, a key difference between these two designs is that functional departments are not accountable for profits or revenues, whereas divisional process departments are evaluated on these criteria.

D Multi Divisional Structure

Multidivisional (M-form) structure is composed of operating divisions where each division represents a separate business to which the top corporate officer delegates responsibility for day-to-day operations and business unit strategy to division managers. By such delegation, the corporate office is responsible for formulating and implementing overall corporate strategy and manages divisions through strategic and financial controls.

Multidivisional or M-form structure was developed in the 1920s, in response to coordination- and control-related problems in large firms. Functional departments often had difficulty dealing with distinct product lines and markets, especially in coordinating conflicting priorities among the products. Costs were not allocated to individual products, so it was not possible to assess an individual product’s profit contribution. Loss of control meant that optimal allocation of firm resources between products was difficult (if not impossible). Top managers became over-involved in solving short-run problems (such as coordination, communications, conflict resolution) and neglected long-term strategic issues.

Multidivisional structure calls for:

♦ Creating separate divisions, each representing a distinct business
♦ Each division would house its functional hierarchy;
Division managers would be given responsibility for managing day-to-day operations;

A small corporate office that would determine the long-term strategic direction of the firm and exercise overall financial control over the semi-autonomous divisions.

This would enable the firm to more accurately monitor the performance of individual businesses, simplifying control problems, facilitate comparisons between divisions, improving the allocation of resources and stimulate managers of poorly performing divisions to seek ways to improve performance.

When the firm is less diversified, strategic controls are used to manage divisions. Strategic control refers to the operational understanding by corporate officers of the strategies being implemented within the firm’s separate business units.

An increase in diversification strains corporate officers’ abilities to understand the operations of all of its business units and divisions are then managed by financial controls, which enable corporate officers to manage the cash flow of the divisions through budgets and an emphasis on profits from distinct businesses.

However, because financial controls are focused on financial outcomes, they require that each division’s performance be largely independent of the performance of other divisions. So, the Strategic Business Units come into picture.

**E Strategic Business Unit (SBU) Structure**

This concept is relevant to multi-product, multi-business enterprises. It is impractical for an enterprise with a multitude of businesses to provide separate strategic planning treatment to each one of its products/businesses; it has to necessarily group the products/businesses into a manageable number of strategically related business units and then take them up for strategic planning. The question is: what is the best way of grouping the products/businesses of such large enterprises?

An SBU is a grouping of related businesses, which is amenable to composite planning treatment. As per this concept, a multi-business enterprise groups its multitude of businesses into a few distinct business units in a scientific way. The purpose is to provide effective strategic planning treatment to each one of its products/businesses.
The three most important characteristics of a SBU are:

♦ It is a single business or a collection of related businesses which offer scope for independent planning and which might feasibly standalone from the rest of the organization.

♦ It has its own set of competitors.

♦ It has a manager who has responsibility for strategic planning and profit performance, and who has control of profit-influencing factors.

Historically, large, multi-business firms were handling business planning on a territorial basis since their structure was territorial. And in many cases, such a structure was the outcome of a manufacturing or distribution logistics. Often, the territorial structure did not suit the purpose of strategic planning.

When strategic planning was carried out treating territories as the units for planning, it gave rise to two kinds of difficulties: (i) since a number of territorial units handled the same product, the same product was getting varied strategic planning treatments; and (ii) since a given territorial planning unit carried different and unrelated products, products with dissimilar characteristics were getting identical strategic planning treatment.

The concept of strategic business units (SBU) breaks away from this practice. It recognises that just because a firm is structured into a number of territorial units, say six units, it is not necessarily in six different businesses. It may be engaged in only three distinct businesses. It is also possible that it is engaged in more than six businesses. The endeavour should be to group the businesses into an appropriate number of strategic business units before the firm takes up the strategy formulation task.

The SBU structure is composed of operating units where each unit represents a separate business to which the top corporate officer delegates responsibility for day-to-day operations and business unit strategy to its managers. By such delegation, the corporate office is responsible for formulating and implementing overall corporate strategy and manages SBUs through strategic and financial controls. Hence, the SBU structure groups similar products into strategic business units and delegates authority and responsibility for each unit to a senior executive who reports directly to the chief executive officer. This change in structure can
facilitate strategy implementation by improving coordination between similar divisions and channelling accountability to distinct business units.

**Figure: SBU Structure**

A strategic business unit (SBU) structure consists of at least three levels, with a corporate headquarters at the top, SBU groups at the second level, and divisions grouped by relatedness within each SBU at the third level.

This enables the company to more accurately monitor the performance of individual businesses, simplifying control problems. It also facilitates comparisons between divisions, improving the allocation of resources and can be used to stimulate managers of poorly performing divisions to seek ways to improve performance.

This means that, within each SBU, divisions are related to each other, as also that SBU groups are unrelated to each other. Within each SBU, divisions producing similar products and/or using similar technologies can be organised to achieve synergy. Individual SBUs are treated as profit centres and controlled by corporate headquarters that can concentrate on strategic planning rather than operational control so that individual divisions can react more quickly to environmental changes.

**For example,** Sony has been restructuring to match the SBU structure with its ten internal companies as organised into four strategic business units. Because it has been pushing the company to make better use of software products and content (e.g., Sony’s music, films and games) in its televisions and audio gear to increase
Sony’s profitability. By its strategy, Sony is one of the few companies that have the opportunity to integrate software and content across a broad range of consumer electronics products.

The principle underlying the grouping is that all related products—related from the standpoint of “function”—should fall under one SBU. In other words, the SBU concept helps a multi-business corporation in scientifically grouping its businesses into a few distinct business units. Such a grouping would in its turn, help the corporation carry out its strategic management endeavour better. The concept provides the right direction to strategic planning by removing the vagueness and confusion often experienced in such multi-business enterprises in the matter of grouping of the businesses.

The attributes of an SBU and the benefits a firm may derive by using the SBU Structure are as follows:

♦ A scientific method of grouping the businesses of a multi-business corporation which helps the firm in strategic planning.

♦ An improvement over the territorial grouping of businesses and strategic planning based on territorial units.

♦ An SBU is a grouping of related businesses that can be taken up for strategic planning distinct from the rest of the businesses. Products/businesses within an SBU receive same strategic planning treatment and priorities.

♦ The task consists of analysing and segregating the assortment of businesses/portfolios and regrouping them into a few, well defined, distinct, scientifically demarcated business units. Products/businesses that are related from the standpoint of “function” are assembled together as a distinct SBU.

♦ Unrelated products/businesses in any group are separated. If they could be assigned to any other SBU applying the criterion of functional relation, they are assigned; accordingly, otherwise they are made into separate SBUs.

♦ Grouping the businesses on SBU lines helps the firm in strategic planning by removing the vagueness and confusion generally seen in grouping businesses; it also facilitates the right setting for correct strategic planning and facilitates correct relative priorities and resources to the various businesses.
STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT

- Each SBU is a separate business from the strategic planning standpoint. In the basic factors, viz., mission, objectives, competition and strategy—one SBU will be distinct from another.
- Each SBU will have its own distinct set of competitors and its own distinct strategy.
- Each SBU will have a CEO. He will be responsible for strategic planning for the SBU and its profit performance; he will also have control over most of the factors affecting the profit of the SBU.

The questions posed at the corporate level are, first, whether the corporate body wishes to have a related set of SBUs or not; and if so, on what basis. This issue of relatedness in turn has direct implications on decisions about diversification. Relatedness might exist in different ways:

- SBUs might build on similar technologies, or all provide similar sorts of products or services.
- SBUs might be serving similar or different markets. Even if technology or products differ, it may be that the customers are similar. For example, the technologies underpinning frozen food, washing powders and margarine production may be very different; but all are sold through retail operations, and Unilever operates in all these product fields.
- Or it may be that other competences on which the competitive advantage of different SBUs are built have similarities. Unilever would argue that the marketing skills associated with the three product markets are similar example.

The identification of SBUs is a convenient starting point for planning. Once the company’s strategic business units have been identified, the responsibilities for strategic planning can be more clearly assigned.

F Matrix Structure

Most organizations find that organising around either functions (in the functional structure) or around products and geography (in the divisional structure) provides an appropriate organizational structure. The matrix structure, in contrast, may be very appropriate when organizations conclude that neither functional nor divisional
forms, even when combined with horizontal linking mechanisms like strategic business units, are right for the implementation of their strategies. In matrix structure, functional and product forms are combined simultaneously at the same level of the organization. Employees have two superiors, a product or project manager and a functional manager. The “home” department - that is, engineering, manufacturing, or marketing - is usually functional and is reasonably permanent. People from these functional units are often assigned temporarily to one or more product units or projects. The product units or projects are usually temporary and act like divisions in that they are differentiated on a product-market basis.

A matrix structure is the most complex of all designs because it depends upon both vertical and horizontal flows of authority and communication (hence the term matrix). In contrast, functional and divisional structures depend primarily on vertical flows of authority and communication. A matrix structure can result in higher overhead because it has more management positions. Other characteristics of a matrix structure that contribute to overall complexity include dual lines of budget authority (a violation of the unity command principle), dual sources of reward and punishment, shared authority, dual reporting channels, and a need for an extensive and effective communication system.

Despite its complexity, the matrix structure is widely used in many industries, including construction, healthcare, research and defence. Some advantages of a matrix structure are that project objectives are clear, there are many channels of communication workers can see the visible results of their work, and shutting down a project is accomplished relatively easily.

In order for a matrix structure to be effective, organizations need planning, training, clear mutual understanding of roles and responsibilities, excellent internal communication, and mutual trust and confidence. The matrix structure is used more frequently by businesses because they are pursuing strategies add new products, customer groups, and technology to their range of activities. Out of these changes are coming product managers, functional managers, and geographic managers, all of whom have important strategic responsibilities. When several variables such as product, customer, technology, geography, functional area, have roughly equal strategic priorities, a matrix organization can be an effective structural form.

Matrix structure was developed to combine the stability of the functional structure with the flexibility of the product form. It is very useful when the external
environment (especially its technological and market aspects) is very complex and changeable. It does, however, produce conflicts revolving around duties, authority, and resource allocation. To the extent that the goals to be achieved are vague and the technology used is poorly understood, a continuous battle for power between product and functional managers is likely.

Figure: Matrix Structure

The matrix structure is often found in an organization or within an SBU when the following three conditions exist: 1) Ideas need to be cross-fertilised across projects or products, 2) Resources are scarce and 3) Abilities to process information and to make decisions need to be improved.

**Changing organizational design**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old Organizational Design</th>
<th>New Organizational Design</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>♦ One large corporation</td>
<td>♦ Mini-business units and cooperative relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>♦ Vertical communication</td>
<td>♦ Horizontal communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION

| ♦ Centralised top-down decision making | ♦ Decentralised participative decision making |
| ♦ Vertical integration | ♦ Outsourcing & virtual organizations |
| ♦ Work/quality teams | ♦ Autonomous work teams |
| ♦ Functional work teams | ♦ Cross-functional work teams |
| ♦ Minimal training | ♦ Extensive training |
| ♦ Specialised job design focused on individual | ♦ Value-chain team-focused job design |

For development of matrix structure Davis and Lawrence, have proposed three distinct phases:

1. **Cross-functional task forces**: Temporary cross-functional task forces are initially used when a new product line is being introduced. A project manager is in charge as the key horizontal link.

2. **Product/brand management**: If the cross-functional task forces become more permanent, the project manager becomes a product or brand manager and a second phase begins. In this arrangement, function is still the primary organizational structure, but product or brand managers act as the integrators of semi permanent products or brands.

3. **Mature matrix**: The third and final phase of matrix development involves a true dual-authority structure. Both the functional and product structures are permanent. All employees are connected to both a vertical functional superior and a horizontal product manager. Functional and product managers have equal authority and must work well together to resolve disagreements over resources and priorities.

However, the matrix structure is not very popular because of difficulties in implementation and trouble in managing.

### G Network Structure

A radical organizational design, the network structure is an example of what could be termed a “non-structure” by its virtual elimination of in-house business functions. Many activities are outsourced. A corporation organized in this manner is often called a virtual organization because it is composed of a series of project
groups or collaborations linked by constantly changing non-hierarchical, cobweb-like networks. The network structure becomes most useful when the environment of a firm is unstable and is expected to remain so. Under such conditions, there is usually a strong need for innovation and quick response. Instead of having salaried employees, it may contract with people for a specific project or length of time. Long-term contracts with suppliers and distributors replace services that the company could provide for itself through vertical integration. Electronic markets and sophisticated information systems reduce the transaction costs of the marketplace, thus justifying a “buy” over a “make” decision. Rather than being located in a single building or area, an organization’s business functions are scattered at different geographical locations. The organization is, in effect, only a shell, with a small headquarters acting as a “broker”, electronically connected to some completely owned divisions, partially owned subsidiaries, and other independent organisation. In its ultimate form, the network organization is a series of independent firms or business units linked together by a common system that designs, produces, and markets a product or service.

**Figure: Network Structure**

Companies like Airtel use the network structure in their operations function by subcontracting manufacturing to other companies in low-cost.
The network organization structure provides an organization with increased flexibility and adaptability to cope with rapid technological change and shifting patterns of international trade and competition. It allows a company to concentrate on its distinctive competencies, while gathering efficiencies from other firms who are concentrating their efforts in their areas of expertise. The network does, however, have disadvantages. The availability of numerous potential partners can be a source of trouble. Contracting out functions to separate suppliers/distributors may keep the firm from discovering any synergies by combining activities. If a particular firm over specialises on only a few functions, it runs the risk of choosing the wrong functions and thus becoming non-competitive.

The new structural arrangements that are evolving typically are in response to social and technological advances. While they may enable the effective management of dispersed organizations, there are some serious implications. The learning organization that is a part of new organizational forms requires that each worker become a self-motivated, continuous learner. Employees may lack the level of confidence necessary to participate actively in organization-sponsored learning experiences. The flatter organizational structures that accompany contemporary structures can seem intrusive as a result of their demand for more intense and personal interactions with internal and external stakeholders. Combined, the conditions above may create stress for many employees.

**H Hourglass Structure**

In the recent year’s information technology and communications have significantly altered the functioning of organizations. The role played by middle management is diminishing as the tasks performed by them are increasingly being replaced by the technological tools. Hourglass organization structure consists of three layers with constricted middle layer. The structure has a short and narrow middle-management level. Information technology links the top and bottom levels in the organization taking away many tasks that are performed by the middle level managers. A shrunken middle layer coordinates diverse lower-level activities. Contrary to traditional middle level managers who are often specialist, the managers in the hourglass structure are generalists and perform wide variety of tasks. They would be handling cross-functional issues emanating such as those from marketing, finance or production.
Hourglass structure has obvious benefit of reduced costs. It also helps in enhancing responsiveness by simplifying decision making. Decision making authority is shifted close to the source of information so that it is faster. However, with the reduced size of middle management the promotion opportunities for the lower levels diminish significantly. Continuity at same level may bring monotony and lack of interest and it becomes difficult to keep the motivation levels high. Organisations try to overcome these problems by assigning challenging tasks, transferring laterally and having a system of proper rewards for performance.

5.4.2 Organization Culture

Every organisation has a unique organizational culture. It has its own philosophy and principles, its own history, values, and rituals, its own ways of approaching problems and making decisions, its own work climate. It has its own embedded patterns of how to do things. Its own ingrained beliefs and thought patterns, and practices that define its corporate culture.

Corporate culture refers to a company’s values, beliefs, business principles, traditions, ways of operating, and internal work environment.

Where Does Corporate Culture Come From?

A company’s culture is manifested in the values and business principles that management preaches and practices, in its ethical standards and official policies, in its stakeholder relationships (especially its dealings with employees, unions, stockholders, vendors, and the communities in which it operates), in the traditions the organization maintains, in its supervisory practices, in employees’ attitudes and behaviour, in the legends people repeat about happenings in the organization, in
the peer pressures that exist, in the organization’s politics that permeate the work environment. All these sociological forces, some of which operate quite subtly, combine to define an organization’s culture, beliefs and practices that become embedded in a company’s culture can originate anywhere: from one influential individual, work group, department, or division, from the bottom of the organizational hierarchy or the top.

Frequently, a significant part of a company’s culture emerges from the stories that get told over and over again to illustrate to newcomers the importance of certain values and beliefs and ways of operating.

**Culture: ally or obstacle to strategy execution?**

An organization’s culture is either an important contributor or an obstacle to successful strategy execution. The beliefs, vision, objectives, and business approaches and practices underpinning a company’s strategy may or may not be compatible with its culture. When they are compatible, the culture becomes a valuable ally in strategy implementation and execution. When the culture is in conflict with some aspect of the company’s direction, performance targets or strategy, the culture becomes a stumbling block that impedes successful strategy implementation and execution.

**Role of culture in strategy execution**

Strong culture promotes good strategy execution when there’s fit and impedes execution when there’s negligible fit. A culture grounded in values, practices, and behavioural norms that match what is needed for good strategy execution helps energize people throughout the company to do their jobs in a strategy-supportive manner, adding significantly to the power and effectiveness of strategy execution. **For example,** a culture where frugality and thrift are values strongly shared by organizational members is very conducive to successful execution of a low-cost leadership strategy. A culture where creativity, embracing change, and challenging the status quo are pervasive themes is very conducive to successful execution of a product innovation and technological leadership strategy. A culture built around such business principles as listening to customers, encouraging employees to take pride in their work, and giving employees a high degree of decision-making authority is very conducive to successful execution of a strategy of delivering superior customer value.
A work environment where the culture matches the conditions for good strategy execution provides a system of informal rules and peer pressure regarding how to conduct business internally and how to go about doing one’s job. Strategy-supportive cultures shape the mood, temperament, and motivation the workforce, positively affecting organizational energy, work habits and operating practices, the degree to which organizational units cooperate, and how customers are treated.

A strong strategy-supportive culture nurtures and motivates people to do their jobs in ways conducive to effective strategy execution; it provides structure, standards, and a value system in which to operate; and it promotes strong employee identification with the company’s vision, performance targets, and strategy. All this makes employees feel genuinely better about their jobs and work environment and the merits of what the company is trying to accomplish. Employees are stimulated to take on the challenge of realizing the company’s vision, do their jobs competently and with enthusiasm, and collaborate with others as needed to bring the strategy to fruition.

**Perils of Strategy-Culture Conflict:** When a company’s culture is out of sync with what is needed for strategic success, the culture has to be changed as rapidly as can be managed – this, of course, presumes that it is one or more aspects of the culture that are out of whack rather than the strategy. While correcting a strategy-culture conflict can occasionally mean revamping strategy to produce cultural fit, more usually it means revamping the mismatched cultural features to produce strategy fit. The more entrenched the mismatched aspects of the culture, the greater the difficulty of implementing new or different strategies until better strategy-culture alignment emerges. A sizable and prolonged strategy-culture conflict weakens and may even defeat managerial efforts to make the strategy work.

**Creating a strong fit between strategy and culture:** It is the strategy maker’s responsibility to select a strategy compatible with the “sacred” or unchangeable parts of prevailing corporate culture. It is the strategy implementer’s task, once strategy is chosen, to change whatever facets of the corporate culture hinder effective execution.

**Changing a problem culture:** Changing a company’s culture to align it with strategy is among the toughest management tasks—easier to talk about than do.
Changing a problem culture is very difficult because of the heavy anchor of deeply held values and habits—people cling emotionally to the old and familiar. It takes concerted management action over a period of time to replace an unhealthy culture with a healthy culture or to root out certain unwanted cultural obstacles and instil ones that are more strategy-supportive.

The first step is to diagnose which facets of the present culture are strategy supportive and which are not. Then, managers have to talk openly and forthrightly to all concerned about those aspects of the culture that have to be changed. The talk has to be followed swiftly by visible, aggressive actions to modify the culture—actions that everyone will understand are intended to establish a new culture more in tune with the strategy. The menu of culture-changing actions includes revising policies and procedures in ways that will help drive cultural change, altering incentive compensation (to reward the desired cultural behaviour), visibly praising and recognizing people who display the new cultural traits, recruiting and hiring new managers and employees who have the desired cultural values and can serve as role models for the desired cultural behaviour, replacing key executives who are strongly associated with the old culture, and taking every opportunity to communicate to employees the basis for cultural change and its benefits to all concerned.

Implanting the needed culture-building values and behaviour depends on a sincere, sustained commitment by the chief executive coupled with extraordinary persistence in reinforcing the culture at every opportunity through both words and deed. Neither charisma nor personal magnetism is essential. However, personally talking to many departmental groups about the reasons for change is essential; organizational changes are seldom accomplished successfully from an office. Moreover, creating and sustaining a strategy-supportive culture is a job for the whole management team. Major cultural change requires many initiatives from many people. Senior managers, department heads, and middle managers have to reiterate values and translate the organization’s philosophy into everyday practice. In addition, for the culture-building effort to be successful, strategy implementers must enlist the support of first line supervisors and employee opinion leaders, convincing them of the merits of practicing and enforcing cultural norms at the lowest levels in the organization. Until a big majority of employees join the new culture and share an emotional commitment to its basic values and behavioural
norms, there's considerably more work to be done in both instilling the culture and tightening the culture strategy fit.

The task of making culture supportive of strategy is not a short-term exercise. It takes time for a new culture to emerge and prevail; it’s unrealistic to expect an overnight transformation. The bigger the organization and the greater the cultural shift needed to produce a culture-strategy fit, the longer it takes. In large companies, changing the corporate culture in significant ways can take two to five years. In fact, it is usually tougher to reshape a deeply ingrained culture that is not strategy-supportive than it is to instill a strategy-supportive culture from scratch in a brand-new organization.

In conclusion, an excessive focus on the hard management, at best will result in a linear improvement in performance. On the other hand, performance can be improved exponentially by concentrating on the soft side of the management. The optimal management approach probably would be somewhere between these extremes. Accordingly, every organisation has to maintain a fine balance between a range of "hard" and "soft" management as even though a structure is appropriate for the time it is established, by the time it is implemented, reality has already changed, especially in today's world.

5.5 STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP

A leader is best when people barely know he exists, when his work is done, his aim fulfilled, they will say: we did it ourselves.

—Lao Tzu

Strategic leadership sets the firm’s direction by developing and communicating a vision of future, formulate strategies in the light of internal and external environment, brings about changes required to implement strategies and inspire the staff to contribute to strategy execution. A manager as a strategic leader has to play many leadership roles to play: visionary, chief entrepreneur and strategist, chief administrator, culture builder, resource acquirer and allocator, capabilities builder, process integrator, crisis manager, spokesperson, negotiator, motivator, arbitrator, policy maker, policy enforcer, and head cheerleader. Sometimes it is useful to be authoritarian; sometimes it is better to be a perceptive listener and a
compromising decision maker; sometimes a strongly participative, and sometimes being a coach and adviser is the proper role.

A strategic leader is a change agent to initiates strategic changes in the organisations and ensure that the changes successfully implemented. For the most part, major change efforts have to be top-down and vision-driven. Leading change has to start with diagnosing the situation and then deciding which of several ways to handle it. Managers have five leadership roles to play in pushing for good strategy execution:

1. Staying on top of what is happening, closely monitoring progress, solving out issues, and learning what obstacles lie in the path of good execution.

2. Promoting a culture of *esprit de corps* that mobilizes and energizes organizational members to execute strategy in a competent fashion and perform at a high level.

3. Keeping the organization responsive to changing conditions, alert for new opportunities, bubbling with innovative ideas, and ahead of rivals in developing competitively valuable competencies and capabilities.

4. Exercising ethical leadership and insisting that the company conduct its affairs like a model corporate citizen.

5. Pushing corrective actions to improve strategy execution and overall strategic performance.

For example, N. R. Narayan Murthy, is known as a celebrated business leader because of the values he had institutionalised over his tenure as CEO of Infosys. One of the great legacies he left with Infosys is a strong management development program that builds management talent and strategic leader with ethical values.

Dhirubhai Ambani, pioneer of Reliance Group, was an icon in himself because of his ability to conceptualise and create sweeping strategies, to reach corporate goals, and proficiency in implementing his strategic vision. Dhirubhai Ambani had the ability to provide clear direction for the company and had strong interpersonal skills that inspired the employees to contribute their best for the accomplishment of strategic vision. These qualities made him an excellent strategic leader in the corporate world.
Leadership role in implementation: The strategic leaders must be able to use the strategic management process effectively by guiding the company in ways that result in the formation of strategic intent and strategic mission, facilitating the development and implementation of appropriate strategic plans and providing guidance to the employees for achieving strategic goals.

Figure: Strategy Design and Implementation: Interrelationship of Elements

Strategic leadership entails the ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, and empower others to create strategic change as necessitated by external environment. In other words, strategic leadership represents a complex form of leadership in companies. A manager with strategic leadership skills exhibits the ability to guide the company through the new competitive landscape by influencing the behaviour, thoughts, and feelings of co-workers, managing through others and successfully processing or making sense of complex, ambiguous information by successfully dealing with change and uncertainty.
In the today’s competitive landscape, strategic leaders are challenged to adapt their frames of reference so that they can deal with rapid, complex changes. A managerial frame of reference is the set of assumptions, premises, and accepted wisdom that bounds a manager’s understanding of the company, the industry in which it competes, and the core competencies that it exploits in the pursuit of strategic competitiveness (and above-average returns). In other words, a manager’s frame of reference is the foundation on which a manager’s mindset is built.

The importance of a manager’s frame of reference can be seen if we perceive those competitive battles are not between companies or products but between mindsets or managerial frames. This implies that effective strategic leaders must be able to deal with the diverse and cognitively complex competitive situations that are characteristic of today's competitive landscape.

A Strategic leader has several responsibilities, including the following:

♦ Making strategic decisions.
♦ Formulating policies and action plans to implement strategic decision.
Ensuring effective communication in the organisation.

Managing human capital (perhaps the most critical of the strategic leader’s skills).

Managing change in the organisation.

Creating and sustaining strong corporate culture.

Sustaining high performance over time.

Thus, the strategic leadership skills of a company’s managers represent resources that affect company performance. And these resources must be developed for the company’s future benefit.

Strategic leadership sets the firm’s direction by developing and communicating a vision of future and inspire organization members to move in that direction. Unlike strategic leadership, managerial leadership is generally concerned with the short-term, day-to-day activities.

Two basic approaches to leadership can be transformational leadership style and transactional leadership style.

- **Transformational leadership style** uses charisma and enthusiasm to inspire people to exert for the good of the organization. Transformational leadership style may be appropriate in turbulent environments, in industries at the very start or end of their life-cycles, in poorly performing organizations when there is a need to inspire a company to embrace major changes. Transformational leaders offer excitement, vision, intellectual stimulation and personal satisfaction. They inspire involvement in a mission, giving followers a ‘dream’ or ‘vision’ of a higher calling so as to elicit more dramatic changes in organizational performance. Such a leadership motivates followers to do more than originally affected to do by stretching their abilities and increasing their self-confidence, and also promote innovation throughout the organization.

- **Transactional leadership style** focuses more on designing systems and controlling the organization’s activities and are more likely to be associated with improving the current situation. Transactional leaders try to build on the existing culture and enhance current practices. Transactional leadership style uses the authority of its office to exchange rewards, such as pay and status.
They prefer a more formalized approach to motivation, setting clear goals with explicit rewards or penalties for achievement or non-achievement.

Transactional leadership style may be appropriate in static environment, in mature industries, and in organizations that are performing well. The style is better suited in persuading people to work efficiently and run operations smoothly.

5.6 STRATEGIC CONTROL

Controlling is one of the important functions of management and is often regarded as the core of the management process. It is a function intended to ensure and make possible the performance of planned activities and to achieve the predetermined goals and results. Control is intended to regulate and check, i.e., to structure and condition the behaviour of events and people, to place restraints and curbs on undesirable tendencies, to make people conform to certain norms and standards, to measure progress to keep the system on track. It is also to ensure that what is planned is translated into results, to keep a watch on proper use of resources, on safeguarding of assets and so on.

The controlling function involves monitoring the activity and measuring results against pre-established standards, analysing and correcting deviations as necessary and maintaining/adapting the system. It is intended to enable the organisation to continuously learn from its experience and to improve its capability to cope with the demands of organisational growth and development.

The process of control has the following elements:

(a) Objectives of the business system which could be operationalized into measurable and controllable standards.

(b) A mechanism for monitoring and measuring the performance of the system.

(c) A mechanism (i) for comparing the actual results with reference to the standards (ii) for detecting deviations from standards and (iii) for learning new insights on standards themselves.

(d) A mechanism for feeding back corrective and adaptive information and instructions to the system, for effecting the desired changes to set right the system to keep it on course.
Primarily there are three types of organizational control, viz., operational control, management control and strategic control.

**Operational Control:** The thrust of operational control is on individual tasks or transactions as against total or more aggregative management functions. For example, procuring specific items for inventory is a matter of operational control, in contrast to inventory management as a whole. One of the tests that can be applied to identify operational control areas is that there should be a clear-cut and somewhat measurable relationship between inputs and outputs which could be predetermined or estimated with least uncertainty.

Many of the control systems in organisations are operational and mechanistic in nature. A set of standards, plans and instructions are formulated. The control activity consists of regulating the processes within certain ‘tolerances’, irrespective of the effects of external conditions on the formulated standards, plans and instructions. Some of the examples of operational controls can be stock control (maintaining stocks between set limits), production control (manufacturing to set programmes), quality control (keeping product quality between agreed limits), cost control (maintaining expenditure as per standards), budgetary control (keeping performance to budget).

**Management Control:** When compared with operational control, management control is more inclusive and more aggregative, in the sense of embracing the integrated activities of a complete department, division or even entire organisation, instead of mere narrowly circumscribed activities of sub-units.

The basic purpose of management control is the achievement of enterprise goals – short range and long range – in a most effective and efficient manner. The term management control is defined by Robert Anthony as ‘the process by which managers assure the resources are obtained and used effectively and efficiently in the accomplishment of the organisation’s objectives. Controls are necessary to influence the behaviour of events and ensure that they conform to plans.

**Strategic Control:** According to Schendel and Hofer “Strategic control focuses on the dual questions of whether: (1) the strategy is being implemented as planned; and (2) the results produced by the strategy are those intended.”

There is often a time gap between the stages of strategy formulation and its implementation. A strategy might be affected on account of changes in internal
and external environments of organisation. There is a need for warning systems to track a strategy as it is being implemented. Strategic control is the process of evaluating strategy as it is formulated and implemented. It is directed towards identifying problems and changes in premises and making necessary adjustments.

**Types of Strategic Control:** There are four types of strategic controls, which are as follows:

♦ **Premise control:** A strategy is formed on the basis of certain assumptions or premises about the complex and turbulent organizational environment. Over a period of time these premises may not remain valid. Premise control is a tool for systematic and continuous monitoring of the environment to verify the validity and accuracy of the premises on which the strategy has been built. It primarily involves monitoring two types of factors:

(i) Environmental factors such as economic (inflation, liquidity, interest rates), technology, social and legal-regulatory.

(ii) Industry factors such as competitors, suppliers, substitutes.

It is neither feasible nor desirable to control all types of premises in the same manner. Different premises may require different amount of control. Thus, managers are required to select those premises that are likely to change and would severely impact the functioning of the organization and its strategy.

♦ **Strategic surveillance:** Contrary to the premise control, the strategic surveillance is unfocussed. It involves general monitoring of various sources of information to uncover unanticipated information having a bearing on the organizational strategy. It involves casual environmental browsing. Reading financial and other newspapers, business magazines, attending meetings, conferences, discussions and so on can help in strategic surveillance.

Strategic surveillance may be loose form of strategic control but is capable of uncovering information relevant to the strategy.

♦ **Special alert control:** At times, unexpected events may force organizations to reconsider their strategy. Sudden changes in government, natural calamities, terrorist attacks, unexpected merger/acquisition by competitors, industrial disasters and other such events may trigger an immediate and
intense review of strategy. To cope up with such eventualities, the organisations form crisis management teams to handle the situation.

Implementation control: Managers implement strategy by converting major plans into concrete, sequential actions that form incremental steps. Implementation control is directed towards assessing the need for changes in the overall strategy in light of unfolding events and results associated with incremental steps and actions.

Strategic implementation control is not a replacement to operational control. Unlike operational control, it continuously monitors the basic direction of the strategy. The two basic forms of implementation control are:

(i) Monitoring strategic thrusts: Monitoring strategic thrusts helps managers to determine whether the overall strategy is progressing as desired or whether there is need for readjustments.

(ii) Milestone Reviews: All key activities necessary to implement strategy are segregated in terms of time, events or major resource allocation. It normally involves a complete reassessment of the strategy. It also assesses the need to continue or refocus the direction of an organization.
These four strategic controls steer the organisation and its different sub-systems to the right track. They help the organisation to negotiate through the turbulent and complex environment.

5.7 STRATEGIC PERFORMANCE MEASURES

A company’s performance depends heavily on execution of strategy. Companies that continuously outperform their competitors are those who execute well. Executives in a variety of businesses should explore about utilizing strategic performance measurement (SPM). SPM is a method that increases line executives’ understanding of an organization’s strategic goals and offers a continuous system for tracking progress towards these objectives using clear-cut performance measurements. SPM helps to eliminate silos by establishing a common language among all divisions of the organisation so they may communicate openly and productively.

Strategic performance measures are key indicators that organizations use to track the effectiveness of their strategies and make informed decisions about resource allocation. The measures provide a snapshot of the organization’s performance, enabling leaders to assess whether their strategies are aligned with their goals and objectives and to make necessary adjustments to improve their performance.

Key performance measures and indicators must be created, selected, combined into reports and acted upon so that strategy implementation can have tangible outcomes. Firstly, there needs to be a clear cause and effect relationship between the indicators and strategic outcomes. Secondly, KPIs need to be carefully chosen because they will influence the behaviour of people within the organisation. However, managers should be aware of paralysis by over analysis.

 Managing the political aspects of implementing a strategy

People involved in the planning process for the implementation of a strategy may be affected by two sets of forces. The "rational" forces of openness, communication, and self-analysis can exist on the one hand. On the other hand, there could be political forces concerned with preserving empires and fostering internal rivalry that urge knowledge retention, selective communication, and caution. When these two techniques conflict, the politically acceptable aspects may end up in the explicit strategy while the sensitive elements may form an unspoken plan that contains the implicit strategy.
Types of Strategic Performance Measures

There are various types of strategic performance measures, including:

♦ **Financial Measures**: Financial measures, such as revenue growth, return on investment (ROI), and profit margins, provide an understanding of the organization's financial performance and its ability to generate profit.

♦ **Customer Satisfaction Measures**: Customer measures, such as customer satisfaction, customer retention, and customer loyalty, provide insight into the organization's ability to meet customer needs and provide high-quality products and services.

♦ **Market Measures**: Market measures, such as market share, customer acquisition, and customer referrals, provide information about the organization's competitiveness in the marketplace and its ability to attract and retain customers.

♦ **Employee Measures**: Employee measures, such as employee satisfaction, turnover rate, and employee engagement, provide insight into the organization's ability to attract and retain talented employees and create a positive work environment.

♦ **Innovation Measures**: Innovation measures, such as research and development (R&D) spending, patent applications, and new product launches, provide insight into the organization's ability to innovate and create new products and services that meet customer needs.

♦ **Environmental Measures**: Environmental measures, such as energy consumption, waste reduction, and carbon emissions, provide insight into the organization's impact on the environment and its efforts to operate in a sustainable manner.

## Toward More Holistic Measures of Strategic Performance

Development of management thought and practice has persistently pushed the frontier of strategic performance beyond financial metrics. Thus, the Triple Bottom Line framework (TBL) emphasises People and Planetary Concerns besides profitability or Economic Prosperity alone. The Quadruple Bottomline adds the 4\textsuperscript{th} P to add a spiritual dimension named ‘Purpose.’

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The Importance of Strategic Performance Measures

Strategic performance measures are essential for organizations for several reasons:

♦ **Goal Alignment**: Strategic performance measures help organizations align their strategies with their goals and objectives, ensuring that they are on track to achieve their desired outcomes.

♦ **Resource Allocation**: Strategic performance measures provide organizations with the information they need to make informed decisions about resource allocation, enabling them to prioritize their efforts and allocate resources to the areas that will have the greatest impact on their performance.

♦ **Continuous Improvement**: Strategic performance measures provide organizations with a framework for continuous improvement, enabling them to track their progress and make adjustments to improve their performance over time.

♦ **External Accountability**: Strategic performance measures help organizations demonstrate accountability to stakeholders, including shareholders, customers, and regulatory bodies, by providing a clear and transparent picture of their performance.
Choosing the Right Strategic Performance Measures

Organizations should choose strategic performance measures that are aligned with their goals and objectives and that provide relevant and actionable information. In selecting the right measures, organizations should consider the following factors:

♦ **Relevance:** The measure should be relevant to the organization's goals and objectives and provide information that is actionable and meaningful.

♦ **Data Availability:** The measure should be based on data that is readily available and can be collected and analyzed in a timely manner.

♦ **Data Quality:** The measure should be based on high-quality data that is accurate and reliable.

♦ **Data Timeliness:** The measure should be based on data that is current and up-to-date, enabling organizations to make informed decisions in a timely manner.

These measures provide a way for organizations to assess the success of their strategies, identify areas for improvement, and make informed decisions about how to allocate resources and adjust their strategies to achieve their desired outcomes. Effective strategic performance measures should be relevant, meaningful, and easy to understand and should be regularly reviewed and updated to ensure their continued alignment with the organization's goals and objectives.

SUMMARY

The chapter on Strategy Implementation and Evaluation provides a comprehensive overview of the processes and factors involved in executing and assessing the effectiveness of organizational strategies. The following are the main learning objectives covered in the chapter:

♦ **The process of Strategy Implementation:** The chapter describes the process of strategy implementation, including the formulation vs. implementation matrix, the linkages and issues involved, and the role of clear communication, effective leadership, and proper resource allocation.

♦ **Strategic Change through Digital Transformation:** The chapter explores the impact of digital transformation on strategy implementation and the role of technology in driving strategic change.
Organisation Structure (hard) vs Culture (soft): The chapter differentiates between hard factors, such as structure and systems, and soft factors, such as culture and leadership, in strategy implementation and explains their impact on organizational performance.

Strategic Leadership: The chapter discusses the role of strategic leadership in the implementation process and the importance of leaders who are visionary, innovative, and able to motivate and engage their teams.

Strategic Control: The chapter explains the role of strategic control in the implementation process and the importance of monitoring progress, adapting to changes in the environment, and making informed decisions based on data and analysis.

Strategic Performance Measures: The chapter identifies key strategic performance measures, including customer satisfaction, market share, return on investment, employee satisfaction, innovation, and environmental sustainability, and explains their importance in tracking progress and making informed decisions about resource allocation.

In conclusion, the chapter provides a comprehensive overview of the key elements of effective strategy implementation and evaluation and equips readers with the knowledge and skills needed to execute and assess their organization’s strategies.

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

Multiple Choice Questions

1. ___________leadership style may be appropriate in turbulent environment.
   (a) Transactional
   (b) Transformational
   (c) Autocratic
   (d) None of these
2. An organizational structure with constricted middle level is:
   (a) Divisional structure
   (b) Network structure
   (c) Hour Glass structure
   (d) Matrix structure

3. You are the head of operations of a company. When you focus on total or aggregate management functions in the sense of embracing the integrated activities of a complete department et al, you are practicing:
   (a) Strategic Control
   (b) Management control
   (c) Administrative Control
   (d) Operations Control

4. Which of the following would be chosen by the core strategist to implement operational control:
   (a) Premise Control
   (b) Special Alert Control
   (c) Implementation Control
   (d) Budgetary Control

5. Compliance, Identification and Internalization are the three processes involved in:
   (a) Refreezing
   (b) Defreezing
   (c) Changing behavior patterns
   (d) Breaking down old attitudes
STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION

6. Which one is NOT a type of strategic control?
   (a) Operational control
   (b) Strategic surveillance
   (c) Special alert control
   (d) Premise control

Scenario Based Questions

1. Ramesh, is owner of a popular brand of Breads. Yashpal, his son after completing Chartered Accountancy started assisting his father in running of business. The approaches followed by father and son in management were very different. While Ramesh preferred to use authority and having a formal system of defining goals and motivation with explicit rewards and punishments, Yashpal believed in involving employees and generating enthusiasm to inspire people to deliver in the organization.

   Discuss the difference in leadership style of father and son.

2. Suresh Sinha has been recently appointed as the head of a strategic business unit of a large multiproduct company. Advise Mr Sinha about the leadership role to be played by him in execution of strategy.

3. KaAthens Ltd., a diversified business entity having business operations across the globe. The company leadership has just changed as Mr. D. Bandopadhyay handed over the pedals to his son Aditya Bandopadhyay, due to his poor health. Aditya is a highly educated with an engineering degree from IIT, Delhi. However, being very young he is not clear about his role and responsibilities,

   In your view, what are the responsibilities of Aditya Bandopadhyay as CEO of the company.

4. Manoj started his telecom business in 2010. Over next five years, he gradually hired fifty people for various activities such as to keep his accounts, administration, sell his products in the market, create more customers, provide after sales service, coordinate with vendors.

   Draw the organization structure Manoj should implement in his organization and name it.
5. Moonlight Private Limited deals in multi-products and multi-businesses. It has its own set of competitors. It seems impractical for the company to provide separate strategic planning treatment to each one of its product or businesses. As a strategic manager, suggest the type of structure best suitable for Moonlight Private Limited and state its benefits.

6. Sanya Private Limited is an automobile company. For the past few years, it has been observed that the progress of the company has become stagnant. When scrutinized, it was found that the planning department was performing fairly well but the plans could not be implemented due to improper use of resources, undesirable tendencies of workers and non-conformance to norms and standards. You are hired as a Strategic Manager. Suggest the elements of process of control to overcome the problem.

**Descriptive Questions**

1. What is a strategic business unit? What are its advantages?
2. Draw ‘Divisional Structure’ with the help of a diagram. Also, give advantages and disadvantages of this structure in brief.
3. What is an ‘hourglass structure’? How can this structure benefit an organization?
4. How can you differentiate between transformational and transactional leaders?
5. What is strategic change? Explain the change process proposed by Kurt Lewin that can be useful in implementing strategies?
6. What are the differences between operational control and management control?
7. What is strategic control? Briefly explain the different types of strategic control.
8. What is implementation control? Discuss its basic forms.
ANSWERS/SOLUTIONS

Multiple Choice Questions

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Answers to Scenario Based Questions

1. Ramesh is a follower of transactional leadership style that focuses on designing systems and controlling the organization’s activities. Such a leader believes in using authority of its office to exchange rewards, such as pay and status. They prefer a more formalized approach to motivation, setting clear goals with explicit rewards or penalties for achievement or non-achievement. Transactional leaders try to build on the existing culture and enhance current practices. The style is better suited in persuading people to work efficiently and run operations smoothly.

On the other hand, Yashpal is follower of transformational leadership style. The style uses charisma and enthusiasm to inspire people to exert them for the good of the organization. Transformational leaders offer excitement, vision, intellectual stimulation and personal satisfaction. They inspire involvement in a mission, giving followers a ‘dream’ or ‘vision’ of a higher calling so as to elicit more dramatic changes in organizational performance. Such a leadership motivates followers to do more than originally affected to do by stretching their abilities and increasing their self-confidence, and also promote innovation throughout the organization.

2. Leading change has to start with diagnosing the situation and then deciding which of several ways to handle it. Managers have five leadership roles to play in pushing for good strategy execution:

(i) Staying on top of what is happening, closely monitoring progress, solving out issues, and learning what obstacles lie in the path of good execution.

(ii) Promoting a culture of esprit de corps that mobilizes and energizes organizational members to execute strategy in a competent fashion and perform at a high level.
(iii) Keeping the organization responsive to changing conditions, alert for new opportunities, bubbling with innovative ideas, and ahead of rivals in developing competitively valuable competencies and capabilities.

(iv) Exercising ethical leadership and insisting that the company conduct its affairs like a model corporate citizen.

(v) Pushing corrective actions to improve strategy execution and overall strategic performance.

3. Aditya Bandopadhyay, an effective strategic leader of KaAthens Ltd. must be able to deal with the diverse and cognitively complex competitive situations that are characteristic of today’s competitive landscape.

A strategic leader has several responsibilities, including the following:

♦ Making strategic decisions.
♦ Formulating policies and action plans to implement strategic decision.
♦ Ensuring effective communication in the organisation.
♦ Managing human capital (perhaps the most critical of the strategic leader’s skills).
♦ Managing change in the organisation.
♦ Creating and sustaining strong corporate culture.
♦ Sustaining high performance over time.

4. Manoj has started a telecom business. Accounts, Administration, Marketing (customer creation, after sales service, vendor coordination) are the functional areas that are desired in the organisational structure. Further there is inherent need to have a department for the management of telecom services/operations.
Thus, the functional structure in the telecom business of Manoj can be as follows:

5. It is advisable for Moonlight Private Limited to follow the strategic business unit (SBU) structure.

Moonlight Private Limited has a multi-product and multi-business structure where, each of these businesses has its own set of competitors. In the given case, Strategic Business Unit (SBU) structure would best suit the interests of the company.

SBU is a part of a large business organization that is treated separately for strategic management purposes. It is separate part of large business serving product markets with readily identifiable competitors. It is created by adding another level of management in a divisional structure after the divisions have been grouped under a divisional top management authority based on the common strategic interests.

Very large organizations, particularly those running into several products, or operating at distant geographical locations that are extremely diverse in terms of environmental factors, can be better managed by creating strategic business units, just as is the case for Moonlight Private Limited. SBU structure becomes imperative in an organization with increase in number, size and diversity.
Benefits of SBUs:

1. Establishing coordination between divisions having common strategic interest.
2. Facilitate strategic management and control.
3. Determine accountability at the level of distinct business units.
4. Allow strategic planning to be done at the most relevant level within the total enterprise.
5. Make the task of strategic review by top executives more objective and more effective.
6. Help to allocate resources to areas with better opportunities.

Thus, an SBU structure with its set of advantages would be most suitable for the company with the given diverse businesses having separate identifiable competitors, but a common organizational goal.

6. Sanya Private Limited deteriorating performance due to poor implementation of plans that is improper use of resources, undesirable tendencies of the workers, and non-conformance to norms and standards, all point towards weak controls in the organization. Implementation of plans cannot assure results unless strong and sufficient controls are put in place. The management of the company should focus diligently on developing controls especially in the identified problem areas.

The process of control has the following elements:

(a) Objectives of the business system which could be operationalized into measurable and controllable standards.

(b) A mechanism for monitoring and measuring the performance of the system.

(c) A mechanism (i) for comparing the actual results with reference to the standards (ii) for detecting deviations from standards and (iii) for learning new insights on standards themselves.
(d) A mechanism for feeding back corrective and adaptive information and instructions to the system, for effecting the desired changes to set right the system to keep it on course.

Above elements of control would ensure a proper check on improper use of resources, undesirable tendencies of the workers, and non-conformance to norms and standards and ensure a result oriented implementation of plans.

**Answers to Descriptive Questions**

1. A strategic business unit (SBU) is any part of a business organization which is treated separately for strategic management purposes. The concept of SBU is helpful in creating an SBU organizational structure. It is discrete element of the business serving product markets with readily identifiable competitors and for which strategic planning can be concluded. It is created by adding another level of management in a divisional structure after the divisions have been grouped under a divisional top management authority based on the common strategic interests.

Advantages of SBU are:

- Establishing coordination between divisions having common strategic interests.
- Facilitates strategic management and control on large and diverse organizations.
- Fixes accountabilities at the level of distinct business units.
- Allows strategic planning to be done at the most relevant level within the total enterprise.
- Makes the task of strategic review by top executives more objective and more effective.
- Helps allocate corporate resources to areas with greatest growth opportunities.
2. Divisional structure is that organizational structure which is based on extensive delegation of authority and built on division basis. The divisional structure can be organized in one of the four ways: by geographic area, by product or service, by customer, or by process. With a divisional structure, functional activities are performed both centrally and in each division separately.

**Figure: Divisional Structure**

**Advantages of Divisional Structure**

- **Accountability is clear**: Divisional managers can be held responsible for sales and profit levels. Because a divisional structure is based on extensive delegation of authority, managers and employees can easily see the results of their good or bad performances and thus their morale is high.

- **Other advantages**: It creates career development opportunities for managers, allows local control of local situations, leads to a competitive climate within an organization, and allows new businesses and products to be added easily.
Disadvantages of Divisional Structure

♦ **Higher cost:** Owing to following reasons: (i). requires qualified functional specialist at different divisions and needed centrally (at headquarters); (ii). It requires an elaborate, headquarters –driven control system.

♦ **Conflicts between divisional managers:** Certain regions, products, or customers may sometimes receive special treatment, and it may be difficult to maintain consistent, company-wide practices.

3. In the recent years information technology and communications have significantly altered the functioning of organizations. The role played by middle management is diminishing as the tasks performed by them are increasingly being replaced by the technological tools. Hourglass organization structure consists of three layers in an organisation structure with constricted middle layer. The structure has a short and narrow middle management level.

Information technology links the top and bottom levels in the organization taking away many tasks that are performed by the middle level managers. A shrunken middle layer coordinates diverse lower level activities.

![Hourglass Organization Structure](image)

**Hourglass Organization Structure**

Hourglass structure has obvious benefit of reduced costs. It also helps in enhancing responsiveness by simplifying decision making. Decision making authority is shifted close to the source of information so that it is faster. However, with the reduced size of middle management, the promotion opportunities for the lower levels diminish significantly.
4. Difference between transformational and transactional leadership

1. Transformational leadership style uses charisma and enthusiasm to inspire people to exert them for the good of organization. Transactional leadership style uses the authority of its office to exchange rewards such as pay, status symbols etc.

2. Transformational leadership style may be appropriate in turbulent environment, in industries at the very start or end of their cycles, poorly performing organisations, when there is a need to inspire a company to embrace major changes. Transactional leadership style can be appropriate in static environment, in growing or mature industries and in organisations that are performing well.

3. Transformational leaders inspire employees by offering excitement, vision, intellectual stimulation and personal satisfaction. Transactional leaders prefer a more formalized approach to motivation, setting clear goals with explicit rewards or penalties for achievement and non-achievement. Transactional leaders focus mainly to build on existing culture and enhance current practices.

5. The changes in the environmental forces often require businesses to make modifications in their existing strategies and bring out new strategies. Strategic change is a complex process and it involves a corporate strategy focused on new markets, products, services and new ways of doing business.

To make the change lasting, Kurt Lewin proposed three phases of the change process for moving the organization from the present to the future. These stages are unfreezing, changing and refreezing.

(a) Unfreezing the situation: The process of unfreezing simply makes the individuals or organizations aware of the necessity for change and prepares them for such a change. Lewin proposes that the changes should not come as a surprise to the members of the organization. Sudden and unannounced change would be socially destructive and morale lowering. The management must pave the way for the change by first “unfreezing the situation”, so that members would be willing and ready to accept the change.
Unfreezing is the process of breaking down the old attitudes and behaviours, customs and traditions so that they start with a clean slate. This can be achieved by making announcements, holding meetings and promoting the ideas throughout the organization.

(b) Changing to New situation: Once the unfreezing process has been completed and the members of the organization recognise the need for change and have been fully prepared to accept such change, their behaviour patterns need to be redefined. H.C. Kellman proposed three methods for reassigning new patterns of behavior as compliance, identification and internalisation.

(c) Refreezing: Refreezing occurs when the new behaviour becomes a normal way of life. The new behaviour must replace the former behaviour completely for successful and permanent change to take place. In order for the new behaviour to become permanent, it must be continuously reinforced so that this newly acquired behaviour does not diminish or extinguish.

Change process is not a one time application but a continuous process due to dynamism and ever changing environment. The process of unfreezing, changing and refreezing is a cyclical one and remains continuously in action.

6. Differences between Operational Control and Management Control are as under:

(i) The thrust of operational control is on individual tasks or transactions as against total or more aggregative management functions. When compared with operational, management control is more inclusive and more aggregative, in the sense of embracing the integrated activities of a complete department, division or even entire organisation, instead or mere narrowly circumscribed activities of sub-units. For example, procuring specific items for inventory is a matter of operational control, in contrast to inventory management as a whole.

(ii) Many of the control systems in organisations are operational and mechanistic in nature. A set of standards, plans and instructions are formulated. On the other hand, the basic purpose of management
control is the achievement of enterprise goals – short range and long range – in an effective and efficient manner.

7. Strategic Control focuses on the dual questions of whether: (1) the strategy is being implemented as planned; and (2) the results produced by the strategy are those intended.

There are four types of strategic control:

♦ **Premise control**: A strategy is formed on the basis of certain assumptions or premises about the environment. Premise control is a tool for systematic and continuous monitoring of the environment to verify the validity and accuracy of the premises on which the strategy has been built.

♦ **Strategic surveillance**: Strategic surveillance is unfocussed. It involves general monitoring of various sources of information to uncover unanticipated information having a bearing on the organizational strategy.

♦ **Special alert control**: At times, unexpected events may force organizations to reconsider their strategy. Sudden changes in government, natural calamities, unexpected merger/acquisition by competitors, industrial disasters and other such events may trigger an immediate and intense review of strategy.

♦ **Implementation control**: Managers implement strategy by converting major plans into concrete, sequential actions that form incremental steps. Implementation control is directed towards assessing the need for changes in the overall strategy in light of unfolding events and results.

8. Managers implement strategy by converting major plans into concrete, sequential actions that form incremental steps. Implementation control is directed towards assessing the need for changes in the overall strategy in light of unfolding events and results associated with incremental steps and actions.

Strategic implementation control is not a replacement to operational control. Strategic implementation control, unlike operational controls continuously
monitors the basic direction of the strategy. The two basic forms of implementation control are:

(i) **Monitoring strategic thrusts:** Monitoring strategic thrusts help managers to determine whether the overall strategy is progressing as desired or whether there is need for readjustments.

(ii) **Milestone Reviews.** All key activities necessary to implement strategy are segregated in terms of time, events or major resource allocation. It normally involves a complete reassessment of the strategy. It also assesses the need to continue or refocus the direction of an organization.