

# Competitive Strategy: Week 12

## Organisational Scope

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### Make or Buy?

- Should you make a product in-house, or buy from outside?
- Example: Lockheed Martin is merchant buyer
  - A division buys cheapest parts, from inside or outside.
- Benefits of using market
  - Comparative advantage
  - Why make product if you take a loss?

## Reasons to Make

- Holdup (week 6)
- Double marginalisation (week 9)
- Leakage of proprietary information
  - Example: Defence firms or Coke.
- Foreclosure
  - Two upstream firms  $U_1$  and  $U_2$ , and one downstream  $D_1$ .
  - If  $U_1$  merges with  $D_1$  they can kill competitor,  $U_2$ .
  - Example: Sabre gave advantages to AA flights.
  - But is this good idea? There is only one monopoly profit.
- Tapered Integration: Both make and buy
  - Pro: Disciplines insiders and outsiders.
  - Con: Loss of scale and efficiency.

## Definitions

- What is an Organisation?
  - Alchian and Demsetz: A nexus of contracts.
  - Have contract between firm and workers, suppliers, buyers.
  - Easier than complex multilateral contracts.
- What is Ownership?
  - Residual rights of control
  - Contracts are incomplete. Owner control what's not in contract.

## Transactions Cost Analysis

“It is surely important to inquire why coordination is the work of the price mechanism in one case and of the entrepreneur in another.” Ronald Coase (1937)

- Why not let market do everything?
  - Markets are efficient and provide incentives (see FWT).
  - Markets coordinate economic activity.
- What are the limits to organisation?
  - Suppose two firms, A and B, operate separately.
  - Why not merge them? One can always keep everything the same, and replicate the unintegrated outcome.
- Unit of analysis: Transaction
- Design organisations to minimise costs of production and trade.
  - Would like to hold production costs constant.

## Dimensions of Transactions

- Specificity of investments
  - Potential for hold-up.
- Frequency transactions occur and duration they last for
  - Cooperation requires repeated contact.
  - Frequent contact means contract can be more specific.
- Complexity of transaction.
  - Is item standard or one-of-a-kind?
  - How much uncertainty is there?
- Difficulty in measuring performance.
  - How measure performance of your doctor?
- Connectedness to other transactions
  - To sell a computer one needs many other transactions.

## Transactions Costs: List 1

- Holdup and asset specificity
  - Renegotiate prices after specific investment.
  - Undermines incentives to invest.
  - Problem: lack of commitment.
  - Note: This can be one- or two-sided.
- Coordination costs
  - Different divisions need to coordinate activities.
  - Need to agree of common parts.
  - Need to share information.
- Motivation and incentive costs (week 13)
  - Tradeoff: incentives vs. risk
  - Need to measure performance.
  - Monitoring costs.

## Transactions Costs: List 2

- Information acquisition costs
  - “Free” information is costly to collect.
  - Information costly to extract from employees who have individual interests.
- Information processing costs
  - Large data systems costly.
  - Example: When Exxon and Mobil merged, they delivered 100 million pages of information to FTC.
  - If processing is easy, why go to school?
- Contracting costs
  - Cost of writing contracts.

## Transactions Costs: List 3

- Search costs
  - Cost of finding employees, suppliers and customers.
- Enforcement costs
  - If contract is breached, enforcement is costly.
- Bargaining costs (week 2)
  - Negotiation is costly and takes time.
- Measurement costs
  - Outputs and inputs need to be measured.

## Influence Costs

- Why not have one giant firm?
  - Why is selective intervention not possible?
- After merger a decision maker has the *power* to intervene
  - But doesn't know exactly how to intervene.
- Agents try to influence the principal's decision.
  - Direct cost of influence activities (time, ingenuity).
  - Cost of wrong decisions.
  - Cost of reorganising firm to minimise influence costs.

## Tennaco and Houston Oil

- In 1980, Tennaco acquired Houston Oil and Minerals.
- Houston
  - Discovered oil and minerals.
  - Aggressive, risk-taking, entrepreneurial.
- Tennaco planned to run Houston as separate firm.
  - Keep high-powered incentives.
- Problem
  - Tennaco's 100,000 employees were jealous.
  - Pressure to increase equity.
  - 1/3 of Houston's managers left firm.

## General Motors vs. Ford

- In 1921, Alfred Sloan was appointed to head GM.
- General Motors. 11% of U.S. market.
  - Collection of car companies (Cadillac, Buick, Olds etc.).
  - No central direction.
  - No coordination on parts: high costs.
  - Firms competed heavily with each other.
  - Inventory costs not assigned to division, so huge inventories during 1920 recession.
- Ford. 45% of U.S. market.
  - Single product: Model T. Very low costs.
  - “People can have the Model T in any colour - so long as it's black”.
  - Hierarchical Unitary structure (U-form).

## General Motors vs. Ford cont.

- Sloan's Plan
  - Design different cars for different segments.
  - Cadillac at the top, Chevrolet at the bottom.
- Problems
  - Variety: new designs, new dealerships, new factories.
  - Coordination: reduce competition between divisions, share ideas, coordinate R&D, agree on common parts.
- The Multidivisional firm
  - Central office: plan overall strategy, audit divisions. Also responsible for research, legal and financial roles.
  - Divisions: autonomy on day-to-day activities. Make and sell car targeted at allotted segment.
- In 1940, Ford had 16% market share. GM had 45%.

## The Multidivisional Firm

- Based on divisions
  - Product divisions. e.g. Dupont has explosives, chemicals etc.
  - Customer divisions. e.g. GM.
  - Geographical divisions.
- How set transfer prices?
- Marginal cost
  - Buying firm makes right purchase decision.
  - But fixed costs mean supplier makes loss.
  - Selling firm makes suboptimal investment choice.
- Average cost pricing

## The Multidivisional Firm cont.

- Each firm profit maximises
  - Double marginalisation
- Price equal to outside market price
  - Need outside market to exist.
  - Incentives OK, if can buy from outsiders.
  - If forced to buy inside firm, seller's quality declines.
- Investment and the partnership problem
  - Both divisions can't have right incentives.
- Why did divisions integrate in first place?
  - Often because market didn't work!

## Toyota

- In 1950s, Toyota was small Japanese car firm.
  - Little capital, no scale economies.
  - Couldn't mimic American mass production.
- Just-in-time manufacturing
  - Inventories act as buffer, but subject to large economies of scale.
  - Toyota reduced inventories via close coordination.
- Reliability of process
  - Without buffer of inventories, engineers worked on reliability of every step of production line.
- Fewer flaws in product
  - Problems noticed immediately, rather than sitting in inventories.



## Toyota cont.

- Suppliers
  - Little scale, so can't produce in-house.
  - Communicate on day-to day basis.
  - Long term relationships.
- Skilled workers trained to fix own machines.
  - In US, this was specialised job.
- Flexible machines, due to lack of scale.
  - Leader in use of robots.
- Frequent redesigns possible
  - Because of flexibility of production line.
- Strategies are complements.

## Modern Manufacturing

	Mass Production	Modern Manufacturing
Varieties	Small	Large
Machines	Specialised	Flexible
Workers	Specialised	Multiple tasks
Inventories	Large	Just-in-time
Authority	Centralised	Decentralised
Communications	Infrequent, top-down	Fast, bidirectional

## Hudson's Bay Company

- HBC formed in 1670.
  - Trading monopoly in Quebec, Ontario and Manitoba.
  - Centralised decision making, based in London.
  - Paid employees flat salary.
  - Relied on intermediaries for furs: Double markup.
- North West Company
  - Independent traders based in Montreal, far from furs.
  - Traders moved and travelled back to Montreal once a year.
  - NWC close to customers.
  - NWC had decentralised decision making.
- By 1809, NWC had 80% of fur trade. HBC then copied NWC.
  - By 1921, HBC had beaten NWC and they merged.

## Salomon Brothers

- During 1980s, Salomon most profitable investment bank.
  - Very good at bond trading.
- Pay Structure: small salary plus bonus.
  - Every transaction prices: just like piece-rate.
  - Bonuses very big. Incentives very large.
  - Aggressive, risk-taking culture.
  - But lack of cooperation between departments.
- Stock scheme
  - Define bonus as before.
  - Then invest fixed proportion in Salomon shares.
  - Can't withdraw for five years.