Chapter 1

Fundamentals of Organization Design

THIS BOOK is about five of the most common organization design challenges that business leaders face today. This first chapter reviews some fundamental organization design concepts in order to provide readers a firm foundation for understanding the complex organizational forms we discuss. It also defines key terms, highlighted in italics, that we use throughout the rest of the book. (For an in-depth discussion of organization design concepts and processes, refer to Galbraith, 2002, or Galbraith, Downey, and Kates, 2002.)

The first two questions to address are: What is an organization? and What is organization design? For our purposes, the term *organization* is used broadly to refer to an entire firm, as well as to just one part of it. It can be made up of many thousands of people or only a handful. For a corporate leader, the organization encompasses the entire company, and from the vantage point of a unit manager, the organization may be simply that unit. Most of what we discuss in this book is applicable to the whole organization, as well as to the smaller organizations nested within the larger firm. Although we frequently refer to companies and firms, the concepts apply equally to nonprofit and government entities.

Organization design is the deliberate process of configuring structures, processes, reward systems, and people practices to create an effective organization capable of achieving the business strategy. The organization is not an end in itself; it is simply a vehicle for accomplishing the strategic tasks of the business. It is an invisible construct used to harness and direct the energy of the people who do the work. We believe that the vast majority of people go to their jobs each day wanting to contribute to the mission of the organization they work for. Too often, however, the organization is a

barrier to, not an enabler of, individual efforts. We have observed that when left to their own devices, smart people figure out how to work around the barriers they encounter, but they waste time and energy that they could direct instead to improving products and services, creating innovations, or serving customers. One of the main purposes of organizational design is to align individual motivations with the interests of the organization and make it easy for individual employees to make the right decisions every day. Furthermore, a well-designed organization makes the collective work of accomplishing complex tasks easier.

This chapter begins with an overview of the Star Model,[TM] which provides a decision-making framework for organization design. We highlight the key concepts associated with each point on the star, which we expand on in the other chapters. The chapter concludes with a summary of themes that serve as our design principles.

The Star Model[TM]: A Framework for Decision Making

Organization design is a decision-making process with numerous steps and many choices to make. A decision made early in the process will constrain choices made later, foreclose avenues of exploration, and eliminate alternatives, resulting in far-reaching impacts on the ultimate shape of the organization. Making sound decisions at these early, critical junctures requires a theoretical framework that gives credence to one choice over another. Yet many leaders and their teams still make organization design decisions based largely on their own individual experience and observation. A common framework for decision-making has a number of benefits. It:

- Provides a common language for debating options and articulating why one choice is better than another in objective, impersonal terms
- Forces design decisions to be based on longer-term business strategy rather than the more immediate demands of people and politics
- Provides a clear rationale for the choices considered and an explanation of the implications of those choices as the basis for communication and successful change management
- Allows decision makers to be able to evaluate outcomes, understand root causes, and make the right adjustments during implementation

The Star Model (Figure 1.1), which serves as our framework, has been used and refined over the past thirty years. Its basic premise is simple but powerful: different strategies require different organizations to execute

FIGURE 1.1 **Star Model.**
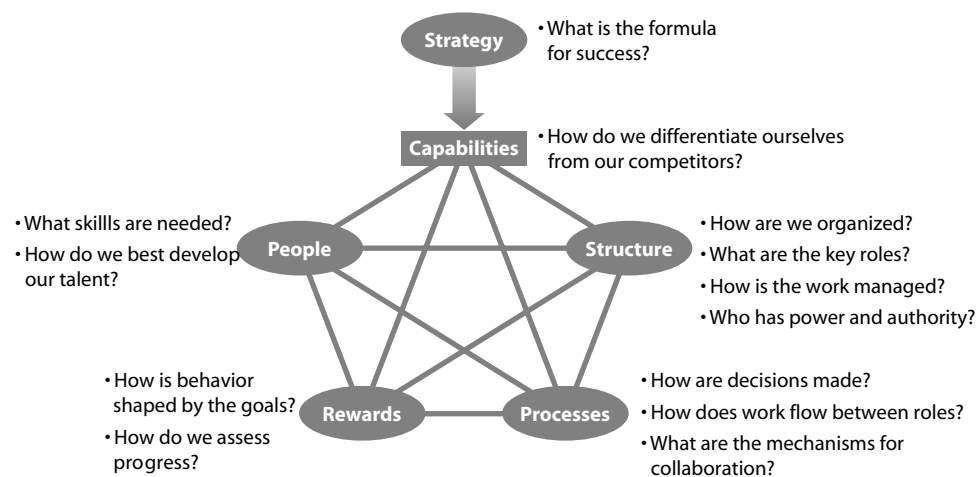
them. A strategy implies a set of capabilities at which an organization must excel in order to achieve the strategic goals. The leader has the responsibility to design and influence the structure, processes, rewards, and people practices of the organization in order to build these needed capabilities.

Although culture is an essential part of an organization, it is not an explicit part of the model because the leader cannot design the culture directly. An organization's culture consists of the common values, mindsets, and norms of behavior that have emerged over time and that most employees share. It is an outcome of the cumulative design decisions that have been made in the past and of the leadership and management behaviors that result from those decisions.

The idea of *alignment* is fundamental to the Star Model. Each component of the organization, represented by a point on the model, should work to support the strategy. The more that the structure, processes, rewards, and people practices reinforce the desired actions and behaviors, the better able the organization should be to achieve its goals. Just as important as initial alignment is having the ability to realign as circumstances change. The configuration of resources, the processes used, and the mental models that contribute to today's success will influence the plans made for the future. In a time of stability, this creates efficiency. In a time of change, such static alignment can become a constraint. The organization must have alignment, but it also needs the flexibility to recognize and respond to opportunities and threats.

It is always easier to change a business strategy than to change an organization, just as it is easier to change a course beforehand than it is to turn a large ship that is already under way. The more rapidly the organization

can be realigned, the faster the leaders can "turn the ship" and execute new strategies and opportunities as they arise. This is especially important for large companies that must compete against smaller, nimbler organizations. Therefore, alignment is best thought of as an ongoing process rather than a one-time event.

The ideas of strategy dictating organizational form and of organizational elements aligning with strategy are based on a body of thought called contingency theory (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967). *Contingency theory* does not prescribe any one best way to organize, but rather suggests that organization design choices are contingent on both the strategy selected and the environment in which the business is operating. Contingency theory has been extended with *complementary systems* theory, which comes to organization design from the field of economics (Milgrom and Roberts, 1995). The notion of complementarity holds that design choices work as coherent systems and that the application of one practice will influence the results of a corresponding practice—whether positive or negative. This underscores the practical application of the Star Model. For example, if a strategy depends on cross-unit coordination, contingency theory suggests it would be wise to formally link those units with processes and create measures and rewards that encourage teamwork. Research into complementary systems goes further, suggesting that in order to derive the full benefit of these choices, they should be employed as a system, and that negative consequences may occur if the practices are employed individually and not together (Whittington and others, 1999). This research confirms what many suspect: piecemeal adoption of management practices has little impact on business performance. It also means that simple benchmarking and copying of another company's structures and processes has little useful application in organization design. For example, using a matrix is neither a good nor a bad practice in itself. But when a matrix is installed without the appropriate and corresponding role clarity, governance processes, reward systems, performance management methods, and training that are needed to make it effective, its introduction can actually have a negative impact on the organization.

Thinking of organization design choices as complementary systems also has implications for the organization design process. While each point on the star in the model represents many choices, they are not as unlimited, and thus not as overwhelming, as they first seem. Once the strategy is set, there are then sets of complementary options available to support that strategy. As we address each major topic in this book, we have structured the discussion around the Star Model and have highlighted

the set of complementary choices and considerations that align with each strategy.

Another concept underlying the Star Model is *complexity.* In this context, it refers to the idea that complex business models cannot be executed with simple organizations (Ashby, 1952). The more dimensions a business has—for example, number of products, business units, or customer sets—and the larger its size, the greater the number of interfaces that will need to be managed internally. In addition, when the company is geographically dispersed, new challenges of national culture, time, and distance are introduced. Many strategies today require high levels of cross-organization collaboration at multiple levels. As a result, units tend to have more "surface area" and a greater number of interactions between units required to get work done (Lawler and Worley, 2006). Such organizations will not spontaneously self-organize. Employees in large companies, no matter how good their intentions, are unlikely to be able to gain a broad enough view to make the right decisions about how units should be configured and who should interact with whom. Complex strategies and organizations need firm and clear guidance, and this is an activity for senior leadership.

The design goal should be to keep the organization clear and simple for customers and the majority of employees. It is the job of leaders and managers to manage the complexity that is created by the organization's design. The different elements of a design that will need to be managed—the points on the Star Model—are explained in further detail below.

Strategy

Strategy is a company's formula for success. It sets the organization's direction and encompasses the company's vision and mission, as well as its short- and long-term goals. The strategy derives from the leadership's understanding of the external factors (competitors, suppliers, customers, and emerging technologies) that bear on the firm, combined with their understanding of the strengths of the organization in relationship to those factors. The organization's strategy is the cornerstone of the organization design process. Without knowledge of the goal, no one can make rational choices along the way. In other words, if you do not know where you are going, any road will get you there.

The purpose of a strategy is to gain *competitive advantage*: the ability to offer a customer better value through either lower prices or greater benefits and services than competitors can (Porter, 1998). These advantages can be gained through external factors such as location or favorable government regulation. They can also be secured through superior internal

organizational capabilities. We define *organizational capabilities* as the unique combination of skills, processes, technologies, and human abilities that differentiate a company. They are created internally and are thus difficult for others to replicate. Creating superior organizational capabilities in order to gain competitive advantage is the goal of organization design. We will also refer to *transferring capabilities.* To transfer and, when necessary, adapt a company's capabilities or advantages is one of the key jobs of any manager when opening up a new location or unit.

Business model is a broad term used to encompass the internal logic of a company's method of doing business. It encompasses the business's value proposition, target customer segments, distribution channels, cost structure, and revenue model. For example, an Internet music site may operate on a subscription basis (unlimited songs available for a monthly fee) or on a straight fee-per-song basis. Each approach represents a different business model, although both companies are in the same business. Each model is built on a different revenue and cost structure, and therefore each company requires a different set of organizational capabilities to succeed.

A *business portfolio* is the set of product lines or business units that a firm manages. How similar (or different) the business models are for each of the units in the portfolio drives different organization design decisions. A *profit center* (often called a *business unit*) is a unit in an organization that is considered a separate entity for purposes of calculating revenue and cost. How much influence the manager of a profit center has over the variables that generate revenue and costs is also an organization design decision.

Organizational Capabilities: Translating Strategy into Design Criteria

Organization design is a series of choices and decisions. In any decision-making process, clear criteria serve the purpose of allowing alternatives to be evaluated against agreed-on standards. The criteria used for organization design decisions are the organizational capabilities that will differentiate the organization and help it execute its strategy. The organizational capabilities are the link between the strategy and organizational requirements the strategy demands. We use the words *organizational capability* and *design criteria* interchangeably.

Different strategies require different organizational capabilities and therefore different organization designs. The right design choices increase the likelihood of building the right organizational capabilities. Each design decision can be tested against the design criteria to determine if it will be helpful in creating the desired organizational capabilities. We can expand on

the definition of organizational capabilities offered above. Organizational capabilities are:

- Unique, integrated combinations of skills, processes, and human abilities. These are not simple programs or technologies that can be copied from other companies.
- Created by and housed within an organization. They are not bought or conferred by regulation or location or monopoly position. Rather, they are developed, refined, and protected internally.
- Factors that differentiate the organization and provide competitive advantage. This is important, as there are many things at which a company has to be as good at as its competitors, but just a few where it truly needs to be better.

How a company chooses to compete determines the most important organizational capabilities. For example, a pharmaceutical company developing novel prescription drugs requires a strong research and development capability and an ability to build relationships with physicians. But a pharmaceutical company that specializes in selling over-the-counter medicines needs efficient manufacturing processes and a strong consumer marketing capability. Some companies build a capability in product innovation. Procter & Gamble has not only a strong research and development capacity but also the capability of bringing ideas to market. Its Crest Whitestrips product comes from blending the company's technological expertise in the unrelated areas of bleaching, dental care, and adhesives. Other companies choose to compete based on marketing or distribution capabilities. The Campbell Soup Company does not necessarily make better soup than its competitors do. Instead, it creates innovative packaging and works effectively with retailers on displays that highlight the convenience of its product. Professional service firms such as Bechtel, which provides engineering and construction services, or Accenture, which provides consulting and outsourcing services, need different capabilities than consumer goods companies do. They compete on their abilities to staff and manage large-scale projects and to create and apply knowledge.

As a company's strategy changes, so do the differentiating organizational capabilities it needs. For example, Thorn Lighting, a U.K.-based firm, had a sixty-year history of innovation in the design and production of light bulbs. In the early 1990s, the company changed its strategy to focus on the more lucrative business of providing lighting solutions. It sold its manufacturing arm and now works with governments and property developers to design and implement lighting projects for stadiums, office complexes, and

highways. The company still maintains an expertise in lighting technology. However, the organizational capabilities required by the two business models are quite different. The original business was built on product design, manufacturing, and consumer marketing. The new organization is built on customer relationship management, large-scale project management, and integrated solutions development.

The process of identifying the most important organizational capabilities is the first step in drawing the connection between the strategy and the form of the organization. Once the capabilities have been identified, a set of organizational implications can be generated to form the basis for a discussion of alternatives. Metrics can also be developed as a way to gauge progress. Figure 1.2 illustrates the thought process—from strategy to organizational capabilities to organizational implications—for a Latin American division of a cable television network. This process engaged the network's leadership in collectively understanding and agreeing on the criteria that an acceptable organizational design would have to meet.

The identification of organizational capabilities is carried out by the leader or leadership team that has ultimate responsibility for design decisions. This is not an activity that can be delegated, as it requires the broad strategic perspective of the leadership level. These organization capabilities become the criteria against which all subsequent design decisions are judged, so they must be agreed on at the most senior level of the organization.
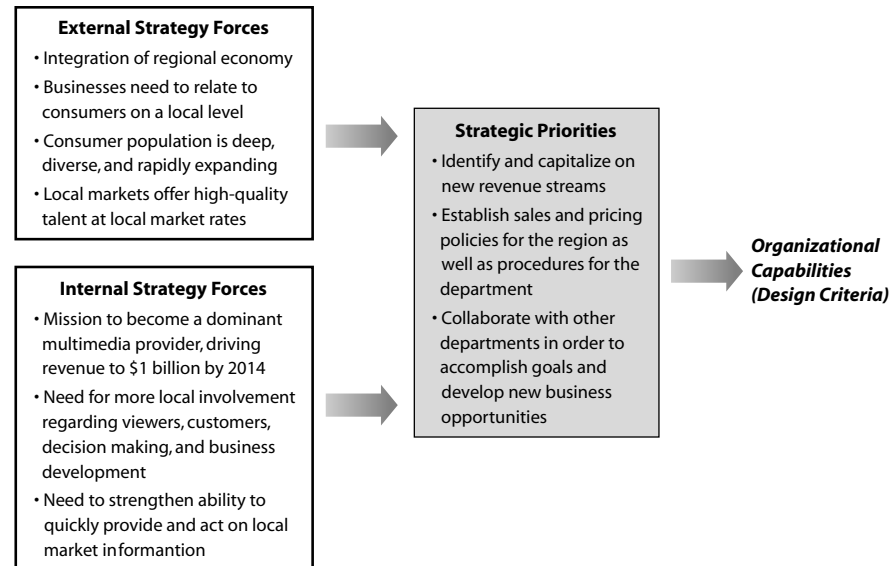
Once the design criteria are in place, the question can be asked at each step in the design process: Which option will better help us preserve or build the organizational capabilities we have said are critical to our success? We suggest that the leaders identify no more than five organizational capabilities to serve as design criteria. It is the act of generating possible capabilities and then narrowing them down into those that can truly differentiate the company that creates healthy discussion and debate about what direction is truly most important to the organization. The Developing Design Criteria tool located in the Appendix provides detailed guidance on identifying, selecting, and using organization capabilities in the design process.

Structure

An organization's structure determines where formal power and authority are located. Typically, units are formed around functions, products, geographies, or customers, and are then configured into a hierarchy for

FIGURE 1.2 **Example of Organizational Capabilities.**

External Strategy Forces
- Integration of regional economy
- Businesses need to relate to consumers on a local level
- Consumer population is deep, diverse, and rapidly expanding
- Local markets offer high-quality talent at local market rates

Strategic Priorities
- Identify and capitalize on new revenue streams
- Establish sales and pricing policies for the region as well as procedures for the department
- Collaborate with other departments in order to accomplish goals and develop new business opportunities

Organizational Capabilities (Design Criteria)

Internal Strategy Forces
- Mission to become a dominant multimedia provider, driving revenue to $1 billion by 2014
- Need for more local involvement regarding viewers, customers, decision making, and business development
- Need to strengthen ability to quickly provide and act on local market informantion

Organizational Capabilities	Organizational Implications	Metrics
Position our networks and products to meet local market interests	• Marketplace expertise/presence in the region • Empowered local business units with decision-making ability related to local matters • Increased level of knowledge and "feeling" of local markets • Improved speed, flexibility, and fluidity in the business • Focus on longer-term strategy and planning	• Relationships, accounts and viewers retained and added • Annual revenue growth • Annual profit growth • Designation of profit/loss responsibilities • Historical profitability by priority markets
Share talent across product lines	• Responsibilities, authority, and resources for identifying and responding to market expansion are clearly assigned • Clear line of accountability and responsibilities between all functions (especially country management and revenue) • Increase innovative capabilities • Talent is broadened, career opportunities are available	• Individual and departmental goals are aligned with business priorities • Goals are met • Talent ready for broader assignments
Execute new ideas efficiently	• Realize economies of scale • Avoid fragmentation • Minimal bureaucracy	• Average cost to produce • Our costs vs. competition • Overhead as a percentage of total costs

management and decision making. The structure is what is shown on a typical organization chart.

Organization design is not limited to structural considerations, and many variations of a structure can be made to work. But if the structure is not approximately right, then it will be harder to align the other design elements with the strategy. The structure sets out the reporting relationships, power distribution, and communication channels. It determines who comes

in contact with whom. The structure projects a message about what work is most important. If the structure does not at least nominally support the strategy, then everyone in the organization will find themselves working around a formidable obstacle.

The four primary building blocks of organizational structure are function, product, geography, and customer. We also refer to these as *structural dimensions.* Most companies use a mix of all four and add dimensions as the business grows. Small companies and those with a single product line are typically organized by function. As the firm diversifies, each new major product line becomes a product division, with each division organized by function. We would describe this as a *multidimensional* organization, structured primarily along the lines of product and secondarily by function. When the firm expands into new territories, a geographic dimension may be added. Recently, with the increase in customer buying power, many companies are finding the need to add customer segments and markets as a structural dimension. The complex organizations we discuss in this book generally have multidimensional structures. In order to analyze, understand, and design such organizations, it is useful to briefly review each dimension.

Functional Structure

A functional structure is organized around major activity groups such as finance, human resources, research and development, manufacturing, and marketing. All employees in each function are managed together in order to promote sharing of knowledge and greater specialization. Functional structures promote standardization, reduce duplication, and create economies of scale. The concept of *scale* arises often in organization design. In general, common work done together reduces its cost, providing the larger unit or firm with an advantage. However, grouping work together may also slow it down, and the advantages of scale will be outweighed by a decrease in speed.

The functional structure is suitable for small businesses. It is also good for large companies that are in a single line of business and need to realize the benefits of scale, such as retailers or semiconductor manufacturers. Variations of functional structures can be used successfully for different purposes. A fast food and a pharmaceutical company both use a functional organization. The fast food company is focused on low price and consistency. Its primary functions are therefore supply chain, marketing, training, real estate, and franchisee relations. A pharmaceutical firm's primary functions are focused on research and development, government relations,

FIGURE 1.3 **Functional Structures.**
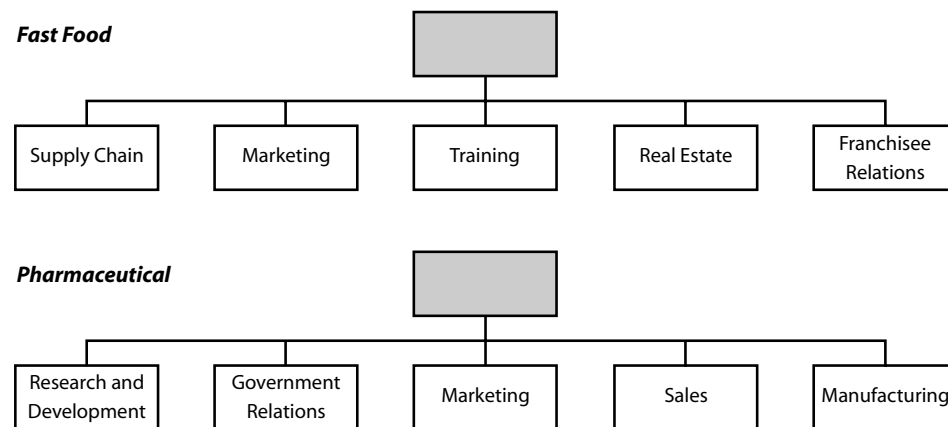
manufacturing, marketing, and sales. Although each company serves a wholly different customer base and relies on a different set of core functions, the functional structure is effective as a primary organizing dimension. Figure 1.3 illustrates a simplified structure for both.

When a company has only one fairly stable product line and long product development cycles are feasible, a functional structure can be used to advantage to create scale, expertise, and efficiency. This structure, however, becomes a barrier once the company diversifies and needs to manage a variety of products, services, channels, or customers, since all the coordination must be done by the senior management team. In a purely functional structure, there is no one with end-to-end responsibility for each product line below the level of the chief executive officer.

The functional dimension is useful under the following conditions:

- Single line of business serving one set of customers (for example, consumers or other businesses)
- Small organization or large, single business
- Need for depth of expertise and specialization
- Common standards are important
- Scale efficiencies
- Long product development and life cycles

Product Structure

Typically a functional structure evolves into a product structure when a company finds itself with multiple product lines that diverge in their underlying business models. For example, the fast food company may want to sell its products in the frozen foods section of supermarkets, or the pharmaceutical firm may want to branch out into medical devices. These new

product lines require different organizational capabilities and a different configuration of functional expertise. Therefore, the companies will likely set up a new product division for each business. The launch of a product line that requires its own organizational home will also result in a new profit center as well; therefore, we use the terms *product division* and *business unit* interchangeably.

Separating into product divisions brings three main advantages:

- Product development cycles can be compressed because all the employees focused on the product are housed together.
- Focusing more narrowly on one line of products can promote product improvements and innovations.
- New opportunities can be more easily pursued because of the autonomy afforded by the divisional structure. There is not the constraint of coordinating with other divisions.

Employees and managers generally like working in the product division structure. They develop a strong team identity around the products they produce and the markets they serve. Managers can focus on customer satisfaction and profitability. Measures and rewards are typically closely linked to business unit success, and both managers and employees can see the results from their decisions and actions. The divisions may share some basic functions at a corporate level, such as purchasing or finance, but most of the functions are housed in the discrete business units. The head of a product division is often referred to as a *general manager,* as he or she has control over almost all aspects of the business. As a result, the product division is also an effective way to develop well-rounded executive talent with experience running an end-to-end business. Figure 1.4 illustrates a typical structure for a manufacturer of diverse products with some shared functions at the corporate level.

Caterpillar is an example of a large company that moved from a functional structure to a product division structure (for example, loaders and excavators, tractors, mining equipment) in order to gain more focus and accountability for each of its product lines. As a result, the company has been able to reduce its product development cycle time for heavy machinery from seventy-two to thirty-six months by providing managers with a clearer line of sight and control over the variables important to the dynamics of their business units (Neilson and Pasternack, 2005).

Using the product division as a primary structural dimension does introduce some problems. First, knowledge within functions is not as easily shared; for example, a research and development breakthrough in one

FIGURE 1.4 **Product Structure.**
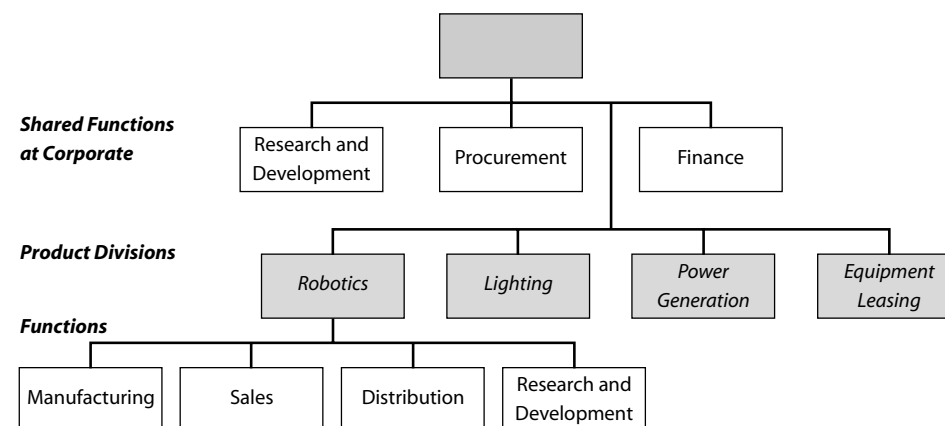
division that could be applied by another division may go unnoticed. Second, as opposed to leveraging scale, which a functional structure does, there may be duplication of effort by the functions housed in each division. This separation also creates policy and system divergence, as opposed to standardization, which may be problematic if there is a desire to build a common culture and operating practices across the divisions. The final disadvantage is that customers who wish to buy more than one product may be frustrated by having to deal with each division independently.

The product division structure is useful under the following conditions:

- Short product life cycles
- An emphasis on quick product development, new product features, and being first to market
- Multiple products that are produced for separate market segments
- Product lines with different underlying business models
- Product divisions large enough to achieve the minimum efficient scale required so that duplication of functions is not costly

Geographic Structure

The geographic dimension is employed as a company saturates its home market and grows by expanding into new territories. It is true that advances in communications and the rise of Internet shopping mean that fewer businesses need to have operations in the same physical locations where they have customers; nevertheless, when culture, language, or political factors influence buying patterns or when consumer behavior differs significantly by region, a geographic structure provides the local focus that can create competitive advantage. The benefit of having local managers focused on these differences is that they can tailor the company's standard products

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FIGURE 1.5 **Geographic Structure.**
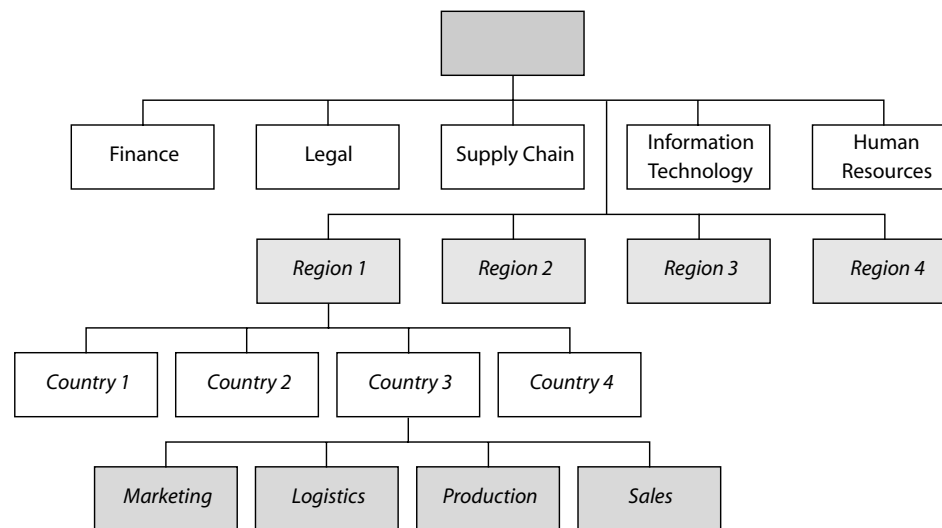
for local tastes and compete successfully against competitors that are more familiar with the local market. A geographic structure is also useful when the cost of transporting products is high or a service must be delivered locally.

Figure 1.5 illustrates the structure of a beverage bottling company that uses geography as its primary organizing dimension. Although the core products are standardized, differences among countries in product packaging, marketing, logistics, and the need to build good relationships with local government officials and retailers all require an organization that allows managers to focus on local conditions.

The disadvantages of the geographic structure are similar to those of the product division. Power and resources are controlled by regional or country managers, who may favor their own unit's needs over shared global or regional needs. As with the product division, the design challenge is to find the elements that can be shared across geographies while providing autonomy for managers to make local adaptations.

The geographic structure is useful under the following conditions:

- Transportation of materials to customers is costly, or the service is delivered on site.
- Buying patterns have strong local differences based on culture and language.
- The host government is active in the economic sector, and strong government and community relationships need to be developed.

Customer Structure

Functional, product, and geographic structures provide benefits for managers, but they do not necessarily provide an easy interface for the customer. Customers, particularly businesses buying from other business, often want a single point of contact, products customized to meet their needs, or an integrated bundle of services and products. The customer structure looks much like the product structure, except that divisions are based on *customer segments,* which are groups of customers who share similar needs, characteristics, or buying patterns.

Such a structure allows a dedicated service relationship and is often found in professional services firms and investment banks. An interesting example of an organization that uses a customer organization is the Internal Revenue Service (Rossotti, 2001). In the late 1990s, this U.S. government agency, which was originally structured by geography, was reorganized into four customer segments that reflect groups of taxpayers with similar characteristics: wage earners, sole proprietors and small businesses, medium and large businesses, and government and nonprofit entities. Each segment has full responsibility for serving its set of taxpayers. Managers therefore can focus on creating programs, services, and communications targeted for each group. Shared information technology services are housed at the corporate level, as are some small units that need to be independent, such as appeals, criminal investigation, and taxpayer advocacy services.

We can also illustrate here how other dimensions can be used at lower levels of the organization to match additional organizational needs. The medium and large-size business category is further segmented by customer into industry groups. Each of these industries has headquarters located in the city where the activity is concentrated, such as financial services in New York City and natural resources in Houston. The wage earner segment, however, is broken into geographic territories one level down in order to create regional offices close to the taxpayers. The high-level structure is shown in Figure 1.6.

The potential disadvantages of the customer structure are similar to those of the product division. Activities may be duplicated, incompatible systems might be developed to serve different sets of customers, and the advantages of scale can be lost. Such a structure also creates barriers when products or services are sold to multiple customer segments. However, when segments are highly differentiated or each segment is large enough to create scale on its own, then this is not an issue. For example, at the IRS, the wage earners segment serves 116 million taxpayers, allowing enough scale to deliver most functional activities cost-effectively.

FIGURE 1.6 **Customer Structure in the IRS.**
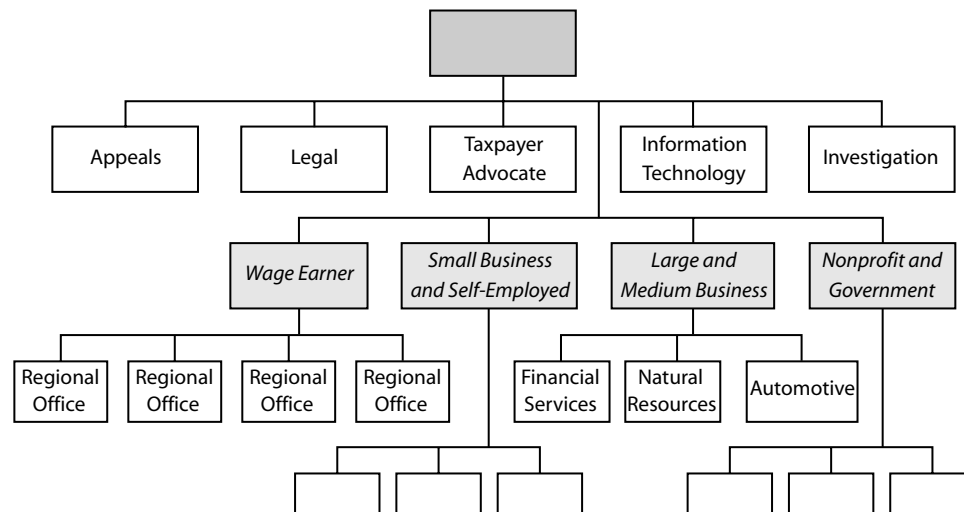
Source: Adapted from Rossotti (2001).

The customer structure is useful under the following conditions:

- Customers are powerful (whether through buying power or depth of relationship with the company) and demand customization and solutions.
- Deep customer knowledge provides an advantage.
- Customer segments can be differentiated in such a way that the products or services offered are unique to each customer group.
- The organization is large enough to achieve minimum efficient scale within each segment.

The *front-back structure* combines the advantages of the customer and product dimensions and is described in Chapter Two. The Structural Options tool located in the Appendix provides a summary of the advantages and disadvantages for each dimension.

Processes

Leaders frequently lament the organizational silos that prevent people from working together. *Silo* evokes an image of an invisible but windowless tower surrounding vertically stacked groups of people. These walls prevent the groups not just from interacting with one another but from even being able to see another group's perspective. "Breaking down the silos" is a common theme in discussions of organizational change.

All structures create silos. Whenever people are grouped according to one logic, boundaries are created that make it difficult for them to interact with groups formed according to a different logic. This is not a problem if the strategy does not require a high level of interaction or collaboration across these boundaries. But if the strategy does require collaboration, then the organization's structure—no matter how well thought out—will create some barriers to collaboration. The organizational challenge becomes how to bridge these internal boundaries and integrate activities. Processes and lateral connections provide the required mechanisms of integration.

We use the term *process* to mean a series of connected activities that move information up and down and across the organization. This includes work processes, such as developing a new product, closing a deal, or filling an order. It also includes management processes, such as planning and forecasting sales, business portfolio management, price setting, standards development, capacity management, and conflict resolution. Processes that cross organizational boundaries force organizational units to work together. Their design has a significant impact on how well units work together vertically or laterally. Clear articulation of roles and responsibilities at the boundary interfaces is essential for the design of good processes. The Responsibility Charting tool located in the Appendix can be used to help provide this clarity.

In addition to processes, *lateral connections* can be used to bridge barriers erected by an organization's structure. Lateral connections are generally less well understood than processes, and so are given more attention here. Lateral connections can be thought of as existing along a continuum, as shown in Figure 1.7. The horizontal axis represents the strength of connection between people or units, with personal networks forming a relatively weak connection and a matrix forcing a strong relationship. The vertical axis represents the cost, management time, and difficulty in using the lateral connection successfully. Costs include such things as reconfiguring information systems to aggregate data in new ways or meetings, which are notoriously time-consuming but are the vehicle for much lateral coordination work. Networks are relatively inexpensive and easy to foster, whereas a matrix is one of the most difficult organizational forms to master. Each type of lateral connection is briefly reviewed below.

Networks are the webs of interpersonal relationships that people form across organizations and serve to coordinate work informally. Healthy networks are the foundation for all other lateral connections. While networks

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FIGURE 1.7 **Continuum of Lateral Connections.**
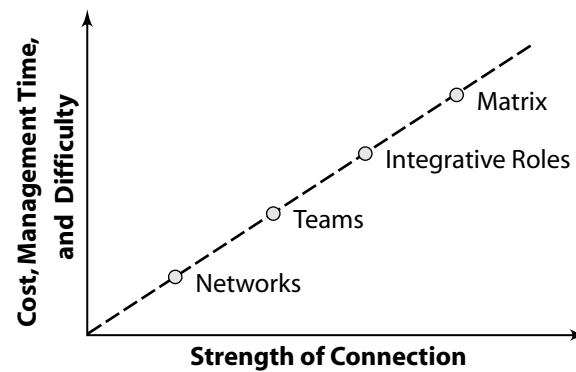
are voluntary and do occur spontaneously, there are a number of ways that management can influence and encourage them:

- Co-locate people who need to work together, and design the physical space to encourage informal interaction.
- Create communities of practice that bring together employees who are in different organizational units but have a shared interest (for example, an emerging technology, a common customer, or research interest), either for face-to-face meetings or virtually, through an intranet.
- Use meetings, retreats, and training programs to build relationships among individuals from different units.
- Rotate work assignments to bring knowledge, relationships, and culture from one unit to another and create understanding and appreciation for different organizational perspectives.
- Use technology and e-coordination to make knowledge sharing easy and help staff find others with complementary skills or interests.

The Relationship Map tool in the Appendix provides more guidance for analyzing and building interpersonal networks.

Teams are cross-business structures that bring people together to work interdependently and share collective responsibility for outcomes. A team can be configured around any dimension. If the primary structure is functional, a team can focus its work on another dimension: product, customer, or geography. Teams are more formal than networks. Participation is required rather than voluntary, and a team's charter will specify accountability and expected outcomes. Teams typically require a leader or project manager, dedicated resources, and senior-level sponsorship and attention and are thus more costly than networks. An example is shown in Figure 1.8. In this illustration of an information technology organization, a customer

FIGURE 1.8 **Cross-Business Team.**

Branch Banking Customer Team
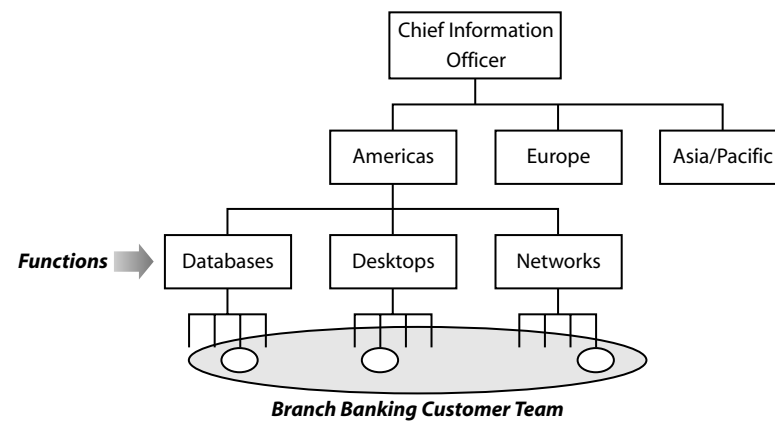
team is used to coordinate across the database, desktop, and network functional units on behalf of the branch banking business customer.

Integrative roles provide a higher level of coordination than teams. Teams are typically staffed by people who remain in their business unit and devote part of their time to the team's mission, or are pulled out of their unit to participate on the team for a limited period of time. An integrative role is a full-time manager charged with orchestrating work across units. A customer relationship manager and a brand manager are examples of integrative roles. They have accountability for results but do not directly manage the resources they need to achieve these results. Successful integrators are people who have high credibility and strong influence skills. An example of an integrative role is shown in Figure 1.9, which builds on the example in Figure 1.8. In addition to the customer team, there is now an account manager for the customer dimension in this illustration to create additional focus and coordination.

A *matrix* is a set of dual reporting relationships used to balance two or more dimensions in an organization. Networks, teams, and integrative roles all serve to integrate a secondary dimension. The matrix allows both dimensions to be equal. Selected roles in the organization report to two managers from different units, representing distinct structural dimensions. Because these managers are required to jointly set objectives, resolve conflicting priorities, and manage performance of the shared resources, they are forced to take a broader view than if they focused solely on one dimension of the business.

In the example shown in Figure 1.10, the organizational dimensions of function and customer are equally important. The matrixed manager has to balance the perspectives and objectives of each organizational

FIGURE 1.9 **Integrative Role.**
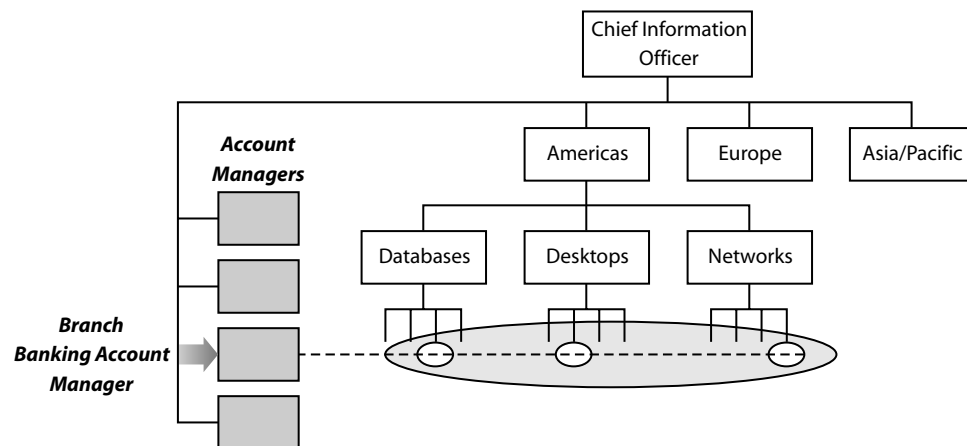
dimension when making decisions. For example, if asked to upgrade the desktop operating system for the branch banking business, he will have to ensure that it meets the global standards set by the desktop functional area and satisfies the needs of the branch banking customer. The matrix forces managers at a lower level in the organization to make decisions from a general management perspective.

The matrix can also promote a much more flexible and efficient use of resources, since teams do not have to be duplicated along every dimension. However, the successful use of a matrix requires a well-functioning management team, above the level of the matrixed manager, that can jointly manage the conflicts that inevitably arise.

Processes and lateral connections are the principal means of coordinating activities. Well-designed processes and lateral connections ensure that the right people are brought together to speed decision making. They allow more decisions to be made closer to customers and the activities affected, and also allow the company to be responsive to multiple constituencies.

FIGURE 1.10 **Matrix.**
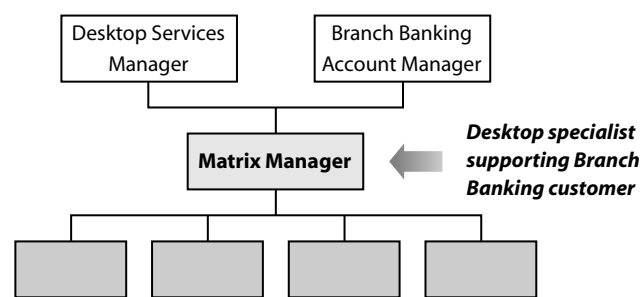
By designing and managing lateral connections, the leader gains increased ability to respond to opportunities and challenges. The carefully considered use of processes and lateral connections can be used to avoid the need to restructure when strategy shifts. The underlying structure can remain a stable home for employees, while processes and lateral connections are quickly reconfigured. A new strategic direction can be implemented with the majority of the organization still focusing on current work. For example, customer teams can be used as an interim step in reorienting a product structure toward customer segments. We refer to an organization's *lateral capability* as its ability to build, manage, and reconfigure its processes and lateral connections in the service of its strategic goals. Strong lateral capability is fundamental to all of the complex organizational forms discussed in this book. The Selecting Lateral Connections tool in the Appendix summarizes the options.

Rewards

Metrics and rewards align individual behaviors and performance with the organization's goals. For employees, a company's scorecard and reward system communicate what the company values more clearly than any written statement can. *Metrics* are the measures used to evaluate individual and collective performance. The *reward system* motivates employees and reinforces the behaviors that add value to the organization through salary, bonuses, stock, recognition, and benefits.

In complex organizations, the overriding challenge in designing metrics and rewards is how to create incentives for collaborative behavior. Rewards based on simple bottom-line measures that work for self-contained units cannot drive business results in organizations that depend heavily on cross-unit coordination. In complex organizations, variable compensation (that is, pay above base salary) typically tends to focus on team, unit, and business performance more than on individual accomplishment. Some questions to consider in designing rewards are these:

- *Level.* At what level should results and behaviors be measured and rewarded: team, department or unit, division, or company? How high up in the organization should results be aggregated before being rewarded? What level will still allow employees to feel they are being measured on the outcomes of their decisions and actions?
- *Locus of measure.* What is the appropriate configuration of profit centers? Should the product, customer, or geographic unit be accountable for business results? How does the organization create accountability

and transparency and minimize overhead cost allocations? How does it apportion credit among the multiple dimensions?

- *Behaviors.* What are the behaviors and actions that are essential to supporting desired strategic outcomes (for example, responsiveness, follow-up and communication, knowledge sharing, leading and participating in teams, cultural acuity, relationship building, influence, developing talent, and other organizational infrastructure contributions)? How do these get acknowledged in the performance management process?

- *Evaluation process.* Who should assess the performance that rewards are based on? What is the role of customers, peers, direct reports, lower-level staff, and colleagues from other departments? How does the organization create rigor around what can become a subjective evaluation of required behaviors?

Throughout this book and in the context of the strategy and organizational form being discussed in a particular chapter, we point out planning, measurement, and reward practices that help to answer these questions.

People

By *people practices,* we mean the human resource policies for selection, staffing, training, and development that are established to help form the capabilities and mind-sets necessary to carry out the organization's strategy. The complex organizations discussed in this book require a sophisticated management team that understands how to use the organization as a lever for competitive advantage. But it is not just managers who need to have strong organizational and interpersonal skills. Complex organizations require employees at all levels to have a fundamental set of competencies to interact across organizational boundaries, participate on teams, and make decisions that take multiple perspectives into account. The competencies that the organization needs to select for and develop include the ability to:

- View issues holistically and from cross-functional and cross-cultural perspectives
- Negotiate and influence without formal authority or positional power
- Build relationships and networks and skillfully work through informal channels
- Advocate and collaborate without bullying or compromising
- Share decision rights and resources and make joint decisions with peers
- Exhibit flexibility and resolve conflicts

- Manage projects with discipline
- Make decisions in situations of ambiguity and change

Management must also model these abilities and behaviors. Transparency and open communication channels between employees and managers create an important foundation for all of these competencies. In our discussions of various organizational forms, we highlight the talent and human resource considerations relevant to each model.

Design Principles

A number of themes run through this book. They are summarized here in the form of design principles. We have chosen these few to emphasize based on our experience consulting with organizations, combined with our understanding of the rich body of research that has been conducted on organizational design.

Requisite Complexity

Ashby's dictum from 1952—that an organization should be as complex as its business requires—still holds true. Today's leaders, while trying to respond to the increased demands of the market and speed of competition yet keep their organizations manageable, have to challenge themselves. Have we simplified too much in a desire to make our leadership task easier? Have we failed to build an organization that can achieve all aspects of our strategy? Conversely, some questions arise about whether an organization is too complex. Have we exceeded human limitations? Have we created too many interactions and interfaces for our people to manage? Can we achieve the same outcomes more simply and introduce complexity only where absolutely needed? Organizations can be designed so that managers have simple roles in a complex structure or, alternatively, work in a simple structure but end up with highly complex jobs. Complexity cannot be avoided, but it can be intelligently designed and managed.

Complementary Sets of Choices

The choices one has among structures, processes, rewards, and people practices are many. However, once a strategic path is set, the number of suitable choices for each point on the Star Model is reduced. The organization designer learns what sets of complementary choices work best together and assists the organization's leaders to build, align, and optimize these alternatives.

Coherence, Not Uniformity

A large, complex organization—particularly one that spans geographic boundaries—rarely has a simple structure. Rather, it can be thought of as a set of differentiated networks, in which each suborganization is designed in accordance with the environment in which it must operate (Nohria and Ghoshal, 1997). Leaders can make their organizations responsive to local conditions and at the same time remain coherent by differentiating where appropriate, and then using integrative mechanisms to link the organization into one system.

Active Leadership

With the interaction of many dimensions in an organization, priorities must be clear, or decision making falters and strategy execution slows. Leaders must clearly and continually communicate strategy and priorities throughout the organization so that employees know where to focus and how to make intelligent trade-offs. Successful complex organizations are guided and led by visible and active leaders who not only communicate strategy but also create the decision frameworks in which employees operate. They do not shy away from conflicts, complexity, or difficult choices.

Reconfigurability

An organization's internal rate of change has to be as fast as the rate of change in its external environment. But the larger the organization is, the harder it is to change. An organization's lateral capability—that is, its ability to bring the right people together quickly around risks or opportunities—is its most powerful means for changing direction. With robust lateral capability, processes and lateral connections can be rerouted and new ones created to shift priorities. They can even be designed in advance in anticipation of changes in strategic direction.

Evolve, Do Not Install

Lateral connections are cumulative. The capabilities developed at a lower level are necessary for the next level to work well. For example, for an organization to be able to use teams effectively, strong, informal networks must have already been developed. Build lateral capabilities by beginning at the low end of the continuum and working upward. As people in the organization gain the necessary skills and behaviors, begin instituting the next type of lateral connection if the strategy calls for it. Installing a matrix,

rather than evolving toward it through the use of networks, teams, and integrative roles, is usually a recipe for failure.

Start with the Lightest Coordinating Mechanism

Coordination is expensive in terms of management time and attention. Always use the lightest touch when selecting what lateral form to use, choosing the least costly and least difficult coordination process to meet the required objectives. That is, start with networks and teams, and move to integrative roles and a matrix only if required.

Make Interfaces Clear

To manage complexity, spend time designing and clarifying interfaces. When interfaces between units are numerous and unclear, the amount of communication necessary can become overwhelming, and coordination suffers. Help the people who will be working at the interfaces understand the intentions and implications of the design.

Organize Rather Than Reorganize

Successful companies are continually evaluating and adjusting their organizations. Leaders of these firms form and communicate a picture of the future ideal and move toward it every day. Rather than periodic reorganization events that cause the organization to lurch forward, leaving employees with whiplash, aim for 80 percent initial alignment, with a plan for how to continue organizing toward the ideal.

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In this chapter, we have introduced the fundamental concepts of organization design. The Star Model provides both a decision-making framework and a starting point to help leaders think about the interaction of strategy, structure, processes, rewards, and people. To begin the organization design process requires articulating the organizational capabilities to execute the strategy. These become the criteria for all further design decisions regarding the complementary sets of structures, processes, rewards, and people practices.

We also discussed how the organization needs to be as complex as the surrounding environment demands. The structural dimensions of function, product, geography, and customer should be configured based on the strategy. Different parts of the organization can be configured differently based on the external conditions they face and the challenges that need

to be addressed. Decision making and activities are coordinated through processes and lateral connections. Lateral connections—networks, teams, integrative roles, matrices—are key elements of reconfigurability, which provides competitive advantage in a world of constant change.

The following chapters use the concepts introduced here and prepare you to confront five of the critical organizational design decisions that managers face today: designing around the customer, organizing globally, making a matrix work, making decisions about what to centralize and what to decentralize, and how to organize for innovation.