

The contribution of market intelligence to tactical and strategic business decisions

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Abstract: This study examines the drivers of both strategy success in the marketplace and the role of market intelligence. It surveys a broad cross section of firms regarding their level of market intelligence; MI data sources and MI reliability. Regarding MI accuracy and its value to consumer/competitive intelligence, two-thirds of the companies indicated a significant increase in level of activity and nearly three-fifths (54 percent) said the impact of MI contributes heavily to tactical and strategic decision making. One-third said activity was level, while 14 percent indicated a reduction. 44 percent indicated MI contributed significantly to decision making and 67 percent felt MI contributed to strategy and success in the marketplace. Regarding MI sources, customers, manufacturing, and R&D are the central sources. Regarding MI accountability, about half held marketing accountable for MI.

Introduction

Implementing a strategy is not an easy task for American industrial organizations. Many US companies survived in the past even though they did not have a clear sense of where they were going, since the resource pool seemed to be unlimited. But today resource allocations are much different and competition is often fierce for the scarce resources that exist. Firms today will not exist without a clear strategic direction. Regardless of company size, the planning process is the same. This process is a clear continuous process driven by market strategy that is dictated by customers and the portfolio mix of the customer (Warner, 1987). One of the drivers of both strategy and success in the marketplace is the role of market intelligence.

Background

All businesses have strategies, which are the methods used to make and sell products or perform services. Often, strategies are determined by a company's reaction to events beyond its control rather than by solid market intelligence and strategic planning. But the question asked is why do firms plan? The answer is simple: competitive advantage (Day, 1984).

Several factors contribute to organizational growth in both size and complexity. Decision making gets more and more complex as the size of the business and market share increases, as does the inverse when downsizing and market share decreases. This implies a critical need for strategic focus - focusing on customer/

competitive analysis. Both elements are critically dependent on rigorous marketing intelligence (Bernhardt, 1994).

In order for companies to maximize opportunity, they must first assess their strategic position. Only then will management be able to decide where and how the company should position itself. Evaluations of past performance, marketing strengths and weaknesses, reputation for quality products, utilization issues and mission need to be addressed. All of these issues can be addressed by strategic planning and good marketing intelligence (Jaworski and Wee, 1993).

If a company utilizes marketing intelligence systems, the output can result in sound marketing decisions which can be one of the best sources of competitive advantage. The relative importance of planning and marketing intelligence is absolutely required if a firm wants to stay in step with dynamic market conditions. Marketing intelligence provides a meaningful input by providing firms with information that allows for sound decision making (Gilad, 1991). The goal of business is usually clear: maximize profitability and return on investment. Just as a team without a game plan is unlikely to win, a company without clearly defined strategies will not likely meet its objectives for growth and profitability (Holloway, 1986). A driving force in meeting strategic objectives is the marketing intelligence system.

Issues

The value of a marketing intelligence system can be substantial since decision making



regarding strategy has a direct impact on the bottom line. If the intelligence system provides timely and relevant information, then the value added by the system can be measured in terms of risk aversion.

Minimizing risk and maximizing profit are a natural extension of the system. A basic tenet can be drawn that MI adds value to strategic decision making and its importance has not diminished. To support this position, a survey of a cross-section of 50 consumer, industrial and service firms were surveyed in southwestern Pennsylvania. Over half the firms were industrial firms. Four key issues were evaluated in the effective deployment of a marketing intelligence system:

- (1) activity and value of MI in the support of customer/competitive analysis;
- (2) value of data sources integral to MI;
- (3) location of MI accountability in the organization;
- (4) level and trend of MI resources.

Findings

MI value

Regarding issue 1, MI activity and value to consumer/competitive intelligence, two-thirds of the companies indicated a dramatic increase in level of activity and nearly three-fifths (54 per cent) said the impact of MI contributes heavily to tactical and strategic decision making. One third said activity was level, while none indicated a reduction; 44 per cent indicated MI contributed somewhat to decision making and only 2 per cent felt MI contributed little. Value ratings for the strategic planning functions in the areas of consumer/competitive intelligence are shown in Table I. High ratings here are defined as percent of respondents rating MI value primary. Five of the ten functions received high ratings with No. 1 providing focus on marketing and sales at 84 per cent No. 2 determining market potential, and No. 3 forecasting product demand at 67 per cent.

Table I
 Value of MI by strategic function

Function	Percent rating as primary benefit - rank order
Focuses marketing and sales initiatives	84
Determines market potential	67
Forecasts product demand	67
Provides sales forecasting	64
Improves local MI	53
Input to R & D initiatives	50
Defines buyer behavior variables	43
Guides production and distribution adjustments	27
Improves sales conversion rate	27

Low rated functions include guiding production and distribution adjustments (27 per cent) and industry sales forecasting (23 per cent). The highly valued functions focus around the front end of planning, i.e. target market definition, while the low rated functions cluster around the back end of planning, i.e. implementation adjustments in production and distribution, and sales conversion improvement. This suggests that MI effectiveness needs to be increased in the back end planning functions (Prescott and Bhardwaj, 1995).

MI data sources

Regarding issue 2, value of various data sources integral to MI, value was measured by a rating scale (5 - very important, 4 - important to 1 - not important). Table II lists each data source and reports in rank order the percentage of companies rating high, i.e. at a 4 level or above.

Regarding internal data sources, the main players found on cross functional buying teams - customers, manufacturers and R&D - are universally rated at 4 or above. Following closely behind at a near 80 per cent rating is the sales force and physical product at 64 per cent. The remaining sources are all near 50 per cent - ranging from 58 per cent down to 43 per cent. Seven of the nine sources scored 50 per cent or better in high ratings.

Only five of nine external sources scored 50 per cent or better in high ratings. Clients, dealers, and customers topped the list with a more than two-third high rating. Only half of market research projects garnered high ratings, while hard copy publications (periodicals and government sources) were at or below 40 per cent in high ratings.

MI accountability

Regarding venues of MI accountability, about half (46 per cent) of the firms assign MI accountability to marketing. A quarter assign MI to sales. The remaining quarter is scattered among finance, planning, and other, i.e. corporate division management. This is surprising, given MI is a subset of the marketing function and perhaps is a proxy for dissatisfaction with marketing-housed MI on the part of corporate users (Prescott and Smith, 1989).

Level and trend of MI resources

About three-quarters of the sample companies have MI employees; 85 per cent of these are full time. Only one third of the companies farm out their MI demands to outside consultants and in most of these cases the incidence was less than 10 contracts; 42 per cent of the companies

Table II
Rating MI data sources

Data source	Percent rating 4 or higher – rank order
Internal	
1. Customers	100
2. Manufacturers	100
3. Research and development	100
4. Sales force	78
5. Physical evidence (product or prototype)	64
6. Sales quotes	58
7. Sales records	50
8. Trade shows	48
9. New hires	43
External	
1. Client meetings	100
2. Dealers/distributors	68
3. Customers	67
4. Business associates	58
5. Market research projects	51
6. Suppliers	45
7. On line services	44
8. Periodicals	40
9. Government publications	33

reported that their MI expenditures had risen dramatically (over 25 per cent). The remainder reported flat expenditures with none reducing expenditures.

Implications

Many companies recognize the critical connection between strategic planning and MI. Two-thirds of those sampled have increased MI expenditures dramatically and three-fifths said MI had a heavy impact on their tactical and strategic decision making. Companies that realize the advantages to be gained through MI usually have a strong foothold in the market in which they operate, depending on the quality of the data and consistently updating the data. It is our belief that the trend to use MI will continue to rise and companies that fail to recognize the need for MI will lose their strategic and competitive advantage. The backward thinking firm that believes downsizing MI will increase profits through cost reduction will find just the opposite, as weak MI reduces its visionary capability, and therefore its market leadership. Furthermore, MI's highest contributions are to the front end strategic planning functions – market targeting, estimation of market potential and forecasting product demand. Research shows that strategic success is most highly dependent on strong planning capabilities in the front end (Gilad, 1991). To

ignore the potential of MI's contribution is to weaken this most critical input component of planning, thereby weakening one of the most important activities of the firm.

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From marketing research to competitive intelligence: Useful generalization or loss of focus?

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A child of marketing

Competitive intelligence, as a distinct field, started out as a specialized activity nested under marketing research and known as "marketing intelligence". In this role, the field applied specialized tools of investigation (many of which were inspired by espionage) to examine the marketplace. This paper uses the term espionage in a different way than many competitive intelligence writers. In the jargon of the field, espionage refers to illegal techniques of gaining information; although I do not quarrel with that definition, I use the term espionage to refer to intuitive and qualitative methods which result when diverse forms of information are used in a "catch as catch can" way. Members of the marketing profession have long been interested in understanding the strategies, capabilities, and options of their rivals. Gaining these insights is the essence of competitive intelligence.

Indeed, by carefully and systematically monitoring a rival's activities, valuable clues can be gathered. If you are aware of a competitor's "test marketing" activities, for example, it may be possible to predict the rival's future products and strategies. Go to a trade show and hang around the cocktail parties; one of the legends you will hear concerns a company that discovered when and where a rival was "test marketing" new products; by secretly monitoring the competitor's own research, it became possible for a rival to develop attractive alternatives which, thereby, succeeded in the marketplace. Most of these cocktail party anecdotes, incidentally, are set in the past because today's competitive intelligence practitioners have devised ways of protecting their organizations from this kind of spying. In the final analysis, intelligence performs two separate tasks; one offensively seeks information about competitors while the other is

defensive in nature and works to protect the organization's proprietary information from prying eyes.

Although competitive intelligence evolved out of marketing (with the aid of espionage), the activities of the discipline have come to serve all business functions. "Research and development" people seek to monitor rival organizations while safeguarding their own data. Possessing information such as the production capabilities of a competitor's factories, furthermore, can provide valuable insights. The financial health of a competitor may influence a decision to confront the rival "head on" or (as an alternative) to strategically avoid direct conflict. Although competitive intelligence began as a special area of marketing research, it has grown beyond its origins and today it provides information in all these areas.

Parallels between competitive intelligence and marketing research, however, remain; the real trick for both marketing researchers and competitive intelligence practitioners is to appropriately envision how and why competitive intelligence has expanded beyond its original roots and missions. A good first step in this process is to consider a brief history of the evolution of the field; this will be our point of departure.

A thumbnail history of competitive intelligence

Certainly, some activities associated with competitive intelligence go back thousands of years; thus, Judas Iscariot was bribed into revealing Christ's location. In the past, however, the techniques of intelligence were not systemized and the people who performed this sort of work were not a distinctive group with unique methods and traditions. It was not until our era that competitive intelligence emerged as a distinct discipline in its own right. The work of William T. Kelley can be used to suggest the

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research methodology

fact

history of competitive intelligence (as an organizational function and its evolution out of marketing research) are discussed. This is a straight historical overview of the transition from marketing research to competitive intelligence. This paper is analyzed in order to determine both the potential strengths and weaknesses of having intelligence form an independent, "freestanding" discipline. Military analogies can be used to describe organizations should they choose to embrace the marketing concept which centers on competition and service, not con-

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origins of competitive intelligence as a distinct entity. In specific, Kelley's book *Marketing Intelligence...* (1965), introduced the field of intelligence, while his influential article in the *Journal of Marketing* (Kelley, 1968) provides a short and readable account which was easily available to management. Kelley's seminal work was quickly followed up with Richard L. Pinkerton's influential five-article series (Pinkerton, 1969) in *Industrial Marketing* entitled "How to develop a marketing intelligence system". These documents can be seen as representative of the pioneering intellectual foundations of the field. Although the general paradigm employed by intelligence stemmed primarily from marketing research, some early observers noted that the field transcended its roots. William T. Kelley, himself, observed on the first page of his seminal work "Marketing research is a tool of great value to the marketing intelligence worker. However, there is a considerable difference" (Kelley, 1965, p. 1). Having made this point, Kelley goes on to discuss the traditions of spying and espionage which he notes go back thousands of years.

The next generation in the evolution of competitive intelligence, can, perhaps, best be discussed with reference to the work of Michael E. Porter. Porter's first book, *Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analyzing Industries and Competitors* (Porter, 1980), and his later *Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance* (Porter, 1985) were aimed at practitioners, not academics, and they drew the attention of executives to the fact that competitive intelligence was a much needed business function. Still, Porter's work primarily provided guidelines on how to process existing intelligence information in useful ways, and it tended to covertly assume that intelligence information (and/or the tools required to professionally gather it) already existed. Nonetheless, the field of competitive intelligence was enjoying a high profile as a distinct business function; as a result, it was gaining a reputation as a valuable organizational activity.

In the 1980s and 1990s, practitioners (while continuing to focus on how decision makers can use business intelligence in strategic ways) have begun to concentrate more and more upon the techniques of the field. Various thinkers have become identified with specific perspectives. Vella and McGonagle (1987) center upon the use of computers. Writers like Tyson (1990) provide

"how to" manuals which are reminiscent of Pinkerton's pioneering series of articles. Today, a wealth of useful publications are emerging which help organizations to more effectively pursue activities related to intelligence; examples include Paula Bernstein's (1998) *Finding Statistics Online* and Carole Lane's (1998) *Naked in Cyberspace: How to Find Personal Information On line*.

The work of Leonard Fuld, however, is perhaps, most representative of the current state of the art of competitive intelligence. Fuld's definitive work is his *Competitive Intelligence: How to Get It; How to Use It* (1985); it is a seminal book which helped revolutionize the field. As the years went on, Fuld has emerged as a keystone figure, not merely because of his writing but also because he is the founder of a major consulting firm dedicated to competitive intelligence; this organization provides training, performs consulting services that are tailored to the needs of specific clients, and the Fuld organization has a Web site which provides a wide range of information and advice. (The address of the Fuld Website is WWW.fuld.com - much useful information can be found there free of charge and it is highly recommended.) Fuld's orientation also represents the emerging generalization of the discipline of competitive intelligence in ways that transcends its roots in marketing research. Not only are conceptualizations, such as those represented by Fuld, broader and better able to serve in a wider arena of strategic circumstances, the resulting visions of competitive intelligence have helped popularize a number of metaphors for competitive intelligence (such as those based on military analogies). While looking to links between espionage and competitive intelligence goes back at least to Kelley's pioneering work (1968), it has become more refined and focused in recent years.

Because competitive intelligence has roots in marketing research, marketers will feel at home with the field. Marketers, however, should be careful to avoid the seductive sense that competitive intelligence is little more than a superficial refinement of their field and that (aside from a few *ad hoc* details) they already understand it. Here, while acknowledging similarities and borrowings, we will simultaneously center upon significant differences between marketing research and competitive intelligence. As a result, we will focus upon specific tools and orientations that make competitive intelligence unique.

A distinct field

As argued above, competitive intelligence started out as an extension of marketing research. As time has gone on, however, the field has developed its own traditions, methods, and universe of discourse. Here, we will concentrate upon these developments and why they are important for executives, decision makers, and strategic planners.

First, although competitive intelligence evolved out of marketing research, it has developed its own methods and tools. The field has been spurred by the computer revolution, the wealth of data available via the Internet, and the need for techniques that have been specifically designed around the current situation. Other technological developments (such as the availability of satellite photographs) make it possible for competitive intelligence professionals to study a wealth of empirical data which until recently was completely unavailable. Owing to the nature of much of these data, furthermore, special methods for analyzing them have been created. In general, these techniques (following Kelley's lead) are inspired by the methods of espionage. Another way in which competitive intelligence has become distinct from marketing research is the fact that competitive intelligence practitioners are responsible for protecting the organization's own proprietary information, not merely gathering data. Thus, the field has both offensive and defensive responsibilities.

While marketing research tends to be envisioned merely in terms of the marketing function, furthermore, competitive intelligence has come to be viewed as a more generalized discipline that simultaneously serves several business functions. As a result, the field often performs specific research projects on demand for various divisions within the organization. Since this is true, practitioners might actively seek to combine projects in useful and/or more efficient ways. Working for many masters, competitive intelligence practitioners may need to prioritize their assignments. It is not at all unusual for corporate intelligence professionals to publish an ongoing "organ" or newsletter to disseminate their findings. We can see, therefore, that corporate intelligence, while evolving from marketing research, has mutated itself into a significantly different entity and one which serves the entire organization, not merely the marketing function.

Today's competitive intelligence professionals often resent being equated with spies. They, in contrast, tend to view themselves as information monitors and research practitioners; most of their professional life, furthermore, may be spent "online" getting electronic information or "writing up" the results. This generalization is true even though a certain amount of clandestine work may be performed. Unlike a spy movie, however, competitive intelligence work tends to be fairly routine and performed within the limits of the law. It is legal and mundane, for example, to go to a factory and note if the parking lot is full during the second shift. Although this fact could be routinely and legally checked, it may prove to be an invaluable clue regarding the health of the company (or its ability to quickly raise production). By combining this fact with other bits of information which can be legally gathered by consulting the public record (such as seeing if a building permit has been issued to the company), it may be possible to extrapolate a mosaic that reveals a competitor's future strategies, strengths, and weaknesses. The conclusions drawn from the information made available via competitive intelligence are usually not based on "hard facts"; instead, they constitute a number of independent observations woven together with inference and intuition. If all the data at our disposal point in the same direction, however, fairly reliable conclusions can result, and these intuitive judgments can form the basis of a forceful strategic response. It is the discipline of competitive intelligence that gathers and processes this kind of qualitative, intuitive information.

If there is an ethos of competitive intelligence, it is the "warfare" atmosphere. Competitive intelligence professionals tend to think of strategy in the same way that military leaders do and they are prone to view their organization and its rivals as competing armies. Given the impact of espionage upon competitive intelligence, it is easy to see how a military analogy has gained a hold. And, no doubt, military analogies are appropriate in numerous situations. Still, this military focus and its influence has given competitive intelligence a specific personality, and one which may not be ideal in all situations.

The successes and unique contributions of competitive intelligence have resulted in the field being recognized as a separate discipline; today it exists as a formal and distinct entity within many companies. Not only that, the profession has its own literature (with

journals such as *Competitive Intelligence Review*), an array of consulting firms providing a range of services, and a strong professional association, the Society of Competitive Intelligence Professionals. (Those who are interested in this organization may wish to visit the association's Website at [HTTP://www.scip.org](http://www.scip.org)). The field of competitive intelligence, therefore, has come a long way since it was an afterthought of marketing research. Circumstances have coupled with the internal development of the field to give competitive intelligence prestige and clout in today's corporate world.

The qualitative imperative

Simultaneous with the emergence of competitive intelligence, as a separate entity, is the fact that in recent years the marketing profession has actively sought to expand beyond "scientific" and quantitative methods and it has done so by embracing qualitative alternatives. As we will see, competitive intelligence has also independently embraced an array of qualitative research tools, but it has done so independently of marketing. This parallel interest in qualitative methods creates similarities between competitive intelligence and marketing research, even though the two fields have diverged in other ways.

In the last 15 years, marketing research has increasingly sought to embrace qualitative models. The reason for doing so stems from the fact that quantitative methods have proved to be incapable of effectively dealing with a range of research questions. One research stream of marketing seeks to embrace the qualitative techniques of the social sciences. Especially significant in this regard is the ethnographic work of scholars such as Russell Belk, Melanie Wallendorf, and John Sherry; a few years ago, these scholars and their colleagues collaborated on a research project known as the Odyssey (Belk, 1990), which overtly applied ethnographic methods developed in anthropology to examples of consumer research. Since then, qualitative fieldwork methods have been applied to investigating behavior such as holiday celebrations. These scholars and their research have demonstrated the value of a range of techniques that are inspired by qualitative social sciences, such as anthropology and "face to face" sociology. While the methods of the "marketing ethnographers" were initially considered to be "off beat" by marketing researchers, today they are prestigious and state-of-the-art.

While some marketing researchers have embraced the social sciences, others have looked to the humanities for qualitative techniques that can be applied to marketing. Sidney Levy's seminal article (1981) on the use of mythology in marketing research is an early example of this trend. In more recent years, consumer researchers have contributed to this research stream. In general, these scholars apply the techniques of literary criticism (another qualitative methodology) to marketing and consumer research. (Much of my work which has appeared in *Management Decision* can be roughly placed within this research tradition although it has evolved independently of it.) Combined, qualitative techniques from the social sciences and humanities have emerged within marketing research and they are being applied to a wide range of scholarly and practitioner problems.

In different, but somewhat parallel, ways, competitive intelligence has innovated its own qualitative toolkit and it has developed and deployed it in ways which can be usefully applied to both marketing and to other business functions. While marketing has looked to the social sciences and humanities for inspiration, however, competitive intelligence has borrowed techniques from the art of espionage. As we all know, those who make military decisions often must use incomplete, inferior, and "catch as catch can" information. Decision makers realize that the information at their disposal may be of questionable value, but these flawed data are usually all that is available. The enemy (or competitor), furthermore, may be "planting" information in order to trick its rivals. The decision maker must evaluate the available data and "factor in" the risks of both using and not using it.

Today's business leaders are seeking relevant qualitative data. This is true both in marketing research and in competitive intelligence. As we have seen, although competitive intelligence and marketing research have diverged in many ways in the last 30 years, both fields are increasingly focusing upon the embrace of qualitative research methods. The qualitative agendas and methods of the two fields have developed separately and they have been inspired by different influences; in spite of this diversity, however, both competitive intelligence and marketing research are united by their increased qualitative emphasis. Thus, although marketing research and competitive intelligence have diverged in many ways, they have converged in other directions.

The warfare mentality

Ask a male executive (from the USA who is in his 50s or older) about a management/inspirational film entitled *Second Effort* that was popular during the 1960s. Not only will he probably remember the film, the odds are good that he will also be able to recite a couple of its more compelling examples. By considering this film and the method of presenting its message, perhaps we can learn something about the managerial elite, how it thinks, and how to most effectively communicate with it.

Second Effort is narrated by Vince Lombardi (legendary coach of the American-style professional football team The Green Bay Packers). Sports analogies, of course, are very popular with executives and business thinkers. Sports analogies, furthermore, tend to be overtly intertwined with military or warlike metaphors. Key players are equated with field-commanders and the struggles of athletes are compared to the anguish of the battlefield. Most significantly, athletic tactics are depicted in terms of military strategy. Skilled generals (or sports heroes) are presented as possessing universal leadership skills which should be emulated in generic ways by corporate leaders and decision makers.

Intelligence and spying, of course, are closely intertwined with military strategy. As competitive intelligence began to gain an identity separate from marketing research, the field increasingly embraced the military metaphor. Competitors came to be depicted as military foes; the activity of intelligence was increasingly depicted using a warlike models or parallels. These characterizations are useful in two separate ways; first, much of the strategic work that executives perform actually does correspond to the efforts of military commanders. Second, and possibly more important, the military analogy is attractive to decision makers and it is well received by them. No doubt military comparisons are useful and they will continue to serve and influence corporate leaders.

Limitations of the warfare model

All models abstract reality. That is their nature and their purpose. Models, by culling our focus down to the bare essentials, are able to rivet the thinker's attention to what is "really important".

An anthropologist who is interested in knowing how social institutions interact

with one another, for example, may study a tiny tribe since these variables are "pared down" to their most basic essence in a small-scale society. By studying a little society, anthropologists feel that they will be able to more clearly understand how the various institutions of a culture reinforce and/or conflict with one another. Simplifying the task of investigation (by studying a miniature culture), the researcher gained efficiently processed information about how a larger society will probably function under analogous circumstances. Just as a model airplane might cheaply depict the behavior of a jumbo jet, the functioning of a tribe is used to predict the response of mass society.

But what if it is the very complexity (or lack of complexity) of the culture (not universal aspects of organizational response) that exerts the impacts which concern us? If this is the case, studying the small-scale culture would not provide any useful information regarding how the large society will respond. In fact, if we choose to abstract reality using a model which wrongly assumes that today's large cultures are merely small societies writ big, we could profoundly misunderstand the situations we face; as a direct result of the model used, we could make profound strategic errors. This example reminds us of two significant problems inherent in using any kind of model. First, once models are embraced, they tend to seductively direct our attention in their own direction. Second, a specific model may distort our vision in counterproductive ways even though we are not aware that this is happening.

By the same token, although the warfare model is useful in many contexts, it simultaneously has the ability to distort reality because it concentrates on only one set of considerations: conflicts between enemies. In addition to simplifying reality; it can degenerate into being simplistic if it narrows our focus in counterproductive ways. The military analogy is very seductive. And it often serves as a very useful and legitimate tool since rival organizations do "fight" with one another. And, as we all know, there are winners and losers in these "battles over the marketplace". Organizational leaders, furthermore, actually do deploy strategies and tactics in ways that are suggestive of a military campaign. Many organizational leaders, likewise, consciously model themselves after military commanders; as a result, their behavior and their thought is largely inspired by warlike analogies. All of these tendencies point to the usefulness of military comparisons.

From another perspective, however, the military model draws attention away from the true purpose of organizations. As every marketer knows, the purpose of any organization is to serve its clients. And, of course, this truth is best expressed in the "marketing concept", which strongly affirms that the only reason for any organization to exist is to satisfy the client's perceived needs and wants in the most efficient and/or appropriate ways.

The marketing concept does not concentrate upon competition between enemies; instead, it looks at the organization in terms of the degree to which it provides a sought-after good or service. This perspective, while not totally canceling out the value of a military analogy, is different and it channels our attention in different directions. Thus, according to the marketing concept (which is almost universally embraced by the marketing profession), organizations should primarily concern themselves with cooperation and collaboration between friends and allies; doing so, however, is the complete opposite of the military metaphor, which focuses upon strife and conflict between enemies.

My purpose here is not to discredit the military analogy, but simply to observe that (like the marketing concept) it is a specialized model which is particularly useful under certain circumstances and when dealing with a particular variety of relationships. And outside of the special circumstances where the military analogy serves well, it might prove to be counterproductive. The marketing concept, the *raison d'être* of marketing, seeks to structure organizations around the happiness and welfare of its clients. We should not allow military metaphors (even though they are useful under some circumstances) to blind us to what marketing really does and who marketers really are.

Conclusion

Today, competitive intelligence has emerged as an increasingly independent and important business activity. Although the posture of the field is in a state of flux and although its methodological toolkit has yet to be standardized, competitive intelligence is showing all the earmarks of emerging as a distinct and freestanding business function.

As discussed above, competitive intelligence evolved out of marketing research. The field, however, has

increasingly evolved on its own terms. A significant benefit of today's competitive intelligence is that it is geared around providing and interpreting certain kinds of "qualitative" research; in doing so, it embraces techniques from military and political espionage. In this way, the field of competitive intelligence helps to "flesh out" the full array of qualitative tactics that are needed by today's strategic planners (in marketing and other business functions).

Today's marketers (while borrowing from sources that are different from those influencing competitive intelligence) are also becoming increasingly involved with qualitative research methods. We are in an era when business leaders and researchers have come to recognize that gathering and processing an array of qualitative data are essential for the health of the organization. Although marketing research and competitive intelligence have diverged in profound ways since the 1960s, the mutual embrace of qualitative methodologies unites them once again in a number of revealing, suggestive, and intriguing ways.

Competitive intelligence is largely concerned with the gathering and processing of qualitative information. Owing to this fact, competitive intelligence parallels developments in marketing research, even while the two fields are very different in some respects. As long as organizational leaders remember that their primary goal is cooperating with and serving friends (not competing with enemies), marketers will be able to make good use of the military analogies and the methods embraced by competitive intelligence. We, however, should continue to view the marketing concept as the organization's guiding light.

If organizations continue to center themselves on the marketing concept, they will not abandon their customer orientation and, thereby, benefit from competitive intelligence without losing our strategic focus.

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Application questions

- 1 How much has the theory on competitive strategy made an impact on organizational practice in the last few years?
- 2 Do you agree with the author's assertion that organizations should be concerned with cooperating with friends rather than competing with enemies?

Yasrin Zabidi

COMPETITIVE INTELLIGENCE PROGRAM (CIP) : PERANANNYA DALAM MENGHADAPI DAN MEMENANGKAN PERSAINGAN

Persaingan yang semakin ketat dan munculnya pesaing-pesaing baru menuntut perusahaan akan suatu model konseptual untuk memenangkan persaingan, CIP adalah solusinya. *Competitive Intelligence Program (CIP)* merupakan suatu proses secara kontinyu untuk mengubah informasi pesaing menjadi intelijen yang digunakan menghadapi pesaing, menghancurkannya, merebut pangsa pasar.

SESEORANG dari perusahaan telepon seluler melakukan perjalanan menjelajahi Philadelphia sambil menyadap transmisi telepon seluler pesaingnya. Yang disadap bukanlah pembicaraan orang lain dan dia tidak melakukan sesuatu yang melanggar hukum atau yang tidak etis, tetapi dia sedang mengukur kekuatan dan ancaman sinyal pesaing mereka.

Sebuah perusahaan minuman menganalisis air limbah yang dikeluarkan oleh perusahaan pesaingnya. Tujuan akhirnya adalah untuk menghemat biaya promosi dan iklan.

Semua orang-orang ini terlibat dalam dunia intelijen kompetitif yang misterius. Dunia yang dihuni oleh mata-mata perusahaan dan orang bisnis yang keras hati, yang mencari peluang untuk mengalahkan pesaingnya.

Bila hal tersebut dilakukan secara bertanggung jawab, maka kegiatan tersebut menjadi sah dan etis, walaupun beberapa perusahaan telah diketahui melampaui batas, seperti mencuri informasi, menyadap telepon, merampok kantor, dengan demikian mereka telah memasuki dunia spionase industri.

Kebanyakan perusahaan tidak

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memasuki dunia spionase yang bertentangan dengan hukum. Secara praktis hampir segala sesuatu yang mereka perlukan sudah tersedia. Para pakar mengumpulkan informasi dengan menggunakan teknologi mutakhir dan metode-metode yang cemerlang, seperti mengambil foto melalui satelit, menelusuri database-database pemerintah.

Perusahaan ini menggali informasi dari tempat-tempat yang tidak diduga dan mengubahnya menjadi intelijen yang dapat membantu perusahaannya mengatasi kesulitan. Ini adalah dunia keras yang mengubah data-data mentah menjadi milyaran dolar jika dilakukan dengan baik. Jika tidak dilakukan dengan baik maka perusahaan akan mengalami kehancuran.

Tulisan ini akan menengahkan konsep-konsep CIP mulai dari definisi, perkembangan, latar belakang, kegunaan, metodologi/siklus, posisi dalam struktur organisasi dan cara membangun sistem CIP dalam perusahaan.

Definisi *Competitive Intelligence Program (CIP)*

Secara umum: CIP adalah proses secara terus-menerus secara sistematis untuk mengumpulkan dan menganalisis informasi tentang kegiatan para pesaing dan kecenderungan-kecenderungan bisnis (*trend* politik, ekonomi, teknologi) untuk mewujudkan tujuan perusahaan.

Secara khusus: Proses terus-

menerus mulai dari perencanaan dan pengarahannya, pengumpulan informasi tentang aktivitas pesaing dan kecenderungan bisnis umum, evaluasi dan analisis (pengubahan informasi menjadi intelijen), dan penyajian hasil analisis.

Dasar dari CIP adalah mengetahui perbedaan informasi dan intelijen. Informasi adalah berdasarkan fakta yang berupa angka, statistik, data-data tentang orang dan perusahaan. Intelijen adalah pengumpulan informasi yang telah disaring, dievaluasi dan dianalisis, bisa juga disebut dengan pengetahuan.

Perbedaan CIP dengan Bisnis Spionase (Memata-matai)

CIP menggali dan mengumpulkan informasi secara legal dan etis (media, observasi, database, dll). Bisnis Spionase menggali dan mengumpulkan informasi secara ilegal dan tidak etis (menipu, memata-matai).

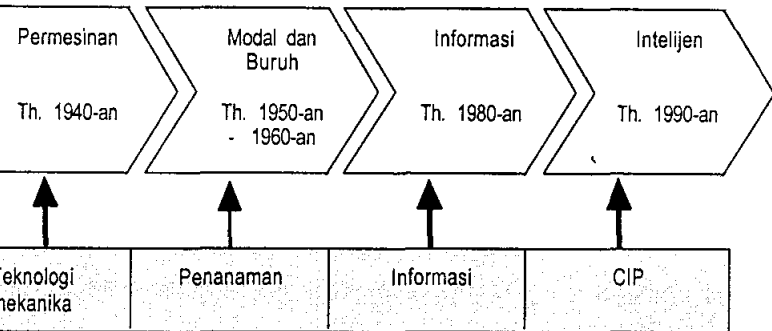
Perkembangan CIP

Jepang. Perusahaan Jepang telah memiliki sistem intelijen kompetitif sejak perang dunia II, walaupun sejarah pengumpulan informasi ekonomi telah dilakukan berabad-abad. Prasarana CIP di Jepang mencakup perusahaan dagang (*Sogo Shosha*) dan perwakilan pemerintah (JETRO, MITI, Keduataan Besar, Athase) yang menempatkan pegawainya di seluruh dunia untuk mengumpulkan informasi dan menyalurkannya kembali ke berbagai tempat penyimpanan informasi di Jepang untuk dipakai oleh para pengambil keputusan perusahaan.

Contoh, *Mitsubishi*, memiliki lebih kurang tiga belas ribu karyawan di lebih dari dua ratus kantor di seluruh dunia. Mereka mengumpulkan lebih dari tiga puluh ribu satuan informasi bisnis dan persaingan tiap hari. Data-data tersebut disaring, dianalisis dan disebarkan ke perusahaan-perusahaan dalam lingkungan keluarga Mitsubishi untuk dipakai sebagai amunisi dalam persaingan global.

Amerika Serikat. CIP di AS relatif masih baru sehingga belum berkembang di seluruh perusahaan AS. Kurang dari 7% dari perusahaan besar Amerika mempunyai CIP dan mereka masih relatif

Gambar 1. Perkembangan CIP



Kurang berkembangnya CIP di AS disebabkan oleh:

Informasi dari negara-negara lain sering diremehkan atau tidak dianggap sama pentingnya dengan informasi yang diperoleh dari sumber-sumber AS.

Para manajer Amerika sulit menerima hal-hal yang baik di lain tempat.

Orang-orang Amerika senang akan nasihat.

Pemikiran orang Amerika bersifat praktis, langkah demi langkah tidak bersifat pendekatan holistik terhadap memecahkan masalah yang mencakup visi dan naluri.

Keadaan hampir sama di Jepang, yaitu agen-agen pemerintah secara aktif memperhatikan kompetisi.

Bank-bank pemerintah memainkan peranan penting dalam perbankan bisnis, oleh karena itu sangat melindungi penanaman modal. Secara tradisional bank-bank memiliki kekuasaan dan pengaruhnya mengumpulkan informasi rahasia tentang perusahaan asing dan secara diam-diam menyebarkannya ke rekan-perusahaan Jerman.

Pemerintah bekerja dengan perusahaan dengan lebih sering, sering secara tidak sah bila didarisi dari segi ukuran Amerika – untuk mengumpulkan informasi tentang perusahaan.

Menjadi CIP lebih diperlukan di era pasca-industri adalah kebutuhan industri teknologi tinggi telekomunikasi, bioteknologi, ilmu

optik serat, obat-obatan, bahan kimia serta komputer. Industri-industri ini memerlukan pengeluaran besar untuk penelitian dan pengembangan, mempunyai siklus pengembangan yang cepat, dan berjangkauan global. Lain halnya dengan produk-produk yang dibuat di masa lampau yang belum mementingkan pengetahuan.

Mengubah informasi menjadi intelijen yang dapat dipakai adalah yang akhirnya membedakan perusahaan yang berhasil dari perusahaan yang gagal tidak hanya di sektor teknologi tinggi tetapi juga di setiap sektor bisnis lainnya.

Latar Belakang Dibutuhkannya CIP

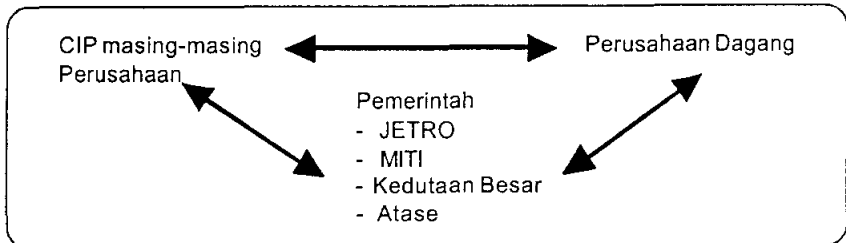
Pada masa sekarang ini banyak perusahaan-perusahaan yang membutuhkan CIP dibandingkan masa sebelumnya. Dibutuhkannya CIP pada masa sekarang dilatarbelakangi oleh:

- a. Laju bisnis bertambah cepat
Laju bisnis dalam kehidupan sehari-hari meningkat secara dramatis. Banyak sekali bisnis-bisnis yang sedang berkembang harus dihadapkan dengan munculnya bisnis baru yang lebih menantang dan memiliki prospek yang cerah. Agar supaya

perusahaan tidak ketinggalan dengan laju bisnis sekarang ini, maka diperlukanlah manajemen yang efisien dan CIP.

- b. Terlalu banyak informasi
Hal yang menyulitkan para pengambil keputusan adalah banyaknya informasi-informasi yang diperoleh sehingga bingung menentukan informasi mana yang valid dan andal. Dengan CIP tidak hanya mengetahui tentang mengumpulkan informasi tetapi juga tentang menganalisis informasi, menyaringnya dan mempelajari mana yang bermanfaat dan yang tidak bermanfaat untuk kepentingan perusahaan sendiri.
- c. Persaingan global yang meningkat dari pesaing baru
Dimasa globalisasi ini sangat dimungkinkan perusahaan-perusahaan untuk bersaing dan akan banyak muncul pesaing-pesaing baru yang mungkin lebih baik dari perusahaan yang ada sekarang ini. Dengan CIP, perusahaan dapat mengenal/mengetahui serta memantau pesaing baru.
- d. Persaingan yang telah ada menjadi lebih agresif
Dengan mulainya perdagangan global, negara-negara industri maju seperti Amerika Serikat akan menjadi lebih matang, artinya mereka akan meningkatkan pangsa pasar dan mengobarkan pesaing-pesaingnya. Banyak perusahaan bersedia mengobarkan keuntungannya demi perluasan pangsa pasar. CIP dapat membantu perusahaan dalam meramalkan kegiatan pesaing dan memungkinkan perusahaan menjadi produktif.
- e. Perubahan politik yang cepat dan kuat mempengaruhi perusahaan.

Gambar 2. Aliran Informasi CIP di Jepang



memanfaatkan teknologi guna mencari informasi

Dengan CIP, perusahaan dapat mengetahui akan perubahan politik yang mempengaruhi bisnis, sehingga perusahaan dengan cepat dan sigap dapat melakukan perubahan dan langkah-langkah strategik lainnya. Perubahan teknologi yang cepat Dahulu orang melakukan kegiatan perusahaan menitik beratkan pada paper and pen, kemudian mengalami perubahan teknologi dengan munculnya mesin ketik dari yang manual sampai yang otomatis. Lambat laun dunia komputer mulai memasuki dunia industri dan bisnis sampai sekarang yang telah mengalami perubahan-perubahan teknologi komputer.

Dengan adanya CIP, perusahaan dapat melacak perubahan teknologi dalam industri dan bisnis sehingga perusahaan dapat menetapkan kebijakan mengikuti perubahan teknologi atau tetap menggunakan teknologi lama.

Alasan Perusahaan Tidak Memakai CIP

Alasan perusahaan (khususnya di Amerika) tidak melakukan CIP disebabkan oleh dua hal, yaitu : 1. Cara berpikir dan sikap para manajer, 2. Cara manajer memperoleh informasi masih kuno.

1. Sikap, cara berpikir manajer

Cara berfikir manajer yang menyebabkan menolak CIP adalah :

"Tidak ada sesuatu pun yang terjadi dalam industri ini yang belum saya ketahui"

Sifat kerendahan hati bukan merupakan ciri dari manajer Amerika. Ada kecenderungan dari para manajer bahwa dengan membaca *Will Street Journal*, koran, membaca seperti surat harian dagang, jurnal, dikemudian beranggapan bahwa mereka mengetahui segala sesuatu yang sedang terjadi dalam industri.

"Tidak ada sesuatu yang terjadi di luar perusahaan ini atau di luar negara yang patut diamati"

Sikap "segala sesuatu lebih baik di Amerika" ternyata dituangkan oleh para manajer dalam bisnis. Sehingga mereka berpikir bahwa industri negara-negara lain tidak layak. Amerika membutuhkan waktu yang cukup lama untuk menyadari keunggulan mobil Jepang, keunggulan baja dari negara lain. Namun akhirnya mereka mulai belajar dari industri negara-negara lain.

"CIP sama dengan memata-matai, itu tidak etis"

Banyak para manajer yang tidak mengetahui bahwa 85-90% informasi

yang dibutuhkan perusahaan dapat ditemukan secara legal dan etis. Sangat disayangkan bahwa mereka menyamakan CIP dengan memata-matai industri (spionase) yang merupakan dua tujuan yang terpisah dan berbeda. Satu-satunya penyebabnya adalah pendidikan.

"CIP tidak diajarkan di sekolah bisnis karena tidak vital"

Para manajer tidak mengetahui bahwa, sekolah-sekolah di negara-negara lain mengajarkan Intelejen Kompetitif. Seperti di Swedia, seseorang dapat memperoleh gelar Ph.D dalam intelejen kompetitif. Di Jepang dan Prancis ada sekolah yang berafiliasi dengan pemerintah dan kursus-kursus studi yang dikhususkan untuk intelejen kompetitif.

"CIP adalah puast biaya, bukan pusat keuntungan. Terlalu mahal untuk melaksanakan CIP"

Para CEO mengatakan bahwa CIP tidak memberikan efek langsung dan manfaat. Pendapat ini adalah keliru, karena CIP dapat meningkatkan mutu, perencanaan strategis bahwa CIP tidak memberikan efek langsung dan manfaat. Pendapat ini adalah keliru, karena CIP dapat meningkatkan mutu, perencanaan strategis yang lebih baik dan pengetahuan yang banyak tentang pasar. Namun memberikan angka pada aspek-aspek tersebut adalah sulit atau tidak mungkin bagi banyak peristiwa. Tapi dari segi lain perlu diingat bahwa berapa banyak perusahaan kehilangan uang dengan tidak melakukan sesuatu, contohnya berapa banyak perusahaan kehilangan pasang pasar karena tidak tahu akan kegiatan pesaingnya.

2. Cara manajer memperoleh informasi

Kebanyakan para manajer masih menerima informasi dengan cara yang lama yang mengandalkan informasi bukan intelejen. Cara-cara tersebut adalah sebagai berikut :

a. Teknik produk sampingan (*by-product*)

Semua laporan dan studi yang dihasilkan oleh masing-masing departemen sampai ke meja eksekutif. Metode

asumsi bahwa jika laporan itu itu akan berisi informasi yang dengan pekerjaan manajer pengambilan keputusan. Misalnya penjualan menghasilkan laporan angka-angka penjualan per perluasan segmen pasar, pangsa dan sebagainya. Meskipun laporan ut lengkap dan luas namun hampir da pikiran dalam laporan tersebut membantu manajer membuat san yang lebih baik, sebenarnya yakan dari laporan-laporan itu lah informasi berhalaman-an yang dihasilkan komputer dan kontekstual, artinya laporan lan tidak memberikan dampak ap pemasaran. Oleh karena itu k para manajer yang mengeluh banyaknya laporan yang sama idak daapt ditangani. Namun dilain da eksekutif yang senang dengan upiknya laporan di mejanya dan al bahwa ia telah membaca tiap lam laporan tersebut.

pendekatan nol (*Null approach*) knik ini memiliki pendekatan arkan keyakinan bahwa manager bergerak ceta, selalu memikirkan depan sehingga tidak ada cara memuaskan kebutuhan mereka nformasi. Pendekatan nol ini gapan bahwa laporan-laporan buat seperti pada metode produk an tidak berguna karena hanya an dan mendiskusikan informasi k kegiatan/peristiwa yang lampau ak tentang kebutuhan di hari yang atang. Sehingga pendekatan ini kan dapat menggantikan metode ampingan dengan informasi ang subjektif dari para penasehat er yang selalu mengawasi per- ngan bisnis dan melaporkan uan mereka kepada eksekutif. n disayangkan, pendekatan ini ung menolak untuk memakai y yang dihasilkan oleh komputer, beberapa diantaranya sebenarnya erguson untuk eksekutif.

emahan teknik ini adalah patkan eksekutif dalam keadaan ngaruhkannya meluangkan untuk mendengarkan pendapat ungkin tidak berkaitan. Sedang-

kan kelebihan teknik ini adalah mengan- dung intelijen, tidak hanya informasi saja.

c. Sistem indikator kunci (*Key Indicator System*)

Metoda ini memiliki dua konsep, konsep pertama yaitu konsep pemilihan indikator kunci yang mencerminkan kesehatan perusahaan dan mengumpul- kan informasi tentang titik-titik kunci itu. Contoh, seorang eksekutif mungkin memilih untuk memperhatikan laporan laba/rugi dibanding dengan indikator keluhan pelanggan.

Konsep kedua adalah daripada melihat semua angka dalam indikator kunci lebih baik melaporkan angka-angka yang menyimpang kepada eksekutif. Keuntungan metode ini adalah eksekutif dapat melihat tanda peringatan dini tentang kesulitan perusahaan. Sedang- kan kerugiannya adalah, meskipun eksekutif mengetahui ada sesuatu yang tidak beres, tidak ada gagasan mengenai bagaimana memperbaikinya.

Kegunaan/Manfaat CIP

a. Mengantisipasi perubahan di pasar

Perusahaan yang memanfaatkan CIP untuk melacak perubahan di pasar akan jarang heran oleh kejadian yang mem- pengaruhi bisnis mereka. Sebaliknya, sikap tidak memperhatikan dapat mengakibatkan kerugian besar. Contoh kasus ada tiga pembuat mobil Amerika yang salah membaca pasar yang berubah di tahun 1970-an. Harga bensin yang meningkat dan demografi yang berubah dari keluarga-keluarga lebih kecil merupakan dua dari faktor yang merubah bentuk wajah pasar AS. Para konsumen AS mempunyai tuntutan terpendam untuk mobil yang lebih baik dan lebih menghemat bensin. Sementara pembuat mobil di AS tidak menangani kebutuhan konsumen ini, sedangkan pembuat mobil di Jepang menanggapi hal ini. Hal tersebut mendorong keberhasilan perusahaan Jepang untuk merebut pasaran mobil Amerika.

b. Mengantisipasi kegiatan para pesaing

Bell Atlantic Mobile System secara teratur memantau daerah telepon selularnya dengan mobil bergerak yang dapat menerima sinyal dari menara

pesaingnya, Metrophone. Para pe- mantau sinyal mencoba menetapkan apakah Metrophone telah menyalakan saluran tambahan yang disediakan sebagai cadangan untuk perluasan. Saluran tambahan ini dapat memberikan pelayanan yang lebih baik dan meningkatkan daerah jangkauan. Apabila ternyata saluran cadangan Metrophone telah diaktifkan, ini dapat berarti apakah tidak sebaiknya Bell Atlantic menangani dengan rencananya sendiri untuk menggiatkan perangkat saluran cadangannya/mengaktifkan saluran cadangannya. Jika tidak meng- aktifkan saluran cadangannya maka akan kehilangan pelanggan yang akan pindah ke Metrophone. Jika Bell Atlantic tidak mempunyai sistem peringatan dini, mungkin tidak akan tahu bahwa pesaingnya telah menggunakan saluran ekstra/cadangan. Dari kasus ini terlihat bahwa Bell Atlantic telah memanfaatkan CIP dan merasakan manfaatnya.

c. Menemukan pesaing yang baru dan potensial

AT & T salah satu perusahaan yang memiliki CIP yang paling maju di dunia usaha. Satu segi yang dikenal sebagai "Akses ke Ahli Analisis QT&T"; adalah basis data yang terdiri atas para ahli dalam perusahaan. Satu bagian dari pelayanan tersebut adalah sistem pelacakan yang melacak sepuluh perusahaan yang telah mendapat sebuah paling banyak oleh para karyawan. Dari pelacakan tersebut didapat sebuah perusahaan yang belum pernah diketahui oleh AT & T. Sebuah studi ditugaskan untuk menyelidiki perusahaan tersebut dan mengapa karyawan AT & T tertarik pada perusahaan tersebut. Penelitian tersebut menemukan bahwa perusahaan itu memasuki salah satu alur bisnis AT & T. Jadi CIP telah memperingatkan AT & T tentang kegiatan potensial perusahaan tersebut berbulan-bulan sebelum ada cerita tentangnya di Wall Street Journal.

e. Menambah jumlah dan mutu sasaran akuisi

Mike Meurusse dari 3M United Kingdom PLC sedang memperhatikan sebuah perusahaan yang mungkin akan diakuisi karena sedang menggerogoti

alah satu jalur produksi 3M. Perusahaan tersebut sedang berkembang dan memperbesar pangsa pasar.

Perusahaan tersebut dijalankan oleh orang-orang yang sangat rahasia. Mereka mempunyai beberapa pabrik di Eropa, tetapi hanya sedikit sekali informasi yang tersedia mengenai perusahaan tersebut atau kegiatannya. Setelah lama mengawasi dan memantauinya, Meurisse memperoleh kesimpulan bahwa si pemilik perusahaan tersebut telah berbohong mengenai kemampuan produksinya. Produksinya sebenarnya datang dari pabrik yang menghasilkan dengan sangat murah di Timur Jauh dan tidak dari Eropa. Walaupun mereka memperbesar pangsa pasar, ternyata keuntungan yang diperolehnya sangat kecil karena berkembang dengan pemasangan harga yang murah. Dalam hubungan itu ia merupakan ancaman, tetapi Meurisse berkesimpulan ancaman itu akan segera lenyap. Karena pada dasarnya mereka sebenarnya tidak membuat produk di Eropa dengan harga rendah. Jadi CIP telah menyelamatkan perusahaan yang menghindari membeli perusahaan yang salah, yang nyatanya bukan ancaman.

Mempelajari tentang teknologi, produk, dan proses baru yang mempengaruhi bisnis perusahaan

Sebuah perusahaan industri farmasi terus-menerus memantau kemajuan pesaing melalui arsip publik di Food and Drug Administration dan melalui harian penelitian dan tempat lain. CIP telah membantu perusahaan tersebut memutuskan apakah ingin melanjutkan perkembangan perusahaan sendiri, menambah sumber daya tambahan atau menghentikan program karena masalah-masalah tidak sepadan dengan biaya tambahannya. Dalam beberapa kasus perusahaan telah melakukannya dan menghemat biaya perusahaan.

Mempelajari perubahan politik, legislatif atau peraturan yang dapat mempengaruhi bisnis perusahaan

Seorang karyawan Samsung di Los Angeles membaca di koran bahwa salah satu pabrik gitar di Amerika akan tutup

terutama karena import yang lebih murah dari Korea. Ia mengirim informasi tersebut ke markas besar perusahaan di Seoul, yang kemudian melakukan analisis sebagai berikut:

- Gitar merupakan lambang kebebasan dan jiwa bebas Amerika. Para ahli intelijen berpikir bahwa akan ada serangan balik terhadap gitar impor dan bahwa Kongres mungkin akan menetapkan tarif lebih tinggi untuk melindungi sebuah industri asli Amerika dan semua hal yang menjadi perlambangannya.
- Samsung mengirim semua gitar yang terjangkau ke gudang-gudang Amerika dan menimbunnya. Seperti yang mereka duga Kongres menaikkan tarif gitar impor tetapi Samsung mempunyai persediaan yang cukup banyak dan berhasil memperoleh keuntungan yang besar.

h. Memasuki bisnis baru

CIP di samping membantu memasuki bisnis baru juga memberikan permulaan yang lebih dini. Umpamanya, seorang arsitek maritim Jepang yang telah merancang kapal tanker minyak raksasa ditugaskan untuk merancang kapal pesiar Jepang pertama, Crystal Harmony; Ia dan dua orang perancang lainnya menjelajahi seluruh dunia dengan kapal pesiar. Sedikit sebelum dimulainya makan malam mereka mengambil foto dari persiapan untuk makan malam di restoran dalam kapal. Setelah makan malam mereka menghitung berapa orang yang ada di bar, berapa yang dansa, dan

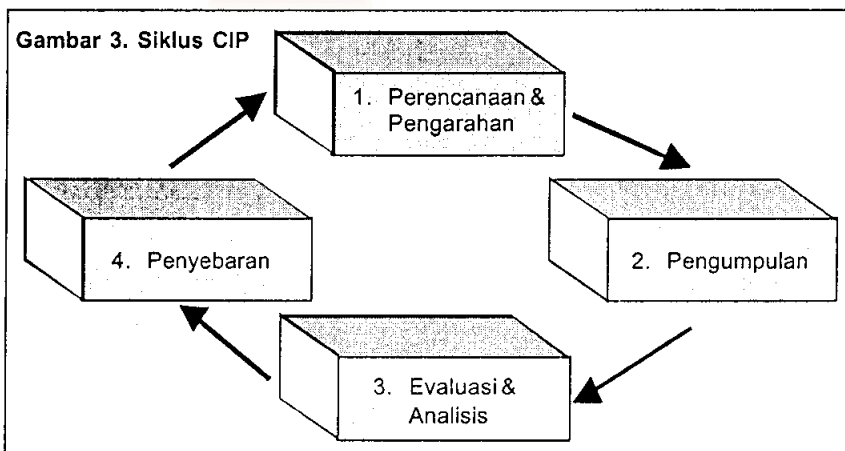
berapa yang berjalan-jalan di sekitar geladak. Mereka memantau orang-orang yang bersantai di sekitar kolam renang dan di kursi malas.

Mereka membuat catatan tentang segala sesuatu yang dapat diamatinya secara visual dari memasuki angka-angka ke basis data untuk dianalisis. Setelah beberapa tahun berpesiar secara intelijen kompetitif "Crystall Harmony", versi 49.000 ton dari "Queen Elizabeth 2" mengarang di lautan bebas. Pemasukan Jepang dalam bisnis kapal pesiar telah nyata berhasil.

i. Melihat praktik bisnis perusahaan sendiri dengan pikiran yang terbuka

Banyak perusahaan berfikir ke dalam (*internal thinking*). Metode menjadi basi dan menyebabkan perusahaan gagasan-gagasan dan konsep-konsep baru. Hal itu menyebabkan perusahaan menjadi berfokus ke luar. Contohnya adalah W. Edward Deming pencetus pengendalian mutu dalam bidang fabrikasi. Ketika gagasan Deming ditolak oleh perusahaan-perusahaan Amerika setelah perang dunia II, ia pergi ke Jepang. Walaupun konsep-konsepnya telah membuat Jepang berhasil dalam pembuatan produk yang bermutu tinggi, Amerika tetap tidak tertarik sampai bertahun-tahun, ia tetap menggunakan metode lama yang tidak mempan lagi. Akhirnya kini Amerika menerapkan konsep TQM (*Total Quality Management*) dan berhasil.

Seandainya Amerika memandang praktik bisnis Jepang dengan pikiran terbuka, atau memperhatikan konsep



g dahulu ditahun 1940-an, mereka dapat melihat kegunaan teorinya.

embantu menerapkan sarana manajemen yang mutakhir banyak perusahaan yang kesulitan dapatkan dan mempertahankan TQM *certification costumers*, hal ini banyak disebabkan oleh kekurangan basis atau kemacetan informasi Artinya tanpa prasarana intelijen perusahaan akan gagal dalam dapatkan TQM.

embantu proses *Benchmarking* dengan CIP, perusahaan dapat mengetahui kekuatan, kelemahan dan ancaman yang akan dilakukan oleh pesaingnya. Sehingga hal ini dapat membantu perusahaan dalam kegiatan *benchmarking*.

Inteligensi / Siklus CIP

Inteligensi dasar dari CIP adalah siklus intelijen, yaitu proses untuk mengubah data menjadi intelijen. Ada empat tahap dalam siklus CIP yang merupakan proses yang terus-menerus (tidak putus), yaitu :

Perencanaan dan pengarahannya
Pengumpulan
Evaluasi dan analisis
Penyebaran/Penyajian

Perencanaan dan pengarahannya

Langkah ini merupakan kegiatan awal CIP yang meliputi :

Definisi yang jelas tentang kebutuhan pemakai, yaitu menentukan untuk apa CIP dipakai, mengapa dibutuhkan, Siapa yang melibatkannya. Hal ini sangat penting sebagai dasar untuk pengambilan keputusan.

Peninjauan ulang (audit) kegiatan perusahaan untuk mencari informasi yang telah ada diperusahaan.

Menetapkan rencana pengumpulan dan analisis, meliputi:

Merencanakan waktu, yaitu menjadwalkan pelaksanaan CIP agar supaya hasil yang diperoleh tepat waktu dan tidak terlambat atau mahal usang.

Menentukan jenis persaingan. Ada tujuh jenis persaingan, yaitu:

1. Persaingan dalam produk, berupa persaingan mutu, pangsa pasar, kinerja produk, kepuasan konsumen terhadap produk.
2. Persaingan dalam bidang keuangan, berupa persaingan mendapatkan untung yang besar, harga saham tinggi, biaya rendah.
3. Persaingan dalam teknologi.
4. Persaingan dalam organisasi, berupa persaingan manajemen, budaya perusahaan yang mengembangkan keberhasilan, tenaga kerja yang terlatih.
5. Persaingan dalam aliansi strategis dengan perusahaan lain, yaitu membangun kekuatan perusahaan dengan cara merger.
6. Persaingan dalam pembuatan di pabrik, persaingan dalam kemampuan pabrik, mesin.
7. Persaingan dalam pemasaran dan periklanan.
8. Persaingan dalam reputasi.

- Menentukan jenis sumber informasi yang digunakan. Ada 3 klasifikasi sumber informasi, yaitu:

1. Berdasarkan sumber:
 - Primer: laporan tahunan, laporan pemerintah, pidato, wawancara TV dan radio langsung, laporan keuangan).
 - Sekunder: koran, buku, laporan analisis.
2. Berdasarkan bidang:
 - Informasi publik (terbuka): media, asosiasi dagang, basis data, internet.
 - Informasi nonpublik (informasi diperoleh dengan usaha yang keras dan jeli): wawancara, force sales, pengamatan survey).
3. Berdasarkan sifat:
 - Informasi lunak (kualitatif): kabar angin, opini pelanggan, surat pembaca, umpan balik, anekdot.
 - Informasi keras (kuan-

titatif): fakta, statistik, data mentah, informasi finansial.

- Menentukan jenis analisis yang akan digunakan. Alat analisis yang digunakan tergantung masalah yang akan dipecahkan, dan kemampuan perusahaan seperti SWOT, CSMM (*Customer Satisfaction Measurement and Management*), QFD, TRIZ (*Theory Inventive Problem Solving*), dan lain-lain.

b. Pengumpulan informasi

Langkah ini merupakan kegiatan pengumpulan informasi mentah yang akan diolah menjadi intelijen yang dapat digunakan oleh manajemen. Informasi-informasi diperoleh dari sumber-sumber informasi yang dapat digunakan oleh perusahaan. Informasi yang telah dikumpulkan diorganisasi, artinya informasi tersebut harus dapat diakses oleh setiap orang di dalam perusahaan untuk digunakan sebagai perencanaan taktis, membuat keputusan sederhana, atau hanya sekedar mempelajari informasi tersebut. Namun demikian penganalisaan informasi tersebut tetap harus dilakukan oleh unit CIP.

c. Evaluasi dan Analisis

Setelah data-data/informasi dikumpulkan melalui sumber informasi langkah selanjutnya, adalah melakukan evaluasi terhadap informasi tersebut. Artinya melakukan validitas dan reliabilitas informasi. Validitas (kesahihan) adalah keakuratan dan kelengkapan informasi. Reliabilitas (keandalan) adalah kepercayaan sumber-sumber informasi atas dasar performans tersebut. Analisis yang digunakan tergantung kepada masalah yang akan diselesaikan dan kemampuan perusahaan, seperti SWOT, QFD, TRIZ, CSMM (LISRELL), Optimasi, dan lain-lain. Dari hasil analisis tersebut akan diperoleh suatu temuan, pengetahuan (intelijen) yang merupakan suatu keputusan strategis perusahaan dalam menghadapi kegiatan pesaing.

d. Penyebarluasan/penyajian hasil analisis (intelijen)

Langkah terakhir adalah penyajian

ntelijen, yaitu pelaporan jawaban atas pertanyaan/kebutuhan eksekutif, seperti:

- > Apa yang akan dilakukan oleh pesaing A.
- > Bagaimana pesaing B menanggapi kenaikan harga kami.
- > Kapan pesaing C akan meluncurkan produk baru, dan lain-lain.

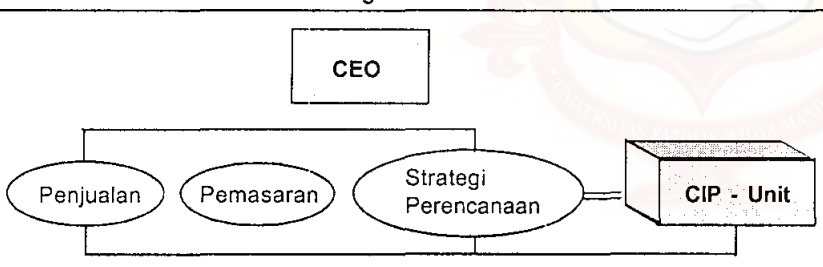
Dalam melakukan penyajian harus memenuhi kriteria-kriteria sebagai berikut :

- . Responsif terhadap kebutuhan pimpinan
- . Terfokus (tidak umum)
- . Tepat waktu
- . Tingkat kepercayaan tinggi
- . Bentuk penyajian terbaik (visual, audio, kinestesi)

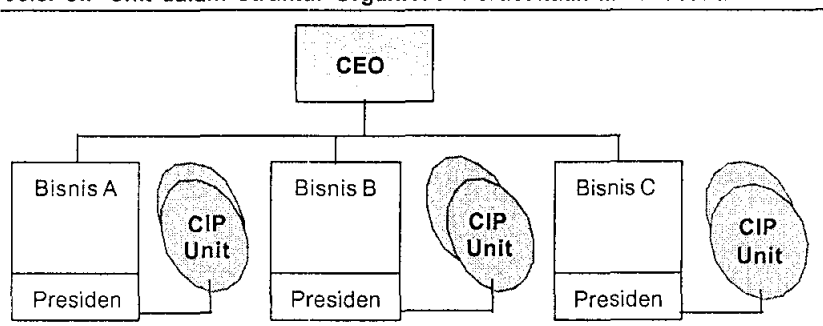
Posisi CIP – Unit dalam Struktur Organisasi Perusahaan

CIP –unit adalah suatu unit atau bagian dalam perusahaan yang menangani CIP. CIP-unit harus diletakkan berdekatan dengan pemakai utama (eksekutif) dan bagian perencanaan strategis tetapi juga dapat dijangkau setiap orang di perusahaan.

Gambar 4b. Posisi CIP-Unit dalam Struktur Organisasi Perusahaan



Gambar 4b. Posisi CIP-Unit dalam Struktur Organisasi Perusahaan Multi Usaha



Merancang jaringan untuk menggerakkan informasi

CIP sebagai Analogi Konsep Pengukuran

Konsep CIP pada dasarnya merupakan analogi dari konsep pengukuran yang sangat sering kita dengar.

Faktor Penyebab Kegagalan CIP

- a. Manajer puncak tidak terlibat dan mendukung.
- b. Tugas-tugas tidak terfokus/tidak berorientasi pada pokok permasalahan.
- c. Terlalu banyak penekanan pada langkah pengumpulan.
- d. Tidak melibatkan setiap orang dalam perusahaan.
- e. Tidak menetapkan petunjuk-petunjuk

etis/aturan.

- f. Terjadi kebocoran informasi.
- g. Ulah para pesaing (mata-mata): phantom interview, bendera pencari kerja, bujukan.
- h. Penyebab lain: siaran pers, karya tulis teknik, pidato, tur pabrik, pemasok, distributor, dokumen yang dibuang, peradilan.

Kesimpulan

Competitive Intelligence Program sangat berguna bagi perusahaan dalam memerangi dan memenangkan persaingan dalam era globalisasi ini. Keberhasilan perusahaan membangun CIP tergantung kepada kesadaran perusahaan akan betapa pentingnya CIP. Adapun langkah-langkah dalam membangun sistem CIP dalam perusahaan adalah:

- a. Memilih seorang direktur CIP dan tempatkan pada lokasi/posisi yang tepat.
- b. Direktur CIP menetapkan siapa-siapa pemakai kunci CIP dan untuk apa mereka memakainya.
- c. Melakukan audit tentang informasi yang ada dalam perusahaan.
- d. Menetapkan etika dan hukum dalam CIP.
- e. Merancang jaringan untuk menggerakkan informasi dan intelijen dalam perusahaan dengan fasilitas yang ada. **U**

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