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## Chapter 5

### DUAL SOURCING STRATEGIES

#### *Operational Hedging and Outsourcing to Reducing Risk in Low-Cost Countries*

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**Abstract:** Sourcing strategies that employ operational hedging can reduce the risk of operating in low cost countries. This article examines the sourcing strategy of toy-maker Mattel. Like the high technology industry, toys suffer from many supply chain ailments including short product life, rapid product turnover, and seasonal demand. Coupled with long supply lines and potential political and economic turmoil in Asia, toymakers face an unusually complex set of risks. Managers in many businesses can learn valuable lessons in managing uncertainty from toymakers. Set during the Asian financial crisis, the case describes a facility location decision for Hot Wheels and Matchbox cars. Besides the international location decision, the case illustrates: 1) How toy makers manage demand uncertainty; 2) Mattel's outsourcing strategy in Asia; 3) How Mattel integrates its marketing and supply chain strategy.

### 5.1. Introduction

Sourcing in South East Asia offers the possibility of radical cost reductions for many products. However, exploiting the promise of low-cost sourcing requires rethinking your supply chain strategy. With the benefits are risks and hidden costs that some firms only discovered after making significant investments. Firms in any industry would be wise to learn from organizations with

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<sup>1</sup> This article was written with research assistance from Tom Clock.

1 deep history and experience in the region. When I think of an industry with 1  
2 such experience, I think of toys. Toys are one of the world's oldest consumer 2  
3 products. Over the past five decades the toy industry has steadily matured from 3  
4 a cottage industry into a global market of over \$50 billion. Yet investors know 4  
5 that the industry is far from tranquil. Key features that have long characterized 5  
6 the toy business are its rapid change and uncertainty. Demand for fad-driven 6  
7 products can balloon overnight and then suddenly pop as the next hot product 7  
8 sweeps the market. Constant product innovation, short life cycles, and high 8  
9 cannibalization rates are typical. Supply chains that span the globe and include 9  
10 many emerging countries add currency and political risk that can disrupt sup- 10  
11 ply and change cost structures with little notice. 11

12 Take a tour of any industrial park in China, Malaysia, Indonesia, and Thai- 12  
13 land and you will find factories building Hot Wheels cars next door to ones pro- 13  
14 ducing flash drives, printers next to Barbie dolls, Furbys next to cell phones – 14  
15 all experiencing the benefits and risks of operating in low-wage countries. How 15  
16 should firms manage these risks? In this article, we examine a case study of 16  
17 Mattel and its decision process to add production capacity to a network of 17  
18 both outsourced and Mattel-operated facilities. Set during the Asian financial 18  
19 crisis, the case illustrates: 1) How toy makers manage demand and supply un- 19  
20 certainty; 2) Mattel's outsourcing strategy in Asia; 3) How Mattel integrates 20  
21 its marketing and supply chain strategy. 21

## 22 23 **5.2. Company Background** 23

24 25 Based in California, Mattel, Inc designs, manufactures, and markets a broad 25  
26 variety of toy products. The company's product lines include Barbie fashion 26  
27 dolls, Hot Wheels die-cast toy vehicles, and Fisher-Price preschool toys. Mat- 27  
28 tel produces all of these toys overseas, primarily in Southeast Asia, with many 28  
29 wholly owned manufacturing facilities in these locations including China, 29  
30 Malaysia, Indonesia, Mexico, and Italy. 30

31 Mattel was founded in 1944 by Elliot and Ruth Handler. By 1955, annual 31  
32 sales reached \$5 million and the Handlers decided to take a gamble that would 32  
33 forever change the toy business. In what seemed at the time a risky investment, 33  
34 the Handlers signed a 52 week contract with ABC Television to sponsor a 15- 34  
35 minute segment of Walt Disney's Mickey Mouse Club at a cost of \$500,000 – 35  
36 a sum equal to Mattel's net worth at the time. Up until this move, most toy 36  
37 manufacturers relied on retailers to promote their products. Prior advertising 37  
38 occurred only around the holiday season. The popular daily kids show made 38  
39 the Mattel brand well known among the viewing audience, translating quickly 39  
40 into sales. The success of the Handlers' pact with kids TV started a marketing 40  
41 revolution in the toy industry. 41

1 Mattel made toy industry history again in 1959 with the introduction of 1  
2 Barbie. With the success of Barbie, Mattel made its first public stock offering 2  
3 and, by 1963, was listed on the New York Stock Exchange. In the next two 3  
4 years Mattel's sales skyrocketed from \$26 to \$100 million. The introduction 4  
5 of Hot Wheels miniature model cars in 1968 was another spectacular success 5  
6 making Mattel the world's largest toy company by the end of the decade. In 6  
7 1987, CEO John Amerman charted a new strategy for Mattel, closing many of 7  
8 the company's US manufacturing capacity, focusing the company on its core 8  
9 brands such as Barbie and Hot Wheels, and by making selective investments 9  
10 in the development of new toys – particularly within core products like Barbie. 10  
11 The Barbie make-over was so effective that from 1987 to 1992 sales shot up 11  
12 from \$430 million to nearly \$1 billion, accounting for more than half of the 12  
13 company's \$1.85 billion in sales. At that time, Mattel estimated that 95% of 13  
14 all girls in the United States aged 3 to 11 owned Barbie dolls. Finally, in deals 14  
15 lauded by Wall Street analysts, Mattel acquired Fisher-Price in 1993 and Tyco 15  
16 in 1997, boosting Mattel's revenue to \$4.8 billion. 16

17 Over the years, the ability to create new products and quickly meet demand 17  
18 remained nonnegotiable requirements for success in the toy industry. Manu- 18  
19 facturers had to live with the reality that inventory in times of hot sales could 19  
20 reap large rewards, but often became worthless overnight. Mattel introduced 20  
21 hundreds of new toy products. Many of the new toys reflected increased de- 21  
22 mand among core product lines – for example, the market's renewed interest 22  
23 in collectible Barbie and Hot Wheels products. Beyond core products, there re- 23  
24 mained a large, lucrative segment of non-core toys whose market life was typi- 24  
25 cally less than one year. Many of these products were related to popular movie 25  
26 characters. More and more, filmmakers and toy manufacturers combined their 26  
27 efforts to market their products to the public. These were high turnover prod- 27  
28 ucts where time to market was critical. Mattel typically produced core product 28  
29 lines in-house and outsourced the production of non-core lines to a network 29  
30 of vendors. Outside vendors gave Mattel the needed flexibility to handle hot 30  
31 products and the seasonal changes in toy sales. In the US, toy sales histori- 31  
32 cally followed strong seasonal trends with nearly half of all sales coming in 32  
33 November and December. 33

34 Ron Montalto, who had lived and worked in Hong Kong for fifteen years, 34  
35 was Senior Vice President responsible for company's Vendor Operations Asia 35  
36 division (VOA), which managed Mattel's outsourced production. Mattel began 36  
37 the vendor program in 1988 hoping to add flexibility to the company's tradi- 37  
38 tional in-house manufacturing. Montalto spent ten years developing VOA into 38  
39 one of Mattel's most valuable strategic assets. By 1997, it was responsible for 39  
40 manufacturing products that generated nearly 25% of the toy company's total 40  
41 revenue. 41  
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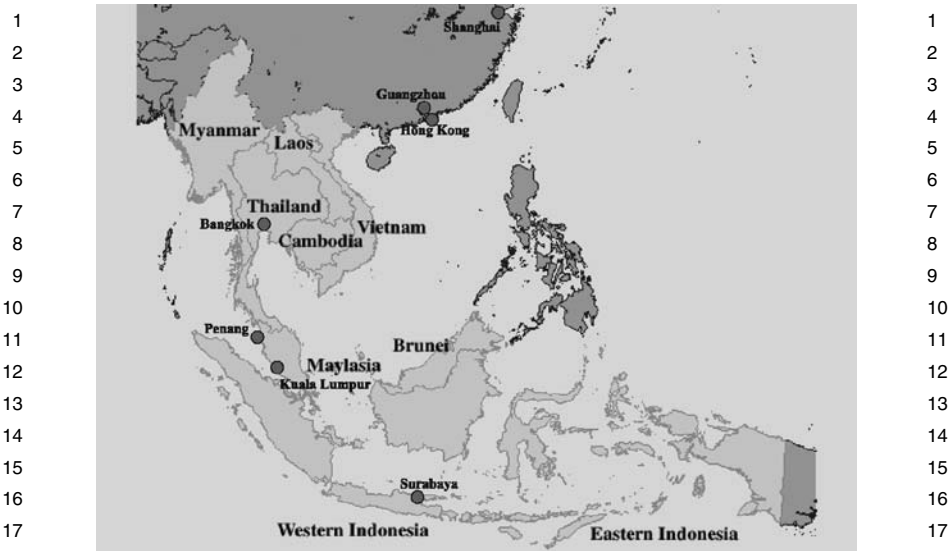


Exhibit 5.1. Current and Potential Die-Cast Plant Locations.

The Tyco merger resulted in VOA manufacturing products that generated an additional \$350 million in revenues for the Mattel organization. The majority of those revenues came from a combination of Tyco's Matchbox die-cast cars, its line of radio-controlled (RC) cars, its View Master® series, and products from its Sesame Street license. As part of reorganization after the merger, Montalto picked up the responsibility of all die-cast operations. With demand for Matchbox cars at 64 million units in 1997 and growing, die-cast capacity was a concern. Tyco manufactured the cars through joint-venture arrangements in Shanghai and Bangkok. Both of the joint ventures were minority share partnerships which raised questions for Mattel in the future. What's more, the quality of Matchbox products had been eroding for years and was at an all-time low. The production equipment and steel molds used in the manufacturing plants were becoming obsolete. Though it might be possible to upgrade the existing Tyco operation in Bangkok, Montalto saw little hope of expanding the Shanghai operation.

Mattel owned a state-of-the-art die-cast facility that was operating at full capacity in Penang, Malaysia (see Exhibit 5.1). Expanding that facility significantly beyond its volume of 120M cars would be expensive and complicated. There was no room for further building on the site and no available land adjacent to the plant. After performing a significant analysis over the summer of 1997, Montalto championed a proposal to solve the capacity problem by build-

1 ing a new China facility. However, before the plant was approved, a financial 1  
2 storm began sweeping across Asia. Throughout the fall and winter, the plant 2  
3 decision was debated. Some executives inside Mattel argued that they should 3  
4 reconsider building a new plant in Malaysia to concentrate die-cast production 4  
5 in a single country. Others felt that they should consider Indonesia as a way 5  
6 to take advantage of low labor costs and very attractive exchange rates. Mattel 6  
7 already operated a plant in Indonesia that produced Barbie® dolls. Montalto 7  
8 had to decide whether Mattel should go forward with the new China plant, 8  
9 build a plant in Malaysia or Indonesia, expand one of the existing facilities, or 9  
10 outsource the surplus die-cast volume through VOA. 10  
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### 12 **5.3. Miniature Car Market** 12 13

14 Die-cast 1:64 scale miniature cars have been a long-standing favorite among 14  
15 children and adults. Matchbox cars were introduced by a small company 15  
16 founded in 1947 by two unrelated school friends, Leslie Smith and Rodney 16  
17 Smith. Few would have imagined that the company, Lesney Products, had cre- 17  
18 ated a term that would later become the generic name for any small toy replica 18  
19 of a car or truck. In 1982, the company met with financial difficulties and the 19  
20 Matchbox brand was sold to a Hong Kong based holding company, Universal 20  
21 International which later became a subsidiary of Tyco Toys. 21

22 Mattel introduced Hot Wheels in 1968 and quickly became the market 22  
23 leader, often gaining market share while other companies lost market share – 23  
24 or worse – went bankrupt. By 1997 there were few major competitors in the 24  
25 1:64 category other than Racing Champions® and Hasbro’s Winner’s Circle® 25  
26 which both focused primarily on replicas of racing cars including NASCAR. 26  
27 In Europe, both MIRA and Bburago competed with wider size offerings, pro- 27  
28 ducing cars at 1:43, 1:25, and 1:18 scale. Larger cars were often purchased by 28  
29 collectors and there were also several other small Japanese and English com- 29  
30 panies that marketed these high-end replicas. 30

31 While both 1:64 scale miniature car replicas, Hot Wheels and Matchbox 31  
32 competed in very different market segments (see Exhibit 5.2). Matchbox cars 32  
33 emphasized realism in both scale and detail. For years they had been manu- 33  
34 factured entirely of metal, making them heavier and more durable. These el- 34  
35 ements made the car more appealing to younger children, typically 2–4 years 35  
36 old. Moreover, much of the Matchbox sales were outside of the US while Hot 36  
37 Wheels were an American phenomena. Hot Wheels cars featured more fan- 37  
38 tasy designs both in form and decoration. With a larger creative element, they 38  
39 appealed to older children who participated in more imaginative play patterns. 39

40 Prior to 1994, sales of die-cast cars, including Hot Wheels, were relatively 40  
41 flat. However, over the course of the next three years, demand for the Hot 41  
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Exhibit 5.2. Hot Wheels and Matchbox Products.

1 Wheels skyrocketed to 155 million units in 1997, while Matchbox saw much 1  
 2 slower growth. Mattel attributed much of the growth to a new rolling mix mar- 2  
 3 keting strategy. In the past, Mattel relied heavily on retailer's POS data to help 3  
 4 forecast future demand and make replenishments throughout the supply chain. 4  
 5 Starting in 1994, Mattel incorporated a new marketing strategy to sell die- 5  
 6 cast cars. Mattel determined that variety was the key driver of sales. If cus- 6  
 7 tomers saw new products every time they went in the store, they were more 7  
 8 likely to buy. The company implemented a rolling mix strategy by shipping 8  
 9 retailers a 72-car assortment mix with SKU contents that changed 7-8% every 9  
 10 two weeks. Stock keepers at various retail outlets shelved the individual Hot 10  
 11 Wheels blister packs directly out of the 72-car master carton. Over the course 11  
 12 of a year the product line changed over two times entirely. This strategy devel- 12  
 13 oped an organized, non-reactionary method of new product introduction and 13  
 14 old product obsolescence. New products varied from brand new 'First Edition' 14  
 15 cars, to redecorated models of cars already produced. By rolling the mix, Mat- 15  
 16 tel was able to market a much broader range of SKUs without requiring any 16  
 17 additional retail shelf space. 17

18 Mattel also found that it could educate the consumer and encourage buying 18  
 19 patterns based on product introduction. Marketing began introducing 'Series 19  
 20 Cars', a set of four cars sold individually and released every month. Each se- 20  
 21 ries would stay on the retailers' shelves for five months and then be perma- 21  
 22 nently discontinued. The strategy created urgency among consumers to buy 22  
 23 the products while they were available. Series cars also helped promote the 23  
 24 existing collector market. In addition, Mattel played to the collector market by 24  
 25 introducing 'Treasure Hunt' cars. These cars were only manufactured in lots 25  
 26 of 20,000 and were extremely rare. One new Treasure Hunt car was made each 26  
 27 month. They were randomly inserted into a retailer's assortment pack. These 27  
 28 cars made it into the hands of a lucky few and were highly prized as collectible 28  
 29 items. In 1996, a limited number of Treasure Hunt assortment packs (all 12 29  
 30 cars) retailed at FAO Schwartz for \$150. A year later, the same assortment 30  
 31 sold for over \$1,000 between collectors. 31  
 32  
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		Hot Wheels and Matchbox Demand Forecasts (in millions of units annually)									
		Moderate Growth		1998		1999		2000		2001	
Total	Total	237		256		276		299			
	HW MB	169	68	184	72	200	76	218	81		

Exhibit 5.3. Market Projections.

1 Through its rolling mix strategy Mattel no longer had to rely on POS data 1  
2 to forecast market demand for specific SKUs, but rather to plan the changes 2  
3 to the mix. Since Mattel guaranteed its retailers that the mix would sell, the 3  
4 retailers stocking problems were simplified to merely purchasing assortment 4  
5 packs and stocking the store shelves. Mattel believed it could incorporate the 5  
6 same strategy into the newly acquired Matchbox line and experience similar 6  
7 results (see Exhibit 5.3 for market forecasts of both Hot Wheels and Matchbox 7  
8 cars). No other manufacturer had the capability to offer consumers Mattel's 8  
9 level of variety. 9

#### 11 **5.4. Die-Cast Manufacturing** 11

13 The manufacture of die-cast cars involved well-defined production steps 13  
14 that could be performed either in-house or by third parties. Among die-cast 14  
15 manufacturers, there was a continuum in terms of the degree to which the 15  
16 processes and manufacturing steps were conducted in-house, as opposed to 16  
17 being subcontracted to other firms. While most firms had in-house die-casting, 17  
18 plastic injection molding, and basic painting and decorating processes, there 18  
19 was wide variation for other processes, including electroplating, vacuum met- 19  
20 alizing, and package printing. 20  
21

22 In the first step, a press injected molten zinc into a mold to create the body of 22  
23 the vehicle and/or the chassis (unless one or both of those parts were plastic). 23  
24 Mattel made most of its own die-casting molds at a facility in Malaysia, but 24  
25 also outsourced them to firms in Hong Kong. Presses could be outfitted with 25  
26 two different types of molds – conventional or unit die. Conventional molds 26  
27 usually had one car body cavity or two chassis molds. Unit dies were smaller 27  
28 than conventional molds traditionally used in the die-casting process and they 28  
29 offered quick changeover. Most importantly, two dies (or molds) could be fit 29  
30 into each machine. For every machine “shot”<sup>2</sup> two car bodies, four chassis, 30  
31 or some combination could be produced. Die-cast molds had a useful life of 31  
32 about 1.5 million shots, after which time the seams of the mold often began to 32  
33 leak creating excessive wasted zinc called “flash” and eroding the quality of 33  
34 the car. 34

35 The delivery of molten zinc could be machine specific (individual machines 35  
36 equipped with their own melting pots) or a more complicated central furnace 36  
37 and feeder system. The furnace and feeder system reduced energy costs asso- 37  
38 ciated with changing temperature settings on individual machine furnaces and 38  
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40 <sup>2</sup> Shots refer to each time molten zinc is pressed into a mold cavity, allowed to cool, and released 40  
41 into a waiting bin. Shot times for 35T die cast machines were 9-10 seconds each. 41  
42



1 maintained the zinc at a more uniform temperature, thus improving the cast  
2 quality.

3 The bodies and chassis were then removed from the press by the opera-  
4 tor. Bodies and chassis would be separated from the excess metal that flowed  
5 through the mold ducts into the cavities. This excess metal would be removed  
6 and recycled. The bodies and chassis would then be deflashed, deburred, and  
7 polished by vibrating the parts with smooth ceramic stones in a large bowl  
8 for 30 minutes. This process removed all the unwanted metal while smoothing  
9 sharp edges and seams.

10 The decoration of the car involved an electrostatic application of base and  
11 top coat to the car body via a painting system. A common system was supplied  
12 by Ransburg and could be used to paint any metallic surface.<sup>3</sup> Die-cast cars  
13 were attached by hand to a “tree” that hung from a conveyor line which car-  
14 ried the cars through the painting and drying processes. Each tree carried up to  
15 72 cars. The trees themselves were spaced 16 inches apart and run at the con-  
16 veyor speed of 7 feet per minute. On the other hand, chassis were electroplated  
17 to prevent corrosion and to maintain a shiny appearance.<sup>4</sup> The electroplating  
18 process involved dipping the metal chassis in a series of chemical baths to  
19 deposit a thin layer of shiny metal.

20 After applying the base color, additional decorations were applied to the car  
21 body and other parts using a “tampo” machine. Aside from the zinc weight of  
22 a die-cast vehicle, the major source of variance in the cost<sup>5</sup> of a car was the  
23 number of tampo operations the car under-went. Each “hit” by a tampo ma-  
24 chine added one color to one surface of the car. Highly decorated cars with  
25 dozens of colors, like NASCAR replicas or highly detailed collectibles, tended  
26 to cost more than vehicles with fewer colors and decorations. The determi-  
27 nation of how much decoration to apply to a product was purely a marketing  
28 decision.<sup>6</sup> Standard Hot Wheels and Matchbox cars typically sold for under  
29 \$1.00 in US retail stores, while NASCAR and other collector edition cars were  
30 usually priced at \$3.00 or more.

31 In addition to die-cast parts, most mini-vehicles included plastic injection-  
32 molded parts, notably the interior, the windows, the wheels and sometimes the  
33

34 <sup>3</sup> Ransburg and other electrostatic painting systems are used in many industries including the  
35 automobile industry, to paint metal products.

36 <sup>4</sup> Many mini-vehicles, including many Hot Wheels cars, had plastic chassis in order to reduce  
37 zinc cost, and thus did not use electroplating.

38 <sup>5</sup> The number of moving parts, i.e., moving doors and hoods, can also affect cost significantly.  
39 Most of the basic vehicles produced by Mattel did not have moving parts.

40 <sup>6</sup> As a marketing ploy, Matchbox enclosed an unpainted, untrimmed “first shot” car in the same  
41 box with the corresponding, finished collectible to illustrate the “before and after” effect of  
42 decorating the car.

1 chassis. These parts were produced on conventional plastic injection molding 1  
2 machines that were commonly used to produce other small plastic toys as well 2  
3 as thousands of other products. As with die-cast machines, there were many 3  
4 types and sizes of plastic injection molding machines. Plastic injection molds 4  
5 typically had 2 cavities per mold and a useful life of about two million shots.<sup>7</sup> 5  
6 70 ton injection mold machines would be required to produce plastic chassis, 6  
7 windshields, interiors, engines, etc. 110 ton machines were needed to produce 7  
8 the wheel components. Each car required one wheel mold and an average of 8  
9 2.5 molds for other plastic parts<sup>8</sup>. Wheels were typically produced on a 32- 9  
10 cavity mold. Cycle time for the 70 and 110 ton injection mold machines was 10  
11 typically 16 and 20 seconds respectively. 11

12 Plastic parts were sometimes finished using vacuum metalizing (VUM) to 12  
13 impart a silvery metallic sheen to the parts. The plastic parts were first painted 13  
14 with a base coat of lacquer. Next, a thin film of metal was applied to the plastic 14  
15 parts by ionizing lengths of tungsten metal in a vacuum chamber. One system 15  
16 would typically satisfy all volume demand up to 100 million units of produc- 16  
17 tion and cost approximately \$1.2 million. While some Hong Kong vendors 17  
18 had electroplating systems, most would choose not to purchase VUM systems, 18  
19 but rather outsource that process for the relatively few vehicles having VUM 19  
20 parts. After VUM, the plastic bodies would be given a top coat of clear lacquer 20  
21 to preserve the finish. If a colored metallic was desired, the clear coat could be 21  
22 dyed (for example red or gold). 22

23 After molding, wheels were decorated in a hot stamping process used to 23  
24 apply the metallic appearance to the hub cap area of the plastic wheels. The 24  
25 assembly of the wheels and axles, called the “barbell” assembly, was tradi- 25  
26 tionally performed by hand. Because Mattel’s Malaysia factory was located in 26  
27 a relatively high labor cost area, Mattel had developed machines to automati- 27  
28 cally insert the pins into the wheels to form the barbell assembly. This process 28  
29 was unique to Mattel. 29

30 The assembly of the various pieces of the vehicle into a final product was 30  
31 performed manually by unskilled labor. This operation often involved conveyor 31  
32 belt systems, or small 2–6 person manufacturing cells, where the main piece 32  
33 of equipment employed was a device that fastened the body and chassis of the 33  
34 car together (a process called “staking”) after it was manually assembled. 34  
35

36  
37 <sup>7</sup> Most plant processes were planned to run one 8-hour shift per day, however, both the injection 37  
38 molding and die casting processes would run three 8-hour shifts. Production calculations for 38  
39 the three shift processes used a 22 hour day, or 7.3 hour shift, to account for downtime and 39  
40 breaks. 40

41 <sup>8</sup> This figure varies from car to car. The engineering standard for Hot Wheels averaged 2.5 molds 41  
42 per car. 42

1 Packaging the product, usually in blister packs, was often carried out at the 1  
2 manufacturing facility. Most vendors had heat sealant machines which sealed 2  
3 plastic blisters to pre-printed “blister cards,” and used those devices to package 3  
4 a variety of other toys and products in addition to mini-vehicles. The printing of 4  
5 the blister cards or other packaging, and the vacuum forming of the blister was 5  
6 often outsourced, but could be performed in-house, depending on a vendor’s 6  
7 preference.<sup>9</sup> 7

8 The process of manufacturing a mini-vehicle was labor intensive and in- 8  
9 volved machine production processes that were, for the most part, modular 9  
10 in nature. Operating in low labor cost countries like China or Malaysia, labor 10  
11 cost typically represented 10–20% of the product cost. With the possible 11  
12 exception of the Ransburg painting system (and the more rarely used electro- 12  
13 plating and VUM systems) most segments of the production process could be 13  
14 expanded incrementally as needed, without creating significant excess capac- 14  
15 ity at any step in the process or requiring significant capital expenditures. In 15  
16 fact, whether a vehicle was all plastic or part die-cast metal and part plastic, the 16  
17 production process was generally not susceptible to large economies of scale 17  
18 – aside from the usual economies associated with spreading facility and plant 18  
19 management costs over a large number of products. Mattel’s own experience 19  
20 as well as that of the vendors Mattel had engaged, demonstrated that multi- 20  
21 product production was sufficient to obtain much of the possible production 21  
22 economies. Aside from facility and management overhead costs, most of the 22  
23 mini-vehicle production process could be described as proportional to the 23  
24 incremental machinery that was added to the plant as production needs increased. 24  
25 Transportation costs from Asia to Los Angeles varied between \$3,000-\$4,000 25  
26 for a shipping container that could hold up to 300,000 cars. 26  
27 27

## 28 **5.5. Outsourcing Strategy – Vendor Operations Asia** 28

29 29  
30 30  
31 Vendor Operations Asia (VOA) was the outsourcing arm of Mattel, Inc. 31  
32 Montalto and his personal assistant started operations in 1988 with very little 32  
33 capital and a lot of faith. The vendor concept was initiated following an exten- 33  
34 sive competitive study by McKinsey and Company. The study recommended 34  
35 that Mattel differentiate between core and non-core products, manufacturing 35  
36 its core products in-house and outsourcing all non-core products. Mattel orig- 36  
37 inally decided that its Barbie and Hot Wheels products were core. In the fol- 37  
38 lowing years, the company added selective Disney and Fisher-Price lines to 38  
39 the list. Non-core products tended to be promotional items, or toys with short 39  
40 40

41 <sup>9</sup> A new vacuum forming machine cost approximately \$105,000. 41  
42 42

1 life cycles that were often introduced together with a children's television se- 1  
2 ries (examples include The Mighty Ducks, and Street Sharks). Non-core toys 2  
3 experienced the fashion-like demand typical in the toy industry. 3

4 By 1997, VOA employed over 400 staff and generated sales revenues in 4  
5 excess of \$1.4 billion. The group operated through a network of approximately 5  
6 35 vendors that were contracted to manufacture Mattel products. Vendors were 6  
7 typically registered Hong Kong companies with manufacturing facilities and 7  
8 political expertise in mainland China. VOA selected vendors to produce new 8  
9 toys based on expected time to market, a vendor's manufacturing competence, 9  
10 unique process capabilities, and price. 10

11 VOA enabled Mattel to produce a large number of short life-cycle toys with- 11  
12 out the capital commitments required in wholly owned manufacturing. More- 12  
13 over, it enabled Mattel to push certain risks onto its suppliers. These risks in- 13  
14 cluded demand variability and product diversity. Supplier metrics were based 14  
15 on the ability to produce high quality goods at a competitive price, and to de- 15  
16 liver them to end-users on-time. Toy sales were directly related to the number 16  
17 of new product introductions and speed to market. In recent years, Mattel had 17  
18 introduced roughly 300 new, non-core toys each year. 18

19 The strength of VOA rested on its vendor relationships. Mattel was a mar- 19  
20 keting driven company that demanded high product quality and precise de- 20  
21 sign conformance. Montalto's organization had been challenged for almost a 21  
22 decade to help individual vendors develop the internal capabilities necessary 22  
23 to satisfy Mattel's standards. It was an ongoing process that spanned multi- 23  
24 ple types of manufacturing, from the assembly of plush toys (like Winnie-the- 24  
25 Pooh) to the fabrication of technology goods such as children's tape recorders 25  
26 and cameras (sold under the Fisher-Price brand). 26

27 The new toy development process began at Mattel's corporate headquar- 27  
28 ters in California. Design teams created a *Bid Package* that contained the new 28  
29 product's blue print, engineering specifications and often a physical model. 29  
30 The *Bid Package* was sent to VOA for vendor quotation and selection. After a 30  
31 vendor had been selected *Tool Start/Debug* began. Each new toy required a set 31  
32 of tools for manufacture. The most common tools were hardened steel molds 32  
33 used in plastic injection and die casting. Shortly after *Tool Start* came *Tool Let*. 33  
34 This was a scheduling milestone and was considered day one of the produc- 34  
35 tion process. *Tool Let* was the point at which Mattel assumed liability for the 35  
36 tooling costs. Tooling costs varied considerably based on the complexity of the 36  
37 toy – tool sets for past toys ranged from \$50,000 to \$2,000,000. After the tools 37  
38 were completed the production process began. Step one or *First Shots* (FS) was 38  
39 typically a run of 50 units to determine what mold/process modifications were 39  
40 required. This was also the point at which a commitment date by the vendor 40  
41 was established. Step two, or *Engineering Pilot* (EP), was for touch-up. There 41  
42 42

1 could be a second or third EP if necessary, depending on the toy's complexity. 1  
2 Step three was the *Final Engineering Pilot* (FEP) that established complete 2  
3 test durability. Step four was *Production Pilot* (PP); typically 1,000 units were 3  
4 run at this stage and the manufacturer used the entire assembly line to run the 4  
5 product. When the new toy met design compliance, step five, *Production Start* 5  
6 (PS) began. 6  
7

## 8 5.6. Production Options 8

### 9 5.6.1 Guangzhou 9

10 By the summer of 1997, Mattel was close to a decision to build a new plant 10  
11 in Southern China to handle the increased demand for Hot Wheels and to con- 11  
12 solidate Matchbox production. Labor in the Guangzhou region was cheap and 12  
13 plentiful. Including benefits such as dormitories and educational programs, the 13  
14 fully loaded rate was less than \$0.50/hour (see Exhibit 5.4). To avoid main- 14  
15 land China's 21% import duty on capital equipment, Mattel planned to locate 15  
16 the facility in one of the special Industrial Zones. The most promising site 16  
17 under consideration was located in the Guangzhou Baiyun Industrial Zone. The 17  
18 Baiyun zone was in Luogang township, east of Guangzhou. It was 12 miles 18  
19 from Baiyun International Airport and 3 miles from Huangpu New Harbor. A 19  
20 medium-sized cargo railway station was located in the zone. 20  
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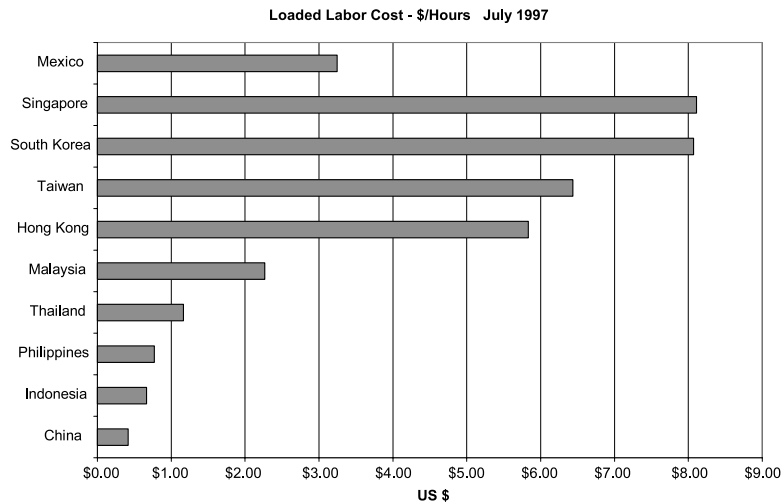


Exhibit 5.4. Labor Rates in July 1997.

1 Based on estimates from MMSB, the single story facility required about 1  
2 325,000 square feet to accommodate 100 million units of production per year. 2  
3 Contractor quotes for building the factory shell were \$10 per square foot. 3  
4 Bringing the shell to usability in terms of water pipes, telephone lines, elec- 4  
5 trical wiring, etc. was conservatively estimated at 50% of the shell's cost. Mat- 5  
6 tel would also be responsible for building dormitories to house the factory 6  
7 workers. Dormitories would each have six floors (maximum height without 7  
8 elevators) and approximately 2500 square feet per floor. Based on its other 8  
9 manufacturing sites in South East Asia, Mattel was committed to providing 9  
10 a minimum of 40 square feet of living space per direct labor employee. Staff 10  
11 labor would require a minimum of 100 square feet per employee. 11

12 The idea of building the China plant had been analyzed for nearly a year. 12  
13 By July, Montalto's team had developed a capital expenditure request that 13  
14 was circulating at the corporate headquarters in California. The plan included 14  
15 three options for the initial size of the plant (50, 100, 150M cars). It ap- 15  
16 peared that one of the options would certainly be approved and that con- 16  
17 struction would commence in the beginning of 1998, with first production in 17  
18 1999. Then overnight the environment changed. Starting with South Korea and 18  
19 spreading quickly throughout the region, plunging currencies and stockmarkets 19  
20 turned the fast growing Asian economies on their ears. It happened so quickly 20  
21 that companies like Mattel were caught by surprise. Reflecting on the rapid 21  
22 changes, the *Economist* lamented, 22

23 "If anybody had predicted a year ago that Indonesia, South Korea and Thailand 23  
24 would have to go cap in hand to the IMF, they would have been thought mad. This 24  
25 was, after all, the East Asia whose economic policies the international financial 25  
26 community was forever applauding: a world away from Latin America or Africa, 26  
27 where trouble was always on the cards."<sup>10</sup> 27

28 By January, many of the East Asian currencies had been sharply devalued (see 28  
29 Exhibit 5.5). Yet China, whose currency was not fully convertible and thus 29  
30 fixed by the central government, held steadfast. Thus, in relationship to other 30  
31 countries in the region, China no longer looked as inexpensive and the plant 31  
32 decision was back out on the table at Mattel. 32  
33

### 34 5.6.2 Indonesia 34

35 With the rapid devaluation of Indonesia's currency, some inside Mattel felt 35  
36 it should be considered again as a possible site for a new plant. Indonesia had 36  
37 very low labor rates and was thus suitable for high labor products. Because of 37  
38 this, Mattel had already built a doll factory in Jakarta in 1996. The reduction in 38  
39 40

41 <sup>10</sup> "Frozen Miracle," *Economist*, March 7 1998. 41  
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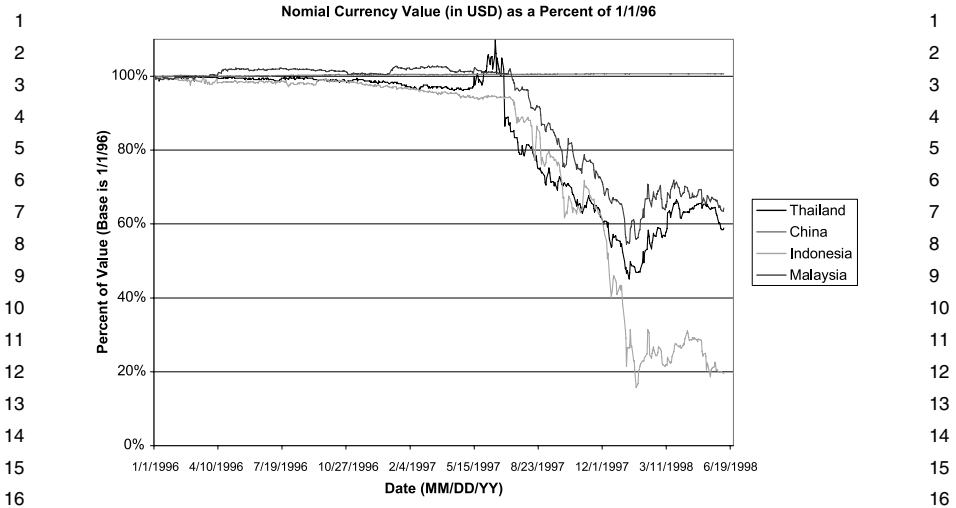


Exhibit 5.5. Exchange Rates.

currency value had made the labor even cheaper. However, labor productivity was low and managers at Mattel felt it was unlikely that productivity levels could ever be improved to Malaysian levels. Earlier investigations had identified Surabaya as a possible plant site where the costs of building a plant were similar to those in China. In addition to standard return on investment criteria, Mattel was also trying to diversify risk. There was inherent volatility in dealing with third world countries, due to both internal changes in regulations and external pressures. Adding Indonesia gave Mattel a diversification advantage its competitors didn't have, while at the same time allowing the company sufficient economic leverage to maintain some influence with local governments. In principle, these same advantages would apply to a new die-cast facility. In addition, Mattel's experience in running an operation in Indonesia would be a significant advantage when starting up a new facility. However, Indonesia's government was under intense public reproach and it was not clear if the long-time president could survive the crisis.

### 5.6.3 Penang

Located in Penang, Mattel Malaysia Sdn Bdh (MMSB) was the only Mattel facility that manufactured Hot Wheels vehicles. Mattel acquired the plant from GEC (of the UK) in September 1980. At the time of its acquisition, the plant was an 80,000 square foot facility used to manufacture TV sets. Mattel began production at MMSB in January 1981. Total start-up costs amounted to

1 approximately \$5 million (in 1980 dollars), and production volume at MMSB 1  
2 for the first two to three years averaged 30 to 35 million mini-vehicles per year. 2  
3 In 1984, Mattel added 180,000 square feet to the plant and began manufactur- 3  
4 ing male action figures. The plant was again expanded in 1994 by an additional 4  
5 5000 square feet. 5

6 In 1996 the plant was dedicated to mini-vehicle production providing a 6  
7 significant capacity expansion. The 1996 expansion effectively used up the 7  
8 available space for die-cast car production at MMSB, resulting in Mattel's de- 8  
9 termination in June of 1996 to begin outsourcing incremental mini-vehicles 9  
10 requirements (11 million vehicles in 1996) from vendors in China. China ven- 10  
11 dors provided nearly 35 million vehicles to Mattel in 1997 and were expected 11  
12 to provide between 40 and 50 million vehicles in 1998. Throughout 1997 Arun 12  
13 Kochar, VP and plant director, worked to increase MMSB capacity by im- 13  
14 proving the production process. By the end of the year, MMSB was producing 14  
15 over 10 million units per month, based on two shifts per day, six days a week. 15  
16 Kochar felt that another 10–20% improvement might be possible in 1998, but 16  
17 doubted further sustainable increases could be achieved. 17

18 Labor at the Malaysian plant was very productive with high quality out- 18  
19 put. As compared with other poorer countries in East Asia, labor in Penang 19  
20 was more skilled and expensive. The higher skill translated into a high quality 20  
21 product and allowed Mattel the flexibility needed to support the rolling product 21  
22 mix that changed weekly. Unfortunately, the labor market was getting tight. To 22  
23 keep a steady flow of labor, Kochar had to regularly recruit workers from the 23  
24 small towns in the countryside. Workers were predominantly young women, 24  
25 many of whom stayed in Mattel furnished housing. Mattel was very sensitive 25  
26 to labor conditions and often over compensated both in age requirements and 26  
27 working conditions. For example, the plant had recently installed air condi- 27  
28 tioning to increase worker comfort, yet very few workers had air conditioning 28  
29 in their own homes. 29  
30

#### 31 **5.6.4 Kuala Lumpur** 31 32

33 Another possible site for a new plant was in Kuala Lumpur (KL), Malaysia. 33  
34 Mattel already had a doll factory in KL and the existing die-cast plant in 34  
35 Penang. Adding another die-cast facility in KL would offer the company sin- 35  
36 gle country manufacturing and greater managerial control. Economies of scale 36  
37 would come in the form of internal tool production and inter-plant exchange, 37  
38 management staff, material input costs, and distribution. In addition, the 38  
39 labor population in Malaysia was, on average, more productive than anywhere 39  
40 else in Southeast Asia. There were two downsides to making KL a future plant 40  
41 site – labor availability problems and higher labor costs. 41  
42



1 **5.6.5 Bangkok** 1

2  
3 Under Tyco, the manufacturing of Matchbox toys was divided between two 2  
4 factories, one in Bangkok and one in Shanghai (Shanghai Universal Toy Com- 3  
5 pany or SUTC). Excess demand beyond the capacity of these two plants was 4  
6 outsourced to a pool of south China vendors. Over recent years, Tyco manage- 5  
7 ment led by Rug Burad (VP of Tyco Manufacturing) had been gradually phas- 6  
8 ing out much of the Bangkok plant's production due to management costs and 7  
9 poor quality. Many of the conventional molds used to produce Matchbox cars 8  
10 had been moved to Shanghai. When Mattel took over the partnership position 9  
11 in Bangkok, the factory was producing only 21 million units in a building that 10  
12 could accommodate equipment and workers for production of 50 million units. 11  
13 The Matchbox plant was brought under the management of Kochar. Much of 12  
14 the remaining equipment was old and the presses were equipped to handle only 13  
15 conventional molds. Retrofitting the machines to accept unit dies would be ex- 14  
16 pensive. Since Hot Wheels were made almost exclusively with unit dies, the 15  
17 plant could not effectively take on Hot Wheels volume without further invest- 16  
18 ment. Labor costs in Thailand were half of Malaysia but labor productivity was 17  
19 significantly lower. 18  
20

21 **5.6.6 Shanghai** 21

22  
23 SUTC carried the bulk of Tyco's die-cast car production, producing 33 mil- 23  
24 lion Matchbox units in 1997 with about 1000 workers. The die-cast presses 24  
25 were operating at full capacity and further expansion would require significant 25  
26 equipment investment. The plant not only offered Mattel a production facility 26  
27 but also a domestic distribution license. This non-transferable license enabled 27  
28 Mattel to sell die-cast cars in China as long as it continued operating SUTC 28  
29 at its original location. In 1997, total vehicle sales in China was about three 29  
30 million units. Since the cars were inexpensive and durable, many inside Mattel 30  
31 felt that the market could grow significantly as Chinese parents increased their 31  
32 toy purchases. Closing or relocating the plant would jeopardize the distribu- 32  
33 tion agreement. Moreover, if Mattel closed the plant, it would be forced to pay 33  
34 the Chinese government \$5000/employee in severance. Nevertheless, Montalto 34  
35 was concerned with SUTC's fit with Mattel's future manufacturing strategy. 35  
36 One of the main problems was the minority share partnership position Mattel 36  
37 inherited from Tyco. In addition, the quality standards at SUTC were far below 37  
38 any Hot Wheels producing facility. Strategically within China, Shanghai made 38  
39 a poor location choice for a toy manufacturer because of the city's emphasis 39  
40 on developing technology-based industries and its relatively high labor cost 40  
41 (over \$1.00/hour). Labor productivity was about one half of that in Penang. As 41  
42

1 with Bangkok, the plant employed conventional molds, which would require 1  
2 retrofitting the machines to accept unit dies. 2

### 3 4 **5.6.7 VOA** 4

5  
6 Ideally, Mattel could outsource die-cast production until its own facilities 6  
7 were established. However, the one area where VOA had not developed exten- 7  
8 sive vendor capabilities was in die casting. There were very few South China 8  
9 vendors in the die-cast business and fewer still that could produce high quality 9  
10 products. Die-casting was a cruel business that required large capital invest- 10  
11 ments and offered meager returns. For a vendor to be able to produce Mattel 11  
12 quality cars, a large capital investment (between \$10 and \$30 million) was re- 12  
13 quired. Montalto found it exceedingly difficult to persuade his vendors to take 13  
14 on this new business and the risk associated with it. One notable firm was Zin- 14  
15 dart – a Hong Kong company that had been recently listed on the NASDAQ 15  
16 exchange. Zindart produced a wide range of die-cast cars for many different 16  
17 toy firms as well other non-toy die-cast products. Nevertheless, Montalto wor- 17  
18 ried that there just wasn't enough high-quality, die-cast capacity in the vendor 18  
19 base to meet the Matchbox demand. 19

### 20 21 **5.6.8 Making a Decision** 21

22  
23 Montalto was confident that the Marketing Department's demand forecasts 23  
24 were accurate, especially under the moderate growth scenario. The increased 24  
25 demand for mini-vehicles was expected to come in significant part from Eu- 25  
26 rope where Mattel was re-launching Hot Wheels products. Mattel desperately 26  
27 needed additional die-cast capacity and it was Montalto's job to recommend 27  
28 a way to find it. The fastest way to increase production would be to expand 28  
29 capacity in the existing Mattel facilities. Since Mattel produced Matchbox cars 29  
30 in Bangkok and Shanghai, either one of these factories could be expanded to 30  
31 accommodate more production. The other expansion option concerned VOA it- 31  
32 self and the amount of core business Mattel wanted to outsource. A longer-term 32  
33 solution would be to build new capacity, but the question remained where? 33  
34 Malaysia, Indonesia and China were all viable alternatives for a new die-cast 34  
35 factory. 35

### 36 37 **5.7. Lessons from Mattel** 37

38  
39 With the currency crisis raging, Mattel decided to put its decision to build 39  
40 a new plant in Guangzhou on hold so that it could reanalyze the options and 40  
41 watch the Asian economies cope with the changes. While some executives felt 41  
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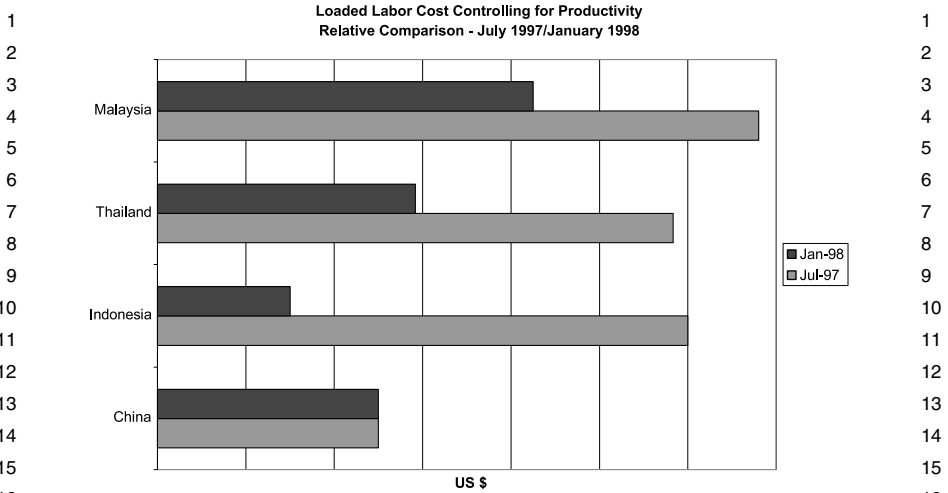


Exhibit 5.6. Impact of Currency Devaluation on Labor Cost.

that the crisis could have lasting impact, Mattel's economists argued that the economic forces of purchasing price parity would, over time, bring the real labor costs back towards pre-crisis levels. Indeed, after a few months, inflation within Indonesia began driving real labor costs back up. Moreover, by January the exchange rate depreciation bottomed out and many Asian currencies began to slowly rise against the US dollar. Productivity and quality also had a significant impact on the decision. Even with the very low wage rate in Indonesia, factoring labor productivity into the analysis made the total cost difference between China and Indonesia much smaller (see Exhibit 5.6). As exchange rates began to stabilize in January, the total labor cost (controlling for productivity and quality) in both Malaysia and Thailand remained higher than China with Indonesia about 30% less expensive. However, Indonesia had suffered from sporadic political and social disruptions and the economic crisis was increasing the unrest. Additionally, many inside Mattel felt that the local inflationary forces would continue to narrow any cost advantage.

Montalto concluded that if China made sense in the first place, a presumed short-term shift in real labor costs should not invalidate the location strategy. The Guangzhou location was aligned with Mattel's overall strategy for die-cast cars, it supported Mattel's diversified portfolio of operations, and it remained a cost-competitive option even after the currency shift. So Mattel went ahead with the plant in Guangzhou, breaking ground in June 1998. The first production occurred during the summer 1999. The plant was designed to handle

Exhibit 5.7. Capacity Management Lessons from Mattel.

Risk	Lesson	Example
<b>Product Supply</b>		
Short Product Life	• Manage product variety with rolling mix	• Building collector markets creates long-life brand and smoothes capacity requirement
Manufacturing Capacity	• Outsourcing strategy	• Outsourcing improves economies of scale and asset utilization
	• Combine off-setting seasonal products	• Snow sleds and swimming pools
Currency Fluctuations	• Financial hedging	• Contracts in stable currency, forward contracts
	• Diversify supply	• Several suppliers in different countries
	• Operational hedging	• Several plants in different countries
Supply Disruptions from Political Issues	• Diversify supply	• Several suppliers/plants in different countries
Control Over Core Products	• Dual sourcing with both internal and outsourced manufacturing provides control while providing risk management.	• Hot Wheels produced both within Mattel facilities and by outsourced partners

65M units with the possibility of adding another 65M. Matchbox production was centralized in the new plant and the rolling mix strategy was initiated in 2000. Bangkok and Shanghai were transitioned to Hot Wheels and other die-cast products (larger scale). In 1998, Penang was able to boost production to 12.5M cars/month covering most of the Hot Wheels demand. Hot Wheels cars that were outsourced were shipped to Penang to be assorted. The subsequent years showed that the decision to go to Guangzhou was a good one.

The Mattel case illustrates many important lessons for those seeking to leverage low-cost sourcing (Exhibit 5.7):<sup>11</sup>

- First, the case shows how toymakers couple their demand management initiatives with strategies to manage supply. For example, the rolling mix strategy was designed to both increase demand and build long-term brand excitement. As it was implemented by Mattel, it also created a smoother, less seasonal capacity requirement by building demand from year-around collectors. It also eased many of the forecasting and logistics challenges of replenishing multiple SKUs from a long-leadtime, Asian supplier base.

<sup>11</sup> Johnson, M. Eric (2001), "Learning From Toys: Lessons in Managing Supply Chain Risk from the Toy Industry," *California Management Review*, Vol. 43, No. 3, 106–124.

- 1 • To reduce investment risk stemming from short product lifecycles and 1  
2 high-demand variability, toymakers like Mattel use coordinated outsourc- 2  
3 ing strategies. For toy marketers, outsourcing enables both small and 3  
4 large toy companies to bring products to market without large invest- 4  
5 ments in plant and equipment. By working with a pool of outsourced sup- 5  
6 pliers, who mitigate their risk by working with many different toy firms, 6  
7 both groups reduce their risks. Contract manufactures can also couple toy 7  
8 production with other counter-seasonal products to reduce swings in their 8  
9 capacity requirements. 9
- 10 • Mattel effectively hedges against political and currency risk by sourcing 10  
11 in many different countries. This operational hedging strategy not only 11  
12 mitigates the risk of currency moves and political upheavals, but also 12  
13 provides toymakers with the opportunity to shift production to take ad- 13  
14 vantage of short-term cost fluctuations. 14
- 15 • By employing a dual sourcing strategy, Mattel achieves high productivity 15  
16 in its own plants while ensuring that changes of customer demand and 16  
17 preferences can be satisfied through outsourced partners. 17

18 Powerful lessons like these prove that managers can learn again from toys.<sup>12</sup> 18  
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40 <sup>12</sup> Johnson, M. Eric (2005), "How Can North Pole Workshops Better Respond to Shifts in De- 40  
41 mand," *Harvard Business Review*, December, 44. 41  
42 42