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**Antecedents and Outcomes of Mid-Level Marketing Managers
Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour**

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*A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Cardiff
University*

**Cardiff Business School,
Cardiff University**

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SUMMARY

This thesis presents a study of mid-level marketing managers' behaviour in product-market strategy implementation with the overall objective of understanding how the performance of product-market strategy implementation might be improved.

A literature review from a number of fields is conducted in order to develop a guiding framework for the development of a conceptual model. By combining perspectives on product-market strategy implementation from a structural, contextual and interpersonal process perspective, the study provides a broad and integrative understanding of product-market strategy implementation performance.

A holistic model encompassing situational antecedents to two dimensions of mid-level marketing managers' product-market strategy implementation behaviour (counterproductive work behaviour and citizenship behaviour) is presented. The outcomes of these dimensions of behaviour are assessed in terms of the internal and external effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation performance. A number of hypotheses are constructed linking situational antecedents to the dimensions of product-market strategy implementation behaviour and these dimensions of behaviour to product-market strategy implementation performance.

The research design and empirical method used to test the hypotheses is developed and presented. A questionnaire is designed and employed as the survey instrument to generate the data on the hypothesized relationships. The method of administration uses a four stage postal survey. The data generated are examined through an analysis of the descriptive statistics before scale construction through principal components analysis. The hypotheses are subsequently tested through correlation analysis and multiple linear regression analysis

A discussion of the findings provides a number of conclusions that make a tangible contribution to knowledge and practice. Several directions for future research that emerge from the findings, in addition to opportunities presented from the limitations of the study are offered.

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Chapter One

Research Context and Purpose of Study

1.1 Introduction

This thesis presents a study of Mid-Level Marketing Managers' (hereafter referred to as MLMs') behaviour in product-market strategy implementation with the overall objective of understanding the antecedents and outcomes of such behaviour to the performance of product-market strategy implementation. This chapter provides the context for the study through a presentation of product-market strategy implementation and the role of MLMs' in this process. This is followed by the provision of the rationale behind the study highlighting the research interests and significance of the study to both theory and practice.

1.2 Research Context

This study aims to explore the antecedents and outcomes to MLMs' behaviour in product-market strategy implementation in an attempt to provide insights as to how performance might be managed and improved. Consequently, the context of the study is product-market strategy implementation whereby MLMs' are considered to play a key role in the process. It is useful to firstly provide an overview of product-market strategy making within organizations, since strong marketing strategies are important to the overall effectiveness of an organization (Smith, 2003a).

In a presentation of marketing strategy taxonomy and frameworks, El Ansary (2006) considers strategy a parent discipline to marketing, with corporate strategy and growth strategy being brother and sister strategies of the firm. Other functional area strategies include production/operation, finance, human resource strategies, competitive strategy, e-strategy and global strategy (El-Ansary, 2006). General conceptualizations of marketing strategy making pertain to the effective allocation of marketing resources to accomplish the organization's objectives within a specific product market (Smith, 2003b). El-Ansary (2006, p.268) defines marketing strategy as “ *the total sum of the*

integration of segmentation, targeting, differentiation and positioning strategies designed to create, communicate and deliver an offer to a target market”.

Two necessary components of marketing strategies are the definition of the target markets and a statement of the product or value proposition to be aimed at that target. This defines how the business intends to compete in the markets it has chosen to serve (Smith, 2003b; Vorhies and Morgan, 2003; Day, 1990). Hence, the term product-market strategy is employed in this study and is synonymous with marketing strategy (El Ansary, 2006; Vorhies and Morgan, 2003; Smith, 2003b). Marketing and other functional strategies, along with corporate and growth strategies are suggested as key for winning the marketing war (El-Ansary, 2006). These strategies are translated into competitive strategies designed to win battles in the market place. Product market strategy contributes to enhancing firm effectiveness through targeting. Whilst products and markets are external measures of effectiveness, synergies may be obtained via internal efficiencies, for example through product-market strategy implementation performance. This leads to productivity gains to achieve customer value. The term product-market strategy as employed in this study serves to emphasize the dual component nature of the process which allows a differentiation from non-marketing functions and from other non-strategy aspects of marketing management. The following section delineates the context of product-market strategy implementation within marketing strategy making as employed in this study.

1.2.1 Product-Market Strategy Implementation

The importance of product-market strategy implementation for organizations today becomes more central as they strive to compete in dynamic and complex environments. In order for strategies to succeed, implementation must work. Regardless of the way organizations wish to achieve growth, strategy implementation is suggested as being as

important to the organization as strategy formulation (Hrebiniak, 2006; White *et al.*, 2003; Aaltonen and Ikavalko, 2002). For example, in a KPMG global research report by Kelly *et al.* (1999), it is found that:

“Planning for the mechanics of merger and acquisition value extraction is worthless unless company employees are willing and able to implement them” (p.15).

Despite the imbalance in research over the years which has favoured formulation at the expense of implementation, this situation, albeit ameliorating, still remains. This is highlighted recently by Hrebiniak (2005, p.5).

“If execution is central to success, why don't more organizations develop a disciplined approach to it? Why don't companies spend time developing and perfecting processes that help them achieve important strategic outcomes? Why can't more companies execute or implement strategies well and reap the benefits of those efforts?”

Clearly, product-market strategy implementation still merits an important place on the agenda for strategy researchers and senior managers in organizations alike. This thesis attempts to address some of the questions in the above quotation through its exploration of product-market strategy implementation.

The literature suggests that there is no consensus as to a definition of product-marketing strategy implementation and that none of the existing definitions focus on the process involved (Noble, 1999). Noble (1999) suggests a definition from a combination of perspectives in the field. According to Noble (1999), strategy implementation is: *“the communication, interpretation and enactment of strategic plans”* (p.120).

This definition is borne of the proposition that research into product-market strategy implementation requires a broadened perspective synthesizing literature from a variety of academic fields (Noble, 1999). This broadened perspective is the foundation for the exploration of product-market strategy implementation performance in this study.

The marketing literature emphasizes the importance of product-market strategy implementation to the strategic marketing process (Simkin, 2002a: 2002b; Noble and

Mokwa, 1999; Gummesson, 1998; Piercy, 1989a). The ability and competence to execute a decision is suggested as being more crucial for success than the underlying analysis, commonly emphasized in formulation (Hrebiniak, 2006; White *et al.*, 2003; Gummesson, 1998). Hrebiniak, (2006), advocates that making strategy work within organizations is more difficult than strategy formulation. There is contemporary consensus in the literature that strategy formulation and implementation are interdependent and should be carried out simultaneously (Hrebiniak, 2006; White *et al.*, 2003; Aaltonen and Ikavalko, 2002; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Moorman and Miner, 1998; Priem, 1990; Wooldridge and Floyd, 1989). This concurrence serves to emphasize the importance of the study of product-market strategy implementation, the oft neglected aspect of planning within organizations` for both theory and practice (Hickson *et al.*, 2003; Aaltonen and Ikavalko, 2002; Harrison, 1992; Nutt, 1987). However, whilst the importance of product-market strategy implementation has been illustrated, it is advantageous to explore what does or should constitute effective product-market strategy implementation in the pursuit of quality marketing strategies.

1.2.2 Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

The literature in the domain of strategic performance views effectiveness as the degree to which organizational goals are reached (Krohmer *et al.*, 2002; Walker and Ruekert, 1987; Ruekert *et al.*, 1985). This study proposes that since the product or service is the focus of product-market strategies then effectiveness concerns the success of the organizations` product and services (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Walker and Ruekert, 1987). Product-market strategy implementation plays a key role in realizing successful product-market strategy.

Product-market strategy implementation effectiveness is an external project level measure resulting from the performance of organizational members involved in the

product-market strategy process. External product-market strategy effectiveness is measured in terms of the extent to which the organizations' product and services have achieved sales, market share and profit objectives since launch, incorporating assessments as to how far performance has achieved management's original expectations (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004).

Critical for external effectiveness is the internal effectiveness by which the product-market strategy is implemented on behalf of those involved. This is a major domain of the MLM. The literature suggests that an understanding of the transformation of resource inputs required to attain the required outputs is imperative (Krohmer *et al.*, 2002; Ruekert *et al.*, 1985). Resources may be firm controlled, including physical resources, intangibles, and for example, time spent on the planning function, the number and quality of personnel and informational resources (Morgan *et al.*, 2002; Rajagopalan and Spreitzer, 1997; Rajagopalan *et al.*, 1993; Venkatraman and Ramanujam, 1986; Ramanujam *et al.*, 1986). Consequently, performance of product-market strategy implementation implies the effective transformation of such resources into relevant external product-market strategy implementation outcomes. MLMs are considered central to this transformation process and therefore, a significant variable becomes the degree to which they achieve the goals and objectives of their particular role (Noble and Mokwa, 1999).

As both the strategic management and marketing literatures indicate, strategy making has witnessed a shift from a preoccupation with the content of strategic decisions to one that stresses the process involved in strategy making, the extent to which the political, informational and temporal dimensions is augmented in the approach (Rajagopalan *et al.*, 1993). Fundamental to the process approach is the need to understand behavioural interactions of individuals, groups and organizational units within and between firms (Chakravarthy and Doz, 1992), where increasingly strategic

decisions become the result of political bargaining within organizations. As such the strategy process has been described as a political process (Whittington and Whipp, 1992; Narayanan and Fahey, 1982; Pettigrew, 1977). As a consequence, emphasis is placed on the managerial understanding of the environment, since how managers' interpret and decode the context they inhabit influences the strategy process (McGee *et al.*, 2005; Piercy and Giles, 1990). This study focuses on MLMMs' as the conduit for understanding the outcomes of product-market strategy implementation performance through an assessment of antecedents to their role behaviour. The MLMM (or related status) is taken as the functional manager who reports to senior marketing management. The reasoning behind this focus is provided in the following section.

1.2.3 The Role of the Mid-Level Marketing Manager in Product-Market Strategy Implementation

Traditional organizational structure extends command from the senior managers, through the positions of mid-level and first line managers, to individual employees (Embertson, 2006). Embertson (2006) defines the mid-level manager as any manager who is two levels below the CEO but one level above line workers or professionals. Similarly, Fenton-O'Creevy, (1998), defines mid-level managers' are those managers below the most senior tier but do not include individuals with first line supervisory responsibility who have no career path to higher management levels. From this position mid-level management act as coordinators of an organizational unit's day-to-day activities with the activities of vertically related groups (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992).

The importance of the role of the mid-level manager rests on the nature of the tasks involved. The array of work involves administrative, technical and managerial activities (Torrington and Weightman, 1987). Consequently, an increasing amount of day-to-day tasks and the guidance of the employees performing them are delegated to mid-level managers. This requires confidence from mid-level managers to be able to

deal with uncertainties, and from senior managers to delegate appropriate authority, and from subordinates to follow the managers lead (McConville, 2006). Since senior managers are further removed from these tasks and the complex networks of behaviour that are part of an organization, mid-level managers become the link for information exchange between upper management and lower-level employees. They play a vital role in keeping in touch with people and operations (Embertson, 2006). As every day champions, mid-level managers can support and strengthen an organization through their knowledge of and experience with organizational details. As such they act as conduits in the coordination of senior and operating level activities.

Thus, mid-level managers' may be functional department heads, project or product managers, and brand managers (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994). In this current research, focus is placed on the role of the MLMM. Thus, the MLMM (or related status) is the marketing manager who reports to senior marketing management in terms of the implementation of product-market strategies. In this context, the role of the MLMM might involve defining tactics and developing budgets for achieving the product-market strategy, monitoring the performance of individuals and subunits and taking corrective action when behaviour falls outside expectations (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994).

Several studies in the domain of organizational change and strategic management suggest that mid-level managers play an important role in ensuring successful strategy implementation (Hrebiniak, 2006; Hantang, 2005; Moutinho and Phillips, 2002; Miller, 1997; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994; Jackson and Humble, 1994; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992). Whilst traditionally mid-level managers' have not been considered part of the strategy process, apart from providing informational inputs and directing strategy implementation, (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992) assert that contemporary theory views mid-level manager' as regularly influencing strategy and providing impetus for new initiatives. Even if the making of decisions takes place

predominantly at senior levels, implementation will almost certainly require the involvement of others lower down the hierarchy (Miller, 1997; Schilit and Paine, 1987). Mid-level managers become the agents of change processes, but as employees, they are often the foci of change. (McConville, 2006). They are expected to deal with this change, and to implement policies dictated by senior management.

The role of the mid-level manager in organizations today is much debated. Research points to reengineering and downsizing in organizations significantly reducing the number of mid-level managers' in organizations (Currie, 1999; Fenton-O`Creedy, 1998; Jackson and Humble, 1994; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994). Yet, the role of the mid-level manager is nevertheless still important (Embertson, 2006) although evolving and necessitating a more in-depth understanding in specific contexts (Currie, 1999). To this end, product-market strategy implementation performance provides the context for this study and, therefore, it is the role of mid-level marketing manager (MLMM) that is considered to provide beneficial insights into how product-market strategy might be improved.

According to (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994) two principle dimensions underlie the role of the mid-level manager. These dimensions include the behavioural activity of the mid-level manager, and a cognitive dimension. Four key elements result from Floyd and Wooldridges', (1994) typology. Firstly, *implementing deliberate strategy* is the most commonly recognized strategic role of the mid-level manager. This involves the deployment of resources both efficiently and effectively (Menon *et al.*, 1999). However, according to Floyd and Wooldridge, (1994), whilst this might have been regarded as the only role of the mid-level manager in traditional conceptions, further elements highlight that mid-level managers' role is broader and more complex and might be regarded more from a process perspective through the entwining of formulation and implementation (Parsa, 1999; Noble and Mokwa, 1999). Additional elements of Floyd and

Wooldridges', (1994) typology include *championing strategic alternatives* involving acting as an initial screen selecting from a variety of business opportunities suggested at operational levels. Mid-level managers' are able to exert upward influence on strategic decisions which has been found to result in a positive relationship with organizational performance (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992; Deluga and Perry, 1991; Kohli, 1985). A further element in this role involves *synthesizing information*. It is likely that mid-level managers' are not objective in this supply of information, and are able to control or at least influence senior management perceptions by presenting information in certain ways. This, it is suggested, may have a positive impact in encouraging senior management to take necessary risks (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992). *Facilitating adaptability* involves mid-level managers' encouraging the pursuit of strategy through alternative means to those intended by senior management. The work of Burgelman, (1983) on 'autonomous strategic behaviours' provides further support for this element of the role of mid-level managers'. This evolving role is more complex and challenging whereby the mid-level manager is no longer a technocrat, but knowledge based individual who is expected to do more with less (Moutinho and Phillips, 2002).

The domain of the mid-level manager might therefore be considered a fruitful area of study, given the importance of this role for co-ordination, information exchange, managing uncertainty and employee guidance. More specifically, importance is attached to their role in product-market strategy implementation, since MLMMs act as change agents providing important informational inputs. They motivate communication and can create an environment that encourages information sharing (Embertson, 2006).

MMLMs can be a powerful ally for senior managers as they champion new ideas.

Further, they have the ability to recognize problems at the front line of operations and to generate solutions faster than senior managers. Their knowledge of priorities and the wider strategic picture allows them to build a framework for interpreting information

and providing new solutions. Finally, they must monitor and control elements of the system so that employees at lower levels are satisfied and objectives can be met (Embertson, 2006). Thus, they provide employees with needed support and encouragement.

Consequently, this study argues that the role of the MLMM is important to the success of product-marketing strategy implementation. Indeed, Morgan *et al.* (2002) state that there is a lack of understanding of MLMMs' role in transforming resource inputs into organizationally valuable outputs (Morgan *et al.*, 2002). Further, a recent study published by the DTI (2005) entitled "People, Strategy and Performance" cites people as the primary determinant of business performance. Against this backdrop, this current research argues that it is the internal effectiveness of MLMMs' performance in their role that is integral to external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness and ultimately, quality marketing strategies. Extant studies from a variety of different fields of research point to an array of factors that can either facilitate or act against MLMMs' role in the strategy process. These studies have been carried out from a variety of perspectives and include the organizational framework and structural dimension (Frankwick *et al.*, 1994; Skivington and Daft, 1991; Walker and Ruekert, 1987; Gupta and Govindarajan, 1984); organizational context dimension (Blomquist and Muller, 2006; Clinebell and Shadwick, 2005; Miller *et al.*, 2004; Simkin, 2002b; Noble, 1999; Piercy and Morgan, 1994; Bonoma and Crittenden, 1988) and an interpersonal process dimension (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996; Korsgaard *et al.*, 1995; Deluga and Perry, 1991; Bourgeois and Brodwin, 1984).

Most research studies of the mid-level manager focus on their role as controllers of others whereby little attention is paid to the behaviour that these as coping individuals caught between conflicting obligations might enact (Brower and Abolafia, 1995). The notion of managerial level resistance is not a new concept (Connors and

Romberg, 1991; Guth and MacMillan, 1986). Indeed, research into employee involvement within organizations frequently cites employee resistance at middle management level (Harris and Ogbonna, 2002; Fenton-O`Creevy, 1998; Agocs, 1997). Resistance is found in a variety of forms and often does not take a strongly active form, but may be much more covert in nature (Fleming and Sewell, 2002; Fenton-O`Creevy, 1998; Thompson and Ackroyd, 1995). This might include engaging in only those involvement activities most visible to senior management (Fenton-O`Creevy, 1998). Clearly acts of resistance work in opposition to product-market strategy implementation effectiveness and ultimate organizational performance. Such behaviour has been termed `counterproductive work behaviour` in the literature (Dalal, 2005). Counterproductive work behaviour is defined by Dalal, (2005) as:

“intentional employee behaviour that is harmful to the legitimate interests of an organization” (p.1242).

Consequently, exploring how this behaviour impacts on product-market strategy implementation performance provides a novel and insightful understanding of how poor product-market implementation performance may be moderated. Additionally, whilst an understanding of counterproductive work behaviour has the potential to add to an understanding of poor performance, it is also judged intuitive to explore organizational behaviour that has a positive impact on product-market strategy implementation performance. To this end the literature on citizenship behaviour is considered useful. A plethora of research into civic citizenship behaviour has been extended into the workplace whereby positive organizational relevant behaviours such as in-role job behaviours and organizational extra-role behaviours are found to improve organizational performance (Dalal, 2005; Lee and Allen, 2002; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994; George and Brief, 1992; Bateman and Organ, 1983). This study explores the role played by citizenship behaviour in product-market strategy implementation performance. This is an important direction for research since encouraging employees

by rewarding them for good citizenship is reported as distinguishing high performing businesses from low, (DTI, 2005). Whilst acknowledging that citizenship behaviour and counterproductive work behaviour are not necessarily opposite forms of behaviour, (see (Dalal, 2005), exploring MLMMs' behaviour from these two perspectives simultaneously is felt to add to both academic theory and management practice, since there exists not precedent in studies into product-market strategy implementation. It is the role of the MLMM in this study that is incorporated into assessments of those issues which may facilitate or indeed hinder product-market strategy implementation performance.

In summary, a number of studies have pointed to failure in strategy making being due to poor implementation (Hrebiniak, 2006; Nutt, 1999; Bonoma, 1984). The study of implementation has received relatively less attention in the literature than that of formulation (Hickson *et al.*, 2003; Aaltonen and Ikavalko, 2002; Parsa, 1999; Nutt, 1999), leading to what has been termed an '*implementation gap*' (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1996). It has been highlighted that there are significant organizational and human forces which must be addressed if researchers hope to fully understand how product-market strategy implementation might be enhanced. Crucial to this understanding is the role played by mid-level manager, and in this study, particularly the MLMM. Extant studies from a variety of different fields of research point to a number of antecedents that can either facilitate or act against MLMM's role in the strategy process. It is argued that the level of internal implementation effectiveness achieved through the role performance of these managers' is a result of their perception of these antecedents. Consequently, exploring the relationships between these important situational antecedents, MLMMs' behaviour and product-market strategy implementation performance helps to close the '*implementation gap*' in existing research.

1.3 Nature of the Study

This study is founded upon the research imperative to examine the role of MLMs` in product-market strategy implementation. A holistic model that encompasses antecedents to two particular dimensions of MLMs` behaviour is developed, providing insights into outcomes in terms of product-market implementation performance. Of central interest to this thesis is an understanding of how product-market strategy implementation performance might be managed and enhanced.

1.3.1 A Process Model of Antecedents and Outcomes of Mid-Level Marketing Managers` Behaviour in Product-Market Strategy Implementation

A literature review from a number of fields is conducted (Chapter Two) in order to develop a guiding framework for the development of the conceptual model. The literature reveals that research into marketing strategy making has followed a similar route to that of research in the general strategy domain where there has been a shift in emphasis from a preoccupation with the content of marketing strategies to one that emphasizes the need to take a process perspective (Johnson *et al.*, 2003; Piercy, 1998; Dawson, 1994; Rajagopalan *et al.*, 1993; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992). It is in this broader perspective that the role of product-market strategy implementation is elevated. Consequently, effective product-market strategies are not simply the result of having managers skilled in the tools and techniques of marketing analysis, formulation and developing marketing programs (Hrebiniak, 2006). Additionally, there are significant organizational and behavioural influences which need to be taken into consideration (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Simkin, 2002a; Simkin, 2002b; Dibb and Simkin, 2001; Noble, 1999; Piercy and Giles, 1990). Most existing models of strategy making fail to fully capture the variety of phenomena incorporated in the process and little attention has been given to the varying roles managers` play in developing strategy (White *et al.*, 2003).

By combining perspectives on product-market strategy implementation from a structural, contextual and interpersonal process perspective, this study aims to provide a much broader and integrative understanding of product-market strategy implementation performance. In order to explore the role of MLMs' in product-market strategy implementation, it becomes necessary to determine a number of organizational antecedents that are considered to influence this role as regards the dimensions of behaviour enacted.

A conceptual model is proposed and subsequently empirically tested that describes a number of factors identified as reflecting situational antecedents, implementation behaviour, and outcomes relative to product-market strategy implementation performance. The constructs investigated for situational antecedents include job characteristics, control and reward mechanisms, and procedural justice to reflect procedural antecedents; support, participation, strategy formulation effectiveness, strategy commitment, organizational attachment, and superior-subordinate relationships to reflect strategy process antecedents. Counterproductive work behaviour and citizenship behaviour are investigated to reflect implementation behaviour. Finally, internal and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness are investigated as constructs for product-market strategy implementation performance.

A number of hypotheses are constructed linking situational antecedents to implementation behaviour and the effect of the different dimensions of behaviour is then linked to product-market strategy implementation performance. These relationships are presented in detail in Chapter Three, and represented diagrammatically in Figure 3.1.

A research design and empirical method used to test the hypotheses is developed. A questionnaire is designed to be employed as the survey instrument to generate the data on the hypothesized relationships, taking into consideration

recommendations for effective questionnaire development as advocated by a number of researchers (De Vaus, 2002; Dillman, 2000). The method of administration is via a four stage postal survey including a pre-notification letter, followed by the questionnaire pack, a first and second reminder. This approach follows Dillman's, (2000) 'Tailored Design Method' guidelines so as to encourage a robust response rate. The questionnaire was administered to a sample of 701 high technology firms in the UK. High technology firms were chosen as typically such organizations develop and introduce products onto the market at a greater frequency than other organizations in an attempt to create wealth (O'Regan and Ghobadian, 2005; Hitt *et al.*, 2001). The key respondent was the marketing manager of related position. The process yielded 128 usable responses producing a response rate of 21.4%, calculated from the guidelines published by the Council of American Survey Research Organizations (CASRO). A number of investigations for non response and response bias were employed. This response rate was considered acceptable for a survey based on a postal questionnaire.

The data generated were examined through an analysis of the descriptive statistics before scale construction was performed via principal components analysis. This leads to the testing of the hypotheses through correlation analysis and multiple linear regression analysis. On the whole, the hypothesized relationships were supported, although a few sub-component hypotheses were not upheld. A discussion of the findings provided a number of conclusions leading to implications for both theory and practice.

1.4 Rationale of the Study

This section provides the background to the purpose of the study by illustrating the interest and the significance in the domain of product-market strategy implementation. This is followed by a presentation of the significance of this study to both academia and management practice.

1.4.1 Research Interest

The backdrop provided for this thesis is to fulfill the common requirement to produce an original contribution to the field (Leonard, 2001), but at the same time be challenging and intrinsically valuable and rewarding. Allied to this is the applicability of the findings of the research, i.e. within the research community and through the production of knowledge within the marketing profession.

In deciding on the topic, it was felt primarily that there had to be a good balance between interest and marketability. Having a clear interest in the research area allows for a higher propensity to finish the thesis and also to convince other people of the interest of this research. Choosing a topic simply because it is `trendy` is ill advised since the topic might be out of fashion sooner than the thesis is completed (Leonard, 2001).

From this starting point, considerable time and attention was devoted to the choice of topic with preliminary excursions having been made into related issues prior to the course of study. Having written a number of papers on certain aspects of the topic allowed the author to develop knowledge in the general field. Clearly this permitted the formulation of subsequent ideas for the thesis through being aware of ongoing research to this end. This encouraged the adoption of an integrative and cross disciplinary approach to marketing strategy making by integrating theory from the domains of strategic management, human resource management (HRM), organizational behaviour and work psychology for example.

The strategic management literature already pointed to the importance of behavioural issues to implementation performance. For example in the field of mergers and acquisitions, a dearth of research cites the `people issues` as being the make or

break of the deal at the integration stage (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2000); Diotte and Smith, 1998; Davenport, 1998).

The literature further reveals the importance of integrating other disciplines into an understanding of strategy making (Whittington *et al.*, 2003; Ogbonna and Whipp, 1999). Ogbonna and Whipp (1999), suggest the importance of combining strategy and HRM in an attempt to provide insights into the facilitation of organizational performance. The authors argue more specifically that HRM may provide competitive advantage to the organization through the generation of concomitant behaviours and values which help increase added value to customers. This illustrates the integration of HRM and marketing.

Additionally, behavioural issues and implementation are both present in the contextual approach to organizational change. This approach demonstrates the importance of managing complex internal processes, where micro politics play an important role (Pettigrew *et al.*, 2001; Whittington and Whipp, 1992; Narayanan and Fahey, 1982; Pettigrew, 1977).

All of the above areas were of interest to the author; however, it was acknowledged that a narrower well defined topic was required whilst at the same time, keeping potential interest to the research community in mind.

From the preliminary literature reviews a significant gap in research concerned the role of product-market strategy implementation in the marketing planning process. Existing research pointed to problems of poor marketing performance being due to lack of consideration of implementation issues (Hickson *et al.*, 2003; Aaltonen and Ikavalko, 2002; Harrison, 1992; Nutt, 1987). Further, people issues were seen to be a prominent barrier to product-market strategy implementation performance (Hantang, 2005; McGee *et al.*, 2005; Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Chakravarthy and Doz, 1992). These issues had already been highlighted in the more general findings

from the literature on mergers and acquisitions, organizational change and the HRM/strategy interface. It was therefore concluded that such a topic was of valid potential interest to the research community, and was appropriately defined and manageable to research.

There exists a wealth of advice for PhD students in choosing a topic for their thesis. One overriding suggestion concerns the choosing of a topic that can sustain the researcher's interest over a lengthy period of time (Goldsmith *et al.*, 2001; Rudestam and Newton, 2000). Clearly the time value of enthusiasm is pertinent to this advice and it was felt, that from a personal perspective, the topic chosen for this study would achieve this requirement.

1.4.2 Significance of the Study

This study is likely to be of significance to both marketing and strategy researchers and practitioners alike. The study has addressed several knowledge gaps that prevail in extant literature in marketing strategy making, through its emphasis on the process of developing effective product-market strategy implementation. A number of limitations to existing research in this respect were provided through the research context presented in sections 1.2.1 and 1.2.2. As a consequence, significance is established through the development of a holistic model from the limitations in the literature and additionally from the findings derived from the conceptual model, providing an extension to knowledge in the field. This model consists of situational antecedents to MLMMs' behaviour during product-market strategy implementation, leading to outcomes in terms of product-marketing implementation performance. Contributions to both theory and practice are afforded via implications drawn from the findings of the relationships between the constructs in the model.

At a general level, the study substantiates that a process based view of product-market strategy implementation necessitates an understanding of a variety of antecedents that can either facilitate or act against the MLMM's role in the process. This supports the assertion that how managers' interpret and decode the context they inhabit influences the strategy process (McGee *et al.*, 2005; Piercy and Giles, 1990).

The holistic model developed in this thesis provides an understanding of how behaviour that might impede product-market strategy implementation might be reduced or resolved through its inclusion of the construct of counterproductive work behaviour. Added to this, the thesis explores behaviour that may pave the way for enhanced product-market strategy implementation through the exploration of citizenship behaviour construct. Taken together to form an integrated model, this thesis therefore provides beneficial proposals of how product-market strategy implementation might be managed rather than merely poor performance resolved. No other theory in the marketing and strategy literature takes such an integrated approach.

More specifically, this study extends current knowledge by being able to offer suggestions as to those particular antecedents which influence each behavioural dimension. For example, MLMMs' perception of control mechanisms used in the organization, support provided by senior management, their participation in the strategy making process and their perceptions of procedural justice have significant implications for the self-interested behaviour (CWB). Whilst their perceptions of control mechanisms, support and procedural justice also have significant implications for encouraging CB, additionally, variety in their role, their attachment to the organization and high quality relationships with senior management also encourages this behaviour. Ultimately this leads to both effective internal and external product-market strategy implementation performance.

Of further interest and significance is the study's ability to illustrate the particular antecedents that encourage role prescribed aspects of citizenship behaviour and those that foster more extra-role aspects of the construct. Whilst role-prescribed behaviour has a greater impact on the overall effectiveness of product-market implementation performance, fostering extra-role behaviour is nevertheless likely to benefit general organizational functioning. To the best of the authors' knowledge, no other model of organizational research has distinguished between the antecedents to these two dimensions of citizenship behaviour.

Particular and significant interest to practitioners is the study's illustration of the important role played by MLMs' to the performance product-market strategy implementation. The role involves internal effectiveness in the transformation of resource inputs into organizationally beneficial outputs. If MLMs' are to champion strategic alternatives, synthesize information and facilitate adaptability of the firms chosen strategy ready for implementation, (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994), any self-interested intervention by these managers' clearly has high potential of impeding the ultimate effectiveness of the process. The study affords clues for senior management as to how a reduction in such behaviour might be achieved. However, instead of merely resolving potential problems, senior management may wish to improve the product-market strategy implementation process. To this end, this study is able to provide knowledge of the particular antecedents that might be manipulated in this respect.

Although the study does not suggest that self-interested behaviour and citizenship behaviour are opposite in form, the study does offer insights into how the design of procedures and policies and a conducive environment for strategy making in an organization can reduce the likelihood of self-interested behaviour, or develop citizenship behaviour on behalf of MLMs', each with their particular implications in the management of product-market strategy implementation.

Since strong marketing strategies are important to the overall effectiveness of an organization (Smith, 2003), to achieve strong marketing strategies, senior management need to address internal mediators of the marketing strategy process. In this respect, a key concern should be the improvement of implementation capability since this ultimately results in improved firm performance (Hrebiniak, 2006; White *et al.*, 2003). Key to this capability are MLMs', since these managers act as the bridge between the ideals of senior management and the reality facing those in more front line positions in the organizations. This study's exploration of the antecedents to MLMs' performance in their role provides guidelines for senior management in the overall management of product-market strategy implementation.

It is concluded that this study is able to offer contributions to knowledge that are of significant interest to both academic researchers and to marketing practitioners alike, allowing the improvement in the knowledge base of existing theory through addressing constructs and their relationships as highlighted in this study and through offering guidelines to marketing management activities in organizations.

1.4.3. Theoretical and Empirical Challenges

In any study of this nature it is beneficial to acknowledge and appreciate the theoretical and empirical challenges posed.

The study adopts a descriptive design incorporating a cross sectional analysis. Conducting research by proposing a set of variables, linking them by means of a model, generating data and applying statistical analyses to draw inferences about the model is the standard methodological paradigm in the organizational sciences and cross sectional descriptive designs are commonly used within research in marketing (Mackenzie, 2000; Malhotra and Birks, 2000). However, it is purported that such an approach does not allow for conclusions pertaining to causality from a longitudinal perspective and the

limited variety of methods in such an approach does not, it is suggested, match the variety of phenomena of relevance to understanding organizations (Beyer, 1992). Consequently a study of this nature might usefully have employed alternative modes of enquiry given that the process of product-market strategy implementation is not frozen in time (Mackenzie, 2000).

The process approach might fruitfully be employed in research aiming to understand behaviour in organizations. (Johnson *et al.*, 2003; Maitlis and Lawrence, 2003; Balogan *et al.*, 2003; Mackenzie, 2000). The process approach requires direct contact and involvement with the phenomena under study and asks the question *how* rather than simply the question of *why* (Pettigrew, 1992; Van den Ven, 1992; Mackenzie, 2000). Such an approach employs processes and their frameworks to describe, explain, and predict and alter behavior. Processes involve a time-dependent sequence of events whereby people are involved in performing the process. Elements are used to describe the stages in a process and the process usually involves relationships between pairs of elements. Any process includes resources in-use related to the elements and where the outcome of the process is determined by the process itself (Mackenzie, 2000). From this perspective it would seem that a process approach is suited to the study of behaviour relative to product-market strategy implementation.

Consequently, alternative methodologies for the research might incorporate more qualitative approaches using direct observation, records compiled by organizational members, panel designs, multiple longitudinal case research, retrospective reports and laboratory experiments (Miller, 2006; Glick *et al.*, 1990).

Direct observation calls for the researcher to be immersed in the organization in order to be more likely to observe the product-market strategy implementation process directly (Glick *et al.*, 1990). Given the obvious time demands, this approach is suggested as being more compatible with small sample research.

Another approach is to study the product-market strategy implementation process by relying on an organizational member to make the observations and record data during the process or shortly afterwards (Glick *et al.*, 1990). However, this requires consistent cooperation from the chosen respondent. For this study, this would necessitate the cooperation of the MLMM. It is felt that owing to the existing constraints on such managers, notably time, it would be difficult to expect them to keep a log of issues pertinent to the study over an extended period of time.

Alternatively, a series of snapshots taken at fixed time intervals might usefully have been employed in the study. In this approach panel designs are deemed most effective (Glick *et al.*, 1990). However, the authors suggest that panel designs are most effective when the time lapse between the assessments is short. This affords less loss of the information regarding the sequencing of events throughout the process. However, if pertinent issues arise faster than the interval between data collection stages, it becomes difficult to estimate accurately the relationships among the variables (Monge *et al.*, 1984). During the process of product-market strategy implementation, panel interviews may be required on a weekly or monthly basis and given the large number of organizations in the sample, this would have been extremely time consuming and costly for use in this current study.

Finally, retrospective reports might be employed via key informants. In this case, MLMM could be asked to report on key issues of the study every six months throughout the process for example, regarding these issues over the last six months. In this way the key respondent describes directly using open ended reports and using their own terminology, the key events pertinent to the study during the process of product-market strategy implementation. However, a disadvantage of such an approach is that the terminology used by different key respondents may be inconsistent and imprecise (Glick *et al.*, 1990). Consequently, this has the potential to lead to inaccuracies of

interpretation. Further, using retrospective accounts produces the problem of recall error (Walker and Enticott, 2004; Golden, 1992; Bernard et al., 1984). This might render more recent issues being recalled to the neglect of later issues.

Nevertheless, the research design employed in the current study employs retrospective accounts in so far as informants are asked to respond to pertinent issues of the product-market strategy implementations process through the use of a self administered questionnaire. Respondents are asked to relate to issues and past facts pertaining to the most recent implementation initiative that had been launched in their respective organization. It is felt that this does not detract too much from the usefulness of the findings as regards recall error. Indeed, Golden (1992) purports that retrospective accounts of past facts are more accurate than accounts of beliefs and intentions which are more subjective and more variable to the effects of cognitive biases and faulty memory. Although no single means of obtaining data is appropriate for all strategic management studies, the use of retrospective reports can often provide information not available from other sources (Huber and Power, 1985). However, awareness of the inability of such an approach to fully capture the issues from a process perspective is acknowledged.

Having reviewed a number of potential alternative methodological approaches, which are acknowledged as providing potentially significant results, the constraints in terms of time and cost of many of these renders them prohibitive for use in this current study. The methodological perspective adopted is, however, widely understood and it is recognized that this approach can stimulate process research.

Further, a number of researchers advocate that it may be useful to integrate different concepts or theories at different levels of analysis (Kim et al., 2004; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999; Klein et al., 1994). Organizations, by their very nature are multi-level where no construct is level free (Klein et al., 1994). This is the case when

conceptualizing individuals as nested in groups and groups as nested in organizations. Ignoring multi-level nested structures, it is purported, can lead to numerous erroneous conclusions (Ployhart *et al.*, 2006). Relationships are formed between independent and dependent variables at different levels. For example, in this study, MLMM behaviour – the behaviour of the individual manager- is hypothesized as influencing product-market strategy implementation performance. Thus, the study attempts to make generalizations at the individual level of analysis and in so doing predicts that with respect to the constructs of interest, that the value of the construct for an individual member of a group (MLMMs) is independent of the value of the construct for other members of the same group. Group membership, for example, is treated as being irrelevant.

Nevertheless, it is acknowledged that for a number of MLMMs, this may not be the case in practice, since the relationships may be context dependent i.e. based on multiple levels of interaction, and some of the constructs under study may lend themselves more appropriate to multi-level analysis. Employees construct interpretations of the work setting in the context of interaction with colleagues. Beliefs and information are constructed through interaction and interpretation where meanings tend to converge (Reed, 2003).

Indeed, MLMM behaviour may have effects at multiple levels of an organization. For example MLMM behaviour may affect subordinate level effort, as well as intragroup and intergroup cohesion, group performance and organizational performance (Ng and Van Dyne, 2005; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999). Additionally, MLMM behaviour, subordinate effort and group performance may affect overall organizational performance. Finally, MLMM effort and performance, subordinate effort and performance, and group effort and performance may be related in organizations (Waldman and Yammarino, 1999). The above examples highlight that there are a number of effects on MLMM behaviour dependent on the level of analysis taken. Thus,

a number of alternative conclusions may become apparent from the results obtained. However, constraints in terms of time and cost for data generation and the complexities involved in multi-level statistical analyses were felt to inhibit such an approach in this study.

Supplementary challenges in the study relate to the use of a single key informant for generating data. The use of a single informant, i.e. MLMM, is linked to the level of analysis of the study, however, from the above review concerning the benefits of multi-level research, is acknowledged that the use of multiple informants would potentially provide additional or alternative insights into the constructs under study.

Specific limitations of using a single key informant relate to the degree to which informant reports are valid indicators of the organizational characteristics they are intended to measure. This is suggested as an unresolved issue and one that potentially introduces considerable error into any analyses (Huber and Power, 1985; Phillips, 1981). Golden (1992) advises researchers to acknowledge respondents possible emotional attachment to strategic concerns with which they are publicly associated. Additionally, the informants' position in the organizational hierarchy or their cultural background may also affect responses as may gender, function, years with the organization or role in the strategy formulation process (Bowman and Ambrosini, 1997; Kumar *et al.*, 1993; Golden, 1992; Bernard *et al.*, 1984). Data collected from only one respondent therefore is suggested as being unreliable since they may be attributable to systematic sources of error such as bias and ignorance (Bowman and Ambrosini, 1997). This may be due to informants being asked to make judgements about complex organizational characteristics placing unreasonable demands on them as respondents and also due to distortions in key informant reports.

To endeavour to eliminate sources of potential bias, the use of multiple respondents is advocated. The basic premise underlying the use of multiple informants

is that minor variations due to individual differences in perceiving or reporting events will be cancelled out (Jones *et al.*, 1983). The resulting response will be a more accurate representation of experiences likely to be felt by any person in a similar situation.

A constraint on the use of multiple informants in research of the nature of this current study pertains to the complexity of surveying multiple informant and specifically the methods used to cope with the diversity of responses from multiple informants—the *perpetual agreement problem* (Whittington *et al.*, 1999; Kumar *et al.*, 1993; Jones *et al.*, 1983). A number of statistical indices of agreement among respondents may be employed. However, Jones *et al.*, (1983) assert that researchers who are not sophisticated in the basic assumptions underlying each technique are likely to find difficulty in choosing the appropriate technique and that few explicit guidelines exist for comparing or selecting among the variety of techniques used in extant studies. Bowman and Ambrosini (1997) suggest that if the diversity of answers is very wide it might be wise not to use the data to draw conclusions pertaining to the issues under study. Thus, it is preferable to eliminate the organization from the study or augment the data obtained with other sources such as interviews, and with other managers, as well as internal and external publications.

Whilst it is acknowledged that the use of multiple informants is advisable in research of this nature, the above issues pose constraints on the researcher in terms of the complexity involved in the selection of the appropriate technique for coping with a diverse array of responses and in terms of time needed to employ additional sources such as interviews with additional managers and in obtaining archival information on organization level constructs of interest. For example, pertinent constructs in this study requiring additional information include commitment and procedural justice (Kumar *et al.*, 1993). Furthermore, Jones *et al.*, (1983) report that the choice of technique for coping with diverse responses has implications for interpretation and studies therefore

may need to employ more than one of the indices that have been used in extant studies. Allied to these constraints are further challenges of how to determine the number of informants and of identifying two or more informants competent to report on a particular relationship. These constraints are augmented by the time necessary to secure further knowledgeable respondents (Van Bruggen *et al.*, 2002; Kumar *et al.*, 1993).

However, in support of the method adopted in this study, the measurement of organizational characteristics typically has entailed the use of the key informant method in marketing contexts (Phillips, 1981). A survey of empirical papers published in the *Strategic Management Journal* has revealed a number of studies that have used single respondents, usually the CEO or member of the top management team from a strategic business unit (Bowman and Ambrosini, 1997). Indeed, this approach has been conducted in a number of strategic planning studies (Bowman and Ambrosini, 1997; Huber and Power, 1985; Brandt and Hulbert, 1977; Buzzell *et al.*, 1975). Informants are not chosen randomly, but because they have special qualifications such as a particular status, or specialized knowledge for example and are able and willing to communicate about them (Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004; Kumar *et al.*, 1983). As such response errors are likely to be lower for informants whose roles are closely associated with the phenomena under study. This current study uses the MLMM as key informant owing to the knowledgeability of this individual on product-market strategy implementation issues. The study explicitly verifies the competency of the informants as advocated by Slater and Atuahene-Gima (2004) by its inclusion of knowledge, accuracy and tenure scores. Responses deemed inadequate with respect to these scores are eliminated.

It is further recognized that the limitation pertaining to the use of 'high technology' firms only, as the level of analysis, potentially limits the generalizability of the findings to alternative business types, culminating in coverage bias (Blair and Zinkhan, 2006). In this respect, sample bias refers to the possibility that the sample

elements observed in the current study differ in some systematic way from the broader population of organizations to which it might be useful to generalize the results. Blair and Zinkhan (2006) suggest that effort to achieve diversity in the sample so as to enhance the robustness of the findings is important. However, using a sample of 'high technology' firms as the unit of analysis might rather be regarded as a homogenous cluster, within which heterogeneity is achieved through the inclusions of some industry variations (Glick *et al.*, 1990). Thus, the current study uses organizations from a number of diverse industries to form a 'high technology' cluster of organizations for example, the manufacture of office machinery and computers (including software), manufacture of pharmaceuticals, electrical machinery and apparatus, watch and clock making and the manufacture of aircraft and spacecraft. As a consequence, external validity of the survey findings is enhanced. Heterogeneity is constrained only by the homogeneity of the 'high technology' cluster. Nevertheless, awareness of the generalizability of the findings to non 'high technology' clusters is acknowledged. More robust findings might be achieved through validating the findings in a larger heterogeneous set of organizations or in additional clusters from this larger set (Glick *et al.*, 1990).

The above review illustrates recognition and acknowledgement of a number of theoretical and empirical challenges to the current study and at the same time highlights the rationale and justification for the approach adopted. Nevertheless, future research might be effectively enhanced through employing some of the suggestions presented. These are further discussed in Chapter Eight, section 8.7.

1.5 Thesis Structure

The aims and objectives of this study are reflected in the thesis structure. The thesis is organized into eight chapters which are presented so that each logically builds on the other.

Chapter One has presented the context and general focus and nature of the study. A presentation of the interest and significance of the study to both practitioners and academicians has also been forwarded. A number of potential limitations to the study have been detailed.

Chapter Two provides the theoretical foundations of the study. A review of the extant literature from a number of domains surrounding product-market strategy implementation is supplied, focusing on situational antecedents to MLMMs' behaviour and the influence of this behaviour on product-market strategy implementation performance. Limitations to existing research are discussed and a research agenda forwarded. An important limitation in current studies in product-market strategy implementation points to what has been described as an *'implementation gap'* (Hickson *et al.*, 2003; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1996) and encompasses the lack of understanding of MLMMs' role in the product-market strategy implementation process (Morgan *et al.*, 2002).

Chapter Three presents a conceptualization of the antecedents associated with MLMMs' behaviour and product-market implementation performance. A conceptual model is developed of situational antecedents, product-market strategy implementation behaviour and product-market implementation performance from the literature reviews. Variables are delineated during hypotheses development as reflecting situational antecedents, behavioural responses and product-market strategy implementation performance outcomes. Specifically, procedural and strategy process antecedents reflect situational antecedents, counterproductive work behaviour and citizenship behaviour reflect behavioural responses and, internal and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness reflect product-market strategy performance. Consequently, a series of hypotheses are constructed and presented requiring the generation of data necessary for testing the hypothesized relationships.

Chapter Four records the research design and empirical method used to test the hypothesized relationships. Detail is provided on the research design employed, the approach to data generation, choice of survey instrument, questionnaire development, sampling and survey administration procedures and the methodology employed for analysis of the data.

Chapter Five acts as the first stage presentation of the empirical results, whereby descriptive findings from the survey are offered and pertinent tendencies and conclusions drawn.

Chapter Six represents the second stage presentation of the empirical results, providing an account of scale construction and the dimensionality of the constructs. The results from principal components analysis are provided for the measures of all the constructs within the conceptual model. This is followed by the construction of scale indices. Results of scale reliability and validity are also presented.

Chapter Seven represents the final empirical results chapter providing the results of the hypothesis testing procedure for each hypothesis. Each hypothesis sub-component was examined through both correlation analysis and multiple linear regression analysis. The chapter provides a discussion of the results for each hypothesis.

Chapter Eight provides a summary of the main research findings of the study and the pertinent conclusions that are drawn. Limitations to the study are forwarded. This is followed by a discussion of the implications of the findings for both theory and management practice. Chapter Eight concludes this thesis through the presentation of recommendations for future research in the domain.

Chapter Two

Product-Market Strategy and the Role of Product-Market Strategy Implementation

2.0 Introduction

Over the last forty years there has been much academic interest in the process of strategy making within organizations (Johnson *et al.*, 2003; Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1998; Moorman and Miner, 1998; Mintzberg, 1993; Chakravarthy and Doz, 1992; Mintzberg, 1987; Bourgeois and Brodwin, 1984; Andrews, 1971). Stemming from such interest a number of divergent theoretical perspectives have emerged offering advice on how organizations might better achieve their corporate objectives. Given the dynamics of rapidly changing business environments, managers and researchers are beginning to accept that objectives need to be adaptable to changing conditions. This has manifested itself in the refocusing of attention from a preoccupation with the content of strategic decisions to one that emphasizes the process of decision-making (Hickson *et al.*, 2003; Rajagopalan and Spreitzer, 1997; Mintzberg, 1993; Van de Ven, 1992; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992; Hickson *et al.*, 1986). Research into strategic decision-making processes within organizations` accentuates the need to understand behavioural interactions of individual groups within or between firms and emphasizes the more political and behavioural nature of the process (Pettigrew *et al.*, 2001; Chakravarthy and Doz, 1992; Pettigrew, 1992).

The general view of the goal of organizations is beating back competition or of conquering new territories, with the ultimate objective of gaining sustainable competitive advantage (Zinkham and Pereira, 1994). The authors further suggest that a well-formulated strategy helps to marshal and allocate an organization`s resources into a unique and viable posture based on its relative internal competencies and shortcomings, anticipated changes in the environment and contingent moves by intelligent competitors. An organizations` strategy illustrates the extent of alignment between its external environment and its internal structure and processes (Frederickson and Mitchell, 1984).

Contemporary research into the strategy process revolves around the description, analysis and explanation of recurrent patterns of strategic decision-making, together with the exploration of why, when and how policy outcomes are shaped by features of policy processes and contexts (Mintzberg *et al.*, 2003; Eisenhardt, 1999; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992; Pettigrew, 1992; Van de Ven, 1992). Mintzberg *et al.* (2003), define strategy as:

“the pattern or plan that integrates an organizations major goals, policies and action sequences into a cohesive whole” (p.10)

The literature suggests that the strategy process within organizations is complex, requiring both an understanding of context and process variables. Acknowledging the strategy process in this way has important implications for the study of product-market strategy implementation since implementation is interwoven in the strategic decision-making process (Hrebiniak, 2006; White *et al.*, 2003; Moorman and Miner, 1998; Priem, 1990; Wooldridge and Floyd, 1989; Mintzberg, 1987). The implementation of strategies is concerned with the design and management of systems to achieve the best integration of people, structure and processes and resources in reaching organizational goals and performed concurrently with strategy formulation (White *et al.*, 2003; Aaltonen and Ikavalko, 2002; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Steiner and Miner, 1977). Strategy content and implementation are equally important in achieving the desired results of an organization since they are interdependent (Hrebiniak, 2006; Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Parsa, 1999; Piercy and Giles, 1990).

Piercy and Giles, (1990) propose an alternative model of the strategic planning process which emphasizes the organizational and human realities facing the planner and how these may lead to problems in the planning process. The process of planning is presented as being driven by organizational members creating an ‘understood environment’, where strategies develop through a process of rationalization, founded on

a series of tactical proposals and accepted deficiencies in implementation (Harris, 1996). How managers interpret and decode the context they inhabit influences the strategies they might choose and also the desired future states they may articulate (McGee *et al.*, 2005). As a consequence, the behaviour of mid-level managers' has a significant influence on the outcome of strategy implementation (Guth and MacMillan, 1986; Lyles and Lenz, 1982).

From this overview, the following section provides the context for the study of product-market strategy implementation within this study through the presentation of the contemporary approach to product-market strategy making within organizations.

2.1 Product-Market Strategy

General conceptualizations of marketing strategy making within organizations pertain to the effective allocation of marketing resources to accomplish the organization's objectives within a specific product market (White *et al.*, 2003). How marketing management decisions are made and implemented emphasize that the manager's task is to assemble and evaluate environmental information and then rationally employ that information in structuring marketing activities to produce the desired marketing response in line with organizational objectives (Frankwick *et al.*, 1994). Thus, marketing strategy definitions involve specifying the market segment(s) to be targeted and the product line to be offered. Ultimately marketing strategy is the sustained pattern of resource allocation decisions that pertain to customers and propositions (Smith, 2003b).

The direct output of marketing strategy making processes is the marketing strategy. Consensus with regard to the content of marketing strategies in the literature suggests that at its simplest level, marketing strategy has two necessary components. These are, firstly a definition of the target market(s) and a statement of the product or

value proposition that is to be aimed at the target (Smith, 2003a; Kotler *et al.*, 1996). Smith, (2003a) asserts that this dual-component view of marketing strategy is sufficient to differentiate marketing strategy from non-marketing functions and also from other non-strategy aspects of marketing management. The term product-market strategy helps emphasize this duality. Product-market strategy is therefore marketing's response to business strategy as defined in the strategy literature and involves establishing how the business intends to compete in the market(s) it chooses to serve (Day, 1990).

Greyser, (1997) asserts that marketing has successfully migrated from being a functional discipline to being a concept of how business should be run. Marketing is both the foundation and the sharp end of corporate strategy. It provides an underlying analytical framework as well as the means to identify an effective form of differentiation (Pearson and Proctor, 1994). In this respect, the marketing function has a significant role to play within corporate strategy in terms of achieving sustainable competitive advantage and is of fundamental importance for the overall strategic direction of the firm.

In order to understand the nature of effective product-market strategies, the literature in the domain of strategic management is judged useful as it is argued that approaches to product-market strategy are similar to those of general strategy making (Smith, 2003a; Piercy and Giles, 1990). A number of studies contend that there is much overlap between the strategic management literature and that dedicated to marketing management, (Smith, 2003a; Piercy and Giles, 1990). Whilst a number of studies in the strategy domain have attempted to integrate approaches to strategy making over time (Wilson and Jarzabkowski, 2004; Rajagopalan, 1993; Hart, 1992, Narayanan and Fahey, 1982), a general outcome has been the shift in emphasis from one of a preoccupation on the content of strategies, to one that emphasizes a process perspective to strategy making. This current research argues that this change in emphasis helps to uncover a

number of factors important to the study of the effectiveness of product-market strategies and thereby product-market strategy implementation. A more detailed overview of this change of emphasis in the literature on strategy making is provided in the following section.

2.2 Strategy Making: The Shift from Content to Process

In their approach to integrate previous work on the strategy making process, (Rajagopalan *et al.*, 1993) contend that strategic management has been characterized by a dichotomy between content and process issues. It has been highlighted how a focus on the content of strategy formulation is predominant in the classical approach to strategy.

Process research however, focuses on the political, informational and temporal dimensions by which strategic decisions are made and implemented (Rajagopalan *et al.*, 1993). During the 1990s' more emphasis was being placed by researchers on strategic process (Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992). This change evolved through a search for sources of advantage that began to point to organizational capabilities rather than product market positions or tactics as the enduring source of competitive advantage. This led a number of researchers to conceptualize strategy in terms of a process leading to a particular decisional outcome (Eisenhardt, 1999; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992; Hutt *et al.*, 1988). Thus, in studying the strategy process it is argued that an understanding of decision-making processes in strategic management is important (Mackenzie, 2000; Eisenhardt, 1999; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992; Van de Ven, 1992; Hutt *et al.*, 1988; Hickson *et al.*, 1986). Much of the work on strategy process considers strategies as a pattern in a stream of decisions (Mintzberg *et al.*, 2003; Cray *et al.*, 1988). The way decisions are made and the structure of the decision process itself may fashion decision outcomes and hence the strategies that organizations follow.

Fundamental to process models is the need to understand behavioural interactions of individual groups and/or organizational units within or between firms (Johnson *et al.*, 2003; Jarzabkowski, 2003; Dawson, 1995; Dawson, 1994; Kelly, 1994; Chakravarthy and Doz, 1992). Often decisions are viewed as an outcome of bargaining and negotiation among individuals and organizational sub-units with conflicting perceptions, personal stakes and unequal power (Guth and MacMillan, 1986; Narayanan and Fahey, 1982; Pettigrew, 1977). The strategy process is hence described as a political process. Strategy process research incorporates Quinn's (1980) work on 'logical incrementalism' which suggests that executives may be able to predict the broad direction, but not the precise nature of any resultant strategy. Indeed, strategy may also result in what (Burgelman, 1983) terms '*autonomous strategic behaviours*', with the initiative being taken as to the future direction of strategy by individuals at more operational levels within the organization. Such initiatives may not always follow the rational, organizational induced approach to strategy formulation, but nevertheless, lead to positive performance outcomes (Hutt *et al.*, 1988).

Over the last twenty years, research and management attention has refocused from preoccupations with defining defensible product market niches to an increased interest in how to develop the organizational capability to sense and respond rapidly and flexibly to change (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1998)..

There also appears to be consensus in the marketing literature of a similar shift in focus from a concentration on the content of marketing strategies to one that emphasizes a process approach to marketing strategy making (Cravens, 1998; Simkin, 1996; Piercy and Giles, 1990). Whilst it is acknowledged that rational planning processes contribute to organizational effectiveness, it is argued that relatively little is known about the value of the more commonly non-rational processes of strategy making (Smith, 2003b). From this perspective, the following section presents an

overview of what is suggested as contributing to product-market strategy effectiveness from the marketing literature.

2.2.1 Product-Market Strategy Effectiveness

Quality marketing strategies are important to the overall performance of an organization and as such the effectiveness of the marketing strategy process is an important consideration for researchers (Smith, 2003a: 2003b; Kotler *et al.*, 1996). From a strategic planning perspective, the ultimate objective of the firm may be seen as an attempt to position itself for long run survival. This in turn is accomplished as each functional area attempts to determine the position that will ensure a continuing supply of vital resources (Martin, 1987). Thus, marketing as a function has a clear role to play in strategic planning with the main objective being long run support through customer satisfaction. According to Martin, (1987), marketing's main role in strategic planning within organizations is to identify the optimal long-term position(s) that will assure customer satisfaction and support, the development of strategies designed to capture preferred positions and negotiation with top management and other functional areas to implement its strategies.

It is further suggested that in order to cope with the changing marketing environment there is a need for strategic management to become increasingly market-led (Hooley *et al.*, 1998). In this respect the authors conceptualize market-led strategic management as identifying customer requirements, communicating these effectively throughout the organization, determining the competitive positioning to be adopted and implementing the marketing strategy.

The literature reveals a number of common elements that are believed to constitute to product-market strategy effectiveness. These pertain, on the one hand, to the extent to which marketing planning is used in the organization, and on the other, to

the complexity of the process borne out through internal and external mediators (Smith, 2003b; Simkin, 2002b; Dibb and Simkin, 2001; Noble, 1999; Cravens, 1998; Gummesson, 1998; Piercy and Giles, 1990).

Regarding the extent to which marketing planning is used in the organization; (McDonald, 1992) proposes that the overall purpose of marketing planning and its principal focus is the identification and creation of sustainable competitive advantage. McDonald, (1992) adds that this calls for a logical sequence of activities which lead to the setting of marketing objectives and the formulation of plans to achieve them. The process usually involves situation review, formulation of basic assumptions about what constitutes strengths and weaknesses of the organization, a comparison of how these weigh against opportunities and threats posed by the business environment, setting objectives for what is sold and to who, deciding how objectives are to be achieved and costing out and scheduling the actions necessary for implementation. However, it is argued that if such rational processes contribute to effectiveness, but are not used then this ultimately limits the effectiveness of the marketing strategy (Smith, 2003b). Whilst there are reported to be many benefits from formal strategic planning, doubts have been expressed about the effectiveness of strategies which follow from the use of the tools of strategic planning (Walker and Ruekert, 1987). Nevertheless, if planning is employed in the organization the benefits are said to be in helping the organization cope with increasing turbulence, complexity, more intense competitive pressures and the pace of technological change (McDonald, 1992). Indeed, a number of studies conclude that there are real benefits to be gained from marketing planning (Simkin, 2002a: 2002b; Simkin, 1996; Piercy and Giles, 1990; Bonoma, 1984). If marketing planning is well conceived and effectively executed, Simkin,(2002a: 1996) asserts that benefits arise in terms of an improvement in relationships and communications both internally and externally.

Piercy and Giles, (1990) point out that much of the research into strategic marketing planning takes the above prescriptive approach outlining a logical sequence of activities commencing with mission and goal definition, appraisal of capabilities and environments, the setting of marketing objectives and the choice of marketing strategies and tactics. Research conducted by Greenley, (1988) into the actual practice of marketing planning within organizations illustrates that there are many differing managerial perceptions of marketing planning, in such areas as process features, procedures, planning hierarchy, as a form of control and participation. Greenley, (1988) asserts that much of the work in the domain of marketing planning has been prescriptive in nature in terms of what organizations ought to do. In its simplest form marketing planning is a logical sequence of activities which lead to the setting of objectives and the formulation of plans to achieve them. Piercy and Giles, (1990), state that such prescriptive approaches although to a certain extent are logical, in the real world are oversimplified to provide real benefits in practice. The authors assert that this is most clearly highlighted by the role of implementation in the process of planning.

In the conventional prescribed approach to planning, implementation is regarded as the final stage of planning (McDonald, 1992; Greenley, 1988). Selected studies contend that plan formulation and implementation must be considered concurrently or iteratively for marketing planning to be successful (Hrebiniak, 2006; Moorman and Miner, 1998; Priem, 1990). This assertion is grounded on the understanding that organizations cannot be viewed as comprising constituents sharing the same values and goals (Piercy and Giles, 1990). Consequently, an alternative model of the strategic marketing planning process is required. This alternative approach addresses the internal and external mediators of the marketing strategy making process impacting effectiveness (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; White *et al.*, 2003; Dibb and Simkin, 2001). Emphasis is placed on organizational and human realities facing the planner and

how these may lead to problems in the planning process. The managerial understanding of the environment and on the use of managerial experience as a source of information for planning is important in this approach (Piercy and Giles, 1990). Additionally, Simkin, (1996) sees three distinct stages of marketing planning. The first stage involves analyses to develop unbiased and an up to date understanding of markets, followed by marketing strategy development to identify core target markets, brand positioning and a competitive edge. The final stage involves the determination of marketing mix programmes to implement the strategy coupled with internal plans in terms of budgets, personal objectives, responsibilities, time frames and monitoring to facilitate implementation of marketing programs. Important within this framework is the emphasis placed on people, organizational and cultural issues which must be considered prior to the planning initiative commencing. Simkin, (2002b) suggests that the necessary internal operational and resource requisites for effective marketing planning must be provided, as well as suitable processes for undertaking such activities. This should include implementation being managed as an ongoing process.

Atuahene-Gima and Murray, (2004) suggest a number of both internal and external antecedents that influence the effectiveness of marketing strategies. Internal antecedents relate to processes that focus employees' attention and commitment to effective information processing and include rewards and conflict resolution. External antecedents relate to the intra-industry relationships developed by project members so as to gain more comprehensive knowledge of the nature and context of marketing strategies of other firms. Both internal and external antecedents help develop marketing strategy effectiveness through what the authors refer to as s comprehensiveness, defined as:

“the extent to which project members are extensive and exhaustive in the search for market information, the generation of many alternative courses of action and the use of specific criteria in making decisions in marketing strategy development and implementation” (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004, p.33).

Effective product-market strategies therefore, are not purely the result of organizations employing marketing planning, having managers skilled in the tools and techniques of marketing analysis, strategy formulation and the development of marketing programs. There are significant organizational and human resource forces at play which must be addressed. Extant research has largely overlooked the varying roles managers and organizational members play in developing strategy (White *et al.*, 2003). The contemporary consensus in the literature of the marketing strategy process illustrates the importance of organizational and behavioural influences (White *et al.*, 2003; Simkin, 2002b; Piercy and Giles, 1990). Such influences point to a process that is far more complex than the initial prescriptive approaches have suggested. Most existing models of strategy making fail to fully capture the complexity and variety of phenomena the process incorporates (White *et al.*, 2003). Indeed, it is suggested that the primary objective of the marketing strategy process is to improve implementation capability which ultimately results in improved firm performance (McGuinness and Morgan, 2005; White *et al.*, 2003). To this end product-market strategy implementation becomes an important mediator in the relationship between marketing strategy development and firm performance.

In conclusion, in order to improve the effectiveness of marketing within organizations, consideration of alternative paradigms is essential (White *et al.*, 2003; Cravens, 1998; Gummesson, 1998; Piercy and Giles, 1990). From a review of the literature it is found that research into marketing strategy has followed a similar route to that of research in the general strategy domain. There has been a similar shift in emphasis from a preoccupation with the content of marketing strategies (McDonald, 1992) to one that stresses the need to take process perspective to marketing strategy formulation in order that marketing strategies may be more effective (White *et al.*, 2003; Piercy, 1998; Piercy and Giles, 1990). This process perspective sees

implementation as interdependent and simultaneous to formulation, thus how product-market strategy implementation is performed becomes a crucial aspect of product-market strategy effectiveness (Hrebiniak, 2006; White *et al.*, 2003; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Parsa, 1999; Piercy and Giles, 1990). In this way, the implementation of strategy becomes a key factor in determining business and marketing performance (White *et al.*, 2003; Walker and Ruekert, 1987; Bonoma, 1984). As Miller *et al.* (2004), state:

“Understanding the interaction between organization and strategy, long treated as something of a black box by strategists, is therefore an important area of managerial analysis”, (p.202)

The following sections present a detailed assessment of product-market strategy implementation.

2.3 Product-Market Strategy Implementation

Owing to its contribution to effective product-market strategies, product-market strategy implementation is an important area for research since a number of studies have reported that failure in planning is linked to poor implementation (Hrebiniak, 2006; Nutt, 1999; Martin, 1987). Major reasons why so many decisions fail to attain their initial objectives occur predominantly during implementation (Nutt, 1999), rather than during decision making. Nutt, (1999) further states that failure generally stems from elements under managements' control. Therefore, the way product-market strategy implementation is managed appears vital for strategic success. Yet, although product-market strategy implementation is viewed as an integral part of the strategic management and marketing process, and despite the significance of the process, relatively little research attention has been directed to the area as compared to strategy formulation (Noble, 1999; Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Alexander, 1985). The study of making decisions has become well developed in research, rather than the study of implementing or executing those decisions (Hrebiniak, 2006; Hickson *et al.*, 2003; Nutt,

1999; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992; Skivington and Daft, 1991). Product-market strategy implementation remains a relatively under-researched area (Hrebiniak, 2006; Hickson *et al.*, 2003; Aaltonen and Ikavalko, 2002; Noble, 1999), where the gulf between strategy formulation and execution has been termed the '*implementation gap*' (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1996, p. 97).

Selected studies dating from the mid 1980's have tried to redress this imbalance with a focus on the issues of implementation in the strategic management literature (Hrebiniak, 2006; Noble, 1999; Parsa, 1999; Wooldridge and Floyd, 1989; Alexander, 1985) and in the strategic marketing literature (Simkin, 2002a: 2002b; Gummesson, 1998; Simkin, 1996; Piercy and Morgan, 1994; Bonoma and Crittenden, 1988; Bonoma, 1984). The processual perspective to strategy making has highlighted strategy is a continuous and adaptive process with formulation and implementation inextricably entwined and linked through the strategic decision-making process (Pettigrew *et al.*, 2001; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Piercy and Giles, 1990). Mintzberg, (1987) talks of a realized strategy emerging in response to an evolving situation and warns against the common assumption of a distinction being made between formulation and implementation i.e. that thought must be independent of and preceding action. From this perspective, product-market strategy implementation is the outcome of the decision-making process as a commitment to some form of action (Cray *et al.*, 1988; Narayanan and Fahey, 1982). This necessitates an understanding of the events that have taken place prior to implementation to provide guidance as to the many variables that may have an impact on the relative success of any implementation initiative. How managers think and act matters as much as the models which may have informed strategy in the first place (McGee *et al.*, 2005; De Wit and Meyer, 1999).

The strategy process can be usefully analysed in terms of content issues including an analytical/technical dimension (McDonald, 1992; Bourgeois and Brodwin,

1984; Andrews, 1971), and process issues including the organizational dimension and a behavioural dimension (Smith, 2003a: 2003b; Johnson *et al.*, 2003; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992; Piercy and Giles, 1990). Simply focusing on strategy content is insufficient to guarantee desired outcomes. Since organizations today are faced with rapidly changing environments that call for frequent change, product-market strategy implementation becomes a central concern in the management of strategic change. Without effective implementation, the benefits of the strategic plan may not be realized and well formulated product-market strategies only produce superior returns for the organization when they are implemented successfully (Hrebiniak, 2006; Noble, 1999; Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Nutt, 1986). Consideration of the need to regard the strategy process as being more complex in nature than the traditional models have suggested must be taken into account whereby product-market strategy implementation is an integral part of the process. Several perspectives on product-market strategy implementation are manifested in the literature. Key issues stemming from these are presented in the following section.

2.3.1 Perspectives in Research in Product-Market Strategy Implementation

A review of the literature of product-market strategy implementation suggests that there is no general consensus as to a definition (Noble, 1999; Noble and Mokwa, 1999). Whilst some researchers view implementation as an act of control or monitoring, (Hrebiniak and Joyce, 1985) other researchers equate implementation with execution of the strategic plan (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992) or as a finer level of planning involving the allocation of resources and the resolution of operational issues. Additionally, studies point to the human side of implementation and propose that changes become the proposal for action that managers implement.

“Implementation is a series of steps taken by responsible organizational agents in planned change processes to elicit compliance needed to install changes”
(Nutt, 1986, p.230).

However, according to (Noble, 1999), none of the above attempts at defining implementation focus on the process involved. Thus the author provides the following definition of implementation from a combination of perspectives as:

“the communication, interpretation, adoption and enactment of strategic plans”
(Noble, 1999, p.120)

As with research into the strategy process, it has been suggested that research into product-market strategy implementation requires a broadened perspective which necessitates analysis of literature from a number academic fields (Noble, 1999).

Recent perspectives of product-market strategy implementation point to strategy content and implementation being equally important in achieving the desired results of an organization (Hrebiniak, 2006; Parsa, 1999; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Moorman and Miner, 1998). Parsa, (1999) argues that the lack of past emphasis on the implementation process may be attributed to the commonly held assumption that firms that achieve a level of sophistication high enough to possess formalized strategic planning tend to be better prepared as strategy implementers. Menon *et al.* (1999) advise that this may also be attributed to research in the area progressing along a dichotomy of rational versus incremental planning, whereby the rational approach does not include organizational and individual dynamics in their conceptualizations.

The implementation of policies and strategies is concerned with the design and management of systems to achieve the best integration of people, structure, processes and resources in reaching organizational goals and objectives (Moorman and Miner, 1998; Steiner and Miner, 1977). Since this suggests that product-market strategy implementation must be carried out concurrently with strategy formulation, it is elevated in the total process. Indeed, strategy implementation is often underway before a

formal organizational commitment to a particular strategic course is made (Narayanan and Fahey, 1982).

In the marketing literature a number of studies emphasise the importance of implementation to the strategic marketing process, (White *et al.*, 2003; Gummesson, 1998; Piercy and Giles, 1990; Bonoma and Crittenden, 1988; Bonoma, 1984). Bonoma's, (1984) study into making marketing strategy work within organizations, points out that marketing strategy and implementation affect each other. While strategy obviously affects actions, execution also affects marketing strategy especially over time and requires certain specific capabilities. White *et al.* (2003) provide the following definition of marketing strategy implementation capability as:

“the organizations competence in executing, controlling and evaluating its marketing strategy” (p.115).

It is suggested that sound plans founder or die because of lack of execution know-how and the ability to confront difficult organizational and political obstacles that stand in the way of effective implementation (Hrebiniak, 2006). Product-market strategy implementation, therefore, emphasizes how to accomplish the marketing strategy.

Gummesson, (1998) supports this view and argues:

“the ability and strength to execute a decision is more crucial for success than underlying analysis. Implementation is doing things.” (p.242).

In summary, definitions of product-market strategy implementation suggest that implementation is as important as actual strategy formulation and that formulation and implementation, not only affect each other, but should be carried out simultaneously (White *et al.*, 2003; Aaltonen and Ikavalko, 2002; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Moorman and Miner, 1998). As Nutt, (1983), states:

“Implementation puts into practice the recommendations that stem from planning – by treating implementation as a stage of the planning process, techniques used to gain plan acceptance become an integral part of the planning process” (p.601).

The common thread of studies of product-market strategy implementation in the literature appears to suggest that if implementation and formulation are not considered concurrently or iteratively, then planning is doomed to failure. Thus, implementation is deemed important in so far as it could be the make or break of product-market strategy effectiveness. However, if this is the case, then an assessment of what constitutes successful product-market strategy implementation is also important and is discussed in the following section.

2.3.2 Product-Market Strategy Implementation Performance

Miller, (1997) argues that the successfulness of strategic change is most often assessed at corporate level, but since corporate performance is a result of a range of complex and interrelated elements, this may reveal little about the impact of individual decisions (Hickson *et al.*, 2003; Miller, 1997). Hickson *et al.* (2003) argue that in measuring implementation success, financial and market indicators are inappropriate as it is rarely possible to isolate the specific financial impact of an individual decision.

Selected authors take a straightforward approach to implementation effectiveness arguing that if a decision is adopted it may be said to be successful (Piercy, 1989a; Bourgeois and Brodwin, 1984). However, adoption does not necessarily lead to successful outcomes and success may fluctuate over time (Hickson *et al.*, 2003; Miller, 1997). A decision is a commitment to action, but this action can range from a clear statement of intent to nothing (Brunsson, 1990; Mintzberg *et al.*, 1990). Furthermore, the authors posit that action can occur without commitment to act. Whether this leads to effective implementation, is open to question.

A general conclusion is that a number of studies have assessed implementation effectiveness from different perspectives. For example at the organizational level the relationship between strategy, structure and control are stated to lead to an environment conducive to implementation success (Walker and Ruekert, 1987). Further, planning

intensity and comprehensiveness are suggested as routes to effective performance (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Moutinho and Phillips, 2002; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Frederickson, 1986). At an individual level, studies report that implementation effectiveness is dependent on the cognitive processes of the managers involved in the process (Lyles and Lenz, 1982). All of these approaches attempt to uncover a variety of elements that lead to implementation effectiveness.

The literature in the domain of strategic performance views effectiveness as the degree to which organizational goals are reached (Krohmer *et al.*, 2002; Walker and Ruekert, 1987; Chakravarthy, 1986; Ruekert *et al.*, 1985). However, since the product or service is the focus of marketing strategy, effectiveness concerns the level of success of the organizations' products and services and programs (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Walker and Ruekert, 1987). As a consequence, transformational processes inside the organization have an impact on external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Such processes relate to the internal effectiveness of performance in transforming important resource inputs into organizationally beneficial outputs (Krohmer *et al.*, 2002; Morgan *et al.*, 2002; Menon *et al.*, 1999). Product-market strategy implementation performance thus becomes a project level measure resulting from those members actions involved in the process in both formulation and implementation (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004). In this respect, external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness may be measured in terms of the extent to which the organizations product/service has achieved its sales, market share and profit objectives since launch, and additionally the degree to which the overall performance of the product has met management expectations (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004).

External product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, therefore, results in a positional advantage representing the realized strategy of the organization concerning the value delivered to customers and costs incurred by the firm relative to its

competitors (Morgan *et al.*, 2002). Ultimately these values and costs feed market performance outcomes measured by customer and competitor responses to the organizations' realized positional advantages, and financial performance outcomes derived from the achieved level of market performance (Morgan *et al.*, 2002).

2.3.2.1 Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

It has been illustrated that an integral aspect of product-market implementation performance is the internal effectiveness of the process. Internal effectiveness is concerned with the resources employed (Walker and Ruekert, 1987). Consequently, internal effectiveness relates to the transformation of inputs into organizationally advantageous outputs. Understanding this transformation process is important for product-market strategy implementation performance (Morgan *et al.*, 2002).

Additionally, an understanding of those inputs required to achieve target objectives is also essential (Krohmer *et al.*, 2002; Ruekert *et al.*, 1985).

Inputs relate to firm controlled resources and may take a variety of forms. These may be physical resources such as plant and facilities, intangibles including reputational resources such as corporate reputation and brand image, time spent on the planning function, human resources such as the number and quality of personnel, organizational resources such as scale and culture, financial resources such as the marketing budget, and informational resources such as market data (Morgan *et al.*, 2002; Rajagopalan *et al.*, 1993; Venkatraman and Ramanujam, 1986; Ramanujam *et al.*, 1986). Accordingly, internal effectiveness relates to the process of implementation which links these resource inputs to outputs (Morgan *et al.*, 2002). For this, appropriate resource commitment becomes essential (Miller *et al.*, 2004; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Miller, 1997). The extent of resources committed provides a context in which strategy team members can do what is necessary for success and at the same time resource commitment

develops a climate for learning (Menon *et al.*, 1999). These resources act as an enabling factor to implementation success (Miller, 1997).

Menon *et al.* (1999) research revealed that resource commitment is a central element of the planning process leading to strategy success. Failure in implementation was found to be due to a lack of understanding of real resource requirements. Ramanujam *et al.* (1986) also emphasized internal organizational context elements whereby resources provided for planning were deemed important as well as resistance to planning or what the authors refer to as 'anti-planning biases'. Ramanujam *et al.* (1986), state that planning in an organization cannot be successful unless adequate resources are committed to that activity. Menon *et al.* (1999) also affirm that allocating an appropriate amount of resources can enable the execution of the strategy as intended and by signalling the importance of the strategy within the organization. Planning is not a costless activity and as such organizations must expect to incur commensurate levels of tangible and intangible costs of doing planning effectively (Venkatraman and Ramanujam, 1986; Ramanujam *et al.*, 1986).

However, it is suggested that a truly meaningful assessment of the value of planning systems should recognize its multidimensional nature (Menon *et al.*, 1999; Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Miller, 1997; Ramanujam *et al.*, 1986). According to Noble and Mokwa, (1999), implementation results in outcomes at both the individual and organizational level. The primary dependent variable is implementation success which the authors define as:

“the extent to which an implementation effort is considered successful”
(Noble and Mokwa, 1999, p.60).

Noble and Mokwa's, (1999) research assessed the manner in which managers interpret their roles and their level of commitment to the organizational and its proposed strategies. The authors suggest that role performance, for example, is a critical outcome and relates to the degree to which a manager achieves the goals and objectives of a

particular role and facilitates the overall success of the implementation effort. Thus, how manager's view their own implementation roles and their effective performance in the role is critical to the success of product-market strategy implementation. Miller, (1997) uses completion (the degree to which everything intended to be done is done within the expected time period), achievement (the degree to which what was done performs as intended) and acceptability (the degree to which the method of implementation and outcomes are satisfactory to those involved in or affected by implementation) to analyse implementation effectiveness. Rajagopalan *et al.* (1993) have used elements of process, including decision quality, timeliness and commitment. Whilst a number of studies have assessed the time factor in terms of implementation success (Rodrigues- Braga and Hickson, 1995; Rajagopalan *et al.*, 1993). Miller *et al.* (2004) found that there was in fact no significant relationship between the time taken to put a decision into effect and whether or not it is ultimately successful.

Since previous studies suggest that the way implementation is managed is vital for strategic success (Nutt, 1999) and that the ability to execute a decision is more crucial for success than analysis (Hrebiniak, 2006; White *et al.*, 2003; Gummesson, 1998) the extent to which product-market strategy implementation performance is successful is underpinned by its internal effectiveness manifested via the role performance of key actors involved in the process. A number of studies suggest that it is the mid-level manager that has a central role in this respect. The following section highlights this role.

2.4 The Role of the Mid-Level Manager in Product-Market Strategy Implementation

Traditional organizational structure extends command from the senior managers, through the positions of mid-level and first line managers, to individual employees.

(Embertson, 2006). Embertson (2006) defines the mid-level manager as any manager who is two levels below the CEO but one level above line workers or professionals. The importance of the role of the mid-level manager rests on the nature of the tasks involved. The array of work involves administrative, technical and managerial activities (Torrington and Weightman, 1987). Additionally, they make important contributions in their roles of communicator, entrepreneur, stabilizer and therapist (Embertson, 2006). Consequently, an increasing amount of day-to-day tasks and the guidance of the employees performing them are delegated to mid-level managers. This requires confidence from mid-level managers to deal with uncertainties, from senior managers to delegate appropriate authority, and from subordinates to follow the managers lead (McConville, 2006). Since senior managers are further removed from these tasks and the complex networks of behaviour that are part of an organization, mid-level managers become the link for information exchange between upper management and employees. They play a vital role in keeping in touch with people and operations (Embertson, 2006). They play a vicarious position on behalf of senior managers, playing a co-ordinating role, but with procedurally, limited autonomy (McConville, 2006). As every day champions, mid-level managers can support and strengthen an organization through their knowledge of and experience with organizational details.

Several studies in the domain of strategic management suggest that mid-level managers` play an important role in ensuring successful strategy implementation (Hrebiniak, 2006; Hantang, 2005; Miller, 1997; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1996:1994; Jackson and Humble, 1994; Schilit, 1987; Schilit and Paine, 1987). Indeed, Floyd and Wooldridge, (1996) assert that implementation is managing change, and one of the key domains of the mid-level manager. Whilst traditionally mid-level managers` have not been considered part of the strategy process they are seen as central providers of information and in directing strategy implementation. Even if the making of decisions

takes place predominantly at senior levels, implementation will almost certainly require the involvement of others lower down the hierarchy (Miller, 1997; Schilit and Paine, 1987). Mid-level managers become the agents of change processes, but as employees, they are often the foci of change. (McConville, 2006). They are expected to deal with this change, and to implement policies dictated by senior management. However, more than this, Floyd and Wooldridge, (1992) assert that contemporary theory views mid-level managers' as regularly influencing strategy and providing impetus for new initiatives.

Traditional notions as to mid-level managers' position in the organizations have suggested that they may be regarded as a superior in one group and as a subordinate in the next and so on depending on the hierarchical levels within the organization (Embertson, 2006; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992). According to Fenton-O`Creevy, (1998), mid-level managers' are those managers below the most senior tier but do not include individuals with first line supervisory responsibility who have no career path to higher management levels. From this position middle management act as coordinators of an organizational unit's day-to-day activities with the activities of vertically related groups (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992). This might involve defining tactics and developing budgets for achieving a strategy, monitoring the performance of individuals and subunits and taking corrective action when behaviour falls outside expectations (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994). As such they act as links in the coordination of senior and operating level activities. Thus, mid-level managers' may be functional department heads, project or product managers, and brand managers (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994). In this current research, focus is placed on the role of the MLMM. Thus, the MLMM (or related status) is the marketing manager who reports to senior marketing management in terms of the implementation of product-market strategies.

The role of the mid-level manager in organizations today is much debated. Research points to reengineering and downsizing significantly reducing the number of mid-level managers' in organizations (Emberstson, 2006; Currie, 1999; Jackson and Humble, 1994; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994). Yet, whilst organizations today may be moving away from hierarchical to more horizontal organizational structures, the role of the mid-level manager is nevertheless still important (Fenton-O`Creevy, 1998; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994). The mid-level managers' product-market strategy implementation role involves injecting new strategic priorities into the organization that emanate from the top (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1996). Such managers act as a bridge between the ideals of senior management with the reality of those on the front lines (Sethi, 1999). The role of the mid-level manager is therefore evolving necessitating a more in-depth understanding in specific contexts (Currie, 1999). The work of Floyd and Wooldridge, (1994) highlights this changing role particularly well.

According to Floyd and Wooldridge, (1994), two principle dimensions underlie the role of the mid-level manager which may be regarded as a dichotomy. These dimensions include the behavioural activity of the mid-level manager, in terms of their influencing role which may be upward or downward and a cognitive dimension which is either convergent or divergent. When combined, these dimensions provide four roles as depicted in Figure 2.1.

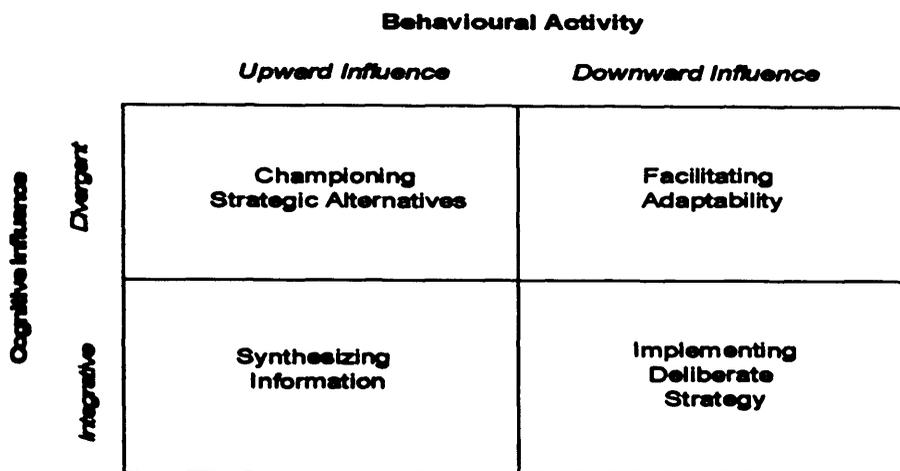


Figure 2.1 A Typology of Middle Management Roles in Strategy: Adapted from (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994, p.50)

Implementing deliberate strategy is the most commonly recognized strategic role of the mid-level manager. This involves the efficient deployment of resources, an activity generally included in the rational planning perspective where implementation is regarded as separate to formulation (Menon *et al.*, 1999). However, according to Floyd and Wooldridge, (1994), whilst this might have been regarded as the only role of the mid-level manager in traditional conceptions, further elements highlight that the mid-level manager's role is broader and more complex, particularly from the process perspective where strategy formulation and implementation become entwined (Parsa, 1999; Noble and Mokwa, 1999).

In Floyd and Wooldridge's, (1994) typology therefore, *championing strategic alternatives* involves acting as an initial screen selecting from a variety of business opportunities suggested at operational levels. Once the mid-level manager is committed to a particular idea, the idea is nurtured. Whilst the initiative lacks any formal sanction at this stage, the effectiveness of the mid-level manager depends on their ability to encourage informal cooperation and support. After gaining experience and building a credible proposal, the initiative is taken forward. Mid-level managers may be able to

exert upward influence on strategic decisions. Such an influencing role has been found to result in a positive relationship with organizational performance (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992; Deluga and Perry, 1991; Kohli, 1985).

Synthesizing information concerns the supply of information by mid-level managers` to senior management concerning internal and external events. It is likely that mid-level managers are not objective in this supply of information. Thus, they are able to control or at least influence senior management perceptions by presenting information in certain ways. This, it is suggested may have a positive impact in encouraging senior management to take necessary risks. *Facilitating adaptability* involves mid-level managers` encouraging the pursuit of strategy through alternative means to those intended by senior management. The work of Burgelman, (1983) on `autonomous strategic behaviours` provides further support for this element. In this way the mid-level manager`s role is one of change agent, where they become enablers, trainers and coaches (Jackson and Humble, 1994). The evolution in the mid-level managers` role has changed from that of technocrat to knowledge based individual, who is asked to do more with less (Moutinho and Phillips, 2002). Whilst these managers may be fully versed in the tools and techniques of strategy formulation, they must now also be conversant with the techniques necessary for effective execution (Hrebiniak, 2006).

In order for mid-level managers` to contribute in this way, Jackson and Humble, (1994) argue that it is their values i.e. what mid-level managers` believe to be important that governs their day-to-day activities. Mid-level managers` need to provide commitment and support and they need to both process information and take action. If they do not espouse the organizations values, then this contribution will be limited (Jackson and Humble, 1994). As the role becomes more complex, the challenges for the

mid-level manager become more pronounced and it is argued that this has important implications for the performance of product-market strategy implementation.

2.4.1 Mid-Level Managers' and Role Conflict

Owing to the increased complexity of the role of mid-level managers', it is argued that this role has become more challenging. Research by Hantang, (2005) suggests that the mid-level manager often feels constrained and squeezed from all sides and particularly from senior management. In change situations psychological constraints are placed on those tasked with implementation and conflict situations are likely to arise among those involved in the process culminating in resistance (Floyd and Lane, 2000; Eisenhardt *et al.*, 1997; McHugh, 1997). For example, change may be met with scepticism as middle management may not be convinced that there is a solid rationale behind the new strategy. Brower and Abolafia, (1995) stress the basic irony that exists in that the manager who is concerned with supervising and controlling others is also subject to control by others and is therefore equally concerned with managing his or her role as a subordinate. As such mid-level managers act as subordinates, equals and superiors and it is common for them to deal with role ambiguity whereby they have to deal with pressures put on them from higher and lower positions in the hierarchy (Embertson, 2006).

Whilst most research in the domain focuses on the role of mid-level managers as controllers of others (Brower and Abolafia, 1995), little attention is paid to the behaviour that managers, as coping individuals caught between conflicting obligations might enact. The authors stress that relations with other departments, agencies and powerful outside interests in addition to vertical authority relations are likely locations for the enactment of resistance at a managerial level. Further, a duality in mid-level managers' role arises whereby they may be seen as agents pursuing their own goals and

interest, and members of an organization that has selected them and socialized them for a particular role. In order to survive, this might mean that the mid-level manager becomes political, masking their strong beliefs as they are not the same as those espoused by the organization (Agocs, 1997; Jackson and Humble, 1994). Through multiple organizational systems and signals, particular behaviours become reinforced (Fenton-O`Creevy, 1998).

The notion of managerial level resistance is not a new concept. Research into employee involvement in organizations frequently cites employee resistance at middle management level (Fenton-O`Creevy, 1998). Mid-level managers are often portrayed as staunch guards of the status quo, even to the point of sabotage (Embertson, 2006). Studies by Connors and Romberg, (1991) and Guth and MacMillan, (1986), focused attention on some of the resistant behaviours employed on behalf of mid-level managers. Guth and MacMillan, (1986) work introduced the idea of `counter-effort`, whereby mid-level managers may decide to put in very little effort into implementation if they believe they have a low probability of performing effectively, that performance has a low probability of achieving the organizationally desired outcome, or that the organizationally desired outcome does not satisfy their individual goals. Such managers may decide to intervene by promoting alternative courses or resisting decisions from above. Connors and Romberg, (1991) study focused on the introduction of Total Quality Management (TQM) into a typical medium sized American organization. The research found that through lack of commitment at all levels within the organizational hierarchy there was no inclination to change. Mid-level managers` perceived the adoption of TQM as a threat and initiated a variety of tactics to protect their power bases. More extreme acts of resistance by managers are highlighted in research by LaNuez and Jermier, (1994) who analyse the psychological antecedents to managerial resistance outlining that one extreme resistant strategy may be sabotage.

Resistance is found in a variety of forms and has been given a variety of terms. Often resistance does not take a strongly active form, but may be much more covert in nature (Fleming and Sewell, 2002; Fenton-O`Creevy, 1998; Thompson and Ackroyd, 1995). This might include engaging in only those involvement activities most visible to senior management (Fenton-O`Creevy, 1998). Clearly acts of resistance work in opposition to product-market strategy implementation effectiveness and ultimate organizational performance.

As it is highlighted that the role of the mid-level manager is important to the success of product-marketing strategy implementation, gaining a richer understanding of this role in product-market strategy implementation becomes a significant and interesting area for research. In order to achieve quality product-market strategies, this research argues that a broader understanding of product-market strategy implementation is crucial. As such, how mid-level managers` perform their role is integral to the internal effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation. Ultimately, internal effectiveness leads to external effectiveness in product-market strategy implementation. Extant studies from a variety of different fields of research point to a number of factors that can either facilitate or act against mid-level manager`s role in the strategy process. These studies have been carried out from a variety of perspectives and include the organizational framework and structural dimension (Frankwick *et al.*, 1994; Skivington and Daft, 1991; Walker and Ruekert, 1987; Gupta and Govindarajan, 1984) organizational context dimension (Blomquist and Muller, 2006; Clinebell and Shadwick, 2005; Miller *et al.*, 2004; Simkin, 2002b; Noble, 1999; Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Piercy and Morgan, 1994; Bonoma and Crittenden, 1988) and an interpersonal process/behavioural dimension (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996; Korsgaard *et al.*, 1995; Deluga and Perry, 1991; Bourgeois and Brodwin, 1984). By integrating these different perspectives, this study contends that a richer understanding of issues which may facilitate or indeed

hinder product-market strategy performance may be ascertained, allowing for the provision of constructive advice in the management of product-market strategy implementation within organizations.

2.5 Limitations of Existing Knowledge: Towards a Research Agenda

This Chapter has highlighted that the marketing strategy making process within organizations is complex, requiring an understanding of both context and process variables (Eisenhardt, 1999; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992) where strategy formulation and implementation are interdependent in achieving the desired results of an organization (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Parsa, 1999; Piercy and Giles, 1990).

Through emphasizing the internal complexity of organizations, it is illustrated that often decisions are outcomes of bargaining and negotiation among individuals who may have conflicting perceptions and personal interests (Pettigrew and McNulty, 1995; Guth and MacMillan, 1986). Extant research largely overlooks the varying roles that organizational members play in developing strategy (White *et al.*, 2003) and that existing models of strategy fail to fully capture the complexity and variety of elements incorporated in the process. The interface between strategy and organizations has therefore been treated as a 'black box' (Miller *et al.*, 2004).

Studies point to the failure in planning being due to poor implementation (Nutt, 1999; Bonoma, 1984). The study of product-market strategy implementation has received much less attention in the literature than that of formulation (Hickson *et al.*, 2003; Aaltonen and Ikavalko, 2002; Nutt, 1999) leading to what has been termed the 'implementation-gap', (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1996). However, it is illustrated that there are considerable organizational and human resource forces which must be addressed if researchers hope to improve the management of product-market strategy

implementation (Blomquist and Muller, 2006; Simkin, 2002b; Piercy and Giles, 1990; Hutt *et al.*, 1988).

At the same time the literature points to an evolution in the role of the mid-level manager (Hrebiniak, 2006; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994; Jackson and Humble, 1994). The mid-level manager has a significant role in product-market strategy implementation, (Hantang, 2005; Miller, 1997; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994). This role is now more complex and challenging, involving the effective transformation of resources into valuable strategic outcomes. This evolution in emphasis calls for the exploration of additional important issues in the management of product-market strategy implementation. Morgan *et al.* (2002) advise that in the marketing literature little is known regarding the linking of inputs, managerial action and outputs, whereby the transformation processes remain “*largely a black box*” (p.365).

This current study proposes that in order to contribute to an improved understanding of the management of product-marketing strategy, a broadened research perspective is essential. This perspectives incorporates the integration of content issues including an analytical/technical dimension with process issues pertaining to the organizational context and behaviour in order to understand those factors that either facilitate or impede MLMMs` in the product-market strategy implementation process. The implication underlying this research is that a better understanding of the reasons MLMMs` behave in the way they do during product-market implementation leads to enhanced insights for managing the process within organizations.

2.6 Conclusion

The aim of this current research is to contribute to the literature in the field by gaining an enhanced understanding of the role played by the MLMM in product-market strategy implementation. Chapter Three presents a detailed discussion of elements from a broad

perspective of research integrating the fields of marketing and strategy with human resource management, organizational behaviour and work psychology. An assessment is made of how a variety of important situational antecedents influence MLMMs' in their implementation role and how this has implications for product-market strategy implementation performance. Chapter Three develops a conceptual model and the construction of hypotheses. The hypotheses pertain to the antecedents and performance outcomes of MLMMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour.

Chapter Three

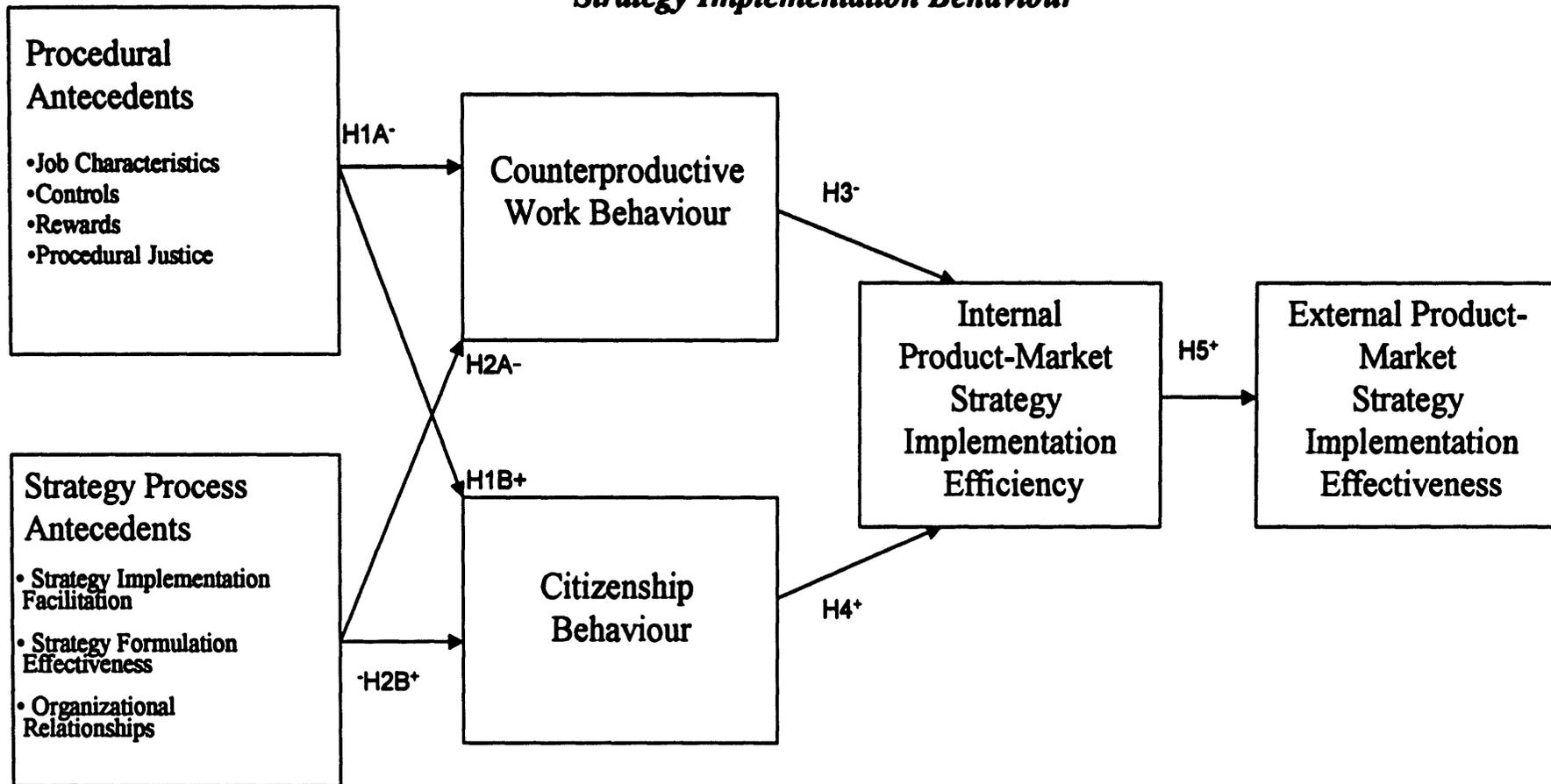
Antecedents and Outcomes of Mid-Level Marketing Managers' Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour: Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

3.1 Introduction

Chapter Three introduces a conceptual framework of situational antecedents to mid-level marketing managers` (hereafter referred to as MLMs`) product-market strategy implementation behaviour, where the outcomes of this behaviour are presented in terms of their implications for product-market strategy implementation performance. A review of the literature identifies how the concepts are linked to enable an enhanced understanding of product-market strategy implementation performance. The conceptual model is divided into subsections to present the different constructs and resultant hypotheses. The conceptual model is presented in Figure 3.1.

Subsections are delineated reflecting procedural and strategy process antecedents to MLMs` product-market strategy implementation behaviour. Two dimensions of behaviour (counterproductive work behaviour and citizenship behaviour) are discussed. Finally, performance outcomes of these behavioural dimensions are presented in terms of the internal and external effectiveness of product-market implementation.

Figure 3.1 A Conceptual Model of Antecedents and Outcomes of Mid-level Marketing Managers' Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour



Situational Antecedents

Implementation Behaviour

Product-Market Strategy Implementation Performance

Chapter Two highlights that whilst the study of making decisions has become well developed in research, (Hickson *et al.*, 2003; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992), key reasons why so many decisions fail to attain their initial objectives occur predominantly during implementation (Nutt, 1999). Selected authors purport that previous studies in strategy implementation do not go beyond analyzing decision making processes to researching how decisions are put into effect (Nutt, 1999; Skivington and Daft, 1991). Thus, success of decisions once implemented has remained a relatively under-researched area (Hickson *et al.*, 2003; Nutt, 1999; Harrison, 1992).

The processual approach to strategy making has highlighted strategy is a continuous and adaptive process with formulation and implementation inextricably entwined (White *et al.*, 2003; Moorman and Miner, 1998; Wooldridge and Floyd, 1989). It is argued that this necessitates an understanding of the events that have taken place prior to product-market strategy implementation to provide guidance as to the many variables that may have an impact on the relative success of any strategy implementation initiative. How managers think and act it is suggested, matters as much as the models which may have informed strategy in the first place (McGee *et al.*, 2005). A major reason for focusing on strategic thinking and acting is that simply focusing on strategy content is insufficient to guarantee desired outcomes (Wilson and Jarzabkowski, 2004).

The literature in the domain of strategy making proposes that the strategy process can be usefully analysed in terms of content issues including an analytical/technical dimension (Bourgeois and Brodwin, 1984; Andrews, 1971), an organizational context dimension (Blomquist and Muller, 2006; Clinebell and Shadwick, 2005; Frankwick *et al.*, 1994; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992; Skivington and Daft, 1991; Walker and Ruekert, 1987) and a behavioural dimension (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996; Korsgaard *et al.*, 1995; Hutt *et al.*, 1988). From these perspectives, the following

sections assess the antecedents to MLMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour as found in the literature. Mintzberg *et al.* (2003) framework of strategy as a pattern of interrelated decisions highlights some of the fundamental elements of product-market strategy implementation which have provided foci for subsequent studies in the field. The framework is presented in Figure 3.2.

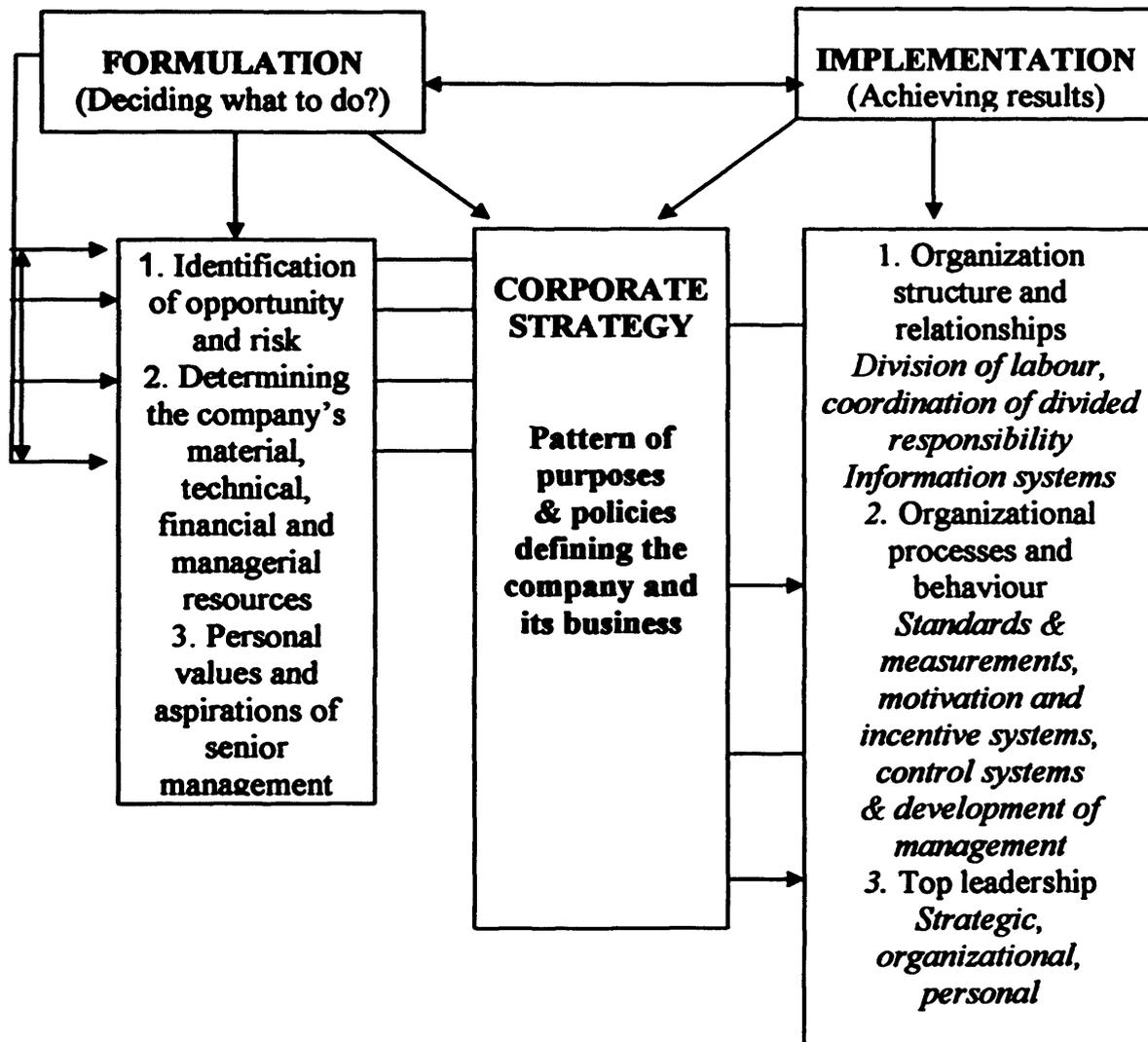


Figure 3.2: Strategy as a Pattern of Interrelated Decisions, Adapted from (Mintzberg *et al.*, 2003, p.75)

3.2 Perspectives to the Study of Product-Market Strategy Implementation

Mintzberg *et al.*'s., (2003) framework, categorizes strategy implementation into three dimensions. These dimensions include firstly, organizational structure and relationships. The literature reveals a number of studies that have taken this perspective in research

(Frankwick *et al.*, 1994; Skivington and Daft, 1991; Gupta and Govindarajan, 1984; Anderson, 1982).

Additional studies have been carried out from an organizational process and behavioural perspective, a further dimension of (Mintzberg *et al.*, 2003) framework, (Buchanan and Badham, 1999; Gilbert and Li-Ping Tang, 1998; Korsgaard *et al.*, 1995; Nutt, 1986). Additionally, Mintzberg *et al.* (2003) framework includes studies which have focused on the role of top leadership in implementation (Piercy and Morgan, 1994; Connors and Romberg, 1991; Bonoma and Crittenden, 1988).

In a review of strategy implementation research (Noble, 1999) acknowledges a broad range of perspectives for the study of implementation which are largely based on the framework proposed by Mintzberg *et al.* (2003). Noble's, (1999) review includes the structural perspective to examine both the relationships between organizational structure and implementation, and also of control mechanisms, to assess performance during and after the implementation of a new strategy and the relationship between the type of control system in use and firm performance. Further perspectives, according to Noble, (1999) have focused on interpersonal processes which are regarded as an important part of any strategy implementation effort. An example of work relevant to this area is Simkin's, (2002b) study of communication and interactive processes to enhance implementation efforts.

By combining perspectives to incorporate structural, contextual and interpersonal and behavioural processes, a much broader and integrative understanding of product-market strategy implementation may be ascertained (Noble, 1999; Noble and Mokwa, 1999). The following sections provide a more detailed assessment of these different perspectives.

3.2.1 The Structural Perspective of Strategy Implementation Research

Elements of strategy implementation of interest to researchers in this category relate to the need to consider internal organizational characteristics such as structure, systems, the nature of control, communications processes and reward mechanisms both within the organization as a whole (Skivington and Daft, 1991; Gupta and Govindarajan, 1984) and across particular strategic business units (Frankwick *et al.*, 1994; Anderson, 1982) and how these affect the success of strategy implementation initiatives. The structure of an organization has an impact on strategic decision making and implementation in so far as decisions both create structures and are also influenced by them. Organizational structures may be centralized or decentralized, formal or informal. The structure adopted may be related to the size of the organization or reflect the age of the industry in which the organization operated (McGee *et al.*, 2005). Interestingly, despite research into more general structural influences on decision making and implementation, (Miller *et al.*, 2004) research purports that the type of organization (in terms of public or private ownership) the sector (either manufacturing or service) or the size of a company (small, medium or large) does not uncover any relationships with ultimate organizational achievement.

Internal systems such as information and formal planning processes both influence the flow of information across the organization and also determine the nature and context of human interaction. Research conducted by (Govindarajan, 1988) concentrated on different administrative mechanisms available to help organizations cope with uncertainty. Govindarajan, (1988) argues that matching administrative mechanisms with strategy is likely to be associated with superior performance. Walker and Ruekert, (1987) also address the fit between a specific type of strategy and the appropriate marketing structures, policies, procedures and programs likely to distinguish high performing business units from those that are less effective. Aspects of structure

and policies deemed important in this study vis à vis product-market strategy implementation refer to the way in which decision-making and coordination processes are organized within the department and the way in which policies and programs pursued within the business unit affect the performance of different strategies. Skivington and Daft, (1991), review a number of framework and process variables that may be used to implement intended organizational strategies. Variables comprised structure, (specialization/formalization) and systems (market related expenditures/operations related expenditures and training expenditures). Process variables included interaction (formal and informal communications/champions) and sanctions (manager replacement/ monetary rewards/expressive rewards). The study concludes that whilst certain strategies are associated with changes in these variables, others are not. Nevertheless, Frankwick *et al.* (1994) believe that structural frameworks and iterative processes are increasingly considered complimentary features of strategy implementation. In this respect, managers rely upon their authority to adjust the organizational structural framework as a means of enacting strategic decisions.

3.2.2 Organizational context

Organizational context has become widely accepted as a perspective for study in the organizational theory and management literature. Over the years there has been increasing interest in social, organizational and situational influences on workplace behaviour (Clinebell and Shadwick, 2005; Glick, 1985). Behaviour is suggested as being a function of both a person's characteristics and the nature of his or her environment (Patterson *et al.*, 2004). Variables associated with organizational context in selected studies have also included structure, technology, organizational age and size. A definition of organizational context is provided by (Patterson *et al.*, 2004) p.89 as:

“the set of circumstances or facts surrounding an event...”

This definition of organizational context is similar to the definition for measures of organizational climate whereby many concepts have tended to overlap in the literature (Glick, 1985). Both concepts seek to represent employee's experiences of important organizational values and processes and of the individual's role in the organization, task characteristics and of any other factor that may shape responses that are possible predictors of organizational productivity and implementation performance (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005; Clinebell and Shadwick, 2005; Miller *et al.*, 2004). Nevertheless, studies of organizational climate do not usually focus on structure, technology, organizational size and age, for example. From the organizational context perspective there are a number of factors that have been studied in an attempt to provide awareness of how to better effectuate implementation initiatives within organizations. Such factors generally relate to market orientation and organizational culture, which may include sub-factors of communication processes and supportiveness and formalization of the planning process (Noble, 1999; Simkin, 1996; Martin, 1987), management style, skills, and employee centred issues (Dibb and Simkin, 2001; Piercy, 1998; Piercy and Morgan, 1994; Connors and Romberg, 1991; Bonoma and Crittenden, 1988).

Martin, (1987) study focuses on a number of contextual variables deemed crucial to the process of marketing planning and effective strategy implementation. These include participation, pertaining to the extent to which marketing area people contribute to plan formulation activities; marketing orientation involving the extent to which recognition is given to the marketing concept and its operationalization, plan credibility; the extent to which people believe in the applicability of the plan, plan use; the extent to which marketing people are responsible for the implementation of the plan and plan performance; the extent to which marketing people believe that the marketing plan system contributes to goal attainment and finally comprehension; the extent to which marketing people perceive the meaning of the plan and its elements. Additional

studies suggest that the overall experience base of the organization too, including such aspects as the knowledge available in-house, outsourced or bought in has an influence upon implementation (Miller *et al.*, 2004).

A key issue of organizational context relates to how ready the organization is to adopt any changes incurred by the strategic decision. Readiness, Miller *et al.* (2004) argue, has a significant influence on decision making and implementation effectiveness and refers to the degree to which what is done fits with the prevailing norms and expectations both within the organizations and in the operating environment (Miller *et al.*, 2004). Whether the term context or climate is employed Patterson *et al.* (2004), report that different dimensions have emerged as important influences on performance in different studies. The authors argue that this may be due, in part, to the use of different indicators of performance in the studies and also from variations in the temporal sequence of measurement. Nevertheless, Glick, (1985) contends that the study of such factors has a valid place in research concerned with the intersection of organizational and individual behaviour, which is inherently multi-dimensional.

3.2.3 Interpersonal Process Views

Selected research into strategy implementation has placed importance on the interpersonal and behavioural perspective to the process (Noble, 1999; Noble and Mokwa, 1999). Rarely are strategies created by single individuals, but through groups of people with shared perceptions of reality (Kelly, 1994; Bourgeois and Brodwin, 1984). An organization is shaped by the stream of strategic decisions its managers take over time and by how they make these decisions. Managers often work in teams in decision making because the complexity and ambiguity of issues can overwhelm the capacities of any individual (Korsgaard *et al.*, 1995). The group nature of the process presents a number of obstacles, including avoidance of uncertainty and the tendency to

smooth over conflicts prematurely. Owing to this, there has been an interest in research into consensus and commitment of employees to product-market strategy implementation.

It is suggested that interpersonal influence in organizations is increasing in importance (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996). The literature reveals a number of studies dedicated to, for example, understanding the relationships between the supervisor and senior management in an attempt to obtain greater performance from subordinates. These relationships are discussed in the literature as upward and downward influencing behaviour (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994; Deluga and Perry, 1991; Kohli, 1989) and in leader-member exchange theory (LMX) (Keller and Dansereau, 1995; Deluga and Perry, 1991). Such studies have focused on the relationship between the supervisor and his or her subordinate and the influence enacted in these roles, particularly as regards obtaining resources which may be crucial for the performance of strategy implementation initiatives

The above overview of the perspectives of strategy implementation research indicates that there is a wide array of variables that potentially influence product-market strategy implementation initiatives. Whilst it might be argued that there is some overlap in elements making up each of the above categories, Noble's, (1999) notion of a more integrative approach to implementation research is clearly useful. In this approach the human dimension is elevated since the process of formulating and implementing plans is irrevocably interwoven with management of the human factor (Martin, 1987). To this end both the analytical process of planning and the human dimension must be considered simultaneously since both are critical to plan use behaviour.

A key aim of this study is to explore the situational antecedents to MLMMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour. However, prior to this exploration, it is deemed useful to outline what might be considered appropriate organizational

behaviour so as to allow for the evaluation of MLMMs' behaviour in the process of product-market strategy implementation.

3.3 Conceptualization of Behavioural Responses in Product-Market Strategy Implementation

Formulating and implementing product-market strategy necessitates managing both the content and process of strategic change (Pettigrew *et al.*, 2001; Beer and Eisenstat, 2000; Dawson, 1994; Pettigrew, 1992; Argyris, 1992). A number of perspectives to the study of product-market strategy implementation, highlighting areas which may potentially influence MLMMs' behaviour have already been introduced. A further aim of this current study is to investigate the behavioural responses leading from MLMMs' perception of these situational antecedents in order to ascertain those antecedents likely to promote behaviour that either impede or facilitate product-market strategy implementation performance. In an attempt to differentiate between these opposing behavioural responses, it is useful firstly to delineate what might be regarded as appropriate organizational behaviour.

3.3.1 Categorizing Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour.

Employees make considered judgments of the work situation through their appraisal, assessment or evaluation of the composite external circumstances of life at work relative to some standard (Bettenhausen and Murnigham, 1985). To this end, Raven and Rubin, (1976, p.314) regard norms as:

“standards against which the person can evaluate the appropriateness of behaviour, providing order and meaning to what otherwise might be seen as an ambiguous, uncertain, or perhaps threatening situation” .

Bettenhausen and Murnigham, (1985) view norms as regular behaviour patterns that are relatively stable within a particular group. The authors suggest that a critical

element in norm development is the emergence of a generally held, group-based understanding of expected and accepted behaviour.

Royale *et al.* (2005) employ the term accountability and contend that social systems such as organizations could be defined in terms of common sets of shared expectations of behaviour. Thus, through accountability, individuals are held responsible for their actions, thereby maintaining social order. Royale *et al.* (2005) add that accountability refers to both implicit and explicit expectations that a person's behaviour will be subject to review by a salient audience (or group of audiences).

In judging behaviour in organizations, Warren, (2003) highlights that researchers commonly judge behaviour according to the interests of other employees, group performance, organizational performance, societal values, legal standards and rights. In terms of social values, Bettenhausen and Murnighan, (1985) suggest that social norms are among the least visible but most powerful forms of social control over human action. Social values form the foundation of civic citizenship behaviour (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). Civic citizenship is viewed as including all positive community relevant behaviours of individual citizens. Van Dyne *et al.* (1994) suggest that civic citizenship behaviour may be extended into the workplace setting whereby positive organizational relevant behaviours include in role job performance behaviours, and organizational functional extra-role behaviours such as full and responsible organizational participation. Lee and Allen, (2002) suggest that citizenship behaviour is a deliberate attempt to maintain the balance in a social exchange between employees and the organization, which is intended to benefit the organization.

The recognition of the prevalence, importance and costs of counterproductive behaviour in the workplace has led to a significant increase in research interest in the area (Lee and Allen, 2002). There are many terms employed in the literature to describe behaviour which works counter to appropriate organizational functioning. These terms

include 'deviant behaviour' (Warren, 2003; Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Robinson and Bennett, 1995), 'dysfunctional behaviour' (Harris and Ogbonna, 2002; Menon *et al.*, 1996; Jarrett and Kellner, 1996; Brower, 1995; Grover, 1993; Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989), 'organizational misbehaviour' (Vardi, 2001; Vardi and Weiner, 1996), politics in the pursuit of self-interest (Buchanan and Badham, 2000; Butcher and Clarke, 1999; Egan, 1994; Drory and Romm, 1990; Kumar and Thibodeaux, 1990), and 'Svejkism' (Fleming and Sewell, 2002).

Deviant behaviour may be described as behaviour that departs from or breaks reference group norms and that the behaviours are explicitly considered socially or organizationally harmful (Warren, 2003; Robinson and Bennett, 1995). In this way, employee deviance excludes minor infractions of social norms, such as wearing a suit of the wrong style, as this is not likely to be harmful to most organizations.

More recent research uses the term counterproductive work behaviour to define intentional employee behaviour that is harmful to the legitimate interests of an organization (Dalal, 2005). From a definitional perspective it might be argued that citizenship behaviour and counterproductive work behaviour could be considered opposites in the sense that the former benefits the organization, whereas the latter harms it. However, it is worthy of note that results of Dalal, (2005) research doesn't support this and therefore counterproductive work behaviour cannot be considered as the opposite of citizenship behaviour. In this study therefore, the term counterproductive work behaviour (hereafter referred to as CWB) as employed in the work of (Dalal, 2005) is used to denote behaviour that is antisocial and thus harmful to organizational functioning, particularly in terms of the implications of this type of behaviour for reducing the effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation. The term citizenship behaviour (hereafter referred to as CB) is used to denote pro-social behaviour that aids the long term organizational functioning.

In summary, an understanding of the norms that may be applied in organizational settings is important to help determine standards against which the appropriateness of behaviour may be evaluated. This current study identifies how an understanding of norms allows for the identification of behaviour which may be classified as facilitating organizational performance; (CB) and also as impeding performance; (CWB). A more detailed discussion of these behaviours is presented later in Chapter Three. The following section presents a detailed assessment of the situational antecedents to MLMMs' product-market strategy implementation role performance.

3.4 Situational Antecedents to Mid-Level Marketing Manager's Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour

To help determine important variables for studying organizational behaviour, Glick, (1985) advises researchers to use dimensions that are likely to influence or be associated with the study's criteria of interest. For example, it has been highlighted that several researchers in the field of strategy have stressed the need to consider the organizational framework where structure, systems, the nature of control, communications processes, reward mechanisms both within the organization as a whole are important (Frankwick *et al.*, 1994; Skivington and Daft, 1991; Gupta and Govindarajan, 1984).

In the current study, variables have been chosen for their potential to influence MLMMs' behaviour in the implementation of product-market strategy. Particular behaviour of relevance to this study includes CB and CWB. In this way, some focus is provided in the selection of the variables included.

In the conceptual model presented in Figure 3.1 these variables are termed situational antecedents to MLMMs' implementation behaviour. These antecedents have been categorized as 'procedural antecedents' and 'strategy process antecedents' to further define this focus in order that an understanding of MLMMs implementation

behaviour may be evaluated. The literature reveals that these antecedents may encourage MLMMs' to behave in ways that either increase the effectiveness of implementation efforts or reduce this dependent on how the antecedents are perceived by MLMMs' in their organizations. The following sections present a detailed discussion of procedural and strategy process antecedents and how these are related to either CB or CWB. Table 3.1 summarizes the hypotheses constructed from a review of the literature.

SITUATIONAL ANTECEDENTS TO MID-LEVEL MARKETING MANAGERS PRODUCT-MARKET STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION BEHAVIOUR	
H^{1A} Procedural antecedents are inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour	H^{1B} Procedural antecedents are positively associated with citizenship behaviour
Procedural antecedents: Sub-hypotheses H ^{1A} (a-j)	Procedural antecedents: Sub-hypotheses H ^{1B} (a-j)
H ^{1A} (a) Role autonomy H ^{1A} (b) Task identity H ^{1A} (c) Job variety H ^{1A} (d) Role significance H ^{1A} (e) Professional control H ^{1A} (f) Process control H ^{1A} (g) Output control H ^{1A} (h) Output rewards H ^{1A} (i) Process rewards H ^{1A} (j) Procedural justice	H ^{1B} (a) Role autonomy H ^{1B} (b) Task identity H ^{1B} (c) Job variety H ^{1B} (d) Role significance H ^{1B} (e) Professional control H ^{1B} (f) Process control H ^{1B} (g) Output control H ^{1B} (h) Output rewards H ^{1B} (i) Process rewards H ^{1B} (j) Procedural justice
H^{2A} Strategy process antecedents are inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour	H^{2B} Strategy process antecedents are positively associated with citizenship behaviour
Strategy process antecedents: Sub-hypotheses H ^{2A} (a-g)	Strategy process antecedents: Sub-hypotheses H ^{2B} (a-g)
H ^{2A} (a) Support H ^{2A} (b) Participation H ^{2A} (c) Information availability H ^{2A} (d) Strategy formulation effectiveness H ^{2A} (e) Superior-subordinate relationships H ^{2A} (f) Organizational attachment H ^{2A} (g) Strategy commitment	H ^{2B} (a) Support H ^{2B} (b) Participation H ^{2B} (c) Information availability H ^{2B} (d) Strategy formulation effectiveness H ^{2B} (e) Superior-subordinate relationships H ^{2B} (f) Organizational attachment H ^{2B} (g) Strategy commitment

Table 3.1: A Summary of Hypotheses of Situational Antecedents to Mid-Level Marketing Managers' Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour

3.4.1 Procedural Antecedents

In this study, procedural antecedents reflect situational antecedents that are general to the organizational setting but which are deemed to influence and shape MLMMs' behaviour as they implement product-market strategy. Consequently, MLMMs' assessments of their job characteristics, the type of control and reward mechanisms in use in the organization and perceptions of the fairness of procedures employed encourages two types of behaviour. On the one hand, if MLMMs' have a negative perception of these procedural antecedents they may be encouraged to behave in ways that impede product-market strategy implementation initiatives defined as CWB (Dalal, 2005; Kacmar and Carlson, 1997; Guth and MacMillan, 1986). On the other hand, if MLMMs' perceptions of these procedural antecedents are positive, this may foster organizational beneficial behaviour defined as CB (Lee and Allen, 2002; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). These behavioural dimensions ultimately have implications for the internal and external effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation performance.

This leads to the construction of two broad hypotheses:

H^{1A} Procedural antecedents are inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour

H^{1B} Procedural antecedents are positively associated with citizenship behaviour

These broad hypotheses are extended in the following sections to incorporate a number of procedural antecedents judged to influence MLMMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour.

3.4.1.1 Job Characteristics

Research into job characteristics and performance (Patterson *et al.*, 2004; Saavedra and Kwun, 2000; Lee-Ross, 1999; Teas, 1981; Hackman and Oldham, 1975) suggest a number of core characteristics that define the motivating potential of a job. *Job variety* relates to the opportunity for the job holder to use numerous and varied skills in their

repertoire when performing their work; task *identity* relates to the degree to which the job requires the completion of an entire recognizable piece of work. Additionally, *task significance* relates to the degree to which the job affects the lives of other people and *task autonomy* refers to the extent to which the job provides individual discretion relating to the work (Lee and Ross, 1999; Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Teas, 1981; Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

Teas, (1981) research concluded that task significance, autonomy and job variety is strongly related to self-fulfilment and perceptions that job performance is intrinsically rewarding. This is supported by Saavedra and Kwun, (2000) who found that task significance and task autonomy were positively related to the emotional state termed 'activated pleasant affect'. According to Teas, (1981) task complexity was found to be positively related to company relationships and job status instrumentality in that good performance on a complex job tends to result in increased status. All of the characteristics were found to have motivational potential via expectancy and instrumentality perceptions (Teas, 1981).

In Hackman and Oldham's, (1975) study, experienced meaningfulness of the work was found to be enhanced primarily by three core dimensions of job satisfaction; job variety, task identity; and task significance. The study concludes that an increase in any of the core dimensions will increase the motivating potential score for the job. However, if any of the core characteristics are low, the resulting motivational potential score will also be low. Experienced responsibility for work outcomes is increased when a job has high autonomy (Hackman and Oldham, 1975), where job autonomy acts as a moderator between job stress and employees negative reactions (Beehr and Drexler, 1986). High levels of autonomy weaken or eliminate the relationship between stressors and aversive outcomes because employees believe they can control what needs to be done in their work (Beehr and Drexler, 1986).

The above job characteristics allow for the measurement of a number of personal, affective reactions an employee obtains from performing the job (Patterson *et al.*, 2004). Personal outcomes might include general satisfaction, as well as the degree to which an employee is self-motivated to perform effectively on the job. Measures of job satisfaction are significantly associated with discretionary behaviours such as CB, including helping behaviours, loyalty and compliance (Patterson *et al.*, 2004; Parnell and Hatem, 1999; Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994).

At an organizational level Patterson *et al.* (2004) suggest that there are significant associations between average job satisfaction and measures of performance. This is supported by Koys, (2001) who found that mean employee satisfaction was significantly correlated with subsequent company profitability.

Whilst measures of job satisfaction are found in the literature to be associated with pro-social behaviours, further research highlights more negative behavioural outcomes (Lee and Allen, 2002; Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Robinson and Bennett, 1995). Bennett and Robinson, (2000) illustrate that instrumental motives may underlie workplace deviant behaviours. Instrumental motivation reflects what Bennett and Robinson, (2000) propose are attempts to reconcile disparity in the workplace by repairing the situation, restoring equity or improving the situation. In this respect, CWB may result where CWB is defined as:

“intentional employee behaviour that is harmful to the legitimate interests of an organization” (Dalal, 2005).

Behaviour in this sense is instrumental to the extent that it is deliberate behaviour enacted to restore equitable transactions between employees and the organization (Bennett and Robinson, 2000). Consequently, employees retaliate against dissatisfying conditions by engaging in behaviour that harms the organization (Dalal, 2005). This leads to:

H^{1A} Job characteristics incorporating role autonomy (a) task identity (b) job variety (c) and role significance (d) are inversely related to counterproductive work behaviour

H^{1B} Job characteristics incorporating role autonomy (a) task identity (b) job variety (c) and role significance (d) positively related to citizenship behaviour

3.4.1.2 Organizational Control Mechanisms

An assessment of the control function in organizations is a key aspect of product-market strategy implementation processes (Marginson, 2002; Noble, 1999). Planning the standard of performance, monitoring/measuring activities designed to reach that target and finally implementing corrections if standards are not being achieved are included as part of the control function (Daft and Macintosh, 1984). It is suggested that there is a strong relationship between the type of control system used in the organization, strategy processes and performance (Marginson, 2002; Daft and Macintosh, 1984). Control systems along with measurement and reward systems prescribe what is given priority and therefore what decision makers focus most of their attention upon (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989).

According to research by Jaworski and MacInnis, (1989), controls can be described by their degree of formality. Formal marketing controls are written, management initiated mechanisms designed to influence the probability that marketing personnel will behave in ways that support the stated marketing objectives. There are two types of formal controls termed 'process' and 'output' (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989; Ouchi and Maguire, 1975).

Process controls are used when managers attempt to influence how a given job is performed and as such the means, behaviour or activities leading to a given outcome are typically evaluated (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989). Output controls, on the other hand, are used to evaluate the behaviour of an individual in terms of the results of that behaviour relative to set standards of performance (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989).

Informal controls are unwritten, typically worker initiated mechanisms, designed to influence the behaviour of marketing personnel (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989). An example of informal control is professional control which is differentiated from formal control on the basis of who does the evaluation. For example, professional control might be evaluated by peers within a work unit via interaction, discussion and informal assessment.

Although controls are primarily employed to produce positive outcomes for management, negative consequences may also arise from controls in use since they can have direct effects on the psychological and behavioural consequences of marketing personnel (Brashear *et al.*, 2005; Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989). Jaworski and MacInnis, (1989) illustrate that a product manager whose performance evaluation is based primarily on output such as market share, may find it personally advantageous to manipulate the reporting of marketing boundaries, to work primarily on increasing market share while ignoring other activities, to withhold information from management or provide only positive (or negative) accounts of activities to superiors (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989). This self-interest perspective suggests that people seek control over processes because they are concerned with their own outcomes. This desire to influence procedures may be in part based on the belief that such control could yield more favourable outcomes (Greenberg, 1990). As such, employees may also behave in ways that appear to be beneficial to the organization as assessed by the control system, but are counterproductive for the firm in the long run. A reliance on formal controls is suggested as being linked to such behaviour. Brashear *et al.* (2005) argue that the extent of control that individuals` have in relation to procedures, processes, outcomes and decisions might encourage self-interested behaviour in so far as individuals will prefer policies and procedures that directly benefit them.

Informal control systems are said to be less likely to be linked to counterproductive behaviour since such controls are liable to foster greater co-operation amongst colleagues (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989). The extent to which a subordinate influences or controls various aspects of the control system is a key determinant of the fairness of the relationship (Brashear *et al.*, 2005). Brashear *et al.* (2005) found a positive link between individual input into the control mechanism and positive outcomes. For example as individual input was increased, so did trust in managers.

Whilst the study by Jaworski and MacInnis, (1989) found only mixed support for these linkages, later research by Jaworski and MacInnis, (1989) attempted to readdress the domain by focusing on the simultaneous use of multiple controls. The authors report that the isolation of a single type of control does not accurately reflect the complete set of controls operating in an organization. Controls combine synergistically to influence the attainment of a given objective (Jaworski *et al.*, 1993). Jaworski *et al.* (1993) research shows that some controls, whether formal or informal, are necessary to improve the psychological and role perceptions of marketing managers. Whilst the aim of this study is not to gain a detailed understanding of the exact combinations of controls and their outcomes in certain organizational settings and under different contexts, the understanding that a combination of controls is related to both positive and negative outcomes is important in an attempt to understand MLMMs' implementation behaviour. Thus we may hypothesize:

H^{1A} A combination of formal and informal controls incorporating professional control (e), process control (f) and output control (g) in the organization, is inversely related to counterproductive work behaviour

H^{1B} A combination of formal and informal controls incorporating professional control (e), process control (f) and output control (g) in the organization is positively related to citizenship behaviour

3.4.1.3 Reward mechanisms

Reward mechanisms are further regarded as procedural antecedents to MLMMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour. In organizations, rewards are a primary source of influence on an individual's behaviour (Ambrose and Harland, 1991). Authors concur that a multifaceted approach to rewards is beneficial for product-market strategy implementation performance leading ultimately to firm performance (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Atuahene-Gima and Li., 2002; Allen and Helms, 2001; Helms and Stern, 2001; Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Walker and Ruekert, 1987).

Reward systems are internal processes that help to engender effective generation and sharing of market information in marketing strategy development (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Simkin, 2002b; Rapert *et al.*, 2002; Simkin, 1996). Walker and Ruekert, (1987) assert that strategy implementation performance is influenced by the consistency between business unit strategy and the reward mechanisms employed by managers. Recent research suggests that a multifaceted approach to rewards in organizations includes output rewards and process rewards (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004). Output rewards are necessary for monitoring and compensating project members for achieving desired performance targets. This may include meeting deadlines, working to budgets and target market success (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004). Output rewards therefore provide incentives and responsibilities for results. This, it is proposed, discourages project members from engaging in political behaviour in favour of committing to the strategy making process (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004). Such political behaviour might include manipulation of information in the pursuit of personal goals (Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992; Morgan and Piercy, 1991; Piercy, 1989a).

Process rewards are necessary to monitor and compensate project members for completing specified procedures and activities that are critical to achieving desired

objectives in marketing strategy development (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004).

Thus, project members believe that they will be rewarded for the quality of their strategy making.

Whilst managers are typically expected to enhance employee motivation by linking important personal rewards to an individual's performance, Meglino and Korsgaard, (2004) suggest that it is important to understand the extent to which such programs will ultimately enhance individual motivation. The authors study found that programs or activities designed to enhance individual motivation by linking individual performance with personal rewards is likely to produce greater self-interested outcomes whereas, group incentive programs are likely to foster more cooperative behaviour. As a consequence, organizations can design reward systems that perpetuate political behaviour or promote more pro-social behaviour. Individually orientated rewards induce individually oriented behaviour. Individually oriented behaviour as opposed to organizationally oriented behaviour is often self-interested and political in nature (Kacmar and Carlson, 1997). Such behaviour is deemed counterproductive to organizational functioning. This leads to:

H^{1A} Output (h) and process rewards (i) are inversely related to counterproductive work behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers

H^{1B} Output (h) and process rewards (i) are positively related to citizenship behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers

3.4.1.4 Procedural Justice

Organizational justice is a further important concept for explaining employee's behaviour in the organization (De Coninck and Stilwell, 2004). This importance is due to the relationship between individuals' perceptions of organizational justice and for example, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (De Coninck and Stilwell, 2004; Kim and Mauborgne, 1993) their trust in management, intention to leave the

organization and their evaluation of superiors. This may lead to either conflict or harmony (Greenberg, 1990). Organizational justice theory is concerned with employee perceptions of the fairness of work-related issues (Greenberg, 1990; Greenberg, 1986). Organizational justice research has been developed by focusing on two dimensions of the concept; distributive justice and procedural justice (De Coninck and Stilwell, 2004; Paterson *et al.*, 2002; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997; Greenberg, 1990; Folger and M.A., 1989; Greenberg, 1986). Whilst relatively more research has been carried out in the domain of distributive justice, selected studies have shown the important role of procedural justice in explaining work outcomes (De Coninck and Stilwell, 2004; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997).

Distributive justice emphasizes employees' beliefs about how they are treated in relation to others. When employees are evaluating if an outcome is appropriate or fair, they are making a distributive justice decision by comparing the ratio of their own inputs and outcomes with those of relevant others (Paterson *et al.*, 2002; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997).

Procedural justice focuses on the process that is used to make decisions (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997; Greenberg, 1990: 1986). Here, fairness of organizational procedures that result in decisions is being evaluated. Procedural fairness is important to employees because it offers some form of control over the process and outcomes of decisions, and because it recognizes individuals' standing in the organization, thereby contributing to their sense of self-worth (Paterson *et al.*, 2002). As procedural justice focuses on the perceived fairness of the means used to determine the amount of punishment or reward, it is suggested that how outcomes are determined may be more important than the actual outcome (De Coninck and Stilwell, 2004; Cropanzano *et al.*, 2003).

In this current study it is procedural justice that is regarded as an important construct in the conceptualization of antecedents to MLMMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour. Although it is acknowledged that MLMMs' are also likely to be concerned with distributive justice, several influences analogous to distributive justice have already been included in the category of 'controls in use' (section 3.4.1.2) and 'reward mechanisms' (section 3.4.1.3). Furthermore, it is argued that MLMMs' tasked with product-market strategy implementation are less able to make comparisons with how they are treated in relation to others, since their role may not be directly comparable with other functional managers and employees in the organization. However, it is considered that MLMMs' will be concerned with the process used to make decisions concerning rewards and punishments, both for themselves and their subordinates.

According to Paterson *et al.* (2002), fair procedures are characterized by 1) consistency of implementation; 2) impartiality; 3) basing decisions on accurate information; 4) 'voice' opportunities that allow employees to have input into decisions and 5) compatibility with current ethical and moral standards. Measures of fairness need to be relevant to specific contexts and as such need to be standardized so that they might be customized to assess the importance of the justice dimensions and elements in different contexts (Paterson *et al.*, 2002). For example, in this study, the five standardized items above are to be applied in the context of the perceived fairness of procedures of strategy making which includes product-market strategy implementation.

The literature reveals different outcomes from employees' perceptions of procedural justice. Research in this respect has focused on CB where it is found that when employees feel that they are being treated fairly, they reciprocate through the performance of CB (Erhart, 2004; Muhammad, 2004). The procedure for how outcomes are determined within organizations is generally influenced by organizational superiors

(De Coninck and Stilwell, 2004). Consequently, if procedures are perceived as fair, employees will feel respected and valued by the organization and the enacting authority and consequently will trust this authority and their long-term relationship with him/her. This will likely result in greater work motivation in favour of the organization (Dolan *et al.*, 2005; De Coninck and Stilwell, 2004). Additionally, if individuals receive a negative outcome they try to make sense of it by seeking further information on the procedures used to reach the decision outcome. If they conclude that the procedures were fair they will reason that the authority can be trusted in his/her decision-making procedures and as a result the individual will be motivated to show commitment toward the organization and engage in cooperative behaviour.

However, if employees conclude that unfair procedures were employed, trust will be low and individuals will most likely show low commitment and low cooperation (De Cremer, 2005). Skarlicki and Folger, (1997) argue that if organizational decisions and managerial actions are deemed unfair or unjust, the affected employees experience feelings of anger, outrage and resentment. This can elicit the desire for retribution which might include minor acts against the organization, vandalism or more serious direct acts. Skarlicki and Folger, (1997) argue that the type of retaliation depends on the relative power of the individual to the source of perceived injustice (e.g. the boss or the organization). If the individual has less power, attempts to restore justice will be largely indirect. Such behaviours therefore might include more covert retaliation such as withdrawal of citizenship behaviours and resistance behaviours (Fleming and Sewell, 2002; LaNuez and Jermier, 1994). Such covert acts are suggested as being as equally harmful to organizational functioning as direct acts of retaliation (Fleming and Sewell, 2002; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997). Thus it is hypothesized:

H^{1A} Procedural justice (j) is inversely related to counterproductive Behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers

H^{1B} Procedural justice (j) is positively related to citizenship behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers

The above sub-components of hypothesis H^{1A} and H^{1B} are all deemed important procedural antecedents to MLMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour. However, in taking an integrative approach to product-market strategy implementation, the literature reveals additional variables that are also deemed to facilitate or act as obstacles to the effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation initiatives. This study incorporates these additional variables under the heading of strategy process variables to reflect features of strategy-making in an organization. The following section presents a discussion of important strategy process antecedents in this respect.

3.4.2 Strategy Process Antecedents

In this section a number of strategy process antecedents incorporated as situational antecedents to MLMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour are presented from a review of the literature. Strategy process antecedents in this study pertain to MLMs' perceptions of support evidenced on behalf of senior management; their level of participation in strategic decision making and the appropriate information available to them for product-market strategy implementation. Additionally, MLMs' perception of strategy formulation effectiveness; superior-subordinate relationships reflecting their ability to favourably influence senior management; organizational attachment via congruency between their beliefs and values and those of the organizations as a whole and finally their commitment to the organizations espoused strategy reflect strategy process antecedents.

As with procedural antecedents, it is argued that according to MLMs' perception of strategy process antecedents, two types of behaviour are likely to result. Firstly, MLMs' may decide to impede product-market strategy implementation

following their negative perceptions of these antecedents, and as such engage in CWB (Dalal, 2005; Kacmar and Carlson, 1997; Guth and MacMillan, 1986), or they may, due to more positive perceptions of these antecedents, decide to engage in CB (Lee and Allen, 2002; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). This leads to two broad hypotheses:

H^{2A} Strategy process antecedents are inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour

H^{2B} Strategy process antecedents are positively associated with organizational citizenship behaviour

These broad hypotheses are extended in the following sections upon the discussion of each of the strategy process antecedents.

3.4.2.1 Support

Nutt, (1983) suggests that management of the strategy implementation process generally requires a driving force in the organization in order to succeed. Hutt *et al.* (1988) use the term 'championing', and suggest that champions are particularly important in the implementation of certain marketing strategies. Champions may emerge from any level in the organization, but often arise from senior management ranks (Nutt, 1983). Noble and Mokwa, (1999) define championing as:

"the extent to which it is perceived that a strategy is being led through the implementation process by a specific individual" (p.63).

In order to improve strategy implementation initiatives, Connors and Romberg, (1991) also highlight the need for senior management support and encouragement, since ambiguity, confusion and lack of commitment at senior management level will undoubtedly have an effect on lower level management. Mixed signals received from senior management that betray a less than passionate commitment could lead to resistant behaviour from lower levels of management. Whilst a champion is more of an

emotion inspiring individual, perceptions of senior management support are driven by more rational interpretations on behalf of the MLMM (Noble and Mokwa, 1999). Where MLMMs' are clear about the parameters of the problems, and what information is needed to address them, they can take action toward strategy implementation. Indeed, a manager's ability to manage organizational conditions in which implementation takes place are the crucial factors borne from support exhibited from senior management (Miller *et al.*, 2004; Pettigrew and Whipp, 1991). Obtaining support from senior management and the communication of that support to the organization becomes essential in product-market strategy implementation (Noble and Mokwa, 1999). As such, MLMMs' perception that senior management is doing all they can to facilitate the implementation process is important (Noble and Mokwa, 1999). As senior management support is generally associated with resource allocation, managers who see clear support from above generally expect that they will be given the resources necessary for product-market strategy implementation to be effective (Menon *et al.*, 1999). Further, product-market strategy implementation efforts endorsed clearly by senior management can be expected to result in rewards for mid-level managers who are prominent in making them successful. Thus obtaining support from senior management has been found as an important factor in, for example, facilitating the organizational adoption of innovations and in gaining strategy commitment (Noble and Mokwa, 1999). Whilst research has found that leader supportiveness is related to pro-social work behaviours (Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998), further studies report that a lack of perceived support may lead to behaviour that acts as a barrier to successful product-market strategy implementation (Connors and Romberg, 1991). This leads to:

H^{2A} Support (a) is inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers

H^{2B} Support (a) is positively associated with citizenship behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers.



3.4.2.2 Participation

A key strategy process feature found to facilitate product-market strategy implementation in the literature is participation, whereby it is suggested that the more employees engage in strategy related activities, the greater the participation rate (Neubert and Cady, 2001). Researchers concur that strategy implementation is an issue of gaining prior participation and informing all those affected by any change so that the key issue becomes one of the readiness of the organization to implement that change (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Wooldridge and Floyd, 1989; Walker and Ruekert, 1987). If employees are continually engaged in a task i.e. their participation in strategy making, performance is purported to increase (Neubert and Cady, 2001; Fenton-O`Creedy, 1998). Harrison, (1992), asserts that participation is central in facilitating the degree of understanding such that a high degree understanding equates to high implementation. Martin, (1987) also believes that participation is important for effective implementation in so far as employees understand the meaning of the plan and its elements. In this respect, participation refers to the extent to which employees contribute and continually engage in activities relative to the organizations espoused strategy.

Participation can incorporate a variety of contributions and influence (Currie and Proctor, 2005; Rodrigues- Braga and Hickson, 1995; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994), and in different types of decisions. For example, participation in strategic decisions might incorporate influence on whether the organization should be changed and tactical decisions such as when, where and how to implement the change (Bordia *et al.*, 2004). Miller, (1997) found that participation in the decision making process satisfies employees higher order needs which leads to job satisfaction and in turn results in higher motivation and increased productivity. Similar findings are found in the work of (Li and Butler, 2004; Muhammad, 2004), and Teas, (1981). The extent to which an individual is freely involved in the goal setting process, the more they are likely to be psychologically

bound to their goal (Li and Butler, 2004). Further, as has already been highlighted, allowing employees greater input into procedures increases perceptions of the fairness of those procedures. When employees are allowed to participate in decisions, they perceive that a potential is created for higher order need fulfilment, increased performance recognition and increased job status and that good performance makes possible the realization of this potential (Teas, 1981). Consequently, increased effort will result in improved performance and improved performance results in improved company relationships, increased direct recognition of performance and enhanced job status (Teas, 1981). The opportunity to participate in decision making is suggested as being linked to CB although this relationship may be moderated by positive evaluations of the supervisor (Van Yperen *et al.*, 1999). Participation can often motivate employees to maximize group rather than individual rewards. As such employees may engage in pro-social behaviours such as CB to support and maintain the group and seek ways to improve its health and welfare (Muhammad, 2004; Van de Ven, 1992). Conversely, a lack of a sense of participation creates emotional reactions such as anxiety, uncertainty, hesitation and resistance, thereby increasing any lack of trust that may exist (McIluff and Coghlan, 2000). Limited information about job objectives, job responsibilities and outcomes of job performance, and limited trust among organizational members creates a politically charged work environment (Curtis, 2003). Such an environment is likely to be more conducive to CWB. Thus:

H^{2A} Participation (b) is inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviours on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers

H^{2B} Participation (b) is positively associated with citizenship behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers

3.4.2.3 Information Availability

A lack of information or ambiguous and contradictory information creates uncertainty during times of organizational change (Bordia *et al.*, 2004). According to Rapert *et al.*

(2002), it is often assumed that an organization's corporate strategy is clearly mandated, accurately understood and immediately accepted by organizational members, yet in reality strategic decisions may be interpreted in a diverse set of ways. Differences in the information available to MLMs in relation to general management can lead to differences in predictions of outcomes of strategic decisions (Guth and MacMillan, 1986). Rapert *et al.* (2002) assert that a key task of senior management is to consistently and accurately communicate the strategic priority of the organization to functional level members for implementation. Organizational members who do not have a clear common understanding of strategic issues create a major barrier to implementation (Bordia *et al.*, 2004; Rapert *et al.*, 2002). This view is supported by Simkin, (2002b:1996) who believes that effective marketing depends on improving and developing effective relationships and facilitating improved communications within an organization. Communication channels should enable managers to share information, ideas and the overall development of the marketing strategy and implementation programmes (Simkin, 2002b: 1996). This results in a morale-boost of supportive colleagues coupled with increased confidence in participants' abilities and worthiness of the eventual marketing plans – the output. In this way the marketing culture is enriched and more soundly entrenched within the organization thus facilitating implementation (Simkin, 2002b).

Uncertainty produced via a lack of relevant information has several negative consequences for individual well-being and satisfaction in an organizational context (Bordia *et al.*, 2004; Zhu *et al.*, 2004). For example, uncertainty is positively associated with stress and turnover intentions and negatively associated with job satisfaction (Bordia *et al.*, 2004). Lack of knowledge about current and future events undermines an individual's ability to influence or control those events which ultimately translates into lower performance, reduced commitment and professionalism (Bordia *et al.*, 2004; Zhu

et al., 2004). Management communication however, enables employees to gain change related information helping them to feel more prepared and able to cope with change. Such communication includes senior management selling the strategy both vertically and laterally to all affected organizational members. Lack of such interaction can lead to failure of strategy implementation initiatives. It has been suggested that marketing is primarily an information processing function in the organization (Piercy, 1989b). Indeed, (Piercy, 1989b) proposes that information flows are discretionary and possibly discriminatory which undermines, in certain circumstances the common assumption that all legitimate organizational actors enjoy full access to information. Filtering of information, especially in organizations that comprise several vertical levels, is a barrier to effective communication and consequently, effective product-market strategy implementation (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005). This leads to:

H^{2A} Information available (c) for product-market strategy implementation is inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers

H^{2B} Information available (c) for product-market strategy implementation is positively associated with citizenship behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers

3.4.2.4 Strategy Formulation Effectiveness

Selected studies suggest that attempts to understand the effectiveness of marketing strategy making processes should blend the rational planning and incremental processes in a hybrid approach and in so doing, intertwine the nature of formulation and implementation (Smith, 2003a; 2003b; Menon *et al.*, 1999).

Research by Frankwick *et al.* (1994) provides conceptualizations of how marketing management decisions are made and implemented and emphasizes that the manager's task is to assemble and evaluate environmental information and then rationally employ that information in structuring marketing activities to produce the desired marketing response in line with organizational objectives. However, to achieve

this, a number of researchers have suggested that there is a greater need to understand the actual process of strategy making in organizations (Eisenhardt, 1999; Chakravarthy and Doz, 1992; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992; Hutt *et al.*, 1988; Narayanan and Fahey, 1982; Mintzberg, 1978).

A factor cited as affecting the effectiveness of marketing strategy making processes is the extent to which marketing planning is used in the organization. A body of research concludes that whilst marketing planning is widely claimed, it is much less practiced (Smith, 2003a: 2003b; Simkin, 1996; McDonald, 1992; Piercy and Giles, 1990; Greenley, 1988). However, the rational approach is part of a hybrid model of strategy making effectiveness proposed by (Smith, 2003a) and Smith, (2003b) and as such, the author concludes that if rational processes do contribute to effectiveness and are not used then they are limited in their contribution to marketing strategy effectiveness.

Menon *et al.* (1999) define marketing strategy making as:

“a complex set of activities, processes and routines involved in the design and execution of marketing plans” (p.21).

Piercy and Morgan, (1994) point out that it is the actual thoroughness of the planning process that influences implementation. Thoroughness involves the utilization of internal knowledge and experience from a number of managerial levels, employing internal and external sources of ideas for the plan, budgeting, having an appropriate timescale for the planning and utilizing a number of organizational and motivational factors to encourage good planning. Indeed, (Frederickson, 1986) uses the term

‘comprehensiveness’ defined as:

“the extent to which an organization attempts to be exhaustive or inconclusive in making and integrating strategic decisions” (p.474).

Comprehensiveness in the marketing strategy making process is also deemed important by Menon *et al.*,(1999) whose study revealed that alternative strategy

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generation is critical during the process. Comprehensiveness involves the systematic identification and in-depth evaluation of multiple alternatives to a potential strategy. The importance of comprehensiveness is allied to its potential to generate a wide range of strategy options, refine and improve selected strategy and enhance the confidence in the chosen strategy and as such has a positive impact on organizational performance (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Bailey *et al.*, 2000; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Eisenhardt, 1989; Schweiger *et al.*, 1989). Atuahene-Gima and Murray, (2004) suggest that a key feature of the process of marketing strategy development and implementation is marketing strategy comprehensiveness, which they define as:

“the extent to which project members are extensive and exhaustive in the search for market information , the generation of many alternatives courses of action; the examination of multiple explanations and the use of specific criteria in making decisions in marketing strategy development and implementation” (p.33).

According to Atuahene-Gima and Murray, (2004) comprehensiveness is a key component of quality marketing strategy. The authors underline that a research gap exists between marketing strategy comprehensiveness and performance in that previous studies ignore the array of internal and external factors that may influence the effect of a specific strategic decision.

Therefore, an important internal antecedent to MLMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour is their perception of the thoroughness of the overall product-market strategy process incorporating the degree to which planning is used in the organization and the comprehensiveness of that process. Both these aspects are potentially key contributors to marketing strategy effectiveness. As such, if MLMs' perceive the process to have been carried out thoroughly, they are more likely to have confidence in implementing the strategy. On the other hand, if mid-level managers lack this confidence, this may lead to a lack of commitment to the proposed strategy resulting in conflict situations which produce resistance and political behaviour instead

(Eisenhardt *et al.*, 1997; LaNuez and Jermier, 1994). As Guth and MacMillan, (1986) assert, MLMMS` with low or negative commitment to the strategies formulated by senior management create significant obstacles to effective implementation. This leads to:

H^{2A} Strategy formulation effectiveness (d) is inversely related to counterproductive work behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers

H^{2B} Strategy formulation effectiveness (d) is positively related to citizenship behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers.

3.4.2.5 Superior-Subordinate Relationships

O'Donnell, (2000) asserts that change is a complex psycho-social drama in which the personalities of the individuals involved, the roles they play, the situation where interpersonal interactions occur and the prevailing political climate affect both the nature and the form of the strategy implementation process. Emotions are central to the actions of managers(Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999). Understanding and managing emotionality issues in planning will result in weak strategy implementation situations becoming stronger and thus potentially more effective and successful (O'Donnell, 2000; Vince and Broussine, 1996; Lyles and Lenz, 1982; Reichmann and Levy, 1975). The emotional element is too often neglected in organizational life, but (O'Donnell, 2000) asserts that it is probably the primary source of `defensive routines`, the most important causes of failure in strategy implementation. Bagozzi *et al.*, (1999) further purport that much less is known about the role of emotions in marketing, particularly as regards the behaviour of marketing managers.

Interpersonal influence in organizations is increasing in importance (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996). The literature reveals a number of studies dedicated to understanding the relationships between the supervisor and subordinate in an attempt to obtain greater performance from subordinates. These relationships are discussed in the literature as

upward-influencing supervisory behaviour (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992; Deluga and Perry, 1991; Schilit, 1987; Schilit and Paine, 1987; Kohli, 1985; Fulk and Wendler, 1982); and in leader-member exchange theory- LMX (Maslyn and Uhl-Bien, 2001; Keller and Dansereau, 1995; Deluga and Perry, 1991). This type of behaviour is directed at maintaining a good rapport between the supervisor and his or her superiors and influencing them to act favourably on behalf of the work unit (Deluga, 1988; Kohli, 1985). In this study, the supervisor is regarded as the senior manager and the subordinate the MLMM, but the MLMM is the supervisor for product-marketing strategy team members. It is advocated that an upward-influencing supervisor, is likely to be able to obtain resources and rewards for the team from the higher level management. The ability to obtain scarce resources within the organization may be more critical to job-related success for many employees who seek these resources from their superiors (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996). Upward-influencing subordinates who get along well with their supervisors are likely to be clear on what the latter expect from the work unit. In this way, upward influencing behaviour is related to subordinate satisfaction (Kohli, 1985). Achievement oriented supervisory behaviour consists of emphasizing goals, expecting high levels of performance and expressing confidence that the subordinates will achieve these goals and expectations. When supervisors employ this behaviour subordinates role clarity is reported to be improved as is their job satisfaction and their instrumentality in for example obtaining rewards.

However, in influence attempts, it is the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship which is important. Leader-member exchange theory (LMX) suggests supervisors develop a unique relationship with each subordinate (Keller and Dansereau, 1995). Such relationships contain a high degree of emotionality or affect. Higher quality leader-member exchange subordinates receive more benefits, higher status and exert higher influence than lower quality leader member exchange subordinates. In exchange,

superiors obtain hard-working subordinates who are dedicated to work group objectives. Conversely therefore lower quality leader-member exchange subordinates will result in weaker levels of mutual influence (Uhl-Bien and Maslyn, 2003).

Outcomes of such behaviour have been studied in terms of failed influence attempts, in particular, withdrawal (stopping of an influence attempt) and persistence (trying again after initial failure) (Uhl-Bien and Maslyn, 2003). However, more generalized outcomes of significance to this study are revealed by Tepper and Taylor, (2003) whose study suggests that LMX acts as a mediator in perceptions of procedural justice which is in turn positively linked to CB through, for example, supervisors mentoring behaviour with their subordinates.

Whilst Kohli, (1985) research also revealed a positive relationship between upward influencing behaviour and intrinsic instrumentalities, there was no effect on the team's role clarity or job satisfaction. A possible reason in this case, Kohli, (1985) suggests may be due to supervisors being more interested in obtaining favours for themselves than for team members. This is supported by Deluga, (1988) who suggests that a failed influence attempt may be perceived as unfair which might at a later stage be used in revenge attempts. This may be enacted through withholding valued skills and knowledge. Thus, a supervisor may use the influence process to their own advantage. Due to their own unique sources of power, such as expertise, effort, commitment and access to valued facilities, the supervisor may be able to obtain a greater flow of organizational benefits (Deluga, 1988). Upward influencing attempts might therefore have positive outcomes in terms of pro-social organizational behaviour, but there may be and a more negative outcome in terms of promoting self-interested behaviour. This leads to:

H^{2A} *High quality superior-subordinate relationships (e) are inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers*

H^{2B} High quality superior-subordinate relationships (e) are positively associated with citizenship behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers

3.4.2.6 Organizational Attachment

Commitment has been studied most often at organizational level (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Meyer and Allen, 1997). However, this most frequently studied dimension of commitment has shown a limited relationship to role performance (Noble and Mokwa, 1999). Indeed, work on commitment to the organization is not without critique with some authors suggesting that organizational commitment has become redundant to be replaced with other work commitment constructs (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

Nevertheless, Meyer *et al.* (1993) have cautioned that not all forms of commitment are alike and that work carried out in organizations in an attempt to maintain and strengthen employee commitment should carefully consider the nature of commitment they wish to instil. To this end (Meyer *et al.*, 1993) have suggested a multifaceted approach to commitment.

Organizational commitment is purported to incorporate three components (Mowday, 1998; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Meyer *et al.*, 1993; Lee and Mowday, 1987). These include commitment as an emotional attachment to the organization, commitment as a perceived cost associated with leaving the organization and commitment as an obligation to remain in the organization. These components have been referred to as affective, continuance and normative commitment respectively (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Meyer *et al.*, 1993). Common to all approaches is that commitment is a psychological state that characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization (Meyer *et al.*, 1993). Affect based organizational commitment is operationalized through a strong desire to remain a member of the organization, a strong belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the organization and a readiness to exert considerable effort on

behalf of the organization (Coopey and Hartley, 1991). As such, this form of commitment can be thought of as a mind-set in which individuals consider the extent to which their values and goals are congruent with the organizations (Bennett and Durkin, 2000). Meyer *et al.* (1993) suggest that affective commitment and to a somewhat lesser extent normative commitment are positively related to job performance and CB, whereas continuance commitment is unrelated or negatively related to such behaviour. For this study therefore the affective dimension of organizational commitment (organizational attachment) is likely to have implications for MLMMs' implementation behaviour. Indeed, additional studies reveal that attachment to the organization encourages pro-social work behaviour (Cardona *et al.*, 2004; Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998). It is argued that without organizational attachment however, MLMMs' may be more inclined to act in ways that impede the effective implementation of product-market strategies.

Grover, (1993) reports that greater organization-individual value incongruity will be associated with a higher frequency of unethical work behaviour such as lying. Lack of commitment may result in merely passive compliance or in significant intervention by MLMMs' either during the strategy formulation process or during the implementation of the strategy (Guth and MacMillan, 1986). This might include deliberately taking ineffective action or creating 'roadblocks' to implementation, giving implementation low priority or general 'foot dragging' all of which can compromise the quality of strategy implementation (Guth and MacMillan, 1986). Consequently, managers are motivated more by their perceived self-interest rather than by organizational interest.

This leads to:

H^{2A} Organizational attachment (f) is inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour on behalf of Mid-level Marketing Managers

H^{2B} Organizational attachment (f) is positively associated with citizenship behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers

3.4.2.7 Strategy Commitment

Commitment research acknowledges that the object of commitment might be extended to other entities such as commitment to employment, careers and professions (Meyer *et al.*, 1993). Researchers suggest that commitment can be a collection of multiple commitments (Locke *et al.*, 1988; Reichers, 1985) raising the view that employees can have varying commitment profiles. Becker, (1992) highlights that employees' commitment to, for example, work groups, senior management and the supervisor lead to predictions of for example pro-social behaviour. Nevertheless, Morrow, (1983) argues, that to warrant status as a variable worthy of study for its own sake, a commitment construct must be shown to be distinguishable from related constructs and to make a unique contribution to the understanding of important outcome variables. In this respect, a number of authors propose that strategy commitment is an important construct since it is seen to influence role performance (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Korsgaard *et al.*, 1995; Wooldridge and Floyd, 1989). In this way, strategy commitment is in line with Locke *et al.* (1988) view that commitment to a specific goal is distinct from broader forms of commitment. Korsgaard *et al.* (1995) claim that it is important to assess the level of commitment managers have to carrying out individual strategic decisions.

Noble and Mokwa, (1999, p.62) define strategy commitment as:

“the extent to which a manager comprehends and supports the goals and objectives of a strategy”.

Similarly (Korsgaard *et al.*, 1995, p.60) define commitment as:

“the extent to which team members accept the decision reached and intend to cooperate in carrying it out”.

It is suggested that this may be manifested in terms of a heightened sense of ownership for the strategy. Beer *et al.* (1990) also concur that a high level of commitment to a programme or strategy motivates individuals to put forth effort, initiate

and cooperate in behaviours that are required to successfully implement change. Further, more committed employees demonstrate enthusiasm, get involved and take personal responsibility for a programmes successful implementation (Neubert and Cady, 2001).

Lack of commitment has been generally associated with higher employee turnover, dissatisfaction, withdrawal behaviours and decreased performance (Noble and Mokwa, 1999). This places a major constraint on the range of options senior managers can consider. MLMs' with low or negative commitment to the strategies formulated by senior management create significant obstacles to effective strategy implementation (Guth and MacMillan, 1986). Instead, these MLMs' may be more motivated by their perceived self-interest than by the organizations interest, unless these coincide, since it is suggested that it is rare that goal structures of strategy implementers are congruent with the goal structures of senior management (Guth and MacMillan, 1986). Consequently:

H^{2A} Strategy commitment (g) on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers is inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour

H^{2B} Strategy commitment (g) on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers is positively associated with citizenship

The above overview of the situational antecedents considered to be important to MLMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour incorporates a number of variables categorized as procedural antecedents and strategy process antecedents. These antecedents are revealed through the integration of perspectives in product-market strategy implementation from the literature. It is proposed that these variables, to a greater or lesser extent, have an important impact on MLMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour and help uncover how ultimately product-market strategy implementation effectiveness may be achieved. The following sections present a more detailed evaluation of the forms of product-market strategy implementation behaviour

whereby hypotheses of the implications of such behaviour in terms of the efficiency of MLMMs' role performance are presented.

3.5 The Relationship between Mid-Level Marketing Managers' Implementation Behaviour and Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

It has been highlighted in Chapter Two that an integral aspect of product-market strategy implementation performance is the internal effectiveness of the product-market strategy implementation process. Internal effectiveness is concerned with the outcome of the project in relation to the resources employed in its implementation (Menon *et al.*, 1999; Walker and Ruekert, 1987). Internal effectiveness is therefore concerned with the transformation of resource inputs into valuable organizational outputs. Understanding this relationship is central to internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness as is knowledge of the inputs required to reach the required outputs (Krohmer *et al.*, 2002; Morgan *et al.*, 2002; Ruekert *et al.*, 1985). To this end, Noble and Mokwa, (1999) suggest that role performance is a critical outcome and relates to the degree to which a manager achieves their performance objectives, thereby facilitating the overall success of the implementation effort. The degree to which what was done performs as intended is an important enabler to the effectiveness of implementation initiatives (Miller, 1997).

A subsequent aim of this current study is to explore the relationship between CWB and CB enacted on behalf of MLMMs' and the internal effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation. As already highlighted, MLMMs' behavioural responses are influenced by their perception of the situational antecedents already discussed in the previous sections. A detailed discussion of both CWB and CB is presented and hypotheses of the relationships between these behavioural dimensions and internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness are forwarded.

3.5.1 Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB)

Unconscious and irrational processes play a natural part in organizational life and these processes can provide a distorted mindset which often informs inappropriate behaviours and actions (Keller and Dansereau, 1995; Guth and MacMillan, 1986). Of increasing significance to research in managing the planning process are social, psychological and political processes among individuals engaged in the process (Lyles and Lenz, 1982; Pettigrew, 1977). The authors contend that of particular importance are behaviours employees exhibit during the planning process which can disrupt altogether or at least reduce the effectiveness of the process. This has led to a greater appreciation of behaviour in organizations that can both contribute to planning and organizational effectiveness or work against this. For example, the term 'deviance' is employed in research to define voluntary behaviour that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well being of an organization, its members or both (Griffin and Lopez, 2005; Warren, 2003; Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Robinson and Bennett, 1995). Employee deviance is deemed voluntary in that employees either lack the motivation to conform to normative expectations of social context, or become motivated to violate those expectations (Robinson and Bennett, 1995). Of significance in Bennett and Robinson's, (2000) typology is the inclusion of political deviance and personal aggression. A review of the literature highlights that both these areas have become important research interest areas from a number of different perspectives (see *political deviance*: (Fleming and Sewell, 2002; Buchanan and Badham, 2000; Thompson and Ackroyd, 1995) violence and aggression (Fitness, 2000; O'Leary-Kelly *et al.*, 1996).

Concurring with Bennett and Robinson, (2000); both Robinson and Bennett, (1995) and Dalal, (2005) propose that there are different categories of CWB. Certain behaviours might be interpersonally directed (directed towards other employees) and others organizationally directed (directed at the organization as a whole) although as yet

research is not conclusive in making this distinction. Dalal, (2005) therefore suggests that using a global level of CWB is valid. Whilst the study of personal aggression in the workplace is gaining momentum (Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Fitness, 2000; O'Leary-Kelly *et al.*, 1996), it is not the remit of this current study in an exploration of MLMMs' implementation behaviour. Nevertheless, Bennett and Robinson, (2000) and Robinson and Bennett, (1995) term 'political deviance' is insightful in explaining CWB.

In the organizational politics literature a number of studies define politics as self-serving behaviour designed to promote or protect the individuals' self-interests that is not sanctioned by the organization (Curtis, 2003; Kacmar and Carlson, 1997; Gilmore *et al.*, 1996; Egan, 1994; Mayes and Allen, 1977). Cropanzano *et al.* (2005) characterize an action as self-interested if it is undertaken for the sole purpose of achieving a personal benefit or benefits. It is suggested that these benefits may be tangible (e.g. money, a promotion) or intangible (e.g. community standing, group status). If an act is intended to benefit another person, it is not exclusively self-interested. Whilst self-interested behaviour has been debated in economics (concerned with personal pecuniary payoffs, profit maximization) and in social psychology (altruistic behaviour) within organizational behaviour, self-interest has also been discussed in the context of workplace fairness (Cropanzano *et al.*, 2005). For understanding MLMMs' implementation behaviour, political self-interest is therefore considered an important dimension of CWB. The following section provides a more detailed rationale for this argument.

3.5.1.1 The Politics of Self-interest

A significant body of research supports the idea that people act in their self-interests with a wide body of literature on the politics of self-interested behaviour (Cropanzano *et al.*, 2005; Schaub *et al.*, 2005; Curtis, 2003; Hockwater and Treadway, 2003; Kacmar

and Carlson, 1997; Gilmore *et al.*, 1996; Egan, 1994; Grover, 1993; Greiner and Schein, 1988).

Most theories in the organizational sciences assume that persons will utilize some form of rational outcome or utility maximization in pursuit of their self-interests (Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004). Classic models of motivation and behaviour, such as expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) provide support for this assumption. In addition, agency theory explicitly assumes that individual behaviour is guided by self-interest within the constraints of bounded rationality (Grover, 1993; Jensen and Meckling, 1976). Agency theory predicts deception under conditions of information asymmetry, whereby the agent has more information than the principal and where the agent's behaviour cannot be observed. This situation gives rise to lack of effort on behalf of the agent (Eisenhardt, 1989). The agent may deceive the principal if the deception cannot be detected and serves the agents self-interest goal attainment under the reward system in operation.

In terms of the political element to such behaviour, Mayes and Allen, (1977) define political behaviour on a classification of the means and ends of influence attempts. The authors view political behaviour as covert and lacking sanction and as serving personal goals rather than those of the organization as a whole. As such, self-interest may be regarded as a form of political organizational behaviour.

Curtis, (2003, p.293) defines organizational politics as:

“those actions not officially approved by an organization taken to meet one's personal goals” .

Sanctioned and non sanctioned behaviour relate to organizational norms. Thus attempts to influence aimed at non sanctioned ends are considered political acts of behaviour.

The notion of sanctions and political behaviour is also emphasized by Mayes and Allen, (1977) whereby the authors illustrate four dimensions to organizational politics. These dimensions are highlighted in Figure 3.3.

Dimensions of Organizational Politics

Influence Means	Influence Ends	
	<i>Organizationally sanctioned</i>	<i>Non sanctioned by the organization</i>
<i>Organizationally sanctioned</i>	1) Non-political job behaviour	2) Organizationally dysfunctional behaviour
<i>Non Sanctioned by Organization</i>	3) Political behaviour potentially functional to the organization	4) Organizationally dysfunctional political behaviour

Figure 3. 2: Dimensions of Organizational Politics: Adapted from (Mayes and Allen, 1977, p.672)

Royale *et al.* (2005) use the term accountability to help in the understanding of organizational phenomenon whereby both citizenship behaviour (CB) and political behaviour are two individual level outcomes of accountability. Royale *et al.* (2005) study highlights that there is a 'dark side' to accountability such that as well as leading to CB under certain circumstances, it may also lead to behavioural outcomes that are not organizationally determined or desired, i.e. political behaviour.

Self-serving behaviour in the organizational politics literature is said to be more pronounced at an individual level than in other types of behaviour. Whilst political behaviour may potentially functional for the organization (Egan, 1994; Mayes and Allen, 1977), according to Drory and Romm, (1990) self-serving behaviour refers

particularly to the intent 'not to serve' others or to mis-serve others. These authors regard political behaviour as acting against organizational goals when behaviour is contrary to organizational effectiveness. Self-serving managers might exercise power impulsively, they are not good institution builders, and they seek to dominate those around them, seek advancement at the expense of others, and want their subordinates to be loyal to them, not the organization (Drory and Romm, 1990). It has already been highlighted that employees perceive their work environment to be politically charged if they believe that they lack information about job objectives, job responsibilities and outcomes of job performance, resources are limited and trust levels among organizational members are low (Curtis, 2003). Tactics used to gain influence in organizations include controlling access to information, cultivating a favourable impression, developing a base of support and blaming or attacking others, and aligning oneself with more powerful others (Curtis, 2003). Within the covert nature of organizational politics it may be that deception and lies are factors in gaining influence or power (Fleming and Sewell, 2002; Fenton-O'Creedy, 1998; Jackson and Humble, 1994).

Kacmar and Carlson, (1997) state that individuals act in a self-serving manner to obtain valued outcomes and introduce the term 'go along to get ahead' which consists of a lack of action by individuals (e.g. remain silent). According to Drory and Romm, (1990) a major characteristic accompanying political behaviour is the attempt to conceal its true motive. The true motive is concealed because the individual believes that it unacceptable and a false but acceptable motive is presented instead.

Political behaviour is also associated with informal behaviour which characteristically conflicts with interests of other parties. Thus, the existence of conflict is considered as a necessary underlying element which is present in all political situations, regardless of whether the parties to the political exchange are aware of it or

not (Mayes and Allen, 1977). Conflict expresses the idea of dissensus and the potentially negative consequences of such behaviour. This might include the distortion and withholding of information from other decision makers as well as distrust during interaction (Menon *et al.*, 1996). Menon *et al.* (1996) prefer the term 'dysfunctional conflict' since they suggest that conflict might also be functional in so far as it promotes the healthy and rigorous challenge of beliefs, ideas and assumptions. Nevertheless, this study is concerned with the more dysfunctional side of conflict. For example, acting against the organization, increasing one's share in the resource distribution, concealing one's motive and frequently using the exercise of power are taken as elements which imply the existence of conflict (Mayes and Allen, 1977).

A further characteristic of organizational politics, according to (Drory and Romm, 1990) is uncertainty in the decision-making process which may contribute toward a higher likelihood of organizational politics, a characteristic supported by a number of other researchers in the field (Kumar and Thibodeaux, 1990; Narayanan and Fahey, 1982). Indeed, Guth and MacMillan, (1986) assert that managers that are motivated more by their perceived self-interest than by the organizational interest are not likely to promote effective strategy implementation. As Latimer, (1999) states:

"While the corporate strategist openly embraces discontinuous change as a necessary catalyst for progress, the corporate politician eschews it, preferring instead a more stable and predictable environment in which they can carefully regulate the pace of change" (p.66).

Guth and MacMillan, (1986) emphasize that research has not addressed the problems of self-interested interventions on the part of the mid-level manager in strategic decisions as they are being developed by general management. The result of this is evidenced through ineffective strategy implementation. Guth and MacMillan, (1986) suggest that differences in the goals of mid-level managers can lead to major differences in their perceptions of the desirability of the strategy being selected. Dislocations between what the firm offers and what its current task environment

currently demands is articulated via political processes. Consequently, rational individuals might be expected to be motivated by self-interests rather than organizational interest. Guth and MacMillan, (1986) assert that active intervention may form a continuum of passive to extreme actions. For example, mid-level managers might engage in passive compliance by giving implementation low priority resulting in delays, to taking deliberately ineffective action and creating obstacles to strategy implementation to outright sabotage. Further examples of such behaviour are manifested via mid-level managers' desire to avoid conflict and being passive to others influence attempts (Kacmar and Carlson, 1997). The authors add that whilst this may appear to be a non political act, it can actually be considered a form of political behaviour since a distinction can be made on the basis of intent. If the individual's behaviour is enacted specifically for the purpose of advancing their self-interest, then the individual is acting politically. Individuals who 'do not rock the boat', are not typically viewed as a threatening opponent by those who are acting politically. In this way the non-threatening individual may receive valued outcomes simply for not interfering with a politically acting individual's or group's agenda (Kacmar and Carlson, 1997). It is suggested that this lack of action, termed 'going along to get ahead' can be a reasonable and profitable approach to take in order to advance one's self-interests when working in a political environment.

Further perspectives of political behaviour highlight that such behaviour finds more subtle expression (Fenton-O'Creevy, 1998; Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989). Jaworski and MacInnis, (1989) employ the terms 'gaming, smoothing and focusing'. Gaming refers to situations in which employees behave in ways that appear to be beneficial to the organization as assessed by the control system, but that are dysfunctional to the organization in the long-run. Smoothing may occur when, for example, a manager attempts to even out given information flow such that results

appear more consistent over time. Focusing may occur when marketing personnel choose to enhance or degrade selected information so that it is perceived more positively (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989). Thus, the mid-level manager will engage in involvement activities most visible to senior management (Fenton-O`Creevy, 1998).

Self-interested behaviour has also been a central feature of business ethics research, whereby lying is cited as an example (Grover and Hui, 1994; Grover, 1993). Behaviour rewarded by the organization may be at odds with that expected by some organizational stakeholders and as such unethical behaviour in the form of lying may unintentionally result (Grover, 1993). However, lying also involves behaviour that intentionally misleads another person and is a device for dealing with social situations in a manner the individual deems efficacious (Curtis, 2003). Whilst lies can be altruistic and polite, lies also provided support for the status quo. Lies might also be intended to advantage the liar and/or disadvantage others (Curtis, 2003). For example, lying might be used to create self enhancement, ingratiate those with more power, fraudulent achievement, to distortion, concealment or manufacture of information-disinformation to mislead. The negative affects of lying are likely to affect others in the organization and also the organization itself, through reduced performance from this form of political behaviour. Politicking takes up a considerable amount of time; it restricts information sharing between colleagues and creates communication barriers. As such, political behaviour that includes lies, deception and secrecy has the potential to disrupt organizational efficiency and effectiveness (Curtis, 2003). The negative affects of intense political activity can reduce the performance and job satisfaction of those who feel unable to find alternative employment, and overall organizational profitability (Curtis, 2003). Consequently, in product-market strategy implementation, any decision which is seen as compromising MLMs' self-interests can meet with active intervention attempts which might include deception, lying and secrecy. Guth and

MacMillan, (1986) study found that mid-level manager's who feel that their goals are compromised can not only redirect the strategy, delay implementation or reduce the quality of implementation, they could also totally sabotage the strategy. This leads to:

H³ Counterproductive behaviour by Mid-Level Marketing Managers, in the form of political self-interest, is inversely related to internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness

Whilst MLMs politically self-interested behaviour is considered to reduce the internal effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation, other behaviours are nevertheless, considered to enhance the internal effectiveness of the process. The following section presents a discussion of such behaviour.

3.5.2 Citizenship Behaviour

A variety in terminology has been applied to work behaviour that is beyond traditional measures of job performance, yet is felt to have a bearing on organizational success. This terminology includes organizational citizenship behaviour, (Bateman and Organ, 1983) pro-social organizational behaviour and extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994; Brief and Motowildo, 1986) organizational spontaneity (George and Brief, 1992). A common theme in all of these approaches is that such identified work behaviour contributes in the long run to organizational effectiveness.

The most commonly researched conceptualization of CB is defined as intentional employee behaviour that is discretionary and typically not recognized or rewarded but nonetheless improves the functioning of the organization (Dalal, 2005). Such behaviour has been generally termed 'organizational citizenship behaviour'. Studies suggest that this behaviour has been overlooked by the traditional definitions and methods used to assess job performance (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994).

Subsequent studies suggest that CB also incorporates within-role behaviour as well as extra-role behaviour (Dalal, 2005; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994; Smith *et al.*, 1983). Brief and Motowildo, (1986) go as far as asserting that performance beyond some

minimally acceptable level is of relatively little interest to organizational officials. In their view effective role performance includes performing required tasks as well as elements such as cooperation, attendance, predictability, following the rules and general tendencies toward compliance which all form part of role prescribed (in-role) behaviours.

Consequently, a more comprehensive approach to CB is proposed by Van Dyne *et al.* (1994). The authors suggest that the term 'civic citizenship' is used to describe behaviour that might be employed and extended into the workplace setting whereby positive organizational relevant behaviours include in-role job performance behaviours, and organizational functional extra-role behaviours such as full and responsible organizational participation. In this respect, research into CB concentrates on studying those behaviours that are organizationally beneficial and on gestures that are neither enforced on the basis of formal obligations nor elicited by contractual compensation (Cardona *et al.*, 2004; Konovsky and Organ, 1996). In this respect, research has focused on *altruism*, the beneficial actions of helping others taking a personal interest in other employees, punctuality beyond acceptable norms and adherence to informal rules designed to maintain order and as such often referred to as "extra-role" (Muhammad, 2004; Smith *et al.*, 1983). However, a further dimension to CB is generalized compliance (Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998; Smith *et al.*, 1983). Generalized compliance refers to conscientiousness, including faithful adherence to rules about work procedures and conduct, doing what is right and proper for the sake of the system rather than specific persons (Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998; Smith *et al.*, 1983). Such behaviour is regarded as role prescribed (in-role).

The comprehensive approach to CB is supported by authors such as Tepper and Taylor, (2003) and Muhammad, (2004) who used both in-role and extra role behaviour in their research into mediators of CB. This current study employs a comprehensive

approach to CB and considers three categories of such behaviour as identified in the literature. These include obedience, loyalty and compliance as applied in the organizational setting (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994; Smith *et al.*, 1983). This approach to CB is essential in organizations because the entire array of behaviours needed for achieving organizational goals cannot be anticipated through formally stated within-role job descriptions (Van Yperen *et al.*, 1999; Smith *et al.*, 1983). The categories of CB are detailed in the following sections.

3.5.2.1 Obedience citizenship

Obedience, including respect for orderly structures and processes is an important element of civic citizenship responsibilities (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). Applied to the organizational setting, obedience reflects acceptance of the necessity and desirability of rational rules and regulations regarding structure, job descriptions and personnel policies. It includes acts such as internalizing and behaving according to the organizations core values and goals, adhering to major policies and procedures despite temptations to avoid them when they appear personally inconvenient, accepting and living by explicit norms (Brief and Motowildo, 1986). As such, obedience requires the subordinate in a hierarchical relationship to be primarily oriented toward fulfilling his or her role obligations (Brief *et al.*, 2000). Obedience in the workplace may be demonstrated by respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance, appropriate use of time whilst at work, task completion and respect for organizational resources (Konovsky and Organ, 1996; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994).

3.5.2.2 Loyalty citizenship

In terms of civic citizenship responsibilities, loyalty is important and includes serving the interests of the community as a whole and the values it embodies (Van Dyne *et al.*,

1994). Loyalty is the emotional setting for virtues and vices and because it extends beyond the self to some object, is considered social phenomena (Randels, 2001). Consequently, loyalty does not arise in abstract but only in the context of a particular relationship. Applied to the organizational setting, loyalty is manifested through employees' identification with and allegiance to organizations' leaders and the organization as a whole and transcending the interests of individuals, work groups and departments (Randels, 2001; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). To be loyal, an employee would need to feel a part of the organization through a matrix of positive relationships that identify him or her with the organization (Randels, 2001). Representative behaviours include defending the organization against threats, contributing to its good reputation and cooperating with others to serve organizational interests as a whole (Dalal, 2005; Turnley and Feldman, 1999; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). Further examples of activities that might be regarded as extra-role in this respect include self development and the general spreading of goodwill in the (Lee and Allen, 2002).

3.5.2.3 Compliance citizenship

Compliance is a critical step towards achieving the intended outcomes of organizational policy decisions and its absence can produce problems in any area (Anderson and Johnson, 2005). In terms of general civic citizenship behaviour compliance refers to participation, entailing active and responsible involvement in community self governance, in whatever ways are possible under the law is deemed important (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). Transferred to the organizational setting, participation translates into interest in organizational affairs guided by ideal standards of virtue, validated by individuals keeping informed and expressed through full and responsible involvement in the organizations governance (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). Representative activities include attending non required meetings, sharing informed opinions and new ideas with

others, reading and answering mail and practicing constructive and appropriate forms of involvement in the governance of the work place (Konovsky and Organ, 1996; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). Management compliance is deemed important because it is managers who are key catalysts for the implementation of an organizations strategy (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994; Kim and Mauborgne, 1993). Indeed, Kim and Mauborgne, (1993) work has highlighted the antecedent procedural justice has a positive link to CB through compliance with strategic decisions. However, Anderson and Johnson, (2005) state that research on employee compliance is underdeveloped in the management literature. This is particularly the case as regards an understanding of the role of organizational context on the relationship between policy directives and compliance.

The performance of CB has been found to have a positive relationship with organizational productivity and performance (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005; De Cremer, 2005; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994; Kim and Mauborgne, 1993). Muhammad, (2004) suggests that CB contributes to the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization by contributing to its resource transformation, innovativeness and adaptability. Van Dyne *et al.* (1994) suggest that the performance of CB promotes reciprocity in such behaviour which generally improves organizational functioning.

Despite the proliferation of studies into CB, most have been involved with an assessment of antecedents to CB, and at the same time have been generally conducted at an individual level of analysis (Anderson and Johnson, 2005; Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998; Konovsky and Organ, 1996). There has been much less research conducted on the impact of CB on aspects of organizational performance (Erhart, 2004). This study aims to contribute to research in this respect through the linking of CB at the individual level of analysis to performance outcomes in terms of the efficient and effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation. Thus, if mid-level managers demonstrate CB through obedience, loyalty and by constructive participation in

organizationally relevant activities, this should result in product-market implementation efficiency. This leads to:

H⁴ Citizenship behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers is positively related to internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

3.6 The Relationship between Internal Product-Market Implementation Effectiveness and External Product- Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

The study of product-market strategy implementation is clearly complex with a variety of interwoven variables impacting on ultimate product-market implementation effectiveness. What constitutes external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness has already been discussed in Chapter Two. However, a brief summary is useful here. Ultimately, the focus of marketing strategy effectiveness concerns the success of organizations products and services (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Walker and Ruekert, 1987). Past studies have incorporated assessments of effectiveness of the strategy for achieving customer satisfaction, providing value for customers, attracting new customers and performance of marketing on an overall basis (Krohmer *et al.*, 2002; Stein, 1998). Stein, (1998) adds that whilst these measurements cannot ensure success, if performed well they can indicate whether the prerequisites for success are in place.

External product-market strategy implementation effectiveness is taken as project level performance measure which relates to the outcomes of those members involved in the product-market strategy process contributing to both strategy formulation and implementation (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004). Consequently, external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness may be measured in terms of the extent to which the organizations product/service has achieved its sales, market share and profit objectives since launch, and additionally the degree to which the overall performance of the product/service has met management expectations

(Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004). It is advocated that external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness results in a positional advantage representing the realized strategy of the organization, concerning the value delivered to customers and costs incurred by the organization relative to its competitors (Morgan *et al.*, 2002). These ultimately produce market performance outcomes which are customer and competitor responses to the firms realized positional advantages and financial performance outcomes in terms of the achieved level of market performance (Morgan *et al.*, 2002). However, it is argued that to achieve external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, the internal effectiveness of the process is imperative. This involves the effective transformation of resource inputs into such relevant project level outputs. MLMs' role performance during product-market strategy implementation is central to this relationship. This leads to:

H⁵ Internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness is positively associated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

In summary, this current research proposes that in order to achieve quality product-marketing strategies, product-market strategy implementation is a crucial factor. Significant aspects of product-market strategy implementation performance are internal and external effectiveness. To achieve these levels of performance, an understanding of a broad variety of situational antecedents is required, since the ability to execute a decision is more crucial for success than analysis (White *et al.*, 2003; Gummesson, 1998). Realizing these levels of effectiveness is underpinned by the role performance of MLMs' in product-market strategy implementation.

3.7 Concluding remarks

The aim of Chapter Three was to develop and discuss the conceptual model of antecedents and outcomes of MLMMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour. A number of hypotheses have been constructed to this end.

The conceptual model was presented diagrammatically in Figure 3.1. Elements of the model include, situational antecedents, categorized as procedural and strategy process antecedents. A number of variables that make-up each category have been discussed as having important implications for MLMMs' implementation role behaviour, dependent on their perception of these antecedents in their organizations. MLMMs' behavioural responses have also been presented. These responses are categorized as; counterproductive work behaviour and citizenship behaviour. Although each type of behaviour may be regarded as extremes in so far as they impact on the internal and external effectiveness of strategy implementation initiatives, they are not considered as opposite forms of behaviour in this current research. Hypotheses for the outcomes of each type of behaviour have been forwarded with respect to internal and external effectiveness or product-market strategy implementation performance. A summary of the hypotheses constructed from the development of the conceptual model is presented in Table 3.2.

Hypotheses of Antecedents and Outcomes of Mid-Level Marketing Managers Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour	
H^{1A}	Procedural antecedents are inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour
H^{1B}	Procedural antecedents are positively associated with citizenship behaviour
H^{2A}	Strategy process antecedents are inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour
H^{2B}	Strategy process antecedents are positively associated with citizenship Behaviour
H³	Counterproductive behaviour by Mid-Level Marketing Managers, in the form of political self-interest, is inversely related to internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness
H⁴	Citizenship behaviour on behalf of Mid-Level Marketing Managers is positively related to internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.
H⁵	Internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness is positively associated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

Table 3.2: Hypotheses of antecedents and outcomes of Mid-Level marketing managers' product-market strategy implementation behaviour

It is necessary test the hypotheses presented in this Chapter in order to improve the understanding of the MLMM's role in product-market strategy implementation. Consequently, Chapter Four presents a detailed account of the methodology used to test the hypotheses developed from the conceptual model presented in this Chapter.

Chapter Four

Research Design and Empirical Method

4.1 Introduction to Empirical Research

Empiricism is the theory that knowledge is based on experience and a theory of knowledge is called epistemology. Rose, (1982) defines empirical research as:

“any research involving the collection of new data” (p.306).

Theory is linked to empirical evidence through theory testing and theory construction. This study adopts the former approach by generating hypotheses derived from a review of the extant literature in the domain of product-market strategy implementation.

Theory is about the connections among phenomena, a story about why acts, events, structure and thoughts occur (Whetten, 2002). This leads to a distinction between description (informed by theory but limited to insights regarding ‘what’ is happening) and explanation. Descriptions, regardless of how detailed or insightful they are may be considered conceptual contributions but without an explanation for what is observed they do not qualify as theoretical contributions. Bacharach, (1989) uses the following definition of theory:

“A theory is a statement of relations among concepts within a set of boundary assumptions and constraints” (p.496).

Consequently, theory is used to organize a complex empirical world and as such is a statement of relationships between units observed or approximated in the empirical world. Approximated units are constructs which by their very nature cannot be observed directly.

Therefore, a theory may be viewed as a system of constructs and variables in which the constructs are related to each other by hypotheses. The whole system is bounded by the theorist’s assumptions. This is represented in Figure 4.1.

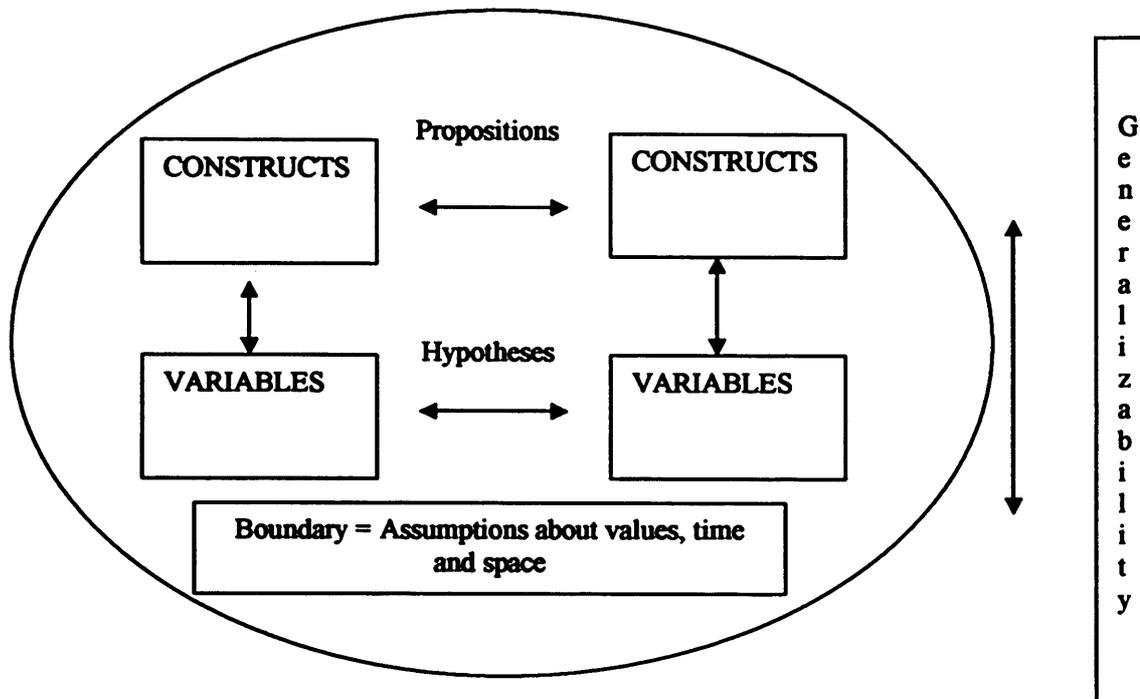


Figure 4.1. Components of a Theory: Adapted from (Bacharach, 1989, p. 499)

Spatial boundaries are conditions restricting the use of the theory to specific units of analysis (e.g, specific types of organizations). Temporal contingencies according to the author specify the historical applicability of a theoretical system. Taken together spatial and temporal boundaries restrict the empirical generalizability of a theory.

In this current study, hypotheses are used to test the conceptual model developed in Chapter Three, where indicators have been employed to link concepts to observations from the extant literature. An empirical research design is used to test the accuracy of the created hypotheses and thus determine the validity and reliability of the conceptual model. In this way empirical research is based on observed and measured phenomena.

4.2 Research Objectives

The research objectives for this study are as follows:

1. To develop a conceptual model of mid-level marketing managers' (MLMMs') behaviour in product-market strategy implementation

2. To identify behavioural issues and their implications for product-market strategy implementation performance, in order to provide insights for the management of product-market strategy implementation.

The research questions that guide the development of the conceptual model and its hypotheses are as follows:

1. What are the situational antecedents influencing the role of mid-level marketing managers (MLMMs) in product-market strategy implementation?
2. How do these factors contribute to MLMMs' performance of product-market strategy implementation?
3. What are the resultant outcomes of MLMMs' performance in terms of internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness?
4. What are the outcomes in terms of external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness?

4.3 Epistemology

Epistemology is defined as:

“the systematic investigation into and the study of materials and sources in order to establish facts and research new conclusions” (OED, 2006).

Epistemology involves the study of theories of knowledge; the questions researchers ask about what is known (Karami *et al.*, 2006). Researchers employ various research paradigms to guide them through the course of knowledge seeking. In the field of research into organizational strategy, three primary research domains are positivism, interpretivism and critical science (Kim, 2003). The marketing field has been dominated by the logical empiricist paradigm stressing rationality, objectivity and measurement (Lowe *et al.*, 2005). However, within social science disciplines, including marketing, debates concerning epistemology and methodological imperatives have taken place for some time (Lowe *et al.*, 2005; Johnson and Cassell, 2001). Karami *et al.* (2006)

research has shown that articles in leading journals in the management field use a range of different methodological approaches. The dominance of questionnaires as data collection tools suggests a leaning towards positivism, and quantification in knowledge construction in management.

Positivism is based on the assumption that there are universal laws that govern social events and uncovering these laws enables researchers to describe, predict and control social phenomena (Kim, 2003). Positivism uses quantitative and experimental methods to test hypothetical deductive generalizations (Karami *et al.*, 2006). The researcher, as a neutral collector of data, can objectively access the facts of an a priori reality (Johnson and Cassell, 2001). According to Smith, (1993), empirically grounded methods in positivism also serve as a reality check to reduce researchers' biases and values which can potentially contaminate the research process and subsequent findings. Positivism assumes an objective stance in relation to the creation of knowledge (Karami *et al.*, 2006).

Interpretive research in contrast seeks to understand values, beliefs and meanings of social phenomena to obtain an understanding of human cultural activities and experiences (Karami *et al.*, 2006; Kim, 2003). The phenomenological approach uses qualitative approaches to inductively and holistically understand human experience (Karami *et al.*, 2006). Critical science seeks to explain social inequities through which individuals can take actions to change injustices (Kim, 2003; Carr, 2000). Critical theory adopts a more subjectivist epistemology where the investigator and the investigated object are assumed to be interactively linked, where the values of the investigator will inevitably influence the inquiry (Cox and Hassard, 2005).

The three approaches take distinctively different epistemological positions regarding theoretical foundations, assumptions and purposes, while producing competing modes of enquiry. Positivism holds that social reality exists independent of

people and can be objectively investigated by employing valid and reliable measurements (Kim, 2003). Researchers employing a positivistic stance inherently recognize several primary assumptions as intrinsic characteristics of the positivistic mode of enquiry (Kim, 2003). Firstly, the physical world and social events are analogous in that researchers can study social phenomena as they do physical phenomena. Secondly, theory is universal and sets out principles and inferences that can describe human behaviour and phenomena across individuals and settings. Thirdly, in examining social events, researchers adhere to subject-object dualism in that they stand apart from their research subjects and treat them as having an independent existence. Fourthly, there is a need to formalize knowledge using theories and variables that are operationally distinct from each other and defined accordingly. Finally, hypotheses concerning principles of theories are tested by quantification of observations and by the use of statistical analyses.

This study employs the positivistic perspective and, in so doing, adheres to the primary assumptions outlined above. The preliminary problem to be investigated is posed and hypotheses generated as propositions for testing so that the hypotheses may be presented as genuine knowledge if confirmed as valid. Such methodologically generated knowledge becomes accepted as truth through this rigorous empirical verification process (Kim, 2003). Quantitative methods are also reported as having more widely accepted approaches to the establishment of reliability and validity (Karami *et al.*, 2006; Cox and Hassard, 2005).

One of the major goals of using positivism in organizational research is to obtain valid reliable knowledge as a set of universal principles that can explain, predict and control human behaviour across individuals and organizations. In modern organizations there are often situations in which several variables are related to a particular pattern of behaviour. Consequently, the correlational design of positivism is useful (Kim, 2003).

Researchers can determine whether there are relationships among the variables and the outcomes and measure the direction and degree of these relationships. Employing a positivistic approach is, thus, recommended owing to its strong tendency to produce applicable knowledge that is externally valid.

The positivist paradigm is not without its limitations (Cox and Hassard, 2005; Kim, 2003; Johnson and Cassell, 2001). One of the limitations is related to the measurement of phenomena that by their very nature are subjective. Different measurement procedures, or varying sensitivities among research instruments potentially lead to different conclusions about the same construct (Cox and Hassard, 2005; Kim, 2003).

In defence of measurement procedures in the positivist paradigm, it is also argued that such procedures can often provide researchers with an efficient means of labelling and classifying complex human behaviours in diverse areas of organizational research (Kim, 2003). Researchers can group and quantify behaviours and communicate with others in comparable terms.

Further, it is accepted that no methodology is epistemically superior to any other and that all are partial and fallible modes of engagement (Johnson and Cassell, 2001). Davies and Fitchet, (2005), demonstrate the need to consider alternative epistemological foundations in marketing research. However, the authors reject viewing different paradigms as fixed choice alternatives. Indeed a number of researchers (Lowe *et al.*, 2005; Hassard, 1991) suggest that multiple paradigm research if operationalized successfully may allow the researcher to learn more of the language and practice of a wide range of academic communicates and develop analytical skills representative of these. For example, critical theory/science aims to produce a particular form of knowledge that acknowledges the various ways in which knowledge is distorted (Cox and Hassard, 2005; Carr, 2000). According to Carr, (2000), a theory is only critical if it

explains what is wrong with social reality, identifies actors to change it and provides clear norms for criticism and practical goals for the future. Consequently, the focus of critical theory is not to mirror reality as it is, as traditional theory does, but to change it. As such, critical theory is reflective and has much to offer researchers trying to understand where reform in an organization is possible and makes them sensitive to the constraining nature of some forms of logic.

Whilst this study employs the positivist paradigm, it is acknowledged that the different epistemologies are not mutually exclusive but rather, there is some overlapping between the epistemological stances. The current study attempts to introduce reflection into the analysis of data, thus, employing elements of critical theory. Nevertheless, in mainly employing the positivist epistemology, there are important implications for how the research is conducted and evaluated and the questions that are asked in the research (Johnson and Cassell, 2001).

4.4 Research Design

A research design is a framework or blueprint for conducting a research project (Malhotra and Birks, 2000; Churchill, 1999). As such it details the procedures necessary for obtaining the information needed to structure or solve research problems and specifies the practical aspects of implementing that approach (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). It ensures that the study will be relevant to the problem and that economical procedures will be used (Churchill, 1999).

Two broad research design classifications are exploratory and conclusive (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Within these broad designs there a number of designs that are applicable to social science research and particularly to research in marketing. For example, exploratory research explores a problem or situation to provide insights and understanding (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). In general, exploratory research is

meaningful in any situation where the researcher does not have enough understanding to proceed with the research project.

The main objective of descriptive research is to describe something. This is conclusive research conducted for measuring for example, marketing phenomena to represent larger populations, to compare findings over time that allow any changes in the phenomena to be measured (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Consequently, descriptive designs in marketing are employed to measure phenomena in a consistent and universal manner, to determine the degree to which variables are associated and to be able to make specific predictions. Descriptive research assumes the researcher has much prior knowledge about the problem and is guided by an initial hypothesis (Malhotra and Birks, 2000; Churchill, 1999). Thus; it is characterized by the prior formulation of specific research questions and hypotheses and is typically based on large representative samples (Malhotra and Birks, 2000).

Cross sectional design is the best known and most frequently used descriptive design in marketing research (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). It involves counting the simultaneous occurrence of the variables of interest (Churchill, 1999), providing a snapshot of these variables at a single point in time. The sample of elements is typically selected to be representative of some known population. There may be single or multiple cross sections. In single cross sectional designs, only one sample of respondents is drawn from the target population and information is obtained from this sample only once. Major advantages of cross-sectional designs include the use of representative sampling and low response bias. However, Didow and Franke, (1984) warn that unless there is *a priori* evidence that constructs used in the design are captured accurately by a given measure, steps need to be taken to develop or assess the best measure possible.

Causal research is used to obtain evidence of cause and effect relationships. According to Malhotra and Birks, (2000), the validity of causal relationships should be examined via formal research. The use of causal research is appropriate in situations necessitating an understanding of which variables are the cause (independent variables) and which variables are the effects (dependent variables) of marketing phenomena. Such a research design is also used to determine the nature of the relationships between the causal variables and the effect to be predicted as well as to test hypotheses.

Although descriptive research can determine the degree of association between variables, it is not appropriate for examining causal relationships. Causal designs usually take the form of experiments which are deemed the best suited approach for determining cause and effect relationships. Whilst the concept of causality is complex, experimentation is capable of providing more convincing evidence of causal relationships than are exploratory or descriptive designs (Churchill, 1999). An experiment has greater ability to supply evidence of causality because of the control it affords researchers.

Experimental designs are not without problems (Churchill, 1999; Bagozzi, 1977). These problems relate to cost, time and control problems. Direct research costs are often substantial as may be the time required to conduct the experiment, since accuracy tends to increase with time. Further problems are associated with control of the experiment itself; the sample to be used and co-operation from those involved. Additionally, problems may arise owing to the assumptions made in both the experimental method and data analytic procedures (Bagozzi, 1977).

4.4.1 Choice of Research Design

Certain types of research designs are better suited to some purposes than others. A critical tenet of research is that

“The design of the investigation should stem from the problem” (Churchill, 1999, p. 99).

For this study, the most suitable design is a descriptive research design incorporating the cross sectional design approach. Support for this approach can be found in many marketing research studies (Malhotra and Birks, 2000; Churchill, 1999; Didow and Franke, 1984). It was further considered that this was the most appropriate approach owing to some of the limitations and difficulties of implementing other designs. This is particularly the case for an experimental or causal design where the different forms of cost would have been prohibitive. Further exploratory research was deemed inappropriate since a prior understanding of the research problem to be studied had been acquired through analysing extant literature and in the development of the conceptual framework and hypotheses as presented in Chapter Three.

4.5 Approaches to data generation

4.5.1 Types of data

In general, research in marketing tends to rely more on primary data than on secondary (Proctor, 2000). Whilst secondary research makes use of research already carried out by someone else for some other purpose, primary data are originated by the researcher for the specific purpose of addressing the problem at hand (Proctor, 2000; Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Secondary data offer several advantages over primary data. Secondary data are easily accessible, relatively inexpensive and easily obtained. Such data help to diagnose the research problem, develop a sampling plan, formulate an appropriate research design, and answer certain research questions, test hypotheses and also aid in the interpretation of primary data with more insight (Proctor, 2000). Nevertheless, objectives, nature and methods used to generate the secondary data may not be appropriate to the present situation and the data may not be current or dependable or

even missing (Malhotra and Birks, 2000; Churchill, 1999). With constraints such as these, rarely will secondary data provide a complete solution to a research problem.

Primary data developed through a survey methodology have important advantages over almost all secondary data (Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004). This is because the research design is specifically developed to address the research question. According to Slater and Atuahene-Gima, (2004), many strategy questions cannot be addressed with any secondary data source. The authors argue that survey research is the most appropriate in strategy research, if not the only approach for addressing questions.

At this stage the initial conclusion is that this study requires the generation of primary data in order to satisfactorily address the research questions posed and to investigate the accuracy of the hypotheses. This conclusion is reached owing to the consideration of the disadvantages suggested from employing uniquely secondary data sources. Further, there were no evident secondary sources of data deemed satisfactory in meeting the data requirements needed to test the hypotheses. The generation of primary data was thus regarded as an imperative for this study.

4.5.2 Primary Data Generation

There are a number of choices to make among the different means of primary data collection. The primary decision is whether to employ communication or observation (Churchill, 1999). Communication involves questioning respondents to secure the desired information using a data-collection instrument such as the questionnaire. The questionnaire may be oral or written and the responses may be given in either form.

Observation does not involve questioning. The situation of interest is checked and the relevant actions and behaviours recorded (Churchill, 1999). Effective observation is a skill that needs to be acquired and honed (Rowley, 2004). Rowley, (2004) argues that whilst there are a number of different types of observation, for

example, participant and non-participant; and overt and covert, the best choice depends upon the questions to be answered, the objectives of the research, access to sources and the resources for conducting the research. Further considerations pertain to whether the study be disguised or remain undisguised? Should the answers be open ended or should the respondent be asked to choose from a limited set of alternatives? Such decisions are intimately related (Churchill, 1999).

Communication and observation each has its own advantages and disadvantages. In terms of versatility, communication is useful to ascertain certain respondent characteristics, attitudes and opinions, awareness and knowledge, motivation underlying individuals' actions and even the person's behaviour (Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004). Observation is limited in scope in this respect. Communication is often faster as it provides a greater degree of control over data gathering activities. However, observation typically produces more objective data than does communication. Nevertheless, observation would not adequately or effectively generate the amount of data necessary to test the number of hypotheses generated in this study and of the large number of variables to be tested. Furthermore, the time factor would also tend to be prohibitive owing to the length of time necessary for observation to take place. Clearly, therefore, the communication approach to gathering data is deemed most suitable for this study since issues motivating respondents' actions and behaviour underlie many of the variables to be tested. It is necessary therefore to evaluate the most appropriate communication method available.

4.5.3 Administration Methods

According to Churchill, (1999) the main methods for survey administration are postal surveys, telephone surveys and the personal interview. More recently two further methods have been included; online surveys and Interactive Voice Response. Online

surveys may be in the form of Web-based surveys or an emailed questionnaire (Granello and Wheaton, 2004; Dillman, 2000). With e-mail surveys, respondents receive an email with a survey embedded in it. Web-based surveys require the instrument to be available on a website (Granello and Wheaton, 2004). A less common approach is touchtone entry, also termed 'Interactive Voice Response (Dillman, 2000).

Table 4.1 serves as a summary of the key advantages and disadvantages of the three main methods.

Table 4: Primary Communication Methods of Data Collection: Advantages and Disadvantages	
Personal Interview	
<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>
Probably highest response rate. Best for getting response from specific identified person. Allows use of any type of question. Sequencing of question is easily changed Allows probing of open ended questions Allows clarification of ambiguous questions Permits easy use of visuals	Generally narrow distribution Interviewer supervision and control difficult to maintain Often difficult to identify individuals to include in sampling frame Generally most expensive method of administration Relatively slow method of administration Subject to interviewer bias.
Postal Survey	
<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>
May be only method able to reach respondent Sampling frame easily developed when mailing lists available Not subject to interviewer bias Ensures anonymity of respondents Wide distribution possible Best for personal, sensitive questions Generally least expensive	Very little control in securing response from specific individuals Cannot control speed of response Long response times Researcher cannot explain ambiguous questions Difficult to change sequence of questions Sequence bias: respondents can view entire questionnaire as they respond
Telephone Survey	
<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>
Relatively low cost Wide distribution possible Interviewer supervision strong/less bias Relatively strong response rates One of quickest methods of data collection Allows easy use of computer support Sequence of questions is easily changed	Difficult to establish representative sampling frame due to unlisted numbers Cannot use visual aids More difficult to establish rapport Doesn't handle long interview well in most cases More difficult to determine if appropriate respondent is being interviewed than with personal interviews

Table 4.1: Adapted from (Churchill, 1999, p. 99)

Although each method has certain strengths and weaknesses, they do not apply equally to every survey situation. Until attributes of each method are considered in relation to the topic, the population to be surveyed and the precise objectives, an evaluation of which method is best cannot be ascertained. For evaluating the different instruments available for this current study a number of criteria are judged useful. These criteria are methodological and delivery considerations, response rates and resource considerations.

4.5.3.1 Methodological and Delivery Considerations

Different methods of data collection permit variations in the depth, breadth, quantity and content as well as differing levels of accuracy of the information that can be obtained (Crouch and Housden, 1996). The personal interview implies a direct, face-to-face conversation between the interviewer and the respondent or interviewee (Churchill, 1999). The interview can be conducted using almost any form of questionnaire from unstructured-undisguised to structured-disguised and as such is arguably the most flexible of all data collection methods (Crouch and Housden, 1996). This method allows open ended questions that enable the interviewer to probe for a rich and complete understanding of responses (Rosenfeld *et al.*, 1993). This is also possible with telephone surveys, although not to the same extent as the personal interview. Postal and online surveys are restricted in this sense. There is a greater amount of sequence bias with postal and online surveys than with telephone surveys or in personal interviews. Postal and online surveys allow control of bias caused by the interviewee's perception of the interviewer (Rosenfeld *et al.*, 1993). Also respondents can work at their own pace providing potentially more considered responses. Longer questionnaires can generally be better handled by personal interview and least well by telephone survey. According to Ilieva *et al.* (2002), additional advantages of online surveys include reduced time, lowered cost and ease of data entry, flexibility of the format, recipient acceptance of the

format and ability to obtain additional response set information (i.e. percentage of people that viewed survey compared to those that completed it). Disadvantages of this method include the representativeness of the sample. For example, all members of a defined population should have equal access to the technology needed to complete the survey. If certain portions of a target population are systematically eliminated from a sample, the generalizability of the survey results is compromised (Ilieva *et al.*, 2002). Further, very little is known about the psychometric implications of changing a survey from traditional paper and pencil to an electronic format. In translation terms, items could be perceived differently by participants, thus affecting the validity of the survey (Granello and Wheaton, 2004).

In capturing the representativeness of postal surveys a number of issues are important. Since the mailing list determines the sampling control in a postal survey it is necessary to obtain an accurate, applicable and readily available list of the population element. If this is possible, the mail survey potentially allows a wide and representative sample since it costs no more to send a questionnaire across country than across town (Churchill, 1999). Nevertheless, the questionnaire needs to be addressed to a specific resident, rather than a position.

Due to greater potential bias as well as the technical skill and knowledge needed to deliver interviews and to create online surveys, it would seem that in terms of methodological and delivery considerations for this study, a questionnaire seems preferable to an interview instrument and a postal questionnaire is more appropriate than an online questionnaire. Additionally, considerable range and breadth of quantitative data can be created from using measurement scales in questionnaires.

Nevertheless, a web-based questionnaire was given much consideration for this study. However, the lack of ability to generate responses from identified key informants

necessary for the study rendered this approach inappropriate. Furthermore, the lack of an appropriate email list rendered an email questionnaire inappropriate.

4.5.3.2 Response Considerations

Postal surveys offer geographic flexibility, time convenience for respondents, elimination of interviewer bias and low cost compared to telephone or face-to-face methods (Larson, 2005; Larson and Poist, 2004). Postal surveys are commonly favoured over the other alternatives because they are economical, effective and versatile (Phillips and Phillips, 2004). However, a potential problem of the postal survey is the low response rate generated (Larson and Poist, 2004; Ilieva *et al.*, 2002; Shermis and Lombard, 1999). Response rates in this case typically range from 20-61% (Ilieva *et al.*, 2002; Shermis and Lombard, 1999). Thus external validity becomes a concern, since postal surveys afford little control in ensuring a response from the intended recipient. Churchill, (1999) emphasizes that even if directed to the designated respondent with an offered incentive, the researcher cannot control cooperation. This view is not, however, supported by Dillman, (2000) and Dillman, (1978). A widely used method for increasing postal questionnaire response rates is incorporated in Dillman's, (1978), 'Total Design Method' and Dillman, (2000) revised 'Tailored Design Method'. This entails personalizing the survey to the respondent where possible and following a series of timed mailings. Many studies in marketing and strategy have followed this design method and it is therefore deemed a viable method to improve response rates (Diaz de Rada, 2005).

The self-administered questionnaire is typically used in postal surveys. Self-administered questionnaires are composed of information that is presented in four different languages; verbal (words); numerical (numbers), symbolic (e.g. arrows) and graphical modes of communication (Christian and Dillman, 2004; Dillman, 2000).

When these languages are developed in compatible ways, the authors suggest that they provide stronger guidance on how visual information is processed, comprehended and used, and as such jointly influence respondent behaviour (Christian and Dillman, 2004).

Estimated completion rates on face-to-face interview surveys range from 70-95% (Shermis and Lombard, 1999). Although the percentage is much higher compared to postal surveys, it is usually costly and laborious (Shermis and Lombard, 1999) and in-home personal interviews tend to be the most expensive per completed contact (Ilieva *et al.*, 2002). According to Churchill, (1999) the problem of non response as a result of refusal to participate however, is typically lower with personal interviews than with postal surveys or telephone interviews

Fear of low response rate to postal surveys has lead researchers to use telephone surveys instead (Larson, 2005; Larson and Poist, 2004). Telephone surveys fall between the face-to-face interview and the postal survey in terms of the response rate (Shermis and Lombard, 1999). Telephone methods suffer from 'not at homes' or no answers. However, it is argued that the telephone offers a means to counter non-response bias (Larson, 2005; Larson and Poist, 2004).

As regards online surveys, Ilieva *et al.* (2002) report that several studies evidence significantly lower response rates than traditional postal surveys. It is suggested that lack of anonymity in such surveys may contribute to lower rates. For online surveys, not everyone who completed an online survey will be computer literate, nor will everyone have access to up to date technology which will have an effect on response rates (Ilieva *et al.*, 2002). Further, not every person in every country has internet access. Added to this is a lack of standardized addresses and an appropriate method for generating random samples of addresses (Dillman and Bowker, 2001).

It is concluded that a postal survey is the most appealing instrument to use for the purpose of generating primary data for this study compared to the other methods

highlighted, as long as appropriate methods for increasing response rates are adhered to. The use of online questionnaires demands a sacrifice in the type of respondent which would compromise the reliability and validity of the study, whilst telephone or personal interviews remain unattractive from earlier discussions.

4.5.3.3 Resource Considerations

It is also useful to evaluate the different administration methods available in terms of the resources required. Resources can be considered in terms of time and cost. Of all the methods discussed, the cheapest method to use in terms of data generation would be the online questionnaire, either web-based or via email. Online surveys have minimal financial resource implications and the scale of the survey is not associated with impacts upon finances (Ilieva *et al.*, 2002). Nevertheless, the cost involved in obtaining the necessary technical expertise to translate the questionnaire online and publish it via a website so that the data can be captured in a suitable format, would be relatively costly.

Whilst the telephone interview is relatively inexpensive this method of administration would need multiple follow-ups to counter the potential for non response. Furthermore, the actual length of the interview could add to the overall cost of this method. The most expensive and time consuming approach would be the personal interview and whilst this is the best approach in terms of response rate, in terms of resource considerations it is the least attractive method for this study.

The postal survey is generally inexpensive and costs can be controlled to a certain extent through the use of stationary and postage class. Nevertheless, this approach can be time consuming in terms of time taken to receive responses and also in the time taken to administer the instrument particularly if Dillman's, (2000) guidelines in the 'Tailored Design Method' are followed. The following section presents the

rationale for the survey instrument chosen for this study based on the discussions presented thus far.

4.5.4 Choice of Survey Instrument

The most appropriate survey instrument for this study is the postal survey using the questionnaire. This choice is founded upon the advantages and disadvantages of the various methods available in terms of administration and delivery and response and resource considerations. A structured questionnaire is preferable since it will not be possible to probe respondents' answers if left unstructured. Despite the low response rate reported for this method, it is argued that response rates can be improved by adhering to Dillman, (2000) 'Tailored Design Method'. Added to this, costs can, to a certain extent can be controlled by the researcher.

Consequently, this method appears the most attractive, as long as recommendations for improving responses to postal surveys reported by selected authors are adhered to. This instrument has a number of advantages over other methods in terms of reaching key informants; the ability of achieving a wide distribution, reduced interviewer bias, its appropriateness for dealing with sensitive issues, and ensuring anonymity of response. This, therefore, renders further support for the choice of this method for generating primary information for this study.

4.6 Questionnaire Development

There are a number of recommended guidelines for effective questionnaire development (Phillips and Phillips, 2004; De Vaus, 2002; Peterson, 2000; Churchill, 1999).

Churchill, (1999) proposes a 9 step model where steps are interrelated and the development of the questionnaire involves much iteration and interconnection between the stages. Selected authors in the field propose similar approaches. For example,

Peterson, (2000) suggests a 7 stage process and Dillman, (2000) a 10 step model. Each of the models covers a number of common elements in the questionnaire development process. Typically, when using questionnaires, it is difficult to return to respondents to collect additional information. Consequently, De Vaus, (2002) suggests it is crucial to think ahead and anticipate what information will be needed to ensure that all the relevant questions are asked.

Clearly, the hypotheses developed for the relationships between variables will require that certain questions be included. Also, the way the researcher intends to analyse the data affects the information needed. The questionnaire should reflect both theoretical thinking and an understanding of data analysis (De Vaus, 2002).

Questionnaire design should follow the unique objectives of the study (Stout, 1994). Finally, the quality of questionnaire design is generally recognized as an important factor for self administered postal surveys (Phillips and Phillips, 2004; Stout, 1994; Sanchez, 1992).

The design of the questionnaire for this study contained many of the stage proposed by Peterson, (2000), Dillman, (2000) and Churchill, (1999) and depicted in Figure 4.2.

The Questionnaire Design Process	
1.	SPECIFY INFORMATION NEEDED
2.	SPECIFY THE TYPE OF QUESTIONNAIRE AND METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION
3.	DETERMINE LEVEL AND UNIT OF ANALYSIS
4.	DETERMINE APPROPRIATE MEASURES FOR VARIABLES
5.	DETERMINE CONTENT OF INDIVIDUAL QUESTIONS
6.	DETERMINE FORM OF RESPONSE TO EACH QUESTION
7.	DETERMINE QUESTION WORDING
8.	DETERMINE SEQUENCE OF QUESTIONS
9.	IDENTIFY FORM AND LAYOUT
10.	RE-EXAMINE STEPS 1-9 & REVISE IF NECESSARY
11.	*ELIMINATE PROBLEMS BY PRETESTING
* Additional stage for this study	

Figure 4.2: Adapted from (Churchill, 1999, p.329)

The process commenced with the specification of the information needed, followed by the choice of instrument and the method of administration, i.e. the self-administered postal questionnaire. However, a further consideration in the early stages of development of the questionnaire for this study was the level and unit of analysis, since this would undoubtedly affect the content and wording of questions. This was then followed by consideration of the appropriate measures to be used for the variables, the content of individual questions and the determination of the form of response. The final three stages involved the actual construction of the questionnaire. Additional considerations in the questionnaire design process involved survey administration. Survey administration followed Dillman, (2000) 'Tailored Design Method' guidelines. In the development process it was acknowledged that a number of the stages overlapped and that it was necessary throughout the process to return to previous stages to re-

examine elements (Phillips and Phillips, 2004; Churchill, 1999). The following sections present a discussion of each of the steps of questionnaire development for this study.

4.6.1 Specification of the Information Needed.

For effective questionnaire development, Malhotra and Birks, (2000) advise that fundamental theory and knowledge about the study is a key requirement. The literature review and development of the conceptual framework and hypotheses in Chapter Three guided the questionnaire development in this respect.

4.6.2 Type of Questionnaire and Method of Administration

The choice of survey instrument and its method of administration were discussed in section 4.5.4. In brief, a structured postal questionnaire was chosen as the survey instrument for the generation of the necessary primary information requirements for this study.

4.6.3 Determination of Level and Unit of Analysis and Key Informant.

Researchers must collect information from the right people and in the right units. It is firstly necessary to have a clear understanding of the respondent in place before the questions and measures are developed. An understanding of the level and unit of analysis is also important as these too have implications for the appropriate means of variable measurement. As this study is concerned with product-market strategy implementation it was decided that high technology organizations would be helpful as the level of analysis. Typically 'high tech' organizations develop and introduce new products/service to the market at a more frequent rate than other organizations. The term 'high tech' has been increasingly used to describe particular technologically advanced industries without there being a universally accepted definition of the term (Lienhardt,

2003). Platzer *et al.* (2003, p.5) in a report for the The American Electronics Association, provide the following core definition of firms included as high-tech` in the North American Industrial Classification System (NAICS);

“an industry has to be a maker/creator of technology whether it be in the form of products, communication or services”.

There is wide agreement about the kinds of industries that should be included in any grouping of high tech`. Such industries are typically dominated by large enterprises (Lienhardt, 2003). As such, it was judged that organizations in these industries were likely to have functions involved in product-market strategy implementation. Further, the likelihood of recency in such implementation was felt to be more apparent compared to other sectors.

Since the objectives of the research are to ascertain the situational antecedents to MLMMs` product-market strategy implementation behaviour, product-market strategy implementation is the unit of analysis given its role in the model and hypotheses development. Product-market strategy is an example of competitive level strategy and incorporates the launch of new products to the market in order that an organization can compete effectively. Product-market strategy is therefore marketing`s response to business strategy as defined in the strategy literature and involves establishing how the business intends to compete in the markets it chooses to serve (Day, 1990). Thus, product-market strategy implementation was considered the appropriate unit of analysis for testing the hypotheses developed.

Product-market strategy implementation is the key domain of the mid-level manager (Miller, 1997; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1996). This study focuses on the MLMM as implementers of product-market strategy. It was, therefore, necessary to have key informants in marketing or marketing related positions. Key informants were for example marketing managers, product managers and brand managers. For some organizations however, it was recognized that slightly different titles might be assigned

to these roles. What was judged important however was that informants were selected because they were knowledgeable about the topics under-study and were able to communicate about them (Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004). Although the authors suggest that key informants in strategy research are usually members of the top management team, owing to the objectives of this study, it was reasoned that mid-level managers in the above positions were likely to be the most competent to report on the phenomena under-study in this case. In summary therefore:

- Level of analysis** – ‘High tech’ organizations
- Unit of analysis** – Product- market strategy implementation
- Key informants** – Mid-Level managers in marketing related positions such as marketing managers, product managers, brand managers.

4.6.4 Determining Appropriate Measures and Variables

Whatever measures are used for the variables being tested, it is important to assess the reliability and validity of the indicators before conducting the study (Didow and Franke, 1984). Even if the measures are standardized and demonstrate reliability, it is still necessary that they actually do measure what they are supposed to measure (Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004; Sapsford, 1999). In terms of reliability, the questions should be answered in the same way on different occasions if they were administered to the same person on different occasions. A measure is reliable to the extent that it is free from unsystematic sources of error (Didow and Franke, 1984). Reliability is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for validity (Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004; Didow and Franke, 1984). Additionally, a valid measure should measure what the researcher thinks it does (De Vaus, 2002).

Pilot work is usually necessary to ensure that the questionnaire is designed properly (Phillips and Phillips, 2004). For this study, existing measures in the main

were used and in the pilot work no amendments to the measures were necessary.

However, two additional measures were added to assess informant competency.

Slater and Atuahene-Gima, (2004) suggest that firstly a general measure of informant competency, for example position in organization or tenure in the organization is important. Whilst this was already included in the questionnaire, the authors suggest an additional measure to query the respondent concerning his/her knowledge of the major issues covered in the study. Consequently, a further question pertaining to how knowledgeable the respondent was regarding the questions posed was included.

A second supplementary question was added to ascertain the extent to which the respondent believed the responses accurately reflected the realities within the organization. In this way it would be possible to not only report a mean level of respondent involvement but to further explain whether respondents with low involvement were excluded (Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004).

The above decisions regarding information needed, the structure and method of data generation and the method for administering the questionnaire will largely control the decisions regarding individual question content. Nevertheless, it is argued that to encourage participation in the survey additional important issues pertain to question content, wording, form and layout (Christian and Dillman, 2004; Phillips and Phillips, 2004; Churchill, 1999; Stout, 1994). These are discussed in the following sections.

4.6.4.1 Content

In the questionnaire development process an important decision is whether to design new questions and measures that are fresh for the questionnaire or to use existing measures that have been employed by other researchers in the field under study. Where

possible it is advised to use well established variable indicators (De Vaus, 2002).

However, these may require some modification depending on the nature of the sample.

For the purpose of this questionnaire it was decided at an early stage that all questions and hence measures would be obtained from existing sources. There is much precedent for using pre-used measures as part of the question strategy from extant literature in the field of marketing and strategy. Rentz, (1988), research on the reliability of selected marketing scales found that most of the scales were found to have acceptable reliabilities according to the traditional measures of reliability, but found that the dependability of the scale was related to the purpose for which the scale is used. A number of researchers in the field of strategy implementation have used pre-existing scales in their research studies (Vorhies and Morgan, 2003; Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Piercy and Morgan, 1994).

It is clearly important that the respondent is able to answer the questions posed. Therefore it is useful to assess whether the words used have the same meaning for everyone. For this study it was felt that although the wording was deemed appropriate for the chosen key informant, where necessary, definitions of key terms were provided. Further, an individual's ability to remember an event is influenced by how long ago it happened. A factor that aids memory recall is the stimulus given. Churchill, (1999) states that there is a definite increase in retention when a respondents memory is jogged using a recognition measure. Thus, for this study, providing a definition of product-market strategy for questions relating to elements of product-market strategy implementation in the questionnaire was felt to act as a stimulus.

Additionally, it is useful to consider respondents willingness to provide the information. Willingness is a function of the amount of work involved in producing an answer, the respondent's ability to articulate an answer and the sensitivity of the answer (Churchill, 1999). Concerning sensitivity, a number of questions were considered by the

researcher to be of a sensitive nature and as these were essential to the study, guidelines on how such issues should be addressed were adhered to.

4.6.4.2 Wording

Considerable attention must be given to developing clear and unambiguous questions. To do this the wording of questions is fundamental (De Vaus, 2002). Some obvious problems with wording include whether the question is simple avoids jargon and technical terms (De Vaus, 2002; Stout, 1994). If the question is short it helps. As such, the questionnaire was designed as much as possible with these guidelines in mind.

Leading questions should be avoided and questions that use 'not' can be difficult to understand (De Vaus, 2002; Stout, 1994). However, a number of questions in the negative were included in the questionnaire for this study, some of which were used as checks to previous questions posed in the affirmative. Malhotra and Birks, (2000) suggest that many questions, particularly those measuring attitudes should be worded as statements to which respondents indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement. Evidence indicates that the response obtained is influenced by the directionality of the statement i.e., whether the questions are stated positively or negatively. In such cases Malhotra and Birks, (2000) argue it is better to use dual statements, some of which are positive and others negative. Again, the recommendations were addressed in this study. De Vaus, (2002) also states that questions should not be too vague or too precise. It is difficult for respondents to supply precise information which is reliable. However, being specific is advocated (Malhotra and Birks, 2000).

4.6.4.3 Form and Layout of Response

A number of response formats are available in questionnaire design. Unstructured questions are open-ended questions that respondents answer in their own words. These questions are most useful for exploratory research (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Since it was decided that administration of the questionnaire is via the post, structured questions are more suitable owing to the inability for probing respondents. Furthermore, it is suggested that open-ended questions are time consuming for the respondent and cost more to code and process (Stout, 1994). Whilst some open-ended questions were used, for example by asking respondents the number of years they had worked for the company; job title; number of employees involved in implementation. These all acted as control questions calling for responses of one or two words only. Otherwise open-ended questions were kept to a minimum (Stout, 1994).

Structured or closed questions specify the set of response alternatives and response format. Structured questions were chosen for generating the data necessary for this study. This type of question and form of response is best suited to situations where the researcher has a well defined concept for which an evaluative response is required (Dillman, 2000). For example, multichotomous questions are fixed alternative questions; dichotomous are also fixed alternative questions but where there are only two alternatives listed (Churchill, 1999). Another type of fixed alternative question employs a scale to capture the response (Churchill, 1999). The advantage of this scheme is said to be that the descriptors could be presented at the top of the page and given only once at the beginning. In this way, a great deal of information may be secured from the respondent in a short period of time.

There is disagreement concerning which style of closed question is preferable (De Vaus, 2002). Notwithstanding the advantages and disadvantages of closed questions, a major problem is that some issues can create false opinions, either by

giving an insufficient range of alternatives from which to choose, or by prompting people with unacceptable answers. Nevertheless, where the questionnaire is long or people's motivation to answer is potentially low, closed questions are useful since they are quick to answer. This is particularly pertinent for the self-administered questionnaires as in this study.

Furthermore, from the researcher's point of view, closed questions are easy to code. From a data analysis perspective, De Vaus, (2002) argues that it is generally best to have data that are measured at the interval level. This allows for a wider range of statistical methods to be used in analysis.

Other issues to consider regarding the response format and layout include the principle of exclusiveness (De Vaus, 2002). This means that for each question a respondent can provide one and only one answer to the question. In this respect, the alternative responses are mutually exclusive. This was the approach adopted for this study through the use of rating scales. Likert type scales were used to measure respondent's attitudes to issues under study. The scales provided a statement reflecting a particular attitude or opinion. Respondents were required to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement. The questions were arranged in grid format. The grid, apart from saving space is used for sets of items that form scales and is easy for respondents to use (De Vaus, 2002). For the purpose of data analysis, each statement to which an answer is sought is a separate variable. The Likert format generally provides 5 response alternatives providing a measure of intensity, extremity and direction. However in the design of this questionnaire a longer 7 point scale was used. Advantages of this include the allowance for greater discrimination since fewer categories are insensitive to real differences (Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004). The authors further emphasize that scales with too few items may not achieve internal consistency or construct validity. However, scales with excessive items will induce respondent fatigue and response bias.

The following section presents the details of the measures used to capture the data for all the variables hypothesised.

4.6.5 Variables Captured and Measures Used

4.6.5.1 Procedural Antecedents

Job Characteristics

In the conceptual model of antecedents and outcomes of MLMMs product-market strategy implementation behaviour presented in Chapter Three, four job characteristic variables are used. The variables were adapted to capture implementation role.

a) Role autonomy

Role autonomy is one of four variables used in the conceptual model for this study to measure job characteristics. These measures were drawn from the study by Noble and Mokwa, (1999). The measures were developed by Hackman and Oldham, (1975) as one of five variables for their Job Diagnostic Scale. The scale was later revised by Kulik *et al.* (1988). The variables have been adapted to capture implementation role. Support for the structure, wording and adoption of the measures can be found in the work of Patterson *et al.* (2004); (Lee-Ross, (1999); (Beehr and Drexler, 1986); Teas, (1981) and Hackman and Oldham, (1975).

b) Job Variety

The measures for job variety were drawn from the work of Noble and Mokwa, (1999). These measures were developed by Hackman and Oldham, (1975) as part of the Job Diagnostic Measure from the original measure of Lawler and Hackman, (1971) and revised by Kulik *et al.* (1988). Support for these variables is found in the work of other scholars such as Patterson *et al.* (2004); Lee-Ross, (1999); Beehr and Drexler, (1986); Teas, (1981) and Hackman and Oldham, (1975).

c) Task identity

Task identity is the third variable used in the conceptual model to capture job characteristics. The measures for this variable were drawn from the work of Noble and Mokwa, (1999), developed by Hackman and Oldham, (1975). The measures have been adapted to capture implementation role.

Support for these measures are found in Hackman and Oldham, (1975) study and further support for the measures in terms of the structure, wording and adoption are provided in the work of other scholars such as Patterson *et al.* (2004); Lee-Ross, (1999); Beehr and Drexler, (1986); and Teas, (1981).

d) Role significance

Role significance is the fourth variable used in the conceptual model to capture job characteristics. This measure was also drawn from the work of Noble and Mokwa, (1999) and developed by Hackman and Oldham, (1975). The measures were adapted to capture significance in the implementation role. Support for the structure, wording and adoption of the measures can be found in the work of Patterson *et al.* (2004); Lee-Ross, (1999); Beehr and Drexler, (1986); and Teas, (1981).

e) Control Measures

The control measures (professional, process and output) are contained in the conceptual model presented in Chapter Three. These variables form part of procedural antecedents to the implementer's role. The variables have been adapted to capture implementation role.

Measures for professional control, process control, and output control have been taken from the work of Jaworski and MacInnis, (1989). Measures for output control and process control were developed by the authors from the work of Ouchi and Maguire, (1975). Support for the structure, wording and adoption of all three control measures can be found in the work of Atuahene-Gima and Li., (2002) and Jaworski and MacInnis, (1989).

f) Reward Measures

The reward measures (output rewards and process rewards) are contained in the conceptual model as presented in Chapter Three. These variables are used as procedural antecedents to the implementer's role.

The measures for both output rewards and process rewards were drawn from the work of Atuahene-Gima and Murray, (2004).

g) Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is the fourth procedural antecedent used in the conceptual model presented in Chapter Three. The measure was adapted to reflect implementation procedures.

The procedural justice measure was primarily drawn from the work of Paterson *et al.* (2002). Support for the structure, and wording of the measures can be found in the work of Muhammad, (2004); Niehoff and Moorman, (1993) and Folger and Konovsky, (1989).

4.6.5.2 Strategy Process Antecedents

From the conceptual framework developed in Chapter Three, three constructs are included in the sub-category *Strategy Implementation Facilitation*, one construct comprises *Strategy Formulation Effectiveness* and three constructs are included in the sub-category of *Organizational Relationships*. The measures for each of these constructs are detailed below.

a) Strategy Implementation Facilitation: Support

The perception of support from senior management for product-market strategy implementation is incorporated as a strategy process antecedent. The measures for support were drawn from the work of Noble and Mokwa, (1999) who developed these measures in their study.

b) Strategy Implementation Facilitation: Participation

The measures for participation were adapted to capture strategy implementation activities. The measures were primarily drawn from the work of Teas, (1981), who adapted the measure developed by Hackman and Oldham, (1975).

c) Strategy Implementation Facilitation: Information availability

The measures for information availability were primarily drawn from the work of Miller,(1997) and Piercy, (1989a). Support for the structure, and general wording of the measures can be found in subsequent work by Miller *et al.* (2004).

d) Strategy Formulation Effectiveness

Strategy formulation effectiveness is categorized as a strategy process antecedents in the conceptual model presented in Chapter Three. The measures used in this study to capture this variable were developed by Bailey *et al.* (2000). Support for the content and wording of these measures can be found in the work of Slevin and Covin, (1997).

e) Organizational Relationships: Superior-Subordinate relationships

The measure for upward-influencing behaviour in superior-subordinate relationships was primarily drawn from the work of Kohli, (1985). Support for the wording, structure of the measure can be found in the work of Kohli, (1989) and Fulk and Wendler,(1982).

f) Organizational Relationships: Organizational Attachment

The measure for organizational attachment was drawn primarily from the work of Meyer *et al.* (1993) concerning affective commitment. Support for the structure wording and adoption of these measures can be found in the work of Cardona *et al.* (2004); Meyer *et al.* (1998); Meyer and Allen, (1997) and Mowday *et al.* (1982).

g) Organizational Relationships: Strategy Commitment

The measures used to capture strategy commitment were drawn from the work of Noble and Mokwa, (1999). Support for the structure and wording of the variables used can be found in the work of McGuinness and Morgan,(2005) and Neubert and Cady, (2001).

4.6.5.3 Counterproductive Work Behaviour

Self-interest

Based on the delineation counterproductive work behaviour in the literature review and in the conceptualization and hypothesis development sections of Chapter Three, measures to capture of counterproductive work behaviour in this study relate to the politics of self-interest.

Measures were drawn from the work of Kacmar and Carlson, (1997), whose study validated the 'Perception of Organizational Politics Scale' (POPS) originally developed by Kacmar and Ferris, (1989). Support for the wording and structure of the measure can be found in the work of (Hochwarter and Treadway, 2003); (Kacmar and Carlson, 1997) and Gilmore *et al.* (1996).

4.6.5.4 Citizenship Behaviour

Based on the literature review in Chapter Three, Citizenship Behaviour comprises three variables; compliance, loyalty and obedience. The measures for compliance were drawn from the work of Kim and Mauborgne, (1993). Support for the structure and wording of the measures can be found in the work of Van Dyne *et al.* (1994). Loyalty and obedience measures were based on the work of Van Dyne *et al.* (1994). Support for the structure and wording of these measures are found in the work of Lee and Allen, (2002), Turnley and Feldman, (1999); Parnell and Hatem, (1999) and Konovsky and Organ, 1996).

4.6.5.5 Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

Based on the delineation of product-market strategy implementation efficiency in the literature review and in the conceptualization and hypothesis development sections of Chapter Three, the measures were drawn primarily from the work of Noble and Mokwa, (1999); Menon *et al.* (1999) and Miller *et al.* (2004). Examples of research that provide additional support for the structure, and wording of these measures can be found in the work of (Chimhanzi, 2004), Miller, (1997) and Ramanujam *et al.* (1986).

4.6.5.6 External Product-market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

Based on the description of product-market strategy performance as presented in the literature review and in the conceptualisation and hypothesis development sections of Chapter Three, the measures for external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness were primarily drawn from the work of Menon *et al.* (1999) and additional support for the structure, wording of these measures can be found in the work of Menon *et al.* (1996).

4.6.5.7 Key informant reliability

Based on the need to check for key informant reliability from the discussion of measurement instrument development in section 4.6.4 of the methodology section, the measures were drawn primarily from the work of Slater and Atuahene-Gima, (2004). Support for the structure and wording of these measures can be found in the work of Atuahene-Gima *et al.* (2005).

The above presentation illustrates that the measures in this study were primarily drawn from extant studies in the domain of the variables incorporated in the conceptual model presented in Chapter Three. Whilst some modification was needed in terms of linking the variable specifically to MLMs' role in product-market strategy

implementation, it is believed that using existing scales assures the reliability of the measures as advocated De Vaus, (2002) and Didow and Franke, (1984).

4.6.6 Constructing the Questionnaire

Having determined the questions and measures to be employed to capture the hypothesis variables for this study, the next stage was to construct the actual questionnaire itself.

The first guideline is to make the questionnaire easy to administer and consistent with the goals of the project. Consequently, it should be structured in such a way as to facilitate its completion (Phillips and Phillips, 2004; Peterson, 2000). Questions should be easy to read, informative instructions should be employed, appropriate space should be left for answers and the questions should appear professional (Peterson, 2000). This is particularly the case for self-administered questionnaires.

The questionnaire should be structured to facilitate the efficient transfer of question answers to a form that is amenable to analysis. Bias must also be avoided in terms of the order in which questions are asked and answered (Peterson, 2000), since such 'context effects' may be crucial to the success of the research effort (Churchill, 1999).

The physical characteristics of the questionnaire can affect not only the accuracy of the replies that are obtained, but also how respondents react to the questionnaire in general. Thought needs to be given to ensure the layout of the questions and the questionnaire in general enables it to work in the field. Dillman, (1978) 'Total Design Method' and later the 'Tailored Design Method' (Dillman, 2000) advocates that it is first necessary to identify each aspect of the survey process that may effect either the quality or quantity of responses and to shape each of them so that the best possible responses are obtained. Secondly, Dillman, (2000) and Dillman, (1978) advocates that

the survey efforts should be organized so that the design intentions are carried out in complete detail. Considerations such as size of questionnaire, shape, weight, colour, paper quality, question order and layout are among the numerous features of questionnaire construction.

Dillman, (2000) provides the most detailed discussion of questionnaire construction. In the “Tailored Design Method” (Dillman, 2000) revised from the earlier Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978), the author proposes 28 principles which are aimed to facilitate questionnaire construction, motivate respondents to answer and hence reduce non response. The development of the questionnaire for this study principally took into account many of the suggestions advocated by Dillman, (2000) in the Tailored Design Method, as well as the inclusion of suggestions from other authors in the field. The following sections discuss key aspects of physical appearance and layout of the questionnaire and question sequence.

4.6.6.1 Physical Format and Layout

Respondents first exposure to the look and feel of the questionnaire provides the first of several critical tests the questionnaire must pass (Dillman, 1978). Dillman, (1978) stresses that these visually observable characteristics form the basic constraints within which all other design method considerations are couched. Answers to self-administered questionnaires are influenced by the ways in which the question answers are displayed on questionnaire pages (Christian and Dillman, 2004).

The format, spacing and positioning of questions can have a significant effect on the results obtained, particularly for self-administered questionnaires (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Questions must be attractive, professionally prepared and efficient in design, communicating a serious and professional request (Phillips and Phillips, 2004).

Therefore in designing the questionnaire for this study, much consideration was given to these issues.

It is good practice to divide the questions into several parts where the questions in each part should be numbered (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). To help the questionnaire flow, it is necessary to use specific instructions where appropriate (De Vaus, 2002; Carroll, 1994). General instructions should include an introduction to the purpose of the questionnaire and an assurance of confidentiality, how the respondent was chosen and how and when to return the questionnaire.

For the questionnaire in this study, such information was provided on the front page. Question introductions should be used to indicate how the respondent is required to respond. Instructions should be placed as close to the relevant questions as possible (De Vaus, 2002). Churchill, (1999) further suggests that to encourage respondents to complete the questionnaire it is important to avoid cluttering it. A crowded questionnaire gives a bad appearance, leads to errors in data collection and results in shorter, less informative replies. In this regard, question length is important, with shorter questions being more beneficial (Churchill, 1999; Stout, 1994). However, De Vaus, (2002) states that there is little research evidence that long questions should be avoided as it is difficult to disentangle the effect of length from other factors such as topic, sample, mode of administration for example. The simplest advice regarding length therefore is not to make the questions longer than is really necessary.

In terms of physical characteristics, consideration needs to be given as to whether the questionnaire will be in the form of a booklet, folded in the middle and stapled. If this is to be the case, then no questions should be placed on the front or back pages (Dillman, 2000; Malhotra and Birks, 2000; Dillman, 1978). In the design of the questionnaire for this study, this latter principle was adhered to. Front pages in particular are most likely to be seen first by the respondents and should be reserved for

material that has the specific purpose of stimulating interest in the questionnaire (Malhotra and Birks, 2000).

Malhotra and Birks, (2000) suggest using vertical response columns for the individual questions. Again, this principle was adhered to in the construction of the questionnaire for this study. Further considerations relate to colour of the paper that the questionnaire will be reproduced upon. Dillman, (2000) and Dillman, (1978) suggests the paper for the questionnaire should be white or off white and printing completed by a printing method that provides quality very close to the original. However, whilst colour doesn't influence response rates, the typeface should be large and clear and should not impose a strain on the reader (Malhotra and Birks, 2000; Carroll, 1994). In conclusion, the chosen physical format for the questionnaire for this study was booklet format stapled in the middle on white paper in portrait format. A copy of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix A.

4.6.6.2 Question Sequence.

It has already been stated that 'flow' in the questionnaire is important. Achieving good flow means grouping questions into blocks which relate to a subject before moving on to another closely connected subject. This means moving in a logical sequence from one subject to another from broad issues to narrower ones (Malhotra and Birks, 2000; Churchill, 1999; Hague, 1993). As questions asked early in a sequence can influence the responses to subsequent questions, Churchill, (1999), suggests using simple interesting opening questions. The first question asked is crucial due to the need to gain the confidence and co-operation of respondents (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Respondents may refuse to complete the questionnaire if they feel the first questions are threatening or uninteresting (Stout, 1994). Clarification information is best placed at the end of the questionnaire (Malhotra and Birks, 2000; Churchill, 1999). This is principally due to the

fact that the researcher must not risk alienating the respondent by asking a number of perhaps personal questions before getting to the heart of the study. Difficult or sensitive questions should be placed late in the questionnaire (Churchill, 1999). They should be relegated to the body of the questionnaire and intertwined and hidden among some not so sensitive ones. Once respondents have become involved in the study, they are less likely to react negatively when delicate questions are posed. As there were a number of what were felt to be sensitive questions in the questionnaire, the researcher made sure that such questions were hidden as best as possible among other questions that were not deemed sensitive. Much consideration was given to question sequence in this respect as such questions were important to this study.

4.6.6.3 Pre-testing the Questionnaire

The longer and more complex a questionnaire, the more critical a questionnaire is to the success of a research project and the greater the need for pre-testing (Peterson, 2000). Dillman, (1978) suggests a checklist for pre-test procedures including; is each of the questions measuring what it is intended to measure? Are all the words understood? Does the questionnaire create a positive impression? One that motivates people to answer it? And are questions answered correctly (are some missed and do some elicit un-interpretable answers)?

The personal interview pre-test carried out before a pilot study should reveal some questions in which the wording could be improved or the sequence changed (Churchill, 1999). A personal interview pre-test for the questionnaire for this study was carried out. Every effort was made to produce as professional a questionnaire as possible with the questions ordered according to the principles discussed in the previous sections (Dillman, 2000; 1978). The questionnaire was submitted to colleagues who understood the study's purpose and evaluated in terms of whether it would accomplish

the studies objectives. From this first pre-test, repetitious measures were dropped and the questionnaire refined in terms of its format.

A second pre-test was also included. This involved a small scale pilot study using individuals who were similar to the proposed study participants (Phillips and Phillips, 2004). Peterson, (2000) suggests a sample of at least 60 is required. From this pilot study question answers obtained can be analyzed according to research design specifications and some tentative conclusions reached. A sample of approximately 60 people was used for the second pre-test of the questionnaire for this study. The questionnaire was personally administered at a local branch meeting of the Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM) for respondents to complete and return via the post. It was felt that people attending the meeting would have sufficient knowledge as members of the CIM or as marketers, or having an interest in marketing so as to complete the questionnaire. In total 20 completed questionnaires were returned. Each of the questionnaires were scanned for information relating to whether questions had been missed and whether additional comments had been made on the questionnaire relating to any problems perceived. Respondents' answers were not statistically analysed at this stage as it was felt that the data set was too small to provide any meaningful results. Nevertheless, the pre-test served to indicate the need for additional measures to be included. These additional measures included key informant competence measures (see section 4.6.4) in order to check for informant reliability (Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004).

4.7 Sampling process

4.7.1 Defining the Sample Population

The level of analysis, unit of analysis, and the key informants for this study have already been discussed in section 4.6.3. It was decided that the most appropriate level of

analysis was organizations in `high tech` industries, the unit of analysis was determined to be the implementation of product market strategy and the key informants, mid-level managers in marketing related positions such as marketing managers, product managers and brand managers.

The next stage is to determine an appropriate sample in order to generate the primary data. A sample is obtained by collecting information about only some members of the population. It is critical that the population is properly defined (De Vaus, 2002). Once the scope of the population is established a sampling frame is obtained, i.e. a list of the population elements, to select a sample from. When selecting a sample, the goal is to do so in such a way that it representative of the population. A representative sample is one that is the same as the population.

For this study, the definition of the sample was determined by applying the criteria regarding the level of analysis, unit of analysis and key informants in conjunction with further criteria deemed of importance in the study. Firstly, the level of analysis included organizations in `high tech` industries all employ over 100 employees. Consequently, small and micro organizations were excluded from the survey, because of the likelihood of such organizations not having a marketing function and therefore no designated marketing, product or brand manager. It would also be likely that such organizations would focus on day-to-day operations and any marketing most likely being carried out by a generalist (McCartan-Quinn and Carson, 2003; Lancaster and Waddelow, 1998).

Organizations included were classified as `high tech` organizations as defined by the European Union (EU) and North American Industrial Classification System (NAICS) definitions. According to the NAICS definition of `high tech`, an industry has to be a maker/creator of technology whether it is in the form of products, communications or services. The term `high tech` has been increasingly used to

describe particular technologically advanced industries without their being a universally accepted definition on the term (Lienhardt, 2003). However, there is wide agreement about the kinds of industry which would be included in any grouping. The industries included in this study are manufacturers of office machinery and computers (including software), manufacture of pharmaceuticals, medical, chemical and botanical products, electrical machinery and apparatus, manufacture of electrical equipment, radio, TV and communications equipment, sound and video recording, medical precision and optical instruments and instruments for measuring, checking and testing equipment, watch and clock making and the manufacture of aircraft and spacecraft.

For the process of coding the questionnaire the different industries were categorized into 9 fields, these being Pharmaceuticals, IT and Software, Chemical, Electronics, Telecommunications and Measurement and Control Instrumentation, Medical Devices and Air Defence and Automotive, and Engineering. These categories represent the most recent NAICS categories which replaced the US Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) system in the 1990s. The revised NAICS system now classifies organizations by their production. The NAICS system also includes internet service providers and computer training organizations.

Secondly the sample of `high tech` organizations were to be based in the United Kingdom (UK) as the aim is to discover MLMMs` behaviour during the implementation of product-market strategies in the UK. It was felt too, that this would speed up conducting the study and keep costs to an appropriate level.

New technology is continually advancing and is likely to affect all aspects of organization performance for example R and D, design services and the drivers of strategic planning (O`Regan and Ghobadian, 2005). The degree of complexity of change in the current economic environment is driving organizations to seek new ways of conducting business to create wealth (Hitt *et al.*, 2001). The deployment of new

technology is the key to grasp such opportunities (O'Regan and Ghobadian, 2005). Thus it was felt that using high tech organizations as the unit of analysis would be beneficial since organizations were likely to have had more recent experience of implementing product-market strategies. Whilst subtle industry variations could influence the outcome of the results, it was the intention of the research to seek sample heterogeneity and select a combination of different industries as a means of enhancing the external validity of the survey findings.

4.7.2 Selection of Sampling Frame.

A sampling frame is a set of population elements from which the sample is drawn. Due to generally weaker relationships found in multi-industry studies, a large sample will be required to properly reject the null-hypotheses (Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004). A population is defined as the totality of cases that conform to the designated specifications (Churchill, 1999), i.e. marketing, product and brand managers in 'high tech' UK organizations with more than 100 employees.

A sample is chosen to infer something about the population rather than canvassing the population itself for several reasons. Complete counts on populations of moderate size are very costly, secondly information is often obsolete by the time the frame is conducted and the information processed. It is important therefore that the sampling frame is as representative as possible in that the sampling frame is up to date, accurate and covers the whole population and be convenient to use. The more homogenous the population, the lower the margin of sampling error (Stout, 1994). However, it is acknowledged that it is rare to obtain a perfect sampling frame (Churchill, 1999). However, efforts were made to find an appropriate frame that met all the criteria discussed. After consultation and evaluation of number of business directories along the dimensions necessary for inclusion, it was decided to use the

Marketing Managers Year Book (Helmer, 2005). This directory fulfilled the major criteria for an appropriate sampling frame in that all organizations included were UK based, employed over 100 employees with a marketing budget over £100,000 and with a named, designated marketing post holder, for example marketing manager, product manager and/or brand manager. The Marketing Managers Year Book is updated annually. Other key indices included SICs for each entry. Consequently, it was possible to discern industry sector. Work was however necessary, in the current study, to make sure that the companies included under the old SIC (US) version in the list, corresponded to the more recent NAICS classification. The Marketing Managers Year Book contained business activity descriptions for each entry which allowed for cross checking to be made relative to the SIC codes. To further check for accuracy of information a number of telephone calls to organizations that were to be included in the sample were made. Upon verification, it was decided that the Marketing Manger's Year Book, (2005) would be suitable for use along the lines of the criteria suggested for an appropriate sampling frame (Helmer, 2005).

4.7.3 Sampling Method

When selecting a sample from a sampling frame, the goal is to do so in such a way that it is representative of the population. A representative sample is one in which the profile of the sample is the same as that of the population (De Vaus, 2002). Thus it is important to ensure that all people in the population have an equal chance of being included in the study to avoid coverage bias (Blair and Zinkhan, 2006). There are two broad types of sample; probability and non-probability (Churchill, 1999) whereby probability samples are the surest way of obtaining samples that are representative of the population. It is important to avoid giving some population groups a disproportionately high or low chance of selection (Blair and Zinkhan, 2006). Nevertheless, even with probability

sampling, it is unlikely that the sample will be perfectly representative (Blair and Zinkhan, 2006; Churchill, 1999).

For this study, a stratified, systematic random sample was chosen as the sampling method. A stratified sample is a modification of the systematic random sample and is designed to produce a more representative and thus more accurate sample. For a sample to be representative the proportions of various groups in the sample should be the same as the population (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). To stratify a sample, the stratifying variable is first chosen. For this study, industry sector (high technology) was chosen. The sampling frame already divided organizations according to this stratifying variable to a large extent and checks of SIC codes allowed further verification. This procedure guaranteed that in the final sample, each 'high tech' industry sector would be represented in its correct proportion in the stratified sampling frame.

Subsequent to this, a random number 'n' is generated and every 'nth' number is selected in the sample (De Vaus, 2002; Churchill, 1999). Systematic random sampling aids the reduction of sampling error as the need to check for duplication of organizations in the sample does not occur with this method (Stout, 1994). Furthermore, (De Vaus, 2002) suggests that this method is simpler to administer. The method has support for its use in a number of studies in the domain of postal survey research (Larson and Chow, 2003) and in research relating to the effects of strategy and business performance (Morgan and Strong, 2003).

The sampling method for this study was thus. The Marketing Manager's Year Book, (2005) was used as the main sampling frame and after determining the random number to be applied in the sampling procedure (in this case the number 2) a random start was made in the sampling frame and every 2nd organization was selected into the frame provided the sample population criteria was met. The organization was judged to be appropriate in terms of whether there was a designated key informant that met the

criteria. If not the organization was not included in the list. The systematic random sampling process continued until the list of high tech organizations (stratifying variable) was exhausted. A total of 701 businesses were selected. The final sample was cross checked for sampling error such that there was no inclusion of organizations outside the criteria discussed previously.

4.8 Survey Administration

Non response bias remains a concern for postal survey researchers (Larson, 2005; Larson and Chow, 2003; Armstrong and Overton, 1977) and surveying business as opposed to the general public has several problems, which result in low response rates (Paxson, 1995). Data collection methods for postal questionnaires involve a variety of decisions within the researchers control that have the potential to improve or detract from the precision of survey estimates and inferences (Blair and Zinkhan, 2006; Bright and Smith, 2002). The importance of generalizability gives rise to concerns regarding the extent to which data used in a research project reflect a broader population of interest (Blair and Zinkhan, 2006). Thus the possibility of non response bias is an important issue. The greater the overall response rate, the increased likelihood the information collected is comprehensive and representative (Bright and Smith, 2002). Further, if respondents differ significantly from non-respondents, the results of a survey do not allow the researcher to say how an entire sample would have responded and would preclude generalizing from the sample to the population (Blair and Zinkhan, 2006; Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004). Thus, the researcher has two challenges. The first is to secure a high response rate and the second is to assess the degree to which non respondents differ from respondents. The former of these two challenges will be discussed in further detail in this section, whilst the latter issue will be returned to in later sections.

Slater and Atuahene-Gima, (2004) reveal that in 2001 and 2002, the median response rate for studies using primary data in the *Strategic Management Journal* was 36% with more than a quarter of the studies having a response rate of 20% or less. Much research has been carried out on potential response rate determinants. Response rates are affected by a combination of factors that the researcher may control fully or only partially control (Bright and Smith, 2002). A number of techniques controlled by the researcher have been identified as positively influencing response rates. The researchers first line of defence against postal survey non response bias includes a variety of tools to increase response rate (Larson, 2005; Larson and Chow, 2003; Bright and Smith, 2002).

There are four response inducements techniques which selected authors suggest consistently improve response rates to surveys (Larson, 2005; Bright and Smith, 2002; Dillman, 2000). These include the prenotification letter, follow-up, personalization of the cover letter and envelope and return postage. Such techniques are comprehensively covered in (Dillman, 2000) 'Tailored Design Method', guidelines. The approach advocated by (Dillman, 2000), which is cited frequently in the area of survey administration, was adopted for this study since it was necessary to develop survey procedures that created respondent trust and perception of increased rewards and reduced costs for being a respondent with the overall aim of reduction in sampling error, the core of (Dillman, 2000) 'Tailored Design Method'. Further, research by Diaz de Rada, (2005) reports that surveys using Dillman's Tailored Design Method produces very good results within the United States and Europe in terms of response rates.

4.8.1 Survey Administration using the Tailored Design Method

Dillman's, (2000) 'Tailored Design Method' is a set of procedures for conducting successful self-administered surveys in order to produce both high quality information and high response rates. There are five stages to the process:

- 1) A brief pre-notification letter, alerting respondents that an important survey will be arriving in a few days and that the individual's response will be greatly appreciated.**
- 2) The questionnaire mailing that includes a detailed cover letter explaining the importance of the response. This is to include a self-addressed reply envelope.**
- 3) A post card that is sent within a week of the questionnaire thanking respondents for their help and mentioning that if the completed questionnaire has not been returned it is hoped it will be soon.**
- 4) A replacement questionnaire that is mailed 2-4 weeks after the original questionnaire mailing.**
- 5) A final contact may be made about a week after the fourth contact and using a different contact mode such as telephone, fax or email. This special contact has the effect of improving overall response rate. In (Dillman, 2000) 'Tailored Design Method' a further element not included in the earlier 'Total Design Method' (1978) is also suggested as this relates to a token financial incentive. However, Slater and Atuahene-Gima, (2004) state that promised incentives have been shown to have little or no effect on response rate. If the budget is however limited, the follow up mailing is in itself suggested rather than monetary incentives, (Larson and Chow, 2003). Nevertheless, making a proactive gesture is suggested to produce a sense of reciprocal obligation. Consequently, offering to send a copy of the summary results acts as a proactive gesture in this regard. Contrary to Slater and Atuahene-Gima, (2004) findings, the use of non-monetary post payment incentives i.e. prize draws, have been found to have an impact**

on increasing the overall response rate (Paxson, 1995). The following section provides a more detailed account of the survey administration adopted for this study.

4.8.2 Survey Pre-notification

The pre-notification letter acts as the first contact which is designed to provide a positively and timely notice that the recipient will be receiving a request for their help with an important study. Yammarino *et al.* (1991) advocate that including a prenotification letter is significantly related to increased response rates. This should be brief, personalized, positively worded, and aimed at building anticipation in the survey (Dillman, 2000). Paxson, (1995) suggests stressing the salience of the survey topic to the respondent. This is particularly important for business people in order to maximize impact and also prevents resistance (Phillips and Phillips, 2004). Further sponsorship of the survey by universities and business schools are said to obtain a better response rate (Paxson, 1995). Several researchers have studied the effects of various kinds of personalization on mail questionnaire response rate and conclude that personalization can increase the response rate to a mail survey (Yammarino *et al.*, 1991; Clark and Kaminski, 1989). By presenting the mailing as personal correspondence through the use of hand stamped and addressed mailing envelopes, the respondent is less likely to view the enclosure as junk mail. Signing the covering letter and enclosing the whole mailing in a stamped envelope rather than being franked also aids in this respect (Byrom and Bennison, 2000). Personalisation has generally taken the form of either a named salutation in a type written cover letter or a typed versus labelled envelope.

For this study the prenotification letter took into account many of the suggestions above. The letter was designed by first introducing the context and stressing the importance of the study. Further detail was then given as to the nature of the study and how the study results could be beneficial. i.e. improved knowledge and appreciation of the role of mid-level marketing managers in product-market strategy implementation.

The letter then included information as to how the population had been selected and what would happen next, i.e. that respondents would shortly receive a questionnaire by post for them to fill in. The letter also stressed how the questionnaire had been designed with ease of answering in mind. Owing to the sensitivity of some of the questions it was also deemed important to emphasize that all the information would be treated with absolute confidentiality. It was hoped that such information would help in the development of trust between the researcher and the respondent. The letter ended with a *thank you* and token incentive in the form of a free entry into a prize draw and a complimentary summary research report. As Dillman, (2000) suggests, the letter was printed on University headed paper thus indicating sponsorship and included a personalized address and salutation. The letter was signed in contrasting ink in this case, blue ink. The researcher's title and contact details were included at the foot of the page. The letter was one page in length and contained in a standard white windowed envelope and sent with first class postage. The prenotification letter underwent a number of revisions until the final format was achieved. A copy of the final format of the letter which was sent to all respondents can be found in the Appendix B.

4.8.3 The Questionnaire Mail-Out

The questionnaire mail-out acts as the second contact and is to be sent out only a few days to a week after the prenotification letter (Dillman, 2000). For this study the questionnaire mail-out was sent out one week after the prenotification letter, again by first class mail. The mailing contained several elements as advised by Dillman, (2000). These included a cover letter, the questionnaire and a return envelope and a background information sheet. No proactive token of appreciation was included as it already had been suggested that respondents could receive a complimentary copy of the summary research findings and the opportunity to enter a prize draw was offered.

The cover letter was one page in length. This was designed to be long enough to convey all the essential information. The style was adapted so that it was straightforward in approach to avoid the respondents being misled. In an attempt to maintain rapport, the letter reemphasised the importance of the study and what the study was about. The research sponsors were identifiable both in the introductory paragraph and through the use of headed stationary. The letter also included a personalized address and salutation. The letter reiterated the importance of respondents help in answering the questionnaire and this was couched in terms that respondents were likely to support (Dillman, 2000). According to Yammarino *et al.* (1991), using a cover letter that includes appeals should increase response rate and background information sheet served to reinforce the importance of the study with further details of what the study was about and its importance (Paxson, 1995). The sheet was designed to address a number of potential questions respondents may have had in terms of the researchers involved, the sponsors, how to get in contact with the researchers and further detail concerning the study that it was not possible to include in the covering letter. The background information sheet was reproduced on contrasting yellow paper and included in every mail-out pack. A copy of the covering letter can be found in Appendix C and the background information sheet can be found in Appendix D.

The covering letter stressed that responses would be treated in strictest confidence. Further, the researchers contact details were included in the body of the text so they could be contacted with any questions. The letter was personally signed in contrasting blue ink.

4.8.4 Follow-up mailings.

a) The First Reminder

A further personalized letter was sent to all respondents so as to prompt those respondents who had not yet completed the questionnaire. It was hoped too that this reminder letter would encourage those people, who had perhaps not received the mailing to request a copy. The letter was brief and thanked all those respondents who had already completed the questionnaire. It was reiterated to those who had not that the questionnaire would only take a short time to complete and again, that absolute confidentiality would be maintained. The means of contacting the researcher to obtain replacement questionnaire was once again provided.

The follow-up mailings were intended as a direct means to combat the problems of non response. A copy of the first reminder letter can be found in Appendix E.

b) Second reminder

According to (Dillman, 2000), suggestions in the tailored design method, the second reminder acted as an original replacement of the mail-out pack. This included a replacement questionnaire and background information and a freepost envelope. This was sent one week after the first reminder letter. The letter once again stressed the importance of the respondents help in the research so as to further evidence the importance of the study. A copy of the second reminder letter can be found in Appendix F.

4.8.5 Additional follow-ups

The fifth form of contact within the survey administration process as advocated by Dillman, (2000) includes final efforts to obtain a response from those individuals who have still not responded. Using an alternative mode of communication is advised (Phillips and Phillips, 2004; Dillman, 2000). It was felt however, that the administration involved in working out all those who had not yet responded and then making a

telephone call to each of these would be costly and time consuming. Thus, although the researcher decided against a fifth form of contact as advocated by (Dillman, 2000), further contacts were indeed made to all those individuals who had previously been in contact either via email or telephone with the researcher during the survey administration process. This method was used as the email addresses and telephone numbers were confirmed and rapport already developed. Consequently, polite reminders were made to all such individuals.

4.9 Study Response Rate

Response rates are one of the most important indicators of survey quality (Lynn *et al.*, 2001). Often response rates in survey research are calculated simply by dividing the number of completed questionnaires by the number of individuals who were selected to participate in the research. However, this method is regarded as too simplistic and does not do justice to the complexity of research design, the sampling process and the practical difficulties of contacting and assessing potential survey participants. However, the Council of American Survey Research Organizations (CASRO) advises that the term 'response rate' is a summary measure and should be used to designate the ratio of the number of interviews to the number of eligible units in the sample. The response rate is therefore a measure of the result of all efforts, properly carried out, to execute a study (Frankel, 1982). This definition is valid for postal, telephone and interview surveys. Table 4.2 provides a summary of the response rates for this study using the response rate calculation method advised by CASRO (Frankel, 1982).

SUMMARY RESPONSE RATES	
Total number of sampling units	701
Total number of respondents	150
Total number of eligible responses	128
Total number of ineligible responses *	22
Percentage of eligible organisations 128/150	85.33%
Total number of non-responses 701-150	551
Expected percentage of eligible organizations in non- respondents 551 x (128/150)	470
Response rate = [128 x 100]/[128 +470]	21.4%

* 6 packages were returned after the cut-off date, 5 replied that they did not wish to take part in the survey, 1 package returned as they were not the correct contact person, 5 replied that they didn't possess adequate knowledge to answer, 1 marked "out of office due to maternity leave"

Table 4.2: Summary Response Rates

4.9.1 Investigating for Non Response Bias

Mail surveys have been criticized for non response bias, since it may be that persons who respond differ substantially from those who do not and potentially this does not allow for generalization of the results (Armstrong and Overton, 1977; Goodstadt *et al.*, 1977). Non response bias is defined as:

"the difference between the answers of non respondents and respondents"
(Lambert and Harrington, 1990, p.5).

The most common protection of non response bias according to Lambert and Harrington, (1990) is to attempt to increase the response rate.

Having followed the suggestions of Dillman, (2000) in The Total Design Method for survey administration, an attempt to reduce the potential of non response bias was employed. Efforts to obtain even higher results include subjective techniques involving a panel of experts or judges and having them identify cases believed to be subject to non response bias, or using statistical weighting techniques to adjust for non response, extrapolation or comparing the composition of respondents to that of non

respondents on characteristics that are relevant to the study (Diaz de Rada, 2005; Lambert and Harrington, 1990; Armstrong and Overton, 1977). Due to the time and cost constraints of some of these methods, it was decided that the best approach for testing for non response bias in this study was by extrapolation which involves testing for bias of early versus late response (Armstrong and Overton, 1977; Goodstadt *et al.*, 1977). Extrapolation methods are based on the assumption that respondents, who respond less readily or later, and having required more encouragement to respond, are more like non respondents. One approach to extrapolation is using 'Time trends' (Armstrong and Overton, 1977). Results that show a non-significant difference between early and late respondents indicate no error and therefore no existence of any potential bias.

For this study, early respondents were classified as those that responded on or before the 15th July 2005 and late respondents, those that responded on or after 16th July 2005. A frequency analysis of the dates at which survey responses were received revealed that 51% of respondents are classed as early respondents and 49% as late respondents. Table 4.3 presents the results of the one-way analysis of variance test performed for selected items.

	Early response	Late response	F-value
Items	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Mean (Standard Deviation)	
Strategy Effectiveness	3.255 (1.255)	3.638 (1.028)	3.264
Implementation Effectiveness	3.367 (1.137)	3.705 (1.034)	2.850
Self-interest	4.736 (1.385)	4.418 (1.059)	1.881
Efficiency citizenship	2.744 (1.042)	2.701 (1.038)	.051
Compliance citizenship	2.822 (1.0619)	2.713 (.908)	.329
Allegiance Citizenship	1.938 (.865)	2.000 (.706)	.176

Table 4.3: One-way analysis of variance test performed for selected items.

4.9.2 Investigating for Key Informant Bias

Slater and Atuahene-Gima, (2004) suggest using a general measure of informant competency to test for key informant bias. The authors suggest using the respondent's position in the organization and tenure in organization to ensure that the survey instrument was completed by the appropriate informant in the organization. For this research, key informants were mid-level marketing managers or marketing related positions such as product managers and brand managers. Additionally, informants held positions such as marketing operations managers, and communications managers. Whilst questions relating to tenure in the organization were included in the questionnaire further questions were also included to a) ascertain how knowledgeable the respondents were about the major issues covered in the study, and b) to ascertain the extent to which the respondent believed the responses accurately reflected the realities within the organization. Table 4.4i contains an analysis of job titles of all survey respondents.

Informant Reliability Based on Position within the Organization	
	<i>Total Number of Responses</i>
TITLE	
Marketing Manager	65
Sales and Marketing Manager	8
Product Manager	26
Marketing Operations Manager	5
Brand Manager	1
Marketing Communications Manger	5
Marketing Executive/Assistant	9
Marketing Director	7
Totals	126

Table 4.4i Summary Response Rates for Informant Reliability and Position within the Organization

With reference to table 4.4i the majority of respondents were Marketing Managers (50%) and Product Managers (19.5%). A further 7% were marketing Executives and 6.3% were Sales and Marketing Managers. This information confirms that the key

informant criteria requirements were satisfied in so far as all respondents were in marketing or marketing related fields with the majority occupying the position of marketing manager or product manager.

In terms of tenure, 64.6% of respondents had more than 5 years working in their organization and only 11.8% had less than 2 years with the current organization. A more detailed breakdown of tenure is presented in Table 4.4ii.

Informant Reliability Based on Tenure in within the Organization	
Tenure (All titles) (Years)	Cumulative %
1-3 years	9.4 21.3%
3-6 years	47%
6-12 years	76.4
12-20 years	92.9
20%	100
Mean	8.644
Standard Deviation	6.91

Table 4.4ii: Informant Reliability based on Tenure in Organization

The scores for 'Knowledge' and 'Accuracy' confirm that the questionnaire was completed by the appropriate informants. The results are presented in Tables 4.1iii.

where only responses of 4 to 7¹ on the Likert scale (inclusive) are included to indicate good 'knowledge' of responses given in the questionnaire and 4 to 7¹ on the Likert scale (inclusive) to indicate an 'accurate reflection of reality'.

	Knowledge	Accuracy
<i>Likert Scale rating</i>	Frequency (All titles)	Frequency (All titles)
4	3	4
5	26	30
6	52	60
7	31	20
Mean	5.99	5.842
Standard Deviation	.7883	.747

Table 4.4iii: Key Informant Reliability Analysis: Knowledge and Accuracy of Responses

¹ 7= Very accurate

Those responses with scores lower than 4 were deemed ineligible for this study. In this case 5 responses were ineligible as scores of below 4 were recorded for 'knowledge'. However there were no scores lower than 4 for informants responses indicating 'accurate reflection of reality'.

Whilst it may be argued that the positions of some respondents may indicate them having less knowledge of product-marketing strategy implementation, for example responses from those in the position of marketing assistant and marketing communications manager, further checks in terms of respondents knowledge and accuracy of scores justifies the inclusion of such responses. Table 4.4iv provides a summary of findings in this respect.

Response	KNOWLEDGE				Total Responses from category
	(Likert scale range, 7= very accurate)				
Title	4	5	6	7	
Marketing Communications Manager	0	2	2	1	5
Marketing Executive	2	5	1	1	9

Table 4.4iv: Key Informant Reliability Analysis: Breakdown of Job Titles and Knowledge

Consequently, it was judged that all responses met the criteria for key informant reliability as advocated by (Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004).

4.10: A Methodology for Data Analysis

4.10.1 Initial Considerations

Upon completion of the data generation phase of this study, it was then necessary to edit and code the data. Whilst the fieldwork was still underway, the returned questionnaires were checked for completeness and completion quality (Malhotra and Birks, 2000).

This involved a review of the questionnaire with the objective of increasing accuracy

and precision of the data. Questions were screened to identify illegible, incomplete, inconsistent or ambiguous responses. Checks for completeness and completion quality involve checking the pattern of responses. This helps to verify if the respondent may have not understood, whether the responses show little variance, whether the questionnaire is received after the cut off date, or whether the questionnaire is answered by someone who is deemed ineligible in terms of the key informant criteria or criteria indicating level of “knowledge” and “accuracy”. Six questionnaires were received after the cut off date and five questionnaires were deemed ineligible from checks for key informant criteria as previously discussed. The next stage involved editing and coding the questions.

Once editing was complete, each variable on the questionnaire was quantitatively coded by assigning a number to each response category, for example, V1, V2, V3.....up to V178 in this case. All questions that took a form other than the Likert type scale were also coded in a quantifiable manner in preparation for data analysis. All codes were highlighted on a master copy of the questionnaire where reverse coded items were also highlighted. The resultant data matrix was entered into SPSS[®] for Windows (Version 12.0.1) statistical package. The SPSS[®] statistical package was chosen as it offers a variety of techniques covering a wide range of applications. The package has also been frequently used in marketing research data analysis (Morrison, 1998). Reverse coding of all necessary variables was completed and checks were then made for input errors and any errors were cross checked with the original questionnaire and amended. The data was thus prepared for analysis.

4.10.2: Statistical Techniques: Classification and Adoption

The method of statistical analysis adopted depends on the complexity of the research question (De Vaus, 2002). For example, if the research question involves only one

variable, a method appropriate for *univariate* analysis would be selected. If the question involves two variables, a method designed for *bivariate* analysis would be selected and if more than two variables are involved, then a *multivariate* technique is adopted. There are a number of methods of analysis within all these levels.

The research question or problem is *univariate* if there is a single measurement of each of the sample objects, or if there are several measurements of each of the number (n) observations, but each variable is to be analysed in isolation (Churchill, 1999). Common univariate techniques include *chi-square*, the *z-test* and *t-test*.

Bivariate techniques involve the consideration of whether the two variables are associated (De Vaus, 2002). Bivariate analysis provides a systematic way of measuring how strongly two variables are related in an attempt to help explain the relationship. Examples of Bivariate data analysis techniques included correlation analysis for example, Pearson's Correlation Coefficient.

Multivariate techniques attempt to show how variables are interconnected and interrelated. Such techniques commonly involve a large number of respondents with the aim of examining interrelationships among the variables (Green, 1980). Although *multivariate* analysis has its roots in *univariate* and bivariate statistics, the extension to a *multivariate* domain introduces additional concepts and issues that have particular relevance to the research question (Hair *et al.*, 1998). There are a number of multivariate methods of analysis and in order to choose the appropriate technique it is useful to classify these.

Multivariate methods include; 1) the dependence technique and 2) the interdependence technique (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The dependence technique involves a variable or set of variables being identified as the dependent variable to be predicted by other variables termed independent. If such variables are identified, then the dependence technique will be employed. An example of a statistical technique in this category is

multiple regression analysis (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The interdependence technique is one in which no single variable or group of variables is defined as being independent or dependent. Thus all variables in the data set are examined simultaneously (Hair *et al.*, 1998). An example of an interdependence technique is factor analysis.

The type of analysis to be performed depends on the type of research, the questions asked and on the model that has been hypothesized as well as on the available data (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Additionally, the type of measurement used for each variable is important i.e. nominal, ordinal and interval level. Once assessments have been made along these criteria, certain techniques may be rendered inappropriate.

To further aid the selection of appropriate statistical techniques for this study it is important to choose techniques for the appropriate type of statistic (De Vaus, 2002). Statistics may be of two types; descriptive and inferential. At this stage of the study, descriptive statistics are useful to summarize patterns in the responses of cases in the sample. Such statistics may include measures of central tendency (Mean, Median and Mode), and measures of dispersion (Variance, Standard Deviation). Subsequent descriptive statistics include correlation analysis to uncover relationships between variables. Added to these inferential statistics, multivariate techniques will be introduced and included such as Principal Components Analysis (PCA) to obtain factors and scales and correlation analysis and multiple linear regression to explore relationships between dependent and independent variables.

4.10.3 Correlation Analysis

The *bivariate* method of correlation analysis measures how strongly two variables are related (De Vaus, 2002). Product Moment Correlation also known as Pearson's Correlation Coefficient "r" is the most widely used statistic summarizing the strength of association between two variables (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). It indicates the degree

(covariance) to which the variation in one variable is related to the variation in the other variable. The covariance may be either positive or negative. Thus “r” varies between (-1.0) and (+ 1.0), where (+ 1.0) indicates a perfectly positive relationship and (-1) indicates a perfectly negative relationship and (0) indicates no relationship. It is useful therefore to examine the simple correlation between each pair of variables. Pearson Correlation Coefficients were calculated for the variable relationships within each of the appropriate construct to determine the strength of relationships within each construct to determine whether it is appropriate to proceed to the next stage of data analysis.

Since the results indicated that it was possible to proceed, the next stage involved data reduction and the technique used was PCA.

4.10.4 Factor Analysis

Factor Analysis is a generic name given to a class of *multivariate* techniques which analyze the structure of interrelations (correlations) among a large number of variables (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Relationships among sets of interrelated variables are examined and represented in terms of underlying dimensions or factors (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Thus, it is possible to firstly identify the separate dimensions of the structure of the variables and then determine the extent to which each variable is explained by each dimension. As such, factor analysis is an interdependence technique whereby an entire set of interdependent relationships is examined (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Once the dimensions or factors are determined, data reduction can be achieved (Hair *et al.*, 1998). This allows for the identification of a new smaller set of salient variables to replace the original set of correlated variables for use in subsequent *multivariate* data analysis (Hubert *et al.*, 2005; Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Exploratory factor analysis seeks to account for as much variance as possible in the set of observed variables or common factors. For this study, Principal Components Analysis was chosen for data reduction

since this approach is recommended when the primary concern is to determine the minimum number of factors that account for the maximum variance in the data (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). These factors can then be used in subsequent multivariate analysis such as multiple linear regression.

4.10.4.1 Principal Components Analysis

Principal Components Analysis (PCA) is an approach to factor analysis that considers the total variance in the data (Churchill, 1999). The objective of PCA is to transform a set of interrelated variables into a set of unrelated linear combinations of these variables without sustaining significant information loss (Jong and Kotz, 1999; Sudjianto and Wasserman, 1996). To summarize the information contained in the original variables, a smaller number of factors should be extracted (Churchill, 1999).

The set of smaller linear combinations is chosen so that each linear combination (components) accounts for a decreasing proportion of variance in the original variables, as long as each linear combination is uncorrelated to all previous linear combinations.

Several important considerations are involved in determining the numbers of factors that should be used in the analysis (Churchill, 1999). There is conceptual and empirical evidence that specifying too few factors and too many lead to substantial errors that will affect the results (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The authors state that specifying too few is more severe. In general, factors should be retained until additional factors account for trivial variance (Hayton *et al.*, 2004).

One of the most commonly used methods for determining the number of factors is the Kaiser or *mineigen greater than 1 (K1)* rule. The *K1 eigen* value represents the amount of variance associated with the factor (Hayton *et al.*, 2004; Churchill, 1999). The *K1* rule (*eigen value greater than 1*) is the default retention criterion for the SPSS® (version 12.0.1) statistical package as used in this study. As a consequence, only factors

with eigen values greater than 1.0 were retained. The other factors were excluded from the model. The rationale is that the variation in each variable is 1 after the variable has been standardized. Thus each factor should account for the variation in at least one variable if the factor is to be considered useful from a data summation perspective (Churchill, 1999).

The starting point in PCA is to compute the un-rotated factor matrix which gives an idea of the number of factors to extract. The matrix contains factor loadings for each variable on each factor. At this stage it is the best linear combination of variables in so far as the combination of original variables accounts for more of the variance in the data as a whole than any other. The first factor is regarded as the single best summary of linear relationships exhibited in the data. The second factor is defined as the second best combination of variables. Consequently, the combination of original variables account for more of the variance in the data as a whole than any other linear combination of variables as long as it is orthogonal, i.e. derived from the variance remaining after the first factor has been extracted. Subsequent factors are similarly defined (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The un-rotated factor solutions achieve the objective of data reduction, however it is necessary to further interpret the variables in terms of whether the solution offers the best interpretation of the variables (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Factor loadings are used to interpret the role each variable plays in defining each factor. These are the correlation of each variable and the factor. High factor loadings indicate the variable is representative of the factor. To achieve this it is necessary to rotate the factors to simplify the factor structure.

The ultimate effect of rotating the factor matrix is to redistribute the variance from earlier factors to later ones to achieve a simpler, more meaningful factor pattern to aid in the interpretation of the factors (Chan, 2004). Varimax rotation is an orthogonal method which simplifies the columns of the factor matrix (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

Output loadings were suppressed when less than .35 to aid interpretation. The maximum possible simplification is reached if there are only 1's and 0's in a column. There tend to be some high loadings (close to +1 or -1) and some loadings near to 0 in each column of the matrix. This allows for a clear positive or negative correlation between the variable and the factor or if close to 0, a clear lack of association.

Criteria for the theoretical significance of factor loadings

Factor loadings greater than $\pm .30$ are considered to meet the minimal level of theoretical significance; loadings of $\pm .40$ are considered more important and loadings that are $\pm .50$ or greater are considered practically significant (Hair *et al.*, 1998). For this study, it was decided to suppress factor loadings at $\pm .35$ for a sample size of 128. Each of the factor loadings was examined and the highest loadings identified for their significance. Generally, many variables may have several moderate sized loadings, all of which are significant (De Vaus, 2002). Any variable appearing in more than one row which was significant became a candidate for deletion; however, the variable was retained in the factor where it achieved the highest significance. Following this, the variable communalities were assessed to test whether they met acceptable levels of explanation. Any variable with communalities less than $\pm .50$ were deemed to have sufficient explanation (Hair *et al.*, 1998). The resultant factors were then labelled to reflect the underlying dimensions.

4.10.4.2 Scale Indices Construction

Factor scales were created by the SPSS[®] (version 12.0.1) statistical package. The variables that were to form each scale were selected i.e. all those with loadings above $\pm .35$ and raw scores summated on each of the selected variables to obtain a scale score. In SPSS[®] (version 12.0.1) statistical package, the *'compute'* function, a sub-function in the

transform menu was used in this procedure. This allows for the transformation of variables that form the factor through summing and dividing by the number of variables in the equation. An average is obtained which then acts as the replacement variable (De Vaus, 2002). This resultant variable was then labelled and formed an additional column on the SPSS® data table.

4.10.4.3 Scale Reliability and Validity

There is consensus among researchers that for a scale to be valid and possess practical utility it must be reliable (Peterson, 1994; Nunnally, 1978: 1967). Conceptually, reliability is defined as the degree to which measures are free from error and therefore likely to yield consistent results (Peterson, 1994). Nunnally, (1978; 1967) has been cited in support of obtained reliability coefficients most frequently. Peterson, (1994) highlights that Nunnally's, (1967) recommendation cites a minimally acceptable reliability for preliminary research as 0.5 to 0.6, and in the later study (Nunnally, 1978), this level was increased to 0.7.

For this study Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was used as the reliability coefficient. Developed by Cronbach in 1951, this is a general measure of the internal consistency of a multi-item scale and applies to any set of items, regardless of the response scale (Peterson, 1994). There has been much support for this measure and it has become one of the foundations of measurement theory (Peterson, 1994; Cortina, 1993). It is suggested that focusing on Coefficient Alpha should not detract from the generality of the research, but improve the usefulness of the research. For this research, Nunnally's, (1967) minimally acceptable level of reliability with an alpha coefficient of 0.50 or greater was adopted. The SPSS® (version 12.0.1) statistical package provided the complete analysis of item specific and overall reliability measures. It was then possible to validate the scale.

Validity is the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concept of interest (Slater and Atuahene-Gima, 2004; Sapsford, 1999; Hair *et al.*, 1998). Convergent validity assesses the degree to which two measures of the same concept are correlated. If high correlations are obtained, this indicates that the scale is measuring what is intended (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Only correlations that were in the anticipated direction and high were accepted. As each correlation coefficient has its own linked measure of statistical inference, it was important to check for statistical significance (De Vaus, 2002). The significance explains whether the relationship is likely to be due to chance or whether it is likely to hold in the population from which the sample was drawn. Tests of significance produce a *p* value (probability) value between 0-1. The lower the *p* value, the less chance the correlation was produced by sampling error. A precondition for acceptance was that each item total correlation was statistically significant at or below 0.05.

4.10.5 Correlation Analysis for Hypothesis Testing

Once the scales were tested for their reliability and validity, correlation analysis was used to examine the *bivariate* relationships between the variables. This analysis served as the basis for testing the hypotheses for the thesis. A correlation matrix was created for each created summated scale to provide a correlation assessment of association amongst each scale. This allowed for an overview of whether the predicted hypotheses were correct. Once this analysis was completed, multiple linear regression could be employed.

4.10.6 Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis is a technique that can be used to analyze the relationship between a single dependent variable and several independent predictor variables or set

of variables (Hair *et al.*, 1998). It is based on the assumption that the relationship between the dependent variable (Y) and the explanatory variables ($x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$) can be approximated by the linear model (Doutriaux and Crener, 1982). The model is expressed by:

$$Y = b_0 + b_1\chi_1 + b_2\chi_2 + b_3\chi_3 + \dots + b_n\chi_n + e$$

- Where:
- Y= estimated value of dependent variable
 - b_0 = value of constant or intercept derived
 - b= estimated regression coefficients associated with the independent variables
 - χ = the independent variables that affect the dependent variable.
 - e = error term

In the regression equation, the intercept is represented as b_0 and b_1 is the regression coefficient which represents the estimated change in the dependent variable. The e symbol represents the prediction error which is the difference between the actual and predicted values of the dependent variable. The interpretation of the partial regression coefficient b_1 is that it represents the expected change in Y when χ_1 is changed by one unit but χ_2 is held constant (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Similarly, b_2 represents the expected change in Y for a unit change in χ_2 when χ_1 is held constant. Hence, the term, partial regression coefficients. The combined effects of χ_1 and χ_2 on Y are additive, thus each (χ_1 and χ_2) are changed by one unit resulting in an expected change in Y of ($b_1 + b_2$). The case is thus extendable through all χ_n variables. The partial regression coefficient b_1 represents the expected change in Y when χ_1 is changed by one unit and χ_2 to χ_n are held constant.

Partial regressions are of two forms: unstandardized and standardized (De Vaus, 2002). A *bivariate* regression coefficient (b) is an estimate of how much impact an independent variable has on a dependent variable. However, when a further variable is linked to the first variable it is not sure whether the impact is purely due to the impact of the added variable. Consequently, a pure effect for the added variable is needed. When

partial coefficients are unstandardized they cannot be compared with each other. It is not possible to work out which factor has the greatest impact since each of the independent variables has been measured on a different scale. To ascertain which factor has the greatest impact it is necessary to 'standardize' them. Such standardized partial regression coefficients are called 'beta coefficients' (β). Standardized beta values allow for comparison of betas to assess the relative impact of different variables. This research used standardized betas since comparison of the relative importance of the variables was deemed more insightful.

To further interpret the regression estimates, the level of significance of the association is important. Significance testing involves testing the significance of the overall regression equation as well as specific partial regression coefficients (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). The null hypothesis for the overall test is that the coefficient of multiple determination in the population is zero. If the overall null hypothesis is rejected, one or more population partial regression coefficients have a value other than zero. Testing can be done using "t" tests. The coefficient is significant at 0.01 or 0.05. If the level of significance is below 0.01 or 0.05, the null hypothesis of no impact can be rejected and the relationship between the dependent and the independent variable can be said to be significant. It can also be the case that the null hypothesis of no impact can be rejected at a significance level of 0.1. The lower the significance level, the greater the confidence that the observed differences reflect the real differences in the population (De Vaus, 2002). The author suggests that as a rule of thumb, with large samples it is advisable to use the 0.01 level as a cut off point and for small samples 0.05.

Once the model is established as providing acceptable estimates, the 'goodness of fit', must then be assessed (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Goodness of fit measures the correspondence of the actual or observed input (covariance or correlation) matrix with that predicted from the proposed model. An overall coefficient of determination is

calculated (R^2), providing a relative measure of fit for each equation. With only one sample and regression model it is important to test the hypothesis that the predictive model can represent the population as a whole. As a consequence, it is necessary to make a test of the variance explained (coefficient of determination).

To test the hypothesis that the amount of variation explained by the regression model is more than the variation explained by the average (i.e. that R^2 is greater than zero), the F ratio is used. If the ratio of explained variance to the main variance is high the regression variance must be of significant value in explaining the dependent variable. This means that the regression model is also statistically significant, indicating that the additional independent variable was substantial in adding to the predictive ability of the regression model. Thus, there is less chance that the difference is due to sampling error but that the differences are real (De Vaus, 2002). However it is important to guard against over-fitting the data (Hair *et al.*, 1998), since R^2 is influenced by the number of independent variables relative to the sample size. Several rules of thumb have been proposed ranging from 10 to 15 observations per independent variable, to an absolute minimum of 4 (Hair *et al.*, 1998). As these limits are approached or under-attained, R^2 needs to be adjusted due to inflation caused by over fitting the data. Therefore, in addition to the coefficient of determination, an adjusted coefficient of determination is provided. The adjusted coefficient becomes smaller with fewer observations per independent variable. The use of the adjusted R^2 is valuable when comparing across regression equations involving different numbers of independent variables and different sample sizes as it makes allowances for the specific number of independent variables and sample size upon which each model is based. This approach was used to determine the overall level of model significance specified in the regression estimate within the results of this study.

4.10.6.1 Approach to Variable Selection

There are a number of possible independent variables from which to choose for inclusion in the regression equation (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). There are sequential search methods and combinational processes to help find the 'best' regression model. The sequential search regression equation is estimated with a set of variables and then variables are either added or deleted to maximize the prediction, with the smallest number of variables used. There are two types of sequential search approaches; 1) stepwise estimation, and 2) forward addition and backward elimination (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

The 'stepwise estimation' is the most popular approach and allows for the examination of the contribution of each independent variable to the regression model. The stepwise estimation enters each independent variable one at a time on the basis of their discriminatory power (Balderson and Broderick, 1996). The independent variable with the greatest contribution is added first. Further variables are added based on their incremental contribution over the variables already in the equation. The 'forward addition and backward elimination' procedure is largely based on trial and error for finding the best regression estimates (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). In the case of forward addition, initially there are no predictor variables in the regression equation. Predictor variables are entered one at a time only if they meet criteria specified in the F ratio.

In both approaches variables may be added or deleted at each stage however, once this is done, the action cannot be reversed at a later stage. In the 'backward elimination' approach all variables are used and those variables that are not found to contribute significantly, based on the F value, are deleted (Malhotra and Birks, 2000).

There are however criticisms to the different approaches. The stepwise approach is purported not to result in optimal regression equations in the sense of producing the largest R^2 for a given number of predictors (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). In order to

identify optimal regression equations it is necessary to compute combinational solutions in which all possible combinations are examined. The best known procedure is 'all possible subsets regression' (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Here all possible combinations of independent variables are examined and the best fitting set of variables are identified.

For this study, this latter procedure was adopted using SPSS[®] for Windows (Version 12.0.1) statistical package. However, it is important to note that in selecting the final model, issues such as multicollinearity and interpretability of the results are not addressed. Nevertheless, such issues must be checked for the model's appropriateness.

Since independent variables can often be correlated with the dependent variable and amongst the other independent variables, multicollinearity is said to exist (De Vaus, 2002; Hair *et al.*, 1998). It becomes necessary, therefore, to assess the degree of multicollinearity and determine its impact on the results and provide appropriate solutions. There are two key aspects of multicollinearity; explanation and estimation. Firstly, explanation concerns the ability of the regression procedure to represent and for the researcher to understand, the effects of each independent variable in the regression variate. When multicollinearity occurs it becomes difficult to separate the effects of individual variables. Consequently, the R^2 value is limited in size and the inclusion of additional variables does not add unique explanatory prediction. Further, determining the contribution of each independent variable becomes difficult since their effects are mixed.

Secondly, estimation of the regression coefficients and their significance tests can be affected. Estimation of coefficients is prevented when two or more variables are perfectly correlated. Careful scrutiny of each regression variate for multicollinearity is therefore necessary.

To assess for multicollinearity two of the more common measures are; the tolerance value and the variance inflation value (the inverse of the tolerance value) (De

Vaus, 2002). For this study the variance inflation value was used (VIF). This measure identifies the degree to which each independent variable is explained by the other independent variables i.e. each independent variable becomes a dependent variable and is regressed against the remaining independent variables. Large VIF values denote high colinearity and numbers above 10 indicate serious multicollinearity (De Vaus, 2002). Once the degree of colinearity has been determined it is possible to omit the highly correlated variable and identify others to aid prediction, or to use the model with highly correlated independent variables for prediction only, or to use the simple correlation between each independent variable to understand the independent-dependent variable relationship.

4.11 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a detailed presentation of the research design and empirical methodology adopted for this study. The following Chapters present the application of this methodology through a presentation and discussion of the findings. The findings are presented over three chapters. Chapter Five commences the discussions of findings, with a presentation of the descriptive statistics. The presentation then progresses towards scale construction and hypothesis testing and finally to correlation analysis and regression analysis.

Chapter Five

Empirical Results I: Descriptive Findings

Chapter Five

Empirical Results I: Descriptive Findings

The descriptive statistics of the measures used to generate data on the constructs of the conceptual model developed in Chapter Three are examined in this Chapter and the pertinent conclusions drawn.

5.2 Procedural Influences: Descriptive statistics

A number of situational antecedents hypothesized as influencing the behaviour of mid-level marketing managers (MLMMs) in their implementation of product-market strategy were grouped as procedural influences in the conceptual model introduced in Chapter Three. Such procedural influences include job characteristics, controls mechanisms, rewards mechanisms and procedural justice.

5.2.1 Descriptive Statistics for Job Characteristics

Job Characteristics were measured along a 7-point Likert type scale,¹ with a mid-point of 4. The descriptive statistics for the measures used to capture Job Characteristics are presented in

¹ Likert scale range = 1 (*strongly agree*) to 7 (*strongly disagree*)

Table 5.1: Descriptive Statistics of Job Characteristics Measures

† Measure	Percentage of Responses							Mean	S.D
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)		
I have a great deal of autonomy during the implementation of this strategy	3.9	32.8	25	17.2	11.7	8.6	.8	3.289	1.398
I feel I am my own boss when implementing this strategy	4.7	24.3	32	15.6	15.6	7	.8	3.375	1.357
In implementing this strategy I am allowed to do as I please	3.1	13.3	27.3	22.7	18	13.3	2.3	3.882	1.417
In implementing this strategy I can make my own decisions	6.3	28.9	34.4	12.5	10.9	6.3	.8	3.148	1.334
I often get to see implementation tasks through to completion	21.1	36.7	22.7	7.8	9.4	1.5	.8	2.554	1.320
I have the opportunity of seeing implementation through from beginning to end	28.9	35.2	21.9	6.3	4.6	2.3	.8	2.328	1.285
In my implementation role I have the opportunity to finish what I started	25.7	41.4	22.7	3.1	4.7	1.6	.8	2.273	1.188
The implementation with which I am involved is handled from beginning to end by myself	10.2	22.6	18.8	20.3	18.8	7	2.3	3.453	1.551
I am one of the key members of the implementation team on this strategy	34.4	38.9	18	6.3	1.6	.8		2.039	1.022
My implementation role is one where a lot of people could be affected by how well my work is done	27.6	33.8	29.1	6.3	2.4		.8	2.252	1.083
I play a relatively minor role in this strategy	37.5	39.1	13.3	3.9	2.3	2.3	1.6	2.078	1.283
My responsibilities in implementing this strategy are significant	23.4	42.2	22.7	7.8	2.3	.8	.8	2.289	1.306
I have the opportunity to take on a number of different tasks during implementation	22.7	45.3	23.4	3.8	1.6	1.6	1.6	2.273	1.155
There is a great deal of variety in my implementation role	14.1	43.7	31.3	5.5	3.8	.8	.8	2.468	1.064
My implementation role is not repetitious	9.4	32.8	28.9	16.4	7.0	4.7	.8	2.960	1.306

†7 point Likert scale : (1) Strongly agree- (7) Strongly disagree

Table 5.2: Descriptive Statistics of Control Measures

† Measure	Percentage of Responses %							Mean	S.D
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)		
Specific performance measures are established for my job	14.1	34.4	21.9	10.4	8.4	5.5	5.5	3.031	1.655
My line manager monitors the extent to which I attain my performance goals	10.2	31.4	27.4	10.9	8.6	8.6	3.1	3.148	1.562
If my performance goals are not met, I would be required to explain why	12.5	38.3	26.6	9.4	9.4	2.3	1.6	2.781	1.333
I receive feedback from my line manager concerning the extent to which I achieve my goals	10.9	31.2	18	15.6	9.4	8.6	6.3	3.320	1.724
My line manager monitors the extent to which I follow established procedures	7.8	20.2	22.7	14.1	10.2	12.5	12.5	3.859	1.864
My line manager evaluates the procedures I use to accomplish a given task	2.3	12.5	16.4	25.8	18	13.3	11.7	4.312	1.600
My line manager modifies my procedures when desired results are not obtained	.8	10.2	18.7	20.3	20.3	16.4	13.3	4.515	1.572
I receive feedback on how I accomplish my performance goals		10.2	15.6	26.6	12.5	21.9	13.2	4.601	1.553
The work environment encourages marketing professionals to feel part of this organization	6.3	24.2	26.6	12.5	12.5	10.9	7.0	3.617	1.693
The work environment encouraged marketing professionals to feel a sense of pride in their work	6.3	27.3	25	16.4	10.9	9.4	4.7	3.453	1.591
The organization encourages cooperation between marketing professionals	9.4	28.1	21.9	17.2	10.9	8.6	3.9	3.335	1.603
Most of the marketing professionals in my organization are familiar with each other's productivity	8.6	21.1	25.8	17.2	8.6	14.8	3.9	3.562	1.654
The organization fosters an environment where marketing professionals respect each other's work	11.7	25	24.2	22.7	8.6	4.7	3.1	3.179	1.481
The organization encourages job related discussions between marketing professionals	14.8	24.2	24.2	13.3	14.1	7.8	1.6	3.171	1.572
Most marketing professionals in my organization are able to provide accurate appraisals of each other's work	3.1	13.3	18.8	29.7	13.3	11.6	10.2	4.125	1.587
†7 point Likert scale : (1) Strongly agree- (7) Strongly disagree									

All items employed a 7-point Likert type scale¹. The mean scores show a tendency around the mid-point of 4. The lowest measure has a mean of (2.781) and standard deviation of (1.333) indicating strong agreement that if respondents performance goals were not met, they would be expected to explain why. 12.5% of respondents provided a score of 1 and 38.3% provided a score of 2, which accounts for the highest percentage of responses to all items. The highest mean scores were provided for respondents receiving feedback on how they accomplished their performance goals with a mean of (4.601) and standard deviation of (1.553). However, there were no respondents who strongly agreed to this as no core of 1 was recorded. On balance, it is perhaps the scores provided for items measuring output control that have the highest mean scores, though there is no strong agreement or disagreement with the measure.

Whilst respondents didn't feel there was a strict amount of control in any one area of control, they also didn't perceive there to be no control in these areas. In general, the responses indicate a relatively greater tendency to agree with the measures. Nevertheless, the relatively high standard deviations to most items indicate a mixed response with no clear differentiation between agreement and disagreement.

5.2.3 Descriptive Statistics for Reward Measures

The measures for rewards were split into two aspects; output rewards and process rewards measured by a 7-point Likert type scale¹. There were 8 items in total for the measure. The first four measures captured output rewards and the final four captured process rewards. The results are presented in Table 5.3.

¹ Likert scale range = 1 (*strongly agree*) to 7 (*strongly disagree*)

Table 5.3: Descriptive Statistics of Reward Measures

↑ Measure	Percentage of Responses %							Mean	S.D
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)		
Rewards to project members are entirely related to achievement of performance objectives for project activities		10.2	24.2	18.8	19.5	14.1	13.2	4.429	1.560
Rewards for project members are entirely based on final outputs achieved	1.6	12.5	22.7	21.1	16.4	11.6	14.1	4.296	1.642
The project members rewards depend upon the market performance of the product	4.7	10.2	22.6	14.6	18	17.2	12.4	4.328	1.721
In rewarding the project members, primary weight is placed on objective criteria such as results achieved	.8	13.4	26	26	13.4	12.5	7.9	4.070	1.491
Rewards to project members are based on effectiveness of implementation of the strategy rather than results		4.7	11.7	23.4	28.9	18	13.3	4.835	1.350
Rewards depend entirely on the quality of strategic decisions made rather than results			9.5	19.8	27	24.7	19	5.238	1.242
Rewards to project members are based on subjective criteria such as attributes of the product		1.6	6.3	23.4	25.7	22.7	20.3	5.226	1.274
Project members are rewarded for completing major stages in the product-market strategy development process		3.8	10.2	22.7	18.8	27.3	17.2	5.070	1.398
↑7 point Likert scale : (1) Strongly agree- (7) Strongly disagree									

The results show that all measures provided a mean score above the mid-point of 4, although no score was above 5.3. The results indicate that respondents felt that output rewards were not based on performance achievements and process rewards were not particularly based on key process stages attained in terms of the quality of results achieved at these stages. The highest mean score indicating relatively strong disagreement was given for respondents perception that *“rewards to project members are based on the effectiveness of implementation of the strategy rather than the results”* with a mean score of (5.238) and standard deviation of (1.242). Additionally, no respondents strongly agreed with this item as no score of either 1 or 2 was provided. The highest percentage of responses (27%), provided a score of 5 to this item and (24.6%), a score of 6. This result is interesting and indicates that respondents feel that results are rewarded for the quality of the strategic decision rather than implementation effectiveness.

On balance, these results indicate that there is relatively stronger disagreement with the items capturing process rewards compared to those capturing output rewards. However, the standard deviations for output rewards are relatively higher than for process reward indicating no clear differentiation between agreement and disagreement around the mean.

5.2.4 Descriptive Statistics for Procedural Justice Measures

Procedural Justice was measured by 9 items scale along a 7-point Likert type scale¹.

The results are presented in Table 5.4

¹ Likert scale range = 1 (*strongly agree*) to 7 (*strongly disagree*)

Table 5.4: Descriptive Statistics of Procedural Justice Measures

↑ Measure	(1)	(2)	Percentage of Responses %					Mean	S.D
			(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)		
To what extent do you believe the procedures were intended to:									
Treat all groups of employees consistently	12.5	18	24.2	20.3	15.6	5.5	3.9	3.406	1.574
Be accessible to everyone	10.2	22.6	30.5	18.0	12.5	2.3	3.9	3.226	1.453
Be applied consistently over time	7.0	18	32.8	23.4	14.1	3.9	.8	3.343	1.276
Be neutral	4.7	16.4	21.9	38.3		11.7	7.0	3.570	1.233
Produce accurate decisions	5.5	21.3	37.8	10.2	18.1	7.1		3.354	1.336
Recognise interests of different groups	5.5	15.6	26.6	24.2	19.5	7	1.6	3.640	1.373
Ensure that everyone's interests are considered	7.8	14.8	25	19.5	21.1	9.4	2.4	3.687	1.504
Produce trustworthy results	9.4	22.7	28.9	21.8	13.3	3.1	.8	3.195	1.316
↑7 point Likert scale : (1) Strongly agree- (7) Strongly disagree									

As Table 5.4 highlights, the mean for all scores fall around 3, with the highest percentage of responses to all items being given scores of 2, 3 or 4. This indicates that respondents have no strong perception that procedures are generally consistent or inconsistent, produce accurate decisions, recognise the interests of different groups, ensure that every one's interests are considered or produce trustworthy results. This is revealed through the relatively low standard deviations for most items. There is however, a wider range of responses concerning the extent that respondents believed procedures to treat all employees consistently and the extent to which respondents felt that procedures ensure that everyone's interests are considered.

Upon closer analysis of the percentage responses however, it might be generally concluded that more responses favour agreement rather than disagreement concerning the extent to which procedures are intended to be consistent and fairly applied. Interestingly, the highest percentage of responses recorded is for procedures being neutral (38.3%) with a score of 4. The results for procedural justice are somewhat surprising given the results for both output and process rewards tend more towards disagreement in terms of consistency and fairness. Arguably, it might have been expected that higher percentage scores above the mid-point of 4 for procedural justice would have been recorded. In partial explanation of these findings respondents may feel that procedures in their organizations' whether deemed fair or not, are applied consistently for all employees.

5.3 Strategy Process Descriptive Statistics

A number situational antecedents affecting MLMMs product-market strategy implementation behaviour were categorized as strategy process influences in the conceptual model presented in Chapter Three. These antecedents include implementation facilitation measures incorporating *support, participation, and*

information availability, strategy formulation effectiveness measures, and organizational relationship measures incorporating *superior-subordinate relationships*, *strategy commitment and organizational attachment*. The following sections present the descriptive findings for each of these constructs.

5.3.1 Descriptive Statistics for Implementation Facilitation Measures

Implementation facilitation was measured by a 15 item scale using a 7-point Likert type scale¹. The measures were designed to capture support for product-market strategy implementation, MLMMs' degree of participation and the information available for implementation. The results are presented in Table 5.5.

¹ Likert scale range = 1 (*strongly agree*) to 7 (*strongly disagree*)

Table 5.5: Descriptive Statistics of Implementation Facilitation Measures

† Measure	Percentage of Responses %							Mean	S.D
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)		
I don't feel that senior management places a great deal of significance on this strategy (R)	14.8	34.4	21.8	13.3	10.2	5.5		2.859	1.401
It is clear that senior management wants this strategy to be a success	21.1	42.2	19.5	9.4	3.1	3.9	.8	2.460	1.297
I feel this strategy is strongly supported by senior management	14.1	35.9	26.6	10.8	6.3	4.7	1.6	2.796	1.388
Senior management doesn't seem to care much about this strategy (R)	22.8	38.6	17.3	10.3	5.5	5.5		2.535	1.384
My line manager asks me for suggestions concerning how to carry out strategy implementation	25	33.6	21.1	11.7	5.5	3.1		2.484	1.304
My line manager asks me for suggestions before making decisions.	18.8	32.7	23.4	9.4	10.2	3.9	1.6	2.773	1.464
Before making decisions, my line manager gives serious consideration to what his subordinates have to say	11.7	31.3	27.3	13.3	7	6.3	3.1	3.039	1.508
Before taking action my line manager gives serious consideration to what subordinates have to say	10.3	27.8	27	15.1	10.3	8.7	.8	3.166	1.468
Information concerning strategy implementation becomes available well in time	1.6	10.9	21.1	20.3	25.8	15.6	4.7	4.234	1.433
I find that information is freely available for strategy implementation	3.1	10.9	21.8	18	26.6	18	1.6	4.140	1.434
Information relating to strategy implementation is accurate	2.3	11.7	29.7	28.1	18.8	7.8	1.6	3.789	1.259

†7 point Likert scale : (1) Strongly agree- (7) Strongly disagree

After reversal of several items, it is revealed that there is some variety in the mean scores produced, i.e. scores of 2, 3 and 4 are reported.

Measures for support exhibit mean scores below the mid-point of 4 indicating a general tendency for respondents to feel that senior management want the strategy to be a success and therefore place significance on the strategy.

Indeed respondents also feel that their participation is valued, with general agreement to items concerning their providing suggestions on how to carry out the implementation of the strategy and that senior management places importance on what subordinates have to say. However, the mean scores suggest that respondents are more divided in their responses to participation measures with mean scores of 3.166 for “*before taking action my line manager gives serious consideration to what subordinates have to say*” and 3.039 for “*before making decisions my line manager gives serious consideration to what his subordinates have to say*”. However the results in Table 5.5 suggest that there is a general tendency for respondents to feel that information regarding product-market strategy implementation does not become available in time nor is freely available with a couple of scores above 4.

Consequently, it might be concluded that whilst respondents generally feel that product-market strategy implementation is facilitated by senior management and that their participation is valued, there is also a tendency for respondents to indicate that further elements hinder product-market strategy implementation such as the relatively poor availability accuracy and timeliness of information.

5.3.2 Descriptive Statistics for Strategy Formulation Effectiveness Measures

Strategy formulation effectiveness was measured by using a 7-point Likert type scale¹ to encapsulate items pertaining to the degree to which the organization employed

¹ Likert scale range = 1 (*strongly agree*) to 7 (*strongly disagree*)

explicit plans to achieve strategy objectives, how precise the objectives are, as well as whether decisions are based on a systematic analysis of the business environment. The results are presented in Table 5.6

Table 5.6: Descriptive Statistics of Strategy Formulation Effectiveness Measures

† Measure	Percentage of Responses %						Mean	S.D	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)			(7)
Our strategy is made explicit in the form of precise plans	5.1	22	22	16.9	17.8	12.7	3.5	3.720	1.579
When we formulate a strategy it is planned in detail	4.2	18.6	28.8	11.9	19.5	14.5	2.5	3.771	1.543
We have precise procedures for achieving strategic objectives	5.1	11.9	24.6	25.4	16.9	11	5.1	3.906	1.502
We have well defined planning procedures to search for solutions to strategic problems	4.2	15.3	17.8	21.9	22	12.7	5.1	4.016	1.541
We meticulously assess many alternatives against explicit strategic objectives	1.7	11.9	24.6	24.6	18.6	13.5	5.1	4.076	1.439
We evaluate potential options against explicit strategic objectives	3.4	12	35	23.9	14.5	7.7	3.4	3.709	1.352
We have definite and precise strategic objectives	5.1	21.2	31.4	21.3	11.9	7.6	1.7	3.432	1.374
We make strategic decisions based on a systematic analysis of our business environment.	5.1	26.5	28.2	16.2	10.3	8.5	5.2	3.461	1.562

†7 point Likert scale : (1) Strongly agree- (7) Strongly disagree

It can be seen that the mean scores tend towards the mid-point 4. However on balance the results show that there is generally more agreement with the items than disagreement since only two items have means above the mid-point. Mean scores above the mid-point 4 were given to the item “*We have well defined planning procedures to search for solutions to strategic problems*” producing a mean of 4.016. Here, 22.9% of respondents provided a score of 4 and 22% a score of 5. Secondly, the item “*We meticulously assess many alternatives against explicit strategic objectives*” produced a mean of 4.076. This resulted in 24.6% of respondents providing a score of 3, 24.6% a score of 4 and 18.6% a score of 5. These results imply no strong disagreement. On the whole, the results highlight that strategy formulation procedures neither act as an aid nor a hindrance to product-market strategy implementation. However, standard deviations indicate that responses are more widespread around the mean in some cases.

5.3.3 Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Relationships Measures

Measures for organizational relationships employed a 7-point Likert type scale¹. The measure comprised 12 items pertaining to respondent’s *relationship with superiors* (upward–influence behaviour), their *attachment to the organization and their strategy commitment*. The results are presented in Table 5.7

¹ Likert scale range = 1 (*strongly agree*) to 7 (*strongly disagree*)

Table 5.7 Descriptive Statistics of Organisational Relationships Measures

† Measure	Percentage of Responses %							Mean	S.D
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)		
I really feel that this organization's problems are my own	8.6	25.8	23.4	18.8	10.2	9.4	3.8	3.398	1.589
I think I could easily become attached to another organization as I am to this one (R)	2.4	12.6	11.0	21.3	19.7	24.4	8.6	4.511	1.592
I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization (R)	16.4	30.5	17.2	14.1	11.7	7	3.1	3.078	1.648
I don't think this strategy was in the best interest of the organization (R)	14.8	43	17.2	10.2	5.5	7	2.3	2.789	1.524
I thought the strategy was a great idea	10.9	41.4	22.7	10.2	6.3	8.5		2.851	1.403
I can't say I support the strategy (R)	20.3	47.7	12.5	7.8	7.8	3.9		2.468	1.327
I personally feel that the goals of the strategy are appropriate	9.4	37.5	25.8	10.9	9.4	3.9	3.1	2.976	1.449
I get what I ask from my superiors		20.3	32	24.2	15.6	6.3	1.6	3.601	1.238
I always get along well with my superiors	12.5	38.3	25.8	15.6	4.7	2.3	.8	2.718	1.222
My superiors act favourably on most of my suggestions	7.8	35.2	32	16.4	7	1.6		2.843	1.111
My word carries weight with my superiors	13.3	41.4	25	12.5	6.3	1.5		2.617	1.150
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	21.1	31.3	16.4	13.3	10.9	4.7	2.3	2.851	1.587

†7 point Likert scale : (1) Strongly agree- (7) Strongly disagree

Upon reverse scoring some of the items it is revealed that most mean scores indicate a general agreement with all items displaying means scores below the mid-point of 4. Moreover, many items show mean scores between 2 and 3. In particular, strong agreement was provided for the reversed item "*I can't say I support the strategy*" with 20.3% of respondents providing a score of 1 and 47.7 % providing a score of 2. Only one item produced a mean score above 4. This item indicates respondents' disagreement that they felt "*they could become as easily attached to another organization as they were to their current organization*", indicating relatively strong attachment to their current organization. The mean for this item was 4.511 with 24.4% of respondents providing a score of 6. Thus in general, organisational relationship measures indicate that respondents are generally attached to their organization and their organizations espoused strategy and believe they are in a position in the organization to influence their superiors. Arguably these results appear consistent with other descriptive statistics, in particular those presented for procedural justice measures.

5.4 Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour Descriptive Statistics

The conceptual model presented in Chapter Three displays situational antecedents as impacting upon MLMMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour. The descriptive statistics have already been presented for situational antecedents. The literature determined that the second dimension of the model include two constructs of product-market strategy implementation behaviour; counterproductive work behaviour in the form of self-interested behaviour, and citizenship behaviour. The hypotheses were constructed in relation to these constructs. The measurement scales employed for self-interested behaviour and citizenship behaviour were of a 7-point Likert type scale¹.

¹ Likert scale range = 1 (*strongly agree*) to 7 (*strongly disagree*)

5.4.1 Descriptive Statistics for Self-interest measures

The descriptive measures for self-interest are presented in Table 5.8. The results show considerable similarity in means scores with most mean scores around the mid-point of

4.

Table 5.8: Descriptive Statistics of Self Interest Measures

† Measure	Percentage of Responses %							Mean	S.D
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)		
Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well established ideas	3.9	7.2	9.4	14.2	30.7	25.2	9.4	4.740	1.538
There is no place for “yes” people around here; good ideas are desired even if it means disagreeing with supervisors	4	16.7	15.9	19	25.4	13.5	5.5	4.079	1.577
Agreeing with “powerful” others is the best alternative in this organization	4	10.3	15.9	19.8	20.6	21.5	7.9	4.388	1.604
It is best not to rock the boat in this organization	3.9	7.1	14.2	18.1	22.8	28.3	5.5	4.559	1.530
Sometimes it is easier to remain quiet than to fight the system	4.7	12.6	23.6	19.7	16.5	17.3	5.6	4.047	1.592
Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth	2.4	7.1	11.8	12.6	16.5	39.4	10.2	4.929	1.559
It is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind	3.2	5.5	5.6	16.5	15.7	29.9	23.6	5.204	1.615
†7 point Likert scale : (1) Strongly agree- (7) Strongly disagree									

Closer analysis of the percentage responses indicates on balance a tendency towards disagreement with the items rather than agreement. One item provides a mean score of 5.205, indicating stronger disagreement with this item compared to the rest.

Specifically, respondents disagree that *“it is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind”*. For this item 29.9% of respondents provided a score of 6 and 23.6% of respondents a score of 7. A further interesting result indicating disagreement appears for the item *“telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth”*. Here, 39.4 % of respondents provide a score of 6 to this item.

Consequently, it might be deduced that the general tendency would be for respondents not to participate in the politics of self-interest. Nevertheless, respondents have given a score for each point along the scale indicating that for some, there is some agreement with the measures. This is also borne out through the relatively high standard deviations for all items. The items making up this scale are relatively sensitive compared to other scales and thus, it might be expected that there would be stronger disagreement than agreement. An overall mean score close to the mid-point for most items highlights that there is no clear differentiation of results between strong agreement and disagreement.

5.4.2 Descriptive Statistics for Citizenship Behaviour Measures

The items used to capture citizenship behaviour developed from the literature included three elements of the construct; loyalty to the organization, obedience and compliance.

The descriptive statistics for citizenship behaviours are presented in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 Descriptive Statistics of Citizenship Measures

↑ Measure	Percentage of Responses %							Mean	S.D
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)		
I rarely waste time whilst at work	12.5	39.1	24.2	14.1	7.8	2.3		2.726	1.221
I produce as much as I am capable of at all times	12.5	43	21.8	14.1	6.3	2.3		2.656	1.193
I sometimes waste organization resources (R)	18	33.6	19.5	11.7	13.3	2.3	1.6	2.820	1.465
I accept and fully implements senior management's final strategic decisions even if they are not parallel with the strategic interest of my individual unit	13.3	38.3	29.6	12.5	3.1	1.6	1.6	2.648	1.200
I follow the final strategic decisions made by my head office with extreme care	11.9	27	33.3	16.7	9.5	1.6		2.896	1.198
Overall, my actions taken since the last annual planning process have been fully consonant with executing the strategic decisions to the letter and spirit with which they were set forth	8.8	46.4	22.4	12.8	7.2	1.6	.8	2.712	1.196
I keep myself informed about products and services and tell others	28.1	45.3	14.1	7.8	3.9	.8		2.164	1.092
I represent the organization favourably to outsiders	38.3	50	10.9	.8				1.742	.678
I actively promote the organizations products and services	38.3	37.4	17.2	3.1	.8	1.6	1.6	2.015	1.183
I would urge fellow employees to invest money in the organization (R)	9.4	25	14.1	28.9	9.4	9.4	3.9	3.476	1.597
I do not tell outsiders that this is a good place to work (R)	28.9	32.8	12.5	10.8	7	3.9	3.9	2.617	1.651
I don't defend the organization when employees criticize it (R)	21.9	34.4	14.8	18	7	2.3	1.6	2.671	1.431
I avoid extra duties and responsibilities at work (R)	38.3	40.6	10.2	3.1	3.1	3.1	1.6	2.078	1.337
I do not work beyond what is required (R)	40.6	42.2	9.4	2.3	1.6	1.6	2.3	1.960	1.257

↑ 7 point Likert scale : (1) Strongly agree- (7) Strongly disagree

After reversal of a number of the items, the results highlight that in general, there is strong agreement with all of the items with most mean scores between 1 and 2 and relatively low standard deviations. One item concerning whether respondents represented the organization favourably to outsiders, provided a mean score of 1.742 and low standard deviation of 0.678 indicating strong agreement with this item. A further item (reversed) concerning whether respondents worked beyond what was required also encouraged strong agreement with a mean of 1.960 and a standard deviation of 1.257. These results indicate a relatively high degree of loyalty to the organization. Whilst other measures indicating loyalty provide low mean scores, for some, the standard deviations indicate that there was less strong agreement to these. Similar results are found for the other aspects of citizenship behaviour. It may be deduced from the results that respondents generally behave in a way that is conducive to organization functioning, being on balance, loyal, obedient and complying with procedures for the greater good of the organization.

5.5 Internal Product- Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

The third dimension of the conceptual model presented in Chapter Three is internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The following section presents the descriptive statistics for the measures of the construct.

5.5.1 Descriptive Statistics for Internal Product-Market Implementation Effectiveness

The measures for internal product-market strategy effectiveness contained 8 items to capture issues from the literature to assess this construct. The measures included the appropriate allocation of resources, effective execution of actions detailed in the plan and MLMs' perceptions of success of the product-market strategy implementation

effort in both the respondent's work unit and organization as a whole. The measure employed a 7-point likert scale¹. The results are presented in Table 5.10.

¹ Likert scale range = 1 (*strongly agree*) to 7 (*strongly disagree*)

Table 5.10: Descriptive Statistics of Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness Measures

† Measure	Percentage of Responses %							Mean	S.D
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)		
The strategy is an example of effective strategy implementation	2.3	19.5	28.9	22.7	18	7.8	.8	3.609	1.305
The implementation effort of this strategy is generally considered a success in this organization	2.3	25	28.9	21.9	14.1	7	.8	3.445	1.302
I personally think the implementation of this strategy is a success	7	21.1	33.6	14.1	14.1	8.6	1.6	3.390	1.443
The implementation of the strategy is considered a success in my area	9.4	25	30.5	18.7	13.3	2.3	.8	3.117	1.295
The right kind of resources are allocated to this strategy	3.9	18	18.8	17.2	19.5	19.5	3.1	4.015	1.592
Adequate resources are allocated to the strategy implementation effort	.8	12.5	24.2	20.3	17.2	20.3	4.7	4.203	1.481
We effectively execute the actions detailed in the plan	3.1	22.6	34.4	21.1	12.5	6.3		3.359	1.227
Overall, our strategy is being effectively executed	2.3	21.9	38.3	21.1	11.7	3.9	.8	3.328	1.171
† 7 point Likert scale : (1) Strongly agree- (7) Strongly disagree									

The results highlight that in general the mean scores fall just slightly below the midpoint of 4, with the majority of mean scores between 3 and 4. Two items provide mean scores above 4, of (4.015) and (4.204), with standard deviations of (1.592) and (1.481) respectively. These results indicate that there is stronger disagreement for these items, but the relatively high standard deviations compared with other items indicate that there is a wider distribution of responses around the mean in both cases. On balance, the mean scores and corresponding standard deviations highlight greater overall agreement to the items indicating that respondents had a greater perception that product-market strategy implementation efforts were efficiently performed than inefficiently performed. Nevertheless, the results do not indicate strong agreement in this respect. Further analysis of these results is necessary to obtain a clearer understanding of product-market strategy implementation efficiency.

5.6 External Product- Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

The dependent variable of the conceptual model presented in Chapter Three is external product-market strategy effectiveness. The descriptive statistics of the measures for this construct are presented below.

5.6.1 Descriptive Statistics for External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness Measures

The measures for external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness contained 3 items to capture issues from the literature deemed important in assessing this level of effectiveness of the product-market strategy implementation effort. A 7-point Likert type¹ measure scale was employed to generate data on product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The results are presented in Table 5.11.

¹Likert scale range = 1 (*strongly agree*) to 7 (*strongly disagree*)

Table 5.11: Descriptive Statistics of External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness Measures

† Measure	(1)	(2)	Percentage of Responses %		(6)	(7)	Mean	S.D	
			(3)	(4)					(5)
The strategy is not meeting its targets (R)	8.6	28.9	14.1	22.6	17.2	7.8	.8	3.375	1.500
The strategy is delivering its objectives	2.3	25	30.5	19.5	10.9	10.2	1.6	3.484	1.386
Customers are not responding to this strategy as we expected (9)	9.4	23.4	21.1	25	13.3	7	.8	3.335	1.432

†7 point Likert scale : (1) Strongly agree- (7) Strongly disagree

After reversal of two of the items, the results show that all measures exhibit a mean score around 3, although the standard deviations suggest that there is some variety in the scores given for each item. As a consequence, although the results indicate that on balance respondents tended to be in relatively greater agreement that their organization's strategy is meeting its targets, delivering its objectives and that customers are responding as expected, there is no strong agreement to these items. The item that receives the greatest relative agreement from respondents concerns whether the strategy is meeting its objectives. Here a mean score of 3.483 is provided with a relatively lower standard deviation than the other two items. Similarity is revealed with the results for internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

It might be argued that for some respondents it is too early to assess how well the strategy is performing since product-market strategy implementation may still be an ongoing process.

5.7 Conclusions

Analysis of the descriptive findings reveals several interesting points, but also raises questions that cannot be answered through descriptive analysis alone. The results highlight mixed findings in so far as there appears to be a tendency around the mean for many of the constructs. For example, mean scores are recorded for control, procedural justice, strategy formulation effectiveness, self-interest, product-market strategy implementation efficiency and produce-market strategy implementation effectiveness. It would appear that there is no clear cut agreement or disagreement among respondents for these measures.

Further, there tends to be a general tendency to disagree that rewards are consistently administered and this is greater for process rewards than for output rewards. Also, for certain aspects of the implementation facilitation construct,

respondents generally disagree that information is available, timely and accurate. This may indicate areas where negative relationships exist between the constructs when the hypotheses are examined through correlation analyses. There appears however, to be some agreement for the organizational relations construct where results indicate that employees are attached to their organizations and its strategy and feel they have influence in their positions. Thus would suggest positive relationships between the constructs.

Nevertheless, there do seem to be some anomalies in the findings. This is borne out through the general agreement amongst respondents that they are on balance, good organizational citizens with responses indicating loyalty to the organization, obedience and compliance. In line with these results, respondents generally appear not to agree to measures of self-interested behaviour. It is all the more interesting therefore, to discover the underlying reasons as to why respondents feel that their behaviour neither leads to the efficient nor inefficient implementation of product-market strategy, and consequently, effective product-market strategy implementation as a whole. In order to understand underlying reasons for the relationships within and between the constructs it is necessary to proceed towards scale construction, through principal components analysis before proceeding to multiple linear regression.

Chapter Six presents a discussion of more complex statistical methods to analyse these data and investigate the nature of the relationships within each construct.

Chapter Six

Empirical Results II: Principal Components Analysis and Construction of Scale Indices

6.1 Introduction

Chapter Five presented an account of the main descriptive findings from the data generated from the survey. Chapter Six aims to present and discuss more complex statistical methods of data analysis and to investigate the nature of relationships within each construct.

As there are a large number of variables in each construct the correlation matrices constructed were complex which made the identification of underlying factors difficult to ascertain through mere inspection. Factor analysis, through Principal Components Analysis (PCA) was used to identify underlying relationships. Consequently, factors underlying the constructs included in the conceptual model can be used as the basis for creating additive scales that reflect the dimension of a given construct as a whole. The procedure for executing the statistical method has been discussed in detail in Chapter Four, as well as a discussion of tests for scale reliability and validation.

6.2 Correlation Analysis within Selected Constructs

In Chapter Four, factor analysis was described as an interdependence technique whereby an entire set of interdependent relationships is examined (Malhotra and Birks, 2000). Once the dimensions or factors are determined, data reduction can be achieved (Hair *et al.*, 1998). This allows for the identification of a new smaller set of salient variables to replace the original set of correlated variables for use in subsequent multivariate data analysis (Hubert *et al.*, 2005; Malhotra and Birks, 2000). However, prior to conducting PCA on the variables capturing each construct, it was necessary to perform correlation analysis. Correlation analysis is required to identify the presence of the relationships among variables and particularly for the researcher to be able to claim that a group of variables have something in common, and hence the existence of factors

within the constructs contained within the conceptual model. It was necessary therefore, to conduct *bivariate* correlation analysis within selected constructs. The analysis was conducted on the assumption that if inter-correlations were high, there were grounds for suggesting some common relationships (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Correlation matrices were prepared using Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients to measure the extent of any relationship between each of the variables of the conceptual model.

Upon inspection of the correlation matrices it was revealed that high inter-correlations existed within many of the measures (variables) of each construct and thus it is claimed that there exist some common factors within these variables. To ascertain more precisely the nature of these factors and consequently a more effective and statistically accurate method of expressing the relationships, the *multivariate* factor analysis procedure of PCA was employed. This analysis would allow for a reduction in complexity for interpreting the inter-relationships, to elicit greater detail on the factors existing within the constructs, and finally to provide more detail on the original conceptual model and the hypotheses.

6.3 Principal Components Analysis: A Summary of Findings

PCA was discussed in detail in Chapter 4 (section 4.10.5.1). Factors derived from PCA are based on total variance and the derived factors contain none or very small proportions of unique variance or error variance. Consequently, they do not contain enough unique error variance to distort the overall factor structure (Hair *et al.*, 1998). To determine how many factors to extract, the *K1* rule (*eigen value greater than 1*) (Hayton *et al.*, 2004; Churchill, 1999) was used. This dictated that components with *eigen values* greater than 1 determine the cut off point of factor extraction. Prior to accepting the results of any PCA, the factor solutions were scrutinized for their conceptual interpretability. Varimax orthogonal rotation was employed in order to

produce factor solutions which were characterized by greater clarity. Varimax rotation is an orthogonal method which simplifies the columns of the factor matrix (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Output loadings were suppressed when less than .35 to aid interpretation. The maximum possible simplification is reached if there are only 1's and 0's in a column. There tend to be some high loadings (close to +1 or -1) and some loadings near to 0 in each column of the matrix. This allows for a clear positive or negative correlation between the variable and the factor or if close to 0, a clear lack of association.

The results of PCA are presented in Table 6.1.

Factors and Variables Attributable to Each Construct		
Construct	Number of Factors	Number of Variables
Procedural Antecedents		
Job Characteristics	4	15
Controls	3	15
Rewards	2	8
Procedural Justice	1	8
Strategy Process Influences		
Implementation Facilitation	3	11
Strategy Formulation Effectiveness	1	8
Organizational Relationships	3	12
Product-Market Implementation Behaviour		
Self-interest	1	7
Citizenship Behaviour	5	14
Product-Market Implementation Performance		
Internal Product-Market Implementation Effectiveness	1	8
Product-Market Strategy Implementation Performance		
External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness	1	3
Total	25	109

Table 6.1: Factors and Variables Attributable to Each Construct

6.4 Principal Components Analysis of Procedural Influences

6.4.1 Factor structure: Job Characteristic factors

The PCA of job characteristics factors can be found in Table 6.2. The format of the table is common to all the PCAs presented in this Chapter and specifies the amount of

variance explained by the solution, variable communalities, factor loadings and the *eigen value* attributable to each factor. Consequently, the configuration presented in Table 6.2, indicates that the first four factors were found to explain 75% of the total variance converging in 5 iterations. The following sections present a discussion of the identification and subsequent labelling of these four factors.

Table 6.2: Principal Components Analysis of Job Characteristics Factors

	Factor Loading †				Communality
	ROLEAUT Role Autonomy	TASKID Task Identity	ROLESIG Role significance	JOBVAR Job Variety	
Job Characteristics:					
I have a great deal of autonomy during the implementation of this strategy	.888				.869
I feel I am my own boss when implementing this strategy	.885				.874
In implementing this strategy I am allowed to do as I please	.859				.768
In implementing this strategy I can make my own decisions	.797				.794
I often get to see implementation tasks through to completion		.845			.754
I have the opportunity of seeing implementation through from beginning to end		.823			.806
In my implementation role I have the opportunity to finish what I started		.814			.804
The implementation with which I am involved is handled from beginning to end by myself		.764			.683
I am one of the key members of the implementation team on this strategy			.865		.812
My implementation role is one where a lot of people could be affected by how well my work is done			.741		.578
I play a relatively minor role in this strategy (R)			.741		.625
My responsibilities in implementing this strategy are significant			.688		.757
My implementation role is not repetitious				.855	.752
I have the opportunity to take on a number of different tasks during implementation				.769	.705
There is a great deal of variety in my implementation role				.713	.674
Eigen values	6.499	1.859	1.569	1.328	
% of variance explained (75.027)	43.326	12.390	10.460	8.851	

† Principal components analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation converging in 5 iterations

Factor 1: Role Autonomy (ROLEAUT)

The factor was composed of four variables that each loaded heavily onto a vector generating an *eigen* value of 6.4 and explaining 43% of variance. The variables were, *I am allowed autonomy during the implementation of this strategy; I am my own boss when implementing this strategy in implementing this strategy; I am allowed to do as please; In implementing the strategy; I can make own decisions.*

There is a clear conceptual association among the items of ROLEAUT which align very well with factors provided by Noble and Mokwa, (1999), based on the original measure of autonomy developed by (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). In order to be consistent with previous evidence, Factor 1 (ROLEAUT) is labelled Role Autonomy.

Factor 2: Task Identity (TASKID)

The second job characteristics factor was characterized by four variables which loaded heavily onto a vector generating an *eigen value* of 1.8. The following variables form this factor: *I often get to see implementation through to completion; I have the opportunity of seeing implementation through from beginning to end; In my implementation role I have the opportunity to finish what I started; The implementation with which I am involved is handles from beginning to end by myself.*

These variables have been used in extant literature and are clearly align with those developed by (Hackman and Oldham, 1975) to capture job characteristics. To be consistent with previous evidence, Factor 2 (TASKID) is labeled Task Identity.

Factor 3: Role Significance (ROLESIG)

A third factor derived through PCA for procedural influences is a four variable factor with an *eigen value* of 1.5 and explaining 10.4% of variance. The variables that form this factor are the following: *I am one of the key members of the implementation team*

on this strategy; My implementation role is one where a lot of people could be affected by how well my work is done; I play a relatively minor role in this strategy.

This factor has been used in the extant literature to explain aspects of job characteristics pertaining to how significant the particular role is and as such align closely with those measures used by Noble and Mokwa, (1999). These measures were developed from the original measures of Hackman and Oldham, (1975) to reflect role significance. As such, to be consistent with previous evidence, Factor 3 (ROLESIG) is labelled Role Significance.

Factor 4: Job Variety (JOBVAR)

The last factor for job characteristics comprised three variables with an *eigen value* of 1.3 and explaining 8.8% of variance. The variables that form this factor are the following: *My implementation role is not repetitious; I have the opportunity to take on a number of different tasks during implementation; There is a great deal of variety in my implementation role.*

As procedural antecedents for job characteristics, the measures align very closely with those developed by Hackman and Oldham, (1975) and as used by Noble and Mokwa, (1999) and as such are included as Factor 4, labelled Job Variety (JOBVAR).

This section aimed to illustrate the findings of data reduction applied to empirical data generated for job characteristics. The PCA was employed and a four factor solution extracted. The extracted solution was coherent in structure, conceptually interpretable, explained a high variance and did not suffer any major problems due to split loadings. The derived factors were accepted and used in subsequent tests for scale reliability and validation.

6.4.2 Factor Structure: Control Measures

The PCA of control factors can be found in Table 6.3. The configuration presented in Table 6.3 indicates that the first three factors were found to explain 73% of the total variance converging in 4 iterations. The following sections present a discussion of the identification and subsequent labelling of these three factors.

Table 6.3: Principal Components Analysis of Control Measures

	Factor Loading †			Communality
	OUTPCNTRL Output Control	PROFCNTRL Professional Control	PRCSCNTRL Process Control	
Controls:				
My line manager monitors the extent to which I attain my performance goals	.850			.789
Specific performance goals are established for my job	.822			.711
I receive feedback from my line manager concerning the extent to which I achieve my goals	.781			.723
I receive feedback on how I accomplish my performance goals	.761			.732
If my performance goals are not met, I would be required to explain why	.743			.591
My pay increases are based upon how my performance compares with my goals	.733			.542
The firm encourages job related discussions between marketing professionals		.885		.788
The firm fosters an environment where marketing professionals respect each other's work		.876		.808
Most of the marketing professionals in my firm are familiar with each other's productivity		.870		.778
Most marketing professional in my firm are able to provide accurate appraisals of each other's work		.832		.704
The firm encourages cooperation between marketing professionals		.805		.750
The work environment encourages marketing professionals to feel part of this firm		.563		.589
My line manager modifies my procedures when desired results are not obtained			.888	.828
My line manager evaluates the procedures I use to accomplish a given task			.861	.854
My line manager monitors the extent to which I follow established procedures			.842	.797
<i>Eigen values</i>	6.640	2.820	1.525	
<i>% of variance explained (73.234)</i>	44.268	18.798	10.167	

† Principal components analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation converging in 4 iterations

Factor 1: Output Control (OUTPCNTRL)

The first factor was composed of six variables that each loaded heavily onto a vector generating an *eigen value* of 6.64 and explaining 44% of variance. The variables were: *My line manager monitors the extent to which I attain my performance goals; Specific performance goals are established for my job; I receive feedback from my line manager concerning the extent to which I achieve my goals; I receive feedback on how I accomplish my performance goals; If my performance goals are not met, I would be required to explain why; my pay increases are based upon how my performance compares with my goals.*

All these variables demonstrate the procedural antecedent of output control on product- market strategy implementation and are reflected in the work of (Jaworski *et al.*, 1993). As such it was deemed appropriate to label this factor Output Control (OUTPCNTRL).

Factor 2: Professional Control (PROFCNTRL)

The second factor was composed of 6 variables that each loaded heavily onto a vector generating an *eigen value* of 2.82 and explaining 18% of variance. The variables used to capture the procedural antecedent of professional control were: *The firm encourages job related discussions between marketing professionals; The firm fosters an environment where marketing professionals respect each other's work; most of the marketing professionals in my firm are familiar with each other's productivity; Most marketing professionals in my firm are able to provide accurate appraisals of each other's work; The firm encourages cooperation between marketing professionals; The work environment encourages marketing professional to feel part of this firm.*

These variables demonstrate the procedural antecedent of professional control on product-market strategy implementation behaviour and are reflected in the work of

(Jaworski *et al.*, 1993). As such it was deemed to appropriate to label this factor Professional Control (PROFCNTRL).

Factor 3: Process Control (PRCSCNTRL)

The third factor composed three variables loading heavily onto a vector, generating an *eigen* value of 1.52 and explaining 10.167% of variance. The variables that form this factor are: *My line manager modifies my procedures when desired results are not obtained; My line manager evaluates the procedures I use to accomplish a given task; my line manager monitors the extent to which I follow established procedures.*

These factors display congruence with the extant work of Jaworski *et al.* (1993) and as such Factor 3 is labeled Process Control (PRCSCNTRL).

This section aimed to illustrate the findings of data reduction using PCA applied to data generated from control measures. A three factor solution was extracted and the factor structure satisfied the statistical and conceptual criteria for selection. The three factors were accepted and subsequently used in tests for scale reliability and validation.

6.4.3 Factor Structure: Reward Measures

The PCA of reward measures can be found in Table 6.4. The configuration of the factors indicates that the first two factors were found to explain 69% of total variance converging in 3 iterations. The identification and labelling of these factors is discussed below.

Table 6.4: Principal Components Analysis of Rewards

	Factor Loading †		Communality
	OUTRWD Output rewards	PRSRWD Process Rewards	
Rewards:			
Rewards to project members are entirely related to achievement of performance objectives for project activities	.714		.651
Rewards for project members are entirely based on final outputs achieved	.842		.746
The project members rewards depend upon the market performance of the product	.807		.654
In rewarding the project members, primary weight is placed on objective criteria such as results achieved	.858		.765
Rewards to project members are based on effectiveness of implementation of the strategy rather than the results		.873	.775
Rewards depend entirely on the quality of strategic decisions made rather than the results		.926	.859
Rewards to project members are based on subjective criteria such as attributes of the product		.670	.515
Project members are rewarded for completing major stages in the product market strategy development process		.715	.618
Eagan values	3.936	1.648	
% of variance explained (69.798)	49.197	20.601	

† Principal components analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation converging in 3 iterations

Factor 1: Output Reward (OUTRWD)

The first factor identified contained four variables and accounted for 49% of the variance, exhibiting an *eigen* value of 3.93. The items that loaded heavily onto this factor were: *Rewards to project members are entirely related to achievement of performance objectives for project activities; Rewards for project members are entirely based on final outputs achieved; The project members rewards depend upon the market performance of the product; In rewarding the project members, primary weight is placed on objective criteria such as results achieved.*

These variables have been collectively described in the literature as rewards based on outputs (Atuahene-Gima and Li., 2002). Thus it was considered appropriate to maintain this theme and label this factor Output Rewards (OUTRWD).

Factor 2: Process Rewards (PRSRWD)

The second factor comprised four variables loading heavily onto this factor with an *eigen* value of 1.64 and explaining 20% of total variance. The variables were: *Rewards to project members are based on effectiveness of implementation of the strategy rather than the results; Rewards depend entirely on the quality of strategic decisions made rather than results; Rewards to project members are based on subjective criteria such as attributes of the product; Project members are rewarded for completing major stages in the product-market strategy development process.*

The measures are characterised as procedural antecedents to MLMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour. Such influences have been identified in extant literature as process rewards (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Atuahene-Gima, 2002). It was deemed appropriate to maintain this theme and hence the factor was labelled Process rewards (PRSRWD).

This section illustrates the findings of data reduction applied to empirical data generated to capture reward measures. The PCA procedure was employed on the data and a two factor solution extracted. The factor structure satisfied the statistical and conceptual criteria for selection and the factors; output reward and process reward were accepted and used in tests for scale reliability and validation.

6.4.4 Factor Structure: Procedural Justice Measures

The principal components analysis of procedural justice measures can be found in Table 6.5. The configuration of the factor presented in the table indicates that one factor was found to explain 67% of total variance. As only a single factor was extracted no rotation of the data matrix was possible. The identification and labelling of the factor is discussed below.

Table 6.5: Principal Components Analysis of Procedural Justice Measures

		Factor Loading †	Community
Procedural Justice:	PROCJUST		
	Procedural		
	Justice		
<i>To what extent do you believe the procedures were intended to:</i>			
Ensure that everyone's interests are considered	.890	.791	
Recognise interests of different groups	.874	.763	
Be applied consistently over time	.858	.736	
Treat all groups of employees consistently	.820	.673	
Produce trustworthy results	.817	.668	
Be accessible to everyone	.810	.656	
Produce accurate decision	.794	.631	
Be neutral	.703	.501	
Eigenvalues	5.420		
% of variance explained (67.746)	67.746		

† Principal components analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation

Factor 1: Procedural Justice (PROCJUST)

The factor comprised eight variables loading heavily onto this factor with an *eigen* value of 5.42 and explaining 67% of total variance. The solution was characterized by strong loadings on the factor. The variables were: *To what extent do you believe the procedures were intended to: Ensure that everyone's interests are considered; Recognise interests of different groups; Be applied consistently over time; Treat all groups of employees consistently; Produce trustworthy results; Be accessible to everyone; Produce accurate decisions; Be neutral.*

The measures all reflect the perceived fairness of procedures deemed to have a bearing on product-market strategy implementation behaviour and are evidenced in the work of (Paterson *et al.*, 2002). The solution was accepted and the factor attributed the label procedural justice (PROCJUST)

6.5 Principal Components Analysis of Strategy Process Influences

6.5.1 Factor structure: Strategy Implementation Facilitation

The principal components analysis of strategy implementation facilitation factors can be found in Table 6.6. The configuration presented in table 6.6, indicates that the first four factors were found to explain 77% of the total variance converging in 5 iterations. The following sections present a discussion of the identification and subsequent labelling of these four factors.

Table 6.6: Principal Components Analysis of Implementation Facilitation Measures

Implementation Facilitation:	Factor Loading †			Communality
	SUPFACIL Support	PARTICIP Participation	INFOAVAIL Information Availability	
I feel this strategy is strongly supported by senior management	.877			.868
Senior management doesn't seem to care much about this strategy (R)	.861			.841
It is clear that senior management want this strategy to be a success	.860			.806
I don't feel that senior management places a great deal of significance on this strategy (R)	.738			.684
My line manager asks me for suggestions before making decisions		.900		.840
Before making decisions, my line manager gives serious consideration to what his subordinates have to say		.879		.855
Before taking action, my line manager gives serious consideration to what his subordinated have to say		.860		.823
My line manager asks me for suggestions concerning how to carry out strategy implementation		.733		.551
I feel that suggestions on how to solve problems wouldn't produce much real change				.744
I don't think that plans for future improvement will amount to much				.729
I believe that most of the programmes that are supposed to solve problems in the firm do not do much good				.778
I think that attempts to make things better in the firm will produce good results				.639
Information concerning strategy implementation becomes available well in time			.884	.848
I find that information is freely available for strategy implementation			.788	.844
Information relating to strategy implementation is accurate			.769	.735
<i>Eigen values</i>	6.513	2.388	1.262	
<i>% of variance explained (77.225)</i>	43.418	15.918	8.415	

Factor 1: Support (SUPFACIL)

The factor was composed of four variables that each loaded heavily onto a vector generating an *eigen* value of 6.51 and explaining 43% of variance. The variables were: *I feel this strategy is strongly supported by senior management; Senior management doesn't seem to care much about this strategy (r); It is clear that senior management want this strategy to be a success; I don't feel that senior management places a great deal of significance on this strategy (r).*

The measures reflect the support given to product-market strategy implementation and are derived from the work of Noble and Mokwa, (1999). To reflect the use of these measures from this earlier work, the factor was labelled support (SUPFACIL).

Factor 2: Participation (PARTICIP)

The second factor comprised four variables each loading heavily onto a vector generating an *eigen* value of 2.38 and explaining 15% of variance. The variables used to denote participation in product-market strategy implementation included: *My line manager asks me for suggestions before making decisions; Before making decisions, my line manager gives serious consideration to what his subordinates have to say; My line manager asks me for suggestions concerning how to carry out strategy implementation.*

The measures align closely with those measured used by Teas, (1981) and as such were labelled participation (PARTICIP).

Factor 4: Information Availability (INFOAVAIL)

The final factor included three variables that loaded heavily onto the factor generating an *eigen* value of 1.26 and explaining 8.4% of variance. The variables were:

Information regarding strategy implementation becomes available well in time; I find that information is freely available for strategy implementation; Information relating to strategy implementation is accurate.

The measures have been used in the literature to gauge the availability, accuracy and timeliness of information for strategy implementation and were derived from the work of Miller, (1997) and Piercy, (1989b). It was deemed appropriate to maintain the theme and label the measures information availability (INFOAVAIL).

The PCA procedure was performed on the data and a four factor solution extracted. The factor structure satisfied the statistical and conceptual criteria for selection and the four factors were accepted and subsequently used in tests for scale reliability and validation.

6.5.2 Factor structure: Strategy Formulation Effectiveness

The PCA of strategy formulation effectiveness can be found in Table 6.7. The configuration presented in table 6.7 indicates that only one factor was extracted with an *eigen* value of 5.62 and explaining 70% of variance. Since only a single factor was extracted, no rotation of the data matrix was possible. The identification and labelling of the factor is discussed below.

Table 6.7: Principal Components Analysis of Strategy Formulation Effectiveness Measures

	Factor Loading †	Communality
Strategy Formulation Effectiveness:	STRATFORM	
	Strategy	
	Formulation	
	Effectiveness	
When we formulate a strategy it is planned in detail	.875	.766
Our strategy is made explicit in the form of precise plans	.861	.742
We have well defined planning procedures to search for solutions to strategic problems	.859	.738
We have precise procedures for achieving strategic objectives	.845	.714
We evaluate potential strategic options against explicit strategic objectives	.836	.699
We meticulously assess many alternatives against explicit strategic objectives	.828	.686
We make strategic decisions based on a systematic analysis of our business environment	.805	.648
We have definite and precise strategic objectives	.795	.633
<i>Eigen values</i>	5.626	
<i>% of variance explained (70.326)</i>	70.326	
† Principal components analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation		

Factor 1: Strategy Formulation Effectiveness (STRATFORM)

The factor comprised eight variables pertaining to the effective formulation of strategy within the organization. The variables were: *When we formulate a strategy it is planned in detail; Our strategy is made explicit in the form of precise plans; We have well defined planning procedures to search for solutions to strategic problems; We have precise procedures for achieving strategic objectives; We evaluate potential strategic options against explicit strategic objectives; We meticulously assess many alternatives against explicit strategic objectives; We make strategic decisions based on a systematic analysis of our business environment; We have definitive and precise strategic objectives.*

These variables have been used in extant literature and were drawn primarily from the work of Bailey *et al.* (2000). As such the label given to the variables is Strategy Formulation Effectiveness (STRATFORM).

The factor structure satisfied the statistical and conceptual criteria for selection and the factor was accepted and subsequently used in tests for scale reliability and validation.

6.5.3 Factor Structure: Organizational Relationships

The PCA of organizational relationship measures can be found in Table 6.8. The configuration of the factors presented in the Table indicates that the first three factors were found to explain 69% of total variance converging in 5 iterations. The identification and labelling of these factors is discussed below.

Table 6.8: Principal Components Analysis of Organisational Relationship Measures

	Factor Loading †			Communality
	SUPSUBREL Superior-Subordinate relationship	STRATCOM Strategy Commitment	FIRMRELS Firm relationships	
Organisational relationships:				
My superiors act favourably on most of my suggestions	.865			.823
My word carries weight with my superiors	.813			.705
I always get along with my superiors	.755			.636
I get what I ask for from my superiors	.730			.606
I thought the strategy was a great idea		.866		.777
I cant say I support the strategy (R)		.830		.753
I don't think this strategy was in the best interest of the firm (R)		.819		.699
I personally feel the goals of the strategy are appropriate		.729		.541
I could easily become attached to another firm as I am to this one (R)			.757	.578
I really feel that this firms problems are my own			.742	.700
The firm has a great deal of personal meaning for me			.740	.760
I do not feel "part of the family" at my firm (R)			.575	.534
<i>Eigen values</i>	4.689	2.230	1.193	
<i>% of variance explained (67.595)</i>	39.075	18.580	9.940	

† Principal components analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation converging in 5 iterations

Factor 1: Superior-Subordinate Relationships (SUPSUBREL)

The first factor included four variables that loaded heavily onto a vector and generated an *eigen* value of 4.68, explaining 39% of variance. Variables used were: *My superiors act favourably on most of my suggestions; My word carries weight with my superiors; I always get along with my superiors; I get what I ask for from my superiors.*

The four variables in the factor reflect the level of upward-influencing behaviour between subordinates and superiors and drawn from the work of Kohli, (1985). It was deemed appropriate to label the factor superior-subordinate relationships (SUPSUBREL).

Factor 2: Strategy Commitment (STRATCOM)

The second factor comprised four variables all loading heavily onto a vector with an *eigen* value of 2.23 and explaining 18% of variance. Variables used to capture strategy commitment were: *I thought the strategy was a great idea; I can't say I support the strategy; I don't think this strategy was in the best interests of the firm; I personally feel the goals of the strategy are appropriate.*

These variables have been used in extant literature by Noble and Mokwa, (1999) to express strategy commitment and as such the label was maintained as strategy commitment (STRATCOM).

Factor 3: Firm Relationships (FIRMRELS)

The third factor included four variables loading fairly heavily onto a vector with an *eigen* value of 1.19 and explaining 9.9% of variance. The variables used were: *I could easily become attached to another firm as I am to this one; I really feel that this firms problems are my own; the firm has a great deal of meaning for me; I do not feel "part of the family" at my firm.*

The measures have been used in extant literature to denote organizational attachment via affective commitment (Meyer *et al.*, 1993). However, it was deemed appropriate for this study to label the factors as firm relationships (FIRMRELS) to denote respondent's relationship with their firm.

This section aimed to illustrate the findings of data reduction using PCA applied to data generated from organizational relationship measures. A three factor solution was extracted and the three structures satisfied the statistical and conceptual criteria for selection. Consequently the three factors; superior-subordinate relationships; strategy commitment and firm relationships were accepted and subsequently used in tests for scale reliability and validation.

6.6 Principal Components Analysis of Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour Measures

6.6.1 Factor Structure: Self-interest Measure

The principal components analysis of the self-interest measures can be found in Table 6.9. The configuration presented indicates that only one factor with an *eigen* value of 4.18 was found to explain 59%. Since only a single factor was extracted no rotation of the data matrix was possible. The identification and labelling of the factor is discussed below.

Table 6:9 Principal Components Analysis of Self Interest Measures

	Factor Loading †	Communality
	SELFINT Self Interested Behaviour	
Self-Interest		
Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well established ideas	.652	.425
There is no room for "yes" people around here; good ideas are desired even if it means disagreeing with supervisors	.756	.572
It is best not to rock the boat in this firm	.818	.669
Sometimes it is easier to remain quiet than to fight the system	.878	.771
Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth	.777	.604
It is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind	.746	.557
	.766	.587
Eigen values	4.185	
% of variance explained (59.791)	59.791	

† Principal components analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation

Factor 1: Self- Interest (SELFINT)

This factor included seven variables loading heavily onto a vector with an *eigen* value of 4.18 and explaining 59% of variance. The variables used were: *Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly when they are critical of well established ideas; There is no room for “yes people” around here-good ideas are desired even if it means disagreeing with supervisors; It is best not to “rock the boat in this firm”; Sometimes it is easier to remain quiet than to fight the system; Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth; It is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind.*

The variables have been used in extant literature of organizational politics (Kacmar and Carlson, 1997; Kacmar and Ferris, 1989). It is contended that these variables reflect self-interested behaviour in product-market strategy implementation and that an appropriate label was self-interest (SELFINT).

6.6.2 Factor Structure: Citizenship Behaviour Measures

The PCA of citizenship behaviour measures can be found in Table 6.10. The configuration presented in the table indicates that five factors were found to explain 69% of total variance converging in 6 iterations. The identification and labelling of the factor is discussed below.

Table 6:10 Principal Components Analysis of Citizenship Behaviour Measures

Citizenship Behaviour	Factor Loading †					Communality
	EFF_CIT Efficiency Citizenship	COMPLCIT Compliance	ALEG_CIT Allegiance Citizenship	LOY_CIT Loyalty Citizenship	EXROL_CIT Extra-role Citizenship	
I rarely waste time whilst at work	.858					.753
I produce as much as I am capable of at all times	.810					.738
I sometimes waste firm resources (R)	.679					.521
I accept and fully implement senior management's final strategic decisions even if they are not parallel with the strategic interest of my individual unit.		.868				.760
I follow the final strategic decisions made by my head office with extreme care		.814				.712
Overall my actions taken since the last annual planning process have been fully consistent with executing the strategic decisions to the letter and spirit with which they were set forth		.637				.524
I keep myself informed about products and services and tell others			.773			.664
I represent the firm favourably to outsiders			.770			.671
I actively promote the firms products and services			.750			.684
I wouldn't urge fellow employees to invest money in the firm (R)				.777		.629
I do not tell outsiders that this is a good place to work (R)				.748		.650
I don't defend the firm when employees criticize it (R)				.715		.680
I avoid extra duties and responsibilities at work (R)					.909	.883
I do not work beyond what is required (R)					.887	.864
Eigen values	3.823	1.985	1.625	1.259	1.043	
% of variance explained (69.526)	27.304	14.177	11.609	8.989	7.447	

† Principal components analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation converging in 6 iterations

Factor 1: Efficiency citizenship (EFF_CIT)

Three variables form this factor which exhibits an *eigen* value of 3.82 whilst explaining 27% of variance. All variables load fairly strongly onto the factor. The variables that formed this factor were: *I rarely waste my time whilst at work; I produce as much as I am capable of at all times; I sometimes waste firm resources.*

These variables have been used in extant literature as elements of obedience (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). In this study they are used to denote efficient within-role and extra-role performance and as such have been given the label efficiency citizenship (EFF_CIT).

Factor 2: Compliance (COMPLCIT)

The second factor included three variables exhibiting an *eigen* value of 1.98 and explaining 14. % of variance. All variables load strongly onto this factor. The variables used were: *I accept and fully implement senior management's final strategic decisions even if the are not parallel with the strategic interest of my individual unit; I follow the final strategic decisions made by my head office with extreme care; Overall my actions taken since the last annual planning process have been fully consistent with executing the strategic decisions to the letter and spirit with which they were set forth.*

These variables align themselves very well with factors provided by Kim and Mauborgne, (1993) and as such it was deemed appropriate to employ the label compliance (COMPLCIT).

Factor 3: Allegiance Citizenship (ALEG_CIT)

The third factor included three variables exhibiting an *eigen* value of 1.62 and explaining 11.6% of variance. All variables loaded strongly onto this factor. The variables used were: *I keep myself informed about products and services and tell*

others; I represent the firm favourable to outsiders; I actively promote the firm as products and services.

These variables have been used in extant literature as elements of loyalty (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). In this study the three variables loaded strongly together and are used to denote allegiance to the firm. As such, they have been given the label allegiance citizenship (ALEG_CIT).

Factor 4: Loyalty Citizenship (LOY_CIT)

The fourth factor included three variables exhibiting an *eigen* value of 1.25 and explaining 8.9% of variance. All variables loaded strongly onto this factor. The variables used were: *I wouldn't urge fellow employees to invest money in the firm; I do not tell outsiders that this is a good place to work; I don't defend the firm when employees criticize it.*

These variables have also been used in extant literature as elements of loyalty (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). In this study the three measures loaded strongly together and used to denote loyalty to the firm and as such have been given the label loyalty citizenship (LOY_CIT).

Factor 5: Extra-Role Citizenship (EXROL_CIT)

The final factor included two variables exhibiting an *eigen* value of 1.04 and explaining 7.4% of variance. The two variables loaded very strongly onto this factor. The variables used were: *I avoid extra duties and responsibilities at work; I do not work beyond what is required.*

Once again, these variables have been used in extant literature as elements of loyalty (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). In this study the three measures loaded strongly together and reflect performing beyond what is required in the individuals' prescribed

role. As such the variables have been given the label extra-role citizenship (EXROL_CIT).

This section aimed to illustrate the findings of data reduction applied to empirical data generated from product-market strategy implementation behaviour factors. The PCA was employed and a five factor solution extracted. This solution was coherent in structure, conceptually interpretable, explained a high variance and did not suffer any major problems due to split loadings. The derived factors were accepted and used in subsequent tests for scale reliability and validation.

6.7 Principal Components Analysis of Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness Measures

6.7.1 Factor Structure: Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

PCA revealed a one factor solution of eight variables with an *eigen* value of 5.43 and explaining 67.8% of total variance. As only a single factor was extracted no rotation of the data matrix was possible. The PCA of the measure can be found in Table 6.11. The identification and labelling of the factor is discussed below.

Table 6:11 Principal Components Analysis of Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness Measures

	Factor Loading †	Communality
Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness	IMPEFF	
This strategy is an example of effective strategy implementation	.894	.799
The implementation effort of this strategy is generally considered a success in this firm	.895	.800
I personally think the implementation of this strategy is a success	.897	.805
The implementation of the strategy is considered a success in my area	.843	.710
The right kind of resources are allocated to strategy implementation efforts	.808	
Adequate resources are allocated to strategy implementation efforts	.799	.653
We effectively execute the actions detailed in the plan	.605	.639
Overall our strategy is being effectively executed	.811	.366
		.657
<i>Eigen values</i>	5.430	
<i>% of variance explained (67.876)</i>	67.876	
† <i>Principal components analysis</i>		

Factor 1: Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness (IMPEFF)

The eight variables loaded strongly onto this factor and included measures to gauge allocation of resources as well as with subjective measures of internal effectiveness.

Measures were: *This strategy is an example of effective strategy implementation; The implementation effort of this strategy is generally considered a success in this firm; I personally think the implementation of this strategy is considered a success in my area; The right kind of resources are allocated to strategy implementation efforts; Adequate resources are allocated to strategy implementation efforts; We effectively execute actions detailed in the plan; Overall our strategy is being effectively executed.*

There is a conceptual association among the items of internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness which align themselves with factors provided by Miller *et al.* (2004); Noble and Mokwa, (1999) and Menon *et al.* (1999). Consequently, in order to be consistent with previous evidence, Factor 1 is labelled Internal Product-Market Implementation Effectiveness (IMPEFF).

This eight factor solution was coherent in structure, conceptually interpretable, explained a high variance. The derived factors were accepted and used in subsequent tests for scale reliability and validation.

6.8 Principal Components Analysis of External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness Measures

6.8.1 Factor structure: External Product-market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

PCA revealed a one factor solution of three variables with an *eigen* value of 2.17 and explaining 72% of total variance for product-market implementation effectiveness. As only a single factor was extracted no rotation of the data matrix was possible. The PCA of the measure can be found in Table 6.12. The identification and labelling of the factor is discussed below.

Table 6:12 Principal Components Analysis of External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness Measures

	Factor Loading †	Communality
External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness	STRATEFF	
Customers are not responding to this strategy as we expected (R)	.898	.740
The strategy is not meeting its targets (R)	.860	.807
The strategy is delivering its objectives	.790	.625
<i>Eigen values</i>	2.172	
<i>% of variance explained (72.391)</i>	72.391	

† *Principal components analysis*

Factor 1: External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness (STRATEFF)

The three variables loaded strongly onto this factor and included measures to gauge customer response to the strategy and whether the strategy was meeting its objectives.

Measures were: *Customers are not responding to this strategy as we expected (r)*; *The strategy is not meeting its targets (r)*; *The strategy is delivering its objectives.*

These measures were drawn from the work of (Menon *et al.*, 1999) and reflect measures of external strategy implementation effectiveness. The measures were labelled (STRATEFF), to reflect external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. This three factor solution was coherent in structure, conceptually interpretable, explained a high variance. As a consequence, the derived factors were accepted and used in subsequent tests for scale reliability and validation

6.9 Summary of Principal Components Analysis Results

PCA was employed on the data generated from the constructs of the conceptual model.

As has been already discussed, once the dimensions or factors are determined, data reduction can be achieved (Hair *et al.*, 1998). PCAs produced 23 factors from 109 variables. Table 6.13 presents a summary of PCA factors attributable to each construct. All factors presented in Table 6.13 satisfied the statistical and conceptual criteria for acceptance and inclusion in subsequent analysis for this study.

Table 6:13 Summary of Principal Components Analysis Factors Attributable to Each Construct

Construct/Factor Label	Eigen value	Percentage of Variance Explained
<i>Product-Market Strategy Implementation Performance</i>		
STRATEFF External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness	2.172	72.391
<i>Product -Market Strategy Implementation Performance</i>		
IMPEFF Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness	5.430	67.876
<i>Counterproductive Work Behaviour</i>		
SELFINT Self-interested Behaviour	4.185	59.791
<i>Citizenship Behaviour</i>		
EFF_CIT Efficiency Citizenship	3.82	27.304
COMPLCIT Compliance Citizenship	1.985	14.177
ALEG_CIT Allegiance Citizenship	1.625	11.609
OY_CIT Loyalty Citizenship	1.259	8.989
EXROL_CIT Extra -role Citizenship	1.043	7.447
<i>Role Factors</i>		
ROLEAUT Role Autonomy		
TASKID Task Identity	6.499	43.326
ROLESIG Role significance	1.859	12.390
JOBVAR Job Variety	1.569	10.460
<i>Controls</i>		
OUTPCNTRL Output Control	6.640	44.268
PROFCNTRL Professional Control	2.820	18.798
PRCSCNTRL Process Control	1.525	10.167
<i>Rewards</i>		
OUTRWD Output Rewards	3.936	49.197
PRSRWD Process Rewards	1.648	20.601
<i>Procedural Justice</i>		
PROCJUST Procedural Justice	5.420	67.746
<i>Implementation Facilitation</i>		
SUPFACIL Support	6.513	43.418
PARTICIP Participation	2.388	15.918
INFOAVAIL Information Availability	1.262	8.415
<i>Strategy Formulation Effectiveness</i>		
STRATFORM Strategy Formulation Effectiveness	5.626	70.326
<i>Organizational Relationships</i>		
SUPSUBREL Superior-Subordinate relationship	4.689	39.075
STRATCOM Strategy Commitment	2.230	18.580
FIRMRELS Firm Relationships	1.193	9.940

6.10 Construction of Scale Indices from Extracted Factors

Factor scales were created by the SPSS® (version 12.0.1) statistical package. The variables that were to form each scale were selected i.e. all those with loadings above $\pm .35$ and raw scores summated on each of the selected variables to obtain a scale score. In SPSS® (version 12.0.1) statistical package, the `compute` function, a sub-function in the transform menu was used for this procedure. This allows for the transformation of variables that form the factor through summing and dividing by the number of variables in the equation. An average is obtained which then acts as the replacement variable (De Vaus, 2002). This resultant variable was then labelled to form an additional column on the SPSS® data table. Table 6.14 provides the basis for scale reliability and validation as discussed in Chapter Four. A summary is provided in the following section.

Table 6.14: MULTI ITEM SCALE RELIABILITY & VALIDATION STATISTICS

Number of Scale Items		Cronbach Alpha	* Item Total Correlation								
SCALE	ITEMS		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
EFF CIT	3	.73	.834	.809	.792						
COMPLCIT	3	.74	.84	.825	.771						
ALLEG CIT	3	.68	.824	.72	.821						
LOY CIT	3	.69	.812	.82	.736						
EXROL CIT	2	.88	.947	.939							
ROLAUT	4	.92	.869	.93	.934	.885					
TASKID	4	.88	.884	.883	.839	.859					
ROLSIG	4	.83	.736	.874	.805	.845					
JOBVAR	3	.76	.812	.834	.831						
OUTPCNTRL	6	.90	.830	.879	.756	.855	.846	.741			
PRFCNTRL	6	.91	.864	.882	.868	.816	.866	.712			
PRCSCTRL	3	.9	.904	.93	.895						
OUTRWD	4	.85	.798	.797	.878	.857					
PRSRWD	4	.84	.846	.891	.751	.799					
PROCJUST	8	.93	.829	.815	.856	.709	.790	.870	.889	.813	
SUPFACIL	4	.91	.829	.886	.927	.909					
PARTICIP	4	.9	.733	.913	.926	.906					
STRATFORM	8	.94	.862	.876	.846	.860	.826	.832	.795	.808	
INFOAVAIL	3	.87	.733	.913	.926	.906					
STRATCOM	4	.84	.840	.871	.851	.740					
SUPSUBREL	4	.85	.782	.822	.896	.821					
FIRMRELS	4	.76	.856	.821	.640	.747					
SELFINT	7	.886	.666	.759	.811	.869	.776	.749	.766		
IMPEFF	8	.930	.883	.882	.884	.828	.828	.818	.623	.808	
STRATEFF	3	.808	.856	.896	.797						

6.10.1 Scale Reliability and Validity

For this thesis Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was used as the reliability coefficient.

Conceptually, reliability is defined as the degree to which measures are free from error and therefore likely to yield consistent results (Peterson, 1994). Peterson, (1994) highlights that Nunnally's, (1967) recommendations for a minimally acceptable reliability for preliminary research was 0.5 to 0.6, and increased to 0.7 in 1978. Developed by Cronbach in 1951, this is a general measure of the internal consistency of a multi-item scale and applies to any set of items, regardless of the response scale (Peterson, 1994). For this research, Nunnally's, (1967) minimally acceptable level of reliability with an alpha coefficient of 0.50 or greater was adopted. The SPSS® (version 12.0.1) statistical package provided the complete analysis of item specific and overall reliability measures. It was then possible to validate the scale.

Validity is the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concept of interest (Hair *et al.*, 1998; Didow and Franke, 1984). Convergent validity assesses the degree to which two measures of the same concept are correlated. If high correlations are obtained, this indicates that the scale is measuring what is intended (Hair *et al.*, 1998). Only correlations that were in the anticipated direction and high were accepted. As each correlation coefficient has its own linked measure of statistical inference, it was important to check for statistical significance (De Vaus, 2002). The significance explains whether the relationship is likely to be due to chance or whether it is likely to hold in the population from which the sample was drawn. Tests of significance produce a *p* value (probability) value between 0-1. A precondition for acceptance was that each item total correlation was highly statistically significant (at or below 0.05).

6.11 Concluding remarks

This Chapter has identified a series of variables with common characteristics among the measures for job characteristics, controls, rewards, procedural justice, implementation facilitation, strategy formulation effectiveness, organizational relationships, self-interest, citizenship behaviour, product-market strategy implementation efficiency and product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. A summary of all factors derived from these constructs was presented in section 6.13. It was found that all factors satisfied the statistical criteria associated with their scale reliability and validation. Consequently, indices were constructed to represent these factor scales in the subsequent statistical analyses of correlation and regression. The following Chapter discusses these findings.

Chapter Seven

Empirical Results III- Hypothesis Testing, Interpretation of Results and Discussion

7.1 Introduction

A detailed discussion of the process of identifying the dimensionality of the constructs contained within the conceptual framework and the process of scale construction has been provided in Chapter 6. Correlation analysis of the variables for each construct was conducted to identify the existence of the underlying factors within each construct prior to scale construction. This allowed for the enhancement of the conceptual framework and hypotheses presented in Chapter Three. Common factors were uncovered within many of the constructs which enabled the use of principal components analysis (PCA) for the purpose of data reduction thus enabling a more precise understanding of the nature of the factors underlying each construct. Following scale construction, the original hypotheses were expanded upon and a summary of these was presented in section 6.9 (Table 6.13). The resultant model of the antecedents and consequences of MLMMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour can be found in section 7.3.

This Chapter aims to examine, assess and test the hypothesized relationships contained within the conceptual model in order to determine the relationships between the antecedents and performance outcomes of MLMMs' implementation behaviour. The results of correlation analyses and multiple linear regression analyses performed on the data will be evaluated to this end.

The Chapter commences with a discussion of the determination of hypothesis support. This is followed by hypothesis testing for each hypothesis and an analysis of the results from this. The results are then interpreted to ascertain key findings and observations.

7.2 Determining Hypothesis Support

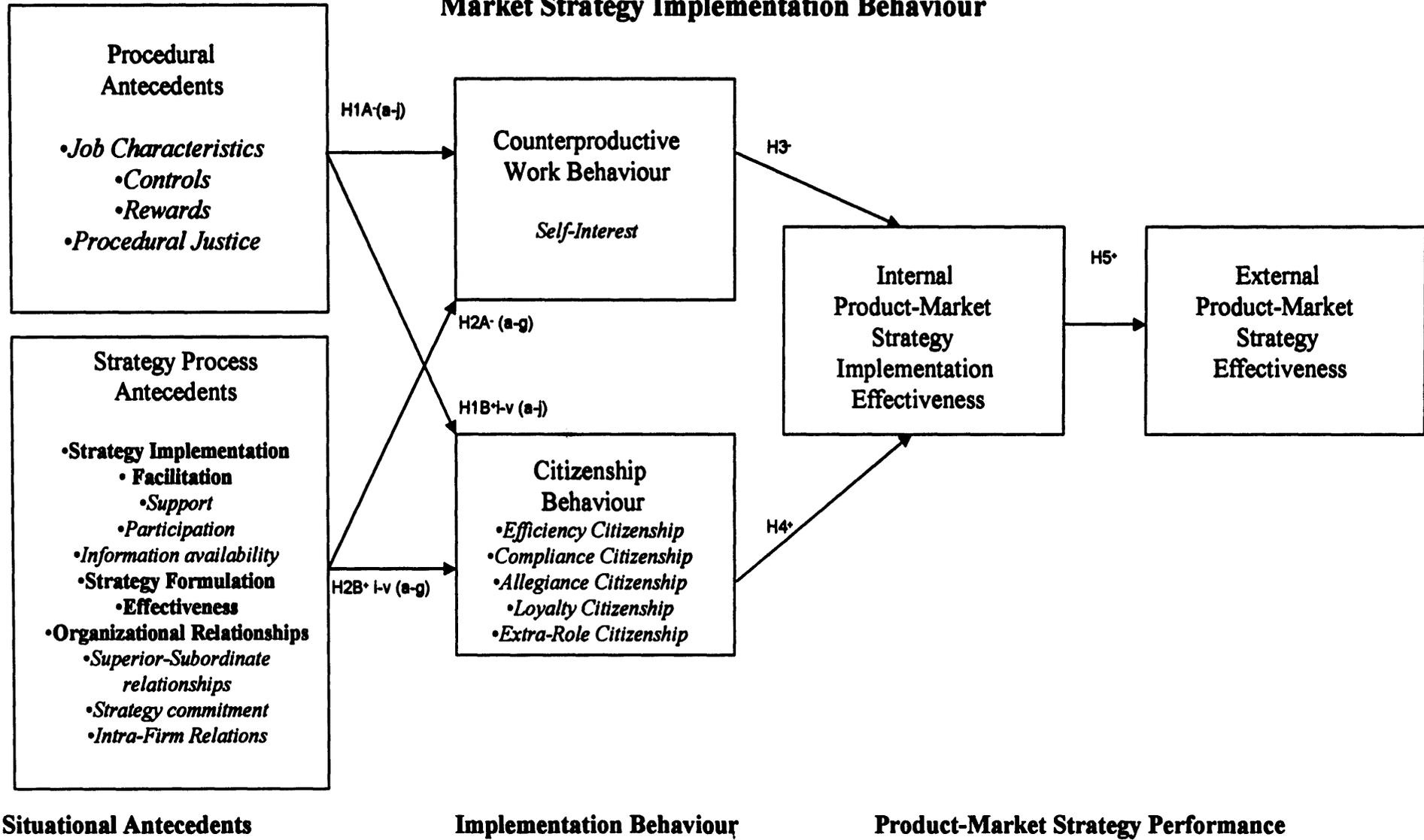
Pearsons' r bivariate Correlation Coefficient is used to examine each variable. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient is the most widely used statistic to determine the strength of

association between two variables (Malhotra and Birks, 2000) and is robust in so far as it can be used with interval data (De Vaus, 2002). Hypothesis testing is supplemented by multiple linear regression analysis. However, the determination as to whether the hypothesis is supported is made on the basis of the Pearson's r Correlation Coefficient results.

7.3 Conceptual Framework of Antecedents and Outcomes of MLMMs' Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour Derived Through Scale Construction and the Construct Dimensionality Process.

The resultant model of factors associated with MLMMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour and outcomes of this behaviour is presented in Figure 7.1

Figure 7.1: A Revised Conceptual Model of Antecedents and Outcomes of Mid-Level Marketing Manager's Product – Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour



7.4 Hypothesis Testing: Relationships between Procedural Antecedents and Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour

The broader H1 hypothesis of the relationship between procedural antecedents and product-market strategy implementation behaviour was conceived in Chapter Three as follows:

H^{1A} Procedural antecedents are inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour

H^{1B} Procedural antecedents are positively associated with citizenship behaviour

The literature review in Chapter Three presented a number of procedural factors that provided support for this hypothesis.

7.4.1 Hypotheses ^{1A} (a-j): The Relationship between Procedural Antecedents and Counterproductive Work Behaviour

The original hypothesis of the relationship between procedural antecedents and CWB contains ten components. The components are as follows:

H^{1A} (a-j): Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job Variety (c), Role significance (d), Professional control (e), Process control (f), Output control (g), Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i) and Procedural justice (j) are inversely related to self-interested behaviour.

7.4.1.1 Hypothesis H^{1A}: Examination of Regression Model Significance

The model significance statistics for the regression model of each hypothesis H1 A component is displayed at the bottom of Table 7.1. To explore the relationship between a set of independent variables (procedural antecedents), and the dependent variable (self-interest) through multiple regression, a relative measure of 'fit' is required for the equation. In linear regression the coefficient of determination is calculated (R^2) to provide the model "fit". The coefficient of determination (R^2) is a measure of the proportion of the variance of the dependent variable about its mean explained by the independent variables (De Vaus, 2002; Hair *et al.*, 1998). If the ratio of explained variance is high the regression variance must be of significant value in explaining the dependent variable i.e. if R^2 is

greater than zero. Consequently, the model is statistically significant, explaining that an additional independent variable was substantial in adding to the predicative ability of the regression model (De Vaus, 2002). As it is also important to guard against over-fitting the data, R^2 needs to be adjusted. Since R^2 is influenced by the number of independent variables relative to the size of the sample, this may lead to an over estimation in the impact of additional independent variables (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

Table 7.1 reports both R^2 and the Adjusted R^2 values and in model 1 these are above zero. It can be concluded that the regression equation for the regression model for hypothesis H^{1A} displays sufficient explanatory power and predicts changes in the dependent variable.

Table 7.1: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Procedural Antecedents and Self-interest

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 1</i>	<i>Self-interest</i>	<i>Procedural Antecedents</i>	<i>H1A (a-j)</i>						
Model 1	SELFINT	ROLEAUT	H1A (a) ⁽⁻⁾	3.466 (1.244)	-.256*	-.156	-.156	-1.786†	1.732
		TASKID	H1A (b) ⁽⁻⁾	2.681 (1.161)	-.175*	.111	.104	1.217	1.662
		JOBVAR	H1A (c) ⁽⁻⁾	2.577 (.951)	-.151*	.107	.082	.979	1.602
		ROLESIG	H1A (d) ⁽⁻⁾	2.189 (.918)	-.167*	-.074	-.055	-.660	1.547
		OUTPCNTRL	H1A (e) ⁽⁻⁾	3.327 (1.339)	-.520**	-.307	-.332	-3.470**	2.070
		PROFCNTRL	H1A (f) ⁽⁻⁾	3.437(1.328)	-.572**	-.317	-.340	-3.738**	1.865
		PRCSCNTRL	H1A (g) ⁽⁻⁾	4.475 (1.449)	-.218**	-.060	.070	.827	1.618
		OUTRWD	H1A (h) ⁽⁻⁾	4.283 (1.346)	-.359**	-.016	-.017	-.207	1.593
		PRSRWD	H1A (i) ⁽⁻⁾	5.110 (1.095)	-.284**	.000	.000	.003	1.454
		PROCJUST	H1A (j) ⁽⁻⁾	3.374 (1.139)	-.579**	-.265	-.243	-2.769**	
		<i>Intercept</i>				7.493		14.297	
Model Statistics									
	<i>R</i> ²	<i>Adjusted R</i> ²	<i>F-value</i>						
<i>Model 1</i>	.517	.473	11.678**						
† $P \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$;									

Hypothesis H^{1A} (a-j)

H^{1A} (a-j): Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job Variety (c) , Role significance (d) Professional control (e), Process control (f) Output control (g) , Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i) and Procedural justice (j) are inversely related to self-interested behaviour.

With reference to Table 7.1, output control (g), professional control (e), process control (f), output rewards (h), process rewards (i) and procedural justice (j), exhibit strong and statistically significant correlation with the dependent variable of self-interest, with all variables exhibiting correlation values above 0.2. The correlation coefficients also indicate support for role autonomy (a), task identity (b), job variety (c) and role significance (d) with self-interest, although the significance is weaker.

When the variables are subjected to more rigorous scrutiny through multiple linear regression analysis, only output control (g), professional control (e) and procedural justice (j) display strong significant *t*-values of -3.470, -3.738 and -2.769 respectively. Some support is also displayed between role autonomy (a) with self-interest with a *t*-value of -1.786.

In summary therefore, H^{1A} components (a-j) are supported through correlation analysis and further, role autonomy (a), output control (g), professional control (f) and procedural justice (j) are supported under regression analysis.

7.4.2 Hypotheses ^{1B}: The Relationship between Procedural Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

The results of the PCA and scale construction procedures expanded the CB construct to include five types of CB. Consequently, as well as compliance citizenship and loyalty citizenship which find support in the literature (Dalal, 2005; Konovsky and Organ, 1996; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994) the expanded hypothesis includes efficiency citizenship, allegiance

citizenship and extra-role citizenship. Each of the components of H^{1B} is discussed separately below.

7.4.2.1 H^{1Bi} : The Relationship between Procedural Antecedents and Efficiency Citizenship

The hypothesis of the relationship between procedural antecedents and efficiency citizenship contains ten components. The components are as follows:

H^{1Bi} (a-j): Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job Variety (c), Role significance (d), Professional control (e) Process control (f), Output control (g), Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i) Procedural justice (j).

7.4.2.2 Hypothesis H^{1Bi} : Examination of Regression Model Significance

Table 7.2i reports both R^2 and the Adjusted R^2 values and in model 2i, these are above zero.

Thus it can be concluded that the regression equation for the regression model for hypothesis H^{1Bi} displays sufficient explanatory power and predicts changes in the dependent variable.

Table 7.2i: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Procedural Antecedents and Citizenship Behavior

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(*)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 2</i>	<i>Citizenship Behaviour</i>	<i>Procedural Antecedents</i>	<i>H1Bi(a-j)</i>						
Model 2.i	EFFCIT	ROLEAUT	H1Bi (a) ⁽⁺⁾	3.441 (1.250)	.161*	.005	.006	.050	1.758
		TASKID	H1Bi (b) ⁽⁺⁾	2.674 (1.155)	.214**	.082	.091	.830	1.655
		JOBVAR	H1Bi (c) ⁽⁺⁾	2.558 (.951)	.296**	.298	.270	2.510*	1.604
		ROLESIG	H1Bi (d) ⁽⁺⁾	2.174 (.913)	.082	-.156	-.136	-1.283	1.560
		PROFCNTRL	H1Bi (e) ⁽⁺⁾	3.455 (1.336)	.266**	.071	.090	.771	1.894
		PRCSCNTRL	H1Bi (f) ⁽⁺⁾	4.495 (1.451)	.057	-.042	-.058	-.533	1.643
		OUTPCNTRL	H1Bi (g) ⁽⁺⁾	3.337 (1.336)	.252**	.036	.090	.370	2.087
		OUTRWD	H1Bi (h) ⁽⁺⁾	4.304 (1.338)	.273**	.110	.140	1.310	1.576
		PRSRWD	H1Bi (i) ⁽⁺⁾	5.091 (1.090)	.193*	.080	.083	.824	1.402
		PROCJUST	H1Bi (j) ⁽⁺⁾	3.409 (1.153)	.210**	.066	.073	.648	1.744
		<i>Intercept</i>				.804		1.406	
Model Statistics									
	R²	Adjusted R²	F-value						
<i>Model 2 i</i>	.191	.119	2.643**						
† p ≤ .1; * p ≤ 0.05; ** p ≤ 0.01;									
EFFCIT: Efficiency citizenship; ROLEAUT: Role autonomy; TASKID: Task identity; JOBVAR: Job variety; ROLESIG: Role significance; OUTPCNTRL: Output control; PROFCNTRL: Professional Control; PRCSCONTRL: Process Control; OUTRWD: Output rewards; PRSRWD: Process Rewards; PROCJUST: Procedural Justice									

Hypothesis H^{1Bi} (a-j)

H^{1Bi} (a-j): Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job Variety (c), Role significance (d) Professional control (e), Process control (f), Output control (g), Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i) Procedural justice (j) are positively related to efficiency citizenship.

With reference to Table 7.2i, there is a strong positive significant correlation relationship at the 0.01 level, between a number of procedural antecedents and the dependent variable of efficiency citizenship. Notably, strong correlation is exhibited for the relationship between task identity (b), job variety (c), output control (g), professional control (e), output rewards (h) procedural justice (j) and efficiency citizenship. Correlation support is also exhibited at the 0.05 level between role autonomy (a) and process rewards (i) with efficiency citizenship. The correlation results show there to be no support however for role significance (d) and process control (f) with efficiency citizenship.

Upon regression analysis of these latter two variables, the results indicate negative relationships but no statistically significant relationship. Only one relationship is supported upon regression analysis and this is between job variety (c) and efficiency citizenship with a *t*-value of 2.510.

It can therefore be concluded that there is correlation support for a number of the hypothesized relationships in H^{1Bi}. Whilst there is even strong positive support for some of the relationships there is no support between role significance (d) and process controls (g) with efficiency citizenship. Overall mixed support is exhibited for H^{1Bi}.

7.4.2.3 H^{1Bii}: The Relationship between Procedural antecedents and Compliance Citizenship

The hypothesis of the relationship between procedural antecedents and efficiency citizenship contains ten components. These are as follows:

H1^{Bii} (a-j): Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job Variety (c) , Role significance (d), Output control (e) , Professional control (f), Process control (g) Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i) Procedural justice (j).

7.4.2.4 Hypothesis H^{1Bii}: Examination of Regression Model Significance

The correlation and multiple linear regression analysis results for the relationship between procedural antecedents and compliance citizenship are presented at the bottom of Table

7.2ii. The R^2 and Adjusted R^2 values for the model are both above zero at the 0.05 level.

Therefore, the regression equation for the model for H^{1B ii} displays exploratory power and predicts changes in the respective dependent variable.

Table 7.2ii: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Procedural Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 2</i>	<i>Citizenship Behaviour</i>	<i>Procedural Antecedents</i>	<i>H1Bii (a-j)</i>						
Model 2.ii	COMPLCIT	ROLEAUT	H1Bii (a) ⁽⁺⁾	3.426(1.266)	.255*	.066	.090	.735	1.759
		TASKID	H1Bii (b) ⁽⁺⁾	2.653 (1.150)	.191*	.050	.097	.520	1.677
		JOBVAR	H1Bii (c) ⁽⁺⁾	2.568 (.953)	.228**	.228	.115	1.991*	1.613
		ROLESIG	H1Bii (d) ⁽⁺⁾	2.155 (.911)	.073	-.146	.118	-1.234	1.560
		PROFCNTRL	H1Bii (e) ⁽⁺⁾	3.44 (1.321)	.267**	.051	.090	.566	1.904
		PRCSCNTRL	H1Bii (f) ⁽⁺⁾	4.448 (1.444)	.076	.040	.076	.534	1.617
		OUTPCNTRL	H1Bii (g) ⁽⁺⁾	3.301 (1.322)	.147 †	-.070	.092	-.763	2.018
		L							
		OUTRWD	H1Bii (h) ⁽⁺⁾	4.294 (1.325)	.147 †	.019	.081	.234	1.544
		PRSRWD	H1Bii (i) ⁽⁺⁾	5.075 (1.089)	.152†	.056	.093	.603	1.372
		PROCJUST	H1Bii (j) ⁽⁺⁾	3.380 (1.146)	.308**	.202	.098	2.060*	1.712
		<i>Intercept</i>				.950		1.722 †	
Model Statistics									
	R²	Adjusted R²	F-value						
<i>Model 2 ii</i>	.165	.087	2.131*						

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† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$

COMPLCIT: Compliance citizenship; ROLEAUT: Role autonomy; TASKID: Task identity; JOBVAR: Job variety; ROLESIG: Role significance; OUTPCNTRL: Output control; PROFCNTRL: Professional Control; PRCSCONTRL: Process Control; OUTRWD: Output rewards; PRSRWD: Process Rewards; PROCJUST: Procedural Justice

Hypothesis H^{1Bii} (a-j)

H1^{Bii}: Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job Variety (c) , Role significance (d), Professional control (e), Process control (f) Output control (g), Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i) Procedural justice (j) are positively related to compliance citizenship.

Table 7.2ii exhibits strong positive significant correlation between the independent variables of job variety (c), professional control (e) and procedural justice (j) with correlation values above 0 .25. Job variety (c) and procedural justice (j) display statistically significant *t*-values of 1.991 and 2.060 respectively. As hypothesized, these results indicate that both job variety and procedural justice positively influence compliance citizenship. However, for professional control (e) with compliance citizenship, there is no relationship under regression analysis.

There is positive significant correlation between task identity (b) with compliance citizenship at the .05 level and also significant correlation between output control (g), output rewards (h) and process rewards (i) at the 0.1 level. However, upon more rigorous regression analysis there is no support for these relationships. Moreover, output control (g) exhibits a non significant negative relationship with compliance citizenship. The results exhibit no correlation between role significance (d) with compliance citizenship with a non significant negative *t*-value of -1.234.

Consequently, it is determined that components H^{1Bii} (a, b, c, e, g, h, i and j) are supported through correlation analysis and H^{1Bii} (c and j) are supported under regression analysis. There is no support for role significance (d), and process control (f) with the dependent variable.

7.4.2.5 The Relationship between Procedural Antecedents and Allegiance Citizenship

The hypothesis of the relationship between procedural antecedents and allegiance citizenship contains ten components. The components are as follows:

H^{1Biii}: (a-j): Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job Variety (c) , Role significance (d) Professional control (f), Process control (g) , Output control (e), Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i) Procedural justice (j).

7.4.2.6 Hypothesis H^{1Biii}: Examination of Regression Model Significance

The correlation and multiple linear regression analysis results for the relationship between procedural antecedents with allegiance citizenship are presented at the bottom of Table

7.2iii. The R^2 and Adjusted R^2 values for the model are both above zero at the 0.05 level.

Accordingly, the regression equation for the model for H^{1Biii} displays sufficient exploratory power and predicts changes in the respective dependent variable.

Table 7.2iii: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Procedural Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 2iii</i>	<i>Citizenship Behaviour</i>	<i>Procedural Antecedents</i>	<i>H1Biii (a-j)</i>						
286	ALEGCIT	ROLEAUT	H1Biii (a) ⁽⁺⁾	3.441 (1.250)	.117 †	-.081	-.128	-1.233	1.758
		TASKID	H1Biii (b) ⁽⁺⁾	2.674 (1.155)	.254**	.068	.099	.981	1.655
		JOBVAR	H1Biii (c) ⁽⁺⁾	2.558 (.951)	.397**	.399	.479	4.823**	1.604
		ROLESIG	H1Biii (d) ⁽⁺⁾	2.174 (.913)	.128 †	-.115	-.133	-1.357	1.560
		PROFCNTRL	H1Biii (e) ⁽⁺⁾	3.455 (1.329)	.358**	.115	.193	1.792 †	1.894
		PRCSCNTRL	H1Biii (f) ⁽⁺⁾	4.495 (1.451)	.049	.022	.041	.410	1.643
		OUTPCNTRL	H1Biii (g) ⁽⁺⁾	3.337 (1.336)	.066	-.156	-.262	-2.316*	2.087
		OUTRWD	H1Biii (h) ⁽⁺⁾	4.304 (1.338)	.091	.010	.016	.164	1.576
		PRSRWD	H1Biii (i) ⁽⁺⁾	5.091 (1.090)	.065	.027	.038	.407	1.402
		PROCJUST	H1Biii (j) ⁽⁺⁾	3.409 (1.153)	.280**	.175	.254	2.454*	1.744
			<i>Intercept</i>				.553		1.388
Model Statistics									
	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F-value						
<i>Model 2 iii</i>	.312	.251	5.083**						

† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$

ALEGCIT: Allegiance citizenship; ROLEAUT: Role autonomy; TASKID: Task identity; JOBVAR: Job variety; ROLESIG: Role significance; OUTPCNTRL: Output control; PROFCNTRL: Professional Control; PRCSCONTRL: Process Control; OUTRWD: Output rewards; PRSRWD: Process Rewards; PROCJUST: Procedural Justice

Hypothesis ^{H1Biii} (a-j)

H^{1Biii}: Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job Variety (c) , Role significance (d), Professional control (e), Process control (f) Output control (g) , Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i) Procedural justice (j) are positively related to allegiance citizenship.

With reference to Table 7.2iii, task identity (b), job variety(c), professional control (e) and procedural justice (j) exhibit strong and statistically significant correlation with the dependent variable of allegiance citizenship with all variables showing correlation values above .25. Further, job variety (c) displays the highest statistically significant *t*-value of 4.823 indicating that job variety strongly influences allegiance citizenship. Statistical significance upon regression analysis is also displayed in the relationship between professional control (e) and procedural justice (j) with allegiance citizenship, although this is weaker with *t*-values of 1.792 and 2.454 respectively. There is no regression support however between task identity with allegiance citizenship.

There is also positive association upon correlation analysis between role autonomy (a), and role significance (d) with allegiance citizenship at the 0.1 level. Upon linear regression analysis however, the relationship is non significant and negative. No significant correlation relationship or regression relationship is found between process control (f), output control (g), output rewards (h) and process rewards (i) with the dependent variable. Interestingly however, there is a significant negative regression relationship between output control (g) with allegiance citizenship.

It is concluded that H^{1Biii} (c, e and j) are strongly supported both through correlation analysis and regression analysis. It is also contended that H^{1Biii} (a, b, and d) are supported through correlation analysis, but there appears to be no support for H^{1Biii} (f-i).

7.4.2.7 The Relationship between Procedural Antecedents and Loyalty Citizenship

The hypothesis of the relationship between procedural antecedents and loyalty citizenship contains ten components. The components are as follows:

H^{1Biv} Loyalty Citizenship (a-j): Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job Variety (c), Role significance (d), Professional control (e), Process control (f) Output control (g), Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i) Procedural justice (j).

7.4.2.8 Hypothesis H^{1B iv}: Examination of Regression Model Significance

The correlation and multiple linear regression analysis results for the relationship between procedural antecedents and loyalty citizenship are presented at the bottom of Table 7.2iv.

The R^2 and Adjusted R^2 values for the model are both above zero at the 0.01 level. The regression equation for the model for H^{1Biv} therefore displays sufficient exploratory power and in turn predicts changes in the respective dependent variable.

Table 7.4iv Regression Model of the Relationship Between Strategy Process Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 2iv</i>	<i>Citizenship Behaviour</i>	<i>Strategy Process Antecedents</i>	<i>H2Biv (a-g)</i>						
Model 4.iv	LOYCIT	SUPFACIL	H2Biv (a) ^(†)	2.649 (1.189)	.473**	.225	.218	2.192*	2.858
		PARTICIP	H2Biv (b) ^(†)	2.867 (1.260)	.385**	.075	.078	.766	1.949
		INFOAVAIL	H2Biv (c) ^(†)	4.054 (1.226)	.296**	-.196	-.203	-2.055*	1.832
		STRATFORM	H2Biv (d) ^(†)	3.760 (1.245)	.399**	.069	.071	.740	1.755
		SUPSUBREL	H2Biv (e) ^(†)	2.945 (.978)	.430**	.167	.144	1.234	2.552
		STRATCOM	H2Biv (f) ^(†)	2.771 (1.176)	.355**	.269	.255	2.976**	1.382
		FIRMRELS	H2Biv (g) ^(†)	3.452 (1.225)	.534**	.306	.310	3.325**	1.637
		<i>Intercept</i>				.337		.947	
Model Statistics									
	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F-value						
<i>Model 4iv</i>	.448	.411	12.062**						
† p ≤ .1; * p ≤ 0.05; ** p ≤ 0.01									
LOYCIT: Loyalty Citizenship; SUPFACIL: Support; PARTICIP: Participation; INFOAVAIL: Info availability; STRATFORM: Strategy Formulation Effectiveness; SUPSUBRELS: Superior-Subordinate relationship; STRATCOM: Strategy Commitment; FIRMRELS: Intra-firm relationship									

Hypothesis H^{1Biv} Loyalty Citizenship (a-j):

H^{1Biv}: Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job Variety (c) , Role significance (d), Professional control (e), Process control (f) Output control (g) , Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i) Procedural justice (j) are positively related to loyalty citizenship.

With reference to Table 7.2iv, it is observed that there is a strong significant correlation relationship between the procedural antecedents of professional control (e), process control (f), output control (g), output rewards (h) and procedural justice (j) with the dependent variable of loyalty citizenship. The independent variables of professional control (e) and procedural justice (j) display the strongest associations with correlation values of .417 and .400 respectively. Both these variables are statistically significant upon regression analysis with *t*-values of 2.203 and 2.119 respectively.

Only one further variable appears to be positively correlated with loyalty citizenship and this is process rewards (i), although the correlation is weaker at the 0.05 level of significance. Nonetheless, upon regression analysis, this variable shows no significant association with a negative *t*-value of -.012.

The results in Table 7.2iv indicate that there is neither correlation support nor regression support for the variables of role autonomy (a), task identity (b), job variety (c) and role significance (d) with loyalty citizenship, where regression analysis reveals non significant negative relationships.

It is concluded that H^{1Biv} (e and j) are strongly supported both through correlation analysis and regression analysis. It is also contended that H^{1Biv} (f, g, h and i) are supported through correlation analysis. There appears to be no support for H^{1Biv} (a-d).

7.4.2.9 The Relationship between Procedural Antecedents and Extra-Role Citizenship

The hypothesis of the relationship between procedural antecedents and extra-role citizenship contains ten components. The components are as follows:

H^{1Bv} (a-j): Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job Variety (c) , Role significance (d) Professional control (e), Process control (f) ,Output control (g) , Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i), Procedural justice (j).

7.4.2.10 Hypothesis H^{1Bv}: Examination of Regression Model Significance

The correlation and multiple linear regression analysis results for the relationship between procedural antecedents and extra-role citizenship are presented at the bottom of Table 7.2v. The R^2 and Adjusted R^2 values for the model indicate no exploratory power. Thus, it can be concluded that the regression equation for the model for H^{1Bv} is insufficient in explaining the relationships between the variables or in predicting any changes in the respective dependent variable.

Table 7.2v: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Procedural Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient t	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 2v</i>	<i>Citizenship Behaviour</i>	<i>Procedural Antecedents</i>	<i>H1Bv (a-j)</i>						
Model 2.v	EXROLCIT	ROLEAUT	H1Bv (a) ⁽⁺⁾	3.441 (1.250)	.093	.084	.085	.699	1.758
		TASKID	H1Bv (b) ⁽⁺⁾	2.674 (1.155)	-.001	-.125	-.116	-.982	1.655
		JOBVAR	H1Bv (c) ⁽⁺⁾	2.558 (.951)	.099	.071	.055	.469	1.604
		ROLESIG	H1Bv (d) ⁽⁺⁾	2.174 (.913)	.043	-.001	-.001	-.004**	1.560
		PROFCNTRL	H1Bv (e) ⁽⁺⁾	3.455 (1.329)	.095	.046	.049	.388	1.894
		PRCSNTRL	H1Bv (f) ⁽⁺⁾	4.495 (1.451)	.010	-.084	-.099	-.839	1.643
		OUTPCNTRL	H1Bv (g) ⁽⁺⁾	3.337 (1.336)	.180*	.200	.216	1.627	2.087
		OUTRWD	H1Bv (h) ⁽⁺⁾	4.304 (1.338)	.080	-.045	-.049	-.424	1.576
		PRSRWD	H1Bv (i) ⁽⁺⁾	5.091 (1.090)	.073	.017	.015	.136	1.402
		PROCJUST	H1Bv (j) ⁽⁺⁾	3.409 (1.153)	.114	.035	.032	.267	1.744
		<i>Intercept</i>				1.443		1.975†	
Model Statistics									
	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F-value						
<i>Model 2 v</i>	.057	-.027	.674						

† P ≤ .1; * p ≤ 0.05; **p ≤ 0.01;

EXROLCIT: Extra-role citizenship; ROLEAUT: Role autonomy; TASKID: Task identity; JOBVAR: Job variety; ROLESIG: Role significance; OUTPCNTRL: Output control; PROFCNTRL: Professional Control; PRCSNTRL: Process Control; OUTRWD: Output rewards; PRSRWD: Process Rewards; PROCJUST: Procedural Justice

Hypothesis H^{1Bv} Extra-role Citizenship (a-j):

H^{1Bv}: Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job Variety (c) , Role significance (d), Professional control (e), Process control (f) Output control (g) , Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i)and Procedural justice (j) are positively related to extra-role citizenship.

Table 7.2v displays the results for the relationship between procedural antecedents and the dependent variable of extra-role citizenship. It is exhibited that only one independent variable displays a positive correlation relationship. This is between output control (g) and extra-role citizenship with a correlation value of .180. However, the relationship is not supported upon more rigorous regression analysis.

Indeed contrary to the hypothesized positive relationships between all of the variables, the independent variable of task identity (b) shows a non significant negative relationship as well as a non significant negative regression relationship. Further, although there is a non significant positive correlation relationship between role significance (d) with extra-role citizenship, the results of regression analysis indicate a strong significant negative relationship at the 0.01 level.

In conclusion, H^{1Bv} is not supported through correlation analysis or regression analysis as originally hypothesised.

7.4.3 Hypothesis H^{1A}: Discussion of Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypothesis H^{1A} suggested that there would be an inverse relationship between procedural antecedents and CWB in the form of self-interest on behalf of MLMs. The results in Table 7.1 model i, illustrate that H^{1A} components (a-j) are supported through correlation analysis and moreover, role autonomy (a), output control (g), professional control (e) and procedural justice (j) are supported under regression analysis. As a consequence, the results support the work of authors such as Clinebell and Shadwick, (2005)and Patterson *et al.*

(2004) who suggest that individuals' perceptions of work place policies and procedures affect organizational productivity and product-market strategy implementation performance.

Hypotheses H^{1A} (a-d) represent components of job satisfaction and the correlation results indicate that role autonomy (a), task identity (b), job variety (c) and role significance (d) are inversely related to CWB in the form of self-interest. This finding is supported by (Dakal, 2005) who suggests that employees retaliate against dissatisfying conditions by engaging in behaviour that harms the organization. Regression analysis was found to support the influence of role autonomy (a) on self-interested behaviour. Research by Beehr and Drexler, (1986) suggest that high levels of autonomy weaken or eliminate the relationship between stressors and aversive outcomes because individuals believe they can control what needs to be done in their work. Consequently, the significant negative relationship between these variables suggests that if MLMs have role autonomy they are likely to be more satisfied and therefore less likely to engage in such behaviour.

Hypothesis H^{1A} (e-g), represent components of control in the organization. These components exhibit strong negative correlation with self-interested behaviour. Process control (f) and output control (g) represent formal control mechanisms. Professional control (e) is a form of informal control. These findings indicate that control combinations incorporating informal and formal mechanisms are less likely to foster self-interested behaviour. In particular, mechanisms combining professional control (informal) and output control (formal) appear to have the greatest impact in this respect. Controls combine synergistically to influence the attainment of a given objective (Jaworski *et al.*, 1993) where some controls, whether formal or informal, are necessary to improve the psychological well being and role perceptions of marketing manager's. The results for H^{1A}

(e-g), highlight that a mix of both formal and informal controls are inversely related to CWB.

Components H^{1A} (h-j) represent the procedural antecedents of rewards. The results in Table 7.1 model 1i indicate that rewards in organizations incorporating output rewards and process rewards have an inverse relationship with CWB as hypothesized. Strong significant negative correlation results between these variables are exhibited. Atuahene-Gima and Murray, (2004) suggest that a multi-faceted approach to rewards in organizations should include output and process rewards. This engenders effective information sharing for marketing strategy development. The results show that employing both types of rewards in organizations is less likely to foster self-interested behaviour on behalf of MLMMs.

The results in Table 7.1 model i, indicate that MLMMs' procedural justice (j) perceptions inversely influence self-interested behaviour. This relationship is strongly supported both through correlation analysis and regression analysis. These findings concur with the work of authors such as De Cremer, (2005) and Skarlicki and Folger, (1997), who argue that if individuals feel that organizational decisions and managerial actions are unfair this can elicit the desire for some form of retribution which might include acts of resistance and /or other actions harmful to organizational functioning. If MLMMs deem procedures and decisions to have been fair then self-interested behaviour is less likely.

In conclusion, it is demonstrated that the various components of procedural antecedents (H^{1A} a-j) do inversely influence self-interested behaviour on behalf of MLMMs in their product-market strategy implementation role. In particular, there is a strong inverse relationship between output control, professional control and procedural justice with self-interested behaviour. There is also sufficient support for an inverse relationship between role autonomy with self-interested behaviour. In designing work place procedures to produce appropriate behavioural responses from MLMMs, it is argued that it is important

to consider these important components so as to reduce the likelihood of self-interested CWB.

7.4.4 Hypothesis H^{1B}: Discussion of Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypothesis H^{1B} suggested that there would be a positive relationship between procedural antecedents and CB on behalf of MLMMs. The components of CB include efficiency citizenship, compliance citizenship, allegiance citizenship, loyalty citizenship and extra-role citizenship. The results for H^{1B} in general display mixed support for these relationships. However, a discussion of the findings for each relationship will be provided in turn.

7.4.4.1 A discussion of H^{B1i}: Procedural Antecedents and Efficiency Citizenship

The results for H^{B1i} (a-j) in Table 7.2i model 2i indicate that for job characteristics elements (a-d) there is some support for role autonomy, task identity and job variety positively influencing efficiency citizenship. Efficiency citizenship involves MLMMs making the best use of resources, producing as much work as they are capable of and using their time effectively. There is strong significant support for the relationship between job variety (c) with efficiency citizenship both through correlation and regression analysis. Job variety (c) relates to the opportunity for the MLMM to use numerous and varied skills in performing their implementation role. This relationship is supported by Teas, (1981) and Hackman and Oldham, (1975) who found that the motivating potential of the job is enhanced through this core dimension of job satisfaction. Further, Patterson *et al.* (2004) suggest that job variety influences individual's motivation to perform effectively on the job.

There is no significant relationship between role significance (d) with efficiency citizenship. Role significance relates to the degree to which the MLMM's role affects the

lives of others in the work group. Consequently, role significance reflects the level of responsibility in the role. Interestingly, this finding is contrary to the findings of Hackman and Oldham, (1975) who suggest that role significance is a core motivator to performance. In this study role significance is not associated with MLMMs being more efficient in their implementation role.

For H^{1Bi} control mechanisms (e-g), the results indicate a positive relationship between output control (g) and professional control (e) with efficiency citizenship, but no relationships between process control (f) with efficiency citizenship. Professional control and output control incorporate both a formal and informal elements. To some extent, the results support the findings of Jaworski *et al.* (1993), who suggest that such control mechanisms are necessary to improve the role perceptions of marketing managers. It might be argued that these control mechanisms combine synergistically to influence the attainment of objectives. However, interestingly, process control (f) does not appear to have this influence, a finding that is contrary to the literature. Jaworski and MacInnis, (1989) suggest that process control is exercised when manager's attempt to influence the means of achieving the desired objectives, thus, providing some form of control over the process. Nevertheless, since the authors suggest that control types can be combined in an infinite number of ways and are most effective when informal and formal mechanisms are blended effectively, it might be argued that for efficiency citizenship, process control does not blend synergistically with professional and output control to positively influence this type of behaviour.

For sub-components H^{B1i} (h-i) output rewards and process rewards, the results in Table 7.2i model 2i indicate that there is a positive relationship between these components with efficiency citizenship where output rewards exhibit the strongest relationship. These results support previous studies which propose that a multifaceted approach to rewards is

beneficial for implementation performance (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Walker and Ruekert, 1987). Output rewards are necessary for project members to achieve desired performance targets such as meeting deadlines. Process rewards are necessary to monitor and compensate employees for completing specified procedures that are critical in marketing strategy development. By rewarding marketing managers with both process and output rewards, they are more likely to engage in efficiency citizenship.

For the final component procedural justice (j), the results in Table 7.2i model 2i indicate that there is a positive correlation between procedural justice with efficiency citizenship. Consequently, it might be argued that if MLMs perceive decision making processes leading to product-market strategy implementation to have been fairly conducted, then they are likely to engage in efficiency citizenship. This finding is in line with the work of Erhart, (2004)and Muhammad, (2004) who found that when employees feel they are being treated fairly they are likely to reciprocate through the performance of CBs. Thus, procedural justice is positively associated with efficiency citizenship as hypothesised.

In conclusion only mixed support has been determined for a number of components of H^{1Bi} (a-j). However, job variety (c) exhibits the strongest support suggesting that the greater opportunity for MLMs to use a variety of skills in their implementation role the more likely this will lead to efficiency citizenship.

7.4.4.2 A discussion of the results of H^{1Bii} : Procedural Antecedents and Compliance Citizenship

A general definition of compliance is the active and responsible involvement in organizational affairs guided by ideal standards of virtue (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). Management compliance is deemed important for implementation of an organizations strategy (Kim and Mauborgne, 1993). Organizationally relevant behaviours incorporated in

this study include accepting and fully implementing senior management's strategic decisions.

The results for the relationship between procedural antecedents and compliance HBii (a-j) in Table 7.2ii, model 2ii; indicate that there is support through correlation analysis for a number of the procedural antecedents with this dependent variable. Role autonomy (a), task identity (b) and job variety (c) are positively associated with compliance citizenship. For job variety (c) the result indicates a strong positive influence. For this component, it might be concluded that if MLMs have the opportunity to use a variety of skills in their implementation role, they will more likely to comply in implementing senior management's strategic decisions. This relationship finds support in the literature (Teas, 1981); (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). The result for role autonomy (a) suggests that if a job has high autonomy, responsibility for work outcomes is increased (Beehr and Drexler, 1986). Further, the relationship between task identity (b), with compliance citizenship suggests that if MLMs are able to see their work through to completion, this is likely to encourage compliance.

However, there is no significant relationship between role significance (d) and compliance. This result is contrary to the literature which suggests that this job characteristic is a core motivator of job performance (Teas, 1981; Hackman and Oldham, 1975). This implies that even if MLMs have a level of responsibility in their implementation role, whereby others are affected by their performance, it does not follow that these managers will comply with implementing the strategic decision.

The results exhibit support for a positive relationship between the procedural antecedents of professional control (e) and output control (g) with compliance citizenship although, again these relationships are not supported through regression analysis. As for HB1i, process control (f) has no bearing on the relationship. Nevertheless, it can be inferred

that the combination of formal control through output measurement and informal control through professional control by peers, positively influences compliance with strategic decisions.

Model 2ii in Table 7.2ii illustrates that both output rewards (h) and process rewards (i) influence compliance citizenship. These results suggest that such a combination of rewards help to engender effective marketing strategy development (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004) which might be accomplished through compliance with strategic decisions. However, this relationship is not upheld through regression analysis

The regression results for procedural justice (j) indicate a strong positive relationship with compliance citizenship. Support is found for this relationship in the literature (De Coninck and Stilwell, 2004; Kim and Mauborgne, 1993). Kim and Mauborgne's, (1993) study highlights that procedural justice is positively linked to compliance with strategic decisions. As a consequence, if MLMs perceive organizational procedures that result in strategic decisions to be fair, they are more likely to comply with implementing those decisions.

In conclusion, the results for model 2.ii indicate a positive association with all procedural antecedents with compliance citizenship, except for role significance (d) and process control (f) where no relationship is found. The strongest relationships are found between job variety (c) and procedural justice (j) with compliance citizenship.

7.4.4.3 A discussion of the results of H^{1Biii} : Procedural Antecedents and Allegiance Citizenship

Allegiance citizenship refers to the allegiance by employees to the organization as a whole. This is demonstrated through the promotion of a positive image of the organizations and its products to external constituents, and being informed as regards the organizations products

and services (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). Whilst such representative behaviours have been incorporated into general measures of CB, this research finds direct links between procedural antecedents and allegiance citizenship.

From the results in Table 7.2iii, model 2.iii; procedural antecedents (a-d) are supported with the strongest positive support exhibited between job variety (c) with allegiance citizenship, which is also supported through regression analysis. The literature suggests that these job characteristics are significantly associated with discretionary behaviours classed as CB (Patterson *et al.*, 2004; Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). However, the results in Table 7.2 extend the literature in so far as it can be inferred that all these job characteristics are positively linked to this sub-category of CB. With the strongest positive relationship found between job variety (c) with allegiance citizenship it is inferred that the greater the opportunity that MLMMs have for using a number of different skills in their implementation role, the more they will engage in behaviour that positively promotes the organization as a whole. Nevertheless, the additional job characteristics elements are not supported through regression analysis which may mean that the links in these cases are relatively weaker.

The results in Table 7.2iii, model iii, provide no support for a relationship between measures for organizational control (f and g) with allegiance citizenship or between rewards measures (h and i) and allegiance citizenship. Thus, whilst controls and rewards may influence other aspects of CB, for example H^{1B} (i and ii), it might be argued that reward and control mechanisms operating in the organization do not necessarily encourage MLMMs to promote a positive image of the organization to outsiders. These results may be partially explained with reference to the literature. It is suggested that certain measures of CB focus on work behaviours that are beyond traditional measures of performance, are discretionary and not based on formal obligations, yet non the less improve organizational

functioning (extra-role), (Dalal, 2005; Cardona *et al.*, 2004; Konovsky and Organ, 1996). It is therefore argued that allegiance citizenship is not a measure rooted in any formal role prescribed procedures where controls and rewards might be found to influence such behaviour.

A strong positive relationship is however displayed between procedural justice (j) with allegiance citizenship. Consequently, it might be deduced that if MLMs perceive organizational procedures that result in organizational decisions to have been conducted fairly they are more likely to positively promote the organizations to external constituents and by so doing, engage in discretionary CB.

7.4.4.4 A discussion of the results of H^{1Bvi}: Procedural Antecedents and Loyalty Citizenship

Loyalty citizenship refers to employees feeling part of the organization through positive relationships that identify them with the organization (Randels, 2001). Loyalty citizenship includes behaviours such as self development and spreading goodwill with the aim of serving the organization as a whole. This behaviour is more discretionary than role prescribed behaviours.

The results in Table 7.2iv model 2iv indicate that procedural antecedents relating to job characteristics (H^{B1iv} a-d) are found to have no association with loyalty citizenship. This suggests that job characteristics do not influence this form of CB and therefore, do not encourage MLMs to engage in behaviour over and above that prescribed in their role.

However, a combination of controls including, professional control (e), process control (f) and output control (g) are found to positively influence loyalty citizenship. The literature suggests that controls can have direct effects on the psychological and behavioural consequences of marketing personnel (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989). Thus, it can be inferred that a combination of controls incorporating all three control mechanisms

encourages loyalty citizenship. The strongest relationship is found between professional control (e) with loyalty citizenship. Professional control is a form of informal control whereby control is evaluated by peers through interaction, discussion and informal assessment. As such professional control is liable to foster greater co-operation amongst colleagues (Brashear *et al.*, 2005). Support for this relationship is found in the literature since it is suggested that loyalty arises in the context of a particular relationship (Randels, 2001) through cooperation with others to serve the interests of the organization as a whole (Dalal, 2005; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994).

Table 7.2iv, model 2iv reveals that both output rewards (h) and process rewards (i) are positively associated with loyalty citizenship where output rewards (h) display the strongest relationship. It is argued that reward mechanisms engender the sharing of information relative to marketing strategy development (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004). Arguably co-operation is fostered with the ultimate aim of serving organizational interests (Dalal, 2005; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). Therefore, both output rewards (h) and process rewards (i) influence loyalty citizenship amongst MLMMs. However, these links are not supported through regression analysis inferring that such a relationship may be relatively weak. Further investigation to test these relationships is potentially required.

Strong support is found for the relationship between procedural justice (j) with loyalty citizenship. Consequently, it might be reasoned that if MLMMs perceive organizational procedures to have been conducted fairly they are more likely to be feel part of the organization thereby displaying loyalty (Randels, 2001).

In conclusion, the results indicate mixed support for the relationship between procedural antecedents with loyalty citizenship. Positive relationships have been found between components of control, rewards, procedural justice with the dependent variable.

The strongest relationship is found between professional control (e) and procedural justice (j) with loyalty citizenship.

7.4.4.5 A discussion of H^{1Bv} : Procedural Antecedents and Extra-role Citizenship

Extra-role citizenship defines intentional employee behaviour which is typically not recognized or rewarded, yet is beneficial for the organizational in the long-run (Dalal, 2005). Such behaviour falls outside of role prescribed behaviour and in this study includes MLMMs taking on extra duties and responsibilities and working beyond what is required in the role.

Since the R^2 and Adjusted R^2 values for model 7.2.v indicated no exploratory power, it is concluded that the procedural antecedents (a-j) bear no association with extra-role citizenship. Although contrary to the results hypothesized, partial explanation for this finding is found in the work of Brief and Motowildo, (1986) who suggest that performance beyond a minimal acceptable level is not significant in analyzing role performance. These authors argue that within role performance is a more useful measure i.e. performing the required tasks as prescribed for the particular role. Whilst Tepper and Taylor, (2003) and (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994) suggest that it is important to use measures of within role and extra role performance in evaluating CB in general, it might be concluded that for assessing MLMMs' strategy implementation behaviour the procedural antecedents included in this study have greater implications for role prescribed behaviour than they do for extra-role behaviour.

In conclusion, the relationship between procedural antecedents and components of CB exhibit mixed support. It has been discussed that job variety (c) positively influences efficiency citizenship and that all procedural antecedents apart from role significance (d) and process control (g) positively influence compliance citizenship. All job characteristic

components (a-d) and procedural (j) justice are shown to have a positive influence upon allegiance citizenship. Furthermore, both formal and informal control mechanisms, output and process rewards and procedural justice do positively influence loyalty citizenship. No significant relationships were found between procedural antecedents and extra-role citizenship. For all other relationships the results demonstrate no significant relationships.

7.5 Hypothesis Testing: Relationships between Strategy Process Antecedents and Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour

The broader H^2 hypothesis of the relationship between strategy process antecedents and product-market strategy implementation behaviour was conceived in Chapter Three as follows:

H^{2A} Strategy process antecedents are inversely associated with counterproductive work behaviour

H^{2B} Strategy process antecedents are positively associated with citizenship behaviour

The literature review in Chapter Three presented a number of procedural factors that provided support for this hypothesis.

7.5.1 Hypothesis H^{2A} (a-g): The Relationship between Strategy Process Antecedents and Counterproductive Work Behaviour

The original hypothesis of the relationship between strategy process antecedents and CWB in the form of self-interest contains seven components. These components are as follows:

H^{2A} (a-g): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-Subordinate relationships (e), Strategy Commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g).

7.5.1.1 Hypothesis H^{2A} : Examination of Regression Model Significance

The model significance statistics for the regression model of hypothesis H^{2A} is displayed at the bottom of Table 7.3. It is exhibited that both the R^2 and the Adjusted R^2 values

presented in Table 7.3 model 3i are above zero at the 0.01 level. It can therefore be concluded that the regression equation for the regression model for H^{2A} displays sufficient exploratory power and does predict changes in the dependent variable.

Table 7.3: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Strategy Process Antecedents and Self-interest

	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(*)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 3</i>	<i>Self-interest</i>	<i>Strategy Process Antecedents</i>	<i>H2A (a-g)</i>						
307	SELFINT	SUPFACIL	H2A (a) ⁽⁻⁾	2.550 (1.147)	-.437**	-.223	-.206	-2.025**	1.843
		PARTICIP	H2A (b) ⁽⁻⁾	2.841 (1.213)	-.515**	-.289	-.283	-2.701*	1.955
		INFOAVAIL	H2A (c) ⁽⁻⁾	3.997 (1.232)	-.483**	-.167	-.166	-1.640	1.814
		STRATFORM	H2A (d) ⁽⁻⁾	3.760 (1.243)	-.506**	-.022	-.022	-.222	1.747
		SUPSUBREL	H2A (e) ⁽⁻⁾	2.940 (1.019)	-.247**	-.097	-.080	-.666	2.539
		STRATCOM	H2A (f) ⁽⁻⁾	2.736 (1.129)	-.451**	.066	.060	.675	1.390
		FIRMRELS	H2A (g) ⁽⁻⁾	3.400 (1.202)	-.421**	-.153	-.148	-1.554	1.614
		<i>Intercept</i>					7.345		19.273**
Model Statistics									
	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F-value						
<i>Model 3</i>	.427	.388	.9708**						
† p ≤ .1; * p ≤ 0.05; ** p ≤ 0.01									
SELFINT: Self-interested behaviour; SUPFACIL: Support; PARTICIP: Participation; INFOAVAIL: Info availability; STRATFORM: Strategy Formulation Effectiveness; SUPSUBRELS: Superior-Subordinate relationship; STRATCOM: Strategy Commitment; FIRMRELS: Intra-firm relationship									

Hypothesis H^{2A} (a-h)

H2A (a-h): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-Subordinate relationships (e), Strategy Commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g) are inversely related to self-interested behaviour.

With reference to Table 7.3 a strong and statistically significant negative correlation relationship at the 0.01 level is exhibited between all components of H^{2A} with the dependent variable of self-interest with all components having correlation values above 0.2. The strongest inverse correlation relationships are found between the independent variables of participation (b), and strategy formulation effectiveness (d) with the dependent variable, providing values of -.515, and -.506 respectively. Upon more rigorous regression analysis it is also found that the relationship between participation (b) with self-interest shows a significant negative relationship with a *t*-value of -2.701. However, the relationship between strategy formulation effectiveness (d) with self-interest is not supported upon regression analysis. In addition, the results in Table 7.3 indicate that the relationship between support (a) with the dependent variable shows a strong inverse correlation value of -.437 and also a strong significant inverse regression relationship of -.2025 at the 0.01 level. Thus, overall, the strongest association is found between support (a) with self-interest.

Consequently, it is determined that all strategy process antecedents are supported through correlation analysis with the strongest support displayed through both correlation and regression for the relationship between support (a) and participation (b) with the dependent variable of self-interest.

7.5.2 Hypothesis H^{2B} (a-g): The relationship between Strategy Process Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

The results of the PCA and scale construction procedures expanded the CB construct to include five types of CB. In addition to compliance citizenship and loyalty citizenship which have been used in a number of studies (Dalal, 2005; Konovsky and Organ, 1996; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994), the expanded hypothesis in this study includes efficiency citizenship, allegiance citizenship and extra-role citizenship.

7.5.2.1 H^{2Bi}: *The Relationship between Strategy Process Antecedents and Efficiency Citizenship.*

The hypothesis of the relationship between strategy process antecedents and efficiency citizenship contains seven components. The components are as follows:

H^{2Bi} (a-g): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-Subordinate relationships (e), Strategy Commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g).

7.5.2.2 Hypothesis H^{2Bi}: *Examination of Regression Model Significance*

Table 7.4i, model 4i, reports both R² and the Adjusted R² values above zero at the 0.01 level. Thus, it is determined that the regression equation for the regression model for HB2i displays sufficient exploratory power and predicts changes in the dependent variable.

Hypothesis H^{2Bi} (a-h)

H^{2Bi} (a-g): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-Subordinate relationships (e), Strategy Commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g) are positively associated with efficiency citizenship.

Table 7.4i: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Strategy Process Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 4</i>	<i>Citizenship Behaviour</i>	<i>Strategy Process Antecedents</i>	<i>H2Bi (a-g)</i>						
Model 4.i	EFFCIT	SUPFACIL	H2Bi (a) ⁽⁺⁾	2.649 (1.189)	.080†	-.237	-.263	-2.195*	1.858
		PARTICIP	H2Bi (b) ⁽⁺⁾	2.867 (1.260)	.106	-.180	-.214	-1.743 †	1.949
		INFOAVAIL	H2Bi (c) ⁽⁺⁾	4.054 (1.226)	.224*	.051	.061	.508	1.832
		STRATFORM	H2B i(d) ⁽⁺⁾	3.760(1.244)	.210*	.098	.117	1.002	1.755
		SUPSUBREL	H2Bi (e) ⁽⁺⁾	2.945 (.978)	.276**	.216	.213	1.517	2.552
		STRATCOM	H2Bi (f) ⁽⁺⁾	2.772 (1.176)	.051†	.065	.071	.687	1.382
		FIRMRELS	H2Bi (g) ⁽⁺⁾	3.453 (1.225)	.319**	.317	.368	3.272**	1.637
		<i>Intercept</i>					1.393		3.723**
Model Statistics									
	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F-value						
<i>Model 4i</i>	.195	.141	3.593**						
† p ≤ .1; * p ≤ 0.05; ** p ≤ 0.01									
EFFCIT: Efficiency Citizenship; SUPFACIL: Support; PARTICIP: Participation; INFOAVAIL: Info availability; STRATFORM: Strategy Formulation Effectiveness; SUPSUBRELS: Superior-Subordinate relationship; STRATCOM: Strategy Commitment; FIRMRELS: Intra-firm relationship									

With reference to Table 7.4i model 4i, superior-subordinate relationships (e) and firm relationships (g) exhibit strong statistically significant correlation with the dependent variable of efficiency citizenship, with both variables having correlation values above .25. Firm relationships (g), also displays a statistically significant *t*-value of 3.272 indicating that, as hypothesized this component positively influences efficiency citizenship. There is also a statistically significant correlation at the 0.05 level between information availability (c) and strategy formulation effectiveness (d), with the dependent variable, although the relationships between these variables and the dependent variable are weaker at the 0.05 level. Upon regression analysis these sub-components are not supported. There is however, correlations support for the relationship between (a), and strategy commitment (f) with the dependent variable although the association is weaker at the 0.1 level. There is no support however for any association between participation (b) and efficiency citizenship.

In conclusion, it is determined that H^{B2i} components (a, c, d, e, f and g) are supported through correlation analysis with H^{B2i} (g) showing the strongest correlation and regression relationship. This indicates that these variables are positively associated with efficiency citizenship.

7.5.2.3 H^{2Bii} : The Relationship between Strategy Process Antecedents and Compliance Citizenship.

The hypothesis of the relationship between strategy process antecedents and compliance citizenship contains seven components. The components are as follows:

H^{2Bii} (a-g): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-Subordinate relationships (e), Strategy Commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g).

7.5.2.4 Hypothesis H^{2Bii} : Examination of Regression Model Significance

Both R^2 and the Adjusted R^2 values at the bottom of Table 7.4ii, model 4ii display values above zero at the 0.01 level. Therefore, the regression equation for model for H^{2Bii} displays sufficient exploratory power and predicts changes in the dependent variable of compliance citizenship.

Table 7.4ii: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Strategy Process Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sig)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 4</i>	<i>Citizenship Behaviour</i>	<i>Strategy Process Antecedents</i>	<i>H2Bii (a-g)</i>						
Model 4.ii	COMPCIT	SUPFACIL	H2Bii (a) (+)	2.649 (1.189)	.267**	-.046	-.056	-.465	1.884
		PARTICIP	H2Bii (b) (+)	.2.867 (1.260)	.147	-.143	-.186	-1.521	1.939
		INFOAVAIL	H2Bii (c) (+)	4.054 (1.226)	.354**	.141	.183	1.498	1.944
		STRATFORM	H2Bii (d) (+)	3.760(1.245)	.290**	.017	.022	.190	1.771
		SUPSUBREL	H2Bii (e) (+)	2.945 (.978)	.348**	.224	.244	1.729 †	2.595
		STRATCOM	H2Bii (f) (+)	2.772 (1.176)	.177*	.104	.124	1.179	1.441
		FIRMRELS	H2Bii (g) (+)	3.453 (1.225)	.321**	.162	.208	1.852 †	1.646
		<i>Intercept</i>				1.168		3.464**	
Model Statistics									
	R²	Adjusted R²	F-value						
<i>Model 4ii</i>	.233	.169	.8604**						

† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$

COMPCIT: Compliance Citizenship; SUPFACIL: Support; PARTICIP: Participation; INFOAVAIL: Info availability; STRATFORM: Strategy Formulation Effectiveness; SUPSUBRELS: Superior-Subordinate relationship; STRATCOM: Strategy Commitment; FIRMRELS: Firm relationship

Hypothesis H^{2Bii} (a-g)

H^{2Bii} (a-g): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-Subordinate relationships (e), Strategy Commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g) are positively associated with compliance citizenship.

Model 4ii in Table 7.4ii reports that all strategy process antecedents are correlated with compliance citizenship. The strongest relationship is found between information availability (c) with compliance citizenship with a correlation value of .354. There are also strong positive correlation relationships between superior-subordinate relationships (e) and firm relationships (g) with compliance citizenship. These latter two components are supported through regression analysis at the 0.1 level displaying *t*-values of 1.729 and 1.852 respectively. Whilst the relationships between support (a), information availability (c), strategy formulation effectiveness (e), and strategy commitment (g), with the dependent variable are supported through correlations analysis, these are not upheld upon regression analysis. There is no association however between participation (b) and the dependent variable

Consequently, it is determined that for H^{2Bii} all components (a-g) are supported through correlation analysis apart from participation (b). H^{2Bii} (f and g) are further supported through regression analysis. Thus, the results indicate that there is a positive association between these strategy process antecedents and compliance citizenship.

7.5.2.5 H^{2Biii} : The Relationship between Strategy Process Antecedents and Allegiance Citizenship.

The hypothesis of the relationship between strategy process antecedents and allegiance citizenship contains seven components. The components are as follows:

H^{2Biii} (a-g): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-Subordinate relationships (e), Strategy Commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g).

7.5.2.6 Hypothesis H^{2Biii} : Examination of Regression Model Significance

Table 7.4iii, model 4iii reports both R^2 and the Adjusted R^2 values above zero at the 0.01 level. The regression equation for the regression model for H^{2Biii} displays sufficient exploratory power to predict changes in the dependent variable of efficiency citizenship.

Table 7.4iii: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Strategy Process Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 4</i>	<i>Citizenship Behaviour</i>	<i>Strategy Process Antecedents</i>	<i>H2Biii (a-g)</i>						
Model 4.iii	ALLEGCIT	SUPFACIL	H2Biii (a) (+)	2.649(1.189)	.200*	-.032	-.046	-.392	1.858
		PARTICIP	H2Biii (b) (+)	2.867 (1.260)	.189*	-.127	-.197	-1.639	1.949
		INFOAVAIL	H2Biii (c) (+)	4.054 (1.226)	.174*	-.076	-.118	-1.013	1.832
		STRATFOR M	H2Biii (d) (+)	3.760 (1.244)	.223*	.014	.021	.185	1.755
		SUPSUBRE L	H2Biii (e) (+)	2.945 (.978)	.369**	.259	.333	2.415*	2.552
		STRATCOM	H2Biii (f) (+)	2.771 (1.176)	.279**	.182	.258	2.540*	1.382
		FIRMRELS	H2Biii (g) (+)	3.453 (1.225)	.354**	.171	.259	2.341*	1.637
		<i>Intercept</i>				.835		2.962**	
		Model Statistics							
<i>Model 4iii</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>Adjusted R²</i>	<i>F-value</i>						
	.225	.173	4.322**						

† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$

ALEGCIT: Allegiance Citizenship; SUPFACIL: Support; PARTICIP: Participation; INFOAVAIL: Info availability; STRATFORM: Strategy Formulation Effectiveness; SUPSUBRELS: Superior-Subordinate relationship; STRATCOM: Strategy Commitment; FIRMRELS: Intra-firm relationship

Hypothesis H^{2Biii} (a-g)

H^{2Biii} (a-h): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-Subordinate relationships (e), Strategy Commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g) are positively associated with allegiance citizenship.

Model 4iii in Table 7.4 reveals that all strategy process variables are significantly correlated with the dependent variable of allegiance citizenship. The strongest positive association is displayed between superior-subordinate relationships (e) and firm relationships (g) with allegiance citizenship, with correlation values of .369 and .354 respectively at the 0.01 level of significance. The weakest significant relationship is found between information availability (c) with allegiance citizenship where a correlation value of .174 at the 0.05 level of significance is reported. Nevertheless, the relationship displays sufficient significance to suggest a positive association with allegiance citizenship. Those variables displaying the strongest correlation support also show significant regression relationships at the 0.05 level. Thus superior-subordinate relationships (e), strategy commitment (f) and firm relationships (g) exhibit the strongest association with allegiance citizenship.

In conclusion it is determined that the hypothesized relationships between H^{2Biii} (a-g) with allegiance citizenship are all supported.

7.5.2.7 H^{2Biv} : The Relationship between Strategy Process Antecedents and Loyalty Citizenship.

The hypothesis of the relationship between strategy process antecedents and loyalty citizenship contains the following seven components:

H^{2Biv} (a-g): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-Subordinate relationships (e), Strategy Commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g).

7.5.2.8 Hypothesis H^{2Biv} : Examination of Regression Model Significance

The model significance statistics for the regression model of hypothesis H^{2Biv} is displayed at the bottom of Table 7.4iv. It is exhibited that both the R^2 and the Adjusted R^2 values are above zero at the 0.01 level. It can therefore be concluded that the regression equation for the regression model for H^{2Biv} displays sufficient exploratory power, to predict changes in the dependent variable of loyalty citizenship.

Table 7.4iv Regression Model of the Relationship Between Strategy Process Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 2iv</i>	<i>Citizenship Behaviour</i>	<i>Strategy Process Antecedents</i>	<i>H2Biv (a-g)</i>						
Model 4.iv	LOYCIT	SUPFACIL	H2Biv (a) ^(†)	2.649 (1.189)	.473**	.225	.218	2.192*	2.858
		PARTICIP	H2Biv (b) ^(†)	2.867 (1.260)	.385**	.075	.078	.766	1.949
		INFOAVAIL	H2Biv (c) ^(†)	4.054 (1.226)	.296**	-.196	-.203	-2.055*	1.832
		STRATFORM	H2Biv (d) ^(†)	3.760 (1.245)	.399**	.069	.071	.740	1.755
		SUPSUBREL	H2Biv (e) ^(†)	2.945 (.978)	.430**	.167	.144	1.234	2.552
		STRATCOM	H2Biv (f) ^(†)	2.771 (1.176)	.355**	.269	.255	2.976**	1.382
		FIRMRELS	H2Biv (g) ^(†)	3.452 (1.225)	.534**	.306	.310	3.325**	1.637
		<i>Intercept</i>				.337		.947	
Model Statistics									
	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F-value						
<i>Model 4iv</i>	.448	.411	12.062**						
† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$									
LOYCIT: Loyalty Citizenship; SUPFACIL: Support; PARTICIP: Participation; INFOAVAIL: Info availability; STRATFORM: Strategy Formulation Effectiveness; SUPSUBRELS: Superior-Subordinate relationship; STRATCOM: Strategy Commitment; FIRMRELS: Intra-firm relationship									

Hypothesis H^{2Biv} (a-g)

H2Bi (a-g): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-Subordinate relationships (e), Strategy Commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g) are positively associated with loyalty citizenship.

With reference to Table 7.4iv, model 4iv, it is determined that all strategy process antecedents are positively and strongly correlated with loyalty citizenship. The strongest positive association is between firm relationships (g) and loyalty citizenship with a correlation value of .534. Further strong positive correlation values are displayed between support (a), participation (b) strategy formulation effectiveness (d) superior-subordinate relationships (e) and strategy commitment (f) with loyalty citizenship where correlations are all above 0.4 at the 0.01 level of significance. The weakest correlation relationship is found between information availability (c) with loyalty citizenship with a correlation value of .296. Nevertheless, the significance of this relationship is found at the 0.01 level, suggesting there is a strong association.

Upon regression analysis, a strong significant relationship at the 0.01 level is exhibited between strategy commitment (f) and firm relationships (g) with loyalty citizenship. Additionally, regression support is found between support (a) and information availability (c) and the dependent variable at the 0.05 level of significance. Interestingly however, the relationship between information availability (c) and loyalty citizenship displays a negative regression value, suggesting a relatively weaker association.

In conclusion, it is determined that the positive hypothesized relationship between all strategy process antecedents with loyalty citizenship are supported with the strongest associations displayed between support (a), strategy commitment (f) and firm relationships with loyalty citizenship.

7.5.2.9 H^{2Bv} : The Relationship between Strategy Process Antecedents and Extra-role Citizenship.

The hypothesis of the relationship between strategy process antecedents and extra-role citizenship contains seven components. The components are as follows:

H^{2Bv} (a-g): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-Subordinate relationships (e), Strategy Commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g).

7.5.2.10 Hypothesis H^{2Bv} : Examination of Regression Model Significance

Both R^2 and the Adjusted R^2 values at the bottom of Table 7.4v, model4v are above zero at the 0.05 level of significance. It can therefore be concluded that the regression equation for regression model H^{2Biv} displays sufficient exploratory power to predict changes in the dependent variable of extra-role citizenship.

Table 7.4v Regression Model of the Relationship Between Strategy Process Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sig)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 4</i>	<i>Citizenship Behaviour</i>	<i>Strategy Process Antecedents</i>	<i>H 2Bv(a-g)</i>						
Model 4.v	EXROL CIT	SUPFACIL	H2Bv (a) ⁽⁺⁾	2.649 (1.189)	.165	.137	.137	1.107	1.858
		PARTICIP	H2Bv (b) ⁽⁺⁾	2.867 (1.260)	.261**	-.097	-.104	-.820	1.949
		INFOAVAIL	H2Bv (c) ⁽⁺⁾	4.054 (1.226)	.114	-.097	-.104	-.846	1.832
		STRATFORM	H2Bv (d) ⁽⁺⁾	3.760 (1.244)	.042†	-.132	-.142	-1.182	1.755
		SUPSUBREL	H2Bv (e) ⁽⁺⁾	2.945 (.978)	.345**	.553	.490	3.382**	2.552
		STRATCOM	H2Bv (f) ⁽⁺⁾	2.771 (1.176)	.147	.015	.014	.133	1.382
		FIRMRELS	H2Bv (g) ⁽⁺⁾	3.452 (1.225)	.177*	-.046	-.048	-.410	1.637
		<i>Intercept</i>				1.302		3.029**	

Model Statistics

	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F-value
<i>Model 4v</i>	.145	.087	2.512 *

† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$

EXROL CIT: Extra-role Citizenship; SUPFACIL: Support; PARTICIP: Participation; INFOAVAIL: Info availability; STRATFORM: Strategy Formulation Effectiveness; SUPSUBRELS: Superior-Subordinate relationship; STRATCOM: Strategy Commitment; FIRMRELS: Intra-firm relationship

Hypothesis H^{2Bv} (a-g)

H^{2Bv} (a-h): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-Subordinate relationships (e), Strategy Commitment (f) and firm relationships (g) are positively associated with extra-role citizenship.

The results displayed in Table 7.4v, model 4v, indicate significant strong positive correlation support for the relationship between, participation (b) and superior-subordinate relationships (e) with extra-role citizenship. Firm relationships (g) are also positively correlated with extra-role citizenship at the 0.05 level and strategy formulation effectiveness (d) is correlated at the 0.1 level. However, the strongest positive association is displayed between superior-subordinate relationships (e) with extra-role citizenship with a correlation value of .345 at the 0.01 level of significance. This relationship also receives strong support on regression analysis with a *t*-value of 3.382. No other variables are supported upon regression analysis. Furthermore, there is no correlation support for the relationship between support (a), information availability (c) and strategy commitment (f) with extra-role citizenship.

It is therefore determined that H2Bv displays mixed support. However, as hypothesized, participation (b), strategy formulation effectiveness (d), superior-subordinate relationships and firm relationships (g) are positively associated with extra-role citizenship.

7.5.3 Hypothesis H^{2A}: Discussion of Hypothesis Testing Results

It was hypothesized in H^{2A} that there would be an inverse relationship between strategy process antecedents and self-interested behaviour on behalf of MLMMs. Self-interested behaviour was discussed in the literature review in Chapter Three as a form of CWB which is intentional and in opposition to the legitimate interests of the organization (Dalal, 2005). Consequently, such behaviour is purported as being contrary to organizational effectiveness

(Drory and Romm, 1990). In this study, self-interested behaviour may involve MLMMs for advancing their own interests by engaging in behaviour that appears to be beneficial to the organization but dysfunctional in the long-run (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989). Such behaviour is often covert and may include manipulation of marketing information to intentionally mislead other members in the organization. Furthermore, inaction by not 'rocking the boat' is regarded as a profitable approach to take in the pursuit of self-interested (Kacmar and Carlson, 1997).

The results in Table 7.3 indicate that all strategy process antecedents are inversely related to self-interested behaviour on behalf of the MLMM. The strongest association is found between support (a) and self-interested behaviour. The literature suggests that the strategy implementation process requires a driving force in the organization in order to succeed since lack of commitment at senior management level will have an effect on lower level management (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Connors and Romberg, 1991; Nutt, 1983). Consequently, it is determined in this study that without this driving force, MLMMs are more likely to pursue their own interests rather than those of the organization as a whole during product-market strategy implementation. Additionally, the results indicate the importance of MLMMs' involvement in the strategic decision making process, since participation (b) is strongly inversely associated with self-interested behaviour. Participation is found to be central to facilitating the degree of understanding such that a high degree of understanding equates with high implementation (Harrison, 1992). If MLMMs are excluded from strategic decision making, the results imply that they are more likely to pursue their own interests.

Similarly, information for strategy implementation needs to be available to MLMMs since the results in Table 7.3 suggest that information availability (c) is also strongly and inversely associated with the pursuit of self-interest. In this respect, the results

concur with previous studies (Bordia *et al.*, 2004; Rapert *et al.*, 2002), which indicate that organizational members who do not have a clear common understanding of strategic issues create a major barrier to implementation. Furthermore, the strong inverse association between strategy formulation effectiveness (d) with self-interest indicates that MLMMs who do not feel that the strategy process was conducted comprehensively are more likely to behave in ways that advance their own interest at the expense of the interest of the organization.

In terms of superior-subordinate relationships (e), the results in Table 7.3 also imply that if there is no unique relationship developed between MLMMs and senior management, then MLMMs are less likely to be able to influence senior managers to act favourably on their behalf (Deluga and Perry, 1991; Kohli, 1985). This might include an inability to influence senior managers in order to obtain the necessary resources for strategy implementation. If this is the case, the MLMM may be more inclined to pursue their own interests. Additionally, without strategy commitment (f), MLMMs may once again be more inclined to advance their own interest rather than those of the organization. Support for this finding is found in the literature whereby MLMMs with low or negative commitment to the organizations strategy are deemed to create significant obstacles to effective implementation as they are motivated by their perceived self-interest (Guth and MacMillan, 1986).

Finally, the result for firm relationships (g) with the dependent variable of self-interest also displays a strong negative association. This implies that if MLMMs are not attached to their organizations (Bennett and Durkin, 2000; Coopey and Hartley, 1991), then they may be more inclined to act in the pursuit of their own interests.

Owing to the strong inverse associations between the strategy process antecedents and the dependent variable of self-interest, the results provide important insights for senior

managers in terms of facilitating product-market strategy implementation. If this facilitation is lacking, then MLMs may be more inclined to advance their own interests which not only has implications for product-market implementation effectiveness but potentially for overall organizational functioning in the long-run.

7.5.4 Hypothesis H^{2B}: Discussion of Hypothesis Testing Results

It was hypothesized in H^{2B} that there would be a positive relationship between strategy process antecedents and CB enacted on behalf of MLMs. The components of CB include efficiency citizenship, compliance citizenship, allegiance citizenship, loyalty citizenship and extra-role citizenship. The results for H^{2B} in general report strong positive associations however, for some components of H^{2B}, only mixed support is found. A discussion of the findings for each relationship will be provided in turn.

7.5.4.1 A discussion of H^{2Bi}: Strategy Process Antecedents and Efficiency Citizenship

The results for H^{2Bi} (a-g) in Table 7.4i, model 4i; indicate that there is support for many of the strategy process antecedents with efficiency citizenship. Efficiency citizenship involves MLMs making the best use of resources, producing as much work as they are capable of and using their time effectively in their role.

The results indicate some significant support, albeit at the 0.1 level, between support (a) with efficiency citizenship. Senior management support is associated with resource allocation. Managers who perceive that there is clear support from above generally expect they will be given the resources necessary to be effective (Menon *et al.*, 1999). Since resources allow MLMs to be more efficient in their role, this result is not surprising. Thus, support from senior management will have an impact on MLMs engaging in efficiency citizenship behaviour in their implementation role.

The results in Table 7.4 show a strong positive relationship between superior-subordinate relationships (e) with efficiency citizenship. Confirming work by Maslyn *et al.* (1996) and Kohli, (1985), upward-influencing managers` who get along well with their superiors are more likely to be clear on what the latter expect from them and their project team. Being clearer on what is required in their role increases job satisfaction. Through the unique relationship developed between the senior manager and the MLMM, the MLMM is more likely to obtain resources within the organization which are critical for product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. As a consequence, the quality of the superior-subordinate relationships is found to have an impact on MLMs` efficiency citizenship. This confirms previous work by Tepper and Taylor, (2003) who also found that high quality leader-member exchange is positively associated with CB.

Firm relationships (g); also display a strong positive association with efficiency citizenship. `Firm relationships`, in this study is equated with organizational attachment in the literature. Organizational attachment characterizes an employee`s relationship with the organization (Meyer *et al.*, 1993). It is manifested through a strong desire to remain a member of the organization, a strong belief and acceptance of its values and goals and a readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Coopey and Hartley, 1991). The results in Table 7.4 confirm work in this domain by suggesting that firm relations are positively related with efficiency citizenship (Cardona *et al.*, 2004; Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998; Meyer *et al.*, 1993).

Support is also exhibited for the relationship between information availability (c) and strategy formulation effectiveness (d) with efficiency citizenship as hypothesized. Strategy formulation effectiveness (d) incorporates the notion of comprehensiveness in the literature (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Frederickson, 1986). Comprehensiveness involves the systematic identification and detailed evaluation of

multiple alternatives to a chosen strategy. This, it is suggested, has the potential to generate a wide variety of strategy options and generally enhance the confidence in the chosen strategy. It might be concluded that the more MLMs perceive strategy formulation procedures to have been effective in this respect; they are more likely to engage in efficiency citizenship. This would be manifested through their making the best use of resources and in utilizing their time effectively in their implementation role since they have confidence in the strategy being successful.

Consequently, information availability (c), Simkin, (2002a:1996) believes that effective marketing depends on facilitating improved communications within the organization. As such, communication channels must allow managers to share information, ideas and the overall development of product-market strategy implementation programmes. In this way, the marketing culture is enriched and entrenched in the organization thereby facilitating implementation (Simkin, 2002b). It might be concluded therefore, that information availability (c) is an important factor for promoting such a culture, the outcome of which is manifested in MLMs exhibiting greater efficiency citizenship.

A further finding from the results exhibited in Table 7.4, model 4.1 indicates that participation (b) does not appear to have any impact on MLMs' efficiency citizenship. Again this result is surprising in that it is contrary to the literature and thus the original relationship hypothesized. The literature suggests that when employees are allowed to participate in strategy making they perceive that a potential is created for higher order need fulfilment, increased performance recognition and increased job status. Good performance allows the realization of this potential (Teas, 1981). Further, Muhammad, (2004) argues that participation in procedures often motivates employees to maximize group rather than individual rewards. In this way, employees are likely to engage in CB to support and maintain the group. However, the results in Table 7.4 suggest that participation in the

strategy making process has no bearing on whether MLMMs will engage in efficiency citizenship. This relationship may therefore require supplementary investigation.

Whilst the relationship between strategy commitment (f) with efficiency citizenship may not be as strong as between other components of H2Bi, the results indicate that the more committed the MLMM is to the proposed strategy, the more they will be motivated to make the most efficient use of resources and time in their implementation role. Strategy commitment involves project team members accepting the strategic decision reached and their intention in cooperating to carry it out (Korsgaard *et al.*, 1995).

To conclude, it is determined that H^{B2i} receives mixed support. Whilst no support is found for any relationship between participation (b) with the dependent variable of efficiency citizenship, strong support is found for the relationships between firm relationships (g) and superior-subordinate relationships (e) with efficiency citizenship. Added to this, a positive relationship is also found between information availability (c), strategy formulation effectiveness (d) support (a) and strategy commitment (f) with efficiency citizenship.

7.5.4.2 A discussion of H^{2Bii} : Strategy process Antecedents and Compliance Citizenship

As has been previously stated, management compliance is deemed important for strategy implementation (Kim and Mauborgne, 1993). In this study compliance citizenship incorporates MLMMs accepting and fully implementing senior management strategic decisions.

The results in Table 7.4ii indicate strong support through correlation relationships for all components of H^{2Bii} with compliance citizenship apart from participation (b). The strongest support is demonstrated between superior-subordinate relationships (e) and firm

relationships (g) with compliance citizenship since, not only do these relationships exhibit strong correlation support, support is also achieved upon regression analysis.

As the literature suggests that interpersonal influence in organizations is increasing in importance (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996), the strong relationship between superior-subordinate relationships is not surprising. Higher quality exchanges between the supervisor (senior management) and the subordinate (MLMM) means that subordinates are able to exert higher influence than lower quality exchange subordinates and are likely to receive more benefits (Keller and Dansereau, 1995). Whilst the literature also suggests that such behaviour results in CB in general, the results of this study provide a direct association with efficiency citizenship. MLMMs as subordinates are likely to engage in efficiency citizenship when they have high quality relationships with their superiors.

The results also imply a strong positive relationship between firm relationships with compliance citizenship. Firm relationships relate to a psychological state that characterizes an employees attachment to the organization (Meyer *et al.*, 1993). This state is operationalized through a strong desire to stay a member of the organization with beliefs and values being congruent with the goals of the organization (Coopey and Hartley, 1991). Consequently, it might be concluded that firm relationships, identified as an attachment to the organization, is positively related to MLMMs engaging in compliance citizenships. This finding confirms earlier work in the domain (Cardona *et al.*, 2004; Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998; Meyer *et al.*, 1993).

Although not supported through regression analysis, strong correlation support is displayed between support (a), information availability (b), strategy formulation effectiveness (d) and strategy commitment (f) with the dependent variable of compliance citizenship. For H^{2Bii} (a), this finding confirms earlier work which advocates that senior management support is related to pro-social work behaviours (Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim,

1998). As such strategy implementation efforts endorsed clearly by senior management can be expected to result in rewards for MLMMs who are prominent in making them successful (Noble and Mokwa, 1999). To this end it is determined that senior management support is positively associated with MLMMs compliance citizenship.

Similarly information availability (c) is positively associated with compliance citizenship. This relationship is supported in the literature whereby studies suggest that information communicated by management allows employees to feel more prepared and able to cope with implementing any change (Bordia *et al.*, 2004). Further, effective communication increases participants' confidence in their abilities and the worthiness of the marketing plan (Simkin, 2002a: 2002b). As such, communication channels must enable managers to share information in the development of marketing strategy and implementation programmes. If MLMMs have relevant information available to them for product-market strategy implementation, they are potentially better able to engage in compliance citizenship.

As regards strategy formulation effectiveness (H^{2Bii-d}), the literature suggests that comprehensiveness in the search for strategic alternatives is important in enhancing the confidence in the chosen strategy (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Eisenhardt, 1989). Consequently, if MLMMs' perception of comprehensiveness in the strategy making process is positive, they are more likely to comply in implementing the strategy.

The relationship between strategy commitment (f) with compliance citizenship also confirms extant literature whereby strategy commitment incorporates high ownership of the strategy (Noble and Mokwa, 1999). Strategy commitment has been defined as the extent to which project members agree on the strategic option chosen and intend to carry it out

(Korsgaard *et al.*, 1995). The results are therefore not surprising since commitment in this sense does imply compliance with the strategic decision reached.

Interestingly no support is found between participation (b) with compliance citizenship. This finding is at odds with earlier studies (Li and Butler, 2004; Neubert and Cady, 2001; Miller, 1997; Martin, 1987), which suggest that if employees are continually engaged in a task, in this case implementation of product-market strategy, performance is likely to increase. The result suggests that even if MLMs are involved in strategic decision making processes, this does not mean they will comply with those decisions. It may be that their perception of other factors leads them to impede the implementation of the espoused strategy. The results in this case imply that further research is necessary to understand the relationship between participation and product-market strategy implementation.

In conclusion, all components of H^{2Bii} are supported as originally hypothesized apart from H2Bii- b) participation.

7.5.4.3 A discussion of H^{2Biii}: Strategy Process Antecedents and Allegiance Citizenship

A comprehensive approach to CB was discussed in the literature review in Chapter Three. This approach to CB includes positive organizational relevant behaviours including in-role job performance behaviours and organizational functional extra-role behaviours (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). In the literature, the comprehensive approach considers three categories of CB, these being obedience, loyalty and compliance. However, upon PCA for this study, the loyalty component split into two categories. Consequently, a further category of CB was created and termed allegiance citizenship. Representative behaviour includes MLMs representing the firm favourably to external constituents, keeping themselves up to date with the organizations products and services and positively promoting these to outsiders

(Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). It was hypothesized in H2Biii that strategy process antecedents would be positively associated with this form of behaviour. A discussion of each component part of H2Biii follows.

The results in Table 7.4iii, model 4iii; indicate that as hypothesized, all components are positively associated with allegiance citizenship. The strongest support for this relationship was found between superior-subordinate relationships (e), strategy commitment (f) and firm relationships (g) with the dependent variable. Whilst these relationships received the strongest correlation support they were also supported through regression analysis.

For H^{2Biii} (e), superior-subordinate relationships, the literature suggests that the maintenance of a good rapport between the superior and subordinate, in this case senior management and MLMs, engenders greater satisfaction on behalf of the subordinate (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996; Kohli, 1985). As such, if a unique relationship is developed containing a high degree of emotionality or affect (Keller and Dansereau, 1995), it is maintained that subordinates will more likely be able to influence their superiors in for example, obtaining resources and rewards for the work unit (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996). Tepper and Taylor's, (2003) study has linked this behaviour with CB where it is found to act as a mediator between procedural justice and CB. The findings of this study indicate that superior-subordinate relationships are positively associated with allegiance citizenship. Thus, MLMs who maintain a good rapport with senior management and who are able to influence them to obtain resources and rewards are more likely to show allegiance to the organization through promoting a positive image of the organization as a whole and of the products and services produced.

Strong support is also found for strategy commitment (f) and allegiance citizenship. Strategy commitment refers to high ownership of the organizations espoused strategy

(Noble and Mokwa, 1999). It has already been highlighted that if MLMs accept the strategic decision, they are more likely to cooperate in carrying it out (Korsgaard *et al.*, 1995), through compliance citizenship. However, this study extends the work on strategy commitment by revealing that strategy commitment also influences MLMs' overall allegiance with the organization through their promoting a positive image of the organization, its products and services.

Table 7.4iii, model 4iii displays strong support for firm relationships (g) with allegiance citizenship. This component is affect based and relates to a strong belief in and acceptance of the values of the organization and a readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, (Coopey and Hartley, 1991). It is confirmed that those MLMs with beliefs and goals congruent with the organizations, are more likely to project a positive image of the organization and its products. The results therefore confirm previous studies in the domain whereby affect based commitment is found to be positively related to CB (Cardona *et al.*, 2004; Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998; Meyer *et al.*, 1993).

Although there is no significant regression relationship between strategy formulation effectiveness (d), with allegiance citizenship, there is nevertheless a strong positive correlation relationship between these variables. The result for this relationship therefore implies that if MLMs perceive that the strategy formulation process has been carried out comprehensively, they are more likely to project a positive image of the organization. Comprehensiveness relates to the generation of a wide range of strategy options during the planning process. As has already been highlighted, comprehensiveness results in the development of greater confidence on behalf of MLMs in the chosen strategy. This study reports that this has a positive impact on organizational performance (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Frederickson, 1986).

Hypotheses H^{2Biii} (a, b and c) also receive correlation support, but the relationship between these variables is weaker than for the other components of H2Biii. Senior management support (a) is found to positively influence MLMMs' allegiance citizenship. It is advocated that leader supportiveness is related to pro-social work behaviours (Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998). As such, this study confirms previous work in the domain reporting that leadership support is associated with MLMMs' attachment to the organization manifested via the promotion of a positive general image of the organization and its products and services. Obtaining support from senior management and the communication of that support is essential in strategy implementation (Noble and Mokwa, 1999). MLMMs' perception that senior management is doing all that it can to facilitate the implementation process is important and further, the results of H2Biii (a) suggest that such support can translate into greater allegiance citizenship with positive implications for long term organizational functioning.

According to the literature, participation in decision making satisfies employees higher order needs leading to job satisfaction, higher motivation and increased productivity (Li and Butler, 2004; Muhammad, 2004; Miller, 1997). It is further implied that increased effort will result in improved performance and this leads to improved company relationships (Teas, 1981). The results for participation (b) suggest that it is likely to promote greater allegiance with the organization.

Finally, information availability (c) is found to be positively associated with allegiance citizenship. Simkin, (2002b), advocates that with greater sharing of marketing related information, the marketing culture is enriched and more soundly entrenched within the organization thus facilitating implementation. The results indicate that with information available for strategy implementation MLMMs are more likely to have allegiance with the

organization, which may have been enhanced through Simkin's, (2002b) notion of a marketing culture which embraces information sharing.

To conclude, the results in Table 7.4, model 4iii, indicate a positive association between all the strategy process antecedents with the dependent variable of allegiance citizenship and thus H^{2Biii} (a-g) are confirmed as hypothesized.

7.5.4.4 A discussion of H^{2Biv} : Strategy Process Antecedents and Loyalty Citizenship

As has been previously discussed in section 7.5.4.3, the literature on CB considers three categories of CB, these being obedience, loyalty and compliance. The PCA detailed in Chapter Six of this study revealed that loyalty citizenship split up into two categories. These categories were labelled allegiance citizenship and loyalty citizenship. This section aims to discuss the hypotheses relating to loyalty citizenship and the independent strategy process antecedents. In this study, loyalty citizenship refers to employees feeling part of the organization through relationships that identify the employee with the organization (Randels, 2001). Loyalty citizenship is similar to allegiance citizenship in so far as both involve an emotional attachment to the organization. Loyalty is manifested via employees being willing to defend the organization, contributing to its good reputation and cooperating with others to serve organizational interests as a whole (Dalal, 2005).

The results in Table 7iv, model 4iv indicates that all strategy process antecedents are strongly associated with loyalty citizenship. The strongest support is displayed between strategy commitment (f), firm relationships (g) and support (a) with both strong positive correlation values and regression analysis supporting these hypotheses.

Firm relationships (g) display the strongest relationship both with strong positive correlation and regression value, suggesting that MLMs who strongly believe in and accept of the values of the organization are more likely to be loyal to the organization. This

finding therefore supports the previous study by (Coopey and Hartley, 1991). Additionally, this result confirms other studies in the domain whereby firm relationships, (organizational attachment) is found to be positively related to CB (Cardona *et al.*, 2004; Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998; Meyer *et al.*, 1993).

Strong support is found for strategy commitment (f) with loyalty citizenship both through correlation and regression analysis. Consequently, high ownership of the organizations espoused strategy (Noble and Mokwa, 1999) is likely to translate into MLMMs being more loyal to the organization. Not only are MLMMs more likely to cooperate in implementing the strategy (Korsgaard *et al.*, 1995) they are also likely to be willing to defend the organization, contribute to its good reputation and cooperate with others to serve organizational interests as a whole (Dalal, 2005). Such behaviour may be regarded as extra-role since it is not normally prescribed in the MLMM's product-market strategy implementation role. Nevertheless, this behaviour is suggested as contributing to more effective organizational functioning (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994).

As hypothesized, a strong positive relationship is found between support (a) with loyalty citizenship suggesting that leader supportiveness is related to pro-social work behaviours (Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998). Thus, if MLMMs perceive that senior management is making considerable effort in their support of the implementation of the product-market strategy, they are likely to be attached to the organization and consequently, are more likely to contribute to its good reputation and cooperate fully with others to serve organizational interests as a whole (Dalal, 2005).

H2Biv (c) concerns the relationship between information availability and compliance citizenship. Once again, the result indicates that with information available for product-market strategy implementation, MLMMs are more likely to be loyal to the organization. As with allegiance citizenship, it may imply that loyalty may be enhanced

through Simkin`s, (2002b) conception of a marketing culture. If this culture is entrenched within the organization implementation is facilitated.

The results indicate that participation (b) is positively associated with loyalty citizenship. Participation is linked to job satisfaction, higher motivation and increased productivity (Li and Butler, 2004; Muhammad, 2004; Miller, 1997). This results in increased effort, improved performance and ultimately improved company relationships (Teas, 1981). Consequently, the results imply that greater participation in decision making is likely to promote loyalty to the organization.

Additionally, if MLMs perceive that the strategy formulation process (d) was undertaken in a comprehensive manner, involving a detailed analysis of strategy alternatives (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004), then not only will they be more confident in implementing the product-market strategy, they are likely to be more loyal to the organization through behaviour aimed at contributing to its good reputation by cooperating with others to serve organizational interests as a whole (Dalal, 2005).

The final component, superior- subordinate relationships (e) also displays a positive association with loyalty citizenship. As developing and maintaining a good rapport between the senior management and the MLM engenders greater satisfaction on behalf of the subordinate i.e. the MLM (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996; Kohli, 1985), they are more likely be able to influence their superiors in for example obtaining resources and rewards for their work unit (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996). In this way, they are more likely to display loyalty citizenship.

In conclusion, it is demonstrated that the various components of strategy process antecedents do positively influence the loyalty citizenship of MLMs, with particularly strong relationships existing between firm relationships (g), strategy commitment (f) and support (a) with loyalty citizenship.

7.5.4.5 A discussion of H^{2Bv} : Strategy Process Antecedents and Extra-role Citizenship

Employee behaviour that is discretionary and typically not recognized or rewarded, yet still improves the organizational functioning is a component in the comprehensive definition of CB (Dalal, 2005). Such behaviour is defined as extra-role since it is not enforced on the basis of any formal obligation (Cardona *et al.*, 2004; Konovsky and Organ, 1996). Extra-role behaviour may be exhibited by employees adhering to informal rules designed to maintain appropriate organizational functioning and to work beyond the acceptable norms operating in the organization (Muhammad, 2004). For example, in this study, this might include an employee taking on extra responsibilities and working beyond what is required in their role.

Table 7.4v displays the results for H^{2Bv} (a-g), whereby it is hypothesized that these strategy process antecedents are positively associated with extra-role citizenship. It is demonstrated that four component variables of H^{2Bv} are supported. The strongest support is displayed between superior-subordinate relationships (e) with extra-role citizenship. The association is also supported through regression analysis. This result implies that where a good relationship exists between the senior manager and the MLMM then the MLMM is more likely to employ discretionary behaviour outside that of their prescribed role. Such relationships contain a high degree of emotionality and affect. Due to the unique relationship developed, the MLMM is likely to be more satisfied in their role (Kohli, 1985). They are also more likely to be able to influence their superiors in for example obtaining resources and rewards for their work unit (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996). The result for H^{2Bv} (e) therefore confirms previous studies linking the relationship between superiors and subordinates with CBs (Tepper and Taylor, 2003) and in particular in the performance of behaviour that is discretionary and not prescribed in the formal role of the MLMM.

Participation b) is also strongly associated with extra-role citizenship. This result demonstrates that if MLMMs actively participate in the strategic decision making process they are more likely to engage in work behaviour beyond what is formally prescribed. The literature suggests that strategy implementation is an issue of gaining prior participation and informing those affected by the change so that the organization is ready to implement that change (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Harrison, 1992; Wooldridge and Floyd, 1989). This result indicates that MLMMs' participation contributes to behaviour outside that of their prescribed role and enhances organizational functioning.

The result for firm relationships (g) implies that MLMMs whose goals and beliefs are congruent with those espoused by the organization are more likely to engage in behaviour above and beyond what is required in their role. This finding concurs with other studies in the domain positively associating this factor with CB (Cardona *et al.*, 2004; Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998; Meyer *et al.*, 1993). Interestingly upon regression analysis however, a negative relationships is displayed contrary to the positive association hypothesized.

Additionally, strategy formulation effectiveness (d) is associated with extra-role citizenship. MLMMs who perceive that strategy making has been carried out comprehensively are more likely to engage in work behaviours that benefit the organization but do not fall directly into what is prescribed in their formal role.

For the remaining components of H^{2Bv} , the results display no relationship. Therefore, support (a), information availability (c), and strategy commitment (f) are not associated with extra-role citizenship. Consequently, it might be concluded from the results for H^{2Bv} (a, c, and f) that whilst such strategy process antecedents have been seen to have an influence on the other elements of CB (e.g. compliance allegiance and loyalty citizenship) as discussed in the sections above, these elements will have no influence on

MLMMs engaging in behaviour beyond what is formally required in their role. Therefore whilst having appropriate and timely information available for implementation, perceiving the strategy process to have been conducted comprehensively and being committed to the organizations strategy is associated with in-role citizenship, it does not follow that these strategy process antecedents will influence MLMMs to engage in extra-role citizenship.

On the whole, only weak support is displayed for H^{2Bv} . However, the relationship between superior-subordinate relationships (e) and extra-role citizenship does exhibit particularly strong support. This confirms the importance of interpersonal influence within organizations.

7.5.5 Hypothesis H^3 : The Relationship between Counterproductive Work Behaviour and Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

The hypothesis of the relationship between CWB and internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness is as follows:

$H3$: Self-interest on behalf of MLMMs in their implementation role is inversely associated with internal product-market implementation effectiveness

7.5.5.1 Hypothesis H^3 : Examination of Regression Model Significance

The model significance statistics for the regression model of hypothesis H^3 is displayed at the bottom of Table 7.5. It is exhibited that both the R^2 and the Adjusted R^2 values presented in Table 7.5 model 5 are above zero at the 0.01 level. It is therefore determined that the regression equation for the regression model for H^3 displays sufficient exploratory power to predict changes in the dependent variable of internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

Table 7.5: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Self-interest and Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(*)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 5</i>	<i>Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness</i>	<i>Self- Interest</i>	<i>H3</i>						
Model 5	IMPEFF	SELFINT	H3 ⁽⁻⁾	4.571 (1.218)	-.429**	-.390	-.429	-5.266**	1.0
		<i>Intercept</i>				5.329		15.266**	

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Model Statistics

	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F-value
<i>Model 5</i>	.184	.177	27.726**

† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$

SELFINT: Self-interest; IMPEFF: Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

With reference to model 5 in Table 7.5, it is determined that self-interest is strongly inversely associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The correlation value for the relationship between these variables is -.429 at the 0.01 level of significance. Further, regression analysis indicates strong significant support for this inverse relationship with a *t*-value of -5.266 at the 0.01 level. Thus, as hypothesized, self-interested behaviour on behalf of MLMMs is inversely associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The less MLMMs engage in this type of behaviour the more effectively product-market strategy implementation is likely to be carried out. Thus H³ is supported as hypothesized.

7.5.6 Hypothesis H³: Discussion of Hypothesis Testing Results

This study uses the term CWB to denote behaviour that is antisocial and harmful to organizational functioning as used in the work of (Dalal, 2005). Whilst there is found to be a variety in the forms of such behaviour in the work place, from a review of the literature, the politics of self-interest is one particular aspect of this kind of behaviour deemed to be particularly relevant to this study. The politics of self-interest receives a great deal of attention from scholars in the domain of economics, social psychology and organizational (Cropanzano *et al.*, 2005; Curtis, 2003; Kacmar and Carlson, 1997; Egan, 1994). However, a gap in the literature exists whereby the problems of self-interested interventions on behalf of MLMMs in strategic decisions developed by senior management have not been addressed (Guth and MacMillan, 1986). Consequently, this study focuses on how the politics of self-interest enacted by MLMMs influences internal product-market strategy effectiveness.

Self-interested behaviour is often covert and may include both action and inaction by MLMMs. Thus by 'not rocking the boat' or inaction, by remaining silent on particular

issues related to product-strategy implementation, MLMs are actually acting in their own interests. They may also attempt to conceal the true motive behind their behaviour (Fleming and Sewell, 2002; Kacmar and Carlson, 1997; Drory and Romm, 1990). Consequently, behaviour that on the surface appears to demonstrate compliance, may be non beneficial to the organization in the long run (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989).

Hypothesis H³ suggests that self-interested behaviour on behalf of MLMs engaged in product-market strategy implementation is inversely associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

Table 7.5, model 5 presents the results of H³ where it is demonstrated that a strong negative association between MLMs' self-interested behaviour and internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Thus, as hypothesized, the more MLMs engage in this behaviour, the less effective product-market strategy implementation performance is likely to be. Role performance is a critical element to effectiveness in this study (Noble and Mokwa, 1999), which relates to the linking of resource inputs to valuable outputs (Morgan *et al.*, 2002). Further, the extent of resources committed provides a context in which strategy team members can do what is necessary for success (Menon *et al.*, 1999) These resources act as an enabling factor to implementation success (Miller, 1997). If MLMs engage in self-interested behaviour, the results imply that effective performance in this respect will not be achieved.

It is important for senior managers to be aware of the potential for such behaviour during product-market strategy implementation owing to the potential adverse outcomes of this behaviour. A discussion of antecedents influencing such behaviour has already been presented. It is consequently determined that workplace policies and procedures need to be carefully developed. The results illustrate that this is particularly the case for the procedural antecedents of control mechanisms and procedural justice. Further, an organizational

context that facilitates the strategy process needs to be developed and maintained since it is found that many strategy process antecedents are associated with this form of CWB.

7.5.7 Hypothesis H4: The Relationship between Citizenship Behaviour and Internal Product- Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

The CB construct includes five types of CB; efficiency citizenship, compliance citizenships, allegiance citizenship, loyalty citizenship and extra-role citizenship. The hypothesis for the relationship between the dependent and independent variables contains five items as follows:

H⁴ (a-e): Efficiency citizenship (a), Compliance citizenship, (b), Allegiance citizenship (c), Loyalty citizenship (d) and Extra-role citizenship (e).

7.5.7.1 Hypothesis H⁴: Examination of Regression Model Significance

The R² and Adjusted R² values are displayed at the bottom of Table 7.6. It is determined that regression model 6, displays sufficient exploratory power to predict changes between the independent variables of CB and the dependent variable of internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The values for R² and the Adjusted R² are both above zero at the 0.01 level of significance.

Table 7.6 Regression Model of the Relationship Between Citizenship Behaviour and Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(*)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardised Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 6</i>	<i>Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness</i>	<i>Citizenship behaviour</i>	<i>H4 (a-e)</i>						
Model 6	IMPEFF	EFFCIT	H4 (a) ^(*)	2.771 (1.042)	.280**	.201	.189	2.133 *	1.203
		COMPLCIT	H4 (b) ^(*)	2.760 (.972)	.294**	.149	.131	1.465	1.216
		ALLEGCIT	H4 (c) ^(*)	1.962 (.784)	.280**	.188	.133	1.485	1.231
		LOYCIT	H4 (d) ^(*)	2.903 (1.217)	.370**	.266	.292	3.241 **	1.244
		EXROLCIT	H4 (e) ^(*)	2.004 (1.218)	.138†	-.050	-.055	-.603	1.256
		<i>Intercept</i>				1.528		4.164**	
Model Statistics									
340 <i>Model 6</i>	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F-value						
	.229	.196	7.015**						

† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$

IMPEFF: Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness; EFFCIT: Efficiency Citizenship; COMPLCIT: Compliance Citizenship; ALEGCIT: Allegiance Citizenship; LOYCIT: Loyalty Citizenship; EXROLCIT: Extra role citizenship

Hypothesis H⁴

H⁴: Efficiency citizenship (a), Compliance citizenship (b), Allegiance citizenship (c), loyalty citizenship (d) and extra-role citizenship behaviour displayed on behalf of MLMs is positively associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

With reference to Table 7.6, model 6, four CBs demonstrate strong positive correlations with the dependent variable of internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Correlation values above .250 are reported for the relationship between efficiency citizenship (a), compliance citizenship (b), allegiance citizenship (c) and loyalty citizenship (d) with the dependent variable. Whilst a weaker positive association is found between extra-role citizenship (e) and the dependent variable, it is nonetheless significant at the 0.1 level. Thus, as hypothesized, all forms of CB are positively associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Further, regression support is exhibited between loyalty citizenship (d) and the dependent variable with a strong significant *t*-value of 3.241 at the 0.01 level. Regression support is also exhibited between efficiency citizenship (a) and the dependent variable, though at the relatively weaker 0.05 level of significance.

It can therefore be determined that support for H⁴ is attained with the strongest positive relationship exhibited between efficiency citizenship (a) and loyalty citizenship (d) with the dependent variable of internal -market strategy implementation effectiveness.

7.5.7.2 Hypothesis H⁴: Discussion of Hypothesis Testing Results

The literature on CB asserts that this behaviour contributes to organizational effectiveness and the results for H⁴ concur with previous studies to this end (Dalal, 2005; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994) in so far as all aspects of CB are associated with internal product-market implementation effectiveness. The results in Table 7.6, model 6 display strong support in

particular between loyalty citizenship and efficiency citizenship with internal product-market implementation effectiveness, through both correlation analysis and regression analysis.

Efficiency citizenship involves MLMs making the best use of resources, producing as much work as they are capable of and using their time effectively. Efficiency citizenship has been described as in-role behaviour that contributes to effective organizational functioning (Brief *et al.*, 2000; Konovsky and Organ, 1996; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). This is achieved through MLMs fulfilling their role obligations. Consequently, it is determined that if MLMs engage in efficiency citizenship, then this contributes to the effective performance of product-market strategy implementation. It is important for senior managers to be aware of how efficiency citizenship might be developed. For example, this study has revealed that the procedural antecedent of job variety was found to have a strong association with efficiency citizenship. In terms of strategy process antecedents' strong support was found for the relationships between firm relationships and superior-subordinate relationships with efficiency citizenship. A positive but somewhat weaker relationship was also found between information availability, and strategy formulation effectiveness and efficiency citizenship. As such, these factors might be deemed important issues to deal with in terms of the design of organizational policies and procedures and for an environment that facilitates product-market strategy implementation. Nevertheless, further work might also be conducted in the domain to uncover supplementary variables that promote efficiency citizenship since clearly this has an important influence on internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

The results in Table 7.6 also indicate that the more loyal the MLM is to the organization, the more likely product-market strategy implementation will be performed effectively. As such, it is important that senior managers foster loyalty in their MLMs. It

has been found that the all of the strategy process antecedents discussed in this study are strongly and positively associated with loyalty citizenship. Additionally, the procedural antecedents of professional control, process control, output control, output rewards and procedural justice are all strongly associated with loyalty citizenship. Senior managers need therefore to be aware that such antecedents have a positive impact on promoting loyalty among MLMs ultimately resulting in the effective product-market strategy implementation performance.

Furthermore, the results in Table 7.6 model 6 indicate that both compliance citizenship and allegiance citizenship are found to foster internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness although the association is weaker than for efficiency citizenship and loyalty citizenship. Again, it is suggested that in designing organizational policies and procedures and a climate for facilitating the strategy process, an understanding of particular elements that foster these forms of CB is necessary.

Although associated with internal product-market implementation effectiveness, extra-role efficiency citizenship displays a weaker positive relationship with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Whilst discretionary extra-role behaviour performed on behalf of MLMs may be important for organizational functioning in the long term, it is less important for internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness than other elements of CB.

In conclusion, whilst the literature suggests that the performance of CB is positively associated with organizational productivity and performance (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005; De Cremer, 2005; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994) most of these previous studies have focused on the antecedents to such behaviour. This study extends research in the domain by reporting that the performance of CB on behalf of MLMs is directly related to internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. As such the original hypothesis is confirmed.

7.5.8 Hypothesis H⁵: The Relationship between Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness and External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness.

The original hypothesis of the relationship between internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness was as follows:

H⁵: Internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness is positively associated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness

7.5 .8.1 Hypothesis ^{H5}: Examination of Regression Model Significance

The R² and the Adjusted R² values are displayed at the bottom of Table 7.7. Both R² and the Adjusted R² values display values above zero at the 0.01 level. Thus, it is determined that the regression equation for the regression model for H⁵ displays sufficient exploratory power and predicts changes in the dependent variable.

Table 7.7 Regression Model of the Relationship Between Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness and External Product-Market Strategy Effectiveness

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardised Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 7</i>	<i>External Product-Market Strategy Effectiveness</i>	<i>Internal Product-market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness</i>	<i>H5</i>						
Model 7	STRATEFF	IMPEFF <i>Intercept</i>	H5 ⁽⁺⁾	3.558 (1.111)	.683**	.753 .720	.683	10.489** 2.692 **	1.0

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Model Statistics

	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F-value
<i>Model 7</i>	.466	.462	110.021**

† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$;

STRATEFF: External Product-Market Strategy Effectiveness; IMPEFF: Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

With reference to Table 7.7, model 7, internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness exhibits a strong statistically significant correlation with the dependent variable of external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness with a correlation coefficient of .683. A strong statistically significant *t*-value of 10.489 is also exhibited upon regression analysis. As hypothesized, these results indicate that internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness positively influences external product-market strategy effectiveness.

7.5.9 Hypothesis H⁵: Discussion of Hypothesis Testing Results

Internal product-market strategy effectiveness is concerned with the outcome of product-market strategy implementation in relation to resources employed (Menon *et al.*, 1999; Walker and Ruekert, 1987). Role performance is critical to this relationship (Noble and Mokwa, 1999). Noble and Mokwa, (1999) suggest that it is the extent to which an implementation effort is considered successful by those involved in the process which defines success. The authors suggest that success relates to the degree to which a manager achieves the goals of their particular role which facilitates the overall success of implementation efforts.

The extent to which product-market strategy implementation is effective is founded upon the efficient transformation of required resource inputs into valuable organizational outputs. Consequently, the results displayed in Table 7.7, infer that these dimensions to internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness have a positive relationship with external product-market strategy effectiveness.

The dependent outcome of external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness is regarded as a project level performance measure assessed in terms of how the organizations product or services have achieved planned sales, market share and profit

targets and objectives (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004). This measure is important since arguably how the product or service is performing is the focus of marketing strategy making. Atuahene-Gima and Murray, (2004) argue that by using a project level measure of performance as the dependent variable, a better understanding of the nature of organizational strategies is gained. The results for H⁵ indicate important dimensions of this outcome through the measures of internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

It can be concluded therefore, that internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, as measured by the effective performance by MLMMs in their role via the appropriate transformation of resource inputs into valuable project level outputs, has a strong positive influence on whether or not an organizations strategy implementation effort is effective in attaining the intended marketing objectives. Positional advantages may accrue from the realized objectives of the product-market strategy in terms of value delivered to customers and the costs incurred relative to competitors.

7.6 Additional Analyses

The following sections present a number of additional analyses that were carried out on the generated data. Whilst the discussion in previous sections has concentrated on the hypothesized relationships developed in the conceptual model, it is acknowledged that there may be further findings revealed through alternative relationships. As such, whilst no hypothesis of these relationships were constructed in Chapter Three it was nevertheless deemed potentially useful to aid in the further understanding of the outcomes of MLMMs product-market strategy implementation behaviour.

7.6.1 The Relationship between Procedural Antecedents and Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

An additional analysis was performed to test the direct relationship between procedural antecedents and the dependent variable of internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The hypothesis for the relationship between the dependent and independent variables contains ten items as follows:

H⁶ (a-j): Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job variety (c), Role significance (d), Professional control (e), Process control (f), Output control (g), Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i) and Procedural justice (j) are positively associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

7.6.1.1 Hypothesis H⁶: Examination of Regression Model Significance

The R² and the Adjusted R² values are displayed at the bottom of Table 7.8. Both R² and the Adjusted R² values display values above zero at the 0.01 level. Thus, it is determined that the regression equation for the regression model 8 displays sufficient exploratory power and predicts changes in the dependent variable.

Table 7.8: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Procedural Antecedents and External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 8</i>	<i>Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness</i>	<i>Procedural Antecedents</i>	<i>H6 (a-j)</i>						
Model 8	IMPEFF	ROLEAUT	H6 (a) ⁽⁺⁾	3.441 (1.250)	.359**	.175	.198	2.122*	1.758
		TASKID	H6 (b) ⁽⁺⁾	2.674 (1.155)	.328**	.015	.016	.174	1.655
		JOBVAR	H6 (c) ⁽⁺⁾	2.558 (.951)	.352**	.283	.243	2.727**	1.604
		ROLESIG	H6 (d) ⁽⁺⁾	2.178 (.913)	.206*	-.102	-.084	-.959	1.560
		PROFCNTRL	H6 (e) ⁽⁺⁾	3.455 (1.329)	.532**	.248	.298	3.079**	1.894
		PRCSCNTRL	H6 (f) ⁽⁺⁾	4.495 (1.451)	.126†	.036	.047	.517	1.643
		OUTPCNTRL	H6 (g) ⁽⁺⁾	3.337 (1.336)	.285**	-.014	-.017	-.166	2.087
		OUTRWD	H6 (h) ⁽⁺⁾	4.304 (1.338)	.208**	-.014	-.016	-.186	1.576
		PRSRWD	H6 (i) ⁽⁺⁾	5.091 (1.090)	.161*	-.013	-.013	-.151**	1.402
		PROCJUST	H6 (j) ⁽⁺⁾	3.409 (1.153)	.508**	.277	.289	3.107	1.744
		<i>Intercept</i>				.639		1.280	
Model Statistics									
	R²	Adjusted R²	F-value						
<i>Model 8</i>	.445	.396	8.998**						
† p ≤ .1; * p ≤ 0.05; ** p ≤ 0.01									
IMPEFF: Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness; ROLEAUT: Role autonomy; TASKID: Task identity; JOBVAR: Job variety; ROLESIG: Role significance; OUTPCNTRL: Output control; PROFCNTRL: Professional Control; PRCSCNTRL: Process Control; OUTRWD: Output rewards; PRSRWD: Process Rewards; PROCJUST: Procedural Justice									

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With reference to Table 7.8, correlation relationships are exhibited between all procedural antecedents with the dependent variable of internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The strongest correlation relationships are found between professional control (g) and the dependent variable and between procedural justice (j) and the dependent variable with correlation values of .532 and .508 respectively. Strong correlation relationships are also displayed between role autonomy (a), task identity (b), job variety (c) output control (e), and output rewards (h) with the dependent variable with all correlation values above .2 at the 0.01 level. Correlation support is also found between the remaining independent variables but at a weaker level of significance. The weakest association is between process control (g) and the dependent variable with a correlation value of .161 at the 0.1 level.

Support is also found for a number of relationships upon regression analysis. Strong regression support is displayed between professional control (f) and job variety (c) with the dependent variable with *t*-values of 3.079 and 2.727 respectively at the 0.01 level. Further regression support is displayed between process rewards (i) and the dependent variable although the model displays a negative *t*-value of -.151. Regression support is also displayed between role autonomy (a) and the dependent variable, albeit that the relationship is weaker at the 0.05 level.

For this additional hypothesis, it can be concluded that procedural antecedents are all positively associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. These results concur with previous studies that suggest that there are significant direct associations between for example, job characteristics (a-d) and measures of performance (Patterson *et al.*, 2004; Koys, 2001). Furthermore, work by Jaworski *et al.* (1993) and Jaworski and MacInnis, (1989) found that there is a strong relationship between the type of control system used in the organisation and performance. The results in Table

7.8 suggest that for a control system that combines professional control (e), process control (f), and output control (g), it is professional control (e) and output control (g) that have the greatest direct influence on internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The results further imply that both process and output rewards (h and i) are positively associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Again, the results find support in the literature since it is purported that a multifaceted approach to rewards is beneficial for implementation performance which leads ultimately to firm performance (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Allen and Helms, 2001; Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Walker and Ruekert, 1987). In Table 7.8, it is exhibited that whilst both type of rewards are associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, output rewards are more strongly associated than process rewards. It is therefore important that senior managers' design rewards systems with this in mind.

Finally, the results for H⁶ procedural justice(j), indicate that if marketing managers perceive that the process used to make decisions within the organization are fair, then this is likely to have a positive influence on internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. As such, MLMs will reason that senior management can be trusted in their decision making procedures and as a result the MLM will be motivated to show commitment towards the organization (De Cremer, 2005).

It is therefore concluded that all procedural antecedents are positively and directly associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

7.6.2 The Relationship between Procedural Antecedents and External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

A further analysis was performed to test the direct relationship between procedural antecedents and the final dependent variable of product-market strategy implementation

effectiveness. The hypothesis for the relationship between the dependent and independent variables contains ten items as follows:

H⁷ (a-j): Role autonomy (a), Task identity (b), Job variety (c), Role significance (d), Professional control (e), Process control (f), Output control (g), Output rewards (h), Process rewards (i) and Procedural justice (j), are positively associated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

7.6.2.1 Hypothesis H⁷: Examination of Regression Model Significance

The R² and the Adjusted R² values are displayed at the bottom of Table 7.9. The R² and the Adjusted R² values display values above zero at the 0.01 level. It is therefore determined that the regression equation for regression model 9 displays sufficient exploratory power and predicts changes in the dependent variable.

Table 7.9: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Procedural Antecedents and External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 9</i>	<i>External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness</i>	<i>Procedural Antecedents</i>	<i>H7 (a-j)</i>						
Model 9	STRATEFF	ROLEAUT	H7 (a) ⁽⁺⁾	3.441 (1.250)	.267**	.105	.105	.953	1.758
		TASKID	H7 (b) ⁽⁺⁾	2.674 (1.155)	.247**	-.037	-.034	-.321	1.655
		JOBVAR	H7 (c) ⁽⁺⁾	2.558 (.951)	.327**	.268	.205	1.950 †	1.604
359		ROLESIG	H7 (d) ⁽⁺⁾	2.174 (.913)	.141**	.079	.058	.075*	1.560
		PROFCNTRL	H7 (e) ⁽⁺⁾	3.455 (1.329)	.361	.292	.312	2.730	1.894
		PRCSCNTRL	H7 (f) ⁽⁺⁾	4.495 (1.451)	-.020	-.085	-.099	-.933	1.643
		OUTPCNTRL	H7 (g) ⁽⁺⁾	3.337 (1.336)	.245 †	.008	.009	.560	2.087
		OUTRWD	H7 (h) ⁽⁺⁾	4.304 (1.338)	.086	-.056	-.060	-.579	1.576
		PRSRWD	H7 (i) ⁽⁺⁾	5.091 (1.090)	.065	.015	.013	.135	1.402
		PROCJUST	H7 (j) ⁽⁺⁾	3.409 (1.153)	.251**	.072	.067	.610	1.744
		<i>Intercept</i>				1.550		2.338*	
Model Statistics									
	R²	Adjusted R²	F-value						
<i>Model 9</i>	.229	.160	3.325 **						

† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$;

STRATEFF: External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness; ROLEAUT: Role autonomy; TASKID: Task identity; JOBVAR: Job variety; ROLESIG: Role significance; OUTPCNTRL: Output control; PROFCNTRL: Professional Control; PRCSCONTRL: Process Control; OUTRWD: Output rewards; PRSRWD: Process Rewards; PROCJUST: Procedural Justice

With reference to Table 7.9, strong correlation relationships are exhibited between the independent variables of role autonomy (a), task identity (b), job variety (c), role significance (d) and procedural justice (j) with the dependent variable of external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness with correlations values above 2.4 at the 0.01 level. Correlation support is also displayed between output control (g) with the dependent variable with a slightly weaker correlation value of .245 at the 0.1 level. No correlation relationship is exhibited between any of the other independent variables and interestingly a negative association is displayed between process control (f) with the dependent variable, contrary to a positive association as hypothesized.

Upon regression analysis, support is found for the relationship between role significance (d) with the dependent variable with a *t*-value of 0.075 at the 0.05 level and between job variety (c) and the dependent variable with a *t*-value of 1.950 at the 0.1 level.

In conclusion, it is determined that H⁷ receives mixed support with the strongest relationship found for between job variety (c) and role significance (d) with the dependent variable. Strong correlation support is also found between role autonomy (a), task identity (b), and procedural justice (j) with the dependent variable and somewhat weaker support for the relationship between output control (g) with the dependent variable. However, no relationship is found between the remaining variable components of procedural antecedents with the dependent variable of external product-market strategy effectiveness.

The literature supports the positive results exhibited in Table 7.9 that suggest that there are significant direct associations between job characteristics (a-d) and measures of performance (Patterson *et al.*, 2004; Koys, 2001). Table 7.9 exhibits that the association between job variety and role significance is particularly strong. Consequently, it is important for MLMs to use a number of their skills in their implementation role for there to be a positive link with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

Also the more people that the MLMMs' role affects, the more likely this will result in external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Presumably, this is because increased responsibility motivates performance. Both job variety (c) and role significance (d) are considered core dimensions of job satisfaction and when there is an increase in these there is also an increase in the motivational potential of the (Teas, 1981; Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

The results in Table 7.9 suggest that it is output control (g) that has the greatest influence on external product market strategy implementation effectiveness. Primarily output controls are used to evaluate individual behaviour in terms of the results of that behaviour relative to set standards of performance (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989), and as such the results for H⁷ (g) are not surprising. Procedural justice (j) is also strongly and positively associated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. As such, it is important that procedures for decision making in the organization are fair and transparent since this is likely to motivate MLMMs' performance to achieve stated objectives (De Cremer, 2005). However, surprisingly, none of the remaining procedural antecedents have a direct impact upon external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

7.6.3 The Relationship between Strategy Process Antecedents and Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

A further analysis was conducted to test the direct relationship between strategy process antecedents and the dependent variable of internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The hypothesis for the relationship between the dependent and independent variables contains seven items as follows:

H⁸ (a-g): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-subordinate relationships (e), Strategy commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g) are positively associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

7.6.3.1 Hypothesis H⁸: Examination of Regression Model Significance

The R² and the Adjusted R² values are displayed at the bottom of Table 7.10. The R² and the Adjusted R² values display values above zero at the 0.01 level. It is therefore determined that the regression equation for regression model 10 displays sufficient exploratory power and predicts changes in the dependent variable.

Table 7.10: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Strategy Process Antecedents and Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sigⁿ)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 10</i>	<i>Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness</i>	<i>Procedural Antecedents</i>	<i>H8 (a-g)</i>						
Model 10	IMPEFF	SUPFACIL	H8(a) ⁽⁺⁾	2.572 (1.148)	.500**	-.046	-.049	-.592	1.858
		PARTICIP	H8(b) ⁽⁺⁾	2.851 (1.231)	.476**	.085	.096	1.132	1.949
		INFOAVAIL	H8(c) ⁽⁺⁾	4.015 (1.228)	.586**	.166	.188	2.281*	1.832
		STRATFORM	H8(d) ⁽⁺⁾	3.773 (1.236)	.618**	.270	.309	3.820**	1.755
		SUPSUBREL	H8(e) ⁽⁺⁾	2.958 (1.019)	.455**	-.018	-.017	-.175	2.552
		STRATCOM	H8(f) ⁽⁺⁾	2.737 (1.1224)	.632**	.375	.389	5.422**	1.382
		FIRMRELS	H8(g) ⁽⁺⁾	3.418 (1.201)	.420**	.130	.145	1.854 †	1.637
		<i>Intercept</i>			.280			1.028	
Model Statistics									
		R²	Adjusted R²	F-value					
<i>Model 10</i>		.613	.587	23.534**					
† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$									
IMPEFF: Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness; SUPFACIL: Support; PARTICIP: Participation; INFOAVAIL: Info availability; STRATFORM: Strategy Formulation Effectiveness; SUPSUBRELS: Superior-Subordinate relationship; STRATCOM: Strategy Commitment; FIRMRELS: Intra-firm relationship									

With reference to Table 7.10, it is determined that all strategy process antecedents (a-g) are strongly associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

Correlation values are all significant at the 0.01 level. The strongest relationship is displayed between strategy commitment (f) with the dependent variable where the correlation value is .062. Further, this relationship is also strongly supported through regression analysis with a *t*-value of 5.422 at the 0.01 level. Strategy formulation effectiveness (d) also exhibits a strong relationship with the dependent variable with a correlation value of 0.618 and once more this relationship is supported through regression analysis with a *t*-value of 3.820 at the 0.01 level.

Further strong support exists between information availability (c) with both correlation and regression analyses supporting the relationship albeit that the significance level upon regression is at the 0.05 level. The only other relationship supported through regression is for firm relationships where a *t*-value of 1.851 is displayed at the 0.1 level.

Whilst there is no regression support for the remaining strategy process antecedents, all display strong correlation values, thus it is determined that H⁸ is supported.

From the results displayed in Table 7.10 it is determined that strategy commitment (f) is clearly associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. If MLMs have high ownership of the product-market strategy then this is found to translate into internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Internal effectiveness may be realized through their role performance aimed to facilitate the overall success of implementation (Noble and Mokwa, 1999). This involves the commitment of adequate resources, time and effort to the implementation initiative (Menon *et al.*, 1999).

Moreover, the results for strategy formulation effectiveness (d) reveal that MLMs perceive that if strategy making has been conducted comprehensively in terms of an exhaustive search of alternative options before a final decision is made, then this will lead

to internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Menon *et al.*, 1999). This might be concluded since comprehensiveness is allied to enhancing confidence in the chosen strategy (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Menon *et al.*, 1999; Eisenhardt, 1989).

The results in Table 7.10 also suggest that to enhance internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, MLMs need appropriate information available (c) to them in their implementation role. As such, communications channels need to enable managers to share information, ideas and the overall development of marketing strategy and implementation programmes (Simkin, 2002a: 2002a).

Firm relationships (g) are also strongly associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. If MLMs' values and goals are congruent with the organizations (Bennett and Durkin, 2000), these results imply that the internal effectiveness of implementation initiatives is likely to be enhanced.

The remaining strategy process antecedents (a, b and e) are all strongly associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness through correlation analysis. In summary therefore, MLMs need to perceive that support (a) is provided from senior management. Not only does this support lead to greater strategy commitment (Noble and Mokwa, 1999) but the finding in this study suggests that it is directly related to internal implementation effectiveness. Similarly, by MLMs participating (b) in the strategic decision making process, the results demonstrate that this will lead to enhanced product-market strategy implementation, a finding that finds support in previous studies (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Wooldridge and Floyd, 1989; Walker and Ruekert, 1987). Furthermore, the result for superior-subordinate relationships (e) indicates the development and maintenance of good rapport between senior management and MLMs is directly associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The literature in the domain

suggests that such relationships allow for subordinates to be able to influence superiors and that senior managers are inclined to act favourably on behalf of the work unit (Deluga, 1988; Kohli, 1985). This may mean that the MLMM is better able to secure resources that are crucial for the implementation effort.

To conclude, it is determined that all strategy process antecedents are directly associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, with particularly strong associations between four components, namely, strategy commitment (f), strategy formulation effectiveness (d), information availability (c) and intra-firm relationships (g).

7.6.4 The Relationship between Strategy Process Antecedents and External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

It was felt that a further additional analysis was useful in an understanding of MLMMs' product market strategy implementation behaviour and that this might be ascertained by examining the direct relationship between strategy process antecedents and the dependent variable of external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. H^9 is as follows:

H^9 (a-g): Support (a), Participation (b), Information availability (c), Strategy formulation effectiveness (d), Superior-subordinate relationships (e), Strategy commitment (f) and Firm relationships (g) are positively associated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

7.6.4.1 Hypothesis H^9 : Examination of Regression Model Significance

The R^2 and the Adjusted R^2 values are displayed at the bottom of Table 7.11. The R^2 and the Adjusted R^2 values display values above zero at the 0.01 level. It is therefore determined that the regression equation for regression model 11 displays sufficient exploratory power and predicts changes in the dependent variable.

Table 7.11: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Strategy Process Antecedents and External Product-Market Strategy Effectiveness

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardised Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 11</i>	<i>External Product-Market Strategy Effectiveness</i>	<i>Strategy Process Antecedents</i>	<i>H9 (a-g)</i>						
Model 11	STRATEFF	SUPFACIL	H9 (a) ⁽⁺⁾	2.649 (1.190)	.354**	-.022	-.021	-.199	1.858
		PARTICIP	H9 (b) ⁽⁺⁾	2.867 (1.260)	.432**	.166	.174	1.585	1.949
		INFOAVAIL	H9 (d) ⁽⁺⁾	4.054 (1.227)	.420**	.099	.104	.974	1.832
		STRATFORM	H9 (e) ⁽⁺⁾	3.760 (1.245)	.404**	.109	.115	1.105	1.755
		SUPSUBREL	H9 (f) ⁽⁺⁾	2.945 (.978)	.385**	.013	.012	.092	2.552
		STRATCOM	H9 (g) ⁽⁺⁾	2.772 (1.176)	.473**	.335	.321	3.476**	1.382
		FIRMRELS	H9 (h) ⁽⁺⁾	3.452 (1.225)	.308**	.119	.122	1.214	1.637
		Intercept				.843		2.219*	
Model Statistics									
	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F-value						
<i>Model 11</i>	.356	.305	7.039**						
† p ≤ .1; * p ≤ 0.05; ** p ≤ 0.01									
STRATEFF: External Product-Market Strategy Effectiveness; SUPFACIL: Support; PARTICIP: Participation; INFOAVAIL: Info availability; STRATFORM: Strategy Formulation Effectiveness; SUPSUBRELS: Superior-Subordinate relationship; STRATCOM: Strategy Commitment; FIRMRELS: Intra-firm relationship									

With reference to Table 7.11 it is determined that all strategy process antecedents are strongly correlated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, with correlation values all significant at the .001 level. The strongest association is found between strategy commitment (g) and the dependent variable with a correlation value of .473. This relationship is further supported through regression analysis with a *t*-value of 3.476 at the 0.01 level of significance. Whilst no further regression support is found for the other components of H⁹, it is determined that through strong positive correlation values, this hypothesis is nevertheless supported.

Table 7.11 displays the results for the association between strategy process antecedents and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. External product-market strategy implementation effectiveness relates to the effectiveness of the strategy in achieving customer satisfaction, providing value for customers and the performance of marketing on an overall basis (Krohmer *et al.*, 2002). This study uses what (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004) refer to as project level performance, by evaluating of how products or services of the organization have achieved objective expectations and customer response. The results in Table 7.11 imply that all strategy process antecedents have a strong and direct association with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The strongest association is found between strategy commitment (g) and the dependent variable, a result supported on both correlation and regression analysis. Whilst the results for H⁸, suggested a direct link between strategy commitment and implementation effectiveness, the findings in Table 7.11 suggest that additionally, if MLMs are committed to the strategy then ultimately the effectiveness of the strategy's implementation is enhanced. Similar conclusions can be determined for the other strategy process antecedents. Whilst all are found to be strongly associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness as reported in H⁸, the results for H⁹ imply that

there is a direct positive association between these antecedents and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. In conclusion, it is determined that the additional hypothesis, H^9 is supported.

7.6.5 The Relationship between Counterproductive Work Behaviour and External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

An additional analysis was performed to test the direct relationship between CWB in the form of self-interest with the dependent variable of external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. This was deemed potentially useful to aid in the further understanding of the direct outcomes of such behaviour by MLMs. It was felt that whilst a strong relationship is displayed between self-interested behaviour and internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, there may be a similar relationship between self-interested behaviour and the dependent variable of external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Thus, the following hypothesis is constructed:

H^{10} : Self-interested behaviour on behalf of MLMs is inversely associated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

7.6.5.1 Hypothesis H^{10} : Examination of Regression Model Significance

The R^2 and the Adjusted R^2 values are displayed at the bottom of Table 7.12. Both R^2 and the Adjusted R^2 values display values above zero at the 0.01 level. Thus, it is determined that the regression equation for the regression model 12 displays sufficient exploratory power and predicts changes in the dependent variable.

Table 7.12: Regression Model of the Relationship Between Self- Interest and External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ ^(sigⁿ)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardized Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 12</i>	<i>External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness</i>	<i>Self-interest</i>	<i>H10</i>						
Model 12	STRATEFF	SELFINT <i>Intercept</i>	H10 ⁽⁻⁾	4.5714 (1.218)	-.339**	-.337 4.920	-.339	-3.991** 12.332**	1.0

Model Statistics

	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F-value
<i>Model 12</i>	.115	.107	15.925**

† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$

SELFINT: Self-interest; STRATEFF: External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

With reference to Table 7.12 a strong inverse correlation relationship is exhibited between the independent variable of self-interest and the dependent variable of external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Further support is demonstrated through regression analysis with a *t*-value of -3.991 at the 0.01 level of significance. Thus, in addition to the hypotheses constructed in Chapter Three, it might be concluded that the additional relationship between self-interested behaviour on behalf of MLMMs, has a direct negative influence on the external effectiveness of the implementation of product market strategies.

According to the literature, self-interested behaviour is often covert, lacking in sanction and serving personal goals rather than the organizations (Curtis, 2003; Mayes and Allen, 1977). The results in table 7.12 display that self-interested behaviour on behalf of MLMMs is both inversely and strongly associated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Therefore by engaging in self-interested behaviour MLMMs are acting directly against the organizations goals whereby their behaviour is contrary to organizational effectiveness. Whilst it has also be found that for H³ that self-interested behaviour is directly and inversely associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, the results for H¹⁰ adds to these findings and confirm that this behaviour has important direct implications for external product-market strategy effectiveness. Consequently, it is important for senior decision makers to be aware of the key antecedents provoking this type of behaviour. These antecedents have already been discussed in the review of the results for H¹ and H².

7.6.6 The Relationship between Citizenship Behaviour and External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

The final additional analysis was performed to test the direct relationship between the five types of CB with the dependent variable of external product-market strategy

implementation effectiveness. Whilst a strong relationship is displayed between these five forms of CB and internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, this additional analysis seeks to find out if there is a similar relationship between CB and the dependent variable of external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Thus the following hypothesis is constructed:

H¹¹: Efficiency citizenship (a), Compliance citizenship (b), Allegiance citizenship (c), Loyalty citizenship (d) and Extra-role citizenship are positively associated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

7.6.6.1 Hypothesis H¹¹: Examination of Regression Model Significance

The R² and the Adjusted R² values are displayed at the bottom of Table 7.13. Both R² and the Adjusted R² values display values above zero at the 0.01 level. Thus, it is determined that the regression equation for the regression model 11 displays sufficient exploratory power and predicts changes in the dependent variable.

Table 7.13 Regression Model of the Relationship Between Citizenship Behaviour and External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

Regression Series	Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	H ₀ (sign)	Mean (S.D.)	Correlation Coefficient	Regression Coefficient	Standardised Regression Coefficient	t-value	Variance Inflation Factor
<i>Model 13</i>	<i>External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness</i>	<i>Citizenship Behaviour</i>	<i>H11 (a-e)</i>						
Model 13	STRATEFF	EFFCIT	H11 (a) (+)	2.7715 (1.042)	.255**	.243	.207	2.257 *	1.230
		COMPLCIT	H11 (b) (+)	2.760 (.972)	.063	-.124	-.098	-1.067	1.216
		ALLEGCIT	H11 (c) (+)	1.962 (.784)	.255**	.192	.123	1.330	1.231
		LOYCIT	H11 (d) (+)	2.903 (1.217)	.304**	.234	.233	2.505 *	1.244
		EXROLCIT	H11 (e) (+)	2.004 (1.218)	.267**	.106	.105	1.125	1.256
		Intercept				1.786		4.269**	
Model Statistics									
	<i>R</i> ²	<i>Adjusted R</i> ²	<i>F</i> -value						
<i>Model 13</i>	.177	.142	5.072**						

† $p \leq .1$; * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$

STRATEFF: External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness ; EFFCIT: Efficiency Citizenship; COMPLCIT: Compliance Citizenship; ALEGCIT: Allegiance Citizenship
LOYCIT: Loyalty Citizenship; EXROLCIT: Extra role citizenship

With reference to the results in table 7.13 it can be seen that whilst there is no association between compliance citizenship (b) with external product-market strategy effectiveness, there is strong correlation support for efficiency citizenship (a), allegiance citizenship (c), loyalty citizenship (d) and extra-role citizenship (e) with the dependent variable. The strongest association is found between loyalty citizenship and efficiency citizenship with the dependent variable. These relationships show both strong correlation support and regression support. It is therefore important that such CB is encouraged in MLMs as it is confirmed that such behaviour has the potential to improve organizational functioning (Dalal, 2005). Loyalty citizenship involves the MLM feeling part of the organization through relationships that identify him/her with the organization in a positive manner. Efficiency citizenship involves MLMs making the best use of resources, producing as much work as they are capable of and using their time effectively. Senior management need therefore to identify the antecedents that promote this kind of behaviour as the results indicate the potential benefits. Antecedents have already been discussed for Hypothesis 1B (a-j) and 2B (a-g).

Interestingly there is no association between compliance citizenship (b) and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. This finding is contrary to the findings in previous studies which have suggested that compliance is critical in achieving the intended outcomes of organizational policy decisions (Anderson and Johnson, 2005; Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). Compliance involves an active involvement on behalf of MLMs in implementing strategic decisions within the organization. Whilst this result is contrary to previous studies, (Anderson and Johnson, 2005) state that research on employee compliance is underdeveloped, particularly as regards an understanding of the role of organizational context on the relationship between policy directives and compliance. Therefore, whilst MLMs might comply with

implementing the decision, this does not necessarily lead to external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. It may therefore be necessary to conduct further research on the nature of the relationship between compliance and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

7.7 Conclusions

The aim of this Chapter was to examine, assess and test the hypothesized relationships which were contained in the revised model presented in Figure 7.1. This was conducted in order to determine the existence of relationships between procedural and strategy process antecedents to MLMMs' implementation behaviour and ultimate product-market implementation performance.

All hypotheses were tested through correlation analysis and regression analysis and evaluations made as to the level of support found for each hypothesis. Overall, support has been found for most of the hypothesized relationships presented in Figure 7.1.

Table 7.14 presents a summary of the main findings of the study. Clearly a negative association between procedural antecedents and self-interest is confirmed. The results indicate that the procedural antecedents of job characteristics, controls and rewards may have more influence on in-role citizenship behaviour than extra-role behaviour. This is particularly the case for the job characteristic – *job variety*. Additionally, procedural justice is found to be an important antecedent for promoting in-role citizenship behaviour; however, generally, procedural antecedents do not have a key role to play in promoting extra-role citizenship behaviour.

As regards strategy process antecedents, the results clearly indicate a strong inverse association with self-interested behaviour on behalf of MLMMs, particularly as regards support and participation in the product-market strategy implementation process. For the

relationship between strategy process antecedents and the different forms of CB, there is overall mixed support. Participation, interestingly, is found to be unimportant for the promotion of efficiency citizenship and compliance citizenship (both more in-role forms of CB). However, on the whole, strategy process antecedents appear to have more influence on the more extra-role forms of CB, such as loyalty, allegiance and extra-role citizenship as defined in this study.

Conclusions pertaining to the remaining relationships suggest that whilst all are confirmed, it seems that citizenship behaviour has a stronger influence on internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, than on external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

Table 7.14 SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS				
INDEPENDENT	DEPENDENT	CORRELATIONS	REGRESSIONS	CONCLUSION
Procedural Antecedents	Self-interest	All (negatively) significant Strong correlation: Controls Rewards Procedural Justice	Role autonomy Output control Professional control Procedural justice	Hypothesis 1A Supported
Procedural Antecedents	Citizenship Efficiency: (Best use of resources)	All significant except: Role significance Process control	Job variety	Hypothesis 1Bi Mixed
	Compliance : (accepting and fully implementing senior managements decisions)	All significant except: Role significance Process control	Job variety Procedural justice	Hypothesis 1Bii Mixed
	Allegiance: (promotion of a positive image of organization)	All significant except: Process control Output control Process rewards Output rewards	Job variety Professional control Output control Procedural justice	Hypothesis 1Biii Mixed
	Loyalty: (self development, spreading of goodwill)	All significant except: Job characteristics	Professional control Procedural justice	Hypothesis 1Biv Mixed
	Extra-role (taking on extra duties)	Model not significant		Hypothesis 1Bv Not supported
Strategy Process Antecedents	Self-Interest	All strongly (negatively) significant	Support Participation	Hypothesis 2A Supported
Strategy Process Antecedents	Citizenship Efficiency:	All significant except: Participation	Support Firm relations (attachment)	Hypothesis 2Bi Mixed
	Compliance:	All significant except: Participation	Superior-Subordinate relationships Firm relationships	Hypothesis 2Bii Mixed
	Allegiance:	All significant	Superior-subordinate Strategy commitment Firm relationships	Hypothesis 2Biii Supported
	Loyalty:	All significant	Support Info availability Strategy Commitment Firm relationships	Hypothesis 2Biv Supported
	Extra-role:	All significant except: Info availability Strategy commitment	Superior-subordinate relationships	Hypothesis 2Bv Mixed
Self Interest	Internal product-market strategy effectiveness	Significant (negative)	Significant	Hypothesis 3 Supported
Citizenship	Internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness	Significant	Efficiency Loyalty	Hypothesis 4 Supported
Internal product-market implementation effectiveness	External product-market strategy implementation effectiveness	Significant	Significant	Hypothesis 5 Supported

Table 7.14 Summary of Main Findings

Table 7.15 presents a summary of the main findings from the additional analyses performed in the study.

Table 7.15 MAIN FINDINGS FROM ADDITIONAL ANALYSES				
INDEPENDENT	DEPENDENT	CORRELATIONS	REGRESSIONS	CONCLUSION
Procedural antecedents	Internal Product-market strategy implementation effectiveness	All significant	Role autonomy Job variety Professional control	Hypothesis 6 Supported
Procedural Antecedents	External implementation effectiveness	All significant except: Prof control Process control Rewards	Job variety Role significance	Hypothesis 7 Mixed
Strategy Process antecedents	Internal implementation effectiveness	All significant	Information Availability Strategy Formulation Effectiveness Strategy Commitment Firm Relationships	Hypothesis 8 Supported
Strategy Process Antecedents	External Implementation effectiveness	All significant	Strategy Commitment	Hypothesis 9 Supported
Self interest	External Implementation effectiveness	Significant	Significant	Hypothesis 10 Supported
Citizenship	External Implementation effectiveness	All significant except: Compliance	Efficiency Loyalty	Hypothesis 11 Mixed

Table 7.15 Main Findings from Additional Analyses

The results in Table 7.15 highlight a number of direct associations between constructs presented in the conceptual model, through additional analyses performed. For example, a direct positive association exists between procedural antecedents, strategy process antecedents and the dependent variable, internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Further, there is a direct positive association between strategy process antecedents with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness and direct negative association between self-interest with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. However, there appears more mixed support for the relationship between procedural antecedents and external product-market strategy

implementation effectiveness and between citizenship behaviour and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. In the latter relationship, compliance citizenship appears unimportant to this relationship. For the relationship between CB and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, professional and process control and rewards all seem unimportant. Comparing the results in the two tables (Tables 7.13 and 7.14) CB has a stronger influence on internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness than it does on external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Further, comparing results in both tables, it is possible to ascertain which antecedents have a stronger direct influence on internal and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Thus, this has implications for the manipulation of these antecedents relative to organizational priorities and goals.

In conclusion, it may be implied from the above summary of the main findings of the study, that the conceptual model does reflect product-market strategy implementation behaviour in organizations. The following Chapter presents a discussion of these findings and their implications for the field of product-market strategy implementation research and practice.

Chapter Eight

Conclusions, Implications, Limitations and Directions for Future Research

8.1 Introduction

The aim of this Chapter is to present the conclusions from the tests performed as well as findings derived from data generated for this study. Following this, implications are presented both as they affect theory and the implementation of product-market strategies within organizations. This Chapter will also address the limitations of the study and provide avenues for future research as a result of the conclusions drawn.

The Chapter commences with a review of the research objectives and a summary of the literature and conceptualisation process that guided the study. This is followed by a summary of the methodological approach adopted to empirically examine the conceptual model.

8.2 Summary of Research Objectives

The research objectives for the study were detailed in Chapter Two and were presented as an exploration of mid-level marketing managers' (MLMMs') behaviour during the implementation of product-market strategy, and the impact of this behaviour on product-market strategy implementation performance. An extensive review of the literature attempted to integrate research in the domains of strategic management, marketing management and strategy implementation. This was supplemented with a review of literatures in the fields of organizational behaviour, human resource management and work psychology so as to provide a holistic conceptualization of the primary research objectives.

MLMMs were chosen as the focus for this study owing to their key role as product-market strategy implementers. It was first necessary to identify, ascertain and explore important situational antecedents that were reasoned to contribute to MLMMs' product-market implementation behaviour. Two discrete forms of behaviour were revealed in the literature that were considered to provide interesting insights for this study. These were

counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) in the form of self-interest and citizenship behaviour (CB). Thus, the conceptualization linked situational antecedents to these forms of behaviour. The resultant behavioural outcomes were firstly evaluated in terms of their effect on the internal effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation performance and secondly on the external effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation performance.

The research questions that guided the study are detailed below:

1. What are the situational antecedents influencing the role of MLMMs` in product-market strategy implementation?
2. How do these factors contribute to MLMMs` performance of product-market strategy implementation?
3. What are the resultant outcomes of MLMMs` performance in terms of internal product market strategy implementation effectiveness?
4. What are the outcomes of in terms of external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness?

8.3 Summary of the Literature Reviews and Conceptualisation

The literature review provided the basis for posing the research questions and at the same time extended the detail required for the conceptual development of the research. The conceptual model presented in Chapter Three results from the expansion of the theoretical and empirical knowledge surrounding the issues pertinent to this study during the conceptualisation process. This involved the integration of the different literature domains in an attempt to provide solutions to the research questions.

The literature review in Chapter Two reveals that effective product-market strategies are not simply the result of having managers skilled in the tools and techniques of

marketing analysis, formulation and developing marketing programs. There are significant organizational and human resources factors which must also be addressed. The conclusion derived from the review of the literature is that most existing models of strategy making fail to fully capture the complexity and variety of phenomena incorporated in the process. Past research in this respect has overlooked the varying roles managers' play in developing strategy. Importantly, since the primary objective of the marketing strategy process is to improve implementation capability as this ultimately results in improved organization performance (White *et al.*, 2003), product-market strategy implementation acts as a key mediator in the relationship between marketing strategy development and organization performance (McGuinness and Morgan, 2005).

Many studies have pointed to the failure in planning being due to poor implementation, yet the conclusion from the literature is that research into product-market strategy implementation is under-researched leading to what has been described as the 'implementation-gap' (Hrebiniak, 2006; Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Noble, 1999; Nutt, 1999; Parsa, 1999; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1996).

Despite attempts to redress the imbalance between research into formulation and implementation, it is concluded that there are still aspects in the domain of product-market strategy implementation that remain under-developed.

At the same time, the literature points to an evolution in the role of mid-level managers in organizations, one that has become more challenging and complex and which involves the efficient and effective deployment of organizational resources. As such MLMs' have a significant role to play in product-market strategy implementation. Allied to this, the literature in the domain of marketing reveals that little is known regarding the managerial action of transforming organizational inputs into performance outputs (Morgan *et al.*, 2002). Consequently, the principal conclusion derived from the literature review

presented in Chapter Two is that for effective marketing strategies, product-marketing strategy implementation plays a crucial role, and for effective product-market strategy implementation, an understanding of a broad variety of factors including content, context and process issues, are essential. Since key actors in the process are MLMMs, it becomes important to explore the organizational context in which these manager's perform their role and the dimensions of behaviour they enact in that role. By combining perspectives on product-market strategy implementation to incorporate a structural, contextual and interpersonal process perspective, it is argued that a much broader and integrative understanding of product-market strategy implementation may be ascertained.

A more detailed assessment of a broader range of factors considered to add important insights into the exploration of MLMMs' product-market implementation behaviour were therefore assessed in an attempt to answer the research questions. To this end, a further detailed literature review of such factors formed Chapter Three of the study. Literature in the fields of organizational behaviour, human resource management and work psychology were constructive in linking a wide variety of internal organizational antecedents to role behaviour and role performance. This permitted associations to be explored in terms of outcomes relative to product-market strategy implementation performance. The literature reviews lead to the grouping of an array of internal situational antecedents into procedural antecedents and strategy process antecedents. It was then judged useful to evaluate how these antecedents contributed to MLMMs' product-market strategy implementation behaviour.

Whilst many studies have looked at particular antecedents to behaviour that might encourage improved performance, it was felt that an interesting perspective in this study would be to additionally look at behaviour that works against organizational performance. The literature reveals that recognition of the prevalence, importance and costs of more

counterproductive forms of behaviour has led to an increase in research interest in the area. The term counterproductive work behaviour (CWB) is employed in this study from an assessment of a variety of forms of this type of behaviour in the literature. Of specific interest in this category was politically motivated self-interested behaviour since increasingly studies suggest that managers that are more motivated by their perceived self-interest than by organizational interest are not likely to promote effective product-market strategy implementation.

In order to fully address the research questions, it was also considered necessary to understand how a range of antecedents might also foster behaviour that was likely to enhance product-market strategy effectiveness. The literature review leads to an assessment of work on citizenship behaviour (CB). By taking the comprehensive perspective to CB as positive organizational relevant behaviours to include in-role job performance behaviours and organizationally functional extra-role behaviours it was felt that this would provide a comprehensive insight for answering the research questions. Consequently, an extensive understanding of MLMMs' behaviour and its association with product-market implementation performance would be provided.

The insights obtained from the literature in the various fields resulted in a robust theoretical, empirical and practical body of knowledge from which the conceptualisation process could proceed. The resultant conceptual model was presented in Chapter Three and was structured to incorporate *situational antecedents* (procedural and strategy process antecedents), *implementation behaviour* (CWB and CB) and *product-market implementation performance* (internal and external effectiveness). The conceptual model included five broad hypotheses.

Two broad hypotheses were constructed for the association between situational antecedents and MLMMs' behaviour. These were divided into two sub-hypotheses linking

procedural antecedents to CWB and CB respectively and two hypotheses linking strategy process antecedents to CWB and CB, respectively. This resulted in four hypotheses in total.

Two further hypotheses were constructed for the relationship between implementation behaviour (CWB and CB) and internal product-market implementation effectiveness, and a final hypothesis of the relationship between internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The aim of the conceptualisation process was to produce as holistic a model as possible by taking into consideration key constructs that were considered relevant in achieving the objectives of the study.

The limitations of the resultant conceptual model might include the lack of consideration of all possible paths or combinations of relationships among the constructs. Nevertheless, the paths chosen allowed for an analysis of the direct relationships between the constructs as per the remit of this study. A number of additional analyses were performed to take into account additional combinations of relationships. These were detailed in Chapter Seven and comments on these are provided later in this Chapter. It was then necessary to empirically examine the conceptual model. A summary of the research approach is presented in the following section.

8.4 Summary of Research and Analysis

A comprehensive discussion and detailed explanation of the decisions taken at each stage of the methodology process were presented in Chapters, Four, Five and Six of this study. The discussion commenced with a presentation of the epistemological approaches to research and the conclusion that a positivistic perspective would be employed. Whilst it was acknowledged that no methodology is epistemically superior to any other, an attempt was made to introduce reflection into the process thus employing elements of critical

theory. Employing a mainly positivist epistemology had, nonetheless, implications for how the research was to be conducted. An assessment of the various research designs followed resulting in the decision for the most appropriate design to achieve the aims of the study. It was concluded that this design would use descriptive research incorporating the cross-sectional design approach. Support for the approach is found in a number of marketing research studies (Malhotra and Birks, 2000; Churchill, 1999; Didow and Franke, 1984). Both the epistemological perspective chosen and the research design adopted served as the basis for the remainder of the methodological approach.

Decisions regarding data generation for the study were assessed in detail so as to maximize achieving a reliable and accurate dataset which would permit the empirical testing of the hypotheses generated. It was concluded that a survey methodology employing a postal questionnaire was the most suitable technique to use, taking into account the research objectives and the constraints in terms of resources. A detailed assessment of decisions leading to this conclusion was presented in Chapter Four.

Recommended guidelines for effective questionnaire development were implemented as advocated by a number of authors, particularly De Vaus, (2002); Dillman, (2000) and Churchill, (1999). The questionnaire employed measures mainly drawn from existing studies for the variables incorporated in the conceptual model since it is advocated that this enhances reliability. In some cases measures were adapted to take account of the context of the study. The questionnaire was pre-tested and piloted prior to full implementation to screen for potential problems pertaining to question content and wording, design, format and layout of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was implemented via a four stage postal survey to generate the data needed to test the five broad hypotheses included in the conceptual model. A sample of 701 'high tech' organizations served as the basis for participation in the survey. MLMs

and respondents in related positions such as product and brand managers were selected as key informants in the organizations. It was reasoned that such managers' would be in the best position to respond to the information requirements of the questionnaire. The survey was administered taking on board the recommendation in (Dillman, 2000) 'Tailored Design Method'. The procedure incorporated pre-notification, a questionnaire package including a cover letter explaining the importance of the survey along with a response incentive. A first reminder letter was sent a week after the original questionnaire package and second reminder containing a replacement questionnaire was sent two weeks after the first reminder. These stages had the intention of inducing and encouraging participation and dissuading non-response. This approach to survey administration resulted in a healthy response rate of 21.4% which allowed for a robust dataset serving as the basis for hypothesis testing.

Since the method of statistical analysis depends on the complexity of the research question, an evaluation of an array of appropriate techniques was undertaken for their appropriateness in exploring the research questions in this study. The analysis adopted *univariate* descriptive statistics including measures of central tendency (Mean) and dispersion (Standard Deviation). Further to these, the *bivariate* technique of correlation analysis was used to uncover relationships between variables in the conceptual model. It was then necessary to assess the structure of interrelations among the variables. This was achieved through employing principal components analysis (PCA) to transform the set of interrelated variables into a set of unrelated linear combinations. Once the factors were determined, data reduction could be achieved. Consequently, the information contained in the original variables was summarized and a smaller number of factors were extracted. Each linear combination accounted for a decreasing amount of variance in the original

variables. This allowed for the construction of scale indices and was to pave the way for performing subsequent multivariate data analysis through multiple linear regressions.

Once the scales were tested for reliability and validity, correlation analysis was once again used to examine the *bivariate* relationship between the variables. This analysis provided the foundation for testing the hypotheses through multiple linear regressions. This study employed multiple linear regressions to analyse the direct relationships between the dependent variable and the predictor or independent variables within the conceptual model. It was hoped that these analyses would lead to fulfilling the research objectives of this study and thereby fill some of the gaps that exist in extant research. The data analysis employed to test the five broad hypotheses presented in the conceptual model resulted in a number of insightful findings which are discussed in the following sections of this Chapter.

8.5 Conclusions to the Study

The main conclusions drawn from the findings from the study are detailed in this section. The presentation follows the format presented in the conceptual model whereby firstly, the hypotheses relating to situational antecedents, both procedural antecedents and strategy process antecedents, with product-market strategy implementation behaviour are each discussed in turn. This is followed by a discussion of the hypotheses linking product-market strategy implementation behaviour to product-market strategy implementation performance.

8.5.1 Conclusions for the Relationship between Situational Antecedents and Product-market Strategy Implementation Behaviour

The broader hypothesis H¹ of the relationship between procedural antecedents and product-market strategy implementation behaviour suggested an inverse association with CWB in

the form of self-interest on behalf of MLMMs' (H^{1A}) and a positive association with citizenship behaviour (CB) (H^{1B}). Each of these relationships is discussed in the following sections.

8.5.1.1 Procedural Antecedents and Counterproductive Work Behaviour

The findings for H^{1A} presented in Chapter Seven of this study revealed strong support for the proposition that procedural antecedents do inversely influence CWB, with each procedural antecedent impacting on this form of behaviour. As a consequence, job characteristics such as role autonomy, task identity, job variety and role significance are important antecedents to consider for MLMMs' implementation role. Further, the results revealed that control mechanisms incorporating, professional, output and process control, and additionally, output rewards and process rewards and MLMMs' perception of procedural justice are key precursors to the assessment of CWB.

These findings confirm work which has suggested that individuals' perceptions of work place policies and procedures affect organizational productivity and performance (Clinebell and Shadwick, 2005; Patterson *et al.*, 2004). This study adds to existing knowledge by ascertaining how important procedural antecedents influence MLMMs self-interested behaviour in their implementation role. The findings exposed an especially strong inverse relationship between output control, professional control and procedural justice perceptions with self-interested behaviour.

The general notion of control mechanisms being inversely associated with CWB is found in the literature (Brashear *et al.*, 2005). This study reveals that professional control is found to be strongly inversely associated with CWB. Professional control is a form of informal control and is suggested as being less associated with CWB (Jaworski and MacInnis, 1989). Additionally, Jaworski *et al.* (1993), suggest that control mechanisms

combine synergistically and the findings in this study conclude that if output and professional control are combined, the likelihood of MLMs' acting in their own interests will be reduced.

The literature also suggests that if individuals feel that the process undertaken to reach organizational decisions and actions has been conducted unfairly, this can elicit resistant behaviour (De Cremer, 2005; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997). The strong inverse relationship uncovered between procedural justice perceptions and self-interested behaviour in this study supports this earlier work but also adds to knowledge through providing insights into the unique relationship between procedural justice perceptions and product-market strategy implementation behaviour.

8.5.1.2 Procedural Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

Hypothesis H^{1B} recommended a positive relationship between procedural antecedents and CB enacted by MLMs' during product-market strategy implementation. The findings for this broad relationship displayed mixed support on the whole. Five sub-categories to CB were assessed compared to the three commonly found in the literature. This contributed to an understanding of this form of behaviour as it influences product-market strategy implementation behaviour. These sub-categories were efficiency citizenship, allegiance citizenship, compliance citizenship, loyalty citizenship and extra-role citizenship and together include both discretionary and role prescribed behaviour. This formed a holistic approach to CB as is advocated in the literature (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). The conclusions for each sub-category are discussed.

The results for efficiency citizenship (H^{1Bi}) exhibited only mixed support, however the procedural antecedent of job variety stands out in the findings with strong support. Support for this finding exists in the literature (Patterson *et al.*, 2004; Teas, 1981; Hackman

and Oldham, 1975). Therefore this study confirms that the greater the opportunity for MLMs to use a variety of skills in their role, the more likely this will result in efficiency citizenship behaviour. Nevertheless, other job characteristics do not exhibit such strong support and no relationship was found between role significance and efficiency citizenship, a contrary finding to the literature (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). Consequently, it is concluded that whilst the job characteristics of role autonomy, task identity and role significance may define certain positive work behaviours, they have no particular influence on whether MLMs` make the best use of their resources and produce as much as they are capable of in their implementation role.

Whilst the results for H^{1A} indicated strong inverse relationships between output and professional control and self-interested behaviour, a strong positive association is displayed for these elements of control and efficiency citizenship. In H^{1Bi}, output and professional control have a positive influence on efficiency citizenship. Interestingly, process control bears no relationship with efficiency citizenship. It is advocated that controls combine synergistically and that are most effective when informal and formal mechanisms are effectively blended (Jaworski *et al.*, 1993). For MLMs` to engage in efficiency citizenship behaviour, the combination of professional and output control appears to be the most effective combination. In addition, results infer the importance of providing both process and output rewards in order to encourage efficiency citizenship.

Finally, MLMs` perception of procedural justice indicates that if they perceive work place procedures as being fair, they are likely to reciprocate through the performance of citizenship behaviour, thus confirming findings in exiting studies (Erhart, 2004; Muhammad, 2004). This study adds to extant studies by highlighting the impact of procedural antecedents on this specific form of citizenship behaviour. If MLMs` hold positive procedural justice perceptions, they are likely to work more efficiently in their role.

The findings for the relationship between procedural antecedents and compliance citizenship (H^{1Bii}) reveal that all procedural antecedents influence this form of CB, except for role significance and process control where no association with compliance citizenship can be confirmed. These findings are similar to those for H^{1Bi}, further confirming that role significance and process control are relatively unimportant in promoting citizenship behaviour whereby job variety and procedural justice perceptions are clearly key in promoting such behaviour. The literature argues that job variety defines the motivating potential of a particular job (Teas, 1981; Hackman and Oldham, 1975). This study concludes that having the possibility to use a variety of skills in their role encourages MLMMs' to comply with senior management's strategic decisions. This is clearly important in product-market strategy implementation. Once again, MLMMs' positive perception of procedural justice is important in fostering their compliance in the implementation of strategic decisions.

H^{1Biii} recommended that procedural antecedents are positively associated with allegiance citizenship. Although representative behaviours of allegiance citizenship have been incorporated into more general measures of citizenship behaviour (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994), the findings add to knowledge in the domain through the uncovering of direct links between procedural antecedents and this particular form of CB. Allegiance citizenship refers to MLMMs' promotion of a positive image of both the organization and its products to external constituents as well as making sure that they keep themselves' informed and up to date concerning the organization's products.

This study concludes that once again, the strongest association is found between job variety and allegiance citizenship, indicating that the greater the opportunity for MLMMs' to use a number of different skills in their implementation role, the more likely they are to engage in behaviour that positively promotes the organization as a whole.

Whilst the literature suggests that in general, job characteristics are associated with CB (Patterson *et al.*, 2004; Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994), this study extends knowledge in the domain by revealing that all job characteristics (role autonomy, job variety, task identity and role significance) influence this specific type of CB. Moreover, the findings also reveal a strong association between procedural justice and allegiance citizenship. Thus far, it is concluded that both job variety and procedural justice are key concepts for studying CB within the organization.

Interestingly, the findings suggest no relationship between measures of organizational control and rewards with allegiance citizenship. It may therefore be concluded that whilst control mechanisms and rewards potentially influence other aspects of CB, for example, efficiency citizenship and compliance citizenship, they do not encourage MLMMs' to promote a positive image of the organization to outsiders or to keep abreast of current organizational developments. Whilst the results are contrary to those hypothesized, upon reflection a partial explanation might involve control and reward mechanisms having a greater influence on more role prescribed behaviour as is found in the efficiency citizenship and compliance citizenship constructs. Allegiance citizenship does not incorporate totally role prescribed behaviour.

Hypothesis H^{1Biv} proposed that procedural antecedents would have a positive association with loyalty citizenship. Loyalty citizenship is represented in this study by behaviours such as MLMMs' self-development and the spreading of goodwill in the organization. Such behaviour is more discretionary than role prescribed.

The findings indicate mixed support for this relationship. Positive relationships were found between components of control, rewards and procedural justice with loyalty citizenship. It might, nevertheless, be concluded that whilst job characteristics may define the motivating potential of a job, and indeed increase satisfaction, they cannot be confirmed

to induce extra-role behaviour. As such, and according to the findings reported for other hypotheses in this study, it would seem that job characteristics have a greater influence on role prescribed behaviour than non role prescribed behaviour even if such behaviour does improve overall organizational functioning.

Those procedural antecedents that do influence loyalty citizenship include a combination of both formal and informal controls including professional, process and output control. The strongest relationship was found between professional control and loyalty citizenship, indicating that the combination of controls needed to foster loyalty citizenship must include professional control. It is concluded therefore, that as previous studies suggest, professional control fosters cooperation between colleagues through interaction, discussion and informal assessment (Brashear *et al.*, 2005) and that loyalty is fostered through this co-operation with others to serve the interest of the organization as a whole (Dalal, 2005; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). Furthermore, it might be concluded that rewards offered to MLMMs' must include both output and process rewards to foster loyalty citizenship. This is also be inferred from extant studies which suggest that reward mechanisms engender the sharing of information relative to strategy development (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004). As such, information sharing contributes to co-operation with others as has already been discussed in terms of the resultant implications with loyalty citizenship. As with the findings for H^{1B} hypotheses discussed previously, strong support is found between procedural justice with loyalty citizenship indicating that to be loyal organizational citizens, MLMMs' need to perceive that procedures used and decisions made in the organization are fairly administered. Consequently, procedural justice is an important concept for explaining employee's behaviour in organizations (De Coninck and Stilwell, 2004; De Cremer, 2005). This study concludes that procedural justice is

directly associated with this specific form of CB as it is with efficiency citizenship, compliance citizenship and allegiance citizenship.

The final sub-hypothesis of H^{1B} refers to the relationship between procedural antecedents and extra-role citizenship. It was highlighted in Chapter Seven that extra-role citizenship in this study is intentional employee behaviour typically not recognised but nonetheless leads to improved organizational functioning (Dalal, 2005). Such behaviour is not role prescribed but includes taking on extra duties and responsibilities and working beyond the required norms. Of all hypothesized relationships, this relationship receives the weakest support and as displayed in Chapter Seven model 7.2v, the R² and Adjusted R² indicate no exploratory power. Consequently is concluded that none of the procedural antecedents influence MLMs' to work beyond what is required in their role. Although these results are contrary to those originally supposed, some explanation may be found with reference to the work of (Brief and Motowilo, 1986), who suggest that performance beyond some minimal acceptable level is of no significance in analyzing role performance. Thus, in this study it can be concluded that in an assessment of MLMs' product-market strategy implementation role, these antecedents influence on extra-role behaviour is inconsequential, but as has been discussed, such antecedents are nevertheless important in an assessment of within-role behaviour (role prescribed behaviour).

In summary, the relationship between procedural antecedents and components of CB exhibit mixed support. However a number of associations stand out. Job variety, professional control and procedural justice have consistently been found to have an important influence on three forms of CB, these being efficiency citizenship, compliance citizenship and allegiance citizenship. Each of these forms of CB tends towards more role prescribed behaviour than do loyalty citizenship and extra-role citizenship. In order for MLMs' to comply with strategic decisions, to be efficient in their role and to promote a

positive image of the organization and its products, clearly job variety, professional control and procedural justice become critical antecedents to consider. However, it is concluded that these procedural antecedents are superfluous in attempting to change the behaviour of MLMMs' towards more extra-role citizenship behaviour.

8.5.1.3 Strategy Process Antecedents and Counterproductive Work Behaviour

Hypothesis H^{2A} proposed an inverse association between strategy process antecedents and CWB in the form of self-interest. This study concludes that all strategy process antecedents inversely influence such behaviour. Self-interested behaviour involves MLMMs' acting specifically for advancing their personal own ends by engaging in behaviour that appears to be beneficial, but is dysfunctional in the long run. This might include MLMMs' manipulation of marketing information to intentionally mislead, or even their inaction in 'not rocking the boat', which might ultimately lead to the fulfilment of personal objectives.

It is determined that in order to prevent such behaviour the product-market strategy implementation process clearly requires a driving force in order to succeed since the strongest association is displayed between support and self-interested behaviour. Although this finding receives support in earlier studies (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Connors and Romberg, 1991), this current extends knowledge in the domain through its' analysis of CWB. Most extant studies have analysed support as a driver to increased motivation and compliance yet the findings in this study illustrate that lack of support can also lead to CWB.

Supplementary conclusions are drawn suggesting that in order to prevent the occurrence of self-interested behaviour on behalf of MLMMs' they need to participate in the overall strategy formulation process. This is in order that they might fully understand the process leading to implementation. Whilst this finding too finds support in the literature

(Harrison, 1992), comprehension is extended through the conclusions that if MLMs are excluded from the process they are more likely to pursue their own interests to the detriment of the organization as a whole. This is also the case for information availability since available information for implementation provides MLMs with a comprehensive understanding of the process.

In terms of strategy formulation effectiveness, if MLMs do not believe that the process has been thoroughly and comprehensively conducted, they are more likely to engage in self-interested behaviour. Whilst the literature advocates that comprehensiveness in the marketing strategy process provides the potential to generate a wide range of strategy options, refine and improve selected strategy and to enhance the confidence in the chosen strategy (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Bailey *et al.*, 2000; Menon *et al.*, 1999) it is also suggested that a research gap exists in the relationship between marketing strategy comprehensiveness and performance. Previous studies have neglected an array of internal and external factors that may influence the effect of a specific strategic decision (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004). This study reports that MLMs' perception of comprehensiveness provides some insight into the relationship. If MLMs do not feel that the process has been conducted comprehensively, then they are more likely to engage in self-interested behaviour and this potentially has a negative effect on the quality of the overall strategy.

The literature also suggests that if MLMs have no unique relationship with their senior manager, one that contains emotionality and affect, then they are less likely to be able to influence the senior manager in any attempt to gain resources or rewards that might be crucial for product-marketing implementation (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996; Deluga and Perry, 1991; Kohli, 1985). This study concludes that if this relationship is not developed then MLMs will not be able to influence senior managers to act favourably on their behalf

and as such will be more likely to engage in self-interested behaviour. Additionally, if they are not committed to the organizations strategy then it is once again determined that they are more likely to engage in self-interested behaviour. Support is found for this relationship in the literature whereby it is purported that managers with low or negative commitment to the organizations strategy are deemed to create significant obstacles to effective implementation (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Guth and MacMillan, 1986). Finally, the findings imply that if MLMMs` are not attached to their organization due to incongruity between their goals and those of the organization as a whole then this will likely encourage self-interested pursuits.

The strong inverse associations between strategy process antecedents and self-interest on behalf of MLMMs` provide important clues for senior managers for the provision of an appropriate environment for marketing strategy making. This study concludes that the environment neglects these antecedents, and then problems are likely to occur through MLMMs` pursuing self-interest rather than taking on board the organizations interests as a whole. This is likely to have important implications for the overall effectiveness of product-market strategies.

8.5.1.4 Strategy Process Antecedents and Citizenship Behaviour

As in H¹B, five sub-categories to CB were assessed; efficiency citizenship, allegiance citizenship, compliance citizenship, loyalty citizenship and extra-role citizenship. These categories integrated both discretionary and role prescribed behaviour forming a holistic approach to CB. The findings reported in Chapter Seven point to strong positive associations in general, with mixed support for some components of this hypothesis. Each association is discussed in turn.

The first sub-hypothesis of H^{2B} included the association between strategy process antecedents with efficiency citizenship (H^{2Bi}). Overall, mixed support was found. Interestingly and contrary to the conceptualized relationship formed from a review of the literature, participation was found to have no association with efficiency citizenship. The literature advises that participation in the decision making process satisfies employees higher order needs leading to job satisfaction, higher motivation and increased productivity (Li and Butler, 2004; Muhammad, 2004; Miller, 1997). Nevertheless, this study cannot confirm such a relationship. Studies have suggested that positive evaluations of the supervisor moderate the relationship between participation and CB, whereby supervisor support becomes important in the relationship. It may therefore be necessary to further explore the relationship between participation and CB in light of these findings.

Strong support is revealed between firm relationships (organizational attachment) and superior-subordinate relationships. For MLMMs' to be efficient in the use of resources available to them their goals must be congruent with those of the organizations and a good rapport needs to exist with their senior managers'. This latter conclusion seems logical in so far as MLMMs' are likely to be able to influence senior managers to obtain the requisite resources for them to be able to perform their role more efficiently. Whilst positive associations between efficiency citizenship and strategy formulation effectiveness, support and strategy commitment are also revealed, the associations are weaker. Thus, it might be concluded that they are less important in encouraging efficiency citizenship.

The second sub-category of H^{2B} proposed a positive association between procedural antecedents and compliance citizenship (H^{2Bii}) and it is concluded that this hypothesis is upheld through strong support for all components with this form of CB excluding that of participation. This latter result is somewhat surprising given the support for this relationship in previous studies. This study determines that regardless of whether MLMMs'

upheld through strong support for all components with this form of CB excluding that of participation. This latter result is somewhat surprising given the support for this relationship in previous studies. This study determines that regardless of whether MLMMs' participate fully in the strategy making process, this has no bearing on whether they comply with senior managements strategic decisions. Support in the supervisor or senior manager may moderate this relationship (Van Yperen *et al.*, 1999). Further research is necessary to understand this finding more fully. The findings exhibit support for the association between strategy commitment and compliance citizenship. Since strategy commitment incorporates high ownership of the strategy, defined as the extent to which managers agree on the strategic option and intend to carry it out (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Korsgaard *et al.*, 1995) it is concluded that strategy commitment rather than participation is a more important antecedent for fostering MLMMs' compliance. Previous studies in the domain of strategy commitment that have suggested that a high level of commitment motivates individuals to put forth effort and cooperate in behaviours that are required to successfully implement change (Beer *et al.*, 1990).

Interestingly, in general, the findings for this relationship mirror that of H^{2Bi} , suggesting that for MLMMs' to comply with senior managements' strategic decision, their goals must be congruent with those of the organizations. Additionally, good rapport must exist between them and their senior managers' since the strongest association is exhibited between inter-firm relationships and superior-subordinate relationships with compliance citizenship. This confirms (Maslyn *et al.*, 1996) assertion that interpersonal influence in organizations is increasing in importance. The results in this study confirm that higher quality exchanges between supervisors and subordinates (MLMMs') leads to subordinates being able to exert influence on their superiors in order to obtain more benefits. Whilst it is suggested that such behaviour leads to CB in general, it is confirmed in this study that high

quality exchanges lead to the more specific form of compliance citizenship. MLMMs' with high quality relationships with their senior manager are more likely to comply with strategic decisions.

Although the remaining antecedents of support and information availability also influence MLMMs' compliance, the findings indicate that these may be less important than the above strategy process antecedents.

The third sub-category of H^{2B} proposed that strategy process antecedents were positively associated with allegiance citizenship. During PCA, the original variable, *loyalty* was found to split into two categories forming an additional category of CB. Representative behaviours of allegiance citizenship in this study include MLMMs' representing the organization favourably to external constituents, being up-to date regarding the organizations product offerings and positively promoting the organization. This study concludes that all strategy process variables are positively associated with allegiance citizenship and thus, the conceptualisation of this relationship is confirmed. Interestingly, the strongest associations are displayed between superior-subordinate relationships and firm relationships, a finding that emulates the relationship between strategy process antecedents with efficiency citizenship and compliance citizenship. However, a further finding is the strong association between strategy commitment and allegiance citizenship, suggesting that whilst strategy commitment is confirmed to influence MLMMs' compliance with strategic decisions, this study further illustrates that this antecedent strongly influences MLMMs' overall allegiance with the organization. Whilst support is confirmed for the additional strategy process variables, the strength of association is somewhat weaker. Nevertheless, all might be concluded to play a role in fostering allegiance citizenship on behalf of MLMMs.

Unlike the relationship between participation with efficiency citizenship and compliance citizenship where no association was found, interestingly participation is found to have a positive impact on allegiance citizenship. Participation in decision making increased the level of job satisfaction, leading to higher motivation and increased productivity (Li and Butler, 2004; Muhammad, 2004; Miller, 1997). The literature further implies that increased performance leads to improved company relationships (Teas, 1981). As such, the results in this study concur with these earlier findings. Why participation is found to be associated with allegiance citizenship and not efficiency or compliance citizenship might partly be explained via allegiance citizenship incorporating more extra-role behaviour. To have allegiance with the organization does not generally form role prescribed behaviour. Nevertheless, these findings extend the knowledge of CB by illustrating that certain antecedents play an important role in promoting role prescribed aspects of the construct and others, more extra-role aspects or altruistic dimensions of the construct.

The fourth sub category of H^{2B} proposed a positive relationship between procedural antecedents and loyalty citizenship. Although similar to allegiance citizenship in so far as emotional attachment is integral to the construct, loyalty citizenship refers to employees contributing to the organizations good reputation, and projecting a positive image of the organization with the intent of serving organizational interests as a whole. Such behaviour is more extra-role than role prescribed.

This study concludes that all strategy process antecedents are strongly associated with this form of CB. The strongest support is displayed between strategy commitment, firm relationships and support with loyalty citizenship. Of these the strongest association is found between firm relationships and loyalty citizenship suggesting that if MLMs' strongly believe in and accept the values of the organization, they are more likely to be

loyal to the organization (Cardona *et al.*, 2004; Li-Ping Tang and Ibrahim, 1998; Meyer *et al.*, 1993; Coopey and Hartley, 1991). Nevertheless, the results afford a contribution to knowledge of CB by illustrating the association with this specific form of CB.

Furthermore, strategy commitment is likely to translate into MLMs' being more loyal to the organization. As such, strategy commitment induces MLMs' to contribute to the good reputation of the organization and to cooperate with others to serve the organizations general interest.

Support from senior management too, is a key strategy process antecedent producing MLMs' loyalty. If senior management are seen to be making considerable effort in their support of product-market strategy implementation, MLMs' are likely to be more attached to the organization and co-operate with others in the pursuit of organizational interests. Whilst extant literature reveals a link between leader supportiveness and CB, this study extends this understanding by illustrating the direct link with loyalty citizenships as conceptualized in this study.

Additionally, participation is positively associated with loyalty citizenship. This finding reflects that reported for the association between participation and allegiance citizenship previously discussed. This may be partly explained through loyalty citizenship being more akin to extra-role behaviour than within role behaviour. In conclusion therefore, MLMs' participation in strategy making has a greater impact on behaviour that is non-role prescribed. Although this is an interesting finding, further exploration is necessary for the association between participation and CB. It is acknowledged that additional strategy process antecedents are also positively associated with loyalty citizenship, but the association is weaker and therefore less important for fostering CB.

The final hypothesized relationship of H^{2B} suggested that strategy process antecedents are positively associated with extra-role citizenship. Extra-role citizenship in

this study was conceptualized from the literature review as behaviour that is typically not rewarded in organizations and not typically role prescribed (Cardona *et al.*, 2004; Konovsky and Organ, 1996). Such behaviour is regarded as having an important role in promoting positive organizational functioning. Representative behaviour in this study include MLMMs` taking on extra responsibilities and working beyond what is required in their role.

Overall, only weak support was found for this the association. Nevertheless, once again the strongest association is found between superior-subordinate relationships and extra-role citizenship. Consequently, it can be concluded that where a good rapport exists between MLMMs` and senior managers, that allows MLMMs` to influence the relationship, they are more likely to display discretionary behaviour. Whilst the literature links superior-subordinate relationships to CB in general (Tepper and Taylor, 2003); this study concludes that more specifically, good quality superior-subordinate relationships are likely to be associated with more discretionary behaviour and beneficial for general organizational functioning.

Participation is also found to be positively associated with extra-role citizenship. Whereas this variable was not found to have any association with the more role prescribed forms of citizenship behaviour (efficiency citizenship and compliance citizenship) interestingly, this association consolidates the explanation that MLMMs` participation in strategy making within the organization is likely to promote more discretionary forms of CB rather than for generalized compliance dimensions of the construct.

It is also concluded that firm relationships (organizational attachment) and strategy formulation effectiveness are also positively associated with extra-role citizenship, although to a lesser extent than those relationships discussed above. However, no association can be confirmed between support, information availability and strategy commitment with extra-

role citizenship. As a consequence, it is determined that whilst having appropriate and timely information available for product-market strategy implementation, perceiving the strategy process to have been conducted comprehensively and being committed to the organizations strategy is associated with in-role (prescribed) behaviour, it cannot be confirmed that these strategy process antecedents will influence MLMMs' to engage in behaviour beyond what is formally required in their role.

The above discussion has demonstrated the key conclusions that are determined from an assessment of strategy process antecedents with product-market strategy implementation behaviour. To further explore the conceptualisation it is necessary to present the main conclusions for the associations between the forms of implementation behaviour with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. This discussion follows in the next section.

8.5.2 Product-Market Strategy Implementation Behaviour and Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

The conceptual model presented in Chapter Three proposes that two forms of implementation behaviour interact and influence product-market strategy implementation performance in terms of the effectiveness of which the process is carried out. These two forms of behaviour include CWB in the form of MLMMs' acting in their own interests and CB. The following sections present the main conclusions of these proposed relationships.

8.5.2.1 Counterproductive Work Behaviour and Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

This study employs the term (CWB) to denote behaviour that is antisocial and harmful to organizational functioning (Dalal, 2005). The delineation of CWB from the literature review suggests that an important aspect of such behaviour that has relevance for the

performance of product-market strategy implementation is the politics of self-interest. It is argued that a gap exists in research where the problems of self-interested interventions on behalf of MLMMs' in strategic decisions developed by senior management have not been addressed (Guth and MacMillan, 1986). Hypothesis H³ therefore proposed that self-interested behaviour by MLMMs' is inversely associated with internal product-market implementation effectiveness. Such self-interested behaviour includes, for example, passive compliance and taking deliberately ineffective action thereby creating obstacles to implementation. Further, inaction is deemed a politically self-interested act since 'not rocking the boat' or 'going along to get ahead' might be enacted specifically for advancing MLMMs own interests (Kacmar and Carlson, 1997). Additionally, lying, enhancing or degrading selected information to intentionally mislead is regarded as efficacious to this end (Curtis, 2003).

The findings presented in Chapter Seven of this study reveal strong support for this hypothesized relationship. Consequently, it is determined that the more MLMMs' engage in self-interested behaviour, the less effectively product-market strategy implementation is performed. Internal effectiveness concerns MLMMs' perception that they have been successful in their role of product-market strategy implementer through the appropriate transformation of important resources into valuable project level outputs.

The conclusion for this relationship with general findings from previous studies suggesting that self-interested behaviour leads to non desired outcomes that act against organizational effectiveness (Royale *et al.*, 2005; Drory and Romm, 1990). More specifically however, support for Guth and MacMillan's, (1986) assertion that managers who are motivated more by their self-interest than by organizational interest are unlikely to promote effective strategy implementation is claimed. Knowledge is extended in so far as insights are offered for the appropriate transformation of resource inputs into required

project level outcomes, an area that (Morgan *et al.*, 2002) suggest is underdeveloped in research.

8.5.2.2 Citizenship Behaviour and Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

Hypothesis H⁴ recommended that Citizenship Behaviour (CB) is positively associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness and the findings reported in Chapter Seven confirm this broad hypothesized relationship. All sub-components of CB are positively associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Particularly strong support was displayed for the association between efficiency citizenship and loyalty citizenship with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. These results therefore, concur with studies that purport that such behaviour generally contributes to effective long-term organizational functioning (Dalal, 2005; Brief *et al.*, 2000; Konovsky and Organ, 1996; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994).

Efficiency citizenship is associated with MLMMs' making the best use of resources and producing as much work as they are capable. In this way, they are fulfilling their prescribed role obligations. Additionally, and perhaps more interestingly, the more loyal MLMMs' are to the organization, the more effectively they will perform their duties of transforming important inputs into outputs of relevance to product-market strategy implementation performance. Loyalty citizenship has been described as incorporating more discretionary behaviour. These findings indicate that in addition to formally prescribing what is necessary as MLMMs' carry out their implementation tasks, fostering discretionary behaviour also contributes to internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Although the literature suggests that such behaviour generally improves organizational functioning (Dalal, 2005; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994), this study can conclude

that such behaviour specifically leads to internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. This conclusion contradicts (Brief and Motowildo, 1986) assertion that performance beyond some minimally accepted level is of little interest to organizations. As such, taking a holistic approach to CB to incorporate both within-role and extra-role performance is merited as advised by (Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). This is further confirmed by the strong positive associations revealed for the additional components of CB with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness which include both role prescribed and extra-role behaviours.

Consequently, it is determined that CWB is inversely associated with the internal effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation and that CB is positively associated with this performance outcome. The next section presents the main conclusions for the association between internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

8.5.3 Internal Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness and External Product-Market Strategy Implementation Effectiveness

Hypothesis H⁵ recommended that internal product-market strategy effectiveness is positively associated with external product-market strategy effectiveness and the findings presented in Chapter Seven confirm this hypothesized relationship. The dependent variable of external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness is defined in this study as a project level performance measure. This is assessed in terms of how the organizations' product or services have achieved expected sales, market share and profit objectives. Arguably these are key performance measures for marketing strategy-making (Atuahene-Gima and Murray, 2004; Menon *et al.*, 1999).

The extent to which resources are committed to strategy implementation leads to the external effectiveness of the process. According to Menon *et al.* (1999) resource commitment is an important element for internal product-market strategy effectiveness. H⁵ confirms the findings of Menon *et al.* (1999) adding further support to the contention that failure in implementation is due to lack of understanding of resource commitments (Menon *et al.*, 1999; Ramanujam *et al.*, 1986). Additionally, this study contributes to an understanding of resource commitment by illustrating that the appropriate transformation of resources into the required project outputs is via MLMMs' effective role performance during implementation. This exemplifies the critical role MLMMs' play in ensuring the ultimate effectiveness of implementation efforts.

Clearly, internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness as assessed by MLMMs' role performance and in terms of the resources committed has a strong positive influence on the external effectiveness of an organizations' product-market strategy implementation effort.

The above presentation has included the main conclusions drawn from the findings of the tested relationships of the conceptual model. It might be argued, however, that by only testing these relationships the model's usefulness is limited. Therefore, a number of additional relationships were tested and the details presented in Chapter Seven. The next section provides an overview of key conclusions from these additional analyses.

8.5.4 Comments on Additional Relationships Tested

The conclusions pertaining to the central relationships discussed in Chapter Seven were considered to demonstrate the most pertinent associations between the constructs presented in the model. In choosing these relationships consideration was given to the need to establish boundaries to the conceptual model to avoid it becoming unmanageable as regards

testing and analysis. Nevertheless, a number of supplementary analyses were performed and the results of these were presented in detail in Chapter Seven, (section 7.6). In total an additional six hypothesized relationships were presented. This section draws together the main conclusions from these.

Hypothesis H⁶ recommended the direct relationship between procedural antecedents and internal product-market implementation effectiveness. It was found that all procedural antecedents positively influence this relationship. Particularly strong relationships were displayed between the job characteristics of role autonomy, and job variety, and also with professional control and process rewards with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. These results concur with previous studies suggesting significant direct associations between job characteristics and measures of performance (Patterson *et al.*, 2004; Koys, 2001). Additionally, Jaworski and MacInnis, (1989) found a strong relationship between the type of control system used in the organization and performance. Consequently for a control system to foster enhanced internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, as well as output and process control, professional control must be emphasized. Also, a multifaceted approach to rewards is necessary combining both output and process rewards, but where output rewards are clearly emphasized. Interestingly, there appears a stronger direct association between procedural antecedents with internal product-market implementation effectiveness than with these procedural antecedents with CB (H^{1B i-v}).

Hypothesis H⁷ suggested a positive direct association between procedural antecedents and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. The results indicate only mixed support for this relationship. Interestingly, only the job characteristics constructs had an effect on this relationship. The strongest relationships were exhibited between job variety and role significance with external product-market strategy

effectiveness. Once more, these results concur with earlier studies that have suggested direct associations between job characteristics and performance (Patterson *et al.*, 2004; Koys, 2001). Consequently, in MLMMs' implementation role it is clearly important to allow them autonomy, permit them to see the project through from start to finish, and to allow them to use a number of skills throughout the process. Additionally, if other team members are to be affected by the MLMM's performance, the MLMM is likely to be more motivated leading ultimately to external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Undoubtedly, job characteristics have an important direct influence on external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

Hypothesis H⁸ proposed a positive association between strategy process antecedents and internal product-market strategy effectiveness and this broad relationship is confirmed. Particularly strong associations are found between strategy commitment, strategy formulation effectiveness, information availability and firm relationships with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. This study concludes that if MLMMs' have high ownership of the product-market strategy this translates into internal product-market implementation effectiveness through their role performance which facilitates the overall success of implementation (Noble and Mokwa, 1999). This might involve the appropriate commitment of resources to the project. These findings confirm the work of Atuahene-Gima and Murray, (2004) and Menon *et al.* (1999) who advise that conducting strategy making comprehensively will have positive outcomes for organization performance. It is revealed that such outcomes also include internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, since comprehensiveness enhances MLMMs' confidence in implementing the chosen strategy. This finding therefore extends knowledge of strategy making within organizations by providing a direct connection between strategy process antecedents and internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

Whilst studies also purport that attachment to the organization through congruent goal structures has benefits for long term organizational functioning (Bennett and Durkin, 2000), this study also determines that attachment to the organization has the specific outcome of increasing the internal effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation performance. This relationship is further enhanced if MLMMS' are provided with appropriate information. Consequently, making sure systems allow for information sharing within organizations becomes crucial for the development of marketing strategies (Simkin, 2002a: 2002a).

It was proposed in Hypothesis H⁹ that strategy process antecedents would be positively associated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness and it is concluded that all antecedents have a strong positive association. The strongest association is found with strategy commitment. Although all strategy process antecedents are important for enhancing external product-market implementation effectiveness, having MLMMS' committed to the espoused strategy is vital to this end. Presumably, committed MLMMS' are more motivated to put forth effort and cooperate in behaviours necessary to implement change as advised by (Beer *et al.*, 1990).

Hypothesis H¹⁰ advised that self-interested behaviour on behalf of MLMMS' would be directly and inversely associated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, the final dependent variable in the conceptual model. This study concludes that this additional hypothesis is confirmed, whereby the findings display a strong negative association. So, whilst it was found in H³ that self-interested behaviour is directly and inversely associated with internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, this additional result highlights the importance of an understanding of MLMMS' self-interested behaviour. As a consequence, it is vital that the factors which encourage self-interested behaviour are well understood and accounted for. A number of antecedents to

this behaviour have already been discussed in conclusion to the findings displayed for H¹ and H², earlier in this chapter.

Hypothesis H¹¹ proposed that CB is positively associated with external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. This hypothesis is confirmed except for the sub-component of compliance citizenship. This latter finding is surprising in so far that it is contrary to previous studies which have suggested that compliance is critical for achieving the intended outcomes of organizational policy decisions (Anderson and Johnson, 2005; Appelbaum *et al.*, 2005; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994). Nevertheless, Anderson and Johnson, (2005) also state that employee compliance is underdeveloped in research studies particularly as regards the role of organizational context on compliance. However, if the actual strategic decision is not appropriate then even if MLMMs' comply with its implementation, this may not necessarily lead to external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. It may be necessary therefore, to further investigate the nature of this relationship. Nevertheless, fostering other aspects of CB, particularly efficiency citizenship and loyalty citizenship, will result in external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

These additional analyses highlight that a number of procedural and strategy process antecedents have a direct influence of product-markets strategy implementation performance. Interestingly, certain antecedents are found to have a stronger direct association with both internal and external product-market strategy implementation effectiveness, than they do with CB. Consequently, if the goal of the organization is simply to maximize product-market strategy implementation performance alone, the findings from this study offer insights into which particular antecedents might be manipulated to this end. However, if the key goal is to maximize the long-term functioning of the organization as a whole, the study has highlighted important antecedents that might be manipulated to

achieve this particular goal. Additionally, for this latter goal, it is also likely that product-market strategy implementation performance will be improved as a consequence. Again, important situational antecedents that impact on this objective have been illustrated. Arguably, these conclusions have important implications for the ultimate quality of product-market strategies. The next section provides implications of the main conclusions drawn from the hypothesized relationships presented in the above sections. Implications are presented for both theory and management practice.

8.6 Implications of the Study Findings

The implications from the conclusions drawn from this current study are discussed from two perspectives. Firstly, implications for theory are presented from the conceptualization of situational antecedents to MLMs' product-market strategy behaviour leading to outcomes in terms of product-market strategy implementation performance. This is followed by a presentation of the conclusions as they impact current management, and in particular, marketing practice within organizations. The implications presented allow for noteworthy recommendations for future research to be afforded.

8.6.1 Implications for Theory

The aim of this current research was to extend existing knowledge and understanding of the role played by MLMs' in product-market strategy implementation. The study was based on the supposition that in order to achieve product-market strategy effectiveness an understanding of a broad variety of factors influencing strategy content, context and process is crucial. Three key findings from the study are addressed in this section as implications for theory.

Whilst determining the important nature of product-market strategy implementation as incorporating both context and process variables (Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Eisenhardt, 1999; Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992) the first key finding of the study relates to the importance of studying the behavioural dimension to the process of product-market strategy implementation and particularly understanding the behaviour of MLMs as key product-marketing strategy implementers.

Owing to the important skills they bring to the role, MLMs can be great aids in the successful implementation and operation of new product-market strategies (Embertson, 2006). How MLMs perform their role is integral to the internal effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation, whereby internal effectiveness leads ultimately to external effectiveness of the process. MLMs can support and strengthen an organization through their knowledge of and experience with organizational details. However, since it is advocated that extant research has largely overlooked the varying roles organizational members play in developing strategy, and more specifically during product-market strategy implementation, (White *et al.*, 2003; Guth and MacMillan, 1986), this study extends knowledge in the domain. The study reveals that to achieve enhanced product-market strategy implementation performance, this role involves the effective deployment of organizational resources. MLMs` must transform these resource inputs beneficial project level outcomes. The marketing literature indicates that little is known regarding this linking process (Morgan *et al.*, 2002). Whilst much research focuses on the role of managers as controllers of others, little attention has been paid to the behaviour that managers as coping individuals caught between conflicting obligations might enact (Brower and Abolafia, 1995). As such, MLMs are both agents of change processes, and often the foci of change (McConville, 2006). They are expected to deal with this change, and to implement policies dictated by senior management. As O'Donnell asserts (2000), change is a complex psycho-

social drama in which the personalities of the individuals involved, the roles they play, the situations where interpersonal interactions occur and the prevailing political climate affect both the nature and form of strategy implementation.

Since mid-level managers have great value in organizations, further work that concentrates on the evolving role of MLMs as strategy implementers is required. Studies might deal in more depth with the emotionality and ambiguity characteristic of this role, since emotions are central to the actions of managers (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999).

Leading from the above findings, a second key finding concerns the need for organizational researchers to develop the notion of counterproductive work behaviour in organizations, particularly as this affects product-market strategy implementation outcomes. The current study reveals the potential impact of a number of situational antecedents on MLMs' self-interested behaviour in this respect, as well as the effect of these on the overall performance of product-market strategy implementation.

Clearly, by MLMs' acting in their self interest, product-marketing strategy implementation will be conducted less effectively. An understanding of key precursors to such behaviour has been illustrated. In this study, procedural antecedents such as process control, professional control, role autonomy and procedural justice are found to display strong inverse associations with such behaviour. Additionally, the strategy process antecedents of support and participation are found to be significantly inversely related to such behaviour.

Consequently, additional research that deals with such counterproductive behaviour and, indeed, other forms of counterproductive behaviour, may afford further insights into the improvement of product-market strategy implementation performance. However, empirical work in this area is purported to be difficult (Griffin and Lopez, 2005). This current study, like most studies in the domain, has relied on survey methodologies and on

recall of real incidents. Whilst this is arguably of value, alternative methodologies, especially qualitative approaches might provide deeper insights to the relationships tested in this study and of further relationships not considered.

A third key finding from the current study is the role of CB in improving the effectiveness of product-market strategy implementation. The study concludes that if MLMs' engage in CB, this has a positive influence on the effectiveness of the product-market strategy implementation process. The study is able to extend the literature in the field through the assertion that fostering CB not only has positive implications for overall organizational effectiveness as reported in the literature (Dalal, 2005; Van Dyne *et al.*, 1994) but, more significantly, encouraging CB improves the internal and external effectiveness of the product-market strategy implementation process.

Important procedural and strategy process antecedents that may encourage MLMs' to behave in these different ways have been highlighted. Of particular importance appear to be the role played by control mechanisms, procedural justice perceptions, support and participation owing to the strong inverse association with self-interested behaviour. Key antecedents to CB include job variety, control mechanisms, procedural justice, support, organizational attachment and quality relationships with senior managers.

It is further contended, that taking a comprehensive approach to the study of CB is beneficial for researchers. In this respect, the results of this study provide clues as to those procedural and strategy process antecedents that encourage both role prescribed and discretionary product-market strategy implementation behaviour. This provides a significant contribution to the field of strategy process research. Existing studies in CB have not addressed this behaviour with respect to product-market strategy implementation performance. Further research is advantageous in this respect since an array of behaviours,

not just formally prescribed behaviours are required for achieving organizational objectives.

Finally, the additional analyses performed indicate that dependent on the overall objectives of the organization in instigating any change, certain situational antecedents might be manipulated to improve product-market strategy implementation performance alone, whilst the manipulation of others may improve both this outcome and enhance the overall functioning of the organization in the long term. Further research on these relationships would be advantageous.

In summary therefore, the above key findings not only serve to substantiate findings uncovered in existing studies but more significantly, this study is able to extend the literature in the field by closing some of the existing gaps in the domain of product-marketing strategy implementation research. Whilst the current study has opened what Miller *et al.* (2004) terms the 'black box' i.e. the interface between strategy and organizations, the box is potentially deep and merits additional exploration.

8.6.2 Implications for Management Practice

Whilst a number of implications for management practice are borne out of the findings of the current study, three key implications are highlighted in this section.

Firstly, there needs to be greater awareness among organizational managers of the need to understand any organizational change by working with and through emotions and relations which can characterize political and power relations between organizational members. This is particularly pertinent for the relationship between representatives of different hierarchical levels, as is the case between senior management and MLMs in this study. Emotions can enact goal directed behaviour, thus sometimes spurring individuals into action, at others they can inhibit or constrain action (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999). It is

important that senior managers understand how this occurs and to discover when emotions produce functional or dysfunctional behaviour. This is particularly significant given the important role played by MLMMs' as strategy implementers within organizations. These managers act as a bridge between the ideals of senior management and the reality of those in more front line positions. This role involves championing strategic alternatives, facilitating adaptability as well as implementing the organizations chosen strategy (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1994). Clearly, the role is both complex and challenging and MLMMs' often feel constrained or pulled from all sides particularly from senior management (Hantang, 2005). It is not surprising that conflict situations arise. The emotional state of MLMMs can influence various aspects of information processing, evaluations and judgements and creative thinking (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999). As such, senior managers must not overlook the needs of employees whilst focusing on the needs of the organizations (McHugh, 1997).

Senior managers need to ascertain what the implementation of new product-market strategies means to MLMMs, i.e. whether the change produced via new strategic initiatives is regarded as an opportunity or threat to both the individual and the organization (Vince and Broussine, 1996). Once this is ascertained, it is then necessary to encourage MLMMs to work with any potential complexities, ambiguities or uncertainties long enough in order that they find out what is stimulating rather than de-motivating about them. Concurrently, MLMMs themselves need to be aware of their own emotional level of interaction so as to be able to assess the extent of their own feelings and whether these are based on actual problems borne out of their implementation role or, merely, defensive reactions.

A second key implication for management practice which might be deemed allied to the above point, relates to the necessity for senior managers to design and develop important work procedures and practices for effective strategy making. Two sub-

implications emerge from this issue. Work procedures and practices must incorporate methods to reduce CWB in the form of self-interest on the one hand, and additionally include methods that elicit CB on the other.

Firstly, to reduce the likelihood of self-interested behaviour and the negative effects of politics, senior managers must work towards the creation of a work environment where procedures used to make decisions are perceived as fair. Resultant procedures need to be transparent (Paterson et al., 2002). Fair procedures convey consideration of views and neutrality in decision making. This encourages a positive relationship with the senior manager and organization on behalf of MLMMs. Additionally, any procedures must be consistently and impartially developed and implemented, based on accurate information. MLMMs must be given the opportunity to have input into the decision making process leading to the establishment of procedures. The resultant procedures must also be compatible with current ethical and moral standards within the organizational context. The relationship between forms of fairness and politics clearly are relevant to managing and buffering the negative effects of politics (Byrne, 2005).

Importantly, senior managers can be taught how to implement fair procedures and to treat employees fairly. By senior managers taking on board the above suggestions, product-market strategy implementation effectiveness within organizations is likely to be enhanced.

Additional mechanisms to reduce the likelihood of MLMMs' acting in their self-interest include the need for control mechanisms to be combined synergistically for the achievement of organizational objectives. The results from this study reveal that an effective combination should include both formal and informal control mechanisms for example, output control and professional control. Furthermore, support from senior management needs to be enacted and conveyed since lack of commitment to the

organizations espoused strategy at this hierarchical level will have a negative effect on MLMMs. Allied to this is the requirement that MLMMs` be involved in the strategy making process. MLMMs participating in the process will allow them to conduct their role more effectively.

The second sub-implication for management practice is the requirement to establish specific practices that elicit CB on behalf of MLMMs given the important impact of such behaviour on product-market strategy effectiveness. This includes an awareness of what encourages both role prescribed and extra-role forms of this behaviour.

A significant finding from the current study in this respect is the need for senior managers to develop and maintain a good rapport with MLMMs`, one that contains emotionality and affect. This encourages empowerment and helps the MLMM succeed in their implementation role. At the same time, this permits senior managers to be able to influence MLMMs to act favourably towards product-market strategy objectives. This is particularly pertinent for fostering extra-role CB. Senior managers need to express clearly what they expect from MLMMs`, i.e. by emphasizing goals, stressing the need for high level performance and the expression of confidence that MLMMs` will achieve these goals and expectations. In this way, MLMMs` role clarity and job satisfaction will be improved, as will their instrumentality in being able to influence senior management in, for example, obtaining crucial resources for product-market strategy implementation. This ties in with Floyd and Wooldridge`s, (1994) typology of the mid-level manager`s role being one of influencer in organizations. In this way a mutually supportive and unique relationship is developed in which the MLMM is able exert influence on the senior managers to receive resources and rewards critical for their role performance. In exchange, senior managers receive MLMMs dedicated and effective role performance towards product-market strategy objectives.

Whilst both in-role and extra role behaviour are important to this end, in times when dynamism in the environment renders fixed roles ineffective, senior managers may have to rely on MLMs for extra contractual aspects of their role. Consequently, senior managers must empower these employees to take initiative in the execution of their job responsibilities. This might involve the construction of broad and open-ended job descriptions for MLMs which enhance empowerment leading to good citizenship behaviour.

Additionally, in order to achieve such mutually and organizationally beneficial organizational relationships, leadership training and development programs focusing on such aspects of interactions are likely to improve senior managements' leadership effectiveness. These programs might include, guiding, coaching and delegation.

Further practices that are likely to elicit CB, borne out in this study include providing MLMs with the opportunity to use numerous and varied skills in their role, a core dimension of MLMs' job satisfaction. Also important is the need for effective control mechanisms to be developed. These should blend both formal and formal mechanisms appropriately for the achievement of stated objectives. Senior management support is also important in encouraging CB, particularly role prescribed behaviour. It may also be beneficial to evaluate the level of commitment that MLMs' have towards strategic decisions before expecting them to implement them and to understand the level of attachment that MLMs' have towards the organization. If MLMs' goals and values are congruent with the organizations, then they can be expected to be more loyal to the organization and this leads to internal product-market strategy implementation effectiveness. Whilst it might be useful to ascertain MLMs' attachment to the organization prior to their contributing to strategy development, of greater significance is

the necessity to develop a work environment that induces organizational members to become attached in the first instance.

Finally, if the objective of change is to improve product-market strategy capabilities, attention must be given to those antecedents which might directly be manipulated to achieve this objective. However, if the objective is for more organizational level change, then an awareness of those antecedents that improve general organizational functioning will be beneficial. Certainly this objective will also ultimately have positive implications for product-market strategy implementation performance

Although there are a number of further implications borne from the findings of this study, the above presentation serves to highlight those that are felt to have the most significant implications for management practice. As such, it is anticipated that these findings will have contributions that enable improvement in the design of work procedures and practises and for the promotion of conducive environments for effective strategy making. Clearly, all of the issues revealed from the findings of this study are manageable within organizations.

8.7 Limitations of the study

In any study of this nature it is beneficial to acknowledge and appreciate the limitations.

A number of theoretical and empirical challenges to the current study were detailed in Chapter One, section 1.4.3. However, recognizing these challenges permits the delineation of future research in the domain.

As was presented in detail in Chapter Four of this study, a descriptive design incorporating a cross-sectional analysis has been adopted in pursuit of the stated objectives. As a consequence, survey responses generated data from a single moment in

time. This therefore prohibits the establishment of any conclusions pertaining to causality from a longitudinal perspective. Arguably this is important since attempts to analyze the process of product-marketing strategy implementation are not necessarily frozen in time. The choice of design adopted was based on an assessment of alternative designs and due to resource constraints, employing these would have been prohibitive. However, it is acknowledged that longitudinal research could be a fruitful area for future research, particularly in allowing a more in-depth understanding of some of the micro-processes of managers involved in product-market strategy implementation.

Consequently, the process approach might be usefully employed in future research aiming to understand behaviour in organizations since behaviour in organizations is viewed as inherently processual in nature (Johnson *et al.*, 2003; Maitlis and Lawrence, 2003; Balogan *et al.*, 2003; Mackenzie, 2000). The process approach is more general than the variable model, as employed in this study whereby the variable model might be considered a special case of a process framework. It is argued that processes are perhaps closer to actual behaviour than their encapsulation as variables, and are causal because their outcomes are the result of the process (Mackenzie, 2000). Mackenzie (2000) contends that improved theories often result from the effort to construct and test a process framework since value lies in the process framework's greater explanatory power and predictive ability. Additionally, a process framework allows the researcher to make iterative applications to incorporate changes in the values of different elements as they occur. This is particularly pertinent to the study of the process of product-market strategy implementation, whereby decisions are outputs from extensive processes taking place over a period of time and usually involving other people. Taking a process perspective allows for the inclusion of context and specificity in the object of enquiry (Mackenzie, 2000). The process approach requires direct contact and involvement with the phenomena under study and asks the

question *how* rather than simply the question of *why* (Pettigrew, 1992; Van den Ven, 1992; Mackenzie, 2000). Consequently, a number of alternative methodologies from a process perspective for research of the nature of this current study might be employed in future studies. A number of such approaches were detailed in Chapter One. These might include direct observation, records compiled by organizational members, panel designs, retrospective reports and laboratory experiments using role play scenarios (Griffin and Lopez, 2005; Glick *et al.*, 1990).

Notwithstanding the constraints, (notably those in terms of time for researcher and respondents), the risk of employing research regarded as non-standard in organizational sciences, whereby processes and their frameworks are still regarded as somewhat novel and complex, the processual approach affords much insight and predictive power for research into organizational behaviour phenomena.

Additionally, organizations, by their very nature are multi-level (Klein *et al.*, 1994) where relationships may be context dependent i.e. based on multiple levels of interaction. Some of the constructs in the current study might be beneficially assessed through multi-level studies, particularly since employees construct interpretations of the work setting in the context of interaction with colleagues. Beliefs and information are constructed through interaction, and interpretation and meanings tend to converge (Reed, 2003). Thus a number of additional and alternative conclusions may be potentially drawn from the results obtained from multi-level research.

A further challenge detailed in Chapter One was the use of a single informant in the study. If future studies are to adopt the single informant approach a number of considerations are beneficial. For example, Phillips, (1981) suggests that research using single informants should devote greater attention to informant selection criteria. High

ranking informants have found to be more reliable sources of information than their lower status counterparts on some issues. Snow and Hrebiniak (1980) research found that top managers have the best vantage point for viewing the entire organization system. Miller (2006) argues, nevertheless, that fewer studies have based their analysis on those actually involved in particular processes of strategic decision making, which includes both deciding and implementing. Allied to this limitation is the use of retrospective accounts as indicators of future events (Golden, 1992; Bernard *et al.*, 1984). Golden, (1992), purports that retrospective accounts of past facts are more accurate than accounts of beliefs and intentions which are more subjective and more vulnerable to the effects of cognitive biases and faulty memory. Nevertheless, in an attempt to moderate this limitation, respondents to the survey in this study were asked to relate to issues pertaining to the most recent implementation initiative that had been launched in their respective organizations. In this way, it is felt that this did not detract too much from the usefulness of the findings. Nevertheless, if future studies are to adopt such an approach, asking questions in a manner which requires less demanding social judgements on the part of the informant should reduce measurement error as does the generation of responses to obtain factual and more objective information (Bowman and Ambrosini, 1997; Huber and Power, 1985; Phillips, 1981). Methods to test for systematic sources of error such as bias and ignorance include asking the informant the same question twice, and checking for internal consistency (Phillips, 1981).

Alternatively, future research might valuably incorporate multiple informants to eliminate sources of potential bias. The basic premise underlying the use of multiple informants is that minor variations due to individual differences in perceiving or reporting events will be cancelled out (Jones *et al.*, 1983). A number of constraints to using multiple

informants in the current study were outlined in Chapter One. One constraint arises due to the potential for diversity in responses of multiple informants. Nevertheless, a number of statistical methods of 'interrater agreement' are available to the researcher to cope with such diversity. These rely on the use of average ratings (Jones *et al.*, 1983). It is advisable that the researcher is conversant with the implications of using such approaches and the use of more than one technique is advised.

Miller (2006) argues that difficult methodological choices regarding the need for deep data as well as the need to give priority to breadth must be recognized. The potential choices might include such alternative methodologies as the employment of additional sources to generate information from respondents such as interviews with additional managers and in obtaining archival information on organization level constructs of interest might effectively be employed when resources allow (Kumar *et al.*, 1993). Additionally, methodologies incorporating large scale multiple cases using longitudinal case research is a potential avenue for research of this nature (Miller, 2006).

A further limitation of the current study lies in heterogeneity being constrained by the homogeneity of the 'high technology' cluster of organizations used as the level of analysis. Consequently, generalizability of the findings to non 'high technology' clusters is potentially constrained. It is therefore possible that different results may have been achieved had the sample included a wider variety of business types. Whilst recognizing that the sample might be imperfect it is important to make every effort to achieve diversity in the sample so as to enhance the robustness of relational findings (Blair and Zinkhan, 2006). However, a chief reason for selecting 'high technology' organizations for the sample in this study was because it was reasoned that product-marketing strategy implementation initiatives would occur more frequently within such organizations. This would therefore not pose too much of a strain on respondents memories because of the recency of these

initiatives. Nevertheless, more robust findings might be achieved in future research through validating the findings in a larger heterogeneous set of organizations or in additional clusters from this larger set (Glick *et al.*, 1990).

A final limitation stems from one of the goals of this study. The study aimed to consider in as a holistic manner as possible the situational antecedents that were deemed to potentially influence MLMMs' product-marketing implementation behaviour. In so doing, a variety of constructs categorized as procedural antecedents and strategy process antecedents were explored and examined. The aim was to fill gaps in existing research and broaden knowledge both within the domain of marketing strategy development and across additional business disciplines. It is acknowledged that not all potential constructs were considered. Arguably, the resultant conceptual model would have become unreasonably large and cumbersome. Nevertheless, an attempt has been made to consider additional relationships and principal conclusions from these have been presented in section 8.5.4. The central relationships presented, these were considered to deliver the most insightful associations between the constructs presented in the model. Boundaries had to be set to avoid it becoming unmanageable as regards testing and analysis.

It is acknowledged that some of the above limitations outlined in this current study pave the way for recommendations for future research. These are discussed in the next section.

8.8 Recommendations for Future Research

Recommendations for future research are linked to a number of issues borne out of the challenges and limitations of the current study as presented in sections 1.4.3 and 8.7.

Several recommendations for future research emerge from the findings of this study in addition to the research opportunities presented by the study limitations. These will be detailed in this section. As a starting point, further development is encouraged for some of the interesting findings revealed in the course of this study.

Significantly, the current study has revealed how emotional processes and social power relations impact on the process of product-market strategy implementation. As Vince and Broussine (1996) highlight, both emotional and political forces are occurring together in organizations. The authors further argue that such forces are particularly relevant in relation to the possibilities for defences against change.

Understanding of the emotionality of mid-level managers as they deal with uncertainty, ambiguity and complexity inherent in the implementation of strategic change is likely to be a fruitful area of future research (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1999, McHugh, 1997). Indeed, the findings of this current study reveal how a number of procedural antecedents inversely influence counterproductive behaviour in the form of self-interest and that such self-interested behaviour potentially has negative consequences for how product-market strategy implementation is performed. As such, development of these findings points to the need to work with emotions in the work place to discover how individuals and specifically, mid-level managers' come to know they have reached boundaries in their role.

The concept of counterproductive behaviour as defined in this study is still in its infancy (Dalal, 2005; Griffin and Lopez, 2005). Moving forward by employing more powerful research methodologies presents potential gains from more meaningful insights into how and why these behaviours occur and more significantly, how they might better be

predicted and controlled, given the important associations for product-market strategy implementation effectiveness.

Additionally, it is important to understand more fully from an emotional perspective, what causes employees and particularly MLMs, to perform CBs owing to the positive association with certain elements of CB and product-market strategy implementation performance. The encouragement of CB is subtle and cannot always be directly prescribed (Dolan *et al.*, 2005). It therefore becomes important to progress and enhance antecedents to such behaviour. This might be particularly pertinent in dynamic environments, which place a greater need for mid-level managers to act on their own initiative. Extra-role citizenship might be important for encouraging this.

Methodologies in pursuit of the above recommendations will need to incorporate qualitative research from a longitudinal process perspective. This allows the assessment of processes and practices as organizational members work to construct and enact strategies through both formal and informal means. Critical to this approach is a focus upon sequences of incidents, activities and actions as they unfold along with the careful analysis of the contexts in which they are based. It is potentially insightful to look at the actors involved in both deciding and implementing strategic decisions, in order to explore how much involvement there is, who is involved and the influence that is exerted throughout the product-market strategy implementation process as it unfolds over time. As a consequence, a range of qualitative techniques might usefully be employed as discussed in sections 1.4.3 and 8.7. For example, interviews with and case studies of individuals involved in such 'counterproductive' incidents may be an especially fertile area to pursue. Laboratory experiments might be employed from a number of perspectives. One perspective might involve participants used in role-plays of people in a

work setting. Participants could be asked to observe various interactions and then categorize them as reflecting, for example positive or negative behaviours (Griffin and Lopez, 2005). This approach would smooth out the potential difficulties and related issues of observing behaviour of this nature. Again, laboratory or longitudinal studies may be beneficial in establishing casual direction of relationships between CB antecedents and outcomes.

Furthermore, future research in the domain needs to consider alternative conceptualizations of constructs. Such studies will need to include greater appreciation of the level or levels of analysis to which the constructs are applied. (Kim et al., 2004; NG and Van Dyne, 2005; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999; Klein et al., 1994). It might be useful to not only consider whether, for example, the constructs may be considered as homogenous or independent or as heterogeneous, but also whether the construct can be conceptualized in each of these ways. This might provide new insights into the assumptions that underlie the theory to be tested. In this way, thinking is refined and this allowing researchers to consider alternative conceptualizations of constructs of interest. Indeed, MLMM behaviour may have effects at multiple levels, of an organization. Potentially such alternative methodologies in research of this nature will allow for a much richer understanding of the multiple factors that influence strategic processes, particularly political processes within organizations.

As Mackenzie (2000, p.112) states “ *the process approach, whilst relatively obscure,has produced a body of evidence, methods, and new theory for a variety of organizational phenomena... ..The main reason to try the process approach is simply hope for something better*”.

Finally, alternative methodologies as recommended above might reveal why some of the constructs and their components in the current study at times displayed negative influences whilst others displayed no influence. This is particularly the case for the role of MLMMs' participation in product-market strategy implementation. Whilst participation was found to be negatively associated with MLMMs' acting in their own self-interests, surprisingly, participation had no strong association for fostering role prescribed behaviour within the CB construct. However, participation was found to play a role in fostering more discretionary behaviour. The results therefore appear slightly at odds with a plethora of existing studies indicating the importance of participation for fostering increased motivation and performance in strategy making (Neubert and Cady, 2001; Noble and Mokwa, 1999; Miller, 1997).

It is acknowledged that these findings might be in some part related to one of the limitations of the study as already highlighted, namely the affect potentially produced via sample coverage bias. In future research, a sampling frame which includes a greater diversity of organizations might provide beneficial insights into the relationship between participation and CB. It may be that mid-level managers' participation in product-market strategy process is a given in 'high technology' firms. This may not be the causation. Additionally, generalization of findings might be better obtained through extending the population of the study.

This study has attempted to integrate a number of disciplines in the conceptualization process and model examination. It is felt that this is a worthy area for development in future studies. Undoubtedly, the disciplines of organizational behaviour and work psychology have important contributions in informing research into marketing and strategy making within organizations. Integrating disciplines in this way can provide

pertinent insights into organizational effectiveness and failure. However, taking a smaller number of important constructs highlighted in this study and analyzing these in more depth might be advantageous. This might additionally be achieved through survey methodologies that utilize multiple informants. This potentially allows for richer insights into the relationships between the constructs.

8.9 Concluding Remarks

This Chapter has illustrated the main conclusions drawn from this study. Specific limitations of the research were discussed. The various implications of the study as related both to theory development and managerial practice have been outlined. Many new insights have emerged from the findings of this study that make a tangible contribution to knowledge and practice.

In Chapter One of this study the following quotation was introduced:

“If execution is central to success, why don't more organizations develop a disciplined approach to it? Why don't companies spend time developing and perfecting processes that help them achieve important strategic outcomes? Why can't more companies execute or implement strategies well and reap the benefits of those efforts?” (Hrebiniak, 2005, p.5)

It is believed that this study has provided some potential answers to the questions posed by Hrebiniak, (2005). At the same time, the chapter ends with a presentation of suggested avenues for future research which are likely to be beneficial in advancing research in the domain of product-market strategy implementation. Consequently, research should build on the findings of this study and provide a more in-depth exploration of the many concepts and constructs that form an integrated approach to product-market strategy implementation performance within organizations today.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Survey Questionnaire



EXECUTION QUALITY AND IMPLEMENTATION OF STRATEGY (EQuIS) RESEARCH PROGRAMME

The purpose of this study is to understand the challenges on the role of managers as they implement product-market strategies and on the subsequent effects on strategy performance and business performance.

The questionnaire should only take a short time to complete as it has been designed for you to be able to circle or tick most of the items. Please complete the questionnaire with respect to the most recent new product or service that you were involved in introducing to the market. It is your first impression, the immediate feelings about the questions that we want. There are no “right” or “wrong” answers to any of the questions.

Your responses will be treated anonymously and will remain *absolutely confidential*. Your completed questionnaire will be seen only by me as lead researcher on this project. No other parties will have access to your response and all questionnaires will be destroyed after data entry.

Your cooperation in completing this questionnaire is central to the success of the study and we would like to thank you in advance for your co-operation.

Please return the questionnaire at your earliest convenience to:

**Lisa Barton
EQuIS Research Director
CARDIFF BUSINESS SCHOOL
FREEPOST CF4117
COLUM DRIVE
CARDIFF CF1 1YZ**

Email: Bartonlc@cardiff.ac.uk

SECTION A: JOB CHARACTERISTICS

Q1. Your role: How would you rate your role in implementing the strategy? Remember that we are concerned with the most recent new product or service that you were involved in introducing to the market. *Please answer the following questions by circling the number that best represents your agreement.*

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a great deal of variety in my implementation role	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My implementation role is not repetitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have the opportunity to take on a number of different tasks during implementation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The implementation roles I perform in a typical working day is fairly similar from day to day?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In implementing the strategy, I am allowed to do as I please	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a great deal of autonomy during the implementation of this strategy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel I am my own boss when implementing this strategy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In implementing this strategy, I can make my own decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have the opportunity of seeing implementation through from beginning to end	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In my implementation role, I have the opportunity to finish what I have started	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The implementation with which I am involved is handled from beginning to end by myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often get to see implementation tasks through to completion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My implementation role is one where a lot of people could be affected by how well my work is done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am one of the key members of the implementation team on this strategy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I play a relatively minor role in this strategy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My responsibilities in implementing this strategy are significant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q2 Performance policies in your firm: To what extent do you (dis) agree with the following statements
Please answer the following questions by circling the number that best represents your agreement

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Specific performance goals are established for my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My line manager monitors the extent to which I attain my performance goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If my performance goals are not met, I would be required to explain why	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I receive feedback from my line manager concerning the extent to which I achieve my goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My pay increases are based upon how my performance compares with my goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My line manager monitors the extent to which I follow established procedures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My line manager evaluates the procedures I use to accomplish a given task	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My line manager modifies my procedures when desired results are not obtained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I receive feedback on how I accomplish my performance goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The work environment encourages marketing professionals to feel part of this firm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The work environment encourages marketing professionals to feel a sense of pride in their work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The firm encourages cooperation between marketing professionals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most of the marketing professionals in my firm are familiar with each other's productivity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The firm fosters an environment where marketing professionals respect each other's work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The firm encourages job related discussions between marketing professionals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most marketing professionals in my firm are able to provide accurate appraisals of each other's work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q3 Rewards in your firm: To what extent do you agree with the following statements about rewards for strategy implementation project members in your firm. *Please answer the following questions by circling the number that best represents your agreement*

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)			
Rewards to project members are entirely related to achievement of performance objectives for project activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Rewards for project members are entirely based on final outputs achieved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
The project members rewards depend upon the market performance of the product	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
In rewarding the project members, primary weight is placed on objective criteria such as results achieved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Rewards to project members are based on effectiveness of implementation of the strategy rather than results	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Rewards depend entirely on the quality of strategic decisions made rather than results	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Rewards to project members are based on subjective criteria such as attributes of the product	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Project members are rewarded for completing major stages in the product market strategy development process	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

SECTION B: WORK ENVIRONMENT

Q1. Work procedures: What is your perception of working in your firm/division/firm with regard to the following procedures? Please think about the procedures that were used in implementing the strategy. It is your opinion of the procedures themselves we are interested in rather than your opinion of the way people implemented them or the outcomes they produced. To what extent do you believe the procedures were intended to:

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)			
Treat all groups of employees consistently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Be accessible to everyone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Be applied consistently over time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Be neutral	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Produce accurate decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Recognise interests of different groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ensure that every ones interests are considered	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Produce trustworthy results	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Q2 : Your feelings during implementation: Below is a list of expressions that can be used to explain how you feel specifically in your implementation role. Please circle one of the numbers which best describes how you felt during the implementation of this strategy.

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)			
Apprehensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Anxious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Frustrated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Stressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Cynical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Q3: Management factors: Please answer the following questions by circling the number which best represents your (dis) agreement.

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)			
My line manager asks me for my suggestions concerning how to carry out strategy implementation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
My line manager asks me for suggestions before making decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Before making decisions, my line manger gives serious consideration to what his subordinates have to say	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Before taking action, my line manager gives serious consideration to what subordinates have to say	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I get what I ask for from my superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I always get along well with my superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
My superiors act favourably on most of my suggestions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
My word carries weight with my superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Q4: Firm Factors: Please answer the following questions by circling the number which best represents your (dis)agreement.

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)			
This firm has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I really feel that this firms' problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I think I could easily become attached to another firm as I am to this one	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I do not feel like "part of the family" at my firm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I believe that most of the programmes that are supposed to solve problems in the firm do not do much good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I feel that suggestions on how to solve problems wouldn't produce much real change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I think that attempts to make things better in the firm will produce good results	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I don't think that plans for future improvement will amount to much	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

SECTION C: STRATEGY FACTORS

Q1: Strategy Type: - Which one of the following descriptions most closely fits your firm compared to other firms in the industry? Please consider your firm as a whole and note that none of the types listed below is inherently good or bad. Please tick the corresponding box.(one box only).

<p>Type 1. <i>This type of firm attempts to locate and maintain a secure niche in a relatively stable product or service area. The firm tends to offer a more limited range of products or services than its competitors and it tries to protect its domain by offering higher quality, superior service, lower prices and so forth. Often this type of firm is not at the forefront of developments in the industry – it tends to ignore industry changes that have no direct influence on current areas of operation and concentrated instead on doing the best job possible in a limited area.</i></p>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Type 2: <i>This type of firm typically operates within a broad product market domain that undergoes periodic redefinition. The firm values being “first in” in new product and market areas even if not all these efforts prove to be highly profitable. The firm responds rapidly to early signals concerning areas of opportunity and these responses often lead to a new round of competitive actions. However, this type of firms may not maintain market strength in all the areas it enters.</i></p>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Type 3 <i>This type of organization attempts to maintain a stable, limited line of products or services, while at the same time moving out quickly to follow a carefully selected set of the more promising new developments in the industry. The firm is seldom “first in” with new products or services. However, by carefully monitoring the actions of major competitors in areas compatible with its stable product market base, the firm can frequently be second in with a more cost efficient product or service</i></p>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q2: Strategy: Please answer the following questions by circling the number which best represents your (dis)agreement. Remember “strategy” refers to the most recent product /service that you were involved in introducing to the market.

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)		
I don't think this strategy was in the best interest of the firm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I thought the strategy was a great idea	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can't say I support the strategy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I personally feel that the goals of the strategy are appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I don't feel that senior management places a great deal of significance on this strategy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is clear that senior management wants this strategy to be a success	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel this strategy is strongly supported by senior management	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Senior management doesn't seem to care much about this strategy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q3 Information for Strategy implementation

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)		
Information concerning strategy implementation becomes available well in time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find that information is freely available for strategy implementation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Information relating to strategy implementation is accurate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Marketing department has complete access to information held by other departments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Other departments have complete access to marketing information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION D: BUSINESS PERFORMANCE

Q1: Strategy effectiveness: *While answering these questions, please relate to the situation regarding your strategy at present. Relative to your major, direct competitors how is your strategy performing with respect to:*

	Very Poor (1)				Excellent (7)		
Achieving customer satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Providing value for customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Customers response to the strategy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To what extent have the objectives for this strategy been achieved with respect to:							
Market Share	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Profit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Market Position	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Well Below (1)				Well Above (7)		
To what extent has the overall performance of the product/service met management expectations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q2: Strategy Implementation Effectiveness: *Please indicate how effective you believe the strategy implementation process to be. Please answer the following by circling the response that best represents your agreement.*

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)		
The strategy is an example of effective strategy implementation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The implementation effort of this strategy is generally considered a success in this firm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I personally think the implementation of this strategy is a success	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The implementation of the strategy is considered a success in my area	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The right kind of resources are allocated to strategy implementation efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Adequate resources are allocated to the strategy implementation effort	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Every person is committed to make sure they meet their deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
We effectively execute the actions detailed in the plan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Overall, our strategy is being effectively executed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Customers are not responding to this strategy as we expected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The strategy is not meeting its targets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The strategy is delivering its objectives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q3 Individual effectiveness:

Please indicate how effective you have been in implementing this strategy. Please answer the following by circling the response that best represents your agreement.

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)			
I rarely waste time whilst at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I produce as much as I am capable of at all times	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I always come to work on time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Regardless of the circumstances, I produce the highest quality work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I do not meet all deadlines set for my firm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I am mentally alert and ready to work when I arrive at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I follow work rules and instructions with extreme care	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I sometimes waste firm resources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I keep my work area clean and neat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I sometimes miss work for no good reason	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I work on my personal appearance so that it is appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I show up for work early	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I do not work as fast as possible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I use organisational property for my personal use	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I persevere until problems are solved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I use slow periods to do my personal business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I follow the final strategic decisions made by my head office with extreme care	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I accept and fully implement senior management's final strategic decisions even if they are not parallel with the strategic interest of my individual unit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
When given the opportunity for managerial discretion, I tend to disregard and even subvert the strategic decisions in the interests of my firm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Overall, my actions taken since the last annual planning process have been fully consonant with executing the strategic decisions to the letter and spirit with which they were set forth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Q4 Strategy formulation effectiveness

Please indicate the extent of your agreement with the following statements

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)			
Our strategy is made explicit in the form of precise plans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
When we formulate a strategy it is planned in detail	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
We have precise procedures for achieving strategic objectives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
We have well defined planning procedures to search for solutions to strategic problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
We meticulously assess many alternatives against explicit strategic objectives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
We evaluate potential strategic options against explicit strategic objectives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
We have definite and precise strategic objectives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
We make strategic decisions based on a systematic analysis of our business environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

SECTION E: INDIVIDUAL AND FIRM CHARACTERISTICS

Q1: Personal characteristics: *Please indicate the extent of your agreement regarding the following statements*

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find satisfaction in deliberating hard for long hours	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Its enough for me that something gets the job done: I don't care how or why it works	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that requires a lot of thinking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q2: Individual job characteristics: *Please indicate the extent of your agreement regarding the following statements*

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I tend to ignore certain job-related activities simply because they are not monitored by my firm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I work on unimportant activities simply because they are evaluated by upper management	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Even if my productivity is inconsistent, I still make it appear consistent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have adjusted marketing data to make my performance appear more in line with firm goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When presenting data to upper management, I try to emphasise data that reflects favourably on me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When presenting data to upper management, I try to avoid being the bearer of bad news	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q3: Relationship with your firm: *Please indicate the extent of your agreement regarding the following statements*

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I represent the firm favourably to outsiders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not go out of the way to defend the firm against threat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not tell outsiders that this is a good place to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I don't defend the firm when employees criticize it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I actively promote the firms products and services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would accept a job at a competing firm for more money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I wouldn't urge fellow employees to invest money in the firm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I keep myself informed about products and services and tell others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am not involved in outside groups for the benefit of the firm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I avoid extra duties and responsibilities at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)		
I do not work beyond what is required	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I volunteer for overtime when needed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am guided by high professional standards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I maintain confidentiality of information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will not stay overtime to finish a job if I am not paid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I report wrong doing by others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q4: Firm characteristics: Please indicate the extent of your agreement regarding the following statements

	Strongly Agree (1)				Strongly Disagree (7)		
Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well established ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is no place for "yes" people around here; good ideas are desired even if it means disagreeing with supervisors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Agreeing with "powerful" others is the best alternative in this firm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is best not to rock the boat in this firm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sometimes it is easier to remain quiet than to fight the system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION F: OTHER ISSUES

You may feel there are various issues that you wish to make the researchers aware of. Please use a separate sheet to inform us of any key issues.

Company Background

Number of full time personnel in your firm: _____ Industry Sector: _____

How many of your colleagues were directly involved in implementing this strategy?

How long has this specific strategy been implemented? Years: _____ Months: _____

About You

Job Title: _____ Are you: - Male/Female (Please delete as applicable)

How long have you worked at the firm? Years: _____ Months _____

To what extent do you feel you possess knowledge regarding the questions asked in this questionnaire?

No Knowledge (1)						Full Knowledge (7)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

To what extent do you believe the responses given by you accurately reflect the 'realities' within your firm?

Not at all Accurate (1)						Very Accurate (7)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX B

Survey Pre-notification Letter

Date as postmark

Marketing or Product Manager
Company name
Address 1
Address 2
Address 3
Post code

Dear X

Execution Quality and Implementation of Strategy (EQuIS) Research Programme

I am leading an important research programme at Cardiff Business School, Cardiff University, among marketing, product and brand managers, to explore the dynamics of implementing product-market strategies. The project is aiming to understand the challenges posed by internal firm factors on the role of such managers as they implement product-market strategies and on the subsequent effects on strategy performance and business performance.

Initial background research for this project has highlighted that problems in the product-market strategy process come not only from formulation of the plan, but in executing that plan. A number of firm factors are found to influence managers in their implementation role. Information from this research can address internal firm issues surrounding the failure of product-market strategy implementation and poor product-market strategy performance. Improved knowledge and appreciation of the role of managers in product-market strategy implementation in strengthening competitiveness is vital to firms to improve success by tackling directly the causes of failure in implementation.

Your firm has been selected in our small sample. You will shortly be asked to provide information on a range of product-market strategy implementation dynamics. You have been chosen as the marketing, product or brand manager in your firm from which we need information because your unique position qualifies you to provide the most reliable views. In order for us to compile a bank of evidence that is representative, it is vital that each questionnaire is completed and returned by every named person to whom it has been sent. You will shortly receive this questionnaire and the task of completing it should only take a short time. Your completed questionnaire will help us greatly in being able to fully research this area and your responses are vital to the accuracy of our research findings.

All information will be treated with absolute confidentiality and will be seen only by the academic researchers involved in this study. No information relating to individual firms will ever be released to anyone under any circumstances. Questionnaire information will only be used in aggregate form in combination with all other responses to form the results.

The results from this study will be scientifically analysed and subsequently presented at conferences and published in peer reviewed business journals. As a token of appreciation for those who participate in the study, we would like to offer a complimentary summary research report soon after our analysis is complete as well as an opportunity to take part in a prize draw for a Fortnum & Mason's hamper.

We take this opportunity to ask you to please consider the importance of this important study and we thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully

Lisa Barton
EQuIS Research Director
Email: Bartonlc@cf.ac.uk

APPENDIX C

Survey Cover Letter

Execution Quality and Implementation of Strategy (EQuIS)
Research Programme

Dear X

We are currently undertaking a research programme into some of the challenges for marketing managers posed by product-market strategy implementation. For this research programme, product-market strategy refers to the most recent new product or service that you were involved in introducing to the market.

We hear from marketing managers that problems in the product-market strategy process come not only from creating the plan, but in executing the plan. In deed a number of important internal firm factors are found to pose challenges for marketing managers involved in strategy implementation. In order that we might understand these challenges more fully, we are seeking your cooperation in gathering information on factors thought to influence the execution quality of product-market strategy implementation and ultimately firm performance.

We have enclosed a questionnaire for you to complete. Please complete the questionnaire by considering the current or most recent product or service launched by your firm that you were involved in. The questionnaire has been designed so that it should take only a short time to complete.

Your cooperation in completing the questionnaire is central to the success of our research and we would like to assure you that your responses will be treated in absolute confidence, seen only by me as the lead academic researcher involved in the project. All respondents have the opportunity of being entered into a prize draw for a Fortnum and Masons Hamper which will be shipped directly to the winner.

Should you have any queries concerning any aspect of the project, please don't hesitate to contact Lisa Barton on 029 20876054 or email Bartonlc@cardiff.ac.uk.

Yours faithfully,

Lisa Barton
EQuIS Research Director

APPENDIX D

Survey Background Information Notice

Survey: “Background Information”

Execution Quality and Implementation of Strategy (EQUIS) Research Programme

Background Information

The Researchers: The project is managed under the direction of Lisa Barton who works closely with her colleagues, all of whom can claim substantial experience and research expertise in strategic marketing. Lisa Barton has written on strategic marketing and management topics and speaks at national and international seminars and conferences. She has been engaged on many academic projects and some consulting assignments and she is presently based at Cardiff Business School, Cardiff University, Colum Drive, Cardiff CF10 EAT. The School’s mission is to produce research of international standing, which covers all areas of the management and business studies field, and research is central to the School’s activities.

The Study: The primary aim of the project is to learn more of the internal and external challenges faced by marketing manager during implementation of product-market strategies. The research will focus on key aspects of their work, role, individual characteristics and the organization as a whole. To do this we have engaged in extensive secondary source research activities and have developed a model which we believe represents many important issues that are determinants of the effective implementation of strategy from the perspective of marketing managers. Consequently, the purpose of this study is to collect enough valid data from a sample of firms so as to comprehensively test this model. The research is not being sponsored by any organization or body and is funded by the Cardiff Business School for purely academic purposes.

The Respondents: In order to test our model in a scientific manner, we need to draw on the reliable views and opinions of key managers in firms. The reason for this is that managers have a wealth of knowledge and information on how strategies are implemented as an organizational process. Therefore, these personnel are able to provide the most accurate information relating to the needs of the questionnaire.

We have generated a random sample of medium and large firms using the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) codes. This sample was compiled from widely available commercial directories and databases.

Confidentiality: In the competitive environment in which most of these firms operate, managers are rightly concerned with confidentiality. The information provided in your questionnaire will only be used in aggregate forming combination with all other respondents. Your response will only be seen by academic researchers involved in this study and no information relating to individual firms will ever be released to anyone under any circumstances.

We hope that this background information sheet contains answers to any questions you may have about this study. If you would like any further, more specific information regarding the study please contact Lisa Barton at Cardiff Business School by email: Bartonlc@cardiff.ac.uk.

APPENDIX E

Survey First Reminder Letter

Date as postmark

Marketing Manager
Company Name
Address 1
Address2
Address 3
Post code

Dear x

Execution Quality and Implementation of Strategy (EQUIS) Research Programme

A short time ago a questionnaire seeking information relating to product-market strategy implementation in UK marketing firms was mailed to you.

If you have already completed and returned it to us, please accept our sincerest thanks and gratitude. If not, could you please try and do so today.

Your response is extremely valuable to our research and we strongly encourage you to participate. The questionnaire should only take 15 minutes to complete and all responses will be treated with **absolute confidentiality**.

If by some chance you did not receive the questionnaire or it has been misplaced, please call me on 029 20876054, or contact me through email at Bartonlc@cf.ac.uk and I will get another in the mail to you today.

Yours faithfully,

Lisa Barton
EQUIS Programme director

APPENDIX F

Survey Second Reminder

Lisa Barton

Execution Quality and Implementation of Strategy (EQUIS) Programme

director. Ext 76054

Dear X

Execution Quality and Implementation of Strategy (EQUIS) Research Program

A short time ago I wrote to you about an important national study among marketing, product and brand managers in firms in the UK to uncover the dynamics of implementing product-market strategies. The study is being coordinated by a team of academic researchers at Cardiff Business School, Cardiff University. The project is aiming to understand the challenges posed by internal firm factors on the role of such managers as they implement product-market strategies and on the subsequent effects on strategy performance and business performance.

Your firm has been selected in our small sample of firms within the UK and you have been chosen as the marketing or product manager in your organization from which we need information because your unique position qualifies you to provide the most reliable views. So far we have received a successful response from many diverse organisations in our selected industries. I would very much like you to participate in this study, but if for some reason you misplaced your first questionnaire, we have enclosed another for you to complete. I would like to stress that the questionnaire should take only 15 minutes to complete and all responses will remain **completely confidential**. If you have any reservations about participation or would like more information on the research study, please read the 'Background Information' sheet attached to clarify any problems, or contact me directly on (029 20 876054) , by fax on (029 20874419), or directly by email at bartonlc@cf.ac.uk. **Please be aware that your responses are vital to the accuracy of our research findings.**

We would be very pleased and grateful to receive your completed questionnaire as soon as possible. If however, you have already returned it to us, please accept our thanks and be informed that the prize draw will take place shortly, followed by the mailing of your complimentary copy of the study results, if requested.

May we take this opportunity to again thank you for your cooperation in this study.

Yours faithfully

Lisa Barton
EQUIS Programme Director

