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Diversity in Marketing Practice

Ann Marie Torres

A thesis submitted to

The University of Dublin, Trinity College

for the Degree of Doctor in Philosophy

May 2009

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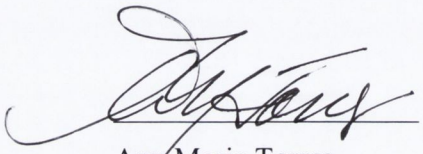

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Summary

Theory development in marketing has received periodic debate. In the spirit of reappraisal, this thesis endeavours to explain the nature of diversity in marketing practice found among firms and the manner in which marketing practice is related to organisational performance. The specific research goals are to explore: the nature of diversity in marketing practice, as linked to strategic archetypes; whether there is evidence of order in the diversity of marketing practice that can be linked to organisational performance; and the nature of the relationships among strategy, structure, and marketing practice and their impact on organisational performance.

The work of Miles and Snow and their typology of strategic types provides a valuable point of departure for examining diversity in marketing practice and its impact on organisational performance. Their elegant typology offers a robust, integrated, contingency framework for exploring diversity. The notion that the nature of marketing is contingent on firm strategy and organisational type is not new; a main premise of the strategy implementation literature is that different business strategies need distinct configurations of organisational practice to achieve optimal performance. Coviello et al.'s perspective on contemporary marketing practices is that organisations simultaneously employ a combination of marketing practices.

To address the research objectives, the members of the associations representing marketing and sales professionals within Ireland, the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute, were invited to participate in the online survey regarding their organisations' approach to and management of marketing practices. The sample of 207 useable responses is representative of the population of marketing practitioners in Ireland.

The data find support for the strategic archetypes, as proposed by Miles and Snow. Further, the archetypes of defender, prospector and analyser achieve superior organisational performance over the reactor archetype. Marketing practices may be observed and broadly conform to Coviello et al.'s contemporary

marketing practices scheme. Moreover, the relational forms of contemporary marketing practices (i.e. interactive and network marketing) are primarily associated with services, while transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice (i.e. transaction and database marketing) are primarily associated with goods.

The analyses largely support the notion that relational forms of contemporary marketing practices are primarily associated with business customers, while transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice are primarily associated with consumers. Except in the case of database marketing, which is equally associated with either consumers or business customers. There is no significant association between forms of marketing practice, as outlined by Coviello et al., and organisational performance. Hence, the findings suggest each of the forms of marketing practice may be equally successful. The findings offer partial support for a significant association between marketing practice and strategic archetype, but only in relation to one of the eight dimensions for contemporary marketing practice, namely, the nature of customer relationship.

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CHAPTER 1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Marketing Thought and Marketing Practice

Theory development in marketing has received periodic debate (Burton, 2001). Due to the demands of the market economy, academics and practitioners have been re-evaluating the nature of marketing, with the aim of developing a more robust understanding of marketing theory and its practice (Willmott 1999; Thomas 1999; Brownlie et al. 1999; Cova 1999; Firat 1997; Brown 1995; Wensley 1995; Brownlie et al. 1994; Morgan 1992). The work of these scholars and practitioners indicates marketing is still evolving and they have focused their attention on three inter-related topics:

- *relevance of the marketing concept:* the philosophical foundations of the marketing concept
- *role and scope of marketing within organisations:* marketing's role as an integrative/cross-disciplinary business process
- *execution of effective marketing practices:* challenges associated with the implementation of the marketing concept.

In the spirit of reappraisal, this thesis endeavours to explain the nature of diversity in marketing practice found among organisations and the manner in which marketing practice is related to organisational performance. Although the data from this research describe how organisations implement marketing, it also contributes to an understanding of marketing's role and scope within organisations, and a more holistic understanding of marketing theory and the marketing concept in practice.

The contribution of marketing practice to organisational performance is examined in the context of organisational strategy and structure. The relationship among organisational structure, strategy and performance is well established in the literature, and indicates that organisations with a

good strategy-structure fit achieve superior performance than enterprises with a poor fit (e.g. Snow et al. 2005; Forte et al. 2000; Weick 1977; Child 1972). However, the literature does not adequately address the role that variations in marketing practice play in relation to performance, and this represents a shortcoming in the existing literature.

1.2 Thesis Topic

The literature of marketing contains few strong statements concerning the nature or role of diversity in marketing practice. The normative literature typically argues a standardised prescription for principles of marketing practice. That is, frameworks relating to marketing practice are typically prescriptive and lack a contingency perspective (Applabaum 2004; Hakansson et al. 2004; Brownlie et al. 1999). Yet, observation leads one to believe practice in marketing is richly diverse and multiform.

The work of Miles and Snow (1978) and their typology of strategic types (i.e. defender, prospector, analyser and reactor) provides a valuable point of departure for examining diversity in marketing practice and its impact on organisational performance. Encouragement for this line of inquiry has been provided by the work of several researchers who have applied the typologies of Miles and Snow (1978) to issues of particular marketing concern (e.g. Slater and Olson 2001; Slater and Olson 2000; Walker and Ruekert 2000; Lukas 1999; Conant et al. 1990; McDaniel and Kolari 1987).

The research question in this study asks: how is diversity in marketing practice explained; how is it related to strategic archetypes; and how is marketing practice related to organisational performance? The specific research goals are to explore:

- the nature of diversity in marketing practice, as linked to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes

- whether there is evidence of order in the diversity of marketing practice that can be linked to organisational performance (Coviello et al. 1997)
- the nature of the relationships among strategy, structure, and marketing practice and their impact on organisational performance.

1.3 Diversity and Strategic Archetypes

Miles and Snow's (1978) typology of strategy-structure archetypes provides a useful framework for examining diversity in strategic behaviour because it characterises entire organisations as an integrated and dynamic whole, taking into account the interrelationships of strategy, structure and process (Weisenfeld-Schenk 1994). A number of researchers have empirically tested the typology's validity in a variety of industries and found it easy to operationalise and robust in application (e.g. Ghobadian et al. 1998; Hambrick 1983; Snow and Hrebiniak, 1980).

Miles and Snow's (1978) typology has evolved from their investigation into how firms adapted to organisational and environmental change and sought to develop a general model that explained firms' adaptive cycle. Like other strategic-choice theorists of the time (e.g. Weick 1977; Child 1972; Weick 1969; Thompson 1967; Chandler 1962; Cyert and March 1963), Miles and Snow (1979) recognise that environmental conditions only partially account for organisational behaviour and that top managers' decisions are also crucial in determining organisational structure and process. Although managers' decisions may be numerous and complex, Miles and Snow (1978) believe these decisions could be categorised into three broad generic problems: the entrepreneurial (i.e. choice of product-market domain), the engineering (i.e. transformation of resources into outputs) and the administrative (i.e. organisational structure).

By using the concept of the adaptive cycle to interpret the literature and their research, Miles and Snow (1978) have developed an elegant typology consisting of three successful organisational types: defender, prospector, and analyser. Each type is found to have a particular configuration of technology, structure, and process consistent with its unique market strategy. Reactor, the fourth archetype, is found to have an inconsistent configuration and is unsuccessful in its response to the market environment (Miles and Snow 1978).

The Miles and Snow (1978) typology has been a robust, integrated, contingency framework for exploring diversity. It sheds light on the nature of diversity in strategy and form by illuminating the simple underlying order. A limitation to Miles and Snow's (1978) typology is its cross-sectional orientation. That is, the static nature of the typology limits its ability to deal with diversity over time.

1.4 Strategic Archetypes and Diversity in Marketing Practice

Diversity in organisational strategy and form is well established in the literature on strategy and organisation theory. The notion that the nature of marketing is contingent on firm strategy and organisational type is not new. Indeed, a main premise of the strategy implementation literature is that different business strategies need distinct configurations of organisational practice to achieve optimal performance (Slater and Olson 2000). A small number of researchers, using the Miles and Snow (1978) typology, have explored specific aspects of marketing practice. McDaniel and Kolari (1987) provide support for the proposition that the degree of market orientation varies across different configurations. Lukas' (1999) study confirms the role of configuration as a determinant of market orientation, that configuration is systematically associated with a characteristic degree of market orientation, and that these relationships are consistent across different performance and environmental contexts.

As well, Conant et al. (1990) find distinctive marketing competencies are associated with strategic archetypes.

Using a synthesis of the Miles and Snow (1978) and Porter (1980) typologies, Walker and Ruekert (1987) report one of the few studies exploring the interdependence of business strategy and marketing practice. They have developed a set of propositions outlining how marketing policies and activities contribute to the effective implementation of different business strategies. Slater and Olson (2000) take up Walker and Ruekert's (1987) ideas and explore the performance implications of matching marketing practices to different strategy types with a specific focus on sales force management. Their findings strongly suggest, in so far as sales force management practice is concerned, there are different patterns of practice that reflect different configurations, which are in turn, related to environmental conditions in different ways. Slater and Olson (2001) explore the match between business and marketing strategy and report that specific marketing strategies (i.e. decisions and practices) are uniquely linked to strategic types. Furthermore, when the marketing strategy is appropriately matched to the business strategy, there is no significant difference in market performance or profitability among strategic types.

1.5 Classification of Contemporary Marketing Practices

Although Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices (CMP) framework is not as well established as the Miles and Snow (1978) typology, other academics have empirically tested it and found it valuable and informative (e.g. Brady et al. 2008; Wagner 2005; Brady and Palmer 2004; Brady 2003; Brady et al. 2002; Lindgreen et al. 2000;). The dominant approaches to classifying contemporary marketing practices are: transactional, database, interactive and network marketing.

Coviello et al.'s (1997; 2000) perspective on contemporary marketing practices is that organisations, regardless of size and type, simultaneously employ a combination of marketing practices. The authors believe they have been successful in developing a comprehensive taxonomy because they embrace a multi-theoretical approach (Brodie et al. 2008). That is, they do not believe various perspectives of marketing practices to be "independent and mutually exclusive" (Brodie et al. 2008: 85).

The eight dimensions from which the contemporary marketing practices framework is built encompass four dimensions of exchange: purpose of exchange, nature of communication, type of contact, and duration of exchange (i.e. nature of relationship with customers); and four managerial dimensions: managerial intent, managerial focus, managerial investment, and managerial level (i.e. who performs/is responsible for marketing). The rationale behind the eight dimensions is to "provide a useful means of understanding and distinguishing between the ways marketing is currently practiced" (Brodie et al. 1997: 390).

It has been the objective of Coviello et al. (1997) to capture the evolving nature of contemporary marketing practices, documenting marketing's efforts towards renewal (Brodie et al. 2008; Gronroos 2007). The contemporary marketing practices approach provides a framework that acknowledges the complexity and multidimensional nature of marketing practice within organisations.

1.6 Research Approach

Since the demise of positivism and logical empiricism "scientific knowledge cannot be known to be true in an absolute sense" (Van de Ven 2007: 14). Engaged scholarship embraces a pluralistic approach, "of not only multiple perspectives, but also a degree of openness … in addressing complex social phenomenon (Van de Ven 2007: 17). This study draws on

critical realism and critical rationalism, both of which are based on a pragmatic philosophy of science (Van de Ven 2007; Heyt 1999).

From the perspective of *critical realism*, science is a process of constructing partial models to represent a complex phenomenon "and comparing them with rival plausible alternative models" (Van de Ven 2007: 14). Consequently, research knowledge "advances by comparing the relative contribution of different models" (Van de Ven 2007: 15). Critical realism values not only convergent evidence, but also inconsistent or contradictory evidence, which may often prove to be more insightful (Van de Ven 2007). This study draws on two frameworks, the Miles and Snow (1978) typology of strategic archetypes and the Coviello et al. (1997) framework of contemporary marketing practices, to investigate the complex behaviour of organisations. Further, the relative contribution of each framework is assessed with respect to how well it explains organisational behaviour, taking particular note of data inconsistent with previous studies.

From the perspective of *critical rationalism*, the aim is to generate "a series of states of understanding" by pursuing a "general schema of problem solving" (Popper 1972: 164). This schema of problem solving is represented as: $P_1 \Rightarrow TT \Rightarrow EE \Rightarrow P_2$; where P_1 represents the *problem* from which the study begins; TT is the *tentative theory* that informs the rationale for the study's rationale; EE signifies *error elimination*, whereby the tentative theory is critically examined; and P_2 represents the *revised problem* that emerges during the process of investigating the original problem (Popper 1972).

Popper's (1972) attention to the process of reasoning encompasses an evolutionary dimension, much akin to the *survival of the fittest* (Van de Ven 2007). That is, there is a gradual culling of plausible rival theories; those that persist through rigorous testing are considered the *best* theories,

at that time. However, similar to biological evolution, theories may be refuted or become obsolete at some point in the future. Hence, it may be pragmatically useful to accept a well-tested theory as *true*, until it is falsified or refuted (Smith 1998). The interaction between tentative theories (TT) and refutation (EE) is what advances scientific knowledge towards more interesting problems (P_2) (Van de Ven 2007; Smith 1998; Popper 1972).

Availing of Popper's (1972) schema of problem solving, an analogous representation of this study is as follows:

- P_1 = This study examines whether there are associations among strategic archetypes, forms of marketing practice and organisational performance.
- TT = The hypotheses (see Chapter 4) developed as a result of a review of the relevant literature (see Chapters 2 and 3).
- EE = The empirical testing (see Chapter 5) of these hypotheses through an online survey with marketing practitioners in Ireland.
- P_2 = The acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses (see Chapter 5) and, which in turn, influence the reformulation of the original problem (see Chapter 6).

1.7 Overview of Methodology

Marketing practitioners in Ireland are the target population from which inferences about the diversity of marketing practice and strategic archetypes are to be made. The research hypotheses are tested through an online survey distributed to members of the two associations representing marketing and sales professionals within Ireland, the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute. On balance, the advantages of online surveying (i.e. lower costs, speed of data collection, ease of data management, wider geographic reach, and media richness) outweigh the limitations (i.e. declining response rates and inability to control the respondents' environment).

The researcher accessed a survey instrument used in relation to Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices to which minor adjustments were made prior to piloting (see Appendix A). The researcher has relationships with several associations (i.e. Information Technology Association of Galway (ITAG), Kerrysoft and the executive MBA programme at NUI, Galway), which were amenable to piloting the survey instrument. The pilot was run between August and October 2006. The feedback from the pilot respondents revealed the main barrier to survey completion was length. Further feedback identified the performance questions as being too sensitive/inappropriate, as well pilot respondents believed there were too many open ended-questions, which were too time consuming to complete. The overall analysis indicated the survey instrument would need to be revised prior to its distribution to the sample population.

In developing the final survey instrument (see Appendix B), every effort was made to ensure it was lean. That is, only questions deemed essential to answering the research hypotheses were included. Most of the questions in the final survey are drawn from the literature (i.e. Miles and Snow 1978; Conant et al. 1990; Coviello et al. 1978; Coviello and Brodie 2001; DeSarbo 2005). Prior to its distribution, the questionnaire was tested between August and October 2007, with a purposefully selected group of experts and marketing practitioners using the think-aloud protocol (Dillman 2007). A number of revisions were implemented across three rounds of testing.

The members of the associations representing marketing and sales professionals within Ireland (i.e. Marketing Society and Marketing Institute) were invited to participate in the online survey regarding their organisations' approach to and management of marketing practices. The survey (see Appendix B) was hosted by SPSS Ireland on their secure

server for a seven-week period from the 19th May until the 7th July 2008. A three-wave emailing (Dillman 2007) was employed in contacting the members of the two associations (i.e. pre-notification, invitation and reminder). Crucially, the sample obtained (i.e. 207 useable respondents), which is representative of the population, namely organisations in Ireland employing marketing professionals. Analyses of the data examine the profile of respondents and their organisations, the classification of their organisations according to Miles and Snow's strategic archetypes, as well as Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices.

1.8 Dissertation's Structure

This study examines the associations among strategic archetypes (Miles and Snow 1978), forms of marketing practice (Coviello et al. 1997), and organisational performance (DeSarbo 2005). Chapters 2 and 3 provide a review of the literature pertaining to strategic configurations, diversity and contemporary marketing practices.

The research model and hypotheses are outlined in Chapter 4. As part of the research design, the advantages and limitations of online surveys is examined, as well as lessons drawn from the pilot survey, which contributed substantially in developing the online survey ultimately employed.

The findings are presented in Chapter 5. Marketing practitioners in Ireland are the target population from which inferences about the diversity of marketing practice and strategic archetypes are made. Respondents are members of the two associations representing marketing and sales professionals within Ireland, namely the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute. Access to such a population adds value to the literature because these associations' members work in all types of organisations and across all product-market sectors, which differs from many of the studies pertaining to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic

archetypes and Coviello et al.'s (1997) forms of contemporary marketing practices.

Chapter 6 presents the conclusions drawn from the study and its contribution to the literature. The data find support for the strategic archetypes (i.e. defender, prospector, analyser and reactor), as proposed by Miles and Snow (1978). Further, the archetypes of defender, prospector and analyser achieve superior organisational performance over the reactor archetype.

Marketing practices may be observed and broadly conform to Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices scheme of transaction, database, interactive and network marketing. Moreover, the relational forms of contemporary marketing practices (i.e. interactive and network marketing) are primarily associated with services, while transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice (i.e. transaction and database marketing) are primarily associated with goods.

The analyses largely support the notion that relational forms of contemporary marketing practices (i.e. interactive and network marketing) are primarily associated with business customers, while transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice are primarily associated with consumers. The exception is database marketing, which is equally associated with either consumers or business customers.

There is no significant association between forms of marketing practice, as outlined by Coviello et al. (2001), and organisational performance. The findings offer *partial* support for a significant association between marketing practice and strategic archetype, but only in relation to one of the eight dimensions for contemporary marketing practice, *the nature of customer relationship*.

CHAPTER 2.0 STRATEGIC ARCHETYPES AND DIVERISITY

2.1 Introduction

Miles and Snow's (1978) typology of strategy-structure configurations provides a useful framework for examining diversity in strategic behaviour because it characterises entire organisations as an integrated and dynamic whole, taking into account the interrelationships of strategy, structure and process. Miles and Snow's (1978) metaphor for this set of interrelationships is the adaptive cycle (for further discussion see section *2.3 Miles and Snow's Adaptive Cycle and Strategic Archetypes*), whereby organisations are "continuously cycling through sets of decisions" in relation to their product-market, the product itself, and organisational processes (Hambrick 2003: 116).

Miles and Snow (1978) have categorised these sets of decisions into three broad, generic *problems*: the *entrepreneurial* (i.e. choice of product-market domain), the *engineering* (i.e. transformation of resources into outputs) and the *administrative* (i.e. organisational structure). Moreover, the patterns arising from organisations' decisions translate into configurations of four basic strategy types (i.e. defenders, prospectors, analysers and reactors), which "populate the business landscape" (Hambrick 2003: 116). And even though from one industry to the next, these strategic types may differ in some aspects, the essential nature of each is constant (Hambrick 2003). Hence,

> *Defenders* are businesses that prosper through stability, reliability, and efficiency. *Prospectors* prosper by stimulating and meeting new product-market opportunities. *Analyzers* prosper by purposely being more innovative in their product-market initiatives than Defenders, but doing so more cautiously and selectively than Prospectors. *Reactors* vacillate in their approach to their environment and, as a result, don't [typically] prosper (Hambrick 2003: 116).

The value of the Miles and Snow (1978) typology is its potential for prediction. Further, this predictive potential is focused on business level strategy. Over the last thirty years, researchers have found the Miles and Snow (1978) typology easy to operationalise and robust in application (e.g. Hambrick 2003; Lukas 1999; Ketchen et al. 1997; Conant et al. 1990; Shortell and Zajac 1990; Zahra and Pearce 1990; Hambrick 1983; Snow and Hrebiniak 1980). Indeed, the typology's validity has been empirically tested in numerous industries and with a variety of firm types. The following list offers a modest selection of studies availing of the Miles and Snow (1978) typology within the last ten years:

- Automobile industry (e.g. Murakami 2000)
- Banking (e.g. Pleshko 2007)
- Biotechnology (e.g. Malone et al. 2008)
- Comic book industry (e.g. Mayfield et al. 2007)
- Consulting (e.g. Christiansen and Higgs 2008)
- E-commerce (e.g. Kearns 2005)
- Hospitals (e.g. Cueille 2006)
- Hospitality firms (e.g. Garrigós-Simón et al. 2005)
- Manufacturing (e.g. O'Regan and Ghobadian 2006)
- Mining (e.g. Simons et al. 1999)
- Non-profit organisations (e.g. Kunle 2006)
- Pharmaceutical firms (e.g. Pinto and Curto 2007)
- Public organisations (e.g. Meier et al. 2007)
- Public utilities (e.g. Ghobadian et al. 1998)
- Restaurants (e.g. Williams and Tse 1995)
- Retailing (e.g. Moore 2005)
- Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) (e.g. Aragón-Sánchez and Sánchez-Marín 2005)
- Strategic business units (SBUs) (e.g. DeSarbo et al. 2005)

As an introduction to Miles and Snow's typology, this chapter outlines the theoretical framework, strategic-choice theory, which informed Miles and Snow's perspective. As well, the central components of the typology are discussed and how the typology has been used to examine aspects of marketing practice.

2.2 Strategic-Choice Theorists

Miles and Snow's (1978) typology evolved from their investigation into how firms adapted to organisational and environmental change and sought to develop a general model that explained firms' adaptive cycle. Like other strategic-choice theorists of the time (e.g. Ansoff 1979; Weick 1979; Child 1972; Thompson 1967; Cyert and March, 1963; Drucker 1963; Chandler 1962), Miles and Snow (1978) recognise environmental conditions only partially account for organisational behaviour and that managers' decisions are also crucial in determining organisational structure and process.

2.2.1 Neoclassical Economics: Theory of the Firm

"The only crucial test of a theory is its predictive power" (Cyert and March 1963: 13). Strategic-choice theorists, disappointed with the lack of predictive power offered through neoclassical economic theory, sought more effective theoretical explanations for firm behaviour. The neoclassical assumptions such as rational behaviour and perfect information do not reflect the market reality enterprises face. Moreover, strategic-choice theorists assert the behaviour of firms cannot be adequately explained in terms of pursuing profit maximisation goals, that neoclassical frameworks for analysing uncertainty are faulty and ignore control processes (Simon 1962).

"The neoclassical economic theory of markets with perfect competition and rational agents is deductive theory that requires almost no contact with empirical data once its assumptions are accepted" (Simon 1959:

254). Some economists, such as Friedman (1953), consider realism of assumptions irrelevant, as the "function of economic theory is to build propositions with which the world can be analyzed and not to reproduce the world" (Cyert and March 1963: 14). Nevertheless, strategic-choice theorists recognise "a number of important and interesting questions relating specifically to firm behaviour that neoclassical economic theory cannot answer and was never developed to answer" (Cyert and March 1963: 15). Furthermore, strategic-choice theorists believe efforts in "understanding the business firm [would induce] secondary changes of considerable magnitude in the other branches of economic theory" (Simon 1962: 15).

2.2.2 Organisation Theory: Administrative Economics

The study of firm behaviour in organisation theory is even more diffuse than the study of economic activities of the firm. Strategic-choice theorists concentrate on the administrative branch of organisation theory, which focus on the problems of the executive in dealing with an organisation and the mechanisms for resource allocation (Simon 1959; Simon 1955). As a branch of organisation theory, administrative theorists take the decision-making process as its specific focus of concern (Cyert and March 1963). Thus, administrative theorists concentrate on developing theory to explain "how decisions are made in organizations, with special emphasis upon the processes of executive influence and the impact of organizational position on individual goals and perceptions" (Cyert and March 1963: 18).

Administrative theorists recognise there is a narrow area of human behaviour that approximates neoclassical assumptions and where "neoclassical theory with its assumptions of rationality is a powerful and useful tool" (Simon 1959: 255). However, as the complexity of the environment increases, more information is required "about the mechanisms and processes that economic man uses to relate himself to

that environment and achieve his goals" (Simon 1959: 279). To develop a fuller understanding of the *economic man*, administrative theorists look towards the theory of utility and its application to choice under uncertainty as a means to investigate the *administrative man*, who has limited knowledge and ability. In addition, administrative theorists draw on psychology and sociology to explore the notions of adaptive and satisficing behaviour so as to understand the actual processes of business decisions, which most closely resembles the *adaptive man* in a fully dynamic environment (Simon 1959).

Unlike the neoclassical theory of the firm, there is no need to aggregate, as the unit of analysis within administrative theory is the behaviour of one firm. Although administrative theorists examine individual economic actors, they also believe using *realism* in the approach to the firm's decision problems could provide economics with an ability to handle concrete public policy problems (Simon 1962).

2.2.3 Integrating the Theory of the Firm with Administrative Theory

To build their analytical perspective strategic-choice theorists blend aspects of the theory of the firm from neoclassical economics with the administrative branch of organisation theory. Strategic-choice theorists do not aim to replace neoclassical models, but to enhance their analytical prowess. By applying "neoclassical models to actual decision-making problems within the firm, ... important modifications and improvements have to be made in these models if they are to operate successfully with the kinds of imperfect information that are available in the real world" (Simon 1962: 15). From an economic perspective, strategic-choice theory could be classified as descriptive microeconomics, as it strives to explain the economic behaviour of individual economic actors.

Strategic-choice theorists construct their theoretical stance by identifying the firm as the basic unit of analysis, by focusing on the importance of

predicting firm behaviour, and by emphasising the actual process of organisational decision-making (Cyert and March 1963). As theorists, they adhere to the basic hypothesis that the environment, external strategic behaviour and the internal structure are interrelated (Ansoff 1979). Thus, strategic-choice theorists locate their analysis of environment, organisational structure, and performance within the scheme of organisational decision-making (Child 1972).

2.2.4 Relational Paradigm of Environment, Strategy and Structure

Chandler's (1962) relational paradigm of environment, strategy and structure is the foundation on which many strategic-choice theorists have developed their conceptual models. Chandler "postulated a dynamic sequential relationship between the *environment*, a business firm's strategic behaviour in the environment (*strategy*), and the consequent changes in the internal configuration (*structure*)" (Ansoff 1977: 59). Hence, environmental conditions inform an enterprise's choice of strategy for long-term success. In turn, strategy informs structure, which is the design of organisation through which an enterprise is administered (Chandler 1962).

Strategic-choice theorists take the decision making process as a specific focus of concern (Cyert and March 1963). They view strategy formulation as the "process of arriving at decisions that concern the future direction of an enterprise. Such decisions deal primarily with the relationship between a firm and its environment and the internal allocation of resources and managerial responsibilities" (Child and Francis 1977: 112). Decisions and actions are the end products of managers' efforts. Strategic-choice theorists believe the most crucial decisions are entrepreneurial decisions, which relate to the allocation or reallocation of resources (Chandler 1962; Drucker 1963).

To inform decisions, organisations must find ways to know the environment by scanning the environment for data, interpreting and giving meaning to the data, and taking action based on the learning gleaned from environmental scanning and interpretation (Daft and Weick 1984). Organisational decision makers' evaluation of their firm's position within the environment informs the choice of goals, which in turn, are reflected in the strategic action pursued (Child 1972). Environmental conditions, in conjunction with organisational objectives, organisational size, and technology are identified as significant forces in shaping organisational structure (Child 1972). Hence, different environmental conditions require different organisational structures to achieve optimal performance; for example, higher environmental variability and complexity requires a more adaptive organisational structure (Child 1972).

Analysis of organisational structure and environment must recognise decision-makers' choice, as their evaluation of the environment significantly shapes what is deemed the optimal structure for effective performance. Organisational decision makers recognise structure has consequences for performance, as they are charged with finding the appropriate configuration of resources, structure and processes, which is internally consistent and consistent with the scale and nature of the strategy planned (Child 1972). The *goodness of fit* or efficiency between organisational strategy, structure, and process is deemed to substantially determine organisational performance (Child 1972; see section *2.4.1 Concept of Fit* for further discussion). The organisation's overall level of performance is determined by the conjunction of efficiency with demand.

2.3 Miles and Snow's Adaptive Cycle and Strategic Archetypes

Although managers' decisions may be numerous and complex, Miles and Snow (1978) believe these decisions can be categorised into three broad, generic problems: the entrepreneurial (i.e. choice of product-market

domain), the engineering (i.e. transformation of resources into outputs) and the administrative (i.e. organisational structure).

By using the concept of the adaptive cycle to interpret the literature, as outlined in the previous sections and their research, Miles and Snow (1978) have developed an elegant typology consisting of three successful organisational types or configurations of defenders, prospectors, and analysers. Each type has a particular configuration of technology, structure, and process consistent with its unique market strategy. Miles and Snow (1978) identified a fourth type, reactors, which has an inconsistent configuration and is unsuccessful in its response to the market environment. Moreover,

> with enough cycles and insight, a given business becomes a very good, comprehensively aligned Prospector, Analyzer, or Defender. If a business lacks insight, or if it fails to take advantage of alignment opportunities afforded by the adaptive cycle, it will be an incongruent, poorly performing Reactor. Of course, the hyper-aligned business will face a major challenge if it needs to change its strategy. But the Miles and Snow typology and adaptive-cycle concept are even useful for assessing what is required to change from one strategic profile to another (Hambrick 2003: 116)

A summary profile of the strategic types is given in Tables 2.1 and 2.2.

The Miles and Snow (1978) typology has been a robust, integrated, contingency framework for exploring diversity. It sheds light on the nature of diversity in strategy and form by illuminating the simple underlying order. In addition to understanding the order in diversity, it is relevant to consider how diversity may contribute to an industry's long-term success. Although it is worthy to note, a limitation to the Miles and Snow (1978) typology is its cross-sectional orientation. That is, the static nature of the typology limits its ability to deal with diversity over time.

Table 2.1 Summary Profiles of Miles and Snow's Strategic Types: Defender, Prospector, Analyser and Reactor

Strategic Type	Strategy-Structure Profile
Defender	In the case of the defender, top management deliberately seeks to create a stable environment for their chosen product-market domain. Essentially, defenders aim to seal off a portion of the total market and work aggressively to prevent competitors from entering their product-market domain. This is often achieved by focusing on only a few core technologies. Generally, defenders do relatively little environmental scanning for new opportunities. Thus, growth is typically achieved through market penetration and some product development. Defenders' success emanates from efficiently targeting and serving a steady product-market domain. The defender strategy is more easily achieved in stable industries where there is relatively little technological change. Hence, the automobile industry is a good example of an industry where defender-type strategies are more likely to succeed. Although new car models are introduced each year, these new products typically offer minor, incremental changes rather than major leaps in product innovation. The risk of pursuing a defender strategy is of becoming ineffective in addressing major shifts in the market environment.
Prospector	In many respects, prospectors are the opposite of defenders. Prospectors typically choose environments that are more dynamic, relative to other firms in the same industry. Unlike defenders, prospectors pursue a broad and continuously developing product-market domain. As innovation is a central aim, prospectors must be persistently vigilant and expansive, while scanning the environment for new opportunities. Thus, growth is typically achieved through product development and diversification. Prospectors are frequently instigators of industry change. In fact, change is typically the manner in which prospectors may gain advantage over their competitors. In essence, prospectors' success emanates from identifying and exploiting new product and market opportunities. The computer software industry exemplifies prospector-type behaviour, as many software firms seek to identify the next 'killer' software application that will bring them to a dominant position within a given product-market sector. Risks associated with the prospector strategy are low profitability and over extension of resources in the continuous pursuit of innovation.
Analyser	Analysers hold the middle ground between defenders and prospectors. By combining the strengths of each, analysers aim to simultaneously innovate while maintaining a stable base in traditional product-markets. Hence, analysers seek a balance, which allows them to minimise risk and maximise profit simultaneously. Typically, analysers improve on prospectors' innovations and only pursue innovations after other firms have tested their viability. At the same time, analysers' accrue most of their profit from a stable set of products and customers. Given that the analysers endeavour to emulate the strengths of both defenders and prospectors, growth may come from market penetration as well as product and market development. Hence, the pharmaceutical industry may best exemplify the analysers' dual approach of stable and dynamic product sets. The stable products are those that have succeeded in the process from R&D through to commercialisation. For several years after commercialisation, due to the protection of patents, these products allow the pharmaceutical firm to accumulate higher profits. In addition, a portion of the profits from stable products, are reinvested in R&D efforts for new pharmaceutical products and/or applications – the dynamic product sets. The greatest risk in pursuing the analyser strategy is that the balance sought, between stability and flexibility, is either lost or never sufficiently attained. Furthermore, the dual system may preclude firms from becoming either fully efficient or effective.
Reactor	Reactors are an inconsistent configuration and are generally unsuccessful in their response to the market environment. Reactors are unstable because they lack a set of consistent response mechanisms that they can put into effect when faced with a changing environment. This inconsistency potentially stems from three sources: (i) management fails to articulate a viable organisational strategy; (ii) a strategy is articulated but technology, structure, and process are not linked to it in an appropriate manner; (iii) management adheres to a particular strategy-structure relationship even though it is no longer relevant to environmental conditions.

Source: Adapted from Miles and Snow (2003)

Table 2.2 Approach of Miles and Snow's Strategic Types in Solving the Entrepreneurial, Engineering and Administrative Problems

Problems	Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor
Entrepreneurial	To seal off a portion of the total market to create a stable set of products and customers	To locate and exploit new product and market opportunities	To locate and exploit new product and market opportunities *and* maintaining a firm base of traditional products and customers	To survive and avoid *complete* decline by reviving product profitability
Cost and Benefits	Difficult for competitors to dislodge firm from its industry niche, but a major market shift may threaten survival	Product and market innovations protect firm from a changing environment, but the firm also runs the risk of lower profitability and over-extension of its resources	Low investment in R&D, combined with imitation of demonstrably successful products, minimises risk, but domain must be balanced between stability and flexibility	Management fails to articulate a viable organisational strategy for the environment. That is, the firm is continuing to offer products no longer required or serving customers who are no longer profitable
Engineering	To produce and distribute goods or services as efficiently as possible	To avoid long-term commitment to a single technological process	To facilitate and co-ordinate numerous and diverse operations	To realign technology with structure and process
Cost and Benefits	Technological efficiency is central to performance, but heavy investment in technology requires these problems remain familiar and predictable for lengthy periods	Technological flexibility permits a rapid response to a changing domain, but due to multiple technologies, it cannot maximise efficiency in its production and distribution systems	Dual technological core is able to serve a hybrid stable-changing domain, but the technology can never be completely effective or efficient	Technology, structure, and process are not linked in an appropriate manner for the environment
Administrative	To maintain strict control of the organisation in order to ensure efficiency	To be efficient in stable portions of the domain and flexible in changing portions	To facilitate and co-ordinate numerous and diverse operations	To realign process with strategy and structure
Cost and Benefits	Administrative system is ideally suited to maintain stability and efficiency, but not well suited to locating and responding to new products or market opportunities	Administrative system is ideally suited to maintain flexibility and effectiveness, but may under-utilise and mis-utilise resources	Administrative system is ideally suited to balance stability and flexibility, but if this balance is lost, it may be difficult to restore equilibrium	Administrative system is poorly aligned, as management adheres to a particular strategy-structure relationship that is no longer relevant to environmental conditions

Source: Adapted from Miles and Snow (2003).

2.4 Contingency Organisation Theory

As coined by Lawrence and Lorsch (1967), *contingency organisation theory* views organisations as complex multivariate systems. Hence, a theory that aims to explain organisational behaviour should pursue the systematic collection of multivariate, empirical data. Moreover, such a theory is "contingent in the sense that [it tries] to understand and explain how organizations function under different [environmental] conditions" (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967: 186). The environment is determined by an organisation's decision as to *what business it is in*. Further, the "internal attributes of the organization, in terms of structure and orientation, can be tested for goodness of fit with the various environmental variables, [whereby] ... organisational performance emerges as a function of this fit" (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967: 209).

According to Lawrence and Lorsch's (1967) definition, the Miles and Snow (1978) typology is located within contingency organisation theory. Further, informative contingency theories of business and corporate strategy are important in their potential to facilitate "the productivity of corporations, large and small, by improving the strategy choices made by such organizations" (Hofer 1975: 808).

2.4.1 Configurational View of Strategy

The work of Miles and Snow (1978) has been instrumental to the fields of strategic management and organisation theory in two significant ways by: (i) delineating the concept of strategic equifinality, and (ii) initiating the *configurational view* of strategy (Hambrick 2003). Equifinality refers to the idea that within a particular industry or environment, there are several, but not an infinite number of ways for organisations to prosper (Hambrick 2003). Configurations are groups of organisations with a similar profile of organisational characteristics (Ketchen et al. 1997; Meyer et al. 1993; McKee et al. 1989; Miller and Mintzberg 1984). Thus, configurations "represent common alignments of elements [and] their predictive power

relies on the fact that most alignments are unlikely while relatively few are far more common" (Miller 1996: 506). Moreover, "the configuration approach to research in strategic management offers much potential for solving some of the difficulties inherent in accurately articulating multifaceted constructs and relationships among them" (Dess et al. 1993: 30).

Since Miles and Snow (1978) have outlined their strategic archetypes, there have been several other contingency-based configurations, which are similar, in some respects, to the Miles and Snow (1978) typology (Hambrick 2003). These configurational theories hypothesise superior performance or effectiveness for those organisations that resemble one of the ideal types defined in the theory (Doty et al. 1993). Examples of some of these configurational theories are:

- Mintzberg's (1979) five *ideal types* of simple structure, machine bureaucracy, professional bureaucracy, divisionalised form, and adhocracy
- Porter's (1980) set of *generic strategies* of cost leadership, differentiation, focus, and stuck in the middle
- Miller's (1990) *high-performance gestalts* of craftsman, builder, pioneer, and salesman
- Treacy and Wiersema's (1995) three *strategic types* of operational excellence, product leadership, and customer intimacy

Several empirical studies have availed of a synthesis of the Miles and Snow (1978) and Porter (1980) typologies to create low-cost defenders and differentiated defenders, because the academics believe such a synthesis improves the explanatory power of their analysis (e.g. Slater et al. 2007; Olson et al. 2005; Slater and Olson 2000; Walker and Ruekert 1987). Indeed, Segev's (1989: 487) study comparing the Miles and Snow (1978) and Porter (1980) typologies, suggests "a synthesis of the

typologies along two dimensions: internal consistency of the strategy and level of proactiveness." Although, Segev (1989: 492) finds the "Miles and Snow's typology lends itself better to evaluation of environmental variables" than does Porter's (1980) framework.

However, Murray (1988), as well as Miller and Dess (1980), question whether such a synthesis is appropriate, as they are more critical in their evaluation of Porter's (1980) typology. Murray (1988: 390) finds Porter's (1980) types "are *not* ... mutually exclusive and that each strategy may be linked to a variety of strategic means." While, Miller and Dess (1980: 576) find

> that: (1) even though [Porter's (1980) typology] is a simple framework, [and] captures a great deal of complexity, (2) it does not provide a completely accurate portrayal of strategy-performance relationships or of the ability and desirability of combining strategic advantages, and (3) the generalizability of the generic strategies is questionable.

With respect to predictive potential, Doty et al. (1993) have empirically tested Mintzberg's (1979) ideal types against Miles and Snow's strategic types. Their study indicates there is *not* sufficient support for "Mintzberg's (1979) theory that organizations will be more effective [if] they resemble his five ideal types" (Doty et al. 1993: 1196). In contrast, the Miles and Snow (1978) typology, based on "fit among contextual, structural, and strategic factors is a relatively powerful predictor of organizational effectiveness" (Doty et al. 1993: 1239). Doty et al. (1993) continue by noting their findings are not unique, although their study shows the Miles and Snow (1978) typology "is a more powerful predictor of organizational effectiveness than has previously been reported." Indeed, of all the "strategy classification systems introduced over the past [30] years, the Miles and Snow typology has been the most enduring, the most scrutinized, and the most used" (Hambrick 2003: 116).

As a *coarse-grained methodology*, Miles and Snow's (1978) typology, is meant to be generalisable and indicate statistical significance (Harrigan 1983). At the same time, like other coarse-grained methodologies (e.g. Porter 1980), it may not be able to explain the interaction of forces observed and may "occasionally miss important contingencies" (Harrigan 1983: 399).

In contrast, *fine-grained methodologies* (e.g. Mintzberg 1978) are more proficient in capturing nuances and the details of context (Harrigan 1983). In this respect, fine-grained methodologies may offer an "improved understanding of forces underlying phenomenon in each observation" (Harrigan 1983: 399), but their findings are not typically generalisable.

2.4.2 Concept of Fit

The concept of *fit* is embedded in contingency theory (Van de Ven 1979); it is central to the development of theories in organisation theory and strategic management (Venkatraman and Camillus 1984), and it is vital to the contingency concept in relation to the formulation of business strategy (Hofer 1975). Academics availing of a configurational view, suggest organisations achieve superior performance when they are *well-configured* or have a *good fit*. Specifically, organisations must match or align their priorities and practices with their chosen strategy (Miller and Le Breton-Miller 2006). Indeed, "high-performing configurations are those with internal and external congruence, alignment or fit" (Snow et al. 2005: 433).

Hence, "the fit among the elements of an organization may be evidenced by the degree to which strategy, structure and systems complement one another" (Miller 1996: 511). Similarly, organisational *forms* may be viewed as specific configurations of complementary goals, boundaries, and activities (Van de Ven 1979). However, it is worth noting, "a *better fit* does not mean that there is only one fit - selection is a matter of

relative superiority over other forms" (Van de Ven 1979: 322).

Venkatraman and Camillus (1984), in their meta-analysis of the concept of fit, as it relates specifically to strategic management, have developed a conceptual scheme to distinguish different perspectives of fit (see Table 2.3). According to Venkatraman and Camillus (1984), the Miles and Snow (1978) typology belongs to the integrated formulation-implementation school (i.e. see cell 6 in Table 2.3), which views fit as the integration of aligning organisational strategy with environmental conditions, *as well as* tailoring organisational mechanisms in line with strategy. Further, Venkatraman and Camillus (1984: 520) recognise that "Miles and Snow (1978) employ a qualitative measure of fit among strategy, structure, and process to differentiate the *stable* strategic types (defenders, prospectors, and analyzers) from the *unstable* strategic type (reactor)." As such, Miles and Snow (1978) represent one of the few "attempts at measuring the content of fit, with a limited focus on strategy and structure" (Venkatraman and Camillus 1984: 520).

The intention of Venkatraman and Camillus (1984), in developing this scheme is to clarify the specific meaning of fit as it is used in various settings; they do *not* suggest one perspective is necessarily superior to another. That is, for a particular research stream one perspective of fit may be more appropriate to use than another, but no one perspective is necessarily better (Venkatraman 1989). Indeed, Venkatraman (1989) encourages researchers "to consider [using] multiple specifications [of fit] as competing theories or models, especially in cases in which the extant research may not be powerful enough to suggest rejecting the [perspectives] outright."

Table 2.3 Proposed Conceptual Scheme to Distinguish Different Perspectives of Fit

1) Strategy Formulation School		4) Inter-organisational (Strategy) Networks School		
Key Issues	*Exemplary Studies*	*Key Issues*	*Exemplary Studies*	
Theme: Aligning strategy with the environmental conditions **Contributing Streams:** • IO-strategy interface • Business policy/strategy management	Bain 1956 Bourgeois 1980 Chandler 1962 Christensen & Montgomery 1981 Hatten & Schendel 1977 Hedley 1977 Hofer 1975 Porter 1979; 1980 Rumelt 1982 Scherer 1980 Yip 1982	**Theme:** Strategy analysis at the *collective* level, emphasising interdependence of strategies of various organisations vying for resource allocation **Contributing Streams:** • Interorganisational networks • Resource-dependency themes • Constituency analysis	Aldrich 1979 Ansoff 1982 Fombrun & Asley 1983 Khandwalla 1981 Pennings 1981 Pfeffer & Salancik 1978	EXTERNAL
2) Strategy Implementation School		**5) Strategic-Choice School**		
Key Issues	*Exemplary Studies*	*Key Issues*	*Exemplary Studies*	
Theme: Tailoring administrative and organisational mechanisms in line with strategy **Contributing Streams:** • Business policy • Normative strategy literature	Chandler 1962 Channon 1971 Galbraith & Nathanson 1978; 1979 Grinyer & Yasai-Ardekani 1981 Gupta & Govindarajan 1982 King 1978 Lorange & Vancil 1977 Rumelt 1974 Stonich 1982 Waterman, Peters & Philips 1980	**Theme:** Managerial discretion moderating the deterministic view regarding decisions on organisational mechanisms **Contributing Streams:** • Contemporary organisation theory • Business policy-organisation theory interface	Child 1972 Montanari 1978 (See Fry 1982 and Galbraith and Nathanson 1978 for reviews)	INTERNAL (Domain of Fit)
3) Integrated Formulation-Implementation School		**6) Overarching Gestalt School**		
Key Issues	*Exemplary Studies*	*Key Issues*	*Exemplary Studies*	
Theme: Strategic management involving both formulation and implementation and covering both organisational and environmental conditions **Contributing Streams:** • Business policy/strategic management • Markets and hierarchies program	Andrews 1971 Caves 1980 Chandler 1962 Grinyer & Yasai-Ardekani 1981 Hitt, Ireland & Palia 1982 Jemison 1981 ***Miles & Snow 1978; 1980*** White & Hammermesh 1981 Williamson 1981	**Theme:** Broadly configuring organisation and environment, emphasising interdependence but *not* causation **Contributing Streams:** • Organisation theory • Business policy/strategic management • Population ecology-based concepts	Chakravarthy 1982 Hrebiniak 1981 Jauch & Osborn 1981 Lawrence & Dyer 1980 Thompson 1967 Thorelli 1977 Van de Ven 1979	INTEGRATED
CONTENT OF FIT (Elements to be Aligned with Strategy)		**PATTERN OF INTERACTIONS** (Process of Arriving at Fit)		

Source: Venkatraman and Camillus (1984).

2.5 Strategic Archetypes and Performance

Aspects of organisational performance have been frequently used in evaluating the impact of business strategy based on Miles and Snow's typology. "The general argument is that the specific strategies of firms within each strategic type could affect performance; it is the variation in these strategies that cause performance to vary" (Shoham et al. 2002: 242). Ketchen et al.'s (1997: 233) meta-analysis of 40 empirical studies investigating the configurations-performance relationship "removes any equivocality surrounding configurations' ability to predict performance." They find "that an organization's performance is partially explained by its configuration, ... [and that] configurations contribute more to performance explanation [in studies availing of] (1) broad definitions of configurations, (2) single-industry samples, and (3) longitudinal designs" (Ketchen et al. 1997: 223).

Miles and Snow (1978) assert that prospectors, analysers and defenders may be successful if their organisational strategy is appropriate for the competitive environment and deploy appropriate capabilities; as well as, that reactors are less successful than the other strategic archetypes due to their poor strategy-structure fit. Further, Miles and Snow (1978) suggest organisational performance will be relatively equal in defender, prospector, and analyser organisations, but also higher than in a reactor organisation. This assertion has been confirmed by a number of studies (e.g. Slater and Olson 2001; Conant et al. 1990; Smith et al. 1989).

However, there is evidence from other studies, depending upon the industry, the sample size, or other organisational constructs, which suggest there are differences among strategic archetype performance of defenders, prospectors and analysers (Aubert and Croteau 2005). For example, there are a number of studies that show prospectors outperform defenders (e.g. Andrews et al. 2006; Evans and Green 2000; Woodside et al. 1999; Hambrick 1983). Additionally, there are studies that show

analysers to outperform prospectors, especially in situations where analysers have imitated, appropriated, and distributed the prospectors' innovations more rapidly than prospectors themselves (Slater et al. 2007).

Although reactors are generally expected to achieve low performance, there are studies that show reactors to have performed well. For example, Kumari et al.'s (2006) study shows reactors' performance, with respect to market value, to fall between that of prospectors and defenders; and that reactors' performance is indistinguishable from analysers. Snow and Hrebiniak's (1980) study shows reactors, within the highly regulated environment of air transport, performed best. As reactors are not as willing as their competitors to assume risk, perhaps a highly regulated environment suits reactors where they may do much better than *just* survive (Ketchen et al. 1997). Therefore, it is *possible*, though not as *likely*, for reactors to perform well in *some* environments (Ketchen et al. 1997: 225). Indeed, reactors may achieve success through *sheer luck,* rather than through strategic design.

Thus, the link between strategic archetype and performance is not as straightforward as the typology suggests (Zahra and Pearce 1990). Meta-analytic reviews of studies employing the Miles and Snow's (1978) typology show there are contradictory findings relating to performance (Ketchen et al. 1997; Zahra and Pearce 1990). Moreover, the relative performance among archetypes is neither comprehensive nor conclusive (Andrews et al. 2006). Nevertheless, among the numerous studies availing of the Miles and Snow (1978) typology, there is stronger support for prospectors, analysers and defenders outperforming reactors (Andrews et al. 2006; Ketchen et al. 1997; Zahra and Pearce 1990).

2.6 Strategic Archetypes and Diversity in Marketing Practice

In relation to examining diversity in marketing practice, several researchers have applied the Miles and Snow (1978) typology to aspects

of marketing with considerable success, such as market orientation (Matsuno and Mentzer 2000; Lukas 1999; McDaniel and Kolari 1987), interdependence of business strategy and marketing practice (Slater and Olson 2001; Walker and Ruekert 1987), marketing competencies (Conant et al. 1990) and sales force management (Slater and Olson 2000).

2.6.1 Market Orientation

Among these studies, the area of market orientation has received the most attention. Among the first to apply the Miles and Snow (1978) typology to marketing strategies, McDaniel and Kolari (1987) find the typology is useful to the field of marketing strategy. Their motivation for applying the typology to marketing strategies primarily centres on the increasing dynamism of the general business environment (McDaniel and Kolari 1987). Moreover, extending the application of the typology to marketing strategy is reasonable, as the organisational mission, objectives and resources influence the specific marketing strategy an organisation pursues (McDaniel and Kolari 1987).

Their investigation of the US banking industry not only provides "support for Miles and Snow's typology [but] also suggest additional relationships between strategic type, marketing orientation, and views toward specific marketing strategy elements" (McDaniel and Kolari 1987: 29). There are specific differences in marketing orientation and marketing behaviour between defenders and prospectors, as well as, defenders and analysers. For example, defenders are the least likely of the strategic archetypes to consider marketing strategy as being central to achieving their organisational objectives (McDaniel and Kolari 1987). Furthermore, these defenders are more likely to rely on traditional banking products, which is consistent with Miles and Snow's (1978) assertion that defenders seek a narrow, and perhaps a less technically sophisticated product base as a means to secure stability. In contrast, prospectors are more likely to invest in new technology so as to offer more innovative financial products,

while analysers are noted for having highly adaptive processes to respond to the increasingly dynamic banking industry environment.

McDaniel and Kolari (1987) caution that their findings are limited to one industry; thus in other industries, the relationships between strategic type and behaviour may differ, particularly if the industries are less turbulent. Nevertheless, Lukas (1999: 155) finds Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic types "are systematically associated with a characteristic degree of market orientation ... and these relationships are consistent across different performance and environmental contexts." Lukas' (1999) investigation of manufacturing firms finds prospectors place the greatest emphasis on marketing orientation, while analysers have a stronger competitor emphasis. Of all the strategic types, reactors are shown to have the weakest emphasis on marketing orientation and competitor orientation.

Matsuno and Mentzer (2000) examine the role of business strategy type as an alternative, potential moderator of the market orientation-performance relationship among US manufacturing firms. Their empirical investigations "find evidence that supports the moderating effects of business strategy type on the strength of the relationship between market orientation and business performance" Matsuno and Mentzer (2000: 1). Specifically, they find analysers gain little in performance by increasing market orientation. In emulating aspects from the defender and prospector, the analyser minimises risk while maximising the opportunity for profit. In contrast, defenders gain considerable benefit in return on investment (ROI) by increasing market orientation, but loose in other performance dimensions, such as market share, sales growth and new product sales. Overall, prospectors benefit the most, in all dimensions of performance (i.e. market share, sales growth, now product sales and ROI), by increasing market orientation.

2.6.2 Interdependence of Business Strategy and Marketing Practice

The other area receiving ample attention is the interdependence of business strategy and marketing practice (Slater and Olson 2001; Walker and Ruekert 1987). Walker and Ruekert's (1987: 15) meta-analysis of the empirical evidence from various other studies examines "the relationship of different types of structure, processes, and policies involved in the performance of marketing activities to the overall performance of different business strategies."

Their propositions in relation to prospectors suggest marketing, sales, product research and development (R&D), as well as engineering would each have considerable influence and autonomy within the organisation; as a result, the potential for conflict among these areas would be high (Walker and Ruekert 1987). They believe prospectors would focus on a broad range of technically sophisticated products, offer high quality of service, seek high prices, and consequently, the levels of investment in advertising and sales promotion would be relatively high.

Walker and Ruekert (1987) offer further propositions for differentiated defenders and low-cost defenders. In relation to differentiated defenders, they propose sales, finance and other specialised areas would be the most influential within the organisation; however, each area would have only moderate autonomy. They propose that differentiated defenders would focus on a narrow range of high quality of products, offer high quality of service, seek high prices, and the levels of investment in sales force activities would be high.

In relation to low-cost defenders, Walker and Ruekert (1987) suggest process engineering, production, distribution, financial management and control would be the most influential areas within the organisation. Moreover, as there would be a high degree of synergy among these areas, the potential for conflict would be low. They also propose that low-cost

defenders would focus on a narrow range of less technically sophisticated products, offer a lower quality of service, seek lower prices, and consequently, the levels of investment in advertising and sales promotion would be low.

Slater and Olson (2001) examine the performance implications of matching marketing strategy to business strategy by surveying senior marketing executives of manufacturing and service firms about their organisational practices. Overall, they observe "superior performance at the firm or SBU level [is] achieved when specific marketing strategy types [are] matched with appropriate Miles and Snow (1978) business strategy types (Slater and Olson 2001: 1055). Specifically, they find prospectors, by availing of an *aggressive marketing* strategy, will achieve superior performance; analysers are likely to achieve superior performance through a *mass marketing* strategy; low-cost defenders succeed by pursuing a *marketing minimser* strategy; and differentiated defenders perform best through a *value marketing* strategy. Slater and Olson (2001: 1063) emphasise

> that each of these contingent relationships is unique. In other words, each of the four identified business strategies requires a different marketing strategy comprised of unique combinations of marketing decisions and related practices to achieve superior performance. And, there is no significant difference among the business strategy types with regard to either profitability or market performance (relative to objectives and competitors) when marketing strategy type is appropriately matched to business strategy type.

2.6.3 Marketing Competencies and Sales Force Management

Conant et al. (1990) investigate marketing competencies among US health management organisations (HMOs) by developing a multi-item scale to operationalise the Miles and Snow (1978) typology. Their findings suggest the marketing competency of *new service development* is the dimension that differentiates defenders, analysers and prospectors

from each other. Further, the marketing competencies of prospectors are superior to those of the other strategic types. Although, they also observe that "all three stable archetypes [i.e. defender, prospector and analyser] perform equally well in terms of profitability and outperform reactors (Conant et al. 1990: 365).

Conant et al.'s (1990) findings are consistent with the concept of equifinality, as asserted by Miles and Snow (1978). For example, they find defenders' performance to be favourable, despite their relative weak levels of marketing competencies (Conant et al. 1990). Thus, the same outcomes (i.e. favourable performance) can be achieved in multiple, but finite ways. In the case of defenders, Conant et al. (1990: 377) suggest their favourable levels of performance may be due to "compensatory strengths such as the financial and operations competencies."

Acknowledging that different business strategies require configurations of organisational practice to achieve optimal performance, Slater and Olson (2000) examine sales force practices among US manufacturing firms. They propose, as sales force management is an important functional activity, it should contribute to the successful implementation of business strategy.

Their findings indicate higher-performing prospectors build strong relationship with customers so as to understand their latent needs, as well as to identify possible opportunities for new product development. As prospectors motivate their sales force by focusing on outcomes (i.e. sales), they extend moderate levels over their sales force (Slater and Olson 2000).

Higher performing analysers pursue a relationship selling strategy. Similar to prospectors, analysers motivate their sales force by focusing on outcomes, at the same time, they reduce risk "by using moderately high

levels of supervision to provide clear direction to sales force members and … by balancing commission-based compensation with a salaried foundation" (Slater and Olson 2000: 824).

In relation to low-cost defenders, Slater and Olson's (2000) findings are consistent with Porter's (1980) framework, where organisations outsource their selling function so as to focus on their core competency of production. Typically, higher-performing low-cost defenders avail of commission-based compensation. In contrast, differentiated defenders avail of a relationship selling strategy to increase profitability. Although, Slater and Olson (2000; 824) note "differentiated defenders may also use a transaction-based selling strategy to maximize selling opportunities, at least in the short run."

Overall, Slater and Olson (2000: 813) "find substantial support for the general proposition that the different strategy types require individualized profiles of sales force management practices for optimal effectiveness and that sales force management is important to the successful implementation of business strategy."

The findings from these studies indicate there is an association with strategic archetypes. That is, there are different patterns of marketing practice that reflect different configurations, which are in turn, related to environmental conditions in different ways. Furthermore, these studies suggest when marketing practice is appropriately matched to organisational strategy it facilitates organisational performance (Olson et al. 2005; Vorhies and Morgan 2003). However, there are those who contend organising marketing to facilitate business strategy is a particularly difficult challenge for managers (e.g. Vorhies and Morgan 2003; Cespedes 1995; Webster 1997).

2.7 Summary

"Typologies at their best are memorable, neat and evocative" (Miller 1996: 506). The Miles and Snow (1978) typology is distinguished because: (i) it is well informed by theory and "it differentiates among types of strategies, organisations, and decision-making styles;" (ii) it has furthered theory because "the types invoke contrast"; and (iii) "it has shown how and why the attributes of each type is interrelated, which has important conceptual implications" (Miller 1996: 507).

Miles and Snow's (1978) adaptive cycle categorises the sets of decisions organisations "continuously cycling through" in relation to product-market, product, and organisational processes into three generic problems: entrepreneurial, engineering and administrative (Hambrick 2003: 116). The patterns arising from organisations' decisions translate into configurations of four strategy types: defenders, prospectors, analysers and reactors, which "populate the business landscape" (Hambrick 2003: 116). Regardless of industry or product type, the essential nature of each strategic type remains constant (Hambrick 2003).

Configurations "represent common alignments of elements [and] their predictive power relies on the fact that most alignments are unlikely while relatively few are far more common (Miller 1996: 506). The value of the Miles and Snow (1978) typology is its potential for prediction. Doty et al. (1993) have empirically tested the Miles and Snow (1978) typology and find, based on "fit among contextual, structural, and strategic factors [it] is a relatively powerful predictor of organizational effectiveness" (Doty et al. 1993: 1239).

It is thought "better practice aided by better theory can make a big difference in a firm's performance" (Snow et al. 2005: 431). Over the last thirty years, researchers and practitioners have found the Miles and Snow (1978) typology easy to operationalise and robust in application. Indeed,

the typology's validity has been empirically tested in numerous industries and with a variety of firm types. "It is because the [Miles and Snow (1978)] typology deals with fundamental strategic and organizational tradeoffs that it possesses such enduring relevance and appeal" (Hambrick 2003: 117).

Having reviewed the literature pertinent to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic-practice typology the following chapter, *3.0 Contemporary Marketing Practices*, examines the extant literature pertaining to Coviello et al.'s (2001) framework.

CHAPTER 3.0 CONTEMPORARY MARKETING PRACTICES

3.1 Introduction

Throughout history there have been few groups so separated from the rest of the world as not to be touched by marketing activities (Lyon 1933). Marketing activities are pervasive and are by no means limited to industrialised or advanced societies (Gronroos 1996; Lyon 1933). Although marketing activities have always existed, *marketing* was first coined and used as a noun, in contrast to its earlier use as a verb, in the first decade of the 20th century (Petrof 1997). Thus, marketing was *discovered* because it was recognised as an *idea* and not just an activity (Bartels 1951). Since then, the idea or concept of marketing has evolved to where it is no longer viewed as a supplemental activity, but as a strategic management function that guides and co-ordinates the efforts of the entire firm (Hollander et al. 2005; Applbaum 2005; Bartels 1965).

More recent developments in the conceptualisation of marketing relate to the emphasis on establishing and maintaining relationships with customers as well as within the wider network of stakeholders, namely suppliers and customers (Groonroos 2007; 1990). Thus, the simple exchange of more traditional marketing approaches is replaced with the development of long-term, value-added relationships maintained over time with various publics (Groonroos 1994; 1990). The increasing addressability of marketing means organisations do not deal with customers, or other publics as a mass or a segment, but through creating individual relationships, managing each in terms of its state of development (Blattburg and Deighton 1991).

Organisations recognise the long-term value of customers is increasingly important and marketing is viewed as a process that should support the creation of perceived value over time, thereby redefining the character of marketing through the enhancement and management of relationships

(Groonroos 2007; Hakansson and Snehota 1995). In this respect, the challenge for organisations is to address the multi-faceted market demands in an adaptable, flexible and responsive manner (Wind 2008; McKenna 1991). It has been the objective of Coviello et al. (1997) to capture the evolving nature of contemporary marketing practices, documenting marketing's efforts towards renewal (Brodie et al. 2008; Gronroos 2007).

This chapter begins by reviewing Coviello et al.'s (1997) conceptualisation of the contemporary marketing practices framework; it continues by outlining the framework's central components and examining the extent to which it has been tested and validated. Such a review serves as a foundation to illustrate how this framework may be used in conjunction with Miles and Snow's (1978) typology to examine diversity in marketing practice.

3.2 Conceptualisation of Contemporary Marketing Practices

The impetus to investigate marketing practices, in the context of a contemporary environment, is as a result of a growing body of evidence that organisations simultaneously employ a combination of marketing practices (Brodie et al. 2008). Further, practitioners are less concerned about theoretical paradigms of transactional versus relational perspectives, than what is more effective in achieving organisational goals and in facilitating customers' needs and wants. Hence, the paradigm of relationship marketing may not be as relevant to practitioners as the literature would like to suggest.

As well, Coviello et al. (1997: 502) among others (e.g. Zineldin and Philipson 2007; Blois 1996; Lehtinen 1996; Peterson, 1995; Fisk 1994; Iacobucci 1994), criticise the lack of a precise definition for relationship marketing, which has become "a catch-all phrase based on the concepts of relationships, interactions and networks." According to Coviello et al.

(1997: 502), this lack of definitional precision has "had two effects: (i) it has led to the term *relationship marketing* being applied rather loosely …; and (ii) it has also given rise to a multitude of narrow, convenient interpretations of the term … to fit the specific needs of the researcher."

At the tactical level, relationship marketing has been presented as manifestations of database marketing, electronic marketing, and multi-level or pyramid selling (Beckett-Camarata et al. 1998; Coviello et al. 1997; Blattburg and Deighton 1991). At the strategic level, relationship marketing represents the ongoing relationships between an organisation and its customers, as well as the *working relationships* between an organisation and its suppliers, distributors and other business partners (Beckett-Camarata et al. 1998; Coviello et al. 1997; Gronroos 1994). Moreover, research on interactions (i.e. the dyadic relationship between buyer and seller) and networks are also labelled as forms of relationship marketing (Coviello et al. 1997; Wensley 1995; Easton 1995; Morgan and Hunt 1994; Gronroos 1990). "These varied interpretations and multiple uses of the term relationship marketing are perhaps not surprising given the complexity of relationships themselves (Gummeson 1994). However, they have led to the term being both over-used and carelessly used in the literature" (Coviello et al. 1997: 502).

At another level, Coviello et al. (1997) recognise there is a body of literature to suggest the marketing of consumer goods and services differs significantly from the marketing of business-to-business goods and services. The dichotomies between consumer and business customers, as well as goods and services, have been a key consideration within the literature (e.g. Gronroos 2007; Lovelock and Gummesson 2004; Hakansson and Snehota 1995; Gronroos 1990). Consequently, Coviello et al. (1997: 504) believe an understanding of the contemporary marketing environment is complicated not only by the various manifestations of relationship marketing, but also "the view that some types of marketing

are more appropriate to certain industries than others." These conflicting perspectives are what prompted Coviello et al. (1997: 504) to "develop a simple classification scheme which helps to identify and distinguish various types of marketing that may be relevant to contemporary business practice."

A review of marketing practices within the literature anchored the development of the classification scheme, where six streams of research have been identified with the "*newer* process-based relational perspectives", namely: services marketing, inter-organisational exchange relationships, channels, networks, strategic management and value chains, and finally, information technology (Brodie et al. 2008: 85). The literature review "was designed to capture how marketing was described, defined or discussed, based on both historical and contemporary scholarly arguments" (Brodie et al. 2008: 84). The resulting profile of marketing practices in a contemporary environment would afford the opportunity to "examine the relevance of [transactional] and relational marketing in different organisational, economic and cultural contexts" (Brodie et al. 2008: 84). More importantly, it would afford the opportunity "to balance theoretical arguments with evidence of managerial practice" (Brodie et al. 2008: 85).

As the contemporary marketing practices classification scheme embraces a multi-theoretical approach, it is believed to be a comprehensive taxonomy encompassing a range of marketing practices (Brodie et al. 2008; Coviello and Brodie 2001; Coviello et al. 1997). That is, "distinct boundaries [are] not drawn between each aspect of marketing, nor [has] each aspect implied to be independent and mutually exclusive" (Brodie et al. 2008: 85).

3.3 Overview of the Contemporary Marketing Practices Framework

Four forms of marketing are identified in the contemporary marketing practices classification scheme, namely transaction, database, interaction and network marketing (Coviello et al. 1997; Coviello and Brodie 2001). Transaction marketing, which is also referred to as *traditional marketing*, involves managing the elements in the marketing mix. Communication is seen as discrete, arms-length transactions *to* customers (Brodie et al. 2008). Database marketing is also viewed as interaction *to* customers, which "involves using database technology to create a relationship. The intent is to retain identified customers, ... [but] relationships per se are not close or interpersonal, and are facilitated and personalised through the use of database technology" (Brodie et al. 2008: 85). Relational forms of marketing practices are interaction and network marketing. Interaction marketing is *with* the customer as it "implies face-to-face interaction between individuals ... , [where] both parties in the dyad invest resources to develop a mutually beneficial and interpersonal relationship" (Brodie et al. 2008: 85). Network marketing is also *with* the customer, "but occurs across and among organisations, ... [where] managers commit resources to develop their firm's position in a network of various firm-level relationships (Brodie et al. 2008: 85). A more detailed description of each form of marketing practice is provided in Table 3.1.

It is worthy to note, in the earliest developments of the contemporary marketing practices classification scheme, database marketing is considered a *low-form* of relational marketing, as there is personalised contact with customers via a database (e.g. Coviello et al. 1997; Coviello and Brodie 1998). In later developments of the CMP classification scheme, database marketing is considered a form of transactional marketing; although there is some form of personalised contact, the customer relationship is considered discrete and distant (e.g. Coviello et al. 2001: 387; Brodie et al. 2008). That is, in database marketing the organisation's contact is "*to* a targeted segment", rather than interactive

Table 3.1 Forms of Contemporary Marketing Practices

Marketing Form	Description
Transactional Perspective Transaction Marketing	Transaction marketing is commonly referred to as *traditional marketing*, which is focused on a single sale in the short term. Transaction marketing is said to be oriented towards product features with low service emphasis, and involves moderate customer contact and limited customer commitment. Consumer packaged goods are normally characterised by transaction marketing.
Transactional Perspective Database Marketing	Database marketing involves applying a tool or technique to develop and manage long-term relationships between the company and its targeted customers. In this marketing activity, the focus is still on the market transaction, but now involves both economic and information exchange. The marketer relies on information technology (e.g. in the form of a database or the internet) to create a type of relationship, thus allowing firms to compete in a manner different from mass marketing. More specifically, the intent is to use technology to help retain customers over time. Communication patterns are generally driven and managed by the seller, and are therefore asymmetrical (similar to transaction marketing). Marketing is still *to* the customer, rather than *with* the customer.
Relational Perspective Interaction Marketing	Interaction marketing activities involve face-to-face interactions within relationships. Marketing occurs at the individual level based on social processes and personal interactions. Relationships are established between individuals, and can occur in both a formal and informal manner, with the parties being mutually active and adaptive. At a managerial level, interaction marketing is truly *with* the customer, as both parties in the dyad invest resources to develop a mutually beneficial and interpersonal relationship. Interaction marketing is not the responsibility of a specialist marketer per se (as in database marketing), nor is the practitioner necessarily in the position of seller. Rather, interaction marketing can involve a number of individuals across functions and levels in the firm, and may encompass both buying and selling activities.
Relational Perspective Network Marketing	Network marketing activities occur across organisations, where firms commit resources to develop a position in a network of relationships. This is generally accomplished through business and social transactions over time, as a result of developing and maintaining individual, interaction-based relationships. Thus, network marketing encompasses relationships at both the individual and firm level. Because the relationships are part of a larger net, they can range from close (interpersonal) to distant (impersonal), and have varying levels of dependence and degrees of communication. Co-ordination of parties through network marketing may be conducted by general managers or by *part-time* marketers from all areas in the organisation, or even outside the organisation. Relationships may be with customers, distributors, suppliers, competitors, and so on.

Adapted from Coviello and Brodie (2001).

marketing's interpersonal dialogue *with* customers (Coviello et al. 2001). The distinction is made between transactional and relational marketing by asserting transactional forms of marketing are performed *to* the customer, while relational forms of marketing are performed *with* the customer (Coviello et al. 2001).

A further revision to the original contemporary marketing practices classification scheme (Coviello et al. 2001) includes IT-enabled interactivity, which is referred to as *e-marketing*. E-marketing is defined as "using the internet and other interactive technologies to create and mediate dialogue between the firm and identified customers" (Coviello et al. 2001: 26). In this respect, e-marketing is relational, as it "encompasses one-to-one marketing and allows for mass customization" (Brodie et al. 2008: 87). Several studies have found information technology (IT) to play a variety of roles in marketing practice (Brookes et al. 2004; Coviello et al. 2003; Brady 2003; Brady et al. 2002). The findings from these studies suggest "a cautious approach to the adoption of new ITs with an emphasis on the information technologies that [support and reinforce] current marketing situation/practices, rather than transforming them" (Brodie et al. 2008: 87).

Not all researchers have availed of this fifth form of marketing practice in their empirical studies (e.g. Coviello et al. 2002; Wagner 2005; Walsh et al. 2004). Further, the distinction between e-marketing and database marketing, is somewhat blurred, as they are highly correlated (e.g. Brodie et al. 2008; Lindgreen et al. 2004). Moreover, further investigation is required to determine how practitioners differentiate, if at all, between database and e-marketing (Brodie et al. 2008). For these reasons, e-marketing has not been included within this study, as it does not provide as useful a means of distinguishing between the different forms of contemporary marketing practice.

3.4 Dimensions of Contemporary Marketing Practices

Coviello et al.'s (1997) extensive review of the wider marketing literature reflects an integrated, pluralistic view of marketing practice encompassing traditional and relational perspectives. "Coviello et al. (1997; 2000) argue that any or all of the approaches might be relevant to, or practiced by, an organization at a given time." (Coviello and Brodie 2001: 386). Further, Coviello et al. (1997) recognise, according to exchange and managerial dimensions, there are discernable differences among the marketing approaches. These eight dimensions (see Table 3.2) are derived from the literature (Coviello 1997) and have been refined and operationalised (Coviello and Brodie 2001; Coviello et al. 2000; Brodie et al. 1997). There are four dimensions of exchange: purpose of exchange, nature of communication, type of contact, and duration of exchange (i.e. nature of relationship with customers); and four managerial dimensions: managerial intent, managerial focus, managerial investment, and managerial level (i.e. who performs/is responsible for marketing). Table 3.2 provides a fuller description of each dimension of contemporary marketing practice.

The rationale behind the eight dimensions is to understand and differentiate between the ways marketing is practiced (Brodie et al. 1997). Moreover, it offers a basis from which it is possible to determine whether types of industries, organisations and customers are primarily associated with one or more forms of marketing practice; and whether forms of transactional marketing are being *replaced* by forms of relational marketing (Coviello and Brodie 2001; Brodie et al. 1997).

Table 3.2 Dimensions of Contemporary Marketing Practices

Dimension	Transaction Marketing	Database Marketing	Interaction Marketing	Network Marketing
Primary purpose of exchange	Generate financial return	Acquire customer information	Build individual long-term relationships	Form system-wide relationships
Nature of communication (i.e. pattern, balance, and parties)	Firm to mass market	Firm to a specific segment	Individual employees with their customers	Senior managers with other senior managers
Type of contact	Arms-length, impersonal	Somewhat personalised	Interpersonal	Interpersonal
Duration of exchange (i.e. nature of relationship with customers)	No future personalised contact by the firm	Some future personalised contact by the firm	Ongoing personal contact with an individual	Ongoing personal contact with the system
Managerial intent	Attract customers	Retain customers	Develop co-operative relationships	Co-ordinate system-wide relationships
Managerial focus	Product or brand	Product or brand in a targeted market	Relationships between individuals	Connected relationships between firms in a network
Managerial resource investment	4P activities	Communication technology	Personal relationships	Organisational, system relationships
Managerial level (i.e. who performs/is responsible for marketing)	Functional marketers	Specialist marketers	All employees	Chief executive

Adapted from Coviello and Brodie (2001) and Brodie et al. (1997).

3.5 Validating the Contemporary Marketing Practices Scheme

3.5.1 Empirical Studies of Initial Validation

The first empirical study (Brodie et al. 1997), validating the dimensions of marketing practice, finds:

- Transaction marketing is more likely to be associated with consumer goods
- Interaction marketing is more likely to be associated with industrial goods
- Database and network marketing are more likely to be associated with a more sophisticated use of technology
- Interaction and network marketing are more likely to be associated with high-technology organisations.

However, the study also finds "all four types of marketing are in evidence and practiced by most types of firms, to varying degrees" (Brodie et al. 1997: 401). As the findings do not clearly indicate one type of marketing practice is more common to some sectors than others, Brodie et al. (1997) believe it challenges, to a certain extent, Gronroos' (1990) assertion of a paradigm shift from transactional to relational marketing. That is, forms of transactional and relational marketing co-exist within organisations.

The second empirical study in relation to the validation of the dimensions (Coviello and Brodie 1998: 184) found similar results where "many firms appeared to manage a variety of approaches to customer relationships and, therefore, practiced both transactional and relational marketing." Although there is support for relationship marketing, in principle (Gronroos 1990), the findings "also support the body of literature which questions the appropriateness of relationship marketing (Blois, 1996; Low, 1996); ... [as] under certain conditions in industrial markets, short-term opportunistic behaviour is not only accepted, but also encouraged" (Coviello and Brodie 1998: 184).

3.5.2 Small Firms and Contemporary Marketing Practices

Coviello et al. (2000) reassert the importance of understanding organisations' transition from one type of marketing to another, and/or the simultaneous implementation of multiple types of marketing practice. In a study examining the marketing practice amongst small firms they note, "most firms will experience the pressure to develop the capacity to practice all four types of marketing within their organization" (Coviello et al. 2000: 542). Therefore, suggesting marketing practices among small firms is not as different from those among larger firms, as is often asserted in the literature (Coviello et al. 2000).

3.5.3 Examining the Consumer/Business-to-Business Divide

In testing the dimensions further, Coviello and Brodie (2001: 389) contend "there is a lack of consistent empirical support for the consumer/ business-to-business dichotomy, and a dearth of investigations focused on marketing practices in the dichotomous context." Hence, they question the dominant view of whether marketing is *truly different* in consumer and business-to-business organisations. These notions, considered in the context of the contemporary marketing practices classification scheme, led them to investigate whether: "firms serving business markets are more likely to practice interaction marketing and network marketing; ... [and] whether firms serving consumer markets are more likely to practice transaction marketing and database marketing" (Coviello and Brodie 2001: 389-390).

At an aggregate level, they find the marketing practices of firms serving consumer markets are different from those serving business markets. In particular, they find consumer organisations "practice significantly higher levels of *certain* aspects of transaction [and database] marketing" while business-to-business organisations are more likely "to practice significantly higher levels of *certain* aspects of interaction [and network] marketing" (Coviello and Brodie 2001: 392). Hence, their findings

broadly suggest business-to-business organisations "are more relational than their consumer counterparts in some of their marketing practices" (Coviello and Brodie 2001: 394). However, as only certain aspects of the forms of marketing practice are associated with consumer and business-to-business organisations, Coviello and Brodie (2001) conclude their hypotheses are only partially supported. They are cognisant, that:

> At one level, the dichotomy argument seems to be supported given the comparison across individual items provides evidence that consumer firms are more likely to practice transaction marketing and database marketing, and B2B firms are more likely to emphasize interaction marketing and network marketing. However, additional analysis shows there are more similarities than differences across the 31 individual variables in this investigation. Therefore, a clear dichotomous pattern fails to emerge, and the general patterns show that contemporary practices of both types of firms reflect aspects of all four marketing approaches (Coviello and Brodie 2001: 395).

Coviello and Brodie (2001) further conclude their findings are inconsistent with the dominant literature, which argues for a consumer/business-to-business divide. They contend, regardless of the type of market served, transactional and relational paradigms are relevant. Therefore, "although some differences do emerge across contexts, it is unreasonable to argue that marketing practices are fundamentally different across consumer and B2B firms" (Coviello and Brodie 2001: 395). Moreover, they assert a comprehensive understanding of contemporary marketing practices requires a full spectrum of marketing approaches, encompassing the transactional and relational paradigms.

3.5.4 Transactional/Relational Divide in Different Contexts

Progressing with the validation of their framework, Coviello et al. (2002: 33) "examined 308 firms in the United States and four other Western countries to understand how different types of firms relate to their markets." Again, they investigated how different types of firms relate to

their markets in terms of their contemporary marketing practices and whether there is an emphasis on either a transactional or relational perspective (Coviello et al. 2002).

In this study they strongly argue for a pluralistic conceptualisation of marketing, such as their contemporary marketing practices framework, which "does not view transactional and relational marketing to be separate paradigms, mutually exclusive paradigms, or opposite ends of a continuum. Rather, it suggests that marketing is characterized by multiple complex processes manifested in four different aspects of marketing practice" (Coviello et al. 2002: 34). In this respect, they choose to examine contemporary marketing practices in different contexts, namely according to the predominant type of product offered (i.e. either goods or services) and the predominant type of customer served (i.e. either consumers or businesses).

Coviello et al. (2002: 36) suggest the simple goods/services distinction has become less relevant in the context of contemporary marketing practice. Primarily because of the deficiency of empirical studies examining the distinction between goods and services. Moreover, only two studies found within the literature "focus directly on the topic of interest in the current research: how firms relate to their markets (George and Barksdale 1974; Hooley and Cowell 1985), and only George and Barksdale (1974) show clear differences in marketing practice. In contrast, Hooley and Cowell (1985) provide some support for the notion that the goods/services boundary is blurred" (Coviello et al. 2002: 36).

Similarly, the arguments regarding the division between consumer/business marketing is also less relevant in a contemporary context. Again, a lack of comparative studies within the literature suggests the distinction between consumer and business marketing is perhaps unjustified. "Only Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry (1985) and

Andrus and Norvell (1999) directly consider how firms relate to their markets in terms of their various strategies/approaches, and an analysis of these findings suggests that marketing practices are more similar than different" (Coviello et al. 2002: 36). Moreover, Coviello et al. (2002) did not uncover any studies that offer a comparison across consumer goods, consumer services, business goods, and business services firms.

The findings from Coviello et al.'s (2002) study indicate consumer organisations, goods organisations, as well as consumer goods organisations are more likely to avail of transactional marketing. Organisations serving consumer markets are more likely to avail of database marketing. Thus, at a general level, "these findings appear to support the early theoretical arguments that business-to-business and service marketing are different from consumer and goods marketing" (Coviello et al. 2002: 42). However, there are no significant associations with respect to interactive and network marketing, which suggests marketing practice does not vary according to the type of product and customer served (Coviello et al. 2002).

With respect to whether there is an emphasis on either a transactional or relational perspective, their findings do not provide clear evidence. (Coviello et al. 2002). That is, "relational aspects of marketing are implemented by all types of firms, a transactional approach is still very much in evidence, even for non-consumer goods firms" Coviello et al. 2002: 42).

3.5.5 Performance and Contemporary Marketing Practices

It is only recently that two studies have, as a focus of the investigations, the association between forms of contemporary marketing practices and performance (Brodie et al. 2008). The first, Coviello et al.'s (2006) study on small service organisations, within the Canadian tourism accommodation sector (i.e. Canadian provinces of British Columbia,

Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba), test the associations between specific marketing practices and firm performance, as well as the links between the various performance measures. The study finds transactional and interactive marketing are associated with customer acquisition and sales growth (Coviello et al. 2006). As well, success with customer acquisition, rather than customer retention, leads to profitability for firms (Brodie et al. 2008). Finally, as may be expected profitability is strongly influenced by sales growth (Coviello et al. 2006).

The second study examining marketing practice and performance (Brodie et al. 2007) encompass a broad section of industries drawn from executive MBAs studying in the US (i.e. collected in 2002) and middle managers within US firms (i.e. collected in 2005). This study finds e-marketing (i.e. located between database and interactive marketing on the scheme of contemporary marketing practices), "to be positively associated with improved acquisition performance, which in turn, influences retention performance. Additional results also suggest that the implementation of e-marketing increases the effectiveness and efficiency of [database marketing] and [network marketing] practices" (Brodie et al. 2008: 87-88).

Examining the relationship between marketing practice and performance measures is constructive in the inquiry of organisations' strategic behaviour. The investigations in relation to the association between marketing practice and performance are relatively new, and, as noted by Brodie et al. (2008: 88), "further work linking practices with performance is required."

3.6 Contribution of the Contemporary Marketing Practices Scheme

Since the 1980s greater emphasis has been placed on marketing processes and relationships, which is commonly referred to as *relationship marketing* (Brodie et al. 2008). The overriding aim of the contemporary

marketing practices scheme is to synthesise the traditional perspectives with the modern perspectives of marketing (Brodie et al. 2008).

Coviello et al. (1997) acknowledge the arguments for a paradigm shift from transactional to relational marketing are persuasive. However, the evidence shows practitioners simultaneously avail of several forms of marketing practice, encompassing transactional and relational perspectives (Coviello et al. 2006; Coviello et al. 2003; Coviello et al. 2002; Coviello and Brodie 2001; Coviello et al. 2000; Coviello et al. 1997). Hence, it is irrelevant to practitioners as to what is the *correct* theoretical paradigm, which has been the debate among academics, as long as the marketing practices used are effective in achieving organisational goals.

This apparent gap between theory and practice has led Coviello et al. (1997) to question the academic dichotomy between the transactional and the relational marketing paradigms. Their aim is to examine marketing practices in various organisational, economic and cultural contexts, as well as to balance theoretical arguments with evidence from managerial practice (Dadzie et al. 2008; Saren and Pels 2008; Coviello et al. 2006; Wagner 2005; Coviello et al. 2002).

A unique aspect of the contemporary marketing practices scheme is that it does not view alternative aspects of marketing as mutually exclusive (Coviello and Brodie 2001). Further, distinct boundaries are not drawn between each aspect of marketing. Consequently, the contemporary marketing practices classification scheme is meant to broaden the perspective of marketing by identifying, recognising and categorising the full range of relevant phenomena (Brodie et al. 2008).

While the empirical studies provide partial support for organisations offering goods and serving consumers being transactional, and organisations offering services and serving business customers being

relational, there are exceptions (Coviello et al. 2006; Coviello et al. 2003; Coviello et al. 2002; Coviello and Brodie 2001; Coviello et al. 2000; Coviello et al. 1997). Moreover, transactional and relational practices co-exist within most organisations (Brodie et al. 2008).

As an understanding of marketing practice evolves, so should the classification scheme evolve. Following from the *marketing management versus the relationship marketing* debate, there is some speculation as to what may be the next challenge to address within the contemporary marketing practices classification scheme (Brodie et al. 2008). "The recent international discussion surrounding what Vargo and Lusch (2004) refer to as the Service Dominant Logic (SDL) has started to provide this challenge. ... [Primarily by suggesting] an alternative multiple logic may be a more appropriate way to interpret the changes that are taking place in marketing practice" (Brodie et al. 2008: 90).

Regardless of the next topic of investigation, the principle guiding the development of the scheme is to embrace plural, hybrid and even paradoxical perspectives. This philosophy, which engages in a multi-theoretical and multi-method approach, is a means towards synthesis (O'Driscoll 2008). Indeed, reconciling apparent contradictions is central to the contemporary marketing practices classification scheme (O'Driscoll 2008; Saren and Pels 2008).

3.7 Summary

Exactly what the marketing landscape will be into the future no one can precisely predict. Indeed, an organisation's strategy for success today, may be its undoing tomorrow. Nevertheless, marketing operates in a dynamic environment and change is the one thing that marketers can expect.

It has been the objective of Coviello et al. (1997) to capture the evolving nature of contemporary marketing practices, documenting marketing's efforts towards renewal (Brodie et al. 2008; Gronroos 2007). Coviello et

al. (2002) argue for a pluralistic conceptualisation of marketing; they contend transactional and relational marketing are not separate, mutually exclusive paradigms, nor are they the apposing ends of a continuum. They contend, regardless of the type of market served, transactional and relational paradigms are relevant. Moreover, they argue organisations may choose to avail simultaneously of multiple forms of marketing practice (Coviello et al. 1997; 2000).

The value of the contemporary marketing practices scheme is its ability to distinguish between different types of marketing practice (i.e. transaction, database, interaction and network). The scheme "has provided a rich basis of knowledge on which to construct theoretical frameworks that acknowledge the complexity and multidimensional nature of [contemporary marketing practices], ... offering both [a] broad understanding based on multiple contexts, and richer embedded understandings based on particular contexts" (Little et al. 2008: 132).

The framework of contemporary marketing practices has evolved by questioning conventional wisdom, which is healthy and necessary for the discipline. Similarly, the framework itself requires continual "review and redevelopment in order to remain contemporary, ... [primarily by paying] attention to the underlying theories in marketing, strategic management and organisational theory that underpin contemporary practices (Brodie et al. 2008: 91).

The following chapters, *4.0 Methodology* and *5.0 Findings*, outline the research design, the data analysis, as well as the central findings arising from the research.

CHAPTER 4.0 METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The research model, hypotheses, and design are presented in this chapter. As part of the research design, the advantages and limitations of online surveys is examined, as well as lessons drawn from the pilot survey, which contributed substantially in developing the online survey ultimately employed.

4.2 Research Model and Hypotheses

The research aims are to examine Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes, Coviello et al.'s (1997) classification of contemporary marketing practices, each scheme's relationship with organisational performance, and whether there is a relationship between strategic archetype and marketing practice. The literature reviewed in the proceeding chapters, *2.0 Strategic Archetypes and Diversity* and *3.0 Contemporary Marketing Practices*, informed the research hypotheses. Hence, the model (see Figure 4.1) developed for this research is drawn from the literature and sets out to test the following seven hypotheses:

H1: Configurations of strategy-structure may be observed and broadly conform to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes of prospector, analyser, defender and reactor.

H2: 'Good' strategy-structure fit, which emerges through the configuration, leads to superior organisational performance of prospectors, analysers and defenders over reactors.

H3: Marketing practices may be observed and broadly conform to Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices scheme of transaction, database, interactive and network marketing.

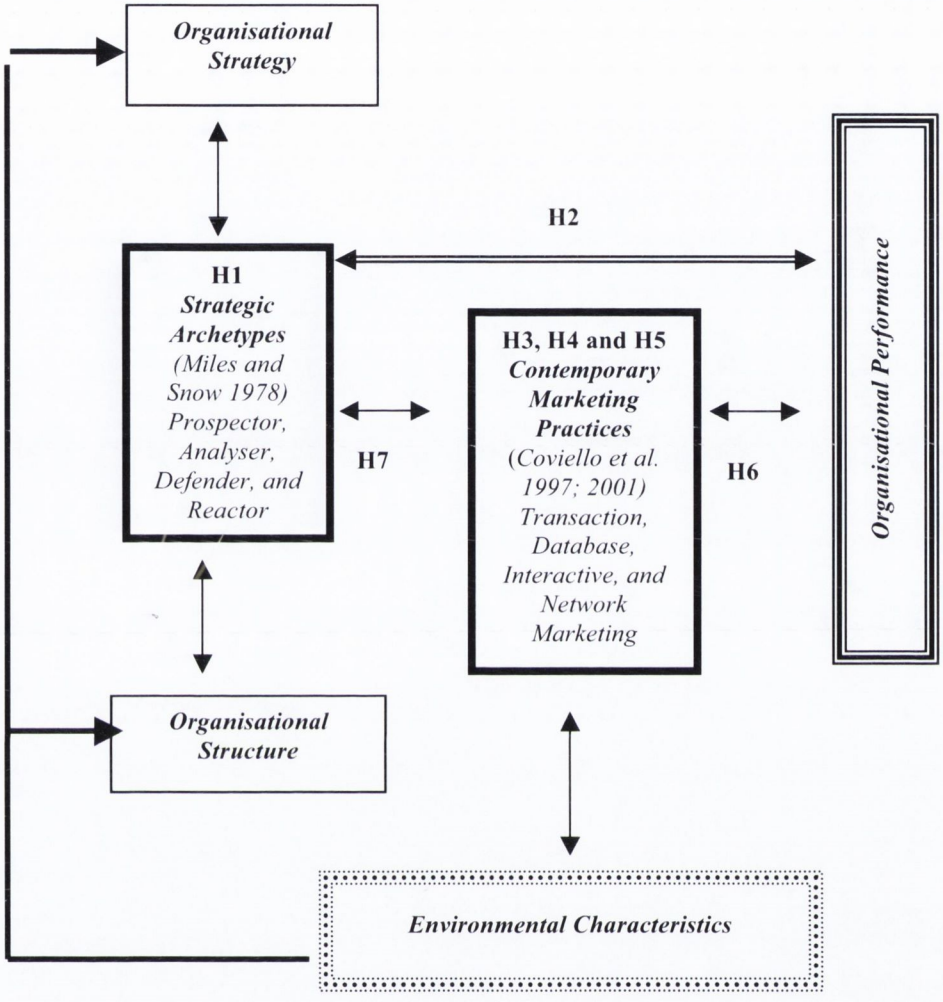
H4: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices, namely interactive and network marketing, are primarily associated with services; while transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing, are primarily associated with goods.

H5: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices, namely interactive and network marketing, are primarily associated with business customers; while transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing, are primarily associated with consumers.

H6: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices, namely interactive and network marketing, are associated with higher organisational performance than transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing.

H7: Coviello et al.'s (1997) forms of contemporary marketing practices vary with regard to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes.

Figure 4.1 Strategic Archetypes and Marketing Practices Model



As this research examines marketing practice, as well as strategic archetype, it is reasonable for marketing practitioners in Ireland to be the target population from which inferences about the diversity of marketing practice and strategic archetypes may be made. There are only two associations representing marketing and sales professionals within Ireland, namely, the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute. An added advantage is that their members work in all types of organisations and across all product-market sectors. Access to such a population affords a unique opportunity, as many of the studies pertaining to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes and Coviello et al.'s (1997)

contemporary marketing practices, avail of more narrow product-market categories (e.g. banks, hospitals, tourism organisations, publishing, electronics, food processing, retailers etc.). Those studies involving broader product-market categories typically avail of convenience samples comprising of members from an (executive) Masters in Business Administration (MBA) programme. It was decided to test the research hypotheses by developing an online survey distributed to members within these associations. Hence, consideration is given to the advantages and limitations of using this survey mode.

4.3 Online Surveys

As the internet has achieved mainstream acceptance, it is unsurprising academics and practitioners from a variety of disciplines, such as marketing, information systems, management and economics, are increasingly employing this alternative mode of data collection (Ray and Tabor 2003). Online or electronic surveys have rapidly become a preferred survey method due to their potential for acquiring more accurate data and generating faster data collection at reduced costs (Klassen and Jacobs 2001). Online surveys address some of the disadvantages associated with postal surveys, such as slow response and manual transcription of data from a hard copy questionnaire to an appropriate statistical analysis tool. Some suggest (e.g. Supovitz 1999; Couper 2005; Couper 2000b; Illieva et al. 2002) online surveys are the natural technological evolution of paper-based surveys (see Figure 4.2). However, "no single method can be judged superior to the others in the abstract. Instead each should be evaluated in terms of a specific study topic and population, as well as budget, staff, and time constraints" (Salant and Dillman 1994: 35).

Table 4.1 Technological Evolution of Survey Methods

Standard Data Collection	*Evolving Media of Data Collection*
Postal	Online Surveys: Web-Based, Email, and Integration of Web-Based and Email Surveys
Telephone	Computer-Assisted Telephone Interviews (CATI)
Personal Interview	Computer-Assisted Personal Interviews (CAPI)

Adapted from Illieva et al. (2002).

The growth in online data collection methods is largely attributed to the growing number of internet and email users, which in many countries emulate the general population. The swift market penetration of the internet is impressive; within four years of its introduction 50 million people were using it. In comparison to other media, "it took radio almost 30 years to achieve to achieve this level of saturation and television almost 13 years" (Cook et al. 2000: 822). Moreover, "most individuals believe that [online] surveys meet the information era and electronic commerce needs; therefore, users accept the web as a survey tool" (Huang and Liaw 2005: 741).

As new methods of self-administering surveys are gaining rapid acceptance, a number of researchers (e.g. Schaefer and Dillman 1998; Stanton 1998; Schuldt and Totten 1994; Sheehan and Macmillan 1999) have investigated how online surveys compare and contrast with postal surveys. The main characteristic online and postal surveys share is their common methodology of self-administration. Online "survey designers can consult the self-administered survey design literature, [as] many [of the] guidelines established in this literature for paper surveys are relevant" for online surveys (Dillman and Smyth 2007: S95). However, some concerns arise in the context of self-administered online surveys. Although it can be assumed most people will have had some prior experience with paper-based surveys, in the case of online surveys, depending on the population being studied, such an assumption may be unwise (Dillman 2007). On a practical basis, substantial differences can

exist in computers and software that may affect access to online surveys. Additional concerns may relate to the security, privacy and confidentiality associated with electronic technologies used in distributing surveys and collecting survey data (Cho and LaRose 1999).

4.3.1 Web Surveys

The terms online or electronic surveys encompass web and email surveys, which involve computer-to-computer communication over the internet, and is commonly referred to as computer-mediated communication (CMC). Web-based surveys are where all visitors to designated websites have an equal chance to complete the survey. Using this form of a web survey means a researcher's control over respondents is more limited than an email survey, primarily because inviting list subscribers or casual browsers to respond to a survey does not reflect a probability sample and results in a self-selection bias. Such a non-probability design is not recommended if it is desirable to make inferences about a population, as sampling errors may be present and confidence intervals may be low (Couper 2000a).

4.3.2 Email Surveys

Email surveys are an invitation to specific individuals to participate in the survey. There are three possible variations of email surveys: inserting questions in the email message, attaching a formatted document to the email, and referencing a web address (i.e. a URL-embedded hypertext link) in the email, which respondents click to be directed to a web page where the survey may be completed (Simsek and Veiga 2001; Klassen and Jacobs 2001).

Increasingly, researchers are using this third variation of email surveys, as it combines the advantages of email and web technologies (Simsek and Veiga 2001) and which is referred to as an *integrated all electronic survey technique* (Bonemetti and Tang 2006). That is, a short email is

sent to potential respondents with an embedded hyperlink to the survey website, which makes access to the survey fast and easy, thereby motivating respondents to participate (Bonemetti and Tang 2006). This research study avails of an integrated all electronic survey technique for both the pilot and the final online survey.

Similar to paper-based surveys, online surveys may be completed and submitted at the respondent's convenience and it offers considerable control and consistency in presentation. For example, radio buttons can be employed to prevent multiple answers when only one is called for (Andrews et al. 2003). Indeed, there is an array of "textual options, format control and graphics sophistication … [such as] links, clicks, defaults and menus," which can be employed to facilitate response (Andrews et al. 2003: 189). Additionally, there is zero error attributed to coding and re-entry of responses, as the posting of responses is fully automated to a database, which is virtually instantaneous and efficient (Bonemetti and Tang 2006). Hence, a "researcher has continuous insight as survey results are accumulated, [which] facilitates *mid-course* corrections in [the] survey instrument if necessary" (Bonemetti and Tang 2006: 99).

4.4 Advantages of Online Surveys

For economic and methodological reasons, online surveys are appealing, namely for their lower costs, speed of data collection, ease of data management, wider geographic reach, and media richness (Deutskens et al. 2006a; Simsek and Veiga 2001; Couper et al. 2001; Simsek and Veiga 2000; Cook et al. 2000). From the perspective of cost, online surveys are shifting the "economics of conducting surveys" (Simsek and Veiga 2001: 220). Online surveys eliminate the costs for postage, printing and/or personnel to conduct interviews (Al Omiri 2007; Schaefer and Dillman 1998). Despite expenses incurred for assembling and obtaining sampling frames, purchasing software and accessing the internet, the marginal cost of online surveys is significantly lower than postal or telephone surveys

(Deutskens et al. 2006a; Simsek and Veiga 2001). Braunsberger et al. (2007: 764) found the cost of online surveys "amounted to only 29% of the cost of each telephone survey ... [and] was completed, on average, in about 21% of the time it took to complete each telephone survey."

From a methodological perspective online "surveys offer the possibility of very rapid surveying ...[a] survey can be sent as easily to a thousand people as it can to one, and all potential respondents can immediately receive the questionnaire regardless of their location" (Simsek and Veiga 2001: 220).

From the perspective of media richness, well-designed online surveys are attractive, as they are believed to offer greater usability over postal surveys. For example, through automatic routing, online surveys offer fewer and less complicated directions (Illieva et al. 2002; Schuldt and Totten 1994). As well, "online surveys are capable of including dichotomous questions, multiple-choice questions, scales, questions in a multimedia format, both single-response and multiple-response questions, and even open-ended questions" (Evans and Mathur 2005: 199). Of critical importance to researchers and participants alike, is that online surveys afford the opportunity for participants to experience richer and more engaging question formats, thus making participants' interaction with the online survey more productive (Klassen and Jacobs 2001; Simsek and Veiga 2001).

While methods of survey research may be changing swiftly, the underlying criteria by which surveys are evaluated remain the same (Couper 2000a). Moreover, a great deal of the research on postal surveys is applicable to online methods (Illieva et al. 2002). To enhance response rates, online surveys should follow response facilitation approaches (see Table 4.2). In addition to response rate, other relevant issues are financial resource implications, data quality, and privacy.

4.4.1 Response Rate

Response rate is one criterion by which the quality of a survey is assessed; it is often viewed that a high response rate reduces non-response bias (Hox and de Leeuw 1994). Although a high response rate *alone* does not always guarantee *good* data, as "research results can be biased if the non-response is non-random, and if it is in some way correlated with the variables measured in the survey" (Krosnick 1999: 330).

Response rates for online survey methods vary; although, it is generally believed email surveys offer significantly higher response rates to that of web surveys. Some believe the response rates for online methods are generally lower than in other media, particularly postal surveys (e.g. Andrews et al. 2003; Klassen and Jacobs 2001; Couper et al. 1999; Schuldt and Totten 1999; Jones 1999). Yet, there is not unanimous agreement on this point. Some researchers (e.g. Schaefer and Dillman 1998) find there is little difference in response rates in either postal or online surveys, while others find the response rates for online surveys to be higher than postal surveys (e.g. Baruch and Holtam 2008; Kiernan et al. 2005; Wygant and Lindorf 1999). This higher response rate is attributed to online survey participants facing fewer barriers than postal survey participants. That is, online surveys "require less effort because participants can simply click on a web address in an email to locate the [online] survey and, after completing it, merely click to send it" (Kiernan et al. 2005: 250). Moreover, online surveys afford more stimuli to respond, as "routine access to email after office hours from a laptop or home computer can create opportunities to respond" (Kiernan et al. 2005: 250).

Nevertheless, Rogelberg and Stanton (2007: 198) note "neither the use of web-based survey techniques nor other emerging data collection technologies (e.g., surveys on handheld devices) has proved a panacea for

increasing response rates (Cook et al. 2000)". Through their review of the literature Rogelberg and Stanton (2007) have compiled a list of well-known response facilitation techniques (see Table 4.2). They recognise "even researchers who have the time and resources to follow all of these recommendations will rarely achieve 100% response" (Rogelberg and Stanton 2007: 196). Also outlined in Table 4.2 is how the final online survey distributed to Marketing Society and Marketing Institute Members complied with Rogelberg and Stanton's (2007) recommendations for response facilitation.

Part of Rogelberg and Stanton's (2007: 205) motivation in compiling the facilitation techniques is to protect survey respondents and encourage researchers to treat them "as a finite and depletable resource; a resource that needs to be respected, protected, and nurtured." In this regard, Rogelberg and Stanton (2007) believe researchers have certain social responsibilities toward research participants, such as not subjecting them with extensive reminders or invitations to participate, and by providing a summary of research results.

Table 4.2 Response Facilitation Approaches

Facilitation Technique	Summary	Survey Implementation
Pre-notify participants	Prepare potential participants for the survey process by personally notifying them that they will be receiving a survey in the near future.	Marketing Society's Chairman emails members to inform them of the survey and its purpose. Marketing Institute's Communications Manager places notification and description of the survey in the monthly ezine.
Publicise the survey	Actively publicise the survey to respondents. Inform survey respondents about the purpose of the survey and how survey results will be used.	Respondents are informed the 10 to 15 minute online survey is examining marketing practice within organisations and the data collected is toward the completion of a PhD thesis.
Design carefully	Consider the physical design of your survey: Is it pleasing to the eye? Easy to read? Uncluttered? Are questions evenly spaced?	Pilot provides feedback on survey implementation and design. Final survey's questions are drawn from the literature and every effort is made to ensure the survey is *lean*.
Provide incentives	Where appropriate, provide upfront incentives to respondents.	Respondents are offered a summary of the findings. Any other kind of incentive is considered inappropriate.
Manage survey length	Use a theory-driven approach to survey design, which will help determine critical areas that should be addressed within the survey instrument as opposed to including too much content.	Survey is strictly designed around Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes, Coviello et al.'s (1997; 2001) classification of marketing practice, as well as measures of performance and relative performance. The pilot indicated survey draft is too lengthy. In the final survey; a length of 10 to 15 minutes is acceptable.
Use reminder notes	Send reminder notes to potential respondents beginning 3 to 7 days after survey distribution.	Reminder notifications are emailed 10 days subsequent to the first email invitation. Second and final reminder is sent 20 to 25 days subsequent to the first email invitation.
Provide response opportunities	Ensure that everyone is given the opportunity to participate in the survey process (e.g. have survey run for sufficient time so that holiday time does not impede response).	Survey is run for a 7-week period to ensure respondents have sufficient time for completion (i.e. holiday time does not impede response).
Monitor survey response	Monitor response rates so survey coordinators can identify areas with low response rates.	SPSS provides bi-weekly updates on response rates.
Establish survey importance	An understanding of the importance of their opinions and participation will help increase the likelihood of survey completion.	Survey importance established with the associations' management teams and in every contact made with survey respondents (i.e. emails and phone calls).
Foster survey commitment	When applicable, involve a wide range of employees (across many levels) in the survey development process.	Pilot participants are largely involved in the survey development process.
Provide survey feedback	Once the survey data are collected, survey feedback should be provided. Rather than influencing the present survey, this approach influences future survey efforts by positive use of the survey results.	Summary of survey findings provided to respondents who requested it, as well as to the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute.

Adapted from Rogelberg and Stanton (2007).

4.4.1.1 Pre-notification

Pre-notification is believed to be effective in enhancing response rates without adversely affecting data quality (Klofstad et al. 2008; Cook et al. 2000; Dillman 2000; Fox et al. 1988). Pre-notification of a survey ameliorates the intrusion upon respondents' privacy, thereby alleviating the risk of a negative backlash (Klofstad et al. 2008; Ladik et al. 2007; Lang 2002). Moreover, it gives respondents the opportunity to decline from survey participation and to request no further contact. Indeed, Senf (1987: 776) asserts "explicitly allowing the respondents the choice of refusing to participate in the survey would help obtain better cooperation … , the presumption being that offering this option increases trust in the investigator" (Senf 1987: 776).

Similar to postal surveys, online surveys should separate the respondents' consent from the survey form by using a pre-notification email to seek informed consent. Pre-notification provides the opportunity to allay privacy concerns by disclosing the researcher's identity, organisational affiliations, the purpose of the study, as well as protocols for data collection and data retention. Respondents should be able to verify the identity, contact information and credentials of the principal investigator through a link to the researcher's web page, which ideally should be found through an institutional website that respondents are likely to find credible. Such personalisation is important because it enhances respondents' trust as well as the researcher's assurances of confidentiality (Singer et al. 1993; 1995).

In both the pilot and the final survey pre-notification was used. With respect to the final survey, the Chairman of the Marketing Society sent an email to members informing them about the survey and inviting them to participate (see Appendix C). Marketing Society members who did not wish to participate were invited to opt-out to ensure they would receive no further communication (n.b. only two members declined to participate

further). With respect to the Marketing Institute, pre-notifications was organised through the institute's June ezine (i.e. electronic newsletter), which was distributed to members (see Appendix F). Within these pre-notification messages, the purpose of the study was outlined, a statement of confidentiality was attached, and the principal researcher's contact details were provided.

4.4.1.2 Personalisation

Regardless of mode, personalisation may positively influence response rates. Personalising email messages to potential survey participants indicates their importance and improves response rates (Heerwegh et al. 2005). Personalisation also incorporates the importance of finding the right person to approach in requesting participation and avoiding gatekeepers, who may block or delay survey participation, thereby hindering response rates.

In this research, the pilot survey and the final survey were primarily distributed through an association's gatekeeper (e.g. chairman, communications manager, or director). In this respect, personalisation was largely limited to a general salutation identifying the potential respondents' membership (e.g. Dear Marketing Society Member). However, a greater degree of personalisation was possible with members of the Marketing Institute. As discussed later in section 4.9 *Survey Implementation* and in *Chapter 5.0 Findings*, the Marketing Institute withdrew from sending electronic messages to its members after the first invitation. As a contingency, the researcher who is a member of the Marketing Institute, was able to access institute's membership list, which provides members' telephone numbers. Telephone calls were made to the 700 randomly selected Marketing Institute members, from which 380 individuals agreed to give their email address to which an invitation was sent to participate in the survey. In this respect, these email invitations were personalised using the potential respondents' name (see Appendix

G).

4.4.1.3 Topic Salience

In surveying, improving cooperation can be challenging. Among the methods to improve responses is to improve the cost-benefit ratio of cooperation, through the salience of the survey topic (Baruch and Holtom 2008; Sudman 1985). There is a positive relationship between the salience of the survey topic, as perceived by survey participants and survey response behaviour (Martin 1994; Sheehan and McMillan 1999). That is, topic salience has a considerable effect on response rates, whereby highly salient surveys yield considerably higher response rates (Marcus et al. 2007; Deutskens et al. 2004; Trouteaud 2004; Kay and Johnson 1999). Although, it is suggested the offer of feedback may compensate "for the negative effects of low topic salience on response rates" (Marcus et al. 2007: 372).

Regarding topic salience, every effort was made to distribute the pilot and the final survey to those individuals responsible for making or implementing marketing decisions (i.e. marketing practitioners). That is, regardless of their official title (e.g. managing director, head of customer relations, or sales director), if respondents were involved in making or implementing marketing decisions, they are considered to be marketing practitioners.

4.4.1.4 Survey Length

Online surveys are similar to "to interviewer-administered surveys in that the initial decision to participate is based on the relatively limited information conveyed in the [pre-notification] letter" (Crawford et al. 2001: 160). In contrast, postal surveys allow respondents to "peruse the entire questionnaire and make informed judgments about participation based on the content, length, design, and other elements of the instrument" (Crawford et al. 2001: 160).

Crawford et al. (2001) note survey length is one of the factors associated with respondents' perceived burden of survey participation. Han et al. (2003: 1665) confirm "respondents perceived short questionnaires and to-the-point questions as showing them respect, which further increased their motivation to participate." Lang (2005: 9) argues online "surveys must be efficiently designed so as to minimize completion time and effort, ideally taking 15 minutes or less." However, "consideration of the specific research questions, or the necessity to use validated instruments to measure specific constructs often requires longer surveys" than the maximisation of response rates would recommend (Marcus et al. 2007: 381).

Survey length became a particular challenge with respect to the pilot survey (see Appendix A). As discussed later in section *4.7 Pilot Study*, the pilot survey was too long (i.e. 60 questions with an average completion time of 29.5 minutes) and respondent abandonment was too high (i.e. 50%). Thus, in developing the final survey instrument, every effort was made to ensure it was lean. That is, only questions deemed essential to answering the research hypotheses were retained; all other questions were eliminated. In testing the final survey instrument, the average time for completion for the 33 questions was 12.5 minutes, which is a significant improvement over the pilot, which had an average completion time of 29.5 minutes for its 60 questions.

4.4.1.5 Sponsorship

Sponsorship is believed to facilitate cooperation and response rates, as long as potential respondents perceive the sponsoring organisation(s) as trustworthy (Simsek and Veiga 2001; Cho and LaRose 1999). That is, the attributes of the researchers and the authority of the organisation(s) with whom the researchers are working influence response rates (Groves et al. 2004; Simsek and Veiga 2001). Several studies indicate academic

sponsorship is more effective than corporate sponsorship (e.g. Ladik et al. 2007; Greer et al. 2000; Fox et al. 1988). Indeed, Ladik et al. (2007: 269) recommend, "the best results could be obtained when pre-notification is coupled with sponsorships from several universities." However, there is not universal agreement on this point; among three meta-analyses, two indicated university sponsorship is positively associated with higher responses (Bruvold et al. 1990; Fox et al. 1988), while the third found little association (Yammarino et al. 1991).

Logos of affiliation were used in both the pilot and final online survey. Displayed on the opening and closing screens of the final online survey were the logos of the two universities with which the researcher is affiliated (i.e. Trinity College Dublin and National University of Ireland, Galway), along with the logos of the professional Irish marketing associations, which co-sponsored the research (i.e. Marketing Society and Marketing Institute) (see Figure 4.2). All e-mail correspondence was from the university's domain and e-mail signatures provided the researcher's relevant points of contact (i.e. email address, phone number and web page) so respondents could be further assured of the survey's authenticity.

Figure 4.2 University and Association Logos

4.4.1.6 Assurances of Confidentiality

Allied to sponsorship are confidentiality assurances, which are more likely to be believed, if potential respondents perceive the researchers and

their collaborating organisations to be trustworthy (Simsek and Veiga 2001; Singer et al. 1993). Thus, researchers should provide clear statements regarding the purpose of the survey, how respondents were selected, how the survey data will be used and who will have access to the data (Rogelberg and Stanton 2007; Cho and LaRose 1999). Jobber and O'Reilly (1998) assert respondents may perceive universities as *less threatening* and *more trustworthy,* in relation to how the survey data will be managed.

As part of this research, a privacy statement was developed (see Appendix B), which was distributed to all pilot and survey respondents. The main features of this statement were to assure respondents that in obtaining their co-operation, the principal researcher undertakes not to mislead them about the nature of the research, as well as the way data are collected and used. All respondents' answers are treated as confidential, and are used solely for the purposes of academic research; they will not be used in any other context. To enhance anonymity, respondents' personal contact details (e.g. name, email address or telephone number) are not collected as part of the research. Moreover, the survey information is only analysed in aggregate form, so individual responses cannot be traced back to a particular respondent or their firm. Finally, it is reconfirmed that survey participation is voluntary and for that reason most of the survey questions are not obligatory (van Hamersveld and de Bont 2007). The only obligatory survey question was the first question, which was a qualifying question asking respondents whether they are responsible for making or implementing marketing decisions.

4.4.1.7 Reminders

Follow-up reminders are also believed to be effective in enhancing response rates without adversely affecting data quality (Klofstad et al. 2008; Dillman 2000; Fox et al. 1988). The inclusion of follow-up reminders is expected to nearly double the response rate (Cook et al.

2000). "However, response rates may not be appreciably affected by larger numbers of reminder notices, and in fact a slight decrease among those receiving the largest number of reminders has been observed" (Cook et al. 2000: 831). Baruch and Holtam (2008) as well as Shih and Fan (2008) confirm this assertion, as they find the frequent use of reminders in online surveys is associated with lower response rates. This decline in response rates is attributed to individuals being resistant to receiving more than one or two reminders, or perhaps having reached saturation in reading their email messages.

In both the pilot and the final survey, subsequent to pre-notification, an invitation was extended to the potential respondent (see Appendices D and G). Conscious that over solicitation could lower response rate, only one reminder was sent, which was typically sent 10 days after the invitation (see Appendices E and H). No further communication was made to potential respondents.

4.4.1.8 Incentives

Incentives (e.g. prize draws, lotteries, vouchers and nominal monetary sums) are generally superfluous to response rates, as paradoxically, incentives are associated with lower response rates (Baruch and Holtam 2008; Cook et al. 2000). Bosnjak and Tuten (2003: 208) find incentives "have no advantages concerning the willingness to participate, actual completion rates, and the share of incomplete response patterns" when compared with no incentives. Indeed, "promised incentives [show] no advantage over a simple thank-you" (Bosnjak and Tuten 2003: 216). Moreover, in an organisational setting, incentives offered to respondents may breech company policy.

Advising respondents that their participation in the research affords them the opportunity to provide feedback and expertise, which aids academics in producing more relevant research is often sufficient (Bosnjak and

Tuten 2003; Lang 2002). Hence, a summary of the findings offered to respondents is often viewed as a compelling incentive, particularly if respondents are interested in the survey topic (Bosnjak and Tuten 2003; Lang 2002). Other than an offer to provide a summary of the research findings, no incentives were used in this research.

4.4.1.9 Passwords

Passwords have been found to have a negligible affect on response rates. From the perspective of researchers, passwords offer a way to control online surveys by preventing "multiple completions by the same person or other forms of *spamming* or *ballot stuffing,*" as well as identifying non-respondents (Crawford et al. 2001: 148). From the perspective of respondents, passwords are meant to offer greater assurances of confidentiality and security. However, studies indicate their use does not appreciably enhance response rates (Crawford et al. 2001; Cook et al. 2000). In some cases, passwords may increase respondents' perception of burden in relation to survey completion (Crawford et al. 2001; Cartwright et al. 1999). Indeed, researchers find the added complexity of passwords may decrease response rates (Granello and Wheaton 2004; Cartwright et al. 1999). As assurances were given that respondents participating in this survey would have a guarantee of anonymity (i.e. responses could not be matched with identities), passwords were not used in this research.

4.4.2 Speed and Financial Resource Implication

Among the advantages online surveys offer over postal surveys are the relative ease and speed in reaching respondents regardless of their geographical location, swift data collection, and relatively low administration costs because there is no postage and printing. Although online surveys are not free, they are generally more cost efficient on a per participant basis. Studies find the cost of online surveys to be substantially less (e.g. 71% less Braunsberger et al. 2007; 50% less Moutinho and Chien 2008; 38% less Schleyler and Forrest 2000) than the

equivalent survey in other modes (e.g. postal and telephone).

The speed with which online surveys can be completed translates into cost savings and their use may enhance survey completion (Moutinho and Chien 2008; Couper et al. 2001; Schleyler and Forrest 2000). Moreover, online "surveys can be completed at the pace the respondents choose, [but] unlike a mail survey that can be easily mislaid, an electronic contact with a potential respondent remains in place until purposefully deleted" (Cook et al. 2000: 823). Thus, an online survey may achieve broader distribution than a postal or telephone survey and at a substantially lower cost.

4.4.3 Data Quality

Those critical of electronic technologies "have questioned the quality of responses gathered through online surveys and suggested that the completeness and accuracy of the data they provide may not match those of traditional mail surveys" (Deutskens et al. 2006a: 346). However, there are researchers who find no appreciable differences between online and postal methods (Fleming and Bowden 2009; Huang 2006; Denscombe 2006; Epstein et al. 2001; Knapp and Kirk 2003). While, other researchers find online surveys produce fewer mistakes, higher item completion, lengthier responses and more self-disclosing comments to open ended questions (Deutskens et al. 2006a; Kiernan et al. 2005; Hanna et al. 2005; Gunter et al. 2002; Klassen and Jacobs 2001; Schaefer and Dillman 1998; Mavis and Brocato 1998). The response quality of online surveys and their generalisability is comparable to that of postal surveys (Deutskens et al. 2006b; Knapp and Kirk, 2003; Cobanoglu et al. 2001). Thus, "factors that could cause differences, such as computer anxiety, privacy concerns, response processes, or the way people perceive questions onscreen or on paper, are reduced as people become more familiar with the internet" (Deutskens et al. 2006b: 134). Indeed, with respect to this research, respondents reported no difficulty in completing

the online survey.

With web surveys, a major concern regarding the validity of the data collected stems from the sampling frame, which relies on non-probability sampling (e.g. self-selection, and volunteer panels of internet users) and thus may not adequately represent the population sought to participate. Such a limitation can be addressed in email surveys, as the sampling frame is developed in the same manner as postal and telephone surveys. That is, with "knowledge of the sampling frame and the recruitment process, [so as] to permit non-response source measurement" (Andrews et al. 2003: 189).

The membership listings of professional associations may form appropriate sampling frames for online surveys, especially where all or most of the members have access to the internet (Lang 2002). The pilot availed of the membership listings for the Information Technology Association of Galway (ITAG), Kerrysoft (i.e. a software association) and the executive MBA programme at NUI, Galway; all members of these associations have internet access. Similarly, the sampling frame for the final online survey encompasses the membership listings of the professional marketing associations within Ireland, namely the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute, all of whom have internet access.

One way in which online surveys can dramatically enhance data quality is through the elimination of data re-entry. That is, because respondents are interacting directly with a computer the data are automatically captured in the database, and may be accessed almost immediately for analysis (Bonemetti and Tang 2006). Such a process ensures high quality data, as there is zero error attributed to coding and re-entry of responses (Bonemetti and Tang 2006).

In the pilot survey, SurveyMonkey (i.e. commercial online survey tool) was used. Although it was particularly useful in developing the pilot and final survey instruments, SurveyMonkey was not deemed suitable for data analysis, primarily because it was not possible to avail of SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), without considerable manipulation of the data. Such manipulation of the data negated the benefit of direct data entry. For this reason, and to ensure greater data integrity, SPSS Ireland was selected to host the final online survey.

4.4.4 Privacy, Security and Confidentiality

Laws and policies developed in the context of off line research also apply to online investigations. Concerns related to privacy, security and confidentiality are "contingent on the kind of information collected ... , the degree of control users have over disclosure ... , the degree of accessibility ... , [and] the way information is used" (van de Garde-Perik et al. 2008: 20). However, online research can pose special problems with respect to the identification of human subjects, the conceptualisation of privacy, and the need for and means of obtaining informed consent (Jacobson 1999).

As the computer can be viewed as an extension of the self (Turkle 1984), "privacy is a more sensitive issue for [online] surveys than for conventional survey media" (Cho and LaRose 1999: 428). Due to the intimate relationships people have with their computers as well as with the online communities in which they participate, the potential for researchers transgressing privacy boundaries is considerable. In addition, the "flexible nature of personal identity and frequent abuse of privacy norms on the internet mean that the authenticity of online researchers, the purposes of their research, and the credibility of anonymity and confidentiality guarantees they offer always are open to question" (Cho and LaRose 1999: 428). However, it is feasible to address specific privacy concerns associated with online surveys. If researchers skilfully manage

interactional privacy (e.g. the use of encryption methods for secure data transmission, providing telephone numbers for validation and sending the survey through a trusted source), the willingness to disclose information increases (Dillman and Smyth 2007; Andrews et al. 2003).

As previously discussed, in section *4.4.1.6 Assurances of Confidentiality*, the privacy statement (see Appendix B) sent to potential respondents provided assurances by outlining the purpose of the research, the manner in which the data would be used, the confidentiality of data, and the anonymity respondents. As well, sections *4.4.1.1 Pre-notification* and *4.4.1.5 Sponsorship* outline the steps taken to manage respondents' interactional privacy.

Online surveys can provide more anonymity for respondents. "A respondent is anonymous when nobody, including the researcher, can associate a given response with that respondent" (Simsek and Veiga 2001: 225). Data collection through web pages is "the most effective means of separating personal email addresses from the data, and it also has the side benefit of automating the data entry process" (Cho and LaRose 1999: 429). Directing respondents to a web page means no identifying information is sent to the researcher unless respondents include it. From the researchers' point of view, as long as a sufficient amount of demographic and firm-related information is collected from respondents, it is not necessary to know neither the name of the respondent, nor the organisation in which they work (Eaton and Struthers 2002).

As discussed earlier, in section *4.3.2 Email Surveys,* this research avails of an integrated all electronic survey technique, where a short email is sent to potential respondents with an embedded hyperlink to the survey website. Thus, respondents' personal email addresses were separated from the data and no other forms of personal data, which could identify

respondents, were included in the survey instrument.

4.5 Limitations to Online Surveys

Reciprocity plays an important role in people's willingness to respond to surveys, and as the general level of co-operation appears to be declining, investigations into the motivations behind survey response become more pressing (Dillman et al. 1996). Despite efforts to improve response rates, an overall decline in survey response rates has been observed over the last few decades (Klassen and Jacobs 2001; Colombo 2000; Baruch 1999). Although, it is increasingly asserted that reducing refusals is one strategy, which may be employed to combat declining response rates (Kropf and Blair 2005). Another limitation to online surveys is the inability to control the environment in which participants complete the surveys.

4.5.1 Declining Response Rates

Declining response rates is a challenge for *all* field methods; evidence indicates response rates have been falling since the 1950s (Cook et al. 2000). "For example, Baruch (1999) [reports] that in 1975, the typical survey response rate for studies in the top organizational research journals ... was 64.4%. In 1995, however, the typical survey response rate reported in these same journals dropped to approximately 50%" (Rogelberg and Stanton 2007: 197). Cycyota and Harrison's (2006) meta-analytic review of 231 studies published in top management journals between 1992 and 2003, also confirms that overall response rates are declining over time. Over that 12 year period, Cycyota and Harrison (2006: 145) find the median response rate for executive populations is 32% with a mean of 34%; they assert if they "were to linearly project future-year response rates ... , the average rate for 2010 would decrease to 27% and be 4% by 2050." In self-administered questionnaires, where a 25 to 30% response rate is considered *good*, lower response rates are expected in the future. An "examination of response rates in recent business surveys reveals rates as low as 10 to 20% for [self-administered]

postal surveys" (Saunders et al. 2007: 215).

This decline in response rates is partly attributed to survey fatigue (Baruch and Holtam 2008; Rogelberg and Stanton 2007; Weiner and Dalessio 2006; Gofton 1999), which some believe is due the increasing number of surveys sent to practitioners and circulating through organisations. "The result is a large number of target individuals or firms who are fatigued, and therefore, refuse to respond to non-essential questionnaires" (Baruch and Holtam 2008: 1142). In addition to survey fatigue, factors that may contribute to declining response rates are the plethora of survey administration businesses, as well as management's increasing pursuit for data driven decisions (Rogelberg and Stanton 2007; Weiner and Dalessio 2006). Moreover, due to the increasing incidence of SPAM (i.e. unsolicited emails), many potential respondents have difficulty distinguishing between a legitimate survey and a spam message (Evans and Mathur 2005). Thus, even when emails come from a trusted source, some respondents will choose not to click on a link, which will bring them to a website to complete a survey (Evans and Mathur 2005).

Respondents offer numerous reasons for non-response, such as being too busy, the survey is irrelevant, or company policy prohibits the completion of surveys. Although all these reasons are problematic, the last reason relating to "formal policies against responding represents a genuine threat to survey-based organizational research" (Baruch and Holtam 2008: 1142). It is likely such formal policies banning employees from participating in surveys from outside the organisation will escalate.

The relatively low cost of electronic surveys has democratised the survey-taking process, meaning large-scale data collection is no longer restricted to governments and large organisations (Couper 2000a). Consequently, potential respondents are flooded with requests to complete surveys and their motivation to do so, at the expense of their work and personal time,

is eroding response rates. Thus, "well-designed, high-quality [online] surveys may very well be overwhelmed by the mass of other data-gathering activities on the web" (Couper 2000a: 465). "A major challenge for researchers will be to distinguish themselves and their surveys from the plethora of commercial and entertainment surveys that exist and continue to multiply on the web" (Fricker and Shonlau 2002: 365).

4.5.2 Theories of Survey Response Behaviour

The major theories that explain survey response behaviour are outlined in Table 4.3, namely: exchange, cognitive dissonance, self-perception, involvement/commitment and social exchange.

Table 4.3 Major Theories of Survey Response Behaviour

Theory	Description
Exchange	Actions of individuals are motivated by the return or rewards they expect from others. They will respond to surveys only when the benefits out weigh the costs.
Cognitive Dissonance	Failure to respond to a survey creates a state of anxiety and internal disharmony within people, which will only be reduced by answering the survey.
Self-Perception	People respond to surveys to be consistent with their view of themselves as helpful and responsible individuals.
Involvement/ Commitment	People are more likely to respond to surveys if the topic, sponsor or researcher is relevant to them. Their level of involvement will determine their degree of commitment to survey response.
Social Exchange	The knowledge that other people, like themselves, have completed a similar action can strongly influence people's willingness to comply with a survey request.

Adapted from Albaum et al. (1998) and Dillman (2000).

Among the theories most commonly referred to in the literature are exchange and involvement/commitment (Han et al. 2003). Exchange theory refers to the belief that respondents choose to co-operate, if the benefits of completing the survey outweigh the costs. Dillman (2007) asserts critical factors in predicting action are: reward, cost and trust.

Therefore, it is in the interest of survey researchers to "minimize the cost of responding, maximize the rewards for doing so, and establish trust that those rewards will be delivered" (Dillman 1978: 12). Further, through valuing the respondents' opinions, and liberally thanking them for their assistance, respondents develop a feeling of trust in the researchers and their research (Kropf and Blair 2005).

Involvement/commitment theory of survey response behaviour refers to respondents' interest in the topic and/or association with the body sponsoring the research (e.g. university, professional association). The importance of topic salience and sponsorship are discussed in earlier sections (see *4.4.1.3 Topic Salience* and *4.4.1.5 Sponsorship*).

Dillman (2000) proposed another theory, social exchange, to explain respondents' co-operation with surveys. Social exchange refers to the notion that social validation is another important means of reward (Dillman 2000). That is, "knowing that other people like themselves have completed a similar action can strongly influence people's willingness to comply with a request" (Dillman 2000: 17). Supporting respondents' sense of group values as well as showing them their actions are "regarded positively" (Dillman 2000: 15), can enhance survey response (Kropf and Blair 2005).

One strategy to counter declining response rates is to reduce the number of initial refusals, as once a refusal is obtained, it requires substantial effort to convert it to one of co-operation (Kropf and Blair 2005; Stoop 2004). Indeed, Kropf and Blair (2005: 572) find social validation, by "appealing to norms and community interests," may be effective in reducing initial rates of refusal in relation to survey participation. Similarly, Stoop (2004) finds appealing to social validation can be a useful approach in motivating survey participation among *persistent refusers*.

By seeking sponsorship from the two professional marketing associations within Ireland (i.e. Marketing Society and Marketing Institute), this research aimed to leverage social validation, as well as reduce the rates of initial refusal.

4.5.3 Inability to Control Survey Environment

The advantage of allowing respondents to complete surveys at a time and place of their choosing may also be seen as a limitation. Similar to postal surveys, it is not possible to control the setting for noise, time of day, respondent motivation, respondent focus, or lack of focus (i.e. activities respondents may be carrying out concurrently during their participation), as well as the type of computer and internet connection (Cha 2005; Eaton and Struthers 2002). Also, features that can make online surveys exciting to complete, such as the inclusion of graphic, audio and video display can limit who may respond, as these features may require more advanced computer resources and newer software applications (e.g. browsers) (Dillman 2007).

Overall, the pilot and the online survey sought a *clean* interface, as it is believed a simple graphical interface generates higher response rates (Whitcomb and Porter 2004; Lang 2002; Kaye and Johnson 1999). As well, the survey layout aimed to be straightforward, availing of easy-to-read fonts and shallow (i.e. easy) navigation. As part of the piloting process, the survey was submitted from a variety of computers, availing of different browsers (e.g. Firefox, Safari, Netscape, and Internet Explorer) and on different platforms (e.g. AppleMac and Windows).

4.6 Sources of Error for Online Surveys

The aim of probability samples is to describe, through inference, the characteristics of the larger population from which the sample is drawn (Groves et al. 2004). For inferences to be made about the population being studied, sources of error should be minimised. Error used in this

sense "refers to deviations of what is desired in the survey process to what is attained" (Groves et al. 2004: 40). Sources of error that limit the quality and validity of the data collected in self-administered surveys are: sampling, coverage, measurement, and non-response (Dillman 2007).

4.6.1 Sampling Error

Sampling error is one that is "deliberately introduced in to the sample survey statistics. Because of the cost or logistical infeasibility, not all persons in the sampling frame are measured. Instead, a sample of persons is selected" (Groves et al. 2004: 57). Thus, "sampling error is the difference between information obtained from a sample and the *true* measure that theoretically would be obtained from a census of the target population" (Collier and Bienstock 2007: 164).

Although it cannot be eliminated entirely, sampling error can be reduced by having a sufficiently large sample (Collier and Bienstock 2007). Typically, sampling errors arise because the randomly selected sample is too small to be representative of the population with any significant degree of confidence (Dillman 2007). Sampling errors also arise in online surveys with a non-probability based design (Couper 2000a). For example, when visitors to a website are invited to participate; even if there are a large number of respondents, these respondents' representation of the population studied is likely to be flawed.

As discussed in section *4.4.3 Data Quality*, knowledge of the sampling frame and the recruitment process are important for non-response source measurement (Andrews et al. 2003). The sampling frame for the final survey encompasses the membership listings of the professional marketing associations within Ireland, namely the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute. These are the only two associations representing marketing and sales professionals within Ireland.

The associations agreed to facilitate the online survey, provided respondent anonymity was guaranteed. That is, no data were to be collected which would allow responses to be traced to an individual and/or their firm. Further, due to data protection issues, the associations would neither supply membership lists from which a random sample could be drawn, nor were they amenable to selecting members at random to invite survey participation, as such a process would incur an administrative burden on their communications managers. Hence, another avenue was sought so as to measure non-response. The associations did agree to supply a list of their members' organisations, *without any other identifying details*, solely for the purpose of forming a comparison with survey respondents. Consequently, the association members were classified according to the primary market their organisation served (i.e. consumer packaged goods, consumer durable goods, consumer services, business to business supply goods, business to business durable goods, and business to business).

Ultimately, as discussed in section *5.4 Electronic Survey Data Collection*, a random sample of Marketing Institute members was selected. After the pre-notification message, the Marketing Institute withdrew from sending subsequent invitations to their members. Fortunately, the researcher is a member of the Marketing Institute and had access the institute's membership list. (*n.b.* The Marketing Institute allowed the researcher to use the membership list to randomly select 700 individuals.) Although the membership list does not provide members' contact email addresses, it does provide their contact telephone numbers. Telephone calls were made to these 700 randomly selected individuals, from which 380 agreed to give their email address so a survey invitation may be sent.

As confirmation that the survey sample is representative, the comparison of product-market categories between association members and survey respondents shows the distribution to be highly similar (see Table 5.3). Consequently, the survey respondents are considered to be representative

of the population of marketing practitioners within Ireland.

4.6.2 Coverage Error

The target population is the set of persons who are the subject of study or from which inferences are to be made (Groves 2004), whereas the frame population is defined by the devices that demarcate, identify, and allow access to individuals within the target population (Wright and Tsao 1983). Coverage error occurs when the sampling frame does not contain all the subjects in the population of interest (Collier and Bienstock 2007). With online surveys, coverage error refers to people missing from the frame because they do not have internet access; sampling error arises while selecting a sample from the frame population because not all members of the frame population are measured. Moreover, it is not just a question of what proportion of the population can be reached online, but also how different those who are covered by the technology are from those who are not.

Coverage error, which is a mismatch between the target population and the frame population, had been among the most formidable challenges in designing online surveys (Bandilla et al. 2003; Couper 2000a). In the recent past, it proved challenging for researchers with online surveys to reach potential participants who did not have access to the internet; which in turn presented a significant barrier to probability-based surveys. However, as internet use increasingly permeates businesses and consumers, is it is becoming less likely for coverage error to occur due to respondents' lack of access to technology. As of 2006, 94% of Irish firms use the internet, 93% use email, and 64% have a company website (CSO 2006).[1] Although, it may not be feasible to rely exclusively on online

[1] For the general population, internet usage has a penetration rate of 50.1% within Ireland (Internet World Stats 2008). This figure is similar to the European wide penetration rate of 48.1% (Internet World Stats 2008). Among Irish consumers, 50% have internet access in their home and 44% use the internet at least once a week (Burns 2006). Note that only 13% of Irish consumers have internet access through a broadband connection (Burns 2006). Men have a slightly higher weekly internet use at 45%, compared to women at 42% (Burns 2006). Younger age groups of 16

surveys for data collection among the *general population* (McCabe et al. 2006a; McCabe et al. 2006b; Bandilla et al. 2003), it is eminently feasible to conduct online surveys among populations with near universal web access, such as Irish organisations (McCabe et al. 2006a; McCabe et al. 2006b; Couper 2000a).

In this research, the frame population encompasses all the marketing practitioners, who are members of the Marketing Society and Marketing Institute of Ireland, who have email addresses, and consequently may be contacted to participate in an online survey. *Hypothetically*, a coverage error would occur, *if* a high proportion of Marketing Society and Marketing Institute members did not have an email address through which they could be contacted to participate in an online survey. Such a coverage error would result in a sampling error because during the process of selecting a sample not all members of the frame population are measured. That is, it may be the case that those members who have email addresses and access to the internet are significantly different than those who do not. Fortunately, coverage error is *not* an issue in this research, as all members of these associations have email addresses.

4.6.3 Measurement Error

"Measurement error is the difference between the information desired by the researcher and the information provided through the measurement instrument" (Collier and Bienstock 2007: 164). Particularly in self-administered surveys, measurement error often arises due to poor wording of questions or questionnaire design. Thus, a "respondent's answer to a survey question is inaccurate, imprecise, or cannot be compared in any useful way to other respondents' answers" (Dillman 2007: 9). Measurement error can be minimised by analysing and verifying the reliability and validity of the instruments used. As discussed later, in

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to 24 years demonstrate the highest weekly internet use at 59%, followed by 25 to 54 years at 48%, and falling to 17% for those between the ages of 55 to 74 years (Burns 2006).

section *4.7 Pilot Study*, extensive piloting ensured the survey instrument was robust, thereby minimising the possibility of measurement error.

4.6.4 Non-Response Error

Non-response error occurs when the information obtained from a sample of survey respondents differs from the information that would be obtained from non-respondents (Collier and Bienstock 2007). Similar to coverage error, non-response error is a function of the non-response rate and the differences between respondents and non-respondents (Couper 2000a). That is, "when a significant number of the people in the survey sample, do not respond to the questionnaire *and* have different characteristics from those who do respond, when these characteristics are important to the study" (Dillman 2007: 10). In the case of web surveys that rely on open invitations listed on websites to participate in the survey, the non-response is not known, as the frame cannot be identified (Couper 2000a). Another consideration, which may influence non-response rates and non-response error, is *non-contacts*. As "out-of-date lists can reduce response rates and inflate non-response rates along with any corresponding non-response error." (Collier and Bienstock 2007: 180).

There are three ways to address non-response: securing a high response rate, surveying a random sample of non-respondents, and estimating the effects of non-response (Collier and Bienstock 2007). The first method, although frequently used, is inadequate. As mentioned earlier, it is erroneous to assume that in achieving high response rates the issue of non-response need not be addressed (Baruch and Holtom 2008). "Failing to address non-response only serves to raise questions about the external validity of a study's findings" (Collier and Bienstock 2007: 166).

The second method, commonly referred to as *double dipping*, requires data collected from a random sample of non-respondents to be compared with the data of respondents. If there are no differences in the data

between non-respondents and respondents, "the data can be pooled and inferences made to the population (Johnson 1959). If differences are present after the comparison, the non-respondents' data are weighted according to their proportion of the total sample" (Collier and Bienstock 2007: 165-166). Although the double dipping method is believed to provide the strongest evidence of non-response, it is not always feasible to apply this method in survey research. Consequently, estimating the effects of non-response is considered the best alternative.

The third method to address non-response is the most widely used, which is to estimate the effects of non-response, either by availing of subjective estimates, extrapolating, or comparing respondents to the population (Collier and Bienstock 2007). Subjective estimates rely on the researcher's knowledge about the differences between respondents and non-respondents, such as socioeconomic status, education, and interest of respondent (Collier and Bienstock 2007). Extrapolation is typically used to address non-response in studies that are conducted over a substantial period of time, and where comparisons are made between early and late respondents. If there are no differences between the two groups, then it is assumed the sample results are not affected by non-response error (Collier and Bienstock 2007). Demographics, or other known characteristics, are used to compare respondents with the population. "If the characteristics for respondents do not differ from the population, the assumption is made that the sample is representative of the population." (Collier and Bienstock 2007: 166).

As discussed earlier in section *4.6.1 Sampling Error*, the research addresses non-response by comparing survey respondents to the population, namely members of the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute. The specific dimension used for comparison was the primary product-market the organisation served (i.e. consumer packaged goods, consumer durable goods, consumer services, business to business supply

goods, business to business durable goods, and business to business). The comparison of product-market categories between association members and survey respondents shows the distribution to be highly similar (see Table 5.3) and thus, the survey respondents are considered to be representative of the population.

4.7 Pilot Study

The piloting process is just as important in online surveys, as it is in any other survey mode (Wyatt 2000). It is recommended to pilot a survey study using a subset of the target population, so as to assess completion times, readability and response rates (Dillman 2007; Wyatt 2000). In particular, piloting of online surveys is essential to reduce the number of unforeseen technical problems (Granello and Wheaton 2004). Online surveys should be tested on a variety of browsers and operating systems; primarily because what the researcher sees on the screen may differ from what the respondent sees (i.e. due to differences between device characteristics, visual distances, text wrapping, fonts, special characters, plug-ins and media formats, and support for languages such as Java and Javascript) (Lang 2002; Stanton and Rogelberg 2001).

In this research, piloting proved to be invaluable and is largely responsible for ensuring the final survey instrument is reliable and valid. Two types of protocol testing were used: think-aloud (Dillman 2007) and expert testing (Wyatt 2000). The think-aloud protocol testing means the researcher watches pilot respondents read and complete the online survey, with a view to listening for respondents' comments, as well as detecting and noting respondents' misconceptions (Dillman 2007; Andrews et al. 2003; Wyatt 2000). That, combined with the expert testing, where experts are asked to deliberately *try to mess up* the survey, gives the researcher valuable insight into potential problems that can be remedied before the survey is administered (Dillman 2007; Andrews et al. 2003; Lang 2002).

The researcher was able to access a survey instrument previously used by Brady et al. (2002) in examining contemporary marketing practices and information technology. Minor adjustments were made to the pilot survey (see Appendix A), namely inserting a question asking whether the respondent is a marketing practitioner, inserting the Miles and Snow's (1978) paragraph question to test for strategic archetype, and eliminating those questions relating to information technology.

To develop *respondent-friendly* online surveys, Dillman et al. (1998) recommend the following: a motivational welcome screen; formats that are similar to paper-and-pencil formats; limited line length to reduce the need for left-to-right scrolling; and computer operation instructions for different question formats at the location in the survey where the instructions will be implemented, rather than at the beginning of the instrument. In as much was possible, the pilot survey followed Dillman et al.'s (1998) principles for developing respondent-friendly surveys.

The pilot survey instrument sought a simple interface with a clean, consistent layout and easy-to-read fonts (Whitcomb and Porter 2004; Lang 2002; Wyatt, 2000). Related items were grouped together "to reduce the time taken to complete the survey by requiring only one orientation to the question-and-response format, rather than reorienting on each screen in a single-item-per-screen design" (Couper et al. 2001: 233). As well, a graphic progress indicator was incorporated to motivate pilot respondents to complete the survey (Lang 2002; Couper et al. 2001). Finally, consistent with ESOMAR's (van Hamersveld and de Bont 2007) principle of voluntary participation in online surveys, virtually all the questions were voluntary. The only obligatory question was the first, which was a qualifying question to determine whether potential pilot respondents were marketing practitioners.

The researcher has relationships with several associations which were

amenable to piloting the survey instrument, namely the Information Technology Association of Galway (ITAG), Kerrysoft (i.e. a software association, but which is no longer in operation) and the executive MBA programme at NUI, Galway. All members of these associations have internet access, so coverage was not an issue. A random sample from each association was drawn, accounting for 60% of the associations' combined membership (i.e. 150 x .60 = 90 individuals). As well, every effort was made to distribute the pilot survey to those individuals responsible for making or implementing marketing decisions (i.e. marketing practitioners). The inclusion of the preliminary question asking whether respondents were marketing practitioners, ensured non-marketers did not complete the survey. Regardless of their official title (e.g. managing director, head of customer relations, or sales director), if pilot respondents were involved in making or implementing marketing decisions, they were considered to be marketing practitioners and encouraged to complete the survey.

The pilot was run between August and October 2006. Of the 90 randomly selected pilot members, 40 responses were obtained, translating into a response rate of 44%. However, only 20 of these responses were complete, translating into a useable response rate of 22%. Subsequent to submitting their survey responses, pilot respondents were asked to answer four brief questions (see Appendix A) in relation to their experience to:

1) assess the survey's length, layout and ease of completion
2) identify irrelevant questions
3) identify sensitive or inappropriate questions, and
4) offer additional comments.

The feedback drawn from observing a portion of the pilot respondents and collating the written comments from the other pilot respondents, indicate the main barrier to survey completion was its length. The pilot survey's 60 questions had an average completion time of 29.5 minutes, with a

range of 20 to 51 minutes. Moreover, a 50% respondent abandonment rate was too high, where the average time for before abandonment was 3.5 minutes. That is, around the 3 to 5 minute mark, a number of pilot respondents believed the survey was too costly to complete (i.e. time consuming) and the potential rewards (i.e. summary of findings and/or social exchange) were too low. Further feedback identified the performance questions as being too sensitive/inappropriate because they sought specific information on sales revenue and return on investment. As well, many pilot respondents believed there were too many open ended-questions, which were cumbersome and perhaps unnecessary. On a positive note, the pilot respondents found the survey layout attractive and the navigation to be user-friendly. As well, the general clarity and wording of the pilot questions were acceptable. The overall analysis of the pilot indicated that the survey instrument would need to be radically revised to ensure it would be valid and reliable prior to its distribution to the sample population.

4.8 Final Survey Instrument

In developing the final survey instrument (see Appendix B), every effort was made to ensure it was lean. That is, only questions deemed essential to answering the research hypotheses were included; unnecessary questions were eliminated and problematic questions were revised. Most of the questions in the final survey draft are drawn from the literature (see Table 4.4). For example, questions relating to strategic archetype (i.e. Questions 7 through 18) are drawn from Miles and Snow (1978) and Conant et al. (1990). Questions relating to marketing practice (i.e. Questions 19 through 26) are drawn from the conceptualisation of the contemporary marketing practices (CMP) classification scheme (Coviello et al. 2000; Coviello and Brodie 2001). Performance questions are drawn from DeSarbo (2005) who has relied on Moorman (1995) for measures of organisational performance (i.e. Question 27), and on Narver and Slater (1990) for measures of relative performance (i.e. Question 28). The

questions relating to the organisations' and respondents' profile have been revised from the survey used by Brady et al. (2002).

Table 4.4 Sources for Online Survey Questions

Question	Topic	Source
1 to 2	Qualifying Questions (i.e. marketing practitioner and association membership)	Researcher
3 to 6	Organisations' Profile	Brady et al. (2002)
7	Strategic Archetype (i.e. strategy and structure)	Miles and Snow (1978)
8 to 18	Strategic Archetype (i.e. strategy and structure)	Conant et al. (1990)
19 to 26	Marketing Practice	Coviello et al. (1998) Coviello and Brodie (2001)
27	Organisational Performance	Moorman (1995) DeSarbo (2005)
28	Relative Organisational Performance	Narver and Slater (1990) DeSarbo (2005)
29 to 33	Respondents' Profile	Brady et al. (2002)

4.8.1 Survey Measures

To facilitate the process of this research, several variables need to be operationalised, namely organisational strategy, structure, marketing practice, and performance.

4.8.1.1 Strategic Archetypes

Organisational strategy and structure are operationalised through Miles and Snow's typology (1978). Studies have classified organisations according to the Miles and Snow (1978) archetypes by using one of four empirical methods: self-typing (i.e. the most widely used), objective indicators, external assessment, and investigator inference (Woodside et al. 1999). The Miles and Snow (1978) paragraph approach has been

extensively used and validated (e.g. Shortell and Zajac 1990; Ketchen et al. 1997; Buchko 1994; Doty et al. 1993; Sriram and Anikeeff 1991; Zahra and Pearce 1990) and though it is considered more convenient than lengthy multi-item scales, research method experts have emphasised the need for multi-item scales when operationalising complex constructs, such as Miles and Snow's (1978) typology (Woodside et al., 1999).

Conant et al. (1990) developed a self-typing scale to classify organisations according to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic types. Conant et al.'s (1990) "measure contains 11 paragraph items. Each paragraph provides four response options representing the four archetypes. Together, the 11 paragraph items represent Miles and Snow's (1978) management literature, including the adaptive cycle" (Lukas 1999: 150). Hence, the multi-item scale is considered an improvement on Miles and Snow's (1978) paragraph measure, which classifies organisations into strategic types based on only two or three dimensions of the adaptive cycle. Further, the paragraph measure relies solely on self-typing, while those of Conant et al. (1990: 376) avail of "self-typing, complemented by investigator-specified decision rules to classify firms into strategic types."

Woodside et al. (1999) independently assessed the multi-item scale developed by Conant et al. (1990), and found it to be valid and reliable. Similarly, a number of other studies (e.g. Song et al. 2008a; Song et al. 2008b; Song et al. 2007; DeSarbo et al. 2005; Gimenez 2000; Lukas 1999; Dyer and Song 1997) have employed Conant et al.'s (1990) multi-item scales and found the approach to be robust in application. Thus, availing of Miles and Snow's (1978) as well as Conant et al.'s (1990) measures to identify strategic archetypes is believed to provide a more accurate classification method, which is what this study employs.

4.8.1.2 Contemporary Marketing Practices

With regard to operationalising marketing practice, the measures in this study are adapted from Coviello and Brodie (2001). The dominant approaches to classifying contemporary marketing practices (CMP) are: transactional, database, interactive and network marketing. Although Coviello et al.'s (1997) CMP framework is not as well established as the Miles and Snow (1978) typology, it has been empirically tested numerous times during the ten years of its existence (e.g. Brady et al. 2008; Brodie et al. 2007; Coviello et al. 2006; Wagner 2005; Brady and Palmer 2004; Coviello et al. 2003; Brady 2003; Coviello et al. 2002; Brady et al. 2002; Coviello and Brodie 2001; Lindgreen et al. 2000; Pels et al. 2000; Coviello et al. 2000; Coviello and Brodie 1998; Brodie et al. 1997).

Coviello et al.'s (1997; 2000) perspective on contemporary marketing practices is that organisations, regardless of size and type, simultaneously employ a combination of marketing practices. The authors contend their multi-theoretical approach means their scheme of contemporary marketing practices is a comprehensive taxonomy (Brodie et al. 2008). That is, "distinct boundaries [have] not drawn between each aspect of marketing, nor [has] each aspect implied to be independent and mutually exclusive" (Brodie et al. 2008: 85).

Coviello et al.'s (1997) scheme of marketing practices has been developed through an extensive review of the literature. Similarly, the eight dimensions pertaining to marketing practice are theoretically anchored in this analysis; they are: managerial intent, managerial planning focus, managerial resource investment, managerial level responsible for marketing, purpose of relational exchange, communication pattern, type of customer contact, and duration of relational exchange (Coviello and Brodie 2001). This study adapts the marketing practice measures developed by Coviello and Brodie (2001). Within the survey instrument, each of the eight "dimensions [consist] of a

set of variables designed to capture each of the four approaches to marketing practice" (Coveillo and Brodie 2001: 391). Respondents are asked to select the statement that *best* describes their marketing activities of their organisation.

4.8.1.3 Organisational Performance

The investigations into the associations between forms of marketing practice and organisational performance are relatively recent (i.e. Brodie et al. 2007; Coviello et al. 2006). One study tentatively indicates success with customer acquisition and sales growth may lead to organisational profitability, which require an emphasis on transactional and interactive forms of marketing practices (Coviello et al. 2006). While the other study tentatively indicates electronic marketing increases the effectiveness and efficiency of database and network marketing practices (Brodie et al. 2007).

In contrast, virtually every study availing of the Miles and Snow (1978) investigates the association between archetype and organisational performance. Miles and Snow (1978) suggest the strategic types of prospector, analyser and defender should perform well, and outperform the reactor type, which frequently lacks a stable strategy. Indeed, a number of empirical studies availing of the Miles and Snow (1978) typology generally support this assertion (e.g. DeSarbo et al. 2005; Conant et al. 1990; Dyer and Song 1997). Yet, the "Miles and Snow (1978) model does not seek to predict which of the archetypal strategic types would be highest in performance, or under what circumstances (DeSarbo et al. 2005: 51). Further, the Miles and Snow (1978) typology does not clearly define performance (DeSarbo et al. 2005; Hambrick 1983). It is worthwhile noting that Miles and Snow's (1978) original intent was to develop a typology of corporate strategy; their focus was not directed towards the performance consequences associated with each strategic archetype (DeSarbo et al. 2005; Hambrick 1983).

In previous studies availing of Miles and Snow's (1978) typology, which also examined aspects of marketing practice, performance has been operationalised by looking at profitability, business growth, and market share as assessed by firms relative to their largest competitor (Lukas 1999). Other studies focus on profitability and market performance (i.e. sales and market share effectiveness) to assess organisational performance (Slater and Olsen 2000; Slater and Olsen 2001). Conant et al. (1990) measure performance with Likert-type scales where respondents are asked to assess, relative to competition, their organisation's general profitability and return on investment (ROI).

This study avails of the performance measures adapted by DeSarbo et al. (2005), primarily because they encompass frequently used performance indicators, incorporate a comparison to competition, and they are easy to operationalise. DeSarbo et al.'s (2005) performance measures of profit margin, sales and ROI (i.e. relative to the objectives set by organisations), are adapted from Moorman (1995). While the other measures are adapted from Narver and Slater (1990), which examine relative return on investment (RROI), relative market share (RMS), relative return on assets (RROA), relative sales growth, relative customer retention, and relative major customer retention, with respect to the organisations' principal market and in comparison to competitors. As well, DeSarbo et al.'s measures seek information about performance in a manner that is less intrusive by using Liker-type scales (e.g. 0 to 11, where 0 = low and 11 = high). Hence, the pilot respondents' concerns about performance questions being too sensitive/inappropriate because they sought specific information are satisfactorily addressed.

4.8.1.4 Profiles of Organisations and Respondents

Questions pertaining to the profiles of organisations and respondents are adapted from Brady et al.'s (2002) survey. Thus, questions relating to the

organisations are: length of establishment, designation of legal entity, product-market classification (i.e. consumer packaged goods, consumer durable goods, etc.), overall number of employees, as well as levels of employees within sales and marketing. Questions pertaining to respondents are: length of employment with their organisation, position level (e.g. upper management, middle management, etc.), level of education, age and gender.

With respect to the analyses, there are no a priori expectations about the proportionate distribution of either strategic archetypes or classifications of marketing practice. Thus, the selection of the optimal typology and form of marketing practice are objectively and empirically determined by the data. In this manner, the analyses of the strategic archetypes, forms of marketing practice, and their interrelationships with performance may yield insights regarding organisations' actual behaviour.

4.8.2 Testing of Final Survey Instrument

Before distribution, the questionnaire was pilot tested between August and October 2007, with a purposefully selected group of experts (i.e. six colleagues from Management Information Systems, who have experience in developing online instruments) and marketing practitioners using the think-aloud protocol (i.e. twenty individuals who are members of either ITAG or the Executive MBA programme, who had not previously complete the pilot survey) (Dillman 2007). A number of revisions were implemented across three rounds of testing. In response to the feedback gathered from the earlier pilot, most of the questions were closed, requiring the respondent to select values from drop-down lists or to choose from a constrained set of radio buttons. Although, an *other* textbox was provided where appropriate to capture responses lying outside pre-specified sets. As part of the piloting process, the survey was submitted from a variety of computers, availing of different browsers (e.g. Firefox, Safari, Netscape, and Internet Explorer) and on different

platforms (e.g. AppleMac and Windows); no technical problems were identified. In testing the final survey instrument, the average time for completion for the 33 questions was 12.75 minutes, which is a significant improvement over the pilot, which had an average completion time of 29.50 minutes for 60 questions. More importantly, the final online survey had a higher probability of obtaining a sufficient number of useable responses (i.e. where $N \geq 100$), so as to be in a position to use multivariate techniques to examine interdependence among variables.

4.9 Survey Implementation

In spite of the efficiency and time saving aspects of online surveys, negotiation with gatekeepers, and with potential respondents has become an increasingly complex and time-consuming process (Lindsay 2005). Moreover, "gatekeepers may also be asked to carry out key tasks such as [contacting] potential participants, selecting participants from lists, or supervising the administration of surveys" (Lindsay 2005: 119). Although often unacknowledged, negotiating access to a sample is crucial to the success of a research project. Indeed, "recruiting a sample for survey research requires a considerable amount of unacknowledged skill and behind-the-scenes work." (Lindsay 2005: 127).

Negotiations with the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute for access to their membership began in August 2007. The associations agreed to facilitate the online survey, provided respondent anonymity was guaranteed. That is, no data were to be collected which would allow responses to be traced to an individual and/or their firm. The survey instrument was finalised in November 2008 and the survey was tentatively set to run in February 2008, allowing the associations to review the instrument and consider their role in facilitating the survey process. However, the February slot was pushed back because the associations required further time to vet the survey instrument, as well as the implementation process. Consequently, by the time approval was

secured, it was too close to St. Patrick's Day and the Easter Holidays to run the survey. That is, running the survey during a holiday period would run the risk of obtaining a higher rate of non-response.

The second slot for running the survey was tentatively set for April 2008. Unfortunately as April approached, the associations preferred not to run this survey at this time, as they had several other communications to send to their members and they were concerned about burdening their membership with too many messages. The final slot for running the survey was set for May, which fortunately was approved.

The survey (see Appendix B) opened on the 19th May 2008, which was hosted by SPSS Ireland on their secure server. A three-wave emailing (Dillman 2007) was employed in contacting the members of the two associations. A pre-notification email from the Chairman of the Marketing Society was sent to members on the 14th of May 2008, informing them of the survey and inviting them to participate (see Appendix C). Marketing Society members who did not wish to participate were able to opt-out, ensuring they would receive no further communications. As a matter of interest, only two Marketing Society members declined to participate. On behalf of the researcher, the Marketing Society's Communications Manager sent an email to members with the link to the survey on the 20th of May 2008 (see Appendix D). The Communications Manager sent a reminder email to members on the 30th of May 2008 (see Appendix E).

A three-wave procedure was also used in contacting members of the Marketing Institute, although it did differ in certain aspects. The Marketing Institute's Communications Manager advertised the survey through the institute's June ezine (i.e. electronic newsletter), which was distributed to members on the 19th of May 2008 (see Appendix F). Unfortunately, shortly after this notification the Marketing Institute withdrew their support for emailing their members regarding survey

participation, due to the receipt of several other requests from academics to distribute their surveys.

As the researcher is a member of the Marketing Institute, it was possible to access the institute's membership list, although the list does not provide members' contact email addresses. The Marketing Institute consented to the researcher telephoning members to seek their survey participation. Using a random integer generator (Random.org 2008), 700 individuals were selected, representing 25% of the Marketing Institute membership. Telephone calls were made to the 700 randomly selected Marketing Institute members, between the 21st of May and the 25th of June 2008. Arising from the telephone calls, 380 individuals agreed to give their email address to which a survey invitation was sent (see Appendix G). Ten days subsequent to the original invitation, a reminder email was sent (see Appendix H).

While the intention had been to host the survey for a four-week period, a seven-week period was required to allow telephone invitations to be extended to Marketing Institute members. All email messages received from respondents during this period were answered within 24 hours. Even those emails that were statements rather than questions received attention. The overwhelming majority of correspondence (i.e. email messages and telephone calls) from respondents related to requests for a summary of the research findings.

4.10 Summary

In this chapter are outlined the research model and hypotheses. Marketing practitioners in Ireland are the target population from which inferences about the diversity of marketing practice and strategic archetypes are to be made. The two associations representing marketing and sales professionals within Ireland are the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute. Access to such a population adds value to the literature because

these associations' members work in all types of organisations and across all product-market sectors, which differs from many of the studies pertaining to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes and Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices.

The research hypotheses are tested through an online survey distributed to members within these associations. Consideration is given to the advantages of (i.e. lower costs, speed of data collection, ease of data management, wider geographic reach, and media richness) and limitations to (i.e. declining response rates and inability to control the respondents' environment) online surveys. As well, the possible sources of error (i.e. sampling, coverage, measurement, and non-response) are outlined, as well as how they have been addressed during the development of the survey instrument. The implementation of the pilot study and the final online survey are also discussed.

The analysis of the data from the survey is given in the following chapter, *5.0 Findings*, where insights with respect to the research hypothesis are outlined and discussed.

CHAPTER 5.0 FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

Members of the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute were invited to participate in an online survey regarding their organisations' approach to and management of marketing practices. These associations represent marketing and sales professionals within Ireland, who work in all types of organisations, and across all product-market sectors. Through a comparison of product-market categories, the sample is shown to be representative of the population, namely organisations in Ireland employing marketing professionals.

The survey (see Appendix B) was hosted by SPSS Ireland on their secure server for a seven-week period from the 19th May until the 7th July 2008. The intention had been to host the survey for a four-week period, but as the Marketing Institute withdrew from sending electronic messages to its members after the first invitation, a longer period was required to allow telephone invitations to be extended to Marketing Institute members. Analyses of the data examine the profile of respondents and their organisations, the classification of their organisations according to Miles and Snow's strategic archetypes, as well as Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices.

5.2 Electronic Survey Data Collection

A three-wave emailing, as recommended by Dillman (2007), was employed in contacting members of the two associations. On the 14th of May 2008, the Chairman of the Marketing Society sent an email to members informing them about the survey and inviting them to participate (see Appendix C). Marketing Society members who did not wish to participate were invited to opt-out to ensure they would receive no further communication; only two members declined to participate further. On the 20th of May 2008, the Marketing Society's

Communications Manager sent an email to members with the link to the survey (see Appendix D). A reminder email inviting members to complete the survey was sent on the 30th of May 2008 (see Appendix E).

In as much as was possible, a similar procedure was used in contacting members of the Marketing Institute. The Marketing Institute's Communications Manager advertised the survey through the Institute's June ezine (i.e. electronic newsletter), which was distributed to members on the on the 19th of May 2008 (see Appendix F). However, subsequent to this notification, the Marketing Institute had received several requests from other academics to distribute their surveys. The Marketing Institute believed it could not honour these additional requests and, in the spirit of fair play, withdrew from emailing Marketing Institute members regarding survey participation.

Nevertheless, as the researcher is a member of the Marketing Institute, it was possible to access the Institute's membership list. Although the membership list does not provide members' contact email addresses, it does provide their contact telephone numbers. The Marketing Institute consented to the researcher telephoning members directly to seek their survey participation. Using a random integer generator (Random.org 2008), 700 individuals were selected, representing 25% of the Marketing Institute membership. Telephone calls were made to the 700 randomly selected Marketing Institute members during a five-week period, between the 21st of May and the 25th of June 2008. Arising from the telephone calls, 380 individuals agreed to give their email address to which an invitation was sent to participate in the survey (see Appendix G); the 380 acquired email addresses represent 54% of the randomly selected members, or 14% of the overall Marketing Institute membership. Ten days subsequent to the original invitation, another email was sent reminding these Marketing Institute members to complete the survey (see Appendix H).

For the 46% of 700 randomly selected Marketing Institute members for whom email addresses were *not* obtained, it is worthy to note, only a handful (i.e. 1%), declined to give their email address. The reasons why email addresses could not be supplied included: the firm no longer operated (i.e. 5%), the contact details were inaccurate (i.e. 6%), the individual was either no longer employed with the company (i.e. 14%), on holiday (i.e. 10%), or out of the office (i.e. 10%). In the case where individuals were on holiday or out of the office, a brief message was left describing the research and the means by which to contact the researcher. These individuals were contacted only once more, so as to ascertain whether they were interested in participating in the survey.

5.3 Survey Response Rate Summary

The survey received 273 responses from marketing practitioners working within Ireland. To ensure respondents were marketing practitioners, a qualifying question asked whether they are responsible for making or implementing marketing decisions. If potential respondents did not identify themselves as being involved in their firms' marketing decisions, the survey was terminated and they were thanked for their interest. At a later stage, 66 respondents were eliminated from the data set due to missing data. Thus, there are 207 useable respondents, of which 21.3% are members of the Marketing Society, 70% of the Marketing Institute and 8.7% are members of both associations (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Respondents' Association Membership

Marketing Association	Frequency	Percent
Marketing Society	44	21.3%
Marketing Institute	145	70.0%
Both	18	8.7%
Total Useable Responses	**207**	**100.0%**

The 44 respondents attributed to the Marketing Society translate into a response rate of 15.5% of the Marketing Society's membership (i.e. 283 members). The 145 respondents attributed to the Marketing Institute, translate into a response rate of 5.2% of the Marketing Institute's membership (i.e. 2,794 members). For the purposes of this research the two associations are treated as one population, namely, marketing practitioners within Ireland. Therefore, the 207 useable respondents (i.e. 44 +145 + 18 = 207) translate into a response rate of 6.7% of the associations' combined membership (i.e. 283 + 2,794 = 3,077). Assuming that 8.7% are members of both associations (3,077 x 0.087 = 268; 3,077-268 = 2,809), which translates into a response rate of 7.4%. A less conservative calculation of response rate would be based on the 700 members of the Marketing Institute who were contacted by telephone requesting their participation in the survey, which would translate into a response rate of 21% (i.e. 283 + 700 = 983; 207/983 = 21.0%). The most optimistic calculation of response rate would be base on the 380 members of the Marketing Institute who gave their email address to participate in the survey, which would translate into a response rate of 31.2% (i.e. 283 + 380 = 663; 207/663 = 31.2%).

5.4 Electronic Survey Data Collection

The Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute agreed to facilitate their members' participation in the survey on the condition respondent anonymity was guaranteed. That is, no data were to be collected which would allow responses to be traced to an individual and/or a firm. However, the associations agreed to supply a list of their members' organisations, without any other identifying details, solely for the purpose of forming a comparison with survey respondents. The association members and survey respondents are classified according to the primary market their organisation served. The product-market categories employed are:

- Consumer packaged goods *e.g. food, beverages, footwear,*

apparel, toiletries, cleaning products

- Consumer durable goods *e.g. automobiles, household appliances, consumer electronics*
- Consumer services *e.g. retail banking, insurance, education, medical care, transportation*
- Business to business supply goods *e.g. office supplies, raw materials, component parts*
- Business to business durable goods *e.g. computer hardware, office equipment, machinery*
- Business to business services *e.g. advertising, planning, research, consultancy, media services.*

Table 5.2 outlines how members' organisations are classified. As the memberships of the two associations are treated as one population, the column referring to the combined membership is the most relevant. Table 5.2 also outlines the organisational categories respondents believed to *best* describe the product/market their organisation served.

Table 5.2 Product-Market Categories for Association Members and Survey Respondents

Organisational Category	Marketing Society Members Frequency	Percent	Marketing Institute Members Frequency	Percent	Combined Association Members Frequency	Percent	Survey Respondents Frequency	Percent
Consumer Packaged Goods	62	21.9	523	18.7	585	19.0	39	18.8
Consumer Durable Goods	5	1.8	79	2.8	84	2.7	10	4.8
Consumer Services	62	21.9	752	26.9	814	26.5	52	25.1
B2B Supply Goods	0	0.0	223	8.0	223	7.3	13	6.3
B2B Durable Goods	0	0.0	81	2.9	81	2.6	8	3.9
B2B Services	154	54.4	1136	40.7	1290	41.9	85	41.1
Total	**283**	**100**	**2794**	**100**	**3077**	**100**	**207**	**100**

The comparison of product-market categories between association members and survey respondents shows the distribution (i.e. based on percent) to be highly similar (see Table 5.3) for the respondents to be considered representative of the population of marketing practitioners within Ireland. It is worthy to note the sample for individual product-market categories of consumer durable goods, business-to-business supply goods and business-to-business durable goods are small. However, these small sample sizes are closely representative of their proportion of the population of marketing practitioners within Ireland. Moreover, the cross-tabulation analysis of product-market categories for associations' members against the product-market categories for survey respondents was highly significant at the 99% level (i.e. Pearson Chi Square $\leq .01$) and the strength of the association was quite high, as the value for Cramer's V was close to one (i.e. value of Cramer's V = .916; where 1 = perfect association).

Table 5.3 Comparisons of Product-Market Categories Between Combined Association Members and Survey Respondents

Organisational Category	**Combined Association Members** Percent	**Survey Respondents** Percent
Consumer Packaged Goods	19.0%	18.8%
Consumer Durable Goods	2.7%	4.8%
Consumer Services	26.5%	25.1%
B2B Supply Goods	7.3%	6.3%
B2B Durable Goods	2.6%	3.9%
B2B Services	41.9%	41.1%
Total	**100.0%**	**100.0%**

5.5 Summary Profiles

5.5.1 Respondents

The respondents are nearly evenly split between male and female (see Table 5.4). They range in age from 22 to 63 years of age, where about

two-thirds of respondents are 43 years of age or less, the average age is 32.46 years (i.e. with a standard deviation of 9.49 years), and the median age is 31 years (see Table 5.5). The majority of respondents have achieved either an undergraduate (i.e. 34.8%) or postgraduate (i.e. 56.5%) degree (see Table 5.6). Their length of employment range from 1 to 39 years, where three-quarters of respondents are employed with their organisations for 10 years or less. The average length of employment is 8.50 years (i.e. with a standard deviation of 8.30 years), and the median length of employment is 5 years (see Table 5.7). Respondents are predominantly employed within upper (i.e. 49.8%) or middle (i.e. 28.5%) management (see Table 5.8).

Table 5.4 Respondents' Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	106	51.2%
Male	101	48.8%
Total	**207**	**100.0**

Table 5.5 Respondents' Age

Age	Frequency	Percent
23 to 33 years	67	32.4%
34 to 43 years	73	35.3%
44 to 53 years	46	22.2%
54 to 63 years	21	10.1%
Total	**207**	**100.0%**

	Age in years
Mean	32.46
Median	31.00
Stan. Dev.	9.49
N	**207**

Table 5.6 Respondents' Level of Education

Educational Level	Frequency	Percent
Secondary School	6	2.9%
Technical/Trade Qualification	12	5.8%
Undergraduate Degree	72	34.8%
Postgraduate Degree	117	56.5%
Total	**207**	**100.0%**

Table 5.7 Respondents' Years Employed at their Organisation

Years	Frequency	Percent
1 to 2 years	47	22.7%
3 to 5 years	58	28.0%
6 to 10 years	50	24.2%
11 to 15 years	16	7.7%
16 to 20 years	15	7.3%
21 to 25 years	10	4.8%
26 to 39 years	11	5.3%
Total	**207**	**100.0%**

	Years
Mean	8.50
Median	5.00
Stan. Dev.	8.30
N	**207**

Table 5.8 Respondents' Position within their Organisation

Position	Frequency	Percent
Upper Management	103	49.8%
Middle Management	59	28.5%
Lower Management	25	12.0%
Staff/Employee	20	9.7%
Total	**207**	**100.0%**

5.5.2 Organisations

The length of establishment for respondents' organisations range from 1 year to 101 years or more (see Table 5.9), where the average length of establishment is 42.86 years (i.e. with a standard deviation of 49.37 years), and the median is 23 years. The organisations' legal entities are outlined in Table 5.10, whereby corporations (i.e. 25.6%) and limited liability companies (i.e. 44.4%) account for the majority of cases. Employment levels range from 1 to 600 or more persons, with an average of 960 persons (i.e. standard deviation of 4,110 persons), and with a median employment level of 70 persons (see Table 5.11). It is worthy to note, that 26.6% of the organisations within the sample have 20 employees or less and that 45.4% have 50 employees or less. This finding reflects the large proportion of small-to-medium sized firms found within the Irish economy (CSO 2007). Table 5.12 outlines the sales and marketing staff levels within the organisations; the majority of organisations employ 10 persons or less in either function. The average for sales staff is 99 persons (i.e. standard deviation of 401 persons), with a

median of 10 persons. The average for marketing staff is 37 persons (i.e. standard deviation of 218 persons), with a median of 4 persons.

Table 5.9 Organisations' Length of Establishment

Years	Frequency	Percent
1 to 5 years	21	10.0%
6 to 10 years	34	16.5%
11 to 15 years	21	10.0%
16 to 20 years	25	12.0%
21 to 30 years	26	12.5%
31 to 50 years	30	14.5%
51 to 100 years	29	14.0%
101 years or more	22	10.5%
Total	**207**	**100.0%**

	Years
Mean	42.86
Median	23.00
Stan. Dev.	49.37
N	**207**

Table 5.10 Organisations' Legal Entity

Legal Entity	Frequency	Percent
Sole Proprietorship	19	9.2%
General Partnership	8	3.9%
Limited Partnership (LP)	4	1.9%
Limited Liability Partnership (LLP)	8	3.9%
Corporation (Inc., Co., Corp.)	53	25.6%
Limited Liability Company (LLC, Ltd.)	92	44.4%
Co-operative	3	1.4%
Non-profit	13	6.3%
Government and Semi-State Body	7	3.4%
Total	**207**	**100.0%**

Table 5.11 Organisations' Total Number of Employees

No. of Employees	Frequency	Percent
1 to 10 persons	27	13.0%
11 to 20 persons	28	13.6%
21 to 30 persons	15	7.2%
31 to 50 persons	24	11.6%
51 to 100 persons	23	11.1%
101 to 200 persons	28	13.5%
201 to 600 persons	25	12.1%
601 or more persons	37	17.9%
Total	**207**	**100.0%**

	No. of Employees
Mean	960.55
Median	70.00
Stan. Dev.	4,110.67
N	**207**

Table 5.12 Organisations' Number of Sales and Marketing Employees

No. of Employees	Sales Staff		Marketing Staff	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
0 persons	22	10.6%	7	3.4%
1 person	23	11.1%	38	18.4%
2 persons	11	5.3%	28	13.5%
3 to 5 persons	31	15.0%	42	20.3%
6 to 10 persons	30	14.5%	28	13.5%
11 to 20 persons	28	13.5%	26	12.5%
21 to 50 persons	24	11.6%	22	10.7%
51 to 100 persons	16	7.8%	10	4.8%
100 or more persons	22	10.6%	6	2.9%
Total	**207**	**100.0%**	**207**	**100.0%**

	No. of Sales Staff	No. of Marketing Staff
Mean	99.44	37.30
Median	10.00	4.00
Stan. Dev.	401.31	218.28
N	**207**	**207**

5.6 Classification of Strategic Archetypes

As noted earlier, 273 survey responses were originally obtained, but 66 responses were eliminated due to incomplete data, leaving 207 useable responses. Miles and Snow's (1978) paragraph typing question appears early in the survey (i.e. Question 7) and although the question is lengthy, all 273 of the original respondents were able to identify the paragraph that *best* describes their organisation's approach to the market place. The organisations' classification according to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes (i.e. prospector, defender, analyser and reactor) is given in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13 Classification of Strategic Archetypes

Archetype	Miles and Snow		Conant et al.		Combined	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Prospector	86	31%	64	25%	51	24%
Defender	89	33%	67	27%	64	31%
Analyser	78	29%	94	38%	74	36%
Reactor	20	7%	23	9%	18	9%
Total	**273**	**100%**	**247**	**100%**	**207**	**100%**
Eliminated Respondents	0 respondents eliminated (i.e. due to incomplete data)		26 respondents eliminated (i.e. 273 - 26 = 247)		40 more respondents eliminated (i.e. 247 - 40 = 207 *useable responses)*	

However, as respondents progressed through the survey some skipped or declined to answer questions. Thus, in analysing responses relating to Conant et al.'s (1990) measures (i.e. Questions 8 to 18), 26 respondents were eliminated because of missing data, which precluded appropriate classification. Eliminating these respondents resulted in the classification of the 247 respondents solely using Conant et al.'s (1990) measures (see Table 5.13). The classification procedure, which is theoretically anchored in Miles and Snow's (1978) original conceptualisation of the four archetypes, is as follows:

- The archetypal response option selected most often, whether prospector, defender, analyser or reactor, determined an organisation's archetype.
- In the case of a tie in response options between defender, prospector and/or analyser response, resulted in the organisation being classified as an analyser, as they are considered a hybrid between prospectors and defenders, and thus, emulate characteristics of each type.
- Ties involving reactor response options meant the organisation was classified as a reactor, as such organisations are inconsistent in their approach. Thus, in responding to the challenges of the adaptive cycle, reactors may behave "like defenders when conducting environmental surveillance, prospectors when

developing new products, and analyzers when controlling and evaluating their performance" (Conant et al. 1990: 373).

In some respects, Conant et al.'s (1990) multi-item measure is considered an improvement on the paragraph measure, as it examines all 11 dimensions pertaining to Miles and Snow's (1978) adaptive cycle; while the paragraph measure classifies organisations into strategic types based on two or three dimensions of the adaptive cycle. Moreover, the paragraph measure relies solely on self-typing, while those of Conant et al. (1990: 376) avail of "self-typing, complemented by investigator-specified decision rules to classify firms into strategic types". Thus, availing of Miles and Snow's (1978) as well as Conant et al.'s (1990) measures to identify strategic archetypes is believed to provide a more accurate classification method, and affords the identification of *relatively pure* types (Hambrick 1982). Furthermore, results based on multiple measures inspire greater confidence (Santos et al. 2002; Zahra and Pearce 1990; Venkatraman and Grant 1986). This combined classification approach along with the elimination of responses with insufficient data in the remaining survey questions (i.e. Questions 19 to 33), resulted in 207 usable responses (see Table 5.13), which became the data set from which the analyses is conducted.

The proportions of strategic archetypes found in the 207 responses of this study are roughly equivalent to those obtained in other studies (e.g. Song et al. 2007; Conant et al. 1990). Such a finding, where the proportionate distribution across archetypes seems stable, might suggest there is some *natural* or *ecological pattern* in distribution. However, these proportions do not hold for many of the studies availing of Miles and Snow's (1978) typology.

One reason the proportionate distribution across archetypes varies is that a number of studies do not include an analysis of the reactor type, either

because the reactor group is often too small to be considered statistically relevant (e.g. James and Hatten 1995; McDaniel and Kolari 1987; Hambrick 1983), or the researchers believe the reactor type is not relevant to their analysis (e.g. Matsuno and Mentzer 2000; Thomas and Ramaswamy 1996; Slater and Narver 1993; Dvir et al. 1993; Floyd and Wooldridge 1992; Sriram and Anikeeff 1991; Ruekert and Walker 1987; Walker and Ruekert 1987). Similar to this study, when the reactor type is included, it typically represents the smallest proportion of the sample of about 10% or less (e.g. DeSarbo et al. 2007; O'Regan and Ghobadian 2006; DeSarbo et al. 2006; Shoham et al. 2002; McKee et al. 1989). The generally low levels of reactors found among samples, which includes this study, might be partly attributed to the more negative descriptions of the reactor type, making respondents less likely to select response choices associated with this type (e.g. Conant et al. 1990).[1] But then again, there are instances where reactors represent the largest proportion of the sample (e.g. Evans and Green 2000; Bahee 1992).

Another reason why the proportionate distribution across archetypes varies is that some studies do not avail of the analyser type, as they prefer to classify organisations as either prospectors or defenders, rather than examine the hybrid/dual nature of analysers (e.g. Andrews et al. 2006; Moore 2005; Evans and Green 2000; Thomas and Ramaswamy 1996; Ruekert and Walker 1987; Hambrick 1983). Other studies avail of two categories of defenders in their analysis, namely low-cost defenders and differentiated defenders (e.g. Slater et al. 2007; Olson et al. 2005; Slater and Olson 2000; Walker and Ruekert 1987).

These reasons for not finding support for a stable distribution of archetypes are largely technical (i.e. by not including one of the archetypes). Still, finding a stable proportionate distribution of strategic

[1] This is one of the reasons Conant et al. (1990) developed his mulit-item scale, as they believed it to be more reliable than the self-typing paragraph approach.

archetypes among various studies would be truly surprising. It is counterintuitive to expect, across various industries at various stages of development, that the distribution of archetypes would remain constant.

Nevertheless, the successful classification of the data into strategic archetypes supports the first research hypothesis:

> *H1: Configurations of strategy-structure may be observed and broadly conform to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes of prospector, analyser, defender and reactor.*

5.7 Strategic Archetypes and Respondents' Attributes

Cross-tabulations are tables that reflect the joint distribution of two or more variables. Cross-tabulation analysis is appropriate for nominal or ordinal data (i.e. categories or ranks); it establishes whether an interdependent relationship exists between two values, but does not identify a causal relationship between the values (Kinnear and Gray 2008; Brace et al. 2006). Availing of the chi-square test confirms the presence of an association (Kinnear and Gray 2008; Brace et al. 2006). For example, a cross-tabulation analysis shows there is no relationship between the strategic archetypes and association membership (i.e. $p = .542$). In this instance, knowing an organisation's archetype does not help to estimate a respondent's association membership. Moreover, there is no association between the strategic archetype and respondents' gender, age, educational level, length of employment, and position within the organisation (see Table 5.14).

Table 5.14 Pearson Chi-Square Test of Strategic Archetypes Against Respondents' Attributes

Respondent Attribute	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Association Membership	5.015	6	.542
Gender	1.490	3	.684
Age	8.827	6	.184
Educational Level	1.459	9	.103
Educational Level Secondary/Tech. vs. Undergraduate vs. Postgraduate	7.800	6	.253
Educational Level Postgraduate vs. Undergraduate or less	4.207	3	.240
Length of Employment	8.322	6	.156
Position	1.182	12	.460
Position Upper/Middle Mgmt. vs. Lower Mgmt./Staff	2.152	3	.541

It is worthy to note that in analysing respondents' level of education, by availing of various permutations (e.g. recombining secondary school and technical/trade qualification into one category versus the remaining educational categories; and secondary school, technical/trade, and undergraduate qualification versus postgraduate), still shows there is no association between strategic archetype and respondents' level of education. Similarly, in analysing respondents' position within the organisations, a cross-tabulation assessment performed by recombining upper and middle management into one category and lower management and staff/employee into another category, shows there is no association between strategic archetype and respondents' position (see Table 5.14).

5.8 Strategic Archetypes and Organisations' Attributes

5.8.1 Product-Market

In analysing the strategic archetypes against organisations' product/market (i.e. consumer packaged goods, consumer durable goods, consumer services, B2B supply goods, B2B durable goods, and B2B services), there is no association (see Table 5.15). Even in recombining

the product/market categories in various permutations shows there is still no association.

Table 5.15 Pearson Chi-Square Test of Strategic Archetypes Against Organisations' Attributes

Product/Market Type	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Product/Market	1.738	15	.297
Product/Market Consumer vs. B2B	5.809	3	.121
Product/Market Products vs. Services	3.096	3	.377
Product/Market Durable vs. Non-durable	5.060	3	.167

5.8.2 Length of Establishment

The length of time an organisation is established (see Table 5.16), is associated with strategic archetype, as it is significant at the 95% level,[2] where $p \leq .05$ (i.e. $p = .015$). The cross-tabulation analysis shows prospectors are more likely than the other archetypes to be *young* (i.e. established for 13 years or less); reactors and analysers are more likely than the other archetypes to be *middle-aged* (i.e. established between 14 and 37 years); while defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to be *mature* (i.e. established for 38 years or more).

Miles and Snow (1978) make no specific assertion as to whether any of the strategic archetypes are more likely to be *young* or *old* organisations. In studies availing of Miles and Snow's (1978) typology, the age of an organisation is not usually the focus of the research. Although organisational age and size have been used to determine the sample population. For example, Thomas and Ramaswamy's (1996) study examined the oldest and largest organisations within the *Fortune 500* that operated within the electronics, chemicals and petroleum refining industries. As well, within some studies there are implicit assumptions

[2] The significance levels most frequently used are .90, .95, and .99, which mean the finding has a 90%, 95% or 99% chance of being true. Significance is also shown as .10, .05 and .01, meaning the finding has a 10% (.10), 5% (.05), or 1% (.01) chance of not being true.

about organisational age, which are related to the industry, or organisational size.

Table 5.16 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetypes Against Organisations' Length of Establishment

Length of Establishment		Strategic Archetype				
		Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
13 years or less	Count	16	32	18	6	72
	% within Archetype	31.4%	50.0%	24.3%	33.3%	34.8%
14-37 years	Count	13	13	31	8	65
	% within Archetype	25.5%	20.3%	41.9%	44.4%	31.4%
38 years or more	Count	22	19	25	4	70
	% within Archetype	43.1%	29.7%	33.8%	22.2%	33.8%
Total	Count	51	64	74	18	207
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.576	6	.015
Likelihood Ratio	15.576	6	.016
Linear-by-Linear Association	.048	1	.827
N of Valid Cases	207		

Within studies examining technology-oriented industries, there may be an implicit suggestion that prospectors, because of their pioneering tendencies, are more likely to be *young* firms; while defenders, because of their more risk-averse stance, are more likely to be *mature* firms; and analysers because of their dual nature are more likely to fall between (e.g. O'Reagan and Ghobadian 2006; Kearns 2005). The findings, as shown in Table 5.16, support this implicit notion of prospectors being young organisations, defenders being mature organisations, and analysers being middle-aged organisations. As such, these findings represent *tentative* indications that a life cycle pattern may be associated with strategic archetype.

Although, these tentative findings may be *new*; the notion of an association between strategic archetype and life cycle patterns is not. Smith et al. (1986) postulated Miles and Snow's typology relates to the sequential stages of strategy development, whereby defenders are small organisations, and it is implied they are more likely to be younger; while prospectors are large organisations, which are at a more mature stage of strategy development, and as such it is implied they are more likely to be older (Smith et al. 1986). Unfortunately subsequent studies, even their own (Smith et al. 1989), do not support these speculations (O'Reagan and Ghobadian 2006; Ghosh et al. 2001; Gimenez 2000).

5.8.3 Legal Entity

With respect to the legal entity of an organisation (see Table 5.17), there is an association with the strategic archetype, as it is significant at the 90% level, where $p \leq .10$ (i.e. $p = .090$). The cross-tabulation analysis shows reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to be a partnership; prospectors are more likely than the other archetypes to be a corporation[3]; analysers are more likely than the other archetypes to be a limited liability company[4]; and defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to be a co-operative, non-profit, or semi-state organisation. Similarly, Peng et al.'s (2004) study on ownership types within China found state-owned enterprises (SOEs) are also defenders. However, the other organisational categories of privately-owned enterprises (POEs),

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[3] "What sets the corporation apart from all other types of businesses is that a corporation is an independent legal entity, separate from the people who own, control, and manage it. In other words, corporation and tax laws view the corporation as a legal *person* that can enter into contracts, incur debts, and pay taxes apart from its owners. Other important characteristics also result from the corporation's separate existence: A corporation does not dissolve when its owners (shareholders) change or die, and the owners of a corporation have limited liability - that is, they are not personally responsible for the corporation's debts" (Nolo.com 2008).

[4] LLCs have at least one member and all LLC members are the owners of the LLC much as shareholders are the owners of a corporation or the partners of a partnership. "Like owners of partnerships or sole proprietorships, LLC owners report business profits or losses on their personal income tax returns; the LLC itself is not a separate taxable entity. Like owners of a corporation, however, all LLC owners are protected from personal liability for business debts and claims - a feature known as *limited liability*. This means that if the business owes money or faces a lawsuit, only the assets of the business itself are at risk. Creditors usually can't reach the personal assets of the LLC owners, such as a house or car" (Nolo.com 2008).

collectively-owned enterprises (COEs) and foreign-invested enterprises (FIEs) do not correlate well with the categories of legal entities used in this research (Peng et al. 2004).

Table 5.17 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetypes Against Organisations' Legal Entity

Legal Entity		Strategic Archetype				
		Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
All Partnerships	Count	6	12	12	8	38
	% within Archetype	11.8%	18.8%	16.2%	44.4%	18.4%
Corporation	Count	12	19	15	4	50
	% within Archetype	23.5%	29.7%	20.3%	22.2%	24.2%
Limited Liability	Count	23	24	39	5	91
	% within Archetype	45.1%	37.5%	52.7%	27.8%	44.0%
Co-op, Non-profit, Semi-State	Count	10	9	8	1	28
	% within Archetype	19.6%	14.1%	10.8%	5.6%	13.5%
Total	Count	51	64	74	18	207
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.502	9	.090
Likelihood Ratio	13.479	9	.142
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.562	1	.033
N of Valid Cases	207		

5.8.4 Organisations' Employment Level

The cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against the number of employees shows there is no association, even in using various category permutations (i.e. $p = .720$). However, there is a significant association between strategic archetype, organisations' length of establishment, and the number of employees (see Table 5.18). The significance for small organisations is at the 95% level where $p \leq .05$ (i.e. $p = .048$); for medium-sized organisations it is at the 90% level where $p \leq .10$ (i.e. $p = .090$); and for large organisations it is at the 95% level where $p \leq .05$ (i.e. $p = .011$). However, these findings should be viewed with *caution*, as is often the case in *multi-layered* cross tabulations, a number of the cells

have a low count (i.e. less than 5). Therefore, these findings are more useful as indications for further investigation, but are not sufficiently robust as to be viewed as conclusive evidence.

The analysis shows (see Table 5.18), *within small organisations* (i.e. 30 persons or less), prospectors and reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to be *young*, as they are established for 13 years or less; analysers are more likely than the other archetypes to be *middle-aged*, as they are established between 14 and 37 years; while defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to be *mature*, as they are established for 38 years or more.

Within *medium-sized organisations* (i.e. 31 to 150 persons), prospectors are more likely than the other archetypes to be *young*; analysers and defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to be *middle-aged*; while reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to be *mature*.

Within *large organisations* (i.e. 151 persons or more), prospectors and analysers are more likely than the other archetypes to be *young*; reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to be *middle-aged*; while defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to be *mature*.

The overall findings indicate, regardless of size, prospectors are more likely to be young organisations; small and medium-sized defenders are more likely to be mature organisations; and small and medium-sized analysers are more likely to be middle-aged organisations. These findings are similar to the cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against length of establishment (see Table 5.16) and provide further support to the implicit notion of prospectors being young organisations, defenders being mature organisations, and analysers being middle-aged organisations.

Table 5.18 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetypes Against Organisations' Length Established and Employee Level

Employee Level	Length Established		Strategic Archetype				
			Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
Small 30 persons or less	13 years or less	Count	10	15	9	5	39
		% within Combined	62.5%	71.4%	36.0%	62.5%	55.7%
	14-37 years	Count	4	5	16	3	28
		% within Combined	25.0%	23.8%	64.0%	37.5%	40.0%
	38 years or more	Count	2	1	0	0	3
		% within Combined	12.5%	4.8%	.0%	.0%	4.3%
	Total	Count	16	21	25	8	70
		% within Combined	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Medium 31 to 150 persons	13 years or less	Count	6	11	2	1	20
		% within Combined	30.0%	47.8%	10.0%	20.0%	29.4%
	14-37 years	Count	7	2	8	1	18
		% within Combined	35.0%	8.7%	40.0%	20.0%	26.5%
	38 years or more	Count	7	10	10	3	30
		% within Combined	35.0%	43.5%	50.0%	60.0%	44.1%
	Total	Count	20	23	20	5	68
		% within Combined	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Large 151 or more persons	13 years or less	Count	0	6	7	0	13
		% within Combined	.0%	30.0%	24.1%	.0%	18.8%
	14-37 years	Count	2	6	7	4	19
		% within Combined	13.3%	30.0%	24.1%	80.0%	27.5%
	38 years or more	Count	13	8	15	1	37
		% within Combined	86.7%	40.0%	51.7%	20.0%	53.6%
	Total	Count	15	20	29	5	69
		% within Combined	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Small 30 persons or less	Pearson Chi-Square	1.271	6	.048
Medium 31-150 persons	Pearson Chi-Square	1.095	6	.090
Large 151 persons or more	Pearson Chi-Square	1.660	6	.011

There is also an association between strategic archetype, organisational entity, and the number of employees (see Table 5.19). However, it is significant with respect to *medium-sized firms only* (i.e. 31 to 150 persons). This significance is at the 95% level where $p \leq .05$ (i.e. $p = .022$). Again, these findings should be viewed with *caution* as most of the cells have a low count (i.e. less than 5). Therefore, these findings are more useful as indications for further investigation.

The analysis shows, *within medium-sized organisations*, reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to be a partnership; prospectors to be a corporation; analysers and defenders to be a limited liability company; and defenders to be a co-operative, non-profit or semi-state organisation. These findings are virtually identical to the cross-tabulation of strategic archetype against legal entity (see Table 5.17), suggesting that from the perspective of this research, legal entity is a more useful variable than organisational size in understanding archetypes.

Organisational size is believed to be an important determinant of context variables, especially structure (Doty and Glick 1994; Tavakolian 1989; Miller 1986; Mintzberg 1983). Smith et al. (1986; 1989) specifically examined strategic archetype and organisational size; their 1986 study speculated that the Miles and Snow (1978) typology could relate to sequential stages of strategy development, where defenders are small firms and prospectors large firms. However, Gimenez (2000) dismissed Smith et al.'s (1986) speculation, as his sample of small firms could be classified using each of the archetypes. Similarly, other studies examining small and medium sized organisations (SMEs) (e.g. O'Reagan and Ghobadian 2006; Ghosh et al. 2001) found their samples could be classified using each of the archetypes. Moreover, Smith et al.'s (1989) subsequent study contradicted their original hypothesis; they found analysers to be large organisations, reactors to be small and prospectors and defenders to fall between the two extremes. They also found

organisational size is not always an influencing factor in superior performance. These studies suggest organisational size may not always have a significant association with strategic archetype.

Table 5.19 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetypes Against Organisations' Legal Entity and Level of Employees

Employee Level	Legal Entity		Strategic Archetype				
			Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
Small 30 persons or less	All Partnerships	Count	5	5	6	4	20
		% within Archetype	31.2%	23.8%	24.0%	50.0%	28.6%
	Corporation	Count	2	3	1	0	6
		% within Archetype	12.5%	14.3%	4.0%	.0%	8.6%
	Limited Liability	Count	7	12	15	3	37
		% within Archetype	43.8%	57.1%	60.0%	37.5%	52.9%
	Co-op, Non-Profit, Semi-State	Count	2	1	3	1	7
		% within Archetype	12.5%	4.8%	12.0%	12.5%	10.0%
	Total	Count	16	21	25	8	70
		% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Medium 31 to 150 persons	All Partnerships	Count	1	5	3	4	13
		% within Archetype	5.0%	21.7%	15.0%	80.0%	19.1%
	Corporation	Count	3	6	4	1	14
		% within Archetype	15.0%	26.1%	20.0%	20.0%	20.6%
	Limited Liability	Count	11	7	11	0	29
		% within Archetype	55.0%	30.4%	55.0%	.0%	42.6%
	Co-op, Non-Profit, Semi-State	Count	5	5	2	0	12
		% within Archetype	25.0%	21.7%	10.0%	.0%	17.6%
	Total	Count	20	23	20	5	68
		% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Large 151 or more persons	All Partnerships	Count	0	2	3	0	5
		% within Archetype	.0%	10.0%	10.3%	.0%	7.2%
	Corporation	Count	7	10	10	3	30
		% within Archetype	46.7%	50.0%	34.5%	60.0%	43.5%
	Limited Liability	Count	5	5	13	2	25
		% within Archetype	33.3%	25.0%	44.8%	40.0%	36.2%
	Co-op, Non-Profit, Semi-State	Count	3	3	3	0	9
		% within Archetype	20.0%	15.0%	10.3%	.0%	13.0%
	Total	Count	15	20	29	5	69
		% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Small 30 persons or less	Pearson Chi-Square	5.807	9	.759
Medium 31 to 150 persons	Pearson Chi-Square	1.943	9	.022
Large 151 persons or more	Pearson Chi-Square	5.899	9	.750

5.8.5 Organisations' Employment Level for Sales and Marketing

In analysing the strategic archetypes against organisations' level of sales staff, there is no association (i.e. p = .757). Nevertheless, there is an association between strategic archetype and the level of marketing staff (see Table 5.20); this significance is beyond the 95% level where $p \leq .05$ (i.e. p = .026). The cross-tabulation analysis in Table 5.20 shows reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to employ 2 marketers or less; defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to employ 3 to 9 marketers; and prospectors and analysers are more likely than the other archetypes to employ 10 or more marketers. Although these employee numbers appear low, it is worth bearing in mind the median for marketing staff is 4 persons.

Table 5.20 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetypes Against Level of Marketing Staff

Level of Marketing Staff		Strategic Archetype				
		Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
2 marketers or less	Count	21	15	26	11	73
	% within Archetype	41.2%	23.4%	35.1%	61.1%	35.3%
3 to 9 marketers	Count	17	18	21	5	61
	% within Archetype	33.3%	28.1%	28.4%	27.8%	29.5%
10 marketers or more	Count	13	31	27	2	73
	% within Archetype	25.5%	48.4%	36.5%	11.1%	35.3%
Total	Count	51	64	74	18	207
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.434	6	.026
Likelihood Ratio	14.943	6	.021
Linear-by-Linear Association	.634	1	.426
N of Valid Cases	207		

This finding, where prospectors and analysers are more likely than the other archetypes to employ additional marketing staff, is consistent with these archetypes' general interest in pursuing a *build* strategy by

increasing market share and sales (Ittner et al. 1997; Slater and Narver 1993; Govindarajan and Gupta 1985). Although Slater and Narver (1993) did not address employment levels of marketing staff per se, they did examine marketing strategies in association with archetype and found market orientation is productive for prospectors and analysers, but it is not productive for defenders.

5.9 Strategic Archetype and Performance

It is reasonable to expect respondents may choose to skip or decline to answer questions relating to their organisation's performance due to the sensitive nature of the subject, lack of knowledge, or company policy prohibiting disclosure of such information. Nevertheless, only a handful of the 207 respondents (i.e. 4 to 6 persons; see Table 5.21) left the survey's performance questions unanswered (i.e. Questions 27 (a), (b) and (c)). In comparison to the objectives set, respondents rated how well their organisation has performed with respect to overall sales, profit margin, and ROI. The cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against each of the performance measures proved to be significant. That is, there is an association between the strategic archetypes across the three dimensions of performance.

Table 5.21 Responses to Performance Questions

Performance	Respondent Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Sales	203	98.1	4	1.9	207	100.0
Profit Margin	201	97.1	6	2.9	207	100.0
Return on Investment (ROI)	201	97.1	6	2.9	207	100.0

5.9.1 Sales

With respect to sales levels (see Table 5.22), the cross-tabulation analysis shows reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to have low sales; analysers, defenders and prospectors are more likely than reactors to have moderately-high sales; analysers and prospectors are more likely

than the other archetypes to have high sales. This association between strategic archetype and sales level is significant at the 95% level, where p $\leq .05$ (i.e. p = .043).

Table 5.22 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetypes Against Sales

Sales		Strategic Archetype				
		Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
Low 0-2	Count	5	6	4	6	21
	% within Archetype	10.0%	9.7%	5.5%	33.3%	10.3%
Moderate 3-5	Count	10	12	15	1	38
	% within Archetype	20.0%	19.4%	20.5%	5.6%	18.7%
Moderately-High 6-8	Count	29	28	35	7	99
	% within Archetype	58.0%	45.2%	47.9%	38.9%	48.8%
High 9-11	Count	6	16	19	4	45
	% within Archetype	12.0%	25.8%	26.0%	22.2%	22.2%
Total	Count	50	62	73	18	203
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.735	9	.043
Likelihood Ratio	15.319	9	.083
Linear-by-Linear Association	.033	1	.855
N of Valid Cases	203		

This finding is largely consistent with Miles and Snow (1978) as well as a number of other studies (e.g. Slater and Olson 2001; Smith et al. 1989), which suggest organisational performance will be relatively equal in defender, prospector, and analyser organisations, but also higher than in reactor organisation. However, there is evidence from other studies, depending upon the industry, the sample size, or other organisational constructs, which suggest there are differences among strategic archetype performance of defenders, prospectors and analysers (Aubert and Croteau 2005). Zahra and Pearce (1990), in reviewing numerous studies employing the Miles and Snow typology, concluded support for equal effectiveness among the *successful* archetypes was *mixed.* Hence, the

relative performance among archetypes is neither comprehensive nor conclusive (Andrews et al. 2006).

5.9.2 Profit Margin

In examining the association between archetype and profit margin (see Table 5.23), reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to have low profit margins; defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to have moderate profit margins; analysers are more likely than the other archetypes to have moderately-high profit margins; and prospectors are more likely than the other archetypes to have high profit margins. This association between strategic archetype and profit margin is significant at the 90% level, where p is $\leq .10$ (i.e. $p = .084$).

Table 5.23 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetypes Against Profit Margin

Profit Margin		Strategic Archetype				
		Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
Low 0-2	Count	11	5	6	6	28
	% within Archetype	22.0%	8.2%	8.3%	33.3%	13.9%
Moderate 3-5	Count	14	16	18	2	50
	% within Archetype	28.0%	26.2%	25.0%	11.1%	24.9%
Moderately-High 6-8	Count	19	24	32	6	81
	% within Archetype	38.0%	39.3%	44.4%	33.3%	40.3%
High 9-11	Count	6	16	16	4	42
	% within Archetype	12.0%	26.2%	22.2%	22.2%	20.9%
Total	Count	50	61	72	18	201
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.528	9	.084
Likelihood Ratio	14.709	9	.099
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.286	1	.257
N of Valid Cases	201		

It is interesting to note this finding offers a ranking of profitability, whereby prospectors are more likely than the other archetypes to have the

highest profit margins, followed by analysers, defenders, and reactors are more likely to have the lowest profit margins. This finding concurs with a number of studies that show prospectors outperform defenders (e.g. Andrews et al. 2006; Evans and Green 2000; Woodside et al. 1999; Hambrick 1983).

Miles and Snow (1978) assert that prospectors choose dynamic environments where they pursue innovation as a central aim. Prospectors are frequently instigators of industry change and it is through change that prospectors typically gain advantage over competitors. In essence, prospectors' success emanates from identifying and exploiting new product and market opportunities that bring them to a dominant position within a given product-market sector. Moreover, achieving a dominant position means prospectors are more likely to achieve high profit margins, as long as their innovations are well timed and appropriately targeted. However, if their timing and targeting are *off*, prospectors may also run the risk of low profitability and overextension of its resources (Miles and Snow 2003; Brien and Calantone 1994).

It is reasonable for analysers to achieve moderately-high profit margins as they typically follow prospectors into markets. Analysers improve on prospectors' innovations and only pursue innovations after their viability has been tested. As a hybrid between prospectors and defenders, it is reasonable that analysers' performance may fall some where between that of prospector and defender organisations (Dyer and Song 1997; Dvir et al. 1993). However, there are studies that show analysers to outperform prospectors, especially in situations where analysers have imitated, appropriated, and distributed the prospectors' innovations more rapidly than prospectors themselves (Slater et al. 2007).

Defenders seek to seal off a portion of the total market and work aggressively to prevent competitors from entering their product-market

domain. The defender strategy is more easily achieved in stable industries where there is relatively little technological change. However, in a more dynamic environment defenders are more likely to achieve moderate profit margins. In environments that require a more proactive approach, defenders may fall behind other strategic types (Zajac and Shortell 1989; Miles and Snow 1978). In many studies, reactors are expected to have low profit margins because of *poor fit* due to an inappropriate structure, weakly articulated strategy, and/or inadequate organisation-environment alignment (Brian and Calantone 1994; Bahee 1992).

5.9.3 Return on Investment (ROI)

The ROI cross-tabulation analysis (see Table 5.24) shows reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to have low ROI; defenders and prospectors are more likely than the other archetypes to have moderate ROI; analysers are more likely than the other archetypes to have moderately-high ROI; and prospectors are more likely than the other archetypes to have high ROI. This association between strategic archetype and profit margin is significant at the 90% level, where $p \leq .10$ (i.e. $p = .059$).

ROI is a popular metric because it is versatile and simple to calculate (i.e. benefit of an investment divided by the cost of the investment). Essentially, ROI evaluates the efficiency of an investment so as to compare it with other investment activities. A low or negative ROI may prompt organisations to select alternative investment opportunities. Defenders are normally identified by the attribute of efficiency, *but only* within a stable market environment. Hence, within a more dynamic or volatile environment, defenders are expected to achieve moderate levels of ROI, as they are "not well suited to locating and responding to new product market opportunities" (Miles and Snow 2003: 38). A dynamic market environment favours prospectors where, because of their disposition to innovation, they are more likely to achieve high levels of

ROI. Similarly, analysers being a hybrid between prospectors and defenders, it is reasonable they would achieve moderately-high levels of ROI while operating within a dynamic market environment.

Reactors are prone to responding inappropriately to environmental uncertainty and achieve low levels of ROI due to a weak alignment of organisational strategy, structure and processes. Accordingly, organisations with weak alignment or fit are expected to perform poorly (Avison et al. 2004; Venkatraman and Prescott 1990).

Table 5.24 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetypes Against ROI

Profit Margin		Strategic Archetype				
		Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
Low 0-2	Count	11	6	6	5	28
	% within Archetype	22.0%	9.7%	8.3%	29.4%	13.9%
Moderate 3-5	Count	14	18	15	3	50
	% within Archetype	28.0%	29.0%	20.8%	17.6%	24.9%
Moderately-High 6-8	Count	21	22	36	5	84
	% within Archetype	42.0%	35.5%	50.0%	29.4%	41.8%
High 9-11	Count	4	16	15	4	39
	% within Archetype	8.0%	25.8%	20.8%	23.5%	19.4%
Total	Count	50	62	72	17	201
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.640	9	.059
Likelihood Ratio	16.611	9	.055
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.741	1	.098
N of Valid Cases	201		

5.9.4 Analysis of Variance with respect to Organisational Performance

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a set of techniques for comparing means. That is, ANOVA is a way to test for significant differences among sample means when the independent variable (i.e. strategic archetype) is a set of discrete categories, and the dependent variable (i.e. performance) is usually continuous. However, ANOVA may also be used with interval

data, when there is equal distance between each number rating (e.g. 1-10%, 11-20%, 21-30%, etc. or 0-1, 2-3, 4-5, etc.) (Brace et al. 2006; Kinnear and Gray 2008). The survey questions relating to performance (i.e. Questions 27 (a-c) and 28 (a-f)), in this research, avail of intervals with equal distance between each number rating.

This between groups variance (i.e. of archetypes), as revealed through ANOVA, provides a way to test the null hypothesis. That is, if the null hypothesis is true, the differences are attributed to sampling error; whereas if the null hypothesis is rejected, the differences are real. Essentially, the analysis of variance, and the F score it yields, is a ratio of explained variance versus error (Brace et al. 2006). However, it is important to note, a large F does not convey why or how the means differ from each other (Kinnear and Gray 2008).

As shown in Table 5.25, a one-way ANOVA of means of strategic archetype (i.e. independent variable) against sales, profit margin and ROI (i.e. dependent variables), is significant for only ROI, at the 95% level, where $p \leq .05$ (i.e. $p = .040$). ROI is significant for analysers and defenders, but *not* for prospectors and reactors. The means relating to ROI, show analysers perform significantly higher than defenders (see Table 5.25), which is consistent with the cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against ROI given earlier (see Table 5.24).

As ROI is the only measure of organisational performance related to archetype, it is a more useful measure, than either sales or profit margin, in understanding strategic archetypes. ROI, also known as the rate of profit, is the ratio of money gained or lost on an investment relative to the amount of money invested. In this sense, ROI is generally a more useful measure of organisational profitability than either sales or profit margin. For example, it is not unknown for organisations to have either high sales or profit margins, and yet, be unprofitable. Whereas, a high ROI often

indicates some level of organisational profitability.

Table 5.25 One-Way ANOVA of Means
Strategic Archetype against Performance Measures

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Sales	Between Groups	28.986	3	9.662	2.055	.107
	Within Groups	926.039	197	4.701		
	Total	955.025	200			
Profit Margin	Between Groups	19.319	3	6.440	1.614	.187
	Within Groups	794.189	199	3.991		
	Total	813.507	202			
Return on Investment (ROI)	Between Groups	37.308	3	12.436	2.817	.040
	Within Groups	869.717	197	4.415		
	Total	907.025	201			

Descriptives for ROI

		N	Mean	Std	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Return on Investment (ROI)	Analyser	72	7.11	1.903	.224	6.66	7.56
	Prospector	62	6.95	2.115	.269	6.41	7.49
	Reactor	17	6.18	2.767	.671	4.75	7.60
	Defender	50	6.12	2.106	.298	5.52	6.72
	Total	201	6.74	2.130	.150	6.44	7.03

Following the one-way ANOVA, the Tukey post hoc test is typically used for pair-wise differences; that is, whether the pairs differ significantly (Kinnear and Gray 2008). It should be borne in mind that post-hoc analyses are reported as they are with unadjusted p-values. As such, these p-values should be *interpreted with caution*, as they are a small and selected subset of a larger group of p-values (Brace et al. 2006; Kinnear and Gray 2008).

Similar to the ANOVA analysis, the means relating to ROI show analysers perform significantly higher than defenders (see Table 5.26). This finding is consistent with the cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against ROI given earlier (see Table 5.24), which shows the ROI for analysers is significantly higher than defenders. The Tukey post

hoc indicates ROI is *not* significant for prospectors and reactors, which means their ROI can be the same as any of the other archetypes. Thus, the ROI for prospectors could equal that of defenders, analysers or reactors; and the ROI for reactors could equal that of defenders, analysers or prospectors. However, as mentioned earlier, these Tukey post hoc findings should be *interpreted cautiously*, as they represent a selected subset of a larger group of p-values (Kinnear and Gray 2008).

Table 5.26 Multiple Comparisons Tukey Post Hoc Test for ROI

Dependent Variable	(I) Combined	(J) Combined	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Return on Investment (ROI)	Defender	Prospector	-.832	.399	.162	-1.87	.20
		Analyser	-.991	.387	.054	-1.99	.01
		Reactor	-.056	.590	1.000	-1.58	1.47
	Prospector	Defender	.832	.399	.162	-.20	1.87
		Analyser	-.159	.364	.972	-1.10	.78
		Reactor	.775	.575	.534	-.72	2.27
	Analyser	Defender	.991	.387	.054	-.01	1.99
		Prospector	.159	.364	.972	-.78	1.10
		Reactor	.935	.567	.353	-.53	2.40
	Reactor	Defender	.056	.590	1.000	-1.47	1.58
		Prospector	-.775	.575	.534	-2.27	.72
		Analyser	-.935	.567	.353	-2.40	.53

5.10 Strategic Archetype and Relative Performance

It is not unusual for researchers to encounter problems in obtaining objective measures of organisational performance that are reliable and valid (Dess and Robinson 1984). Seeking information on relative performance may be a less intrusive way in ascertaining organisational performance, which respondents often view as sensitive information (Venkatraman and Ramanujam 1986). For example, profitability is measured by a respondent's assessment of their organisation's return on assets (ROA), in comparison to all other competitors in their organisation's served market (DeSarbo et al. 2005; Moorman 1995; Narver and Slater 1990). Similarly other measures, such as relative return

on investment and relative market share, are measured with reference to all other competitors in the organisation's served market. Such subjective assessments of performance have been shown to have a strong correlation with objective performance measurements (Moore 2005; Yeo 2003; Ritchie and Dale 2000; Narver and Slater 1990; Venkatraman and Ramanujam 1986; Pearce et al. 1987; Dess and Robinson 1984). Moreover, "subjective measures incorporating management's assessment provide an added dimension ... [of how performance] levels are related to expectations and objectives" (Shoham et al. 2002: 244).

Although the survey respondents had little difficulty in answering questions about their organisation's performance in relation to the objectives set (i.e. Questions 27 (a-c)), they found it more difficult to assess their organisation's performance in relation to other competitors (i.e. Questions 28 (a-f)). As shown in Table 5.27, between 44 and 55 respondents, representing about 20 to 25% of the sample, skipped or declined to answer questions on relative performance. Relative performance is assessed across five dimensions: relative return on investment (RROI), relative market share (RMS), relative return on assets (RROA), relative sales growth, relative customer retention, and relative major customer retention.

Table 5.27 Responses to Relative Performance Questions

Relative Performance	Respondent Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Relative Return on Investment (RROI)	160	77.3	47	22.7	207	100.0
Relative Market Share (RMS)	156	75.4	51	24.6	207	100.0
Relative Sales Growth	152	73.4	55	26.6	207	100.0
Relative Return on Assets	162	78.3	45	21.7	207	100.0
Relative Customer Retention	163	78.7	44	21.3	207	100.0
Relative Major Customer Retention	163	78.7	44	21.3	207	100.0

Respondents may have left these questions unanswered because they believe the information to be confidential, they found the question confusing, and/or they did not have the information to respond accurately (Cycyota, and Harrison 2006). For example, a respondent may find it challenging to determine their organisation's position within a competitive environment, if they do not have access to (or choose not to access) industry reports; or perhaps their organisation competes among a number of privately held enterprises, for which there is limited financial information within the public domain.

In assessing relative performance, there is no association between strategic archetype and RRMS, RROA, relative sales growth and relative major customer retention (see Table 5.28). However, there is a significant association between strategic archetype and RROI and relative customer retention (see Tables 5.29 and 5.30).

Table 5.28 Pearson Chi-Square Test of Strategic Archetypes Against Relative Performance Measures

Relative Performance	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Relative Market Share (RRMS)	6.718	9	.666
Relative Return on Assets (RROA)	7.634	9	.571
Relative Sales Growth	7.359	9	.600
Relative Major Customer Retention	1.281	9	.171

5.10.1 Relative Return on Investment (RROI)

With respect to RROI, the cross-tabulation analysis (see Table 5.29) shows reactors and defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to have low RROI; defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to have moderate RROI; prospectors and analysers are more likely than the other archetypes to have moderately-high RROI; and analysers and reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to have high RROI. This association between strategic archetype and RROI is significant at the 95% level, where $p \leq .05$ (i.e. $p = .047$). In many respects, these

findings are unsurprising, as support can be found within the literature to corroborate them (e.g. DeSarbo et al. 2005; Moore 2005; Hoque 2004). The most unexpected aspect of these findings is that reactors are likely to have high RROI. However, this finding should be *viewed with caution*, as it represents a miniscule sample; that is, only 2 out of 13 reactor organisations are likely to have high RROI.

Table 5.29 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetypes Against RROI

Relative Return on Investment (RROI)		Strategic Archetype				
		Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
Low 0-2	Count	16	9	11	5	41
	% within Archetype	40.0%	18.8%	18.6%	38.5%	25.6%
Moderate 3-5	Count	17	19	20	50	61
	% within Archetype	42.5%	39.6%	33.9%	38.5%	38.1%
Moderately-High 6-8	Count	4	17	21	1	43
	% within Archetype	10.0%	35.4%	35.6%	7.7%	26.9%
High 9-11	Count	3	3	7	2	15
	% within Archetype	7.5%	6.2%	11.9%	15.4%	9.4%
Total	Count	40	48	59	12	160
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.710	9	.047
Likelihood Ratio	18.478	9	.055
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.683	1	.098
N of Valid Cases	160		

In most environments, the distinguishing characteristic of reactors, relative to other strategic types, is that they do not have a substantive stance (Andrews et al. 2006). Hence, reactor organisations lack a coherent strategy because they "seldom [make] adjustments of any sort until forced to do so by environmental pressures" (Miles and Snow 1978: 29). In particular, within rapidly changing environments, reactors are reflexive and "will probably have no defined dominant objectives, above what may be described as survival" (Ghobadian et al. 1998: s75).

Although reactors are generally expected to achieve low performance, there are studies that show reactors to have performed well. For example, Kumari et al.'s (2006) study shows reactors' performance, with respect to market value, to fall between that of prospectors and defenders; and that reactors' performance is indistinguishable from analysers. Snow and Hrebiniak's (1980) study shows reactors, within the highly regulated environment of air transport, performed best. As reactors are not as willing as their competitors to assume risk, perhaps a highly regulated environment suits reactors where they may do much better than *just* survive (Ketchen et al. 1997).

Miles and Snow (1978) do not assert, within a given environment, there is only one successful archetype. As each environment supports "several well-aligned configurations and several poorly aligned configurations," it is possible, though not as likely, for reactors to perform well in some environments (Ketchen et al. 1997: 225). Indeed, reactors may achieve success through *sheer luck,* rather than through strategic design.

5.10.2 Relative Customer Retention

With respect to relative customer retention, the cross-tabulation analysis (see Table 5.30) shows reactors and defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to have low levels of relative customer retention; defenders and analysers are more likely than the other archetypes to have moderate levels of relative customer retention; prospectors and analysers are more likely than the other archetypes to have moderately-high levels of relative customer retention; and prospectors and reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to have high levels of relative customer retention. This association between strategic archetype and relative customer retention is significant at the 90% level, where $p \leq .10$ (i.e. $p = .060$).

Again, these findings are unsurprising in general, as support can be found within the literature to corroborate them (e.g. Lukas 1999; McDaniel and Kolari 1987). For example, Lukas (1999) finds customer emphasis to be greater among prospector and analyser organisations than in defender and reactor organisations. The most unexpected aspect is that reactors are likely to have high levels of customer retention. As mentioned earlier, although it is possible for reactors to perform well, this finding should be *interpreted cautiously*. It represents a very small sample; that is, 6 out of just 13 reactor organisations are likely to have high levels of customer retention.

Table 5.30 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetypes Against Relative Customer Retention

Relative Customer Retention		Strategic Archetype				
		Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
Low 0-2	Count	11	7	7	4	29
	% within Archetype	26.2%	14.3%	11.9%	30.8%	17.8%
Moderate 3-5	Count	15	14	20	2	51
	% within Archetype	35.7%	28.6%	33.9%	15.4%	31.3%
Moderately-High 6-8	Count	9	17	23	1	50
	% within Archetype	21.4%	34.7%	39.0%	7.7%	30.7%
High 9-11	Count	7	11	9	6	33
	% within Archetype	16.7%	22.4%	15.3%	46.2%	20.2%
Total	Count	42	49	59	13	163
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.637	9	.060
Likelihood Ratio	16.267	9	.062
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.020	1	.155
N of Valid Cases	163		

5.10.3 Analysis of Variance with respect to Relative Performance

As shown in Table 5.31, a one-way ANOVA of means of strategic archetype against the measures of relative performance (i.e. RROI, RMS, RROA, relative sales growth, relative customer retention and relative

major customer retention), is significant for only RROI, at the 95% level, where $p \leq .05$ (i.e. $p = .023$). As RROI is the only measure of organisational performance related to archetype, it is a more useful measure in understanding strategic archetypes than any of the other measures of relative performance.

Table 5.31 One-Way Anova of Means
Strategic Archetype against Relative Performance Measures

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Relative Return on Investment (RROI)	Between Groups	71.649	3	23.883	3.265	.023
	Within Groups	1214.351	166	7.315		
	Total	1286.000	169			
Relative Market Share (RMS)	Between Groups	42.432	3	14.144	1.823	.145
	Within Groups	1272.687	164	7.760		
	Total	1315.119	167			
Relative Return on Assets (RRoA)	Between Groups	48.131	3	16.044	1.993	.117
	Within Groups	1287.747	160	8.048		
	Total	1335.878	163			
Relative Sales Growth	Between Groups	17.711	3	5.904	.721	.541
	Within Groups	1360.177	166	8.194		
	Total	1377.888	169			
Relative Customer Retention	Between Groups	32.047	3	10.682	1.352	.260
	Within Groups	1312.047	166	7.904		
	Total	1344.094	169			
Relative Major Customer Retention	Between Groups	25.531	3	8.510	1.054	.370
	Within Groups	1348.024	167	8.072		
	Total	1373.556	170			

Descriptives for RROI

		N	Mean	Std	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Lower Bound
Relative Return on Investment (RROI)	Analyser	61	5.64	5.696	.345	4.95	6.33
	Prospector	52	5.19	2.650	.367	4.45	5.93
	Reactor	13	4.54	3.045	.844	2.70	6.38
	Defender	44	4.02	2.681	.404	3.21	4.84
	Total	170	5.00	2.759	.212	4.58	5.42

The means relating to RROI show analysers perform significantly higher

than defenders (see Table 5.31). This finding is consistent with the RROI cross-tabulation analysis given earlier (see Table 5.30), which shows the RROI for analysers is significantly higher than defenders.

The Tukey post hoc analysis (see Table 5.32) indicates RROI is *not* significant for prospectors and reactors, which means their RROI can be the same as any of the other archetypes. These findings relating to RROI are virtually identical to the ANOVA and Tukey pos-hoc tests for ROI (see Tables 5.25 and 5.26). Still, Tukey post hoc findings should be *interpreted cautiously*, as they represent a selected subset of a larger group of p-values (Kinnear and Gray 2008).

Table 5.32 Multiple Comparisons Tukey Post Hoc Test for RROI

Dependent Variable	(I) Combined	(J) Combined	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Relative Return on Investment (ROI)	**Defender**	Prospector	-1.170	.554	.154	-2.61	.27
		Analyser	-1.617	.535	.015	-3.00	-.23
		Reactor	-.516	.854	.931	-2.73	1.70
	Prospector	Defender	1.170	.554	.154	-.27	2.61
		Analyser	-.447	.510	.817	-1.77	.88
		Reactor	.654	.839	.864	-1.52	2.83
	Analyser	Defender	1.617	.535	.015	.23	3.00
		Prospector	.447	.510	.817	-.88	1.77
		Reactor	1.101	.826	.544	-1.04	3.25
	Reactor	Defender	.516	.854	.931	-1.70	2.73
		Prospector	-.654	.839	.864	-2.83	1.52
		Analyser	-1.101	.826	.544	-3.25	1.04

5.11 Performance and Miles and Snow's Typology

Aspects of organisational performance have been frequently used in evaluating the impact of business strategy based on Miles and Snow's typology. "The general argument is that the specific strategies of firms within each strategic type could affect performance; it is the variation in these strategies that cause performance to vary" (Shoham et al. 2002: 242). It should be noted, the link between strategic archetype and

performance is not as straightforward as the typology suggests (Zahra and Pearce 1990). Reviews of various studies employing the Miles and Snow's (1978) typology show there are contradictory findings relating to performance. Nevertheless, among the numerous studies, there is stronger support for prospectors, analysers and defenders outperforming reactors (Andrews et al. 2006; Zahra and Pearce 1990).

As this study avails of three measures of performance, it is an improvement over Conant et al. (1990), which availed of only one dimension of performance, namely profitability. Thus, the examination of strategic archetypes from multiple dimensions of performance is considered to be more robust (Santos et al. 2002; Venkatraman and Prescott 1990). The cross-tabulations relating to sales, profit margin and ROI show prospectors, analysers and defenders have higher levels of performance than reactors. These findings concur with Miles and Snow's (1978) assertion that prospectors, analysers and defenders may be successful if their organisational strategy is appropriate for the competitive environment and deploy appropriate capabilities, as well as that reactors are less successful than the other strategic archetypes due to their poor strategy-structure fit. These findings support the second research hypothesis:

> *H2: 'Good' strategy-structure fit, which emerges through the configuration, leads to superior organisational performance of prospectors, analysers, and defenders over reactors.*

The one-way ANOVA of means of strategic archetype against measures of organisational performance is significant for only ROI. Thus, ROI is a more useful measure, than either sales or profit margin, in understanding strategic archetypes. The Tukey post hoc test shows analysers perform significantly higher than defenders, which is consistent with the ROI cross-tabulation analysis. As the Tukey post hoc indicates the ROI is *not* significant for prospectors and reactors, it means their ROI can equal any

one of the other archetype's ROI. These findings are replicated in the one-way Anova and Tukey post hoc for RROI. Bearing in mind that post-hoc analyses should be *interpreted cautiously*, these findings *partially* support the second research hypothesis.

5.12 Summary of Findings Relating to Strategic Archetypes

At this point in the analyses, it is useful to summarise the main findings in relation to strategic archetypes. With respect to respondents' attributes, none are associated with archetype. Moreover, there is no relationship between an organisation's product-market and archetype.

5.12.1 Organisation's Length of Establishment

Regarding an organisation's length of establishment, there are *tentative indications* a life cycle pattern may be associated with strategic archetype (see Table 5.16). That is, prospectors, perhaps because of their pioneering tendencies, are more likely to be *young* firms; while defenders, perhaps because of their more risk-averse stance, are more likely to be *mature* firms; and analysers perhaps because of their dual nature are more likely to fall between. Miles and Snow (1978) make no specific assertion as to whether any of the strategic archetypes are more likely to be *young* or *old* organisations. However, the notion of an association between strategic archetype and life cycle patterns has been explored before (Smith et al. 1986), but without success (O'Reagan and Ghobadian 2006; Ghosh et al. 2001; Gimenez 2000; Smith et al. 1989).

5.12.2 Organisation's Legal Entity, Employment Level, and Levels of Sales and Marketing Staff

There is an association (see Table 5.17) between legal entity and strategic archetype, where reactors are more likely to be a partnership; prospectors are more likely a corporation; analysers are more likely to be a limited liability company; and defenders are more likely to be a co-operative, non-profit, or semi-state organisation.

With respect to an organisation's employment level there is no direct association. However, there is a significant association between strategic archetype, organisations' length of establishment, and the number of employees (see Table 5.18). Regardless of organisational size, prospectors are more likely to be *young*. While, defenders are more likely to be either *middle-aged*, medium sized organisations or *mature,* small and large organisations. Analysers are more likely to be either *young*, large organisations or *middle-aged*, small and medium-sized organisations. And reactors are more likely to be *young,* small organisations or *middle-aged,* medium-sized and large organisations. However, these findings should be viewed with *caution*, as is often the case in multi-layered cross tabulations, some of the cells have a very low count (i.e. less than 5).

Although there is no association between strategic archetype and an organisation's level of sales staff, there is an association with the level of marketing staff (see Table 5.20). Reactors are more likely to employ 2 marketers or less; defenders are more likely to employ 3 to 9 marketers; and prospectors and analysers are more likely to employ 10 or more marketers.

5.12.3 Organisation's Performance

The cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against each of the performance measures (i.e. sales, profit margin and ROI) proved to be significant. Regardless of the measure, reactors are more likely to have low levels of performance (see Tables 5.22, 5.23 and 5.24). Analysers are more likely to have either *moderate* or *high* sales performance, as well as *moderately-high* profit margin and ROI. Defenders are more likely to have either *moderate* or *moderately-high* sales performance, as well as *moderate* profit margin and ROI. While prospectors are more likely to have either *moderate* or *high* sales and ROI performance, as well as *high*

profit margin. Among the strategic archetypes, these findings broadly suggest reactors are the least successful and prospectors are the most successful.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) with respect to each of the three measures of performance and strategic type, proved significant only for ROI (see Table 5.25). Moreover, ROI is significant for analysers and defenders, but *not* for prospectors and reactors. The means relating to ROI, show analysers perform significantly higher than defenders, which is consistent with the cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against ROI given in Table 5.24.

5.12.4 Organisation's Relative Performance

The analysis in relation to measures of relative performance shows there is no association between strategic archetype and RRMS, RROA, relative sales growth and relative major customer retention (see Table 5.28). However, there is a significant association between strategic archetype and RROI and relative customer retention.

With respect to RROI, the cross-tabulation analysis (see Table 5.29) shows reactors and defenders are more likely to have low RROI; defenders are more likely to have moderate RROI; prospectors and analysers are more likely to have moderately-high RROI; and analysers and reactors are more likely to have high RROI. The most unexpected aspect of these findings is that reactors are likely to have high RROI. However, this finding should be *viewed with caution*, as it represents a miniscule sample; that is, only 2 out of 13 reactor organisations are likely to have high RROI. Although reactors are generally expected to achieve low performance, there are studies that show reactors to have performed well (e.g. Kumari et al.'s 2006; Snow and Hrebiniak's 1980).

With respect to relative customer retention, the cross-tabulation analysis (see Table 5.30) shows reactors and defenders are more likely to have low levels of relative customer retention; defenders and analysers are more likely to have moderate levels of relative customer retention; prospectors and analysers are more likely to have moderately-high levels of relative customer retention; and prospectors and reactors are more likely to have high levels of relative customer retention. Again, the most unexpected aspect is that reactors are likely to have high levels of customer retention. As mentioned earlier, although it is not likely, it is possible for reactors to perform well. Moreover, this finding should be *interpreted with caution* as it represents a very small sample (i.e. 6 out of just 13 reactor organisations).

5.13 Classification of Marketing Practices

Respondents were asked a series of questions (i.e. Questions 19 to 26), relating to how their organisation practices marketing with respect to their main customers; that is, those customers who are the focus of their organisation's marketing activities. The questions, theoretically anchored in Coviello et al.'s (1997) original conceptualisation of the four forms of marketing practice (i.e. transaction, database, interactive and network), followed a majority-rule basis. Hence, the response option selected most often, whether transaction, database, interactive or network marketing, determined an organisation's marketing practice. Table 5.33 provides the classification of respondents' organisations by marketing practice. Although, it would be interesting learn about organisations' hybrid forms of marketing practice (e.g. transaction-database or database-interactive, database-transaction-network etc.), availing of 14 categories, which would to represent every possible combination of marketing practice, would be less useful for analysis as the number within each cell would be very low.

Table 5.33 Classification of Contemporary Marketing Practice

Marketing Practice	Coviello et al.	
	Frequency	Percent
Transaction (TM)	68	32.9%
Database (DM)	54	26.1%
Interactive (IM)	59	28.5%
Network (NM)	26	12.5%
Total	**207**	**100.0%**

It is interesting to note in the comparison of means (see Table 5.34), that organisations classified as availing of transaction marketing practices, selected responses related to the transaction perspective just *over* half of the time (i.e. 4.67 times out of the 8 questions). The same is true of those organisations classified as availing of interactive (i.e. 4.17 times out of the 8 questions) and network marketing practices (i.e. 4.46 times out of the 8 questions). While those organisations classified as availing of database marketing practices selected responses related to the database perspective just *under* half of the time (i.e. 3.13 times out of the 8 questions).

Overall, organisations identified with responses relating to their marketing practice classification *about* half of the time, which suggests the classification of marketing practice is *more fluid* than the typology of strategic archetypes. That is, the differences among marketing practices are *less discrete* and are not necessarily mutually exclusive. This finding is consistent with Coviello et al.'s (1997) perspective on contemporary marketing practices (CMP), as they believe organisations employ a combination of marketing practices, as marketing managers are "comfortable with multiple (and parallel) marketing practices" (Brodie et al. 2008: 84). The aspect of fluidity within marketing practice may be an interesting avenue for further research.

Table 5.34 Comparison of Means within Marketing Practice

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Transaction Marketing	TM	68	4.6765	1.12557	.13650	4.4040	4.9489
	DB	54	2.2407	1.09777	.14939	1.9411	2.5404
	IM	59	1.2712	.88728	.11551	1.0400	1.5024
	NM	26	.6538	.84580	.16588	.3122	.9955
	Total	207	2.5652	1.86286	.12948	2.3099	2.8205
Database Marketing	TM	68	1.7059	.81146	.09840	1.5095	1.9023
	DB	54	3.1296	1.42810	.19434	2.7398	3.5194
	IM	59	1.5254	.91644	.11931	1.2866	1.7642
	NM	26	1.3077	.88405	.17338	.9506	1.6648
	Total	207	1.9758	1.24806	.08675	1.8048	2.1469
Interactive Marketing	TM	68	1.0588	.82647	.10022	.8588	1.2589
	DB	54	1.8704	.99140	.13491	1.5998	2.1410
	IM	59	4.1695	1.26153	.16424	3.8407	4.4982
	NM	26	1.5769	1.02657	.20133	1.1623	1.9916
	Total	207	2.2222	1.63365	.11355	1.9984	2.4461
Network Marketing	TM	68	.5588	.76064	.09224	.3747	.7429
	DB	54	.7593	.86734	.11803	.5225	.9960
	IM	59	1.0339	.96430	.12554	.7826	1.2852
	NM	26	4.4615	1.10384	.21648	4.0157	4.9074
	Total	207	1.2367	1.52551	.10603	1.0277	1.4458

TM = transaction marketing; **DB** = database marketing; **IM** = interactive marketing; **NM** = network marketing

This comfort with multiple perspectives among marketing managers led Coviello et al. (1997) to develop a classification scheme of marketing practices that balances theoretical arguments with evidence of managerial practice (Brodie et al. 2008). As the CMP classification scheme embraces a multi-theoretical approach, the authors view it as a comprehensive taxonomy, encompassing a range of marketing practices (Brodie et al. 2008). As such, the CMP scheme more accurately reflects points along a framework of marketing practice, rather than distinct, mutually exclusive categories of marketing practice.

The successful classification of the data into the four marketing practice approaches supports the third research hypothesis:

H3: Marketing practices may be observed and broadly conform to Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices scheme of transaction, database, interactive and network marketing.

5.14 Marketing Practice and Respondents' Attributes

A cross-tabulation analysis of marketing practice against respondents' attributes shows there is no association with respect to association membership, gender, age, educational level, length of employment, and position within the organisation (see Table 5.35). Even when availing of various permutations with respect of age, education, employment length, and position, there is still no association between marketing practice and respondents' attributes. These findings are similar to the cross-tabulations for strategic archetype against respondents' attributes (see Table 5.14). Together, these findings suggest respondent attributes have no relationship with either strategic archetype or marketing practice.

Table 5.35 Pearson Chi-Square Test of Marketing Practice Against Respondents' Attributes

Respondent Attribute	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Association Membership	7.481	9	.587
Gender	.422	3	.936
Age	6.697	6	.350
Educational Level	4.763	6	.575
Length of Employment	5.080	6	.534
Position	1.737	12	.136

5.15 Marketing Practice and Organisations' Attributes

Cross-tabulations of marketing practice against various organisations' attributes show there is no association with respect to legal entity, employment level, and levels of sales and marketing staff (see Table 5.36). However, there is a significant association with respect to how long the organisation has been established and the product-market served.

Table 5.36 Pearson Chi-Square Test of Marketing Practice Against Organisations' Attributes

Organisational Attribute	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Legal Entity	8.205	9	.514
Employment Level	3.904	3	.272
Level of Sales Staff	7.868	9	.548
Level of Marketing Staff	6.503	6	.369

5.15.1 Length of Establishment

The length of time an organisation is established (see Table 5.37), is associated with marketing practice, as it is significant at the 90% level, where p is $\leq .10$ (i.e. $p = .078$). The cross-tabulation analysis shows organisations availing of interactive and network marketing practices are more likely than the other forms of marketing practice to be *young* (i.e. established for 13 years or less); organisations availing of network and transaction marketing practices are more likely than the other forms of marketing practice to be *middle-aged* (i.e. established between 14 and 37 years); organisations availing of database marketing practices are more likely than the other forms of marketing practice to be *mature* (i.e. established for 38 years or more).

In studies availing of Coviello et al.'s (1997) CMP scheme, the length of time an organisation has been established has not been a focus, except in Coviello et al. (2000). In this study, the authors (Coviello et al. 2000) examine smaller firm practices in comparison with those of larger firms. The findings of this study show smaller firms have a more informal approach to market planning and use fewer measures of performance than larger firms (Coviello et al. 2000). As well, the study establishes that both types of firms simultaneously practice transactional and relational forms of marketing practices, reflecting "the more contemporary relational marketing paradigm" (Coviello et al. 2000: 524).

In some studies availing of Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practice scheme, it is asserted organisations that use information technology (IT) more intensively, are more likely to employ more relational forms of marketing practices (i.e. network and interactive), and it is implied that many of these firms *may* be younger (Brady 2003; Coviello et al. 2001). While those organisations which use information technology less intensively, are more likely to employ more transactional forms of marketing practices (i.e. transaction and database), and it is implied that many of these firms *may* be older (Brady 2003; Coviello et al. 2001). However, support within the literature for this implicit notion is, at best, tenuous.

Table 5.37 Cross-Tabulation of Marketing Practice Against Organisations' Length of Establishment

Length of Establishment		Strategic Archetype				
		Transaction	Database	Interactive	Network	Total
13 years or less	Count	24	15	23	10	72
	% within Archetype	35.3%	27.8%	39.0%	38.5%	34.8%
14-37 years	Count	24	11	20	10	65
	% within Archetype	35.3%	20.4%	33.9%	38.5%	31.4%
38 years or more	Count	20	28	16	6	70
	% within Archetype	29.4%	51.9%	27.1%	23.1%	33.8%
Total	Count	68	54	59	26	207
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.137	6	.078
Likelihood Ratio	11.123	6	.085
Linear-by-Linear Association	.732	1	.392
N of Valid Cases	207		

5.15.2 Product-Market

The product-market organisations serve (see Table 5.38), is associated with marketing practice, as it is significant at the 99% level, where p is ≤ .01 (i.e. p = .001). The cross-tabulation analysis shows organisations availing of transaction marketing practices are more likely than the other

marketing practice types to be in involved with consumer packaged goods, consumer durable goods, and consumer services; organisations availing of database marketing practices are more likely than the other marketing practice types to be involved with business to business supply goods and business to business durable goods; while, organisations availing of interactive and network marketing practices are more likely than the other marketing practice types to be involved with business to business services.

Table 5.38 Cross-Tabulation of Marketing Practice Against Organisations' Product-Market

Product-Market		Strategic Archetype				
		Transaction	Database	Interactive	Network	Total
Consumer Packaged Goods	Count	19	8	10	2	39
	% within Archetype	27.9%	14.8%	16.9%	7.7%	18.8%
Consumer Durable Goods	Count	6	4	0	0	10
	% within Archetype	8.8%	7.4%	.0%	.0%	4.8%
Consumer Services	Count	24	14	7	7	52
	% within Archetype	35.3%	25.9%	11.9%	26.9%	25.1%
B2B Supply Goods	Count	3	6	3	1	13
	% within Archetype	4.4%	11.1%	5.1%	3.8%	6.3%
B2B Durable Goods	Count	2	3	2	1	8
	% within Archetype	2.9%	5.6%	3.4%	3.8%	3.9%
B2B Services	Count	14	19	37	15	85
	% within Archetype	20.6%	35.2%	62.7%	57.7%	41.1%
Total	Count	68	54	59	26	207
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.858	15	.001
Likelihood Ratio	43.117	15	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	23.097	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	207		

These findings suggest consumer goods and services are marketed by availing of transactional forms of marketing practice. While business-to-business services are marketed by availing of relational forms of marketing practice and business-to-business goods through transactional forms of marketing practice. These dichotomies between consumer and business customers, as well as goods and services, have been a key consideration within the literature (e.g. Lovelock and Gummesson 2004; Hakansson and Snehota 1995; Gronroos 1990). Coviello et al. (1997) recognise there is a body of literature to suggest the marketing of consumer goods and services differs significantly from the marketing of business-to-business goods and services. These points are discussed further in sections: *5.15.3 Product Type* and *5.15.4 Customer Type.*

5.15.3 Product Type

Coviello et al. (1997: 503) acknowledge arguments within the literature that "certain types of marketing are appropriate to consumer goods companies." While Gronroos, (1990) among others (e.g. Lovelock and Gummesson 2004; Low 1996; Hakansson and Snehota 1995; Berry 1995; Berry and Parasuraman 1993; Wedell and Kress 1992; Bell 1986; Magrath 1986), argue the traditional notion of the marketing mix (i.e. transaction marketing) is not well suited to the service industries as well as industrial goods and equipment. Coviello et al. (1997) recognise relational forms of marketing practice are typically attributed to industrial and service firms. However, they believe such a dichotomy does not fully address the multiplicity of marketing practices found among firms (Coviello et al. 2001; Brodie et al. 2008).

At the aggregate level, this research finds support for the goods/services divide, as marketing practice is significantly associated with product type at the 95% level, where p is $\leq .05$ (i.e. $p = .022$). The cross-tabulation analysis of marketing practice against product type (see Table 5.39), shows organisations availing of transaction and database marketing

practices are more likely than the other marketing practice types to be involved with goods; while organisations availing of interactive and network marketing practice are more likely than the other marketing practice types to be involved with services.

Table 5.39 Cross-Tabulation of Marketing Practice Against Organisations' Product-Market – Product Type

Product Type		Strategic Archetype				
		Transaction	Database	Interactive	Network	Total
Goods	Count	30	21	15	4	70
	% within Archetype	44.1%	38.9%	25.4%	15.4%	33.8%
Services	Count	38	33	44	22	137
	% within Archetype	55.9%	61.1%	74.6%	84.6%	66.2%
Total	Count	68	54	59	26	207
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.648	3	.022
Likelihood Ratio	10.162	3	.017
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.291	1	.002
N of Valid Cases	207		

5.15.4 Customer Type

Coviello and Brodie (2001: 395) hypothesise "that consumer firms would be more likely to practice transaction ... [and] database marketing, while B2B firms would be more likely to practice interaction and network marketing." However, they find mixed support for their hypotheses; while, they acknowledge, "marketing appears to be more relational in B2B firms and more transactional in consumer firms," they find important similarities between them (Coviello and Brodie 2001: 395). For example, B2B and consumer organisations avail of forms of transaction marketing to attract customers, and they avail of forms of database marketing to enhance customer relationships (Coviello and Brodie 2001). As well, B2B and consumer organisations avail of forms of interactive marketing to develop and manage customer relationships, and they avail of forms of

network marketing to position the organisation in a wider set of market relationships (Coviello and Brodie 2001). In these respects, Coviello and Brodie (2001: 395) find it "unreasonable to argue that marketing practices are fundamentally different across consumer and B2B firms."

This research, on the other hand, largely supports the consumer/B2B divide. Marketing practice is significantly associated with the type of customer at the 99% level, where p is $\leq .01$ (i.e. $p = .000$). Examining the cross-tabulation analysis of marketing practice against customer type (see Table 5.40), shows organisations availing of transaction marketing practices are more likely than the other marketing practice types to be serving consumers; while organisations availing of interactive and network marketing practices are more likely than the other marketing practice types to be serving business customers. The exception is that organisations availing of database marketing practices are as likely to serve consumers as business customers.

Table 5.40 Cross-Tabulation of Marketing Practice Against Organisations' Product-Market – Customer Type

Type of Customer		Strategic Archetype				
		Transaction	Database	Interactive	Network	Total
Consumers	Count	49	26	17	9	101
	% within Archetype	72.1%	48.1%	28.8%	34.6%	48.8%
Business	Count	19	28	42	17	106
	% within Archetype	27.9%	51.9%	71.2%	65.4%	51.2%
Total	Count	68	54	59	26	207
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.626	3	.000
Likelihood Ratio	27.093	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	21.947	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	207		

It is worthy to note, among their earlier developments of the CMP

classification scheme, database marketing is considered a *low-form* of relational marketing, as there is personalised contact with customers via a database or the internet (e.g. Coviello et al. 1997; Coviello and Brodie 1998). In later developments of the CMP classification scheme, database marketing is considered a form of transactional marketing; although there is some form of personalised contact, the customer relationship is considered discrete and distant (e.g. Coviello et al. 2001: 387; Brodie et al. 2008). That is, in database marketing the organisation's contact is "*to* a targeted segment", rather than interactive marketing's interpersonal dialogue *with* customers (Coviello et al. 2001). The distinction is made between transactional and relational marketing by asserting transactional forms of marketing are performed *to* the customer, while relational forms of marketing are performed *with* the customer (Coviello et al. 2001).

These findings with respect to forms of marketing practice and organisations' product-market, support the fourth research hypothesis, and largely support the fifth research hypothesis:

> *H4: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices, namely interactive and network marketing, are primarily associated with services; while transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing, are primarily associated with goods.*

> *H5: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices, namely interactive and network marketing, are primarily associated with business customers; while transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing, are primarily associated with consumers.*

5.16 Marketing Practice, Performance and Relative Performance

The cross-tabulation analysis of marketing practice against each of the performance measures (i.e. sales, profit margin and ROI), proved to be insignificant (see Table 5.41). Similarly, the cross-tabulation analysis of marketing practice against each of the relative performance measures (i.e. RROI, RMS, RROA, sales growth, customer retention and major customer retention) also proved to be insignificant (see Table 5.42). That is, there is no association between classifications of marketing practice and measures of performance and relative performance. These findings suggest *any* of the forms of marketing practice may be *equally* successful.

Table 5.41Pearson Chi-Square Tests of Marketing Practices Against Performance Measures

Performance Measures	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Sales	5.220	9	.815
Profit Margin	1.077	9	.292
Return on Investment (ROI)	1.167	9	.232

Table 5.42 Pearson Chi-Square Tests of Marketing Practices Against Relative Performance Measures

Relative Performance Measures	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Relative Return on Investment (RROI)	1.226	9	.199
Relative Market Share (RRMS)	6.371	9	.702
Relative Return on Assets (RROA)	9.230	9	.416
Relative Sales Growth	9.501	9	.392
Relative Customer Retention	1.239	9	.192
Relative Major Customer Retention	8.514	9	.483

It is worthy to note, two recent studies find there is a significant association between forms of marketing practice and performance (Brodie et al. 2008). The first, Coviello et al.'s (2006) study on small service organisations, within the Canadian tourism accommodation sector (i.e. Canadian provinces of British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba), finds transactional and interactive marketing are associated with customer acquisition and sales growth. The study also finds it is

success with customer acquisition, rather than customer retention, that leads to profitability for firms (Brodie et al. 2008).

Hence, this research should find a positive association between marketing practice, consumer services (i.e. product market), small organisations (i.e. level of employees of 30 persons or less) and measures of performance. However, the cross-tabulation analysis still shows there is no association (see Table 5.43). It should be noted, with a multi-layered cross tabulation of this kind, the counts within many of the cells are extremely small; that is, within the data set there are less than 20 small, consumer service organisations. In this respect, the findings should be viewed with particular *caution*.

Table 5.43 Pearson Chi-Square Tests of Marketing Practices Against Product-Market, Level of Employees, and All Performance Measures

Relative Performance Measures for Small Organisations	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Sales	2.194	15	.109
Profit Margin	2.952	21	.102
Return on Investment (ROI)	3.494	18	.112
Relative Return on Investment (RROI)	9.625	10	.474
Relative Market Share (RRMS)	1.500	14	.378
Relative Return on Assets (RROA)	1.150	14	.646
Relative Sales Growth	2.025	14	.122
Relative Customer Retention	7.500	14	.914
Relative Major Customer Retention	7.500	12	.823

The second study examining marketing practice and performance (Brodie et al. 2007) encompass a broad section of industries drawn from executive MBAs studying in the US (i.e. collected in 2002) and middle managers within US firms (i.e. collected in 2005). This study finds e-marketing (i.e. located between database and interactive marketing on the scheme of contemporary marketing practices), "to be positively associated with improved acquisition performance, which in turn, influences retention performance. Additional results also suggest that the implementation of e-

marketing increases the effectiveness and efficiency of [database marketing] and [network marketing] practices" (Brodie et al. 2008: 87-88). In contrast, this research does *not* reveal any association between any of the forms of marketing practice and performance, and thus, cannot support Brodie et al.'s (2007) assertion.

Granted, finding an association between forms of marketing practice and performance measures would be constructive in the inquiry of organisations' strategic behaviour. The investigations in relation to the association between marketing practice and performance are relatively new, and, as noted by Brodie et al. (2008: 88), "further work linking practices with performance is required." As organisations simultaneously avail of more than one type of marketing practice to achieve their objectives (Coviello et al. 1997), it may be the case that an association between marketing practice and performance may be more challenging to establish.

The lack of association found in this research is perhaps due to the fluid nature of the contemporary marketing practice (CMP) scheme, and a more granular perspective is required, so as to more clearly divine the relationship between marketing practice and organisational performance. That is, in developing the classifications of contemporary marketing practice "distinct boundaries were not drawn between each aspect of marketing, nor was each aspect implied to be independent and mutually exclusive" (Brodie et al. 2008: 85). The CMP classification scheme avails of a multi-theoretical approach so as "to identify, recognise and categorise the fullest possible range of relevant empirical phenomena" (Brodie et al. 2008: 85).

Nevertheless, as it stands, the findings from this research do *not* support the sixth research hypothesis:

H6: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices,

namely interactive and network marketing, are associated with higher organisational performance than transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing.

5.17 Marketing Practice and Strategic Archetype

The cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against marketing practice proved to be insignificant (i.e. p = .789). Moreover, a cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against each of the eight survey questions relating to marketing practice (i.e. Questions 19 to 26) shows most of the questions did not have an association with strategic archetype (see Table 5.44). However, there is an association with respect to Question 26, which asks respondents to identify the statement that *best* describes the nature of their organisation's relationship with customers (i.e. discrete, no personalised contact; some future personalised contact; ongoing personal contact; and ongoing personal contact within a wider market system). Thus, there is a significant association between strategic archetype and the nature of organisations' relationship with customers (see Table 5.45), at the 90% level, where p is $\leq .10$ (i.e. p = .085).

Table 5.44 Pearson Chi-Square Tests of Strategic Archetype Against Survey Questions Relating to Marketing Practices

Marketing Practice Questions	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Q.19 Managerial Intent	1.217	9	.204
Q.20 Managerial Focus	1.078	9	.291
Q.21 Managerial Investment	1.109	9	.270
Q.22 Managerial Level Responsible	7.279	9	.608
Q.23 Purpose in Exchange	6.268	9	.713
Q.24 Nature of Communication	9.485	9	.394
Q.25 Type of Contact	3.034	6	.805
Q.26 Nature of Relationship with Customers	1.524	9	.085

The cross-tabulation analysis in Table 5.45 shows reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to avail of transaction marketing practices; defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to avail of database

marketing practices; prospectors are more likely than the other archetypes to avail of interactive marketing practices; and analysers are more likely than the other archetypes to avail of network marketing practices.

Table 5.45 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetype Against Nature of Customer Relationship

Nature of Customer Relationship		Strategic Archetype				
		Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
Transaction Discrete, no personalised contact	Count	2	3	4	1	10
	% within Archetype	3.9%	4.7%	5.4%	5.6%	4.8%
Database Some future personalised contact	Count	14	4	8	1	27
	% within Archetype	27.5%	6.2%	10.8%	5.6%	13.0%
Interactive Ongoing personalised contact	Count	27	38	39	10	114
	% within Archetype	52.9%	59.4%	52.7%	55.6%	55.1%
Network Ongoing personalised contact within network	Count	8	19	23	6	56
	% within Archetype	15.7%	29.7%	31.1%	33.3%	27.1%
Total	Count	51	64	74	18	207
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.524	9	.085
Likelihood Ratio	5.341	9	.804
Linear-by-Linear Association	.489	1	.484
N of Valid Cases	207		

Examining the means of strategic archetype within marketing practice allows for further analysis of the association between the two classification schemes (see Tables 5.46). The comparison of means shows defenders have significantly more answers within database marketing, while prospectors have significantly less answers within database marketing. This finding suggests defenders are more likely to avail of database marketing. As well, prospectors have significantly more answers within interactive marketing, while analysers have significantly less answers within interactive marketing. This finding suggests prospectors are more likely to avail of interactive marketing. All other groups show

no significant differences.

Table 5.46 Comparison of Means within Marketing Practice and Strategic Archetype

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Transaction Marketing	D	51	2.5098	1.80413	.25263	2.0024	3.0172
	P	64	2.5312	1.90212	.23776	2.0561	3.0064
	A	74	2.6757	1.79121	.20822	2.2607	3.0907
	R	18	2.3889	2.27877	.53711	1.2557	3.5221
	Total	207	2.5652	1.86286	.12948	2.3099	2.8205
Database Marketing	D	51	2.3137	1.48983	.20862	1.8947	2.7327
	P	64	1.6562	1.11581	.13948	1.3775	1.9350
	A	74	2.1081	1.06716	.12406	1.8609	2.3553
	R	18	1.6111	1.37793	.32478	.9259	2.2963
	Total	207	1.9758	1.24806	.08675	1.8048	2.1469
Interactive Marketing	D	51	2.1373	1.82230	.25517	1.6247	2.6498
	P	64	2.5938	1.75227	.21903	2.1560	3.0315
	A	74	1.8919	1.38057	.16049	1.5720	2.2117
	R	18	2.5000	1.38267	.32590	1.8124	3.1876
	Total	207	2.2222	1.63365	.11355	1.9984	2.4461
Network Marketing	D	51	1.0588	1.44792	.20275	.6516	1.4661
	P	64	1.2031	1.44946	.18118	.8411	1.5652
	A	74	1.3243	1.60571	.18666	.9523	1.6963
	R	18	1.5000	1.72354	.40624	.6429	2.3571
	Total	207	1.2367	1.52551	.10603	1.0277	1.4458

D = defender; **P** = prospector; **A** = analyser; **R** = reactor

These significant differences are confirmed by the one-way ANOVA analysis (see Table 5.47), which shows there is a significant difference between defenders and prospectors within database marketing; that is defenders are more likely to avail of database marketing than prospectors. This significance is at the 95% level, where $p \leq .05$ (i.e. $p = .015$). As well, there is a significant difference between prospectors and analysers within interactive marketing; that is, prospectors are more likely to avail of interactive marketing than analysers. This significance is at the 90% level, where $p \leq .10$ (i.e. $p = .071$). These findings are consistent with the

cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against the nature of customer relationship (see Table 5.45), which shows defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to avail of database marketing practices and prospectors are more likely than the other archetypes to avail of interactive marketing practices.

Table 5.47 One-Way Anova of Means
Marketing Practice against Strategic Archetype

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Transaction Marketing	Between Groups	1.693	3	.564	.161	.923
	Within Groups	713.177	203	3.513		
	Total	714.870	206			
Database Marketing	Between Groups	16.048	3	5.349	3.562	.015
	Within Groups	304.831	203	1.502		
	Total	320.879	206			
Interactive Marketing	Between Groups	18.666	3	6.222	2.378	.071
	Within Groups	531.112	203	2.616		
	Total	549.778	206			
Network Marketing	Between Groups	3.502	3	1.167	.498	.684
	Within Groups	475.899	203	2.344		
	Total	479.401	206			

Following the one-way ANOVA, the Tukey post hoc test for pair-wise differences, further confirms there is a significant difference between defenders and prospectors within database marketing, at the 95% level, where $p \leq .05$ (i.e. $p = .024$). As well, there is a significant difference between prospectors and analysers within interactive marketing at the 90% level, where $p \leq .10$ (i.e. $p = .057$). However, Tukey post hoc findings should be *interpreted with care*, as they represent a selected subset of a larger group of p-values.

Table 5.48 Multiple Comparisons Tukey Post Hoc Test for Marketing Practice and Strategic Archetype

Dependent Variable	(I) Combined	(J) Combined	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Database Marketing	**Defender**	Prospector	.65748	.23001	.024	.0616	1.2533
		Analyser	.20562	.22302	.793	-.3721	.7833
		Reactor	.70261	.33596	.159	-.1677	1.5729
	Prospector	Defender	-.65748	.23001	.024	-1.2533	-.0616
		Analyser	-.45186	.20918	.138	-.9937	.0900
		Reactor	.04514	.32694	.999	-.8018	.8920
	Analyser	Defender	-.20562	.22302	.793	-.7833	.3721
		Prospector	.45186	.20918	.138	-.0900	.9937
		Reactor	.49700	.32205	.414	-.3373	1.3312
	Reactor	Defender	-.70261	.33596	.159	-1.5729	.1677
		Prospector	-.04514	.32694	.999	-.8920	.8018
		Analyser	-.49700	.32205	.414	-1.3312	.3373
Interactive Marketing	**Defender**	Prospector	-.45650	.30361	.437	-1.2430	.3300
		Analyser	.24536	.29437	.838	-.5172	1.0079
		Reactor	-.36275	.44345	.846	-1.5115	.7860
	Prospector	Defender	.45650	.30361	.437	-.3300	1.2430
		Analyser	.70186	.27611	.057	-.0134	1.4171
		Reactor	.09375	.43154	.996	-1.0241	1.2116
	Analyser	Defender	-.24536	.29437	.838	-1.0079	.5172
		Prospector	-.70186	.27611	.057	-1.4171	.0134
		Reactor	-.60811	.42510	.482	-1.7093	.4931
	Reactor	Defender	.36275	.44345	.846	-.7860	1.5115
		Prospector	-.09375	.43154	.996	-1.2116	1.0241
		Analyser	.60811	.42510	.482	-.4931	1.7093

Although the cross-tabulation analysis of marketing type against strategic archetype shows no association, there is a significant association between marketing type and one of the eight dimensions relating to Coviello et al.'s (2001) contemporary marketing scheme, namely nature of customer relationship (i.e. survey Question 26). The cross-tabulation of this dimension indicates reactors are more likely to avail of transaction marketing; defenders are more likely to avail of database marketing; prospectors are more likely to avail of interactive marketing; and analysers are more likely to avail of network marketing. The comparison

of means, ANOVA and Tukey post hoc find a significant association between defenders and prospectors within database marketing and a significant association between analysers and prospectors within interactive marketing, suggesting defenders are more likely to avail of database marketing and prospectors are more likely to avail of interactive marketing. Together, these findings *partially* support the seventh research hypothesis:

> *H7: Coviello et al.'s (1997) forms of contemporary marketing practices vary with regard to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes.*

5.18 Marketing Practice, Strategic Archetype and Performance Measures

As there is partial support for an association between marketing practice and strategic archetype, it is worthwhile examining measures of performance in this context. Such further examination may offer directional indications, which may serve as a guide for further research. Performing a cross-tabulation analysis of performance measures (i.e. sales, profit margin and ROI) against marketing practice and strategic archetype shows there is no association with sales (see Table 5.49). However, there is an association with profit margin and ROI (see Tables 5.50 and 5.51).

Table 5.49 Pearson Chi-Square Tests of Sales Performance against Marketing Practice and Strategic Archetype

Strategic Archetype	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Defender	5.926	9	.747
Prospector	8.388	9	.496
Analyser	1.314	9	.157
Reactor	1.3118	9	.155

5.18.1 Profit Margin

With respect to profit margin, there is no relationship with prospectors and defenders in relation to marketing practice. However, there is a significant association for analysers and reactors (see Table 5.50). In the

case of analysers, this significance is at the 90% level, where $p \leq .10$ (i.e. $p = .093$). Analysers availing of transaction marketing are more likely to achieve high profit margins; analysers availing of database marketing are more likely to achieve moderately-high profit margins; and analysers availing of interactive and network marketing are more likely to achieve low profit margins. This finding suggests, if an analyser were aiming to achieve high profit margins, it should avail of transaction marketing. This finding does *not fit well* with the cross-tabulation of strategic archetype against nature of customer relationship (see Table 5.45); it suggests analysers are more likely to be associated with network marketing practices, which one would expect to be a more successful association for analysers than transaction marketing practices.

With respect to the association between reactors and profit margin, it is significant is the 95% level, where $p \leq .05$ (i.e. $p = .041$). Reactors availing of transaction marketing are more likely to achieve high profit margins; reactors availing of database marketing are more likely to achieve low profit margins; reactors availing of interactive marketing are more likely to achieve moderate profit margins; and reactors availing network marketing are more likely to achieve either low or moderately-high profit margins. Thus suggesting, if a reactor were aiming to achieve high profit margins, it should avail of transaction marketing. This finding *does fit well* with the cross-tabulation of strategic archetype against nature of customer relationship (see Table 5.45), which also suggests reactors are more likely to be associated with transaction marketing practices. However, particular care should be taken in the interpretation of multi-layers cross-tabulations, as the counts within many of the cells are small. As there are only 18 reactor organisations within the data set, multi-layered cross-tabulations further divide an already small group; analysis based on these findings only provide some direction for further research.

Table 5.50 Cross-Tabulation of Profit Margin Against Marketing Practice and Strategic Archetype

Strategic Archetype	Marketing Practice		Profit Margin				
			Low	Mod.	Mod.-High	High	Total
Defender	Transaction	Count	5	4	7	2	18
		% within Profit Margin	45.5%	28.6%	36.8%	33.3%	36.0%
	Database	Count	4	4	5	2	15
		% within Profit Margin	36.4%	28.6%	26.3%	33.3%	30.0%
	Interactive	Count	2	5	4	2	13
		% within Profit Margin	18.2%	35.7%	21.1%	33.3%	26.0%
	Network	Count	0	1	3	0	4
		% within Profit Margin	.0%	7.1%	15.8%	.0%	8.0%
	Total	Count	11	14	19	6	50
		% within Profit Margin	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Prospector	Transaction	Count	2	4	10	3	19
		% within Profit Margin	40.0%	25.0%	41.7%	18.8%	31.1%
	Database	Count	0	4	6	3	13
		% within Profit Margin	.0%	25.0%	25.0%	18.8%	21.3%
	Interactive	Count	2	6	7	8	23
		% within Profit Margin	40.0%	37.5%	29.2%	50.0%	37.7%
	Network	Count	1	2	1	2	6
		% within Profit Margin	20.0%	12.5%	4.2%	12.5%	9.8%
	Total	Count	5	16	24	16	61
		% within ProfitMargin	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Analyser	Transaction	Count	1	5	11	**7**	24
		% within ProfitMargin	16.7%	27.8%	34.4%	**43.8%**	33.3%
	Database	Count	0	4	**13**	2	19
		% within ProfitMargin	.0%	22.2%	**40.6%**	12.5%	26.4%
	Interactive	Count	**3**	8	4	5	20
		% within ProfitMargin	**50.0%**	44.4%	12.5%	31.2%	27.8%
	Network	Count	**2**	1	4	2	9
		% within ProfitMargin	**33.3%**	5.6%	12.5%	12.5%	12.5%
	Total	Count	6	18	32	16	72
		% within Profit Margin	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Reactor	Transaction	Count	1	0	1	**3**	5
		% within Profit Margin	16.7%	.0%	16.7%	**75.0%**	27.8%
	Database	Count	**3**	0	2	1	6
		% within Profit Margin	**50.0%**	.0%	33.3%	25.0%	33.3%
	Interactive	Count	0	**2**	1	0	3
		% within ProfitMargin	.0%	**100.0%**	16.7%	.0%	16.7%
	Network	Count	**2**	0	**2**	0	4
		% within ProfitMargin	**33.3%**	.0%	**33.3%**	.0%	22.2%
	Total	Count	6	2	6	4	18
		% within Profit Margin	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Defender	Pearson Chi-Square	4.653	9	.863
Prospector	Pearson Chi-Square	5.985	9	.741
Analyser	Pearson Chi-Square	1.493	9	.093
Reactor	Pearson Chi-Square	1.75	9	.041

5.18.2 Return on Investment

With respect to ROI, there is no relationship with defenders, prospectors, and reactors in relation to marketing practice. However, there is a significant association with analysers (see Table 5.51). This significance is at the 90% level, where $p \leq .10$ (i.e. $p = .090$). Analysers availing of transaction marketing are more likely to achieve high ROI; analysers availing of database marketing are more likely to achieve moderate levels of ROI; and analysers availing of interactive and network marketing are more likely to achieve low levels of ROI. Thus suggesting, if an analyser were aiming to achieve high levels of ROI, it should avail of transaction marketing. Again, this finding does *not fit well* with the cross-tabulation of strategic archetype against nature of customer relationship (see Table 5.45); it suggests analysers are more likely to be associated with network marketing practices, which one would expect to be a more successful association for analysers than transaction marketing practices. However, as noted earlier, multi-layered cross tabulations should be interpreted carefully and are best viewed as only providing some direction for further research.

Together these findings on measures of performance lend only the *slimmest support* for an association between marketing practice, strategic archetype and performance. They are, however, still *insufficient to substantiate* the sixth research hypothesis:

> *H6: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices, namely interactive and network marketing, are associated with higher organisational performance than transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing.*

Table 5.51 Cross-Tabulation of Return on Investment Against Marketing Practice and Strategic Archetype

Strategic Archetype	Marketing Practice		Return on Investment				
			Low	Moderate	Mod.-High	High	Total
Defender	Transaction	Count	5	4	8	1	18
		% within ROI	45.5%	28.6%	38.1%	25.0%	36.0%
	Database	Count	1	7	6	1	15
		% within ROI	9.1%	50.0%	28.6%	25.0%	30.0%
	Interactive	Count	4	3	4	2	13
		% within ROI	36.4%	21.4%	19.0%	50.0%	26.0%
	Network	Count	1	0	3	0	4
		% within ROI	9.1%	.0%	14.3%	.0%	8.0%
	Total	Count	11	14	21	4	50
		% within ROI	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Prospector	Transaction	Count	3	5	11	1	20
		% within ROI	50.0%	27.8%	50.0%	6.2%	32.3%
	Database	Count	0	4	5	4	13
		% within ROI	.0%	22.2%	22.7%	25.0%	21.0%
	Interactive	Count	2	7	4	10	23
		% within ROI	33.3%	38.9%	18.2%	62.5%	37.1%
	Network	Count	1	2	2	1	6
		% within ROI	16.7%	11.1%	9.1%	6.2%	9.7%
	Total	Count	6	18	22	16	62
		% within ROI	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Analyser	Transaction	Count	1	4	11	**8**	24
		% within ROI	16.7%	26.7%	30.6%	**53.3%**	33.3%
	Database	Count	0	**7**	11	1	19
		% within ROI	.0%	**46.7%**	30.6%	6.7%	26.4%
	Interactive	Count	**3**	4	10	3	20
		% within ROI	**50.0%**	26.7%	27.8%	20.0%	27.8%
	Network	Count	**2**	0	4	3	9
		% within ROI	**33.3%**	.0%	11.1%	20.0%	12.5%
	Total	Count	6	15	36	15	72
		% within ROI	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Reactor	Transaction	Count	1	1	0	3	5
		% within ROI	20.0%	33.3%	.0%	75.0%	29.4%
	Database	Count	3	1	1	1	6
		% within ROI	60.0%	33.3%	20.0%	25.0%	35.3%
	Interactive	Count	0	1	2	0	3
		% within ROI	.0%	33.3%	40.0%	.0%	17.6%
	Network	Count	1	0	2	0	3
		% within ROI	20.0%	.0%	40.0%	.0%	17.6%
	Total	Count	5	3	5	4	17
		% within ROI	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Defender	Pearson Chi-Square	8.502	9	.484
Prospector	Pearson Chi-Square	1.311	9	.158
Analyser	Pearson Chi-Square	1.504	9	.090
Reactor	Pearson Chi-Square	1.187	9	.221

5.18.3 Relative Measures of Performance

Performing a cross-tabulation analysis of relative performance measures (i.e. RROI, RMS, RROA, relative sales growth, relative customer retention and relative major customer retention) against marketing practice and strategic archetype shows there is no association with any of the measures of relative performance (see Table 5.51).

Table 5.52 Pearson Chi-Square Tests of Relative Performance against Marketing Practice and Strategic Archetype

Relative Performance Measure	Strategic Archetype	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Relative Return on Investment (ROI)	Defender	7.065	9	.630
	Prospector	3.385	9	.947
	Analyser	6.099	9	.730
	Reactor	7.800	9	.554
Relative Market Share (RMS)	Defender	5.764	9	.763
	Prospector	9.671	9	.378
	Analyser	5.807	9	.759
	Reactor	6.710	9	.667
Relative Return on Assets (ROA)	Defender	8.898	9	.447
	Prospector	6.685	9	.670
	Analyser	4.367	9	.886
	Reactor	9.433	9	.398
Relative Sales Growth	Defender	8.100	9	.524
	Prospector	9.916	9	.357
	Analyser	6.653	9	.673
	Reactor	6.337	6	.386
Relative Customer Retention	Defender	6.422	9	.697
	Prospector	9.235	9	.416
	Analyser	7.079	9	.629
	Reactor	6.987	9	.638
Relative Major Customer Retention	Defender	6.391	9	.700
	Prospector	9.469	9	.395
	Analyser	8.376	9	.497
	Reactor	7.893	9	.545

5.19 Summary of Findings Relating to Marketing Practices

At this point, it is useful to summarise the main findings in relation to marketing practices. It is interesting to note organisations were matched with responses relating to their marketing practice classification *about* half of the time, which suggests the classification of marketing practice is *more fluid* than the typology of strategic archetypes. This finding is consistent with Coviello et al.'s (1997) perspective on contemporary marketing practices (CMP), as they believe organisations simultaneously employ a combination of marketing practices. Similar to the analysis of strategic archetypes, none of the respondents' attributes are associated with marketing practice.

5.19.1 Organisations' Attributes

Unlike the analysis of strategic archetypes, there is no association with respect to legal entity. However, there is an association between marketing practice and an organisation's length of establishment, product-market, product type and customer type.

With respect to the length of time an organisation is established (see Table 5.37), the cross-tabulation analysis shows organisations availing of network marketing practices are more likely to be either *young* (i.e. established for 13 years or less) or *middle-aged* (i.e. established between 14 and 37 years); organisations availing of interactive marketing are more likely to be *young*; while, organisations availing of database marketing practices are more likely to be *mature* (i.e. established for 38 years or more); and organisations availing of transaction marketing practices are more likely to be *middle-aged.*

Unlike the analysis of strategic archetypes, the product-market organisations serve is associated with marketing practice (see Table 5.38). Organisations availing of transaction marketing practices are more likely to be in involved with consumer packaged goods, consumer durable

goods, and consumer services; organisations availing of database marketing practices are more likely to be involved with business to business supply goods and business to business durable goods; while, organisations availing of interactive and network marketing practices are more likely to be involved with business to business services. The relationship between marketing practice and product-market is clarified when examining either product or consumer type.

Coviello et al. (1997) acknowledge there is a point of view within the literature that asserts specific types of marketing are appropriate for goods, which differ significantly from the types of marketing appropriate for services. At the aggregate level, this research finds support for the goods/services divide (see Table 5.39). Organisations availing of transaction and database marketing practices are more likely to be involved with goods; while organisations availing of interactive and network marketing practice are more likely to be involved with services.

With respect to customer type, although Coviello and Brodie (2001) believe marketing practices are not fundamentally different across consumer and B2B organisations, this research largely supports the consumer/B2B divide (see Table 5.40). Organisations availing of transaction marketing practices are more likely to be serving consumers, while organisations availing of interactive and network marketing practices are more likely to be serving business customers. The exception is that organisations availing of database marketing practices are as likely to serve consumers as business customers.

5.19.2 Organisations' Performance and Relative Performance

The analysis indicates there is no association between classifications of marketing practice and measures of performance (i.e. sales, profit margin and ROI; see Table 5.41) and relative performance (i.e. RROI, RMS, RROA, sales growth, customer retention and major customer retention; see Table 5.42). These findings suggest any of the forms of marketing practice may be equally successful. Although two recent studies find there is a significant association between marketing practice and performance (Brodie et al. 2008), this research does *not* support such an assertion.

5.19.3 Marketing Practices and Strategic Archetype

The cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against marketing practice proved to be insignificant. As well, most of the survey questions relating to marketing practice have an association with strategic archetype (see Table 5.44), except for Question 26, which asks respondents to identify the statement that *best* describes the nature of their organisation's relationship with customers. Thus, there is a significant association between strategic archetype and the nature of organisations' relationship with customers (see Table 5.45). Reactors are more likely to avail of transaction marketing practices; defenders are more likely to avail of database marketing practices; prospectors are more likely to avail of interactive marketing practices; and analysers are more likely to avail of network marketing practices.

The one-way ANOVA (see Table 5.47) and the Tukey post hoc test for pair-wise differences (see Table 5.48) show there is a significant difference between defenders and prospectors within database marketing; that is defenders are more likely to avail of database marketing than prospectors. As well, there is a significant difference between prospectors and analysers within interactive marketing; that is, prospectors are more likely to avail of interactive marketing than analysers. These findings are consistent with the cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against

the nature of customer relationship (see Table 5.45), which shows defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to avail of database marketing practices and prospectors are more likely than the other archetypes to avail of interactive marketing practices.

5.20 Summary

Members of the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute, which are the bodies representing marketing and sales professionals within Ireland, were invited to participate in an online survey regarding their organisations' approach to and management of marketing practices. The survey was held over a seven-week period from the middle of May until the beginning of July 2008 and resulted in 207 useable responses. Through a comparison of product-market categories, the sample is shown to be representative of the population of organisations in Ireland employing marketing professionals. The data have been analysed with respect to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes, Coviello et al.'s (2001) classifications of marketing practice, as well as associations with measures of performance and relative performance.

Overall, the findings support the first four of the research hypotheses:

H1: Configurations of strategy-structure may be observed and broadly conform to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes of prospector, analyser, defender and reactor.

H2: 'Good' strategy-structure fit, which emerges through the configuration, leads to superior organisational performance of prospectors, analysers and defenders over reactors.

H3: Marketing practices may be observed and broadly conform to Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices scheme of transaction, database, interactive and network marketing.

H4: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices, namely interactive and network marketing, are primarily associated with services; while transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing, are primarily associated with goods.

The analyses largely support the fifth research hypothesis, except in the case of database marketing, which is equally associated with either consumers or business customers:

H5: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices, namely interactive and network marketing, are primarily associated with business customers; while transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing, are primarily associated with consumers.

The analyses do *not* support the sixth research hypothesis. There is no significant association between marketing practice and performance. There is slim support for an association between performance measures, marketing practice, and strategic archetype, but in some respects the findings are contrary to expectations. Thus, it is still insufficient to substantiate the sixth hypothesis:

H6: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices, namely interactive and network marketing, are associated with higher organisational performance than transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing.

The findings offer *partial* support for the seventh research hypothesis. There is a significant association between marketing practice and strategic archetype, but only in relation to one of the eight dimensions for contemporary marketing practice, namely nature of customer relationship:

H7: Coviello et al.'s (1997) forms of contemporary marketing practices vary with regard to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes.

CHAPTER 6.0 CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Research Aim

The main endeavour of this thesis is to explain the nature of diversity in marketing practice among organisations, and how it is related to performance, in the context of organisational strategy-structure. Although the relationship among organisational strategy, structure and performance is well established in the literature, indicating that organisations with a good strategy-structure fit achieve superior performance (e.g. Forte et al. 2000; Weick 1977; Child 1972), the literature does not adequately address the role that variations in marketing practice play in relation to performance (Vorhies and Morgan 2003).

The normative literature typically argues for a *standardised* approach to marketing practice. However, observation of marketing practice among organisations appears to be diverse and multiform. Further, the notion that the nature of marketing is contingent on firm strategy and organisational type is not novel. Indeed, a main premise of the strategy implementation literature is that different business strategies need distinct configurations of marketing practice to achieve optimal performance (Slater and Olson 2000; Walker and Ruekert 1987).

6.1.1 Strategic Archetype

The Miles and Snow (1978) typology of strategic types (i.e. prospector, analyser, defender and reactor) is a constructive point from which to begin examining diversity in marketing practice and its impact on organisational performance. Several researchers have applied the typology to aspects of marketing with considerable success. Whether investigating market orientation (Matsuno and Mentzer 2000; Lukas 1999; McDaniel and Kolari 1987), marketing competencies (Conant et al. 1990), sales force management (Slater and Olson 2000), or the interdependence of business strategy and marketing practice (Slater and

Olson 2001; Walker and Ruekert 1987), the findings from these studies indicate there is an association with strategic archetypes. That is, there are different patterns of marketing practice that reflect different configurations, which are in turn, related to environmental conditions in different ways. Furthermore, these studies suggest when marketing practice is appropriately matched to organisational strategy it facilitates organisational performance (Olson et al. 2005; Vorhies and Morgan 2003). However, there are those who contend organising marketing to facilitate business strategy is a particularly difficult challenge for managers (e.g. Vorhies and Morgan 2003; Cespedes 1995; Webster 1997).

6.1.2 Marketing Practice

The contemporary marketing practices classification scheme (Coviello et al. 1997), although not as well established as the Miles and Snow (1978) typology, has been empirically tested and found to be useful (e.g. Brady et al. 2008; Wagner 2005; Brady and Palmer 2004; Brady 2003; Brady et al. 2002; Lindgreen et al. 2000). The value of the contemporary marketing practices scheme is its ability to distinguish between different types of marketing practice (i.e. transaction, database, interaction and network).

Coviello et al. (2002) argue for a pluralistic conceptualisation of marketing; they contend transactional and relational marketing are not separate, mutually exclusive paradigms, nor are they the opposing ends of a continuum. They maintain, regardless of the type of market served, transactional and relational paradigms are relevant (Coviello and Brodie 2001). Further, regardless of size and type, organisations often simultaneously employ a combination of marketing practices (Coviello et al. 1997; 2000). The contemporary marketing practices approach provides a framework that acknowledges the complexity and multidimensional nature of marketing practice within organisations.

6.2 Research Question, Hypotheses and Model

The research question asks: how is diversity in marketing practice explained, as well as, how is marketing practice related to strategic archetypes and organisational performance? The research goals are to examine Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes, Coviello et al.'s (1997) classification of contemporary marketing practices, each scheme's relationship with organisational performance, and whether there is a relationship between strategic archetype and marketing practice. The model (see Figure 6.1), illustrating the relationships among these concepts, is derived from a review of the literature and outlines the seven hypotheses tested in this research:

H1: Configurations of strategy-structure may be observed and broadly conform to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes of prospector, analyser, defender and reactor.

H2: *Good* strategy-structure fit, which emerges through the configuration, leads to superior organisational performance of prospectors, analysers and defenders over reactors.

H3: Marketing practices may be observed and broadly conform to Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices scheme of transaction, database, interactive and network marketing.

H4: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices, namely interactive and network marketing, are primarily associated with services; while transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing, are primarily associated with goods.

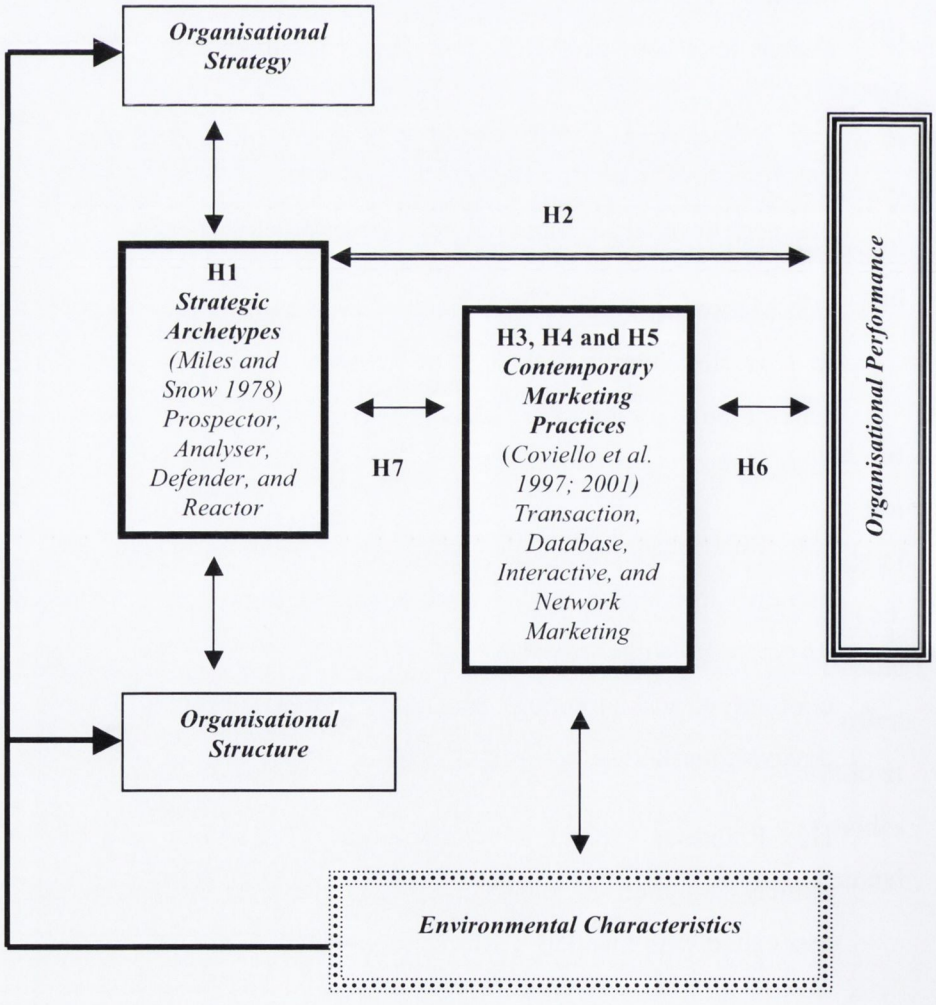
H5: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices, namely interactive and network marketing, are primarily associated with business customers; while transactional forms of

contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing, are primarily associated with consumers.

H6: Relational forms of contemporary marketing practices, namely interactive and network marketing, are associated with higher organisational performance than transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice, namely transaction and database marketing.

H7: Coviello et al.'s (1997) forms of contemporary marketing practices vary with regard to Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes.

Figure 6.1 Strategic Archetypes and Marketing Practices Model



6.3 Summary of Findings

Members of the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute were invited to participate in an online survey regarding their organisations' approach to and management of marketing practices. The sample of 207 useable responses is representative of the population of organisations in Ireland employing marketing professionals. A summary of the findings as they relate to the research hypotheses is outlined below and in Table 6.1.

6.3.1 H1: Classification of Strategic Archetypes

Availing of Miles and Snow's (1978) self-typing paragraph measure as well as Conant et al.'s (1990) multi-item measure, the data find support for the strategic archetypes of defender, prospector, analyser and reactor (see Table 5.13). The successful classification of the data into strategic archetypes supports the first research hypothesis.

6.3.2 H2: Strategic Archetype and Organisational Performance

Aspects of organisational performance have been frequently used in evaluating the impact of business strategy based on Miles and Snow's typology. The assertion is that specific organisational strategies within each archetype affect performance; consequently, the variation in strategies causes performance to vary (Shoham et al. 2002).

The cross-tabulation analyses show there is a significant association between strategic archetype across the three dimensions of performance: sales (i.e. $p = .043$; see Table 5.22), profit margin (i.e. $p = .084$; see Table 5.23), and ROI (i.e. $p = .059$; see Table 5.24). Further, the archetypes of defender, prospector and analyser achieve superior organisational performance over the reactor archetype. Reactors are prone to responding inappropriately to environmental uncertainty, attaining a weak alignment of organisational strategy, structure and processes. Accordingly, organisations with weak alignment or fit are expected to perform poorly (Avison et al. 2004; Venkatraman and Prescott 1990).

It should be noted, the link between strategic archetype and performance is not as straightforward as the typology suggests (Zahra and Pearce 1990). Reviews of various studies employing the Miles and Snow's (1978) typology show there are contradictory findings relating to performance. Nevertheless, among the numerous studies, there is stronger support for prospectors, analysers and defenders outperforming reactors (Andrews et al. 2006; Zahra and Pearce 1990).

Testing the association between archetype and performance further, the one-way ANOVA of strategic archetype against sales, profit margin and ROI, is significant for only ROI (i.e. $p = .040$; see Table 5.25). Moreover, ROI is significant for analysers and defenders, but *not* for prospectors and reactors. The means relating to ROI, show analysers perform significantly higher than defenders, which is consistent with the cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against ROI (see Table 5.24). As ROI is the only performance measure related to archetype, it is a more useful measure, than either sales or profit margin, in understanding the relationship between strategic archetypes and organisational performance.

Generally, ROI is a more useful measure of organisational profitability than either sales or profit margin, as it expresses the rate of profit. It is possible for organisations to have high sales and/or profit margins and still be unprofitable. Whereas, a high ROI typically indicates some level of organisational profitability.

These findings concur with Miles and Snow's (1978) assertion that prospectors, analysers and defenders may be successful if their organisational strategy is appropriate for the competitive environment and deploy appropriate capabilities. As well, reactors are less successful than the other strategic archetypes due to their poor strategy-structure fit. Together, these findings support the second research hypothesis.

Table 6.1 Summary of Findings in Relation to Hypotheses

Description of Hypothesis	Findings	Support in Literature	Accepted or Rejected
H1: Strategic archetypes may be observed	Successful classification of data into strategic archetypes of: prospector, defender, analyser and reactor.	e.g. Song et al. (2007); Conant et al. (1990)	***Accepted***
H2: *Good* strategy-structure fit leads to superior performance	The cross-tabulations relating to sales, profit margin and ROI show prospectors, analysers and defenders have higher levels of performance than reactors, with poor strategy-structure fit.	e.g. Andrews et al. (2006); Zahra and Pearce (1990); Conant et al. (1990); Hambrick (1983)	***Accepted***
H3: Forms of contemporary marketing practice may be observed	Successful classification of data into forms of marketing practice: transaction, database, interaction and network.	e.g. Coviello et al. (2002); (2000); (1997) Coviello and Brodie (2001)	***Accepted***
H4: Relational forms of marketing practice are associated with services; transactional with goods	Interactive and network marketing are primarily associated with services, while transaction and database marketing are primarily associated with goods.	Partial support found in e.g. Coviello and Brodie (2001); Coviello et al. (2002); (2000); (1997)	***Accepted***
H5: Relational forms of marketing practice are associated with business customers; transactional with consumers	Interactive and network marketing are primarily associated with business customers, while transaction marketing is primarily associated with consumers. Database marketing is equally associated with either consumers or business customers.	Partial support found in e.g. Coviello and Brodie (2001); Coviello et al. (2002); (2000); (1997)	***Largely Accepted***
H6: Relational forms of marketing practice are associated with higher organisational performance	There is no association between forms of marketing practice and any of the measures of organisational performance.	Support found in Brodie et al. (2007) and Coviello et al. (2006) – but *not* in this study.	***Rejected***
H7: Forms of contemporary marketing practices vary with regard to strategic archetypes	There is a significant association between marketing type and *one* of the eight dimensions relating to forms of contemporary marketing practice (i.e. *nature of customer relationship*).	This study's contribution to the literature.	***Partially Accepted***

6.3.3 H3: Classification of Marketing Practice

Marketing practices may be observed and broadly conform to Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices scheme of transaction, database, interactive and network marketing (see Table 5.33). It is worthy to note that organisations identified with responses relating to their marketing practice classification about half of the time, which suggests the classification of marketing practice is *more fluid* than the typology of strategic archetypes (see Table 5.34). For example, organisations classified as availing of transaction marketing practices, selected responses related to the transaction perspective just *about* half of the time. The same is true of organisations classified as availing of database, interactive and network marketing practices. Hence, the differences among marketing practices are *less discrete* and are not mutually exclusive. This finding is consistent with Coviello et al.'s (1997) perspective on contemporary marketing practices (CMP), as they believe organisations simultaneously employ a combination of marketing practices (Brodie et al. 2008). The successful classification of the data into forms of marketing practice supports the third research hypothesis.

6.3.4 H4: Marketing Practice and Product Type

At the aggregate level, this research finds support for the goods/services divide, as marketing practice is significantly associated with product type (i.e. $p = .022$). The cross-tabulation analysis of marketing practice against product type (see Table 5.39), shows organisations availing of transaction and database marketing practices are more likely to be involved with goods; while organisations availing of interactive and network marketing practice are more likely to be involved with services.

Although Coviello et al. (1997) recognise relational forms of marketing practice are typically attributed to industrial and service firms, they suggest the simple goods/services distinction has become less relevant in the context of contemporary marketing practice (Coviello et al. 2002;

Coviello et al. 2001; Brodie et al. 2008). In their studies, only certain aspects of the forms of marketing practice are associated with goods and service organisations, hence, they conclude the goods/services divide is only partially supported (Coviello and Brodie 2001; Coviello et al. 2000; Coviello and Brodie 1998). Nevertheless, the findings in this study, with respect to forms of marketing practice and product type, support the fourth research hypothesis.

6.3.5 H5: Marketing Practice and Customer Type

This research largely supports the consumer/business-to-business divide, as marketing practice is significantly associated with the type of customer (i.e. $p = .000$). Examining the cross-tabulation analysis of marketing practice against customer type (see Table 5.40), shows organisations availing of transaction marketing practices are more likely to be serving consumers; while organisations availing of interactive and network marketing practices are more likely to be serving business customers. The exception is that organisations availing of database marketing practices are equally likely to serve consumers as business customers.

Coviello and Brodie (2001) find mixed support for the consumer/business-to-business divide. From a broad perspective, they acknowledge marketing practice appears to be more relational in organisations serving business customers and more transactional in organisations serving consumers (Coviello and Brodie 2001). However, in their studies, only certain aspects of the forms of marketing practice are associated with consumer and business-to-business organisations (Coviello and Brodie 2001; Coviello et al. 2000; Coviello and Brodie 1998). Consequently, they contend all organisations, regardless of the customer type served, avail of aspects from each of the forms of marketing practice (Coviello and Brodie 2001). In this respect, Coviello and Brodie (2001) assert marketing practices are *not* fundamentally different across consumer and business-to-business firms. Nonetheless,

the findings in this study, with respect to forms of marketing practice and organisations' customer type, largely support the fifth research hypothesis.

6.3.6 H6: Marketing Practice and Organisational Performance

Although two recent studies find there is a significant association between forms of marketing practice and performance (Brodie et al. 2007; Coviello et al. 2006), in this study, there is no significant association between forms of marketing practice, as outlined by Coviello et al. (2001), and any of the measures of organisational performance (see Tables 5.41 and 5.42). Thus, the findings from this research do *not* support the sixth research hypothesis.

Still, it *should* be possible to identify an association between forms of marketing practice and organisational performance (Vorhies and Morgan 2003). The lack of association with performance, in this research, is perhaps due to the fluid nature of the contemporary marketing practice classification scheme. Possibly, the contemporary marketing practice scheme is not as well suited to examining organisational performance, perhaps because it has not been designed with the goal of understanding performance variation. A more granular perspective may be required, so as to more clearly reveal the relationship between marketing practice and organisational performance. That is, the environmental context may play a crucial role in influencing how marketing is practiced. As this research avails of a muli-industry context, it may be easier to detect the relationship between marketing practice and organisational performance within a narrower industry sector and/or product-market.

Indeed, of the two studies in which there is a significant association between marketing practice and performance, the first examines a narrow product-market, namely small service organisations within the Canadian tourism accommodation sector. The second study (Brodie et al. 2007)

examines a broader section of industries, but the findings primarily relate to e-marketing, which can be problematic. As noted in section *3.3 Overview of the Contemporary Marketing Practices Framework*, the distinction between e-marketing and database marketing is blurred, as they are highly correlated (e.g. Brodie et al. 2008; Lindgreen et al. 2004). Hence, e-marketing does not always provide as constructive a means of distinguishing between the different forms of contemporary marketing practice. Clearly, further research examining the relationship between marketing practice and organisational performance is required.

6.3.7 H7: Marketing Practice and Strategic Archetype

The cross-tabulation analysis of marketing type against strategic archetype shows there is no significant association (i.e. p = .789). However, there is a significant association (i.e. p = .085) between marketing type and one of the eight dimensions relating to contemporary marketing practices, namely the nature of customer relationship (see Tables 5.44 and 5.45). The cross-tabulation analysis shows reactors are more likely than the other archetypes to avail of transaction marketing practices; defenders are more likely to avail of database marketing practices; prospectors are more likely to avail of interactive marketing practices; and analysers are more likely to avail of network marketing practices (see Table 5.45).

Testing the association between marketing practice and strategic archetype further, the one-way ANOVA analysis (see Table 5.47), shows there is a significant difference (i.e. p = .015) between defenders and prospectors within database marketing; that is, defenders are more likely to avail of database marketing than prospectors. As well, there is a significant difference (i.e. p = .071) between prospectors and analysers within interactive marketing; that is, prospectors are more likely to avail of interactive marketing than analysers. These findings are consistent with the cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against the nature of

customer relationship (see Table 5.45), which shows defenders are more likely than the other archetypes to avail of database marketing practices and prospectors are more likely to avail of interactive marketing practices. Overall, these findings offer partial support for a significant association between forms of marketing practice and strategic archetype.

6.4 Additional Findings Relating to Organisational Life Cycle

An unexpected finding arising from the data relates to the life cycle of organisations, which is apparent in the analyses for strategic archetype as well as marketing practice. Through the years, considerable attention has been given to the notion of organisational life cycle in the literature (e.g. Lester et al. 2003; Hanks et al. 1993; Miles et al. 1993; Ayres and Steger 1985; Miller and Friesen 1984; Adizes 1979; Greiner 1972; Chandler 1962). Analogous to a biological life cycle, it is argued by some that organisations evolve in a consistent and predictable manner, and as they "move through various stages of growth, differing problems must be addressed, resulting in the need for different management skills, priorities, and structural configurations" (Hanks et al. 1993: 5).

"The appeal of the life cycle is obvious, as organizations are born (Tichy 1980), attempt to grow in different forms (Mintzberg 1989), and eventually die (Kimberly and Miles 1980)" (Lester et al. 2003: 340). However, some academics (e.g. Lester and Parnell 2002; Miller and Friesen 1984) chafe at the implied deterministic nature of the life cycle, as many organisations may not pass "inexorably from one stage of development to another in the traditional biological sense" (Lester et al. 2003: 340). Instead, the organisational life cycle is perhaps more accurately described as management's collective interpretation of the organisation's environment (Lester et al. 2003; Lester and Parnell 2002; Miller and Friesen 1984).

6.4.1 Organisational Life Cycle Model

Virtually all models representing organisational life cycle avail of multi-dimensional terms, some of which are related to organisational context and structure, such as age and structural form (Hanks et al. 1993). Chandler's (1962) thesis is central to most models, which states patterns of organisational structure, or configurations, are developed in response to growth and market challenges (Miller and Friesen 1984; Murray 1984). Essentially, organisational structure follows strategy, and organisational strategy is a response to the business environment (Chandler 1962). Naturally, those organisations that fail to adapt to the environment experience *growing pains*, which in turn, frustrate progress (Adizes 1989; Greiner 1972).

The terms life cycle stages, developmental stages, and growth stages are used interchangeably, whereby a life cycle stage is defined as "a unique configuration of variables related to organization context and structure" (Hanks et al. 1993: 7). Otherwise, there is considerable variation among the models explaining organisational life cycle (Lester et al. 2003; Hanks et al. 1993). For example, the number of life cycle stages, from birth to decline, varies from three stages (e.g. Miles et al. 1993; Smith et al. 1985), to four stages (e.g. Quinn and Cameron 1983), to five stages (e.g. Lester et al. 2003; Miller and Friesen 1984; Churchill and Lewis 1983; Galbraith 1982; Greiner 1972), and even ten stages (e.g. Adizes 1989). As well, there is disagreement on the number and types of activities associated with each stage (Lester et al. 2003; Hanks et al. 2003).

The dominant consensus is for five stages in the organisational life cycle, and although they may differ in terminology, the stages typically encompass: (i) start-up/existence, (ii) expansion/survival, (iii) consolidation/success, (iv) diversification/renewal, and (v) decline (Hanks et al. 2003; Lester et al. 2003). Typically, strategy, structure, decision-making methods, and organisational situation are the focus of change

during the life cycle (Miller and Friesen 1984). The expectation is that as organisations evolve through the life cycle stages, they increase in age and size, and organisational structure becomes more formal and specialised (Hanks et al. 203; Miller and Friesen 1984). However, it is worth bearing in mind that some studies find organisations may not evolve through the stages sequentially (e.g. Miller and Friesen 1984; Quinn and Cameron 1983).

6.4.2 Organisational Life Cycle Model and Strategic Archetype

A further development has been to match the life cycle stages with Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes of strategy-structure (Lester et al. 2003; see Table 6.2). Such a development suggests the life cycle stage influences strategy selection, and that an alignment between them is advantageous. However, Lester et al. (2003: 350) recognise "there is little conclusive empirical research that identifies specific life cycle-strategy combinations [and their] study provides only limited support for this association." Additionally, Lester et al. (2003) did not consider the industry as a variable in their study, hence, it is unknown the extent to which the industry influences the strategy-life cycle relationship.

Table 6.2 Strategic Archetype and Life Cycle Stages

Strategic Archetype		Life Cycle Stage
Prospector	◄——►	Start-up/Existence
Analyser	◄——►	Expansion/Survival
Defender	◄——►	Consolidation/Success
Analyser	◄——►	Diversification/Renewal
Reactor	◄——►	Decline

Source: Adapted from Lester et al. (2003).

The value of life cycle is that it may provide a *road map*, or highlight areas for consideration at critical junctions of organisational development, such as the transition from one stage to the next. Moreover, "it could help management know when to let go of cherished past strategies and practices that will only hinder further growth" (Hanks et al. 1993: 25). However, the challenge for managers is to identify correctly, where their organisation is situated on the life cycle continuum and how the organisational activities and structures are required to change over time to correspond with the identified life cycle stage (Lester et al. 2003; Van de Ven 1992).

In addition to being a road map for mangers, the life cycle is another way to explain diversity among organisations, which is of particular relevance to this study (Beverland and Lockshin 2001; Miles et al. 1993; Miller and Friesen 1984). Miles et al. (1993) develop the idea of diversity in a population of firms further. They find the level of diversity or variety within an industry may provide an indication of its overall *health* and potential for success. Their study indicates that diversity within industries is positively related to performance (Miles et al. 1993). That is, an industry as a whole benefits when it is "characterized by diversity among firms' competitive strategies" (Miles et al. 1993: 163).

A summary of the findings from this study, relating to organisational life cycle and diversity across firms follows.

6.4.3 Strategic Archetype and Length of Establishment

Regarding an organisation's length of establishment, there are *tentative* indications a life cycle pattern may be associated with strategic archetype (see Table 5.16). That is, prospectors, perhaps because of their pioneering tendencies, are more likely to be *young* firms (i.e. established for 13 years or less); while defenders, perhaps because of their more risk-averse stance, are more likely to be *mature* firms (i.e. established for 38 years or

more); and analysers perhaps because of their dual nature are more likely to fall between, or to be *middle-aged* (i.e. established between 14 and 37 years). Reactors are also more likely to be *middle-aged.* Miles and Snow (1978) make no specific assertion as to whether any of the strategic archetypes are more likely to be *young* or *old* organisations. However, the notion of an association between strategic archetype and life cycle patterns has been explored before in relation to the Miles and Snow (1978) typology, but without success (O'Reagan and Ghobadian 2006; Ghosh et al. 2001; Gimenez 2000; Smith et al. 1989; Smith et al. 1986).

6.4.4 Marketing Practice and Length of Establishment

Similarly, with respect to marketing practice and length of establishment (see Table 5.37), the cross-tabulation analysis shows organisations availing of network marketing practices are more likely to be either *young* or *middle-aged*; organisations availing of interactive marketing are more likely to be *young*; while, organisations availing of database marketing practices are more likely to be *mature*; and organisations availing of transaction marketing practices are more likely to be *middle-aged.*

6.4.5 Consolidating Life Cycle Findings

Qualitatively combining the findings in relation to organisational life cycle (see Table 6.3) might suggest interaction-prospectors would more likely be *young* organisations; network-analysers and transaction-reactors would more likely be *middle-aged* organisations; and database-defenders would more likely be *mature* organisations. The exception is the young network organisation, which does not have a corresponding strategic archetype. These qualitative suggestions, as outlined in Table 6.3, correspond to the cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype against nature of customer relationship (i.e. one dimension of marketing practice; see Table 5.45), and which is also reproduced in Table 6.4. The cross-tabulation analysis shows there is a significant association (i.e. $p = .085$) between the two variables.

However, the multi-layer cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype, against nature of customer relationship (i.e. one dimension of marketing practice) and length of establishment is insignificant for organisations of all lengths of establishment (see Table 6.5). On the other hand, as shown in Table 6.6, the multi-layer cross-tabulation analysis of strategic archetype, marketing practice and length of establishment is significant *for young organisations only*. This significance is at the 99% level where $p \leq .01$ (i.e. $p = .005$). In examining young organisations (i.e. established for 13 years or less), the highest count is with interactive-prospectors (i.e. 15 respondents), which is consistent with the suggested match between marketing practice and strategic archetype (see Table 6.3). The question remains as to how these findings fit with the organisational life cycle literature? They appear to suggest, in so far as young organisations are concerned, they are more likely to be interaction-prospectors. As there is no significant association between strategic archetype, marketing practice and length of establishment for middle-aged and mature organisations, there is little support for the linked pairs of strategic archetype and marketing practice, as suggested in Table 6.3.

Importantly, these findings should be viewed with *caution*, as is often the case in *multi-layered* cross tabulations, some of the cells have a very low count (i.e. less than 5; Brace et al. 2006; Kinnear and Gray 2008). Still, they are useful in offering directional indications, which may serve as a guide for further research.

Table 6.3 Classification of Strategic Archetype and Marketing Practice According to Length of Organisational Establishment

Length of Establishment	Strategic Archetype	Marketing Practice
Young: 13 years or less	Prospector ◄——►	Interaction (Network)
Middle-Aged: 14 to 37 years	Analyser ◄——►	Network
	Reactor ◄——►	Transaction
Mature: 38 years or more	Defender ◄——►	Database

Table 6.4 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetype Against Nature of Customer Relationship (i.e. Marketing Practice)

Nature of Customer Relationship		Strategic Archetype				
		Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
Transaction Discrete, no personalised contact	Count	2	3	4	1	10
	% within Archetype	3.9%	4.7%	5.4%	5.6%	4.8%
Database Some future personalised contact	Count	14	4	8	1	27
	% within Archetype	27.5%	6.2%	10.8%	5.6%	13.0%
Interactive Ongoing personalised contact	Count	27	38	39	10	114
	% within Archetype	52.9%	59.4%	52.7%	55.6%	55.1%
Network Ongoing personalised contact within network	Count	8	19	23	6	56
	% within Archetype	15.7%	29.7%	31.1%	33.3%	27.1%
Total	Count	51	64	74	18	207
	% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.524	9	.085
Likelihood Ratio	5.341	9	.804
Linear-by-Linear Association	.489	1	.484
N of Valid Cases	207		

Table 6.5 Pearson Chi-Square Tests of Strategic Archetype Against Nature of Customer Relationship (i.e. Marketing Practice) and Length Established

Length Established	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Young: 13 years or less	1.331	9	.149
Middle-Aged: 14 to 37 years	1.209	9	.208
Mature: 38 years or more	1.049	9	.312

Table 6.6 Cross-Tabulation of Strategic Archetype Against Marketing Practice and Length Established

Length Established	Marketing Practice		Strategic Archetype				
			Defender	Prospector	Analyser	Reactor	Total
Young (i.e. 13 years or less)	Transaction	Count	4	7	12	1	24
		% within Archetype	26.7%	25.0%	60.0%	11.1%	33.3%
	Database	Count	5	4	4	2	15
		% within Archetype	33.3%	14.3%	20.0%	22.2%	20.8%
	Interaction	Count	3	15	3	2	23
		% within Archetype	20.0%	53.6%	15.0%	22.2%	31.9%
	Network	Count	3	2	1	4	10
		% within Archetype	20.0%	7.1%	5.0%	44.4%	13.9%
	Total	Count	15	28	20	9	72
		% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Middle-Aged (i.e. 14 to 37 years)	Transaction	Count	5	3	12	4	24
		% within Archetype	41.7%	23.1%	40.0%	40.0%	36.9%
	Database	Count	2	0	7	2	11
		% within Archetype	16.7%	.0%	23.3%	20.0%	16.9%
	Interaction	Count	4	5	8	3	20
		% within Archetype	33.3%	38.5%	26.7%	30.0%	30.8%
	Network	Count	1	5	3	1	10
		% within Archetype	8.3%	38.5%	10.0%	10.0%	15.4%
	Total	Count	12	13	30	10	65
		% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Middle-Aged (i.e. 38 years or more)	Transaction	Count	7	4	7	2	20
		% within Archetype	33.3%	23.5%	25.0%	50.0%	28.6%
	Database	Count	10	7	9	2	28
		% within Archetype	47.6%	41.2%	32.1%	50.0%	40.0%
	Interaction	Count	2	5	9	0	16
		% within Archetype	9.5%	29.4%	32.1%	.0%	22.9%
	Network	Count	2	1	3	0	6
		% within Archetype	9.5%	5.9%	10.7%	.0%	8.6%
	Total	Count	21	17	28	4	70
		% within Archetype	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Young: 13 years or less	Pearson Chi-Square	2.344	9	.005
Middle-Aged: 14 to 37 years	Pearson Chi-Square	9.919	9	.357
Mature: 38 years or more	Pearson Chi-Square	6.510	9	.688

6.5 Contributions to Existing Theory

Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes and Coviello et al.'s (1997) forms of contemporary marketing practices are conceptually derived schemes, or typologies (Hambrick 1984). That is, "even though they are based on systematic empirical observation, they are not quantitatively based." (Hambrick 1984: 28). The Miles and Snow (1978) typology and the Coviello et al. (1997) marketing practices classification scheme, represent recurring patterns, the discovery of which are "especially [important] in a field such as strategy with its complex and unordered terrain" (Hambrick 1984: 40). It is through the identification of these patterns, that may ultimately lead to concise, yet reliable, typologies and schemes for thinking about organisations' strategies (Mintzberg 2005; Hambrick 1984).

Both the Miles and Snow (1978) typology and the Coviello et al. (1997) scheme rely on contingency theory, which "argues for a correspondence between facets of organizations and features of the environment in which organizations function (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967)" (Levinthal 1995: 26). Consequently, classifying environmental settings is a means towards developing a comprehensive contingency model of business strategy (Mintzberg 2005; Hambrick 1984). Studies contributing to contingency model development are likely to be bounded in scope, by framing and sub-framing the research settings; otherwise, unbounded settings may be too broad to be useful.

This study has been bounded by the participation of marketing practitioners in Ireland, who are members of professional marketing associations. It is suggested further research would benefit from even narrower frames and sub-frames (i.e. industries and product-markets), as it may facilitate in discerning the relationship between marketing practice and performance, as well as between marketing practice and strategic archetype.

6.5.1 Contribution to the Miles and Snow's Typology Literature

The contribution this study makes to the literature of the Miles and Snow (1978) typology is two fold: (i) further confirmation of its explanatory value with respect to strategic archetypes' strategy-structure, (ii) as well as its association with aspects of marketing practice, which show there is partial support for an association between strategic archetype and forms of marketing practice.

The support for the first research hypothesis (i.e. H1: configurations of strategy-structure may be observed to conform to the archetypes of prospector, analyser, defender and reactor) corroborates the ease with which the typology may be robustly applied. Further, the combined classification approach of the Miles and Snow's self-typing paragraph along with Conant et al.'s (1990) multi-item measure of self-typing, complemented by investigator-specified decision rules, provide a more accurate classification method and affords the identification of *relatively pure* types (Hambrick 1982). Consequently, as they are based on multiple measures, these findings inspire greater confidence (Santos et al. 2002; Zahra and Pearce 1990; Venkatraman and Grant 1986).

With respect marketing practice, this study builds on the work of a small number of researchers who have availed of the Miles and Snow (1978) typology to explore aspects of marketing practice (e.g. Olson et al. 2005; Vorhies and Morgan 2003; Slater and Olson 2001; Slater and Olson 2000; Matsuno and Mentzer 2000; Lukas 1999; Conant et al. 1990; McDaniel and Kolari 1987; Walker and Ruekert 1987). As in these other studies, this research finds support, although only partly, for an association between strategic archetype and marketing practice. These findings partially support the seventh research hypothesis (i.e. H7: forms of contemporary marketing practices vary with regard to strategic archetypes). Consequently, there are different patterns of marketing

practice that reflect different configurations, which are in turn, related to environmental conditions in different ways.

6.5.2 Contribution to Contemporary Marketing Practices Literature

The contribution this study makes to the literature relating to the Coviello et al. (1997) marketing practices classification scheme is two fold: (i) further confirmation of the scheme's explanatory value with respect to forms of marketing practice, (ii) as well as its association with measures of organisational performance, which show there is *no* support for an association between forms of marketing practice, as outlined by Coviello et al. (2001), and organisational performance.

The support of the third research hypothesis (i.e. H3: marketing practices may be observed to conform to the types of transaction, database, interactive and network marketing) corroborates the relative ease with which the scheme may be applied. Although Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices framework is not as well established as the Miles and Snow (1978) typology, it is informative in understanding and distinguishing between the various forms of marketing practices within organisations.

With respect the classification scheme's application to organisational performance, this study builds on the work of two recent studies (Brodie et al. 2007; Coviello et al. 2006), which have begun to explore this association. Unlike these other studies, this research does *not* find an association, and thus, does *not* support the sixth research hypothesis (i.e. H6: relational forms of contemporary marketing practices are associated with higher organisational performance than transactional forms of contemporary marketing practice). Indeed, in this research, there is no significant association between forms of marketing practice and any of the measures of organisational performance.

It is worth noting, "strategy researchers are typically concerned about organizational performance, and strategy" (Hambrick 1984:39). In contrast, those engaged in studies in relation to marketing practice are more concerned about marketing effectiveness and efficiency than organisational performance (Vorhies and Morgan 2003).

The relationship between forms of marketing practice and organisational performance is deserving of further attention. As discussed earlier, in section *6.3.6 H6: Marketing Practice and Organisational Performance*, it *should* be possible to identify an association between forms of marketing practice and performance (Vorhies and Morgan 2003). As mentioned earlier in section *6.5.2 Contribution to Contemporary Marketing Practices Literature*, perhaps the contemporary marketing practice scheme is not as well suited to examining organisational performance, because it has not been designed with the goal of understanding performance variation. Although plurality is a dimension of diversity, the contemporary marketing practice scheme does not adequately discriminate to allow for firm associations to be found. Moreover, it does not focus fully on the strategic practice of marketing, such as how market segmentation and positioning are practiced within organisations. In this respect, the framework is more operational in its orientation.

It is suggested a more focused study, involving a narrower industry sector and/or product-market, may be more constructive in discerning the relationship between forms of marketing practice and organisational performance.

6.5.3 Comment on the Contemporary Marketing Practices Framework

There is much to commend with respect to Coviello et al.'s (1997) contemporary marketing practices classification scheme, in particular, its pluralistic approach. Indeed, theoretical pluralism is considered highly appropriate for the continued development of complex organisational

behaviour (Seth and Thomas 1994). However, the application of the marketing practices framework, during the course of this research, highlights e-marketing and database marketing as areas worthy of review and revision.

E-marketing and database marketing are highly correlated, hence, e-marketing does not always provide as constructive a means of distinguishing between the different forms of contemporary marketing practice (e.g. Brodie et al. 2008; Lindgreen et al. 2004). It is also the main reason e-marketing has not been used in this study. A possible explanation as to why e-marketing is less useful as a form of marketing practice is because *technology* is intrinsic to its definition. That is, e-marketing is defined as "using the internet and other interactive technologies to create and mediate dialogue between the firm and identified customers" (Coviello et al. 2001: 26). To a lesser extent, this same argument applies to database marketing, which is defined as "using database technology to create a relationship" (Brodie et al. 2008: 85).

Reliance on a specific technology or set of technologies to define a strategic variable is problematic because *new technologies* eventually become obsolete and irrelevant; in other words, they become *old technologies*. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest today's internet may, in time, become the equivalent of the telex or fax. Although the telex and fax still exist and are used to a limited extent; they are technologies that are no longer central to business activities. Accordingly, e-marketing and database marketing should perhaps be renamed and redefined by excluding specific references to forms of technology in favour of describing their *strategic nature*, such as the nature of exchange, nature of communication, nature of the relationship with customers, and so on.

Definitions with a strategic basis would enable the various forms of marketing practice to remain relevant, regardless of any changes in

business technologies. One reason why the Miles and Snow (1978) typology remains relevant, 30 years since its formation, is because the strategic archetypes are not reliant on, or defined by, forms of technologies (Hambrick 2003). Hence, as a conceptual framework, the Miles and Snow (1978) typology is elegant and enduring because it describes the essential strategic nature of the variables it encompasses.

6.5.4 Contribution to Strategic Management and Marketing Theory

The contribution this study makes to the combined literature of the Miles and Snow (1978) typology and the Coviello et al. (1997) classification scheme relates to the tentative indications of a life cycle pattern involving the two frameworks.

Organisational life cycle is another way to explain diversity among organisations (Beverland and Lockshin 2001; Miles et al. 1993; Miller and Friesen 1984). Further, product-market competition is a constructive way to understand diversity in a population of organisations (Levinthal 1995; Hannan and Freeman 1988). Miles et al. (1993) contend the level of diversity within an industry is an indication of its overall health. The findings in this research suggest *young* organisations (i.e. established 13 years or less) are more likely to be interaction-prospectors. These tentative findings are useful in offering directional indications for further research.

6.6 Managerial Implications

6.6.1 Managerial Implications of Strategic Archetypes

The integration of strategy and organisation is managerially practical, as organisations are mechanisms for achieving an articulated purpose (Snow et al. 2005). Miles et al. (1978: 561) contend that "managers' ability to meet successfully environmental conditions ... revolves around their understand of organizations as integrated dynamic wholes." It has been

their aim to provide a framework to facilitate such an understanding (Miles et al. 1984).

During the course of their research, Miles and Snow (1984) have found *fit* to be associated with performance. The concept of fit explains the dynamics of organisational adaptation and effectiveness, as well, it addresses the internal and external consistency of particular organisational forms (Miles and Snow 1978). They determine that, "minimal fit is necessary for survival, tight fit is associated with corporate excellence, and early fit provides a competitive advantage" (Miles and Snow 1984: 27). Their strategy-structure archetypes of prospector, analyser, defender and reactor are configurations, or adaptation types, which represent these organisational dynamics as they relate to fit (Miles and Snow 2003).

6.6.2 Managerial Implications of Marketing Practices

It has been the objective of Coviello et al. (1997) to capture the evolving nature of contemporary marketing practices, documenting marketing's efforts towards renewal (Brodie et al. 2008; Gronroos 2007). The marketing practices classification scheme works towards a synthesis of "transactional and relational marketing practices in the context of a consistent framework" (Coviello et al. 1997: 515). An additional aim is to bridge the gap between marketing theory and marketing practice by investigating how organisations relate to their markets (Brodie et al. 2008).

Coviello and Brodie (2001: 396) argue "managers should identify which marketing approaches may challenge their organization as there will be increasing pressure on all firms to effectively apply different approaches as the firm and its portfolio of relationships evolves." In the course of their research, Coviello and Brodie (1998) have identified four issues relevant to managers: (i) to understand the concepts associated with

transactional and relational marketing; (ii) to probe for the degree of relationship their customers require; (iii) to recognise how their business environment may influence marketing practices and customer relationships; and (iv) to be aware of the costs and benefits associated with implementing various forms of marketing practices.

6.6.3 Managerial Implications of this Research Study

The Miles and Snow (1978) typology and the Coviello et al. (1997) scheme are frameworks through which academics and managers may describe, discuss, and analyse modern organisations. The contribution of this study is to examine how these frameworks relate to each other, with a view to enhancing further an understanding of the modern organisation. The aim in examining these frameworks together is to ascertain whether certain archetypes might be associated with certain contemporary marketing practice patterns, thereby yielding a *strategy and marketing fit*. Although there is only partial support for an association between strategic archetype and marketing practice, this line of enquiry is worthy of further investigation. As these frameworks are accessible to managers, such a development would enhance and their application in the analysis of organisations.

6.7 Limitations

The sample for this study is drawn from the members of the two professional marketing associations in Ireland. Although access to a population of organisations in Ireland employing marketing professionals affords a unique opportunity, it may also be viewed as a limitation. As suggested in sections, *6.3.6 H6: Marketing Practice and Organisational Performance* and *6.5 Contributions to Existing Theory,* further research would benefit from narrower frames and sub-frames (i.e. industries and product-markets), so as to establish more clearly the relationships between marketing practice and performance, and between marketing practice and strategic archetype.

Other limitations relate to aspects of survey response and data collection. For example, the research relies on respondents' opinions to facilitate the classification of organisations according to strategic archetype and marketing practice. As well, only one response has been collected from each organisation; that is, there have not been multiple respondents evaluating an organisation. Finally, this study has not availed of external, secondary sources to validate respondents' assessment of their organisation.

6.8 Suggestions for Further Research

Besides a narrower frame and sub-frame (i.e. industry and product-market), the main recommendation for further research is to include the environment as a variable for investigation. By more accurately gauging the influence of the environment, it should be possible to determine whether there is a stronger association between strategic archetype and forms of marketing practice, as well as detecting an association between forms of marketing practice and organisational performance. That is, it may be constructive to avail of a research design where key variables may be controlled, such as sector, and where performance may be explored in a more focused manner. Also, the inclusion of questions to investigate how market segmentation and positioning are practiced within organisations would enhance the strategic dimension of the contemporary marketing practices framework. Moreover, it would be advisable to corroborate the survey data with information from reliable secondary sources to enhance data quality further. Finally, it may be worthwhile to complement the survey data with in-depth interviews, so as to elicit the qualitative explanations/issues that may reside behind the quantitative analysis.

6.9 Conclusion

Organisational theorising has always been "a lot more complicated than simply putting variables together" (Weick 2005: 409). Mintzberg (2005: 360) views theory as "explanation along a continuum, from lists (categories), to typologies (comprehensive lists), to impressions of relationships among factors …, to causations between and patterns among these relationships, to fully explanatory models." *Good* theory development, or explanation, is not only rigorous, but also *relevant* and *insightful* (Mintzberg 2005). In particular, "theory is insightful when it surprises, when it allows us to see profoundly, imaginatively, unconventionally into phenomenon *we thought we understood*" (Mintzberg 2005: 361). Indeed, understanding and explaining anomaly is what often leads to insightful theorising (Van de Ven 2007).

This research has endeavoured to be relevant and insightful. To answer the research question originally posed:

- *How is diversity in marketing practice explained?*
  Marketing practice can be described through Coviello et al.'s (1997) classification of marketing practices scheme. Although plurality is a dimension of diversity of this scheme, it does not adequately discriminate to allow for firm associations to be found. Hence, it is suggested the framework is more operational in its orientation than strategic. The findings from this research also offer *tentative* indications that a life cycle pattern *may* be associated with marketing practice and strategic archetype.

- *How is marketing practice related to strategic archetypes?*
  The findings from this study offer *partial* support for an association between forms of marketing practice and strategic archetypes. The findings indicate reactors are more likely than the other strategic archetypes to avail of transaction marketing;

defenders are more likely to avail of database marketing; prospectors are more likely to avail of interactive marketing practices; and analysers are more likely to avail of network marketing practices. However, further research would be required to determine whether a stronger association exists between Coviello et al.'s (1997) forms of marketing practice and Miles and Snow's (1978) strategic archetypes.

- *How is marketing practice related to organisational performance?* It should be noted, not all of the findings speak to the idea of diversity. The data did *not* offer support for an association between forms of marketing practice, as outlined by Coviello et al. (2001), and organisational performance. Nevertheless, research into this aspect is worthy of further investigation.

"The fluidity of many strategic issues requires … researchers to keep advancing the extant body of knowledge" (Hoskisson et al. 1999: 444). As scholarly disciplines, the challenge within strategic management and marketing is the continual evolution of their research. Undeniably, researchers within these disciplines are increasingly required to respond to discontinuous changes and to provide answers to new problems.

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APPENDIX A:
RESPONDENT FEEDBACK FORM AND PILOT SURVEY

Diversity in Marketing Practice Pilot – Feedback Form

Dear ITAG Member/Kerrysoft Member/Executive MBA Class Member,

Thank you for taking time to complete this pilot survey, which forms part of ongoing research at Trinity College, Dublin and the National University of Ireland, Galway.

Your feedback regarding this pilot is critical to developing the survey that will be ultimately used. Please take a few moments to answer the following questions:

1. On a scale from 1 to 5 (i.e. where 1 is poor and 5 is excellent), how would evaluate the following:

    a) Survey layout ____

    b) Survey length ____

    c) Ease of completion ____

2. Were there any questions that were irrelevant? If so, which ones?

3. Were there any questions that were too sensitive or inappropriate? If so, which ones?

4. Any other comments?

If you have any further questions or feedback regarding this pilot survey, I may be contacted at the email and phone number listed below.

Kindest regards,

Ann M. Torres
Principal Researcher
email: ann.torres@nuigalway.ie
Telephone: +353 864035256
http://www.nuigalway.ie/faculties_departments/marketing/anntorres.html

Diversity in Marketing Practice Study (ITAG Ireland Pilot)

1. Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to complete this survey. This research examines how marketing practice is implemented and managed within organisations. It is part of ongoing research carried out at the J.E. Cairnes Graduate School of Business and Public Policy at the National University of Ireland, Galway in conjuction with the Information Technology Association of Galway (ITAG).

This survey should take approximately 20-25 minutes to complete. All survey responses are treated with respect for privacy and anonymity; no individual company can or will be identified. This survey information is confidentital and will only be analysed in aggregate form.

Please answer ALL sections and questions by ticking the appropriate response. Place the cursor over your answer and left click the mouse.

In return for your time and consideration, we are happy to provide an aggregate summary of the findings; no individual company can or will be identified in the findings. Please give your e-mail address at the end of the survey to request a summary.

*** 1. This survey examines the practice of marketing. Would you describe your current position as being marketing related? That is, are you responsible for making or implementing marketing decisions?**

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

Diversity in Marketing Practice Study (ITAG Ireland Pilot)

2. Section 1 of 9: Your Organisation

In this section we ask you for details about your organisation. By 'YOUR ORGANISATION' we mean the legally constituted entity WHERE YOU ARE EMPLOYED, which may be a division of a larger organisation.

2. How many years has your organisation been established?

years

3. Which of the following best describes the ownership of your organisation?

- ◯ Entirely domestic ownership
- ◯ Domestic and foreign ownership
- ◯ Entirely foreign ownership

4. Which of the following best describes the legal entity of your organisation?

- ◯ Sole Proprietorship
- ◯ General Partnership
- ◯ Limited Partnership (LP)
- ◯ Limited Liability Partnership (LLP).
- ◯ Corporation (Inc.,Co.,Corp.).
- ◯ Limited Liability company (LLC,Ltd.)
- ◯ Co-operative
- ◯ Non-profit
- ◯ Other (please specify)

5. Is your organisation a division or subsidiary of a larger organisation?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

6. Where is the head office of your organisation located? (Please name city and country)

7. Where is your office located? (Please name city and country)

8. How many people are:

(a) employed in your organisation?

(b) employed in marketing activities, excluding sales? (Input 0 if none)

(c) employed in sales activities? (Input 0 if none)

9. Which market(s) does your organisation serve? (Tick all that apply)

☐ Consumer ☐ Business ☐ Government

10. Which market is the most important to your organisation's profitability?

◯ Consumer ◯ Business ◯ Government

11. How would you describe your organisation's offerings?

◯ Goods ◯ Services ◯ Both

12. What goods/services does your organisation market? (Please tick all that apply)

☐ Consumer Packaged Goods (e.g. pet food)

☐ Consumer Durable Goods (e.g. automobiles)

☐ Business to Business Industrial Goods (e.g. computer hardware)

☐ Business to Government Goods (e.g. office equipment)

☐ Consumer Services (e.g. retail banking)

☐ Business to Business Services (e.g. software, IT consultancy)

☐ Business to Government Services (e.g. research, management consultancy)

☐ Other (please specify)

13. Please identify the most important industry sector(s) in which your organisation operates.

14. What proportion of your organisation's 2005 sales revenue was generated by sales to export markets?

◯ None

◯ Less than 10%

◯ 11 - 25%

◯ 26 - 50%

◯ 51 - 79%

◯ Greater than 80%

◯ Information not available

Diversity in Marketing Practice Study (ITAG Ireland Pilot)

3. Section 2 of 9: Organisational Strategy

This section attempts to identify your organisation's overall business strategy. Please read each statement and select the one(s), which describe how your organisation approaches the marketplace.

15. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each statement?

◯ We've attempted to locate and maintain a secure niche in a relatively stable product or service area. We've tried to offer a more limited range of products or services than our competitors and we've tried to protect our domain by offering higher quality and superior service. We may not be at the forefront of developments in the in the industry, but have attempted to concentrate instead on doing the best job possible in our market.

◯ We've tried to operate within a broad product-market domain that undergoes periodic redefinition. We've wanted to be 'first in' with new products and market areas, even if not all of these efforts have proven to be highly profitable. We've tried to respond rapidly to early signals concerning areas of opportunity, and these responses have often led us to a new round of competitive actions.

◯ We've attempted to maintain a stable, limited line of products or services, while at the same time have tired to move out quickly to follow a carefully selected set of the more promising new developments in the industry. We are seldom 'first in' with new products or services, but by carefully monitoring the actions of major competitors in areas compatible with our stable product-market base, we try to be 'second in' with a more cost efficient product or service.

◯ We've not been able to have a consistent product-market orientation. We have not been able to be as aggressive in maintaining established products and markets as have our competitors and we have not been able to take as many risks as they have. We have been forced to respond to environmental pressures.

4. Section 3 of 9: Defining Your Customer

16. Your organisation may focus its marketing activities on a number of customer groups. Please identify who are your organisation's primary customers. By PRIMARY CUSTOMERS we mean those customers who are the main focus of your marketing activities.

17. Your organisation may also direct their marketing activities to a number of customer groups, OTHER than your primary customers. Please identify who are your organisation's OTHER CUSTOMERS.

Diversity in Marketing Practice Study (ITAG Ireland Pilot)

5. Section 4 of 9: Marketing Practices with your PRIMARY CUSTOMERS

This section examines how your organisation practices marketing with respect to your PRIMARY CUSTOMERS. You may find some questions, or parts of questions, to be similar. This repetition is deliberate and has been designed to examine a specific aspect of marketing practice. It has not been done to 'test' you in any way; there are no right or wrong answers to this questionnaire.

Please answer All PARTS of each question by ticking the BUTTON below the scale which best corresponds to what ACTUALLY HAPPENS in your organisation.

18. Our marketing activities are intended to:

	Never 1	2	3	4	Always 5	N/A
(a) attract new customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) retain existing customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) create two-way, technology-enabled dialogue with our customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) develop cooperative relationships with our customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) coordinate activities between ourselves, customers, and other parties in our wider marketing system (e.g. key suppliers, service providers and other organisations with which we interact through our marketing activities)	○	○	○	○	○	○

19. Our marketing planning is focused on issues related to:

	Never 1	2	3	4	Always 5	N/A
(a) our product/brand/service offering	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) customers in our market(s) in addition to our product/brand/service offering	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) managing IT-enabled relationships with many individual customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) one-to-one relationships with customers in our market (s) or individuals in organisations we serve	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) the network of relationships between individuals and organisations in our wider marketing system	○	○	○	○	○	○

20. Our purpose in serving our market(s) is to:

	Never 1	2	3	4	Always 5	N/A
(a) generate a profit or other 'financial' measure (s) of performance (e.g. monetary transactions)	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) acquire customer information for our database in addition to financial/monetary transactions	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) create information-generating dialogue with many identified buyers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) build a long-term relationship with a specific customer(s)	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) form relationships with a number of organisations in our market(s) or wider marketing system	○	○	○	○	○	○

21. Our organisation's contact with our primary customers is:

	Never 1	2	3	4	Always 5	N/A
(a) arms-length, impersonal with no individualised or personal contact	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) somewhat personalised (e.g. by direct mail)	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) interactive via technology such as the internet	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) interpersonal (e.g. involving one-to-one interaction between people)	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) from impersonal to interpersonal across firms in the broader network	○	○	○	○	○	○

22. The type of relationship with our customer is characterised as:

	Never 1	2	3	4	Always 5	N/A
(a) transactions that are discrete or on-off	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) contact (e.g. by direct mail) that is occasional	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) technology-based interactivity that is ongoing and real-time	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) interpersonal interaction that is ongoing	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) contact with people in our organisation and wider marketing system that is ongoing	○	○	○	○	○	○

23. Our marketing resources (i.e. people, time and money) are invested in:

	Never 1	2	3	4	Always 5	N/A
(a) product, promotion, price and distribution activities (or some combination of these)	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) database technology to improve communication with our customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) operational assets (e.g. IT, website, logistics) and functional systems integration (e.g. Marketing with IT)	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) establishing and building personal relationships with individual customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) developing our organisation's network relationships within our market(s) or wider marketing system	○	○	○	○	○	○

24. In our organisation, marketing activities are carried out by:

	Never 1	2	3	4	5 Always	N/A
(a) functional marketers (e.g. product/marketing manager, sales manager, major account manager)	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) specialist marketers (e.g. customer service manager, loyalty manager)	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) marketing specialists with technology specialists and possibly senior managers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) many employees (i.e. across functions and levels)	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) the Managing Director or CEO	○	○	○	○	○	○

25. Our marketing communication involves:

	Never 1	2	3	4	Always 5	N/A
(a) our organisation communicating to the mass market	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) our organisation targeting a specifically identified segment(s) or customer(s)	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) our organisation using technology to communicate with, and possibly among, many individual customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) individuals at various levels in our organisation personally interacting with their individual customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) senior managers networking with other managers from a variety of organisations in our market(s) or wider marketing system	○	○	○	○	○	○

26. When people from our organisation meet with our primary customers it is:

	1 Never	2	3	4	5 Always	N/A
(a) mainly at a formal, business level	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) mainly at a formal level, yet personalised via database technologies	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) mainly at a formal level, yet customised and/or personalised via interactive technologies	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) at both a formal business level and informal social level on a one-to-one basis	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) at both a formal business level and informal social level in a wider organisational system/network	○	○	○	○	○	○

27. Overall, our organisation's general approach to our primary customers involves:

	Never 1	2	3	4	Always 5	N/A
(a) managing the marketing mix to attract and satisfy customers in a broad market or specific segment	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) using database tools to target and retain customers in a specific segment or micro-segment of the market	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) using the Internet and other interactive technologies to create/mediate dialogue between our firm and our customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) developing personal interactions between employees and individual customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) positioning the firm in a wider organisational system/network	○	○	○	○	○	○

6. Section 5 of 9: Marketing Practice with NON PRIMARY Customers

You are more than half way!

28. Overall, our organisation's general approach to our customers, OTHER than our primary customers, involves:

	Never 1	2	3	4	Always 5	N/A
(a) managing the marketing mix to attract and satisfy customers in a broad market or specific segement	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) using database tools to target and retain customers in a specific segment or micro-segment of the market	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) using the Internet and other interactive technologies to create/mediate dialogue between our firm and our customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) developing personal interactions between employees and individual customers	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) positioning the firm in a wider organisational system/network	○	○	○	○	○	○

7. Section 6 of 9: Measuring Marketing Performance

29. Please use the scale below to indicate your organisation's ACTUAL USE of the following measures of performance:

	Never Use 1	2	3	4	Always Use 5
(a) Sales Growth	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
(b) New Customers Gained	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
(c) Volume Market Share	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
(d) Euro Market Share	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
(e) Return on Investment (ROI)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
(f) Customer Retention	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
(g) Profitability	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
(h) Customer Satisfaction	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
(i) Other Performance Measures	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

30. If you use other performance measures, please specify.

31. To the best of your knowledge, approximately what share of the market do you believe your 2005 sales represented (in Euro)?

- ◯ Less than 10%
- ◯ 10% to 25%
- ◯ 26% to 33%
- ◯ 34% to 50%
- ◯ 51% to 66%
- ◯ 67% to 75%
- ◯ 76% or higher

32. What was your sales revenue in 2005?

(In Euro Millions)

Information not available
(Please input 0)

33. What was your sales revenue in 2004?

(In Euro Millions)

Information not available
(Please input 0)

34. What was your Return on Investment (ROI) in 2005?

Percentage (%)

Information not available
(Please input 0)

35. What was your Return on Investment (ROI) in 2004?

Percentage (%)

Information not available (Please input 0)

36. Relative to your organisation's primary competitor:

	Much Worse 1	2	3	4	Much Better 5	N/A
Sales growth in 2005 was	○	○	○	○	○	○
ROI in 2005 was	○	○	○	○	○	○

37. In 2005 how did your organisation perform relative to expectations for:

	Much Worse 1	2	3	4	Much Better 5	N/A
(a) Sales Growth	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) New Customers Gained	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) Volume Market Share	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) Euro Market Share	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) Return on Investment (ROI)	○	○	○	○	○	○
(f) Customer Retention	○	○	○	○	○	○
(g) Profitability	○	○	○	○	○	○
(h) Customer Satisfaction	○	○	○	○	○	○
(i) Other Performance Measures	○	○	○	○	○	○

38. Why is your organisation performing better or worse than expectations? (Please consider external factors such as legislation, technology, demographic and cultural trends, the economy, suppliers, distributors, and your competitors as well as internal factors such as resources, skills and strategy).

Diversity in Marketing Practice Study (ITAG Ireland Pilot)

8. Section 8 of 9: Your Views on Marketing

39. Based on your experience, what are the major trends, issues or changes in marketing practice currently affecting your industry?

40. Has your organisation changed its marketing practices in the last few years?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

41. If YES, please explain how and why your organisation's marketing practices have changed.

42. Should your organisation change it marketing practices?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

43. If YES, please explain how and why your organisation's marketing practices should change.

Diversity in Marketing Practice Study (ITAG Ireland Pilot)

9. Section 9 of 9: About You

The last section!

44. How long have you worked in your organisation?

Years

45. What is the title of your current position?

46. How long have you held your current position?

Years

47. At what level is your current position?

- ◯ Upper Management
- ◯ Middle Management
- ◯ Lower Management
- ◯ Staff
- ◯ Other (please specify)

48. Would you describe your current position as marketing related?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

49. If YES, please describe how your position is marketing related.

50. What is the title of the most senior marketing position in your organisation?

51. Have you any formal marketing qualifications or marketing training?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

52. If YES, please describe:

53. Would your organisation be interested in marketing seminars/workshops sponsored by ITAG?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

54. If YES, what kinds of issues should these marketing seminars/workshops address?

55. Would your organisation be interested in support programmes (e.g. mentor programmes, technology transfer initiatives, R&D collaboration, research commercialisation) provided by state bodies (e.g. Enterprise Ireland, Forfas)?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

56. If YES, please outline the kind of support programmes you would find most useful to your organisation.

57. What is the highest level of education you have achieved?

- ◯ High School/Secondary School
- ◯ Technical/Trade/TAFE Qualification
- ◯ Undergraduate Degree
- ◯ Postgraduate Degree
- ◯ Other (please specify)

58. Your age?

- ◯ Less than 25 years old
- ◯ 26-35 years old
- ◯ 36-45 years old
- ◯ 46-55 years old
- ◯ 56 or older

59. Your gender?

- ◯ Female
- ◯ Male

Diversity in Marketing Practice Study (ITAG Ireland Pilot)

10. Thank You

We sincerely appreciate your efforts in contributing to our research study. Replies are fully confidential and all results will be aggregated. Hence, no organisation can or will be identified.

Thank you again for your time and consideration.

60. If you would like to receive an executive summary of the survey results please provide your email address in the box below.

APPENDIX B:
PRIVACY STATEMENT AND ONLINE SURVEY

Diversity in Marketing Practice Survey – Privacy Statement

Thank you for taking part in this research survey. In obtaining your co-operation, I undertake not to mislead you about the nature of the research, as well as the way data are collected and used.

All the answers you give are treated as confidential, and are used solely for the purposes of this academic research; they will not be used in any other context. The survey will be hosted on SPSS's secure server, and all survey responses are treated with respect for privacy and anonymity. To enhance anonymity, personal contact details (e.g. your name, email address or telephone number) are not collected in this research. The survey information will only be analysed in aggregate form, so your individual responses cannot be traced back to you or your firm.

Your participation is voluntary. Hence, you are entitled to ask that part, or all, of the record of your involvement in the survey be deleted or destroyed. Wherever this is possible, I will act on your request.

If you have any questions about this survey, please contact the principal researcher, Ann Torres, at ann.torres@nuigalway.ie or (086) 4035256. This research is consistent with the code of conducts for the Market Research Society (www.mrs.org) and ESOMAR, the international professional body for market research (www.esomar.org).

Diversity in Marketing Practice (Final Draft 2008)

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to complete this survey. This research examines how marketing practice is implemented and managed within organisations. It is part of ongoing research carried out at the School of Business at the University of Dublin, Trinity College and the J.E. Cairnes Graduate School of Business and Economics at the National University of Ireland, Galway and is conducted in association with the Marketing Society and The Marketing Institute of Ireland.

This survey should take approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete. Please answer questions by ticking the appropriate response.

All survey responses are treated with respect for privacy and anonymity. This survey information is confidential and will only be analysed in aggregate form; no individual or company can or will be identified.

If you would like a summary of the findings, please e-mail ann.torres@nuigalway.ie. Findings will also be made available through the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute of Ireland.

1. This survey examines the practice of marketing. Would you describe your current position as being marketing related? That is, are you responsible for making or implementing marketing decisions?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

2. Are you a member of?

- ◯ Marketing Society
- ◯ Marketing Institute of Ireland
- ◯ Both

Diversity in Marketing Practice (Final Draft 2008)

Section 1 of 6: Your Organisation

In this section we ask for details about your organisation. By YOUR ORGANISATION we mean the legally constituted entity WHERE YOU ARE EMPLOYED, which may be a division of a larger organisation.

3. How many years has your organisation been established?

Years ☐

4. Which of the following BEST describes the LEGAL ENTITY of your organisation?

- ◯ Sole Proprietorship
- ◯ General Partnership
- ◯ Limited Partnership (LP)
- ◯ Limited Liability Partnership (LLP)
- ◯ Corporation (Inc., Co., Corp.)
- ◯ Limited Liability Company (LLC, Ltd.)
- ◯ Co-operative
- ◯ Non-profit
- ◯ Other (please specify)

☐

5. Which category BEST describes the goods/services your organisation markets?

- ◯ Consumer Packaged Goods (e.g. food, beverages, footwear, apparel, toiletries, cleaning products)
- ◯ Consumer Durable Goods (e.g. automobiles, household appliances, consumer electronics)
- ◯ Consumer Services (e.g. retail banking, insurance, childcare, education, medical care, transportation)
- ◯ Business to Business Supply Goods (e.g. office supplies, raw materials, component parts)
- ◯ Business to Business Durable Goods (e.g. computer hardware, office equipment, machinery)
- ◯ Business to Business Services (e.g. advertising, planning, research, consultancy, media services)
- ◯ Other (please specify)

☐

6. How many people are employed in:

(a) Your organisation? ☐

(b) Marketing activities, excluding sales? (Input 0 if none) ☐

(c) Sales activities? (Input 0 if none) ☐

Section 2 of 6: Organisational Strategy

This section attempts to identify your organisation's OVERALL BUSINESS STRATEGY (i.e. your organisation's APPROACH to the MARKETPLACE).

7. Which statement BEST describes your organisation's APPROACH to the MARKETPLACE?

◯ (a) We've attempted to locate and maintain a secure niche in a relatively stable product or service area. We've tried to offer a more limited range of products or services than our competitors and we've tried to protect our domain by offering higher quality and superior service. We may not be at the forefront of developments in the industry, but have attempted to concentrate instead on doing the best job possible in our market.

◯ (b) We've tried to operate within a broad product-market domain that undergoes periodic redefinition. We've wanted to be 'first in' with new products and market areas, even if not all of these efforts have proven to be highly profitable. We've tried to respond rapidly to early signals concerning areas of opportunity, and these responses have often led us to a new round of competitive actions.

◯ (c) We've attempted to maintain a stable, limited line of products or services, while at the same time have tried to move out quickly to follow a carefully selected set of the more promising new developments in the industry. We are seldom 'first in' with new products or services, but by carefully monitoring the actions of major competitors in areas compatible with our stable product-market base, we try to be 'second in' with a more cost efficient product or service.

◯ (d) We've not been able to have a consistent product-market orientation. We have not been able to be as aggressive in maintaining established products and markets as have our competitors and we have not been able to take as many risks as they have. We have been forced to respond to environmental pressures.

Diversity in Marketing Practice (Final Draft 2008)

Section 3 of 6: Organisational Strategy Relative to Competition

This section attempts to identify your organisation's APPROACH to the MARKETPLACE in COMPARISON to COMPETITORS.

8. The PRODUCTS and SERVICES we provide to our customers are best characterised as:

◯ (a) more innovative, continually changing and broader in nature throughout the organisation and marketplace.

◯ (b) fairly stable in certain units/departments and markets while innovative in other units/departments and markets.

◯ (c) well focused, relatively stable and consistently defined throughout the organisation and marketplace.

◯ (d) in a state of transition, and largely based on responding to opportunities or threats from the marketplace or environment.

9. Our organisation has an IMAGE in the marketplace as a firm which:

◯ (a) offers fewer, selective products/services which are high in quality.

◯ (b) adopts new ideas and innovations, but only after careful analysis.

◯ (c) reacts to opportunities or threats in the marketplace to maintain or enhance our position.

◯ (d) has a reputation for being innovative and creative.

10. The amount of time our firm spends on MONITORING CHANGES and TRENDS in the marketplace can best be described as:

◯ (a) Lengthy: we are continuously monitoring the marketplace.

◯ (b) Minimal: we really don't spend much time monitoring the marketplace.

◯ (c) Average: we spend a reasonable amount of time monitoring the marketplace.

◯ (d) Sporadic: we sometimes spend a great deal of time and other times spend little time monitoring the marketplace.

11. The INCREASE or LOSS in DEMAND, which we have experienced are due most probably to our practice of:

◯ (a) concentrating on more fully developing those markets which we currently serve.

◯ (b) responding to the pressures of the marketplace by taking few risks.

◯ (c) aggressively entering into new markets with new types of product/service offerings.

◯ (d) assertively penetrating more deeply into markets we currently serve, while adopting new products/services only after a very careful review of their potential.

12. One of the MOST IMPORTANT GOALS in our firm is our dedication and commitment to:

◯ (a) keep costs under control.

◯ (b) analyse our costs and revenues carefully, to keep costs under control and selectively generate new products/services or enter new markets.

◯ (c) ensure that the people, resources and equipment required to develop new services and new markets are available and accessible.

◯ (d) make sure that we guard against critical threats by taking whatever action is necessary.

13. The COMPETENCIES (SKILLS) which our MANAGERIAL employees possess can best be characterised as:

◯ (a) Analytical: their skills enable them to both identify trends and then develop new service offerings or markets.

◯ (b) Specialised: their skills are concentrated into one, or a few, specific areas.

◯ (c) Broad and Entrepreneurial: their skills are diverse, flexible, and enable change to be created.

◯ (d) Fluid: their skills are related to the near-term demands of the marketplace.

14. The one thing that PROTECTS my organisation from COMPETITORS is that we are able to:

◯ (a) carefully analyse emerging trends and adopt only those which have proven potential.

◯ (b) do a limited number of things exceptionally well.

◯ (c) respond to trends even though they may possess only moderate potential as they arise.

◯ (d) consistently develop new services and new markets.

15. Our MANAGEMENT staff tends to CONCENTRATE on:

◯ (a) maintaining a secure financial position through cost and quality control measures.

◯ (b) analysing opportunities in the marketplace and selecting only those opportunities with proven potential, while protecting a secure financial position.

◯ (c) activities or business functions which most need attention given the opportunities or problems we currently confront.

◯ (d) developing new products/services and expanding into new markets or market segments.

16. My organisation PREPARES for the FUTURE by identifying:

◯ (a) the best possible solutions to those problems or challenges that require immediate attention.

◯ (b) trends and opportunities in the marketplace, which can result in the creation of service offerings or programs that are new to our industry or reach new markets.

◯ (c) those problems which, if solved, will maintain and then improve our current service offerings and market position.

◯ (d) those trends in our industry, which other firms have proven to possess long-term potential, while also solving problems related to our current service offerings and our current customers' needs.

17. The STRUCTURE of my ORGANISATION is:

◯ (a) functional in nature (i.e. organised by department - marketing, accounting, human resources, etc.).

◯ (b) service or market oriented (i.e. all departments have some marketing and accounting responsibilities).

◯ (c) primarily functional (departmental) in nature; however, a service or market oriented structure does exist in newer or larger service offering areas.

◯ (d) continually changing to enable us to meet opportunities and solve problems as they arise.

18. The PROCEDURES my organisation uses to EVALUATE PERFORMANCE are best described as:

◯ (a) decentralised and participatory encouraging many organisational members to be involved.

◯ (b) heavily oriented toward those reporting requirements which demand immediate attention.

◯ (c) highly centralised and primarily the responsibility of senior management.

◯ (d) centralised in more established service areas and more participatory in newer product/service areas.

Section 4 of 6: Marketing Practices with Main Customers

This section examines how your organisation practices marketing with respect to your MAIN CUSTOMERS (i.e. those customers who are the FOCUS of your organisation's MARKETING ACTIVITIES).

19. Our marketing activities are PRIMARILY intended to:

◯ (a) attract new customers.

◯ (b) retain our existing customers.

◯ (c) develop cooperative/interactive relationships with our customers.

◯ (d) coordinate a network of relationships within our wider market system (i.e. customers, suppliers, service providers and other relevant parties).

20. Our marketing planning is focused PRIMARILY on the:

◯ (a) product/service offering.

◯ (b) general customer base.

◯ (c) individual customers.

◯ (d) network of relationships within our wider market system (i.e. customers, suppliers, service providers and other relevant parties).

21. Our marketing resources (i.e. people, time and money) are PRIMARILY invested in:

◯ (a) product/service offering, promotion, price and distribution activities (or some combination of these activities).

◯ (b) communication technology with our general customer base.

◯ (c) developing personal relationships with individual customers.

◯ (d) coordinating the network of relationships within our wider market system (i.e. customers, suppliers, service providers and other relevant parties).

22. In our organisation, marketing activities are PRIMARILY carried out by:

◯ (a) functional marketers (i.e. oversee the general development of the product including its pricing, promotion, and distribution).

◯ (b) specialist marketers (i.e. specialise in a specific area of marketing such as public relations, electronic marketing, advertising, corporate communications, customer service etc.).

◯ (c) all employees.

◯ (d) chief executive/senior managers.

23. Our purpose in serving our market(s) is PRIMARILY to:

◯ (a) generate financial return (i.e. profit or to achieve other 'financial' measures).

◯ (b) acquire customer information for our database, as well as financial return.

◯ (c) develop interactive relationships with individual customers, as well as financial return.

◯ (d) form a network of relationships with organisations in our wider market system (i.e. customers, suppliers, service providers and other relevant parties), as well as financial return.

24. Our marketing communication PRIMARILY involves:

◯ (a) our organisation communicating to the mass market.

◯ (b) our organisation communicating to an identified market segment.

◯ (c) our individual employees communicating with their customers.

◯ (d) our senior managers communicating with other senior managers in our wider market system (i.e. customers, suppliers, service providers and other relevant parties).

25. Our contact with customers is BEST described as:

◯ (a) arms-length, impersonal.

◯ (b) somewhat personalised.

◯ (c) interpersonal.

26. The nature of our relationship with customers is BEST described as:

◯ (a) discrete with no expectation of future personalised contact with customers.

◯ (b) some future personalised contact with customers.

◯ (c) ongoing personal contact by individuals in our firm with their customers.

◯ (d) ongoing personal contact by individuals in our firm with members within the wider market system (i.e. customers, suppliers, service providers and other relevant parties).

Section 5 of 6: Measuring Performance

This section examines your organisation's approach to MEASURING PERFORMANCE.

27. Relative to the objectives set, please rate how well your organisation has achieved the following outcomes during the last year.

	Low 0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	High 11
(a) Overall profit margin relative to the objective set	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) Overall sales relative to the objective set	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) Overall return on investment (ROI) relative to the objective set	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

28. Over the last year, your organisation's performance in its principal market was GREATER than _____ % of all competitors. *(Example: If you believe your organisation's return on investment (ROI) is GREATER than 45% of all competitors, then tick 41-50%.)*

	Greater than 0 % of competitors	1-10%	11-20%	21-30%	31-40%	41-50%	51-60%	61-70%	71-80%	81-90%	91-99%	Greater than 100% of competitors
(a) Return on Investment (ROI)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
(b) Relative Market Shares (RMS)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
(c) Return on Assets (ROA)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
(d) Sales Growth	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
(e) Overall Customer Retention	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
(f) Major Customer Retention	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Section 6 of 6: About You

The last section!

29. How long have you worked in your organisation?

Years ☐

30. At what level is your current position?

- ◯ Upper Management
- ◯ Middle Management
- ◯ Lower Management
- ◯ Staff/Employee
- ◯ Other (please specify)

☐

31. What is the highest level of education you have achieved?

- ◯ Secondary School
- ◯ Technical/Trade Qualification
- ◯ Undergraduate Degree
- ◯ Postgraduate Degree
- ◯ Other (please specify)

☐

32. Your age?

Years ☐

33. Your gender?

- ◯ Female
- ◯ Male

Thank You

We sincerely appreciate your efforts in contributing to our research study. Replies are fully confidential and all results will be aggregated. Hence, no individual or organisation can or will be identified.

If you would like a summary of the findings please e-mail ann.torres@nuigalway.ie. Findings will also be made available through the Marketing Society and the Marketing Institute of Ireland.

Thank you again for your time and consideration.

APPENDIX C:
1ST EMAIL TO MARKETING SOCIETY MEMBERS

Dear Marketing Society Member,

You are invited to participate in an online survey examining marketing practice within organisations. This survey is conducted in association with the Marketing Society, Marketing Institute of Ireland, Trinity College Dublin and the National University of Ireland Galway.

In the next few days, you can expect to receive a link to the survey, which will take 10 to 15 minutes of your time to complete. All responses are treated with respect for privacy and anonymity. The study observes the code of conducts for the Market Research Society and ESOMAR. If you prefer not to participate in this study, send an email, with 'opt-out' typed in subject line, to Irene McEvoy at irene@marketingsociety.ie.

Your participation in this study would be greatly appreciated.

Kind regards,

Niall McCaffrey
Chairman
Marketing Society

APPENDIX D:
2ND EMAIL TO MARKETING SOCIETY MEMBERS

Dear Marketing Society Member,

I know what you are thinking: Not another questionnaire! Does this questionnaire deserve to be answered? I propose it does, but then I would, as I have put considerable work into its preparation.

You will have already received an email from Niall McCaffrey, Chairman of the Marketing Society, introducing the survey. This study is for my doctoral thesis, which examines marketing practice within organisations. It is part of ongoing research at Trinity College, Dublin and the National University of Ireland, Galway. All responses are treated with respect for privacy and anonymity (see privacy statement attached to this email) and a summary of the findings will be made available through the Marketing Society.

The success of this project depends on getting a high response rate. To this end, I would appreciate if you would complete this survey, available at the following link:

https://survey.spss.ie/mrIWeb/mrIWeb.dll?I.Project=DMPRACTICESTUDY

Kindest regards,

Ann M. Torres
Principal Researcher
email: ann.torres@nuigalway.ie
Telephone: +353 864035256
http://www.nuigalway.ie/faculties_departments/marketing/anntorres.html

APPENDIX E:
3RD EMAIL TO MARKETING SOCIETY MEMBERS

Dear Marketing Society Member,

A reminder to please complete the survey for my doctoral thesis, available at:

https://survey.spss.ie/mrIWeb/mrIWeb.dll?I.Project=DMPRACTICESTUDY

All responses are treated with respect for privacy and anonymity (see privacy statement attached to this email) and a summary of the findings will be made available through the Marketing Society.

To-date, your response has been quite good, with over 15% of the Marketing Society membership completing the survey. I thank those of you who have generously given me 10 to 15 minutes of your time and ask you to forgive this intrusion.

Kindest regards,

Ann M. Torres
Principal Researcher
email: ann.torres@nuigalway.ie
Telephone: +353 864035256
http://www.nuigalway.ie/faculties_departments/marketing/anntorres.html

APPENDIX F:

EZINE NOTICE TO MARKETING INSTITUTE MEMBERS

Diversity in Marketing Practice - Survey

We encourage you to participate in an online survey examining marketing practice within organisations. The 10 minute survey is conducted in association with Trinity College Dublin and the National University of Ireland Galway.

Start Survey:
https://survey.spss.ie/mrIWeb/mrIWeb.dll?I.Project=DMPRACTICESTUDY

Niamh Walsh, Communications Manager, The Marketing Institute of Ireland

N.B. A link to the ezine notification may be found at:
http://newsweaver.ie/mii/index000262941.cfm?x=b11,0,w&

APPENDIX G:
1ST EMAIL TO MARKETING INSTITUTE MEMBERS

Dear Mr./Ms. XXX,

You are invited to participate in an online survey examining marketing practice within organisations. This survey is conducted in association with the Marketing Institute of Ireland, Marketing Society, Trinity College Dublin and the National University of Ireland Galway.

The success of this project depends on getting a high response rate. To this end, I would appreciate if you would complete this survey, which will take 10 to 15 minutes of your time, and is available at the following link:

https://survey.spss.ie/mrIWeb/mrIWeb.dll?I.Project=DMPRACTICESTUDY

All responses are treated with respect for privacy and anonymity (see privacy statement attached to this email) The study observes the code of conducts for the Market Research Society and ESOMAR. If you have any questions, please contact the principal researcher, Ann Torres, at (086) 4035256 or ann.torres@nuigalway.ie.

Your participation in this study would be greatly appreciated.

Kind regards,

Ann M. Torres
Principal Researcher
email: ann.torres@nuigalway.ie
Telephone: +353 864035256
http://www.nuigalway.ie/faculties_departments/marketing/anntorres.html

APPENDIX H:
2ND EMAIL TO MARKETING INSTITUTE MEMBERS

Dear Mr./Ms. XXX,

If you have not already done so, a reminder to please complete the survey for my doctoral thesis, available at:

https://survey.spss.ie/mrIWeb/mrIWeb.dll?I.Project=DMPRACTICESTUDY

All responses are treated with respect for privacy and anonymity (see privacy statement attached to this email). If you are interested in a summary of the findings, please contact me at: ann.torres@nuigalway.ie

If you have already completed the survey, I thank you for generously giving me your time and ask you to forgive this intrusion.

Kindest regards,

Ann M. Torres
Principal Researcher
email: ann.torres@nuigalway.ie
Telephone: +353 864035256
http://www.nuigalway.ie/faculties_departments/marketing/anntorres.html