

Направление «Менеджмент»

Профили:

«Маркетинг»	Код 050
«Маркетинговые коммуникации и реклама в современном бизнесе»	Код 051
«Стратегическое и корпоративное управление»	Код 052
«Управление проектами: проектный анализ, инвестиции, технологии реализации»	Код 053
«Управление человеческими ресурсами»	Код 054
«Экономика впечатлений: менеджмент в индустрии гостеприимства и туризме»	Код 055

Время выполнения задания – 180 мин.

Выберите и выполните только один из блоков заданий в соответствии с выбранной вами программой магистерской подготовки.

Блок 1. «Маркетинг»

Прочитайте статью¹ и сделайте ее критический анализ на русском языке.

Introduction

As firms globalize their operations, examining cross-national differences in consumer attitudes and behaviors has become a topic of considerable interest.

Several studies have examined the role of national culture in explaining cross-national variance in phenomena like customer satisfaction, consumer expectations, price sensitivity, service quality, loyalty, and so forth.

This paper examines a variety of national-level predictors we hypothesize will be correlated with cross-national variation in satisfaction – including cultural, socioeconomic, political-economic, and sector/industry type factors. We use a unique and very large sample of cross-national, cross-industry customer satisfaction data from 19 nations in diverse regions of the world, including nearly 257,000 interviewed consumers.

Cross-national customer satisfaction

Firms are increasingly focused on international markets to improve sales and profitability (Ghemawat 2007). Crossing national boundaries, however, makes it more difficult for managers to deliver consistent service, to meet customers' unique needs, and to judge the performance of disparate operations in successfully satisfying customer needs and wants. As a result, customer satisfaction measurement has become an international phenomenon. It is common today for multinational corporations to implement satisfaction measurement programs, with data collected using standardized instruments in multiple languages across a dozen or more countries/markets and results compared across these markets and utilized as the basis for performance incentives, operational decision-making, and process improvement. The overriding goal of these programs is more than just the creation of happier customers. Rather, cross-national satisfaction measurement is driven by the underlying belief that improving satisfaction will result in increased customer loyalty and the financial benefits typically associated with more loyal customers. A large body of research supports this belief.

In sum, research into customer satisfaction overwhelmingly supports the position that satisfaction impacts consumer intentions and business outcomes typically associated with customer loyalty and thus supports the implementation of these cross-market, cross-national satisfaction measurement programs. For these multinational corporations, however, operationalizing satisfaction efforts globally to secure customer loyalty across a variety of often very different markets presents

¹ Статья составлена по: Morgeson F.V. III et al. An investigation of the cross-national determinants of customer satisfaction // *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 39, 2011, pp. 198–215.

distinct challenges. Academic researchers and research practitioners have long recognized that consumers from different cultures and countries vary in their response styles in surveys (i.e., in how they use rating scales). As a result, researchers have sought ways to effectively equate responses from various cultures to allow for meaningful comparisons (e.g., *Iacobucci et al. 2003; Smith & Reynolds 2001; Steenkamp & Baumgartner 1998*). The underlying assumption in these calibrations, particularly as they relate to satisfaction, is that different rating levels between cultures can correspond to the same actual levels of satisfaction, and thus to potentially very different conclusions, recommendations, and operational implications.

While culture has been found to complicate interpretation of differences in survey data, we would also expect a variety of national-level differences to have a substantial effect on a phenomenon such as consumer satisfaction. Indeed, a range of cross-national differences – including culture, but also political, economic, and socio-economic factors – are likely to influence both how consumers perceive and respond to their consumption experience and the level of satisfaction delivered by an economy.

Hypotheses

In what follows, we present six hypotheses in three categories that we argue should help explain cross-national variance in customer satisfaction: cultural, socioeconomic, and political-economic factors.

The case for cultural differences

For most of the decisions we make, it is impossible to separate our choices from the culture through which we filter and interpret information, the symbols and values that lend meaning to our lives. Individuals in every society make decisions and pursue life plans against the backdrop of a complex network of cultural relationships influencing these decisions. Hofstede defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from those of another” (1994, p. 4).

Most cross-cultural studies in the marketing discipline have employed Hofstede’s (1983) five dimensions of culture to test its importance. However, given some of the limitations of the Hofstede dimensions, and particularly the age of the data and the lack of coverage of certain countries (including four countries in our sample), we adopt an alternative set of cultural indicators. Following Inglehart and Baker, we identify two broad, dichotomous measures of national-cultural values, multidimensional indicators that have been linked empirically to modernization (defined broadly) within nations: traditional vs. secular-rational values, and survival vs. self-expression values (*Inglehart 1997; Inglehart & Baker 2000, p. 25*).

We suggest that as societies move away from traditional and toward secular-rational values, individual consumers will be more willing to reject authority, question institutions, and thus be more able (and willing) to both form independent critical judgments about and express lower satisfaction with a consumption experience. Thus,

H1: Consumers in more secular-rational societies will express lower satisfaction with the goods and services they have experienced.

On the other hand, in self-expressive, post-industrial societies, individuals take physical and economic security for granted (i.e., lose their survival values). The greater levels of interpersonal trust that have developed in these societies should extend beyond personal relationships to other human interactions, including consumer interactions. Stronger perceptions of health and subjective well-being in self-expressive societies should also correlate to greater happiness and satisfaction with a range of life experiences for these individuals. For these reasons, we suggest that as societies move away from survival and toward self-expressive values, satisfaction with consumption experiences will increase. Therefore,

H2: Consumers in more self-expressive societies will express greater satisfaction with the goods and services they have experienced.

The case for socioeconomic differences

Economic prosperity within a nation – measured by a traditional indicator such as per capita gross domestic product (GDP) – could be assumed to be positively related to consumer satisfaction. Research at the consumer level once made this assumption as well, suggesting that wealthier consumers should be more satisfied consumers (*Anderson et al. 2008; Bryant & Cha 1996; Mittal & Kamakura 2001*). On this line of reasoning, it was postulated that because more prosperous consumers should have a greater ability to purchase the goods capable of satisfying them, and because the more expensive goods purchased by higher income consumers are typically of higher quality, these consumers should be more satisfied. However, research has consistently shown that as income increases, consumers in fact tend to become more critical of the goods they consume and less satisfied, most likely as a consequence of the higher standards and more discerning nature of these consumers (*Anderson et al. 2008; Bryant & Cha 1996*). Following from these findings and extrapolating to the national level, we suggest that:

H3: Consumers in societies with higher per capita gross domestic product will express lower satisfaction with the goods and services they have experienced.

On the other hand, we suggest that a higher literacy rate within a nation should lead to greater satisfaction among consumers. Literate consumers are likely to be, in short, “better” consumers, more capable of self-gratification through educated choices and greater competence. Moreover, and perhaps most vitally, a higher national literacy rate should lead to greater customer satisfaction through a higher-quality labor force generated by increased literacy. The link between literacy and a high-quality, competitive workforce has been previously noted (*Berryman 1994*), and this relationship is particularly important in terms of customer satisfaction. That is, given the centrality of the provision of (human) services and the services sector to both developed and developing economies, and the importance of a well-trained, literate labor pool across nearly every economic sector, increased literacy should result in stronger consumer satisfaction. Therefore,

H4: Consumers in societies with higher literacy rates will express greater satisfaction with the goods and services they have experienced.

The case for political-economic differences

The potential link between the economic freedom or competitiveness of a nation and the satisfaction of its consumers has long been noted. The most basic precepts of free market economics, going back at least to Adam Smith, suggest that consumers should experience greater utility (or satisfaction) from goods consumed within a free market economy. Because competition among suppliers to attract and win loyal customers results in higher quality products and services, lower prices, and so forth, competition should be positively related to consumer satisfaction. Therefore, we would expect that greater economic freedom would positively impact satisfaction within a nation. The logic here is straightforward – less economic freedom means less choice for consumers.

While economic freedom is a complex, multi-dimensional concept, we suggest that two of its dimensions – the openness of a market to foreign trade and international commerce, and the openness of a market to internal business development – should be relevant vis-à-vis customer satisfaction. Both of these types of economic freedom should increase competition and broaden the number, quality and pricing of competitive alternatives in a manner beneficial to the consumers (and their satisfaction) within these nations. Therefore, with regard to economic freedom we suggest the following hypotheses:

H5: Consumers in societies with fewer barriers to free trade and international commerce will express greater satisfaction with the goods and services they have experienced.

H6: Consumers in societies with fewer barriers to internal business development will express greater satisfaction with the goods they have experienced.

Data and measures

Data collection and the customer satisfaction variable

To test the hypotheses outlined above, we analyze a cross-national sample of consumer satisfaction survey data. The dataset consists of interviews with customers in 19 nations – Denmark,

Estonia, Finland, Colombia, Czech Republic, Hong Kong, Iceland, Japan, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Russia, Singapore, Sweden, Thailand, Turkey, Ukraine, the United Kingdom, and the United States. All of the data were collected for analysis by research groups implementing national customer satisfaction indices employing a common methodology (to the extent possible) and a common customer satisfaction model.

For each of these national satisfaction indices, interviews of customers were conducted by local market research firms to measure consumer experiences with a range of economically important companies, industries and economic sectors. In each nation, the administered questionnaire consists of a core set of questions on both the antecedents and outcomes of customer satisfaction, including customer expectations, perceptions of quality and value, complaint behavior, and customer loyalty. To maximize comparability and study equivalence across nations, several steps were taken (*Smith & Reynolds 2001*). First, the administered questionnaire was kept as homogenous as possible at all levels of measurement to maximize comparability across companies, industries and economic sectors. The groups administering data collection in each country followed the same set of methods, and therefore interviewing parameters, survey question wording, response scales, and so forth were kept as identical as possible, or altered where culturally appropriate and necessary, across the 19 countries. To establish temporal equivalence, the sample includes data collected during the 2007 calendar year for all nations.

Furthermore, prior to data collection, the questionnaires were translated into the appropriate local language(s), backtranslated, and checked for consistency. Interviewing was done using face-to-face, online, and computer-assisted telephone interviewing (CATI) techniques, depending on local necessities and standard market research practices in each country. Appropriate steps were taken in each country to insure a random sample drawn from as representative a cross-section of the population as possible, although “representativeness” in the context of these studies denotes something different for each measured industry. The total sample in terms of interviewed consumers is 256,875 across the 19 nations, but because we are analyzing industry-level satisfaction scores, our total sample is $N = 272$.

Cultural and socioeconomic variables

For our cultural variables, we follow Inglehart and Baker’s traditional vs. secular-rational and survival vs. self-expressive conceptualization of culture, discussed above, and append these variables to our sample. Figure 1 illustrates the scores on both of these cultural indicators for each country in our sample.

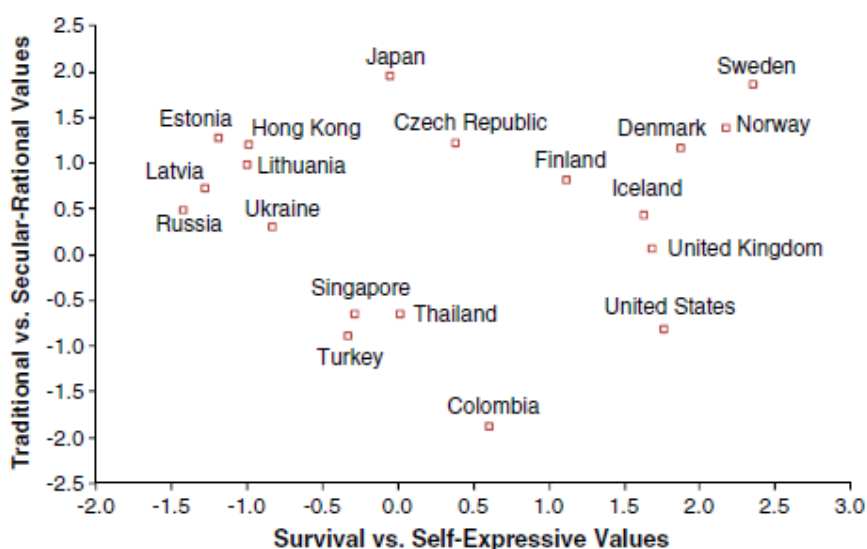


Fig. 1 Traditional vs. secular-rational and survival vs. self-expressive values by nation

The socioeconomic variables in our study – per capita gross domestic product and literacy rate – were accessed from a widely-used source for this type of cross-national data, the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency’s World Factbook (<https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-worldfactbook/>). For GDP, we use purchasing power parity-adjusted per capita GDP expressed in thousands of U.S. dollars, with 2007 results for this data (rather than the more recent 2008 or 2009 data) appended to the sample to match the year the customer satisfaction data was collected. The same data source was used for the literacy rate variable (defined as the percentage of individuals over 15 years of age capable of reading and writing), although the most recent year of reporting for this data varied across the 19 countries in our sample (from 2000 to 2005).

Political economy variables

Several independent sources of information exist to assist corporations and managers in determining international opportunities and risks. One of the most widely used measures of economic freedom is the Index of Economic Freedom produced by the Heritage Foundation (<http://www.heritage.org/Index/>). For this index, economic freedom is measured as a function of ten interrelated components: Trade Freedom, Business Freedom, Financial Freedom, Fiscal Freedom, Government Size, Monetary Freedom, Investment Freedom, Property Rights, Freedom from Corruption, and Labor Freedom. Two of these measures of economic freedom – trade and business freedom – most closely match the hypotheses we present above.

In the Heritage dataset, Trade Freedom is defined as an absence of obstacles to international commerce (such as tariffs and non-tariff barriers), and is scaled from 0–100, with a higher score on the scale indicative of a market more open to free trade and international commerce. Business Freedom is defined as an absence of regulations (concerning opening a business, closing a business, obtaining licenses, etc.) that impact entrepreneurship and impede internal private sector growth. This variable is also scored on a 0–100 scale, with a higher score indicating fewer government regulations and greater business freedom. Figure 2 illustrates the scores on both of these economic freedom indicators for each country in our sample.

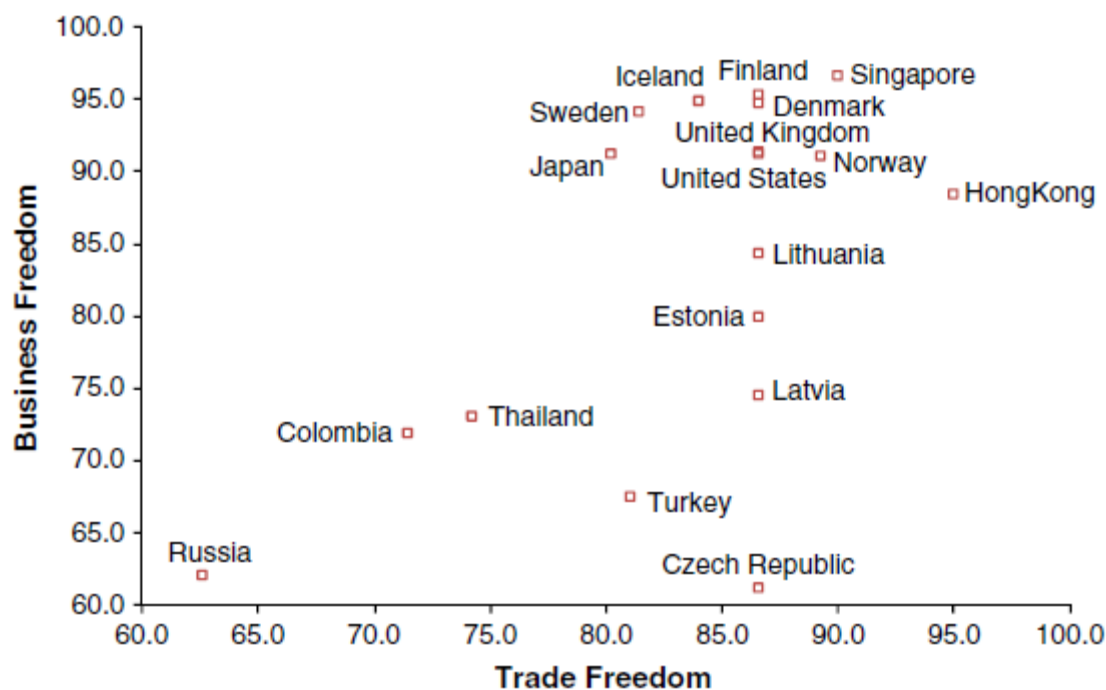


Fig. 2 Heritage trade freedom and business freedom values by nation

Statistical methods and models

To test our hypotheses and the effects of these national level variables on cross-national customer satisfaction, we estimate a regression model. Thus, we specify standard cross-sectional models of the form:

$$Y_i = X_i\beta + \varepsilon_i,$$

where Y represents the response variable; X represents a vector of determinants of the response variable; β s are the parameters to be estimated; and ε is the error term associated with each observation i. Our equation includes the satisfaction data for all measured industries across all 19 nations (i.e., the full sample of N=272 industries). This model tests the six hypotheses presented above and includes all of the predictor variables, as well as ten dummy variables as controls corresponding to each industrial sector. This model thus takes the form:

$$Y^{CSI} = \alpha + \beta^{TRAD} + \beta^{SURV} + \beta^{GDP} + \beta^{LIT} + \beta^{TRADE} \\ + \beta^{BUS} + \gamma^{UTILS} + \dots + \gamma^{FIN} + \varepsilon,$$

where Y represents the industry-level customer satisfaction response variable; TRAD represents the traditional vs. secular-rational cultural variable; SURV represents the survival vs. self expression cultural variable; GDP represents the per capita purchasing power parity-adjusted gross domestic product variable; LIT represents the literacy rate variable; TRADE and BUS represent the trade freedom and business freedom variables, respectively; UTILS... FIN the ten industrial sector dummy variables (abbreviated, with the Health Care sector serving as the reference category); and ε the error term.

We offer one final test of the robustness of the estimates in our models using bootstrapping. Because we have limited knowledge about the cross-national population distribution of customer satisfaction, and because our sample is relatively small and thus more susceptible to influential observations that could skew the analysis, bootstrapping will help gauge the sensitivity of our estimates to sampling variations (*Chernick 2008; Efron & Tibshirani 1986*). For our model, we re-estimate the standard errors of our parameters using three bootstrap procedures. The first method is a random case resample bootstrap, with 500 samples ($B = 500$) drawn with replacement from among the full sample of $N = 272$ (with each case/row having a $1/N$ probability of selection), and our parameter standard errors recalculated using these bootstrap samples.

The second and third methods are based on a stratified bootstrapping approach. The stratified bootstrapping method draws randomly with replacement from identified sub-groups within a sample. On this method, each case has a $1/n$ probability of selection (with $n =$ to the sample size of each sub-group), but each sub-group is represented by exactly n cases in each bootstrap sample, thus preserving the proportion of each sub-group in every bootstrapped sample. Using this procedure, we stratify by both the 19 countries and the eleven industrial sectors (at $B = 500$) in the sample. Unlike the random case resample bootstrap, these two stratified bootstrapping methods will detect the sensitivity of our models to sampling idiosyncrasies at the country or industry levels, respectively, potential problems caused by the within country sampling variance noted earlier.

Results

The primary purpose of our study is to examine determinants of cross-national customer satisfaction variance.

We find support for H1 and H2, suggesting that culture strongly and significantly impacts cross-national consumer satisfaction. As predicted, national cultures that tend toward secular-rational values (rather than traditional values) generally experience and report lower customer satisfaction (coefficient = -3.049 , $p < 0.001$). Also as predicted, societies that tend toward self-expressive values over survival values experience and report higher customer satisfaction (coefficient = 0.858 , $p < 0.01$).

We find support for H3 and H4 which predicted a significant relationship between national socioeconomic characteristics and customer satisfaction. Both of the socioeconomic predictors, a nation's per capita gross domestic product and its literacy rate, are significant and in the directions hypothesized. As suggested, as average per capita GDP (purchasing power parity adjusted [PPPadjusted]) within a nation increases, consumers become less satisfied (coefficient = -0.307 , $p < 0.001$). Further, consumers in nations with higher literacy rates tend to experience greater customer satisfaction (coefficient = 0.546 , $p < 0.001$).

Finally, the model shows a significant relationship between political-economic factors (trade and business freedom) and customer satisfaction, as suggested by H5 and H6. As predicted, consumers in nations with fewer barriers to trade experience and report stronger customer satisfaction (coefficient = 0.343 , $p < 0.001$). Moreover, consumers in nations with fewer barriers to business freedom generally experience and report higher customer satisfaction (coefficient = 0.107 , $p < 0.05$). Therefore, our findings suggest that economic freedom does indeed impact cross-national consumer satisfaction, and both H5 and H6 are fully supported.

Questions for your consideration

1. What is the main research question of the article?
2. Which research approaches and (or) methods you consider to be controversial or not quite suitable for this research? Why?
3. What are the limitations of current research and what recommendations could be given for further research?
4. According to the results of research what recommendations could be given for managers in multinational corporations?
5. What methods of data analysis do you consider suitable for this research?

Блок 2. «Маркетинговые коммуникации и реклама в современном бизнесе»

Прочитайте статью² и сделайте ее критический анализ на русском языке.

Introduction

Smoking causes losses for the individual as well as for the society. The serious health problems due to smoking are widely acknowledged. Tobacco is the second major cause of death, and the fourth most common risk factor for disease worldwide. In addition, the economic costs of tobacco are high. These include the public health costs and the decreased productivity of the tobacco users who suffer from increased sickness (www.who.int/tobacco/health_priority/en/ (accessed December 11, 2007)). Many public organizations are especially concerned about the prevalence of smoking among adolescents. Smoking is a habit that is usually adopted in young age, the ages of 12 to 18 being especially critical (*Devlin et al. 2007*). The young starting age is believed to lead to a more serious addiction to smoking: the younger the person has developed the addiction the more difficult it is to stop smoking. Moreover, it has been argued that adolescents tend to be sensitive to cigarette advertising and they form an important target market for the tobacco industry (*Andrews et al. 2004*).

A critical goal of antismoking policy is to affect teenagers' smoking habits, particularly to prevent them from starting to smoke. Antismoking campaigns have been organized at both the national and cross-national level. For example the European Community is actively developing a comprehensive tobacco control policy (http://ec.europa.eu/health/ph_determinants/life_style/Tobacco/tobacco/ (accessed December 11, 2007)). Several tobacco-control measures are available and can be used in different settings; for example bans on direct and indirect tobacco advertising, tobacco tax and price increases, smoke-free environments and warning labels on the packages (www.who.int/tobacco/health_priority/en/ (accessed December 11, 2007)). In addition, antismoking advertising is commonly used. Prior studies have indicated that antismoking advertising can influence teenagers' smoking behavior (*e.g. Smith & Stutts 2006; Andrews et al. 2004*). However, not all message themes have proved effective; i.e. while some message themes have been shown to be connected with decreased smoking intentions, other themes do not have this influence. Because the evidence of the efficacy of different antismoking message themes is limited and conflicting (*Pechmann et al. 2003*), it is important to gain more understanding of the types of message themes that work best in antismoking advertising.

It seems that there is no global teenage segment in the case of antismoking advertising. Previous studies have indicated that the efficacy of a particular message theme is likely to be dependent on cultural context (*e.g. Devlin et al. 2007; Harris et al. 2006*). Reardon et al. (2006) studied the effect of antismoking message valence and intensity among teenagers in the Midwestern US as well as several European and Asian countries. They found that the cultural dimension of uncertainty avoidance is an important moderator when teenagers process antismoking advertisements. Thus, studies on the effects of message themes are needed in various cultures. This study focuses on exploring how message themes used in antismoking advertising affect smoking intentions among teenagers in the European context and specifically in Finland.

Literature review

Social influence, prior smoking behavior, and imagery portrayed in cigarette advertising are potential predictors of smoking (*Andrews et al. 2004*). Cigarette advertising is argued to encourage adolescents' attraction to peers who smoke and peers' approval of smoking helps initiate smoking trials (*Romer & Jamieson 2001*). Conversely, antismoking advertising portrays negative images of smokers and favorable images of non-smokers, and is thus likely to counteract the attraction and

² Статья составлена по: Uusitalo O., Niemelä-Nyrhinen J. (2008) Exploring message themes in antismoking advertising targeted at teenagers, *Young Consumers: Insight and Ideas for Responsible Marketers*, Vol. 9, Iss: 1, pp. 29-36.

approval effects. Romer and Jamieson (2001) propose that antismoking advertising may negatively affect intention to smoke because it reduces the positive perceptions of smoking in peer networks and negatively influences the overall views on cigarette advertising. Andrews et al. (2004) also argue that well-designed antismoking campaigns can affect adolescents' smoking-related behaviors.

Previous literature on antismoking advertising is extensive. Several studies have focused on examining the efficacy of antismoking message contents. The findings from these studies are, however, contradictory. Some studies confirm the view that antismoking messages can affect beliefs about smoking and that beliefs about smoking affect smoking attitudes, intentions and behavior (*Harris et al. 2006; Smith & Stutts 2006; Lancaster & Lancaster 2003*). Other studies have found that specific antismoking advertisements may not have these effects (*e.g. Reardon et al. 2006; Wakefield et al. 2003; Pechmann & Ratneshwar 1994*). Careful evaluation is needed to conclude whether specific antismoking advertisements influence youth smoking (*Wakefield et al. 2003*). The previous studies lead to a conclusion that when teenagers are the target group of antismoking advertising, it is important to pay attention to the theme of the advertising message. While there is an agreement that the choice of the theme of an advertisement is important, there is disagreement about which themes work best (*Pechmann et al. 2003*).

Message theme in antismoking advertisements targeted at the youth segment can take many forms (*e.g. Devlin et al. 2007; Farrelly et al. 2003; Pechmann et al. 2003; Wakefield et al. 2003; Pechmann & Goldberg 1998, cited in Smith & Stutts 2006*). For example, Pechmann and Goldberg (1998, *cited in Smith & Stutts 2006*) categorized antismoking advertisements aimed at adolescents and found that they focus on one or more of the following themes:

- long-term health effects of smoking;
- short-term cosmetic effects of smoking;
- descriptions of tobacco marketing practices;
- characterizations of tobacco marketers as “murderers”;
- the impact of second-hand smoke on non-smokers or unborn foetus; and
- depictions of attractive individuals refusing to smoke.

Similarly, Devlin et al. (2007) suggest that the following themes are potentially effective: fear appeals that depict the negative health consequences, social and peer norm messages, and messages about the deceptive and misleading practices of the tobacco industry.

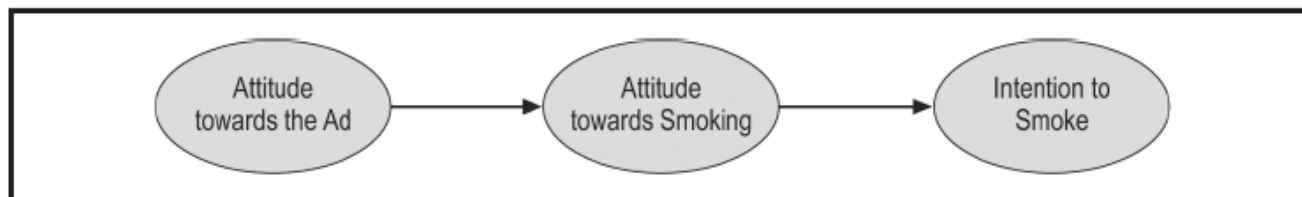
Pechmann et al. (2003) have examined if different antismoking advertising themes affect non-smoking intentions. They found that the themes which increased non-smoking intentions were related to enhancing adolescents' perceptions that smoking poses severe social disapproval risks. Also Lancaster and Lancaster (2003) propose that campaigns emphasizing peer pressure, family influences, and the high price of smoking might prove to be relevant and meaningful to potential teen smokers. Health-related themes are commonly used in antismoking advertising, and the negative health effects of smoking are well-known.

However, some studies have found that these themes are not effective in influencing non-smoking intentions (*Pechmann et al. 2003; Pechmann & Ratneshwar 1994*). Because the effects of the message themes are likely to be culture-specific, we included the health theme in our study. In addition to social themes and health themes, antismoking advertising could use other themes, for example, the psychosocial influences of smoking (*Farrelly et al. 2003*). The means end chain theory (*Reynolds & Gutman 1988*) suggests that consumers pursue important goals in their lives and the physical and psychosocial consequences of consumption can act as means of achieving these ends. The psychosocial influences are the possible mental effects associated with smoking / not smoking, for example happiness and good balance of mind.

Attitude towards the advertisement has been proposed to be a mediating variable in the process through which advertising exerts its effects (*MacKenzie et al. 1986*). Further, previous studies have shown that attitude towards the act (smoking) mediates the effect of attitude towards the advertisement on intentions to smoke (*Reardon et al. 2006; Andrews et al. 2004*). Thus in this study three constructs are measured in order to investigate the effectiveness of the message theme,

namely attitude towards the advertisement, attitude towards smoking, and intention to smoke. The theoretical model of antismoking advertising's effect on intention to smoke is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Model of antismoking advertising's effect on intention to smoke



Our aim is to find out whether the model of antismoking advertising's effect on intention to smoke is different depending on the message theme used in the antismoking advertisements. The three themes examined in this study are health effects, mental effects, and social effects of smoking/not smoking. Based on the literature review we hypothesize that:

- H1.** The model of antismoking advertising's effect on intention to smoke is likely to be different depending on the message theme of the advertisement.
- H2.** Antismoking advertising portraying social effects of smoking/not smoking is more effective when addressing teenagers than other age groups.

Methodology

Data collection

In total, 325 Finnish high school students from a city located in Central Finland answered the survey questionnaire. The students were between the ages of 13 and 16 years. All students belonging to this specific age group in three different high schools participated in the study. The sample can be considered to be representative of the population since in Finland the student profiles of different schools are rather similar. The data used in this paper were gathered in April 2004 as a part of a wider cross-national antismoking study (*Reardon et al. 2006*).

Each participant was presented with one of 12 advertisements. The advertisements consisted of a headline and a black-and-white cartoon drawing in support of the message. There were three different message themes, namely health effects, mental effects, and social effects of smoking/not smoking. In each message theme there were thus four different advertisements/messages (see Table I). In the data analysis phase the respondents were divided into three groups according to the message themes that they had been exposed to.

The advertisements were combined with a news story to stimulate ad positioning as it would appear in the print media. The students were instructed to read the story but were given no instructions as regards the advertisement. After reading the story they were given approximately three minutes of extra time. This allowed the participants to examine the advertisement. Before the survey was distributed the reading assignments were collected. In the beginning of the survey the respondents were reminded of the advertisement they had just seen next to the news story.

Table I. Message themes and messages

Themes	Messages
Health effects of smoking/not smoking	Smokers get sick Smokers die young Non-smokers are healthy Non-smokers live longer
Mental effects of smoking/not smoking	Smokers are unhappy Smokers feel like “losers” Non-smokers are happy Non-smokers are well-balanced
Social effects of smoking/not smoking	Smokers are lonely Smokers are unpopular Non-smokers are adored Non-smokers are popular

Construct measurement

Three constructs were measured to determine the effectiveness of the message themes: attitude towards the ad (Aad), attitude towards the act (Asmoke) and intention to smoke (Inten) (see Table II). Each construct was measured with multiple items and the respondents assessed every item on a seven-point scale. Cronbach alpha of 0.81 for Aad, 0.85 for Asmoke and 0.23 for Inten all indicated high scale reliability.

Table II. Constructs and items

Attitude towards the ad (Aad), Cronbach $\alpha = 0.81$ How would you best describe the advertisement?	Attitude towards the act (Asmoke), Cronbach $\alpha = 0.85$ Smoking cigarettes is:	Intention to smoke (Inten), Cronbach $\alpha = 0.23$, (definitely no/definitely yes)
(AAD1) Good/bad (AAD2) Appealing/unappealing (AAD3) Pleasant/unpleasant (AAD4) Favorable/unfavorable	(ASMK1) Good/bad (ASMK2) Pleasant/unpleasant (ASMK3) Favorable/unfavorable	(INTEN1) In the future, you might smoke on puff or more of a cigarette (INTEN2) You might try out cigarette smoking for a while (INTEN3) If one of your best friends were to offer you a cigarette, you would smoke it

Analysis method

The hypotheses were tested using LISREL 8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom 1993). Missing values were imputed to the data by “matching on other variables” (Jöreskog 2005). After imputation the effective sample size was 106 for group 1 (health effects), 98 for group 2 (mental effects) and 116 for group 3 (social effects). Since the assumption of multivariate normal distribution did not hold in the data the covariance matrix and the asymptotic covariance matrix were computed for each group (Jöreskog 2005). Maximum likelihood was used as an estimation method and Satorra-Bentler scaled Chi-squares are reported in this paper.

Results

Measurement invariance

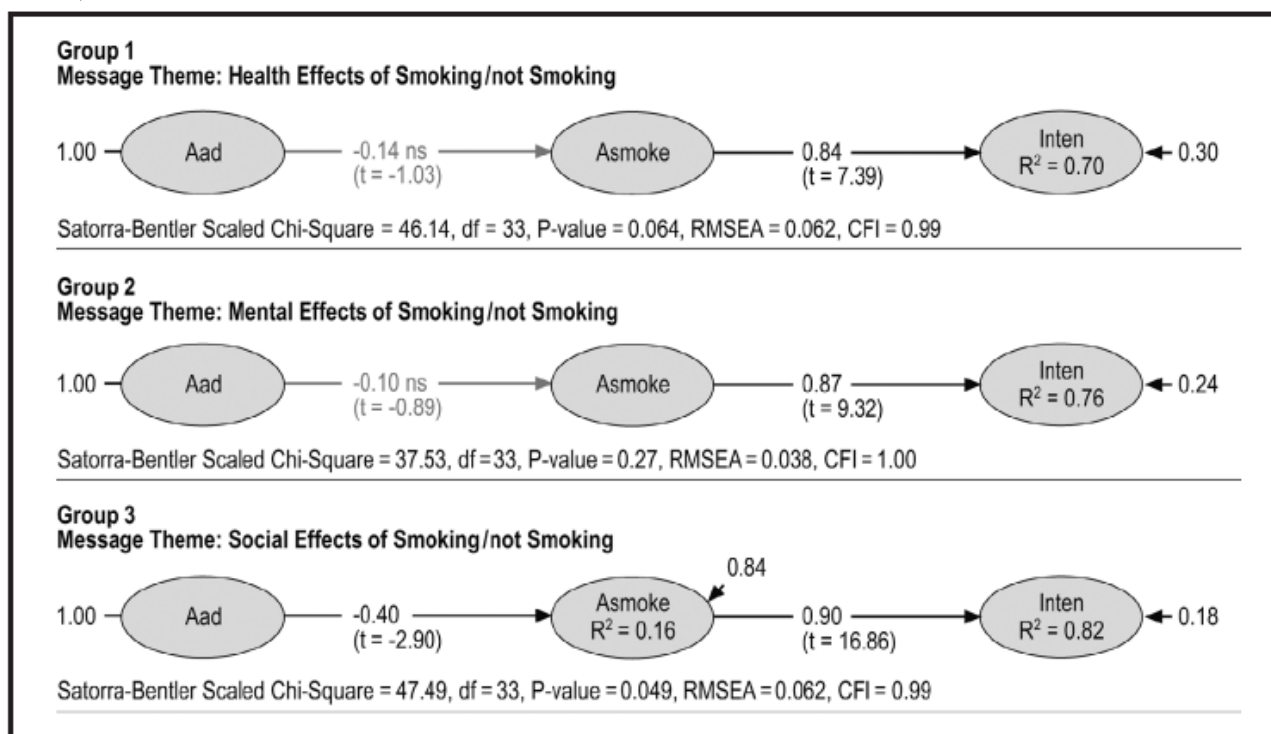
To investigate the interrelationships between constructs across groups, full or partial metric invariance must be established (*Steenkamp & Baumgartner 1998; Byrne 1998*). Measurement invariance was tested with multiple-group LISREL analysis. Configural invariance is established with the approximate fit of the measurement model including all three latent variables ($\chi^2(96) = 128.35$, p -value = 0.015, RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = 0.056, CFI (Comparative Fit Index) = 0.99). Full metric invariance is rejected ($\chi^2(110) = 236.95$, p -value = 0.00, RMSEA = 0.10, CFI = 0.97). However, partial metric invariance is established after one factor loading in Asmoke (ASMK3) and another in Inten (INTEN3) were unconstrained across groups. The model with these unconstrained factor loadings yields $\chi^2(106) = 150.01$ (p -value = 0.0032), RMSEA of 0.063 и CFI of 0.99. The invariance constraints were relaxed based on modification indices (*Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998*).

Structural model estimations

First we estimated structural models for each group separately. For group 1 the model including the effect of Aad on Asmoke and the effect of Asmoke on Inten is accepted in terms of exact fit ($\chi^2(33) = 46.14$, p -value = 0.064). For group 2 the model is also accepted in terms of exact fit ($\chi^2(33) = 37.53$, p -value = 0.27) and for group 3 approximate fit of the model is demonstrated by $\chi^2(33) = 47.49$ (p -value = 0.049), RMSEA of 0.062 and CFI of 0.99. In groups 1 and 2 the effect of Aad on Asmoke is non-significant. Only in group 3 Aad has an effect on Asmoke (see Figure 2) and thus our hypothesis is given support. There are also small differences in the effects of Asmoke on Inten across groups.

Next we investigated if the differences between groups in the effect of Asmoke on Inten are statistically significant by conducting multiple-group analysis with LISREL. The influence of Aad on Asmoke was set free in the model since it does not make sense to test if a significant parameter is equal to a non-significant parameter. Thus a model with the influence of Asmoke to Inten set as invariant across groups was estimated. This model yielded $\chi^2(113) = 215.62$ (p -value = 0.00), RMSEA of 0.093 and CFI of 0.97. These goodness of fit statistics indicate that the model should be improved. The modification indices also suggested that the relationship between Asmoke and Inten should be estimated freely across groups. The model with no relationship constraints is accepted in terms of approximate fit by $\chi^2(109) = 154.57$ (p -value = 0.0027), RMSEA of 0.063 and CFI of 0.99 and thus our hypothesis is further supported.

Figure 2. Structural models for each group (standardized solutions, only latent variables are shown)



Discussion

This paper explored the effects of different message themes on teenagers' intention to smoke. Attitude towards the advertisement and attitude towards smoking were proposed as mediating variables between the message theme and smoking intentions.

Only the attitudes towards ads displaying social effects were significantly related with attitudes towards smoking. This finding is consistent with Pechmann et al. (2003). Teenagers are susceptible to messages that are related to social approval or disapproval. The attitudes towards the ads portraying the themes of health effects and mental effects were not significantly related with attitudes towards smoking. Thus we can conclude that these themes were not effective in influencing the respondents' attitudes towards smoking and smoking intentions.

Even though smoking poses several health risks, the advertisements portraying health consequences of smoking do not seem to work. Young people may not regard these risks as severe enough or they may consider the benefits of the risk-enhancing behavior to compensate for the perceived costs of the behavior (Pechmann et al. 2003). Emphasizing the health risks related to smoking may evoke a "forbidden fruit" reaction and thus make the behavior seem even more alluring and thrilling in the eyes of an adolescent (Pechmann & Shih 1999; Pechmann et al. 2003).

Mental effects of smoking/not smoking were presented in the ads by showing, for instance, that smokers are unhappy and non-smokers are happy. While young people are likely to regard happiness as a goal, it could be that they do not connect unhappiness/happiness with smoking/not smoking.

In our study we used both positively and negatively phrased messages. The next step would be to examine what is the role of message valence in the effectiveness of different message themes. To conclude, the results of our study highlight the fact that not all message themes are effective in influencing teenagers' smoking intentions. Among Finnish teenagers only the advertisements portraying social effects of smoking/not smoking proved to be effective. It is crucial that these findings are taken into account when planning antismoking campaigns for Finnish teenagers. In this study we measured health effects by items of death and sickness, which are long-term effects and thus may not be relevant for adolescents. Because of the criticality of the health consequences, we

do not suggest that the health theme should be omitted. Instead, future research could examine whether less dramatic, but important short-term health effects work in antismoking advertising targeted at teenagers. Future studies should also examine whether teenagers in other European countries differ in the way they are affected by different message themes.

Questions for your consideration

1. What is the theoretical and applied value of the research findings presented?
2. Which points of the text do you agree (and disagree) with? Please, explain your opinion.
3. What are methodological limitations and shortcomings of the given research?
4. What communication theories and advertising models do you know? Which of them do you find relevant for antismoking advertising campaign analysis and planning?
5. Do communication models of marketing communication campaigns via traditional media differ from those of campaigns that use Internet and new media? Please, substantiate your opinion.
6. With what disciplines (or directions) of contemporary marketing and marketing communication can you relate the antismoking advertising campaigns that make integrated use of traditional media, Internet and new media?

Блок 3. «Стратегическое и корпоративное управление»

Прочитайте статью³ и сделайте ее критический анализ на русском языке.

Introduction

Recognition of the strategic importance of project management (PM) in the corporate world is rapidly accelerating. One reason for this acceleration may be a strong belief by business leaders that aligning project management with business strategy can significantly enhance the achievement of organizational goals, strategies, and performance. However, empirical literature that offers advice on how to achieve this alignment is scanty. Many companies are suffering from misaligned projects and a lack of a systematic approach to align project management with the business strategy. Although projects are the basic building blocks of organizational strategy in many companies, project management is not often recognized as a functional strategy and is rarely perceived as a business process, making the achievement of a project management /business strategy alignment even more difficult.

This study addresses three aspects of an under-researched topic in the strategic management literature, aligning project management with business strategy, by examining the alignment in terms of:

- (1) a two-way influence between project management and business strategy (the nature of the project management/business strategy alignment),
- (2) a process used for achieving the project management/ business strategy alignment, and
- (3) the degree to which a project is aligned with a business strategy (an alignment score).

In particular, an empirically based theoretical framework is developed to highlight the impact of business strategy on project management (and vice-versa), and to explain the mechanisms used to strengthen that alignment. In addition, the alignment scores are calculated to quantitatively complement data from the field study.

Theoretical Background

Business Strategy and Business Strategy Typologies

Generally, the definitions of business strategy focus on how to better deal with competition (*Tse & Olsen 1999*) by means of creating competitive advantages (*Hamel & Prahalad 1989*), advantages that provide organizations with the benefits that will sustain them when attracting customers and defending themselves against competitive forces (*Thompson & Strickland 1995*). The literature discusses multiple business-strategy typologies, e.g., Miles and Snow's typology (1978), Porter's generic strategies (1980), Treacy and Wiersema's typology (1995). In this paper, I present only one, Porter's generic strategies, using it as the foundation for aligning project management and business strategy.

Porter (1980) claimed that to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage, an organization must reinforce its chosen strategies. Depending on the scope, there are three generic strategies that can result: cost leadership, differentiation, and focus. According to Porter, generic strategies – when an organization chooses only one – provides the organization with the ability to achieve competitive advantages and outperform their competitors. However, if an organization pursues more than one generic strategy, it will perform below its capability. Porter referred to the latter type of organization as stuck-in-the-middle. Despite this, the proliferation of global competition is compelling more organizations to focus on a single combination of generic strategies (*Harrison & St. John 1998*). Many researchers and practitioners (e.g., *Hill 1988; Miller & Friesen 1986; Phillips, Chang & Buzzell 1983; White 1986*) refer to this combination as the best-cost strategy. In this paper, three of the above mentioned business strategies were used for the analysis, each of which is described as follows:

³ Статья составлена по: Srivannaboon S. Linking Project Management with Business Strategy, 2006.

- Cost leadership: Organizations pursuing a cost leadership strategy seek to gain competitive advantage and increase market share by being the lowest cost producers in the industry (*Porter 1980*).

- Differentiation: Organizations pursuing a differentiation strategy seek to position themselves in the marketplace with a distinct identity that satisfies the desires of their customers (e.g., fast time-to-market, superior quality and service, innovative features). This differentiation allows the organization to charge a premium price (*Porter 1980*).

- Best-cost: Under certain conditions, many researchers argue that a combination of strategies may be the best way of creating a sustainable competitive advantage (e.g., *Hill 1988; Miller & Friesen 1986; Phillips, Chang & Buzzell 1983; White 1986*). In particular, organizations may more effectively create a sustainable competitive advantage when they combine cost leadership and differentiation, when they provide low-cost products and address customer values (fast time-to-market, superior product quality, etc.).

Project Management

Project management is a specialized form of management, similar to other functional strategies, that is used to accomplish a series of business goals, strategies, and work tasks within a well-defined schedule and budget. The essence of project management is to support the execution of an organization's competitive strategy to deliver a desired outcome (i.e., fast time-to-market, high quality, low-cost products) (*Milosevic 2003*). As opposed to the traditional stereotype, the recent literature recognizes project management as a key business process (*Jamieson & Morris 2004*). This view defines an organization as the process rather than the traditional functional or matrix form and describes project management as one of the key business processes that enable companies to implement value delivery systems. Therefore, when organizations link their projects to their business strategy, they are better able to accomplish their organizational goals. Shenhar's Strategic Project Leadership (SPL) framework (1999) identifies the project management elements that organizations should align with business strategy, elements such as project strategy, spirit, organization, process, and tools. (For this paper, I have adapted the SPL framework, adding metrics and changing project spirit to project culture.)

Alignment Literature

Research in the literature has examined the idea of alignment in various management areas. For example, many studies have discussed the alignment between tasks, policies, and practices (e.g., *Boyer & McDermott 1999; Kathuria & Davis 2001*); others have emphasized the relationship between alignment and performance in regards to organizational hierarchy: corporate, business, and function (e.g., *Papke-Shields & Malhotra 2001; Youndt, Snell, Dean & Lepak 1996*). The literature frequently mentions research and development (R&D), production, human resources, and information technology – among others – as functional strategies and uses these as the variables to examine alignment in relation to the business strategy. Because project management is similar to these functional strategies, it too should be aligned with the business strategy. However, the traditional literature on aligning project management with the business strategy is vague. Most studies link the business strategy with project management through project selection, viewing it as part of the alignment process (e.g., *Baker 1974; Bard, Balachandra & Kaufmann 1988; Cooper, Edgett & Kleinschmidt 1998a; Englund & Graham 1999; Hartman 2000*). Added to this is project portfolio management (PPM and also called pipeline management), another concept suggested in the literature to ensure the strategic alignment of project management and business strategy (*Turner & Simister 2000*). Cooper, Edgett, and Kleinschmidt (1998b) define PPM as a dynamic decision-making process through which an organization can update and revise its list of active projects. The organization's choice of business strategy is what drives their PPM process, the major purposes of which are to select and prioritize projects (*Cooper et al. 1998b*), balance projects (*Archer & Ghasemzadeh 1999; Cooper et al. 1998b*), align projects with the business strategy (*Cooper et al. 1998b*), manage rough-cut resource capacity (*Harris & McKay 1996*;

Wheelwright & Clark 1992), and articulate empowerment boundaries for project and functional management (*Harris & McKay 1996*).

Only recently have researchers started to explore the alignment of project management more thoroughly (e.g., *Artto & Dietrich 2004; Jamieson & Morris 2004; Papke-Shields & Malhotra 2001; Srivannaboon & Milosevic 2004*). For example, Jamieson and Morris (2004) suggest that most of the components comprising the strategic planning process – internal analysis, organizational structures, control systems – have strong links to project management processes and activities. As a result, these strongly influence an organization's intended business strategies. Similarly, Artto and Dietrich (2004) suggest that an important managerial challenge involved in aligning project management and business strategy is encouraging individuals to participate in using emerging strategies to create new ideas and renew existing strategies. These studies suggest a need for more research in this area; none, however, explicitly talks about the framework for aligning project management and business strategy comprehensively.

Research Design

To complete this study, I integrated two overlapping research phases: data gathering and data analysis. During data gathering (phase 1), I conducted a literature review so as to understand the general research on aligning project management and business strategy. In parallel with the literature review, I researched case-studies over a ten-month period, studying the alignment in market-leading organizations through semi-structured interviews (ranging from 60 to 120 minutes per interview) with individuals holding key organizational positions, individuals such as senior managers, program/ project managers, and team members – as well as a few customers – in order to obtain information from different perspectives (*Boynton & Zmud 1984*). In addition to the interviews, I reviewed related documents – meeting minutes, project descriptions, risk logs – to triangulate and validate the findings.

To select the reviewed cases (companies, projects, and participants), I defined multiple criteria and identified the cases most relevant to such criteria as theoretical sampling and project frame of reference (projects completed in at least six month or under) as well as the project management experience of the participants (at least 3 years).

I then classified these projects into different types, including strategic projects (creating strategic positions in markets and businesses), extension projects (improving or upgrading an existing product), utility projects (acquiring and installing new equipment or software, implementing new methods or new processes, reorganization, re-engineering), and R&D projects (exploring future ideas, no specific product in mind) (*Shenhar 2001*). These projects were also categorized in regards to external customers (external contract or consumers), internal customers (internal users or another department), or both. I also evaluated each project in relation to such success dimensions as project efficiency, impact on the customer, direct organizational success, and team leader and team spirit (*Shenhar, Levy, Dvir & Maltz 2001*). After each interview (phase 2: data analysis), I transcribed the conversation and coded it. I then wrote case studies, 25-30 pages per case, which later I sent these cases to the companies to verify the accuracy of the transcriptions so as to enhance the validity of the research. I then performed within-case, cross-case, and content analyses. Altogether, I studied eight cases (Cases A to H) in seven organizations, a study that involved nine projects of differing size, type, and complexity (42 interviews). During phase 3, I engaged a panel of five experts – from academia (3 professors) and industry (2 practitioners) – to validate the essential findings. These experts generally agreed on the findings; they also contributed views, which I integrated into the findings to sharpen the theoretical framework.

For each case study, I employed a self-typing method (*Conant, Mokwa & Varadarajan 1990*) to classify the business strategy, one based on Porter's generic strategies (1980), which I used to illustrate the impact of the business strategy types on the composition of project management elements. I chose Porter's generic strategies to classify business strategies types because:

- Porter's generic strategies are well accepted and operationalized in the literature (e.g., Harrison & St. John 1998; Kim & Lim 1988; Miller & Dess 1993; Reitsperger 1993; Veliyath 2000).

- Porter's generic strategies focus on the strategic positioning dimension of the business strategy (Kald, Nilsson & Rapp 2000), the underlying way in which an organization relates to its product, where differentiation (i.e., quality, time-to-market), cost, and a combination of both are often addressed as a project's major objectives, constraints, and requirements.

This study comprised two differentiation strategy companies (Cases A and B), one cost leadership company (Case H), and five best-cost companies (Cases C, D, E, F, and G). I coded the examined project as xS or xUS, where x represents a case, S represents a successful project in that case (projects AS, BS, CS, etc.), and US represents an unsuccessful project in that case (project AUS). In studying the nature of alignment, I adapted the elements of project management from Shenhar's SPL framework (1999), elements such as project strategy, organization, process, tools, metrics, and culture. I adopted this framework because it is well-publicized and tested.

Analyses & Results

An empirically grounded theoretical framework was developed with three major and novel aspects as follows.

The Nature of the Project Management /Business Strategy Alignment

The first aspect of this research relates to the configurations of project management as influenced by types of business strategy. I followed an inductive logic of specific to general practices to derive the propositions that explain the interaction between business strategies and project management elements. The general process of obtaining the propositions was based on case study research, which heavily used within-case, cross-case, and content analyses. Detailed propositions of Porter's generic strategies (1980) were developed and further generalized into typology-free propositions, without restricting them into any single business strategy typology.

Here, it was found that business strategy realizes its influence on project management via the competitive attributes of the business strategy (e.g., time-to-market, quality, cost). These competitive attributes are used in a deliberate fashion to determine the configuration and emphasis placed on different project management elements (strategy, organization, process, tools, metrics, and culture). For example, if the competitive attribute of time-to-market is chosen, the project strategy's configuration should be tailored to support its schedule focus and the time-to-market competitive attribute by adopting the strategic focus that allows projects to ignore their cost and product features in trade-off decisions in order to attain time-to-market (dropping product features, spending additional money, etc.). Similarly, the project process should be tailored to accomplish the time-to-market competitive attribute by overlapping or combining process phases, milestones, and activities, i.e., a project manager runs a combo-milestone (combination of two minor milestones) to skip small project details and to speed up the project. Exhibit 1 summarizes the configurations of project management elements, as influenced by each type of Porter's business strategies I found from the field study.

		DEGREE OF DIFFERENTIATION	
		LOW	HIGH
C O S T	H I G H	Not available	<p>(1) Differentiation Strategy (Examples: Time-to-market or Quality Differentiation)</p> <p>Emphasis is placed on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (Strategy) Schedule or quality project success measure • (Org.) A flexible structure to facilitate project speed or product quality • (Process) A flexible process to speed up projects or maximize product quality • (Tools and Metrics) Schedule- or quality-oriented tools and metrics • (Culture) Rewarding time-to-market speed or quality
	L O W	<p>(2) Cost Leadership Strategy (Example: Process Improvement)</p> <p>Emphasis is placed on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (Strategy) Cost-efficiency project success measures • (Org.) A flexible structure to adapt to changes in process improvement • (Process) A highly standardized and built-on template process • (Tools and Metrics) Cost- and schedule-driven tools and metrics • (Culture) Cost-conscious culture 	<p>(3) Best-cost Strategy (Example: Quality/cost)</p> <p>Emphasis is placed on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (Strategy) Quality and cost project success measures • (Org.) A flexible structure to ensure the best product quality at the minimum cost • (Process) A standardized but flexible process • (Tools and Metrics) Quality/cost-oriented tools and metrics • (Culture) Rewarding quality/cost culture

Exhibit 1. Summary of Project Management Configurations per Porter's Generic Strategies

The competitive attributes and configurations in Exhibit 1 are examples of many. In reality, there are numerous combinations of competitive attributes that companies can use as sources of advantage to compete with their rivals. Similarly, there are also many alternatives to tailor project management elements to support the competitive attributes. Clearly, all three strategic types influence project management elements through the competitive attributes that were chosen as a basis of competition for individual strategic types. Therefore, I suggest six propositions, one for each project management element:

P1: The competitive attributes of the business strategy drive the focus and content of project strategy.

P2: The competitive attributes of the business strategy drive the focus and content of project organization.

P3: The competitive attributes of the business strategy drive the focus and content of project process.

P4: The competitive attributes of the business strategy drive the focus and content of project tools.

P5: The competitive attributes of the business strategy drive the focus and content of project metrics.

P6: The competitive attributes of the business strategy drive the focus and content of project culture.

Note that these propositions are presented in an identical fashion. My intent is that structure of the propositions be based on (i) two items that are major variables or units of analysis in the framework (business strategy and project management elements) and (ii) two items that express major attributes of a project management element that the type of business strategy affects (focus and content). These types of propositions are often used by Eisenhardt (1988, 1989a).

Interestingly, I found cases where project management elements not only support but also impact business strategy. I call this relationship the reciprocal relationship of project management and business strategy. This relationship occurs when companies obtain from their projects information about the ways they adapt their business strategy, a process that Mintzberg (1994) refers to as an emergent strategy approach.

An explicit example of this relationship is Project AUS and its business strategy. This project's failure is related to the window of opportunity. Although the project was initially aligned with the organization's business strategy, the product that resulted from the project was released after the market had shifted and customers began looking for a more complex product. This project also failed because the project team did not appropriately validate the product definition (as part of the project's strategy) with the key customers throughout its life cycle. As a result, Project AUS failed because of inefficient stage gate reviews that lacked the feedback necessary to detect significant threats, such as a market shift. The company, however, later adjusted its stage gate reviews to cover market shifts as a measure to prevent such failure from repeating.

This example implies that in order to ensure project performance, project managers must realign the project strategy, the organization and its culture, and the processes, tools, metrics of realizing projects with a project's progress. Another proposition concerning the reciprocal relationship between project management and business strategy involves the operating conditions of reviewed projects, which are revealed at stage gate reviews. Results of stage gate reviews may impact the business's strategies and its competitive attributes because of environmental changes. Therefore, I suggest the 7th proposition as follows.

P7: Project management elements may impact business strategy based on the operating conditions of reviewed projects.

The Process Used for Achieving the Project Management/ Business Strategy Alignment

The second aspect of this research relates to the detailed alignment process, including strategic planning, project portfolio management, and project life cycle management. Projects are first selected into the project portfolio to support the implementation of the business strategy (alignment at the strategic level). Then, during project execution, alignment with the business strategy is monitored (alignment at the project level), and information is fed back to business leaders to allow for adaptation of the business strategy (alignment at the emergent strategic feedback level).

Here, it was found that most companies used project stage-gates to adapt and maintain the alignment during the course of the project execution. This level of the mediating process provides strategic feedback, usually resulting from environmental changes, that can lead to what Henry Mintzberg (1994) calls "emergent strategy", or a strategy that is not intended or planned but emerges from a stream of managerial decisions through time.

With the propositions and mediating processes, a theoretical framework for aligning project management with the business strategy is constructed (See Exhibit 2). The propositions are used as the connectors between business strategy and each of project management elements (and vice-versa) through statements of interrelationships (P1-P6, P7). Mediating processes are mechanisms to ensure that organizations create and maintain the alignment. For the sake of illustrating the processes in general, I have used the traditional phases of the project life cycle, including conception, planning, execution, and closing. Each company, however, uses different project life cycle phases, selecting those that are most relevant to their industry, company culture, and other significant issues.

It is the competitive attributes of the business strategy that drive the focus and the content of the project management elements. The propositions I have outlined in the framework describe the interrelationships between project management elements and business strategy. To establish and maintain the processes used to align project management elements and business strategy, I suggest that organizations use mediating processes – strategic planning and project portfolio management – at the strategic level to interpret their business strategy in the context of project management.

Organizations initiate and select projects for their project portfolio to fulfill business needs; they then implement a standard life cycle that includes project planning and project monitoring (the primary mediating processes at the project level) to ensure the quality of the alignment between project management elements and business strategy. One of the major control mechanisms organizations use to ensure that their projects align with their expectations as the project progresses from one project phase to the next is the stage gate. This mediating process provides strategic feedback that can lead to what Mintzberg (1994) calls emergent strategy.

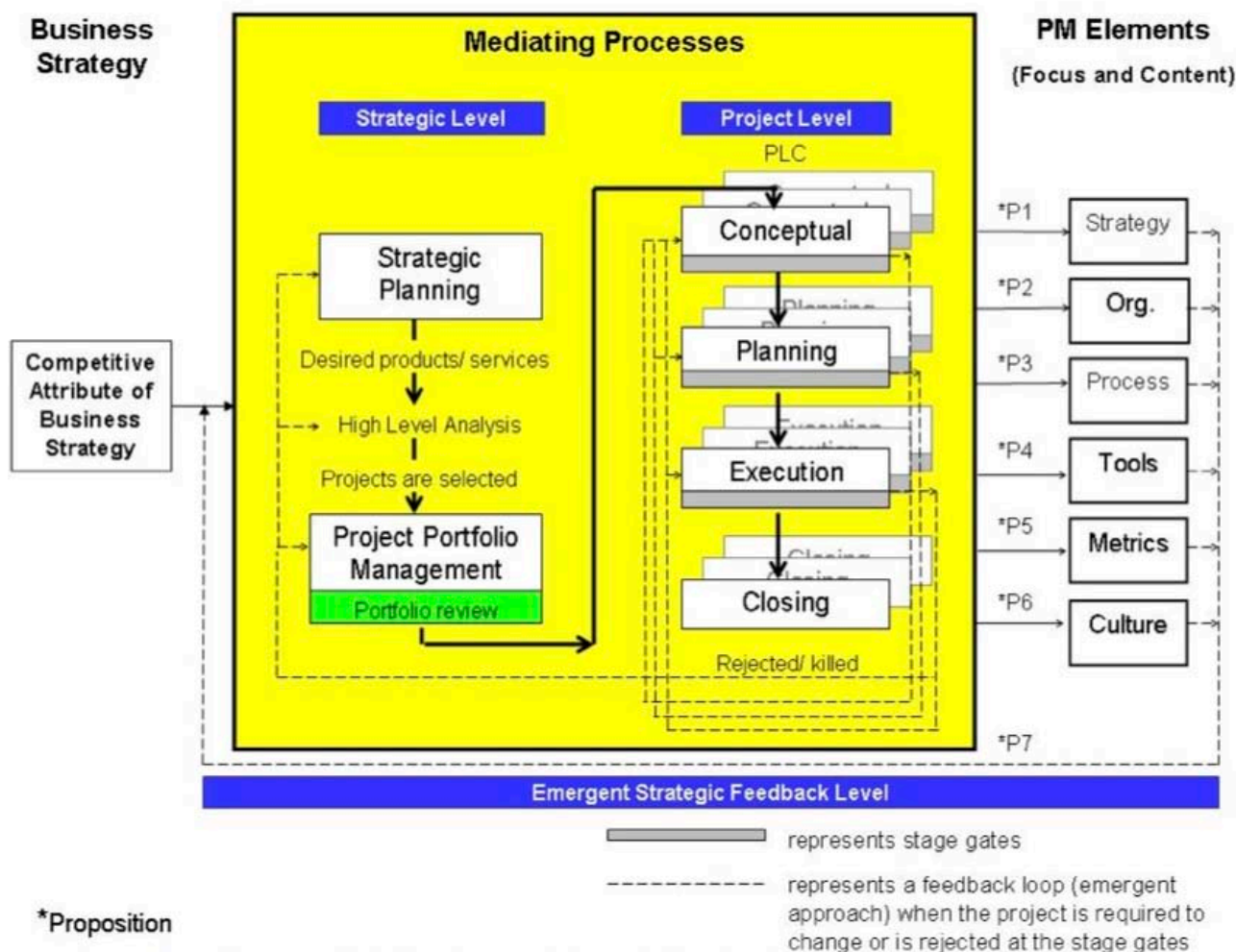


Exhibit 2. A Theoretical Framework for Aligning Project Management with Business Strategy

The Alignment Scores

The third aspect of this research addresses the extent to which the examined projects are compatible with the priorities set by the business units. I adapted the Euclidean distance method to translate the project management/ business strategy alignment into the numeric values. In doing so, I analyzed each case study and extracted matched pairs of executives and project managers regarding their perceptions of the priorities in the business unit and examined projects respectively. Two sets of modified surveys for the priorities were created and sent to executives, project managers, and team members. Executives were asked to rate the importance of management priorities in their businesses. Similarly, project managers and team members were asked to rate the importance of multiple project priorities in reference to the examined projects. These were done on a five-point Likert scale with values ranging from 1 (not at all important) to 5 (extremely important).

To operationalize the alignment score, I assumed that the alignment is inversely related to the difference between two elements. In other words, the alignment was viewed as the opposite of the level of disagreement (e.g., executives and project managers, project managers and team members,

executives and team members). Then, the first step was to calculate the disagreement (or misalignment) score based on the Euclidean distance using a square root of the sum of squared differences between the perceptions (executives and project managers, project managers and team members, executives and team members) (formula 1).

$$\text{Disagreement (misalignment score)} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (\overline{X}_{Ei} - \overline{X}_{PMi})^2} \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

where \overline{X}_{Ei} = the average value of executive perception
 \overline{X}_{PMi} = the average value of project manager perception

The second step was to convert the disagreement score to an alignment score by subtracting their respective disagreement score from the maximum disagreement score (formula 2).

$$\text{Alignment score} = \text{Maximum disagreement score} - \text{Misalignment score} \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

Maximum disagreement score for n = 4 can be calculated by assuming that executives give the maximum value of 5 while project managers provide the minimum value of 1, or vice versa.

$$\text{Maximum disagreement score} = \sqrt{(5-1)^2 + (5-1)^2 + (5-1)^2 + (5-1)^2} = 8$$

Then, formula 2 can be revised to formula 3 below:

$$(3) \quad \text{Alignment score} = 8 - \text{Misalignment score} \dots\dots\dots$$

From this calculation method, the alignment scores of the examined projects vary from 5.26 to 7.4 (65.8% to 92.5%). The average score was 6.85 (85%). Exhibit 3 summarizes the alignment scores (survey responses were insufficient in some cases).

Case (project)	PM/Business Strategy Alignment Score 0-8 (percentage)			Average
	Exe-PM	PM-TM	Exe-TM	
A (AS)	6.94 (86.8%)	-	-	6.94 (86.8%)
A (AUS)	7.23 (90.4%)	-	-	7.23 (90.4%)
B (BS)	7.09 (88.6%)	6.07 (75.9%)	6.07 (75.9%)	6.41 (80.1%)
C (CS)	6.28 (78.5%)	6.36 (79.5%)	5.97 (74.6%)	6.20 (77.5%)
D (DS)	6.77 (84.6%)	6.41 (80.1%)	5.26 (65.8%)	6.15 (76.9%)
E (ES)	6.44 (80.5%)	-	-	6.44 (80.5%)
F (FS)	-	-	-	-
G (GS)	7.4 (92.5%)	-	-	7.4 (92.5%)
H (HS)	6.61 (82.6%)	-	-	6.61 (82.6%)
Average	6.85 (85%)	6.28 (78.5%)	5.77 (72.1%)	

Legend: Exe – Executive, PM – Project manager, TM – Team member

Exhibit 3. The Project Management-Business Strategy Alignment Scores

Surprisingly, I found a case where the alignment did not automatically lead to the success of the project (Project AUS), although the literature claims that the performance can be improved through a better fit (e.g., Chan & Huff 1993; Cooper 1993; Luftman, Lewis & Oldach 1993; Papke-Shields & Malhotra 2001; Wheelwright & Clark 1992; Youndt, Snell, Dean & Lepak 1996). It is even more surprising to learn that the alignment score of Project AUS showed the second highest value (7.23), or roughly 90%. Yet, the project was perceived as an unsuccessful project by the

project team and the upper management. Part of the major reason for that project failure, as mentioned earlier, was related to the window of opportunity. The product was released when most of the market had shifted and customers were looking for a much more complex product, although the project was fully aligned with the business strategy at the beginning. This leads to a new implication that in order to ensure project performance, the project management elements (strategy, organization, process, tools, metrics, and culture) must be periodically realigned as the project progresses (the emergent approach). In other words, the project management/ business strategy alignment should be a dynamic process. In addition, this finding leads to a need for future research in the area of project management/ business strategy alignment and project success relationship.

On the other hand, I also found projects during the data collection phase that were not well-aligned with the business strategy but turned out to be successful. Those projects were initiated under special circumstances and were either regulatory projects or fulfilled immediate operational needs.

Discussion

In this study, I explained an inductive logic process – from specific to general practices – as a means to derive the propositions. The general process of developing these propositions was based on case study research, which heavily used within-case, cross-case, and content analyses. I also developed detailed propositions for Porter's generic strategies, which I generalized into typology-free propositions.

Similarly, I used inductive logic to develop an overview describing the mediating processes at different levels. The general process was based on a case study research and used within-case and cross-case analyses. The framework resulting from this analysis explains the alignment process at the strategic level, the project level, and the corrective emergent feedback level, as well as captures the interrelationships project management and business strategy.

The framework satisfies the major characteristics for a theoretical framework, as suggested by Dubin (1978), which includes units/variables, laws of their interaction, system boundaries, and propositions.

- Units/ variables: The variables or units of analysis in the framework consist of two major elements: project management elements (strategy, organization, process, tools, metrics and culture) and business strategies (differentiation, cost leadership, and best-cost).

- Laws of their interaction: The interaction of variables in the framework can be seen as a two-way influence between project management elements and business strategy, one that is perceivable through a formal or an informal alignment process by translating business needs into project actions and using project operating conditions to more effectively deploy business strategy.

- System boundaries: The boundary of the framework is the organizational business units or departments supporting them. The project management/business strategy alignment occurs within this boundary.

- Propositions: Seven propositions of the framework are derived from the content analysis of multiple cases. The propositions explain the unique interactions of each project management element with the business strategies.

Contributions

This study expands on previous, mostly anecdotal work by incorporating a rigorous theoretical approach into the proposed framework. Although Jamieson and Morris (2004) identify strategic planning, portfolio management, and emergent approach as important steps in the alignment process, with information that supports this research, they do not provide a framework and do not position their research as a set of case studies or as a theoretical foundation for alignment. Furthermore, Turner and Simister (2000) argue, conceptually and without an empirical validation, that portfolio management is an important step in aligning projects with the business strategy. In comparison with the existing literature, the framework contributes three elements:

Comprehensive: This framework includes – and relates – all levels of participants (executives, middle managers, project managers, team members, customers), different levels of management processes (strategic, tactical, operational), and variables (project management elements, business strategy). It integrates these into a coherent structured set of relationships based on propositions that describe the phenomenon of the project management/business strategy alignment in different situations.

Empirically established and validated: The framework is based on a diverse set of companies and projects as well as real-world data. It also takes a multi-level view (no single-source bias) to develop a strong theoretical framework.

Contingent: The framework captures different configurations of project management elements to account for specific business strategies (differentiation, cost leadership, and best-cost), and thus presents a contingency approach based on the differences.

Research Limitations

Although Eisenhardt (1989b) argues that four-to-ten cases provide a sufficient range of measure and for analytic generalizations, one major limitation in the study is the relatively small number of cases that I used to develop the framework (8 cases). This study may also suffer from a bias of company management views. However, I was able to minimize any such bias by using multiple data sources (review of related documents received from companies, the existing literature among others) and validating the findings with a panel of experts.

Future Study

The research findings and limitations suggest the following directions for future research regarding project alignment. First, the alignment measurement methodology deserves further empirical study. If that is done in a comprehensive manner, it would be possible to standardize the measurement and create a framework for comparative studies of the alignment of various business strategy types and project types. That would also enable further studies to determine the degree of alignment required under different circumstances to assure project and business success. This contingency approach should also be applied in the next study. Needed is a large sample study that focuses on the quantitative correlations of various strategy types and project management elements.

Вопросы для размышления

1. Какие основные проблемы рассматриваются в настоящем исследовании?
2. Насколько корректна приведенная методология исследования, каковы границы ее применимости в изучении данной проблемы?
3. Прокомментируйте основные результаты исследования.
4. Насколько это актуально для российских компаний?

Блок 4. «Управление проектами: проектный анализ, инвестиции, технологии реализации»

Прочитайте статью⁴ и сделайте ее критический анализ на русском языке.

1. Introduction

1.1. Introduction

The importance project management plays in today's and tomorrow's changing working environments and practices has increased dramatically since the 1990s. More companies than ever before have adopted project management methodologies and processes to deliver work packages in a more cost-conscious and controlled way, to make the best use of their often limited human resources to create competitive advantage and to meet customer requirements. Crawford (2000) suggests that as more organizations adopt project management as a modus operandi to deliver work packages, and the demand for project managers grows, that there is an increasing interest in people skills of project managers and in standards for development and assessment of project management competence. Blackburn (2001), Huemann (2002), Dainty (2005) suggest further insights that support the need for new and improved effective people skills and associated behaviours for project managers. Findings presented in this paper suggest that people skills and associated behaviours can be adopted by project managers anywhere in the world and are not limited for application in any specific industries. This paper discusses people skills and associated behaviours for project managers and, therefore, had to deal with the meaning that people put on their observations. As a consequence, their descriptions have been collected, analyzed. Deductive reasoning has been applied, starting off from the more general (literature review) to the more specific (face to face interviews and focus group meetings).

1.2. Literature review

A general review of the management literature suggests that the early motivational theorists and authors consider that an effective manager needs to show concern for people, build trust, show sympathy and involve people's emotions, for example, in solving problems. Honey (1988) developed this further in the early 1980s by suggesting that interpersonal skills are face to face behaviours that people use when they wish to achieve something useful with the help and through others. Peters and Waterman (1982) consider that it is behaviours and competences that make an effective people manager. They suggest that an effective people manager needs to be able to communicate well, inspire others, lead their people and show empathy. It appears that, in more recent years, there has been some development in the perception that managerial competences, on their own, do not make an effective people manager. Fisher (2006) suggests that the behaviours that underpin these competences are becoming increasingly recognized as the driving force that makes a difference to the effective management of people. Kets de Vries (2001) suggests that the well-functioning of the individual should be high on managers' agendas. He considers that behaviour is observable and that managers need to display open and authentic or genuine behaviours if they wish to build long-lasting relationships with their project teams. Managers need to build an understanding of what it is that makes the other person tick or what is important to them. He refers to this as authentic behaviour. Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1993, 1997) consider that understanding different cultures is an important people skill. They suggest that managers need to understand the values and beliefs people from different cultures hold, why this is the case and what the direct impacts are on their behaviours in certain, for example, work situations. As part of a general review of the project management literature, Kliem and Ludin (1992) consider that successful project managers recognize the importance of managing people in projects effectively by

⁴ Статья составлена по: Fisher E. What practitioners consider to be the skills and behaviours of an effective people project manager. // *International Journal of Project Management*, 29 (2011) 994–1002.

having and applying a number of managing people skill sets. They suggest that project managers need to develop and apply good interpersonal skills such as showing empathy for the feelings of others, being able to see things from the perspectives of others and respecting others for what they are. Verma (1996) considers that conflict management in a project environment is as inevitable as change. He suggests that project managers need to understand that there are a number of levels of conflict and that each level, for example, requires a different approach to resolve it. Thamhain (2004) considers that effective project leaders inspire their people and make everyone feel proud to be part of the project organization and its mission. Kadefors (2004) suggests that the building of trust is an important people competence for project managers to have. She considers that project managers need to build levels of loyalty with team members in such a way that both parties show respect for each other and what they stand for.

Rosenau (1998) considers that project managers are more likely to accomplish their tasks if they win the respect of their team members by displaying behaviours such as being polite and reasonable. He suggests that effective people project managers must be people-oriented with strong leadership and superb communication abilities. They must be flexible, creative, imaginative and adaptable to cope with a myriad of unexpected problems. Project managers need good and effective people skills rather than technical skills to manage the people in their projects. Edmondson (2005) consider that effective leaders of people create an environment that is conducive to team learning. They consider that project managers need to make clear that others' opinions are welcomed and valued. Wysocki (2007) suggests that effective people project managers encourage their team members to think 'outside the box' and find creative solutions to problems. Project managers should apply a collaborative approach to resolve conflicts in projects, encouraging team members to take an active part in the resolution of conflicts and not to seek to create conflicts unnecessarily.

Some authors of recent project management publications such as Cicmil and Hodgson (2006) suggest that project managers, it appears, are play-acting rather than apply authentic behaviours. Lewis (2003) suggests that people generally behave consistently with their beliefs. It does not matter what people say they believe in-it is usually possible to tell what they really believe in by observing their behaviour. In a project management environment this means that many project managers are play-acting either to live up to expectations or to fulfill their own self-esteem needs. Whitty and Schulz (2006) consider that project managers often act the part. They put forward the argument that project management is spreading because it is a well-adapted collection of memes, giving the appearance of capability for productivity rather than actual productivity and using speech, gestures or rituals to do so.

The literature review for both the general and project management publications has revealed that some people skills from the early management years such as effective communications, negotiations and conflict management have now become part of what management experts refer to as general management practice. More recent publications suggest appropriate people skills managers should have and adopt such as authentizotic behaviours, being culturally aware, apply some play-acting and managing the emotions of people. The literature review revealed a number of people skills but did not provide conclusive evidence which of these skills makes an effective people project manager. There was a general lack of putting forward suggestions what the associated behaviours should be to underpin the people skills. This would have provided a major insight into what makes an effective people project manager. This paper considers that it is the application of the associated behaviours that are important to the successful application of the people skills. The main research questions (Section 1.3) need to be answered to lead to the following desired outcomes:

1. To suggest what the most important people skills are that make an effective people project manager.
2. To suggest what the associated behaviours are for each of the these skills.

1.3. Main research questions

The main research questions for this research are:

1. What are the most important skills practitioners consider make an effective people project manager?
2. What specific behaviours do practitioners associate with each of these skills?

2. Research methodology

2.1. Method

The literature review from this paper did not provide conclusive evidence of what specific skills and associated behaviours make an effective people project manager. This suggests that the main research questions (Section 1.3) from this paper are important but that further insights were needed to answer these questions. To close this gap and provide some practical insights as to what makes an effective people project manager, ten members of the community of practice from Telecommunications, Banking, Consultancy and Engineering industries were interviewed individually and together in two focus group meetings (one year apart) to share their practical knowledge and experience to help answer the main research questions (Section 1.3).

2.2. Data analysis

The researcher chose a constructivist interpretivist research approach that sits within a phenomenological research paradigm. A quasi-judicial method for analyzing qualitative data was chosen for analyzing the qualitative research data. Rational argument was applied to interpret empirical evidence from the interviews which is data based on observation or experience. Thus, the quasi-judicial approach was concerned with the nature, source and quality of the evidence and the argument it supports. Fig. 1 provides an overview of the research design process.

The data analysis was not left until the end but was used continuously as the research was conducted to analyse the collected data from each research method such as literature review and face to face meetings as and when these were completed. The data from the three research methods (literature review, face to face interviews and focus group) was triangulated, that let to answer the main research questions (Section 1.3). Table 1 shows the people skills, their application and ranking of the examined skill sets after the triangulation of the research data from the literature review and the face to face meetings. Table 2 shows the six suggested specific skills and associated behaviours practitioners from the focus group meeting considered most important to make an effective people project manager.

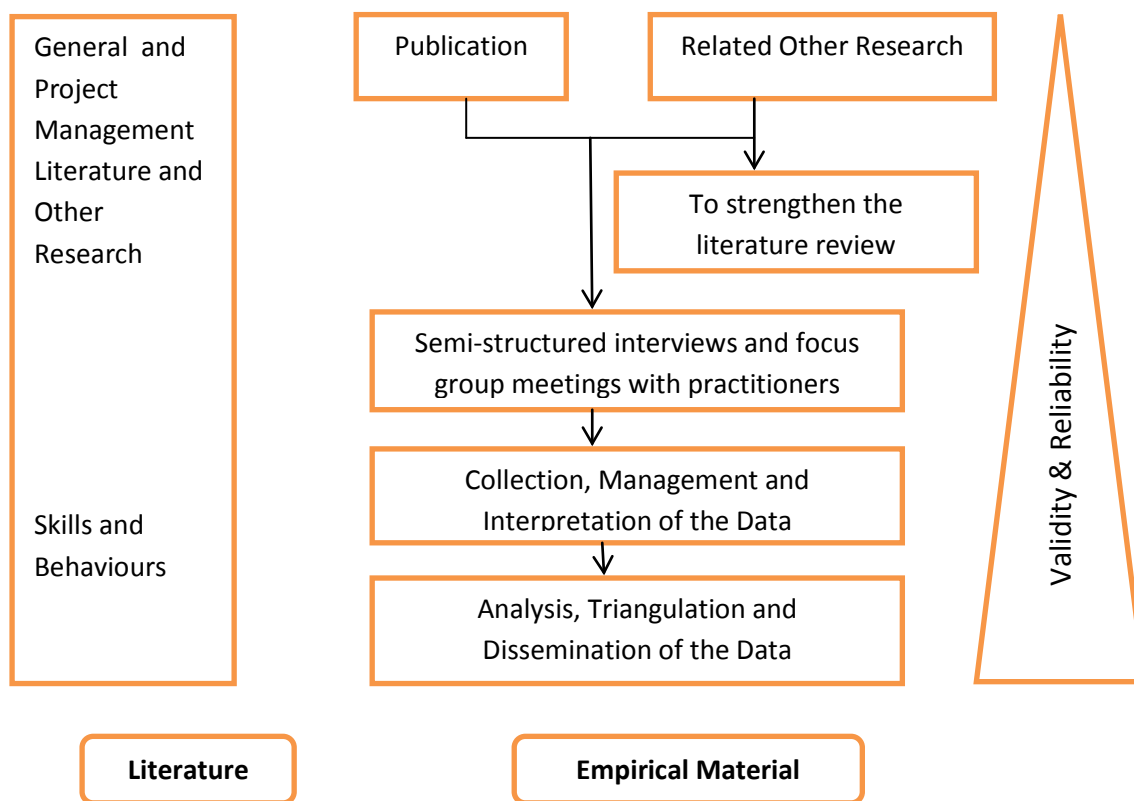


Fig. 1. Research design process diagram (adapted from Blackburn, 2001)

3. Results

3.1. Face to face interviews

Table 1. Skills and application of the examined skill sets (literature review/face to face)

Skill	Application
Managing emotions	Show an honest understanding for the needs of other people and show an understanding of the motives of others and act accordingly (authentizotic behaviour)
Building trust	Show open concern for others. Accept people for what they are. Empower people more and ask them to take on board more responsibilities
Effective communication	Hold off-line communications with others to develop effective relationships such as ad hoc and informal talks. Explore the viewpoints of others before making decisions
Motivating others	Tell people that they are talented and skilled. Talking more to people to gain more long-term commitments rather than compliance
Influencing others	Selling others that benefit for doing something or doing something differently. Share with others what it feels like to work in a highly successful team so they adopt the behaviours that are associated with success
Cultural awareness	Develop, display and apply an awareness of the cultural differences of team members. Show an understanding and knowledge of the values and beliefs of other cultures.
Leading others	Knowing when not to act authoritatively. Lead by example through behaviour and by displaying appropriate levels of competence and self- confidence
Team building	Show an open appreciation for the contributions of team members. Reward people openly for good work

Project managers placed a high importance on valuing people and rewarding them for a job well done. They considered that this is a highly desirable skill for effective people project managers. They suggested that project managers need to tell their team members more often when they have done something right to reinforce good behaviours to get the most out of their team and the individuals. Project managers need to acquire genuine knowledge of the values, beliefs and feelings others have. This will give them a good starting point to develop a better understanding of

what is really important to other people. They can use this knowledge to good effect to give people something in return for asking them to do more, with fewer resources, funds and in less time, for example.

Effective communication scored highly amongst the practitioners. Project managers need to spend more time talking to others informally if they really wish to find out how others really feel, for example, about the project, the project manager or other team members. At the same time active listening is part of effective communication. Project managers need to make more time to listen carefully what others have to say. They need to use techniques such as paraphrasing to play back the message received to ensure the message sent equals the message received. Some practitioners considered that being culturally aware is not an important managing people competence for the future. During the interviews a number of people skills and behaviours that make an effective people project manager was identified:

‘Project managers need to build up an ability to manage the people in their projects more effectively by becoming more people competent and by displaying appropriate behaviours that go with these. Project managers of the future need to understand their company culture better and apply this knowledge through good people project management to achieve better results’ (Andrew). ‘Effective people project managers need to bring people together who do not want to work together. They need to become skilled negotiators, hard on issues and soft on people. They need to show their own behaviour in a caliber and quality that others can respect’ (Martin, Kelly). ‘Project managers need to have better training in skills in working with people so they understand the people side better and to communicate to others more effectively what project management is all about. They need to understand much better how people are made up, for example, how they might react to the project manager's approaches and how they themselves need to change their approaches towards people’ (Christopher). ‘Project managers need to be more cross-culturally aware and apply what they have learned about the different cultures more effectively. They need to build stronger trust with team members and they need to exercise better influencing skills to get, for example, what they want or need for their projects, or themselves’ (Steve). ‘Project managers need to have improved leadership skills, matching these to the local conditions and company cultures they operate in. They need to communicate clearly and build the team well. They must demonstrate enthusiasm and drive to get things done’ (Melissa, Lawrence). ‘Effective project managers of the future need to understand more what makes people tick. They need to be friendlier with people, being helpful and seen to be more in control of their projects. They need to praise people more for work well done’ (Maria). ‘Project managers need to lead more by example. Team members react positively to positive leadership styles and behaviours. It has a knock-on effect. They need to respect others for what they are and stand for. They need to communicate effectively, both in writing and verbally. They need to display higher levels of confidence in their own abilities’ (Sarah). ‘Good people project managers need to have good effective communications skills with people at all levels of the organization. They need to understand cross-cultural behaviours better and need to accept people more for what they are. They need to be more resilient to adverse situations in the project, both at people and at work level’ (Lisa).

3.2. Focus group meetings

The focus group made a major contribution to validate and to check the reliability of the research data from the literature review and the face to face interviews to suggest what makes an effective people project manager. The group confirmed, through in-depth discussions based on their combined years of practical experience, what they consider the skills and behaviours of an effective people project manager are. The focus group members identified associated behaviours for each of the competences they considered project managers need to apply to make these work for them, applying their own experiences to consider how these could be applied. This is crucial. Knowing about and acquiring competences, in itself, is no guarantee for success. Project managers need to apply these, observe the outcomes and likely changes the application has on people and then consider whether to modify them to make them work even better. This is a continuous process that

the focus group recognized as being important: 'Project managers need to be seen to be leading the project team through an appropriate manner and self-confidence (the how is important, not going over the top)' (Melissa). 'Project managers need to organize all meetings appropriately, talk to the right people at the right time, be compassionate, be approachable, be touchy-feely but let people know how they feel. And sometimes they may have to display behaviours that do not come natural to them in order to create a professional image in others' (Andrew, Kelly). 'Project managers need to be good natural influencers and persuaders and people need to feel at ease in the presence of the leader. Effective project managers need to know their onions, drawing on the experiences of the team, make the team feel as one team and that they are working together on the project. They need to be consistent and produce good quality documentation to improve the communications in their projects.' (Christopher).

'Effective people project managers own issues, encourage their teams to discuss these openly and honestly and driving their teams towards finding solutions to problems. They need to be careful not to play act as people will sense that they are saying one thing but doing another' (Lisa). 'Effective people project managers admit when they are wrong' (Maria). 'Competent people project managers display confidence when speaking to any audience. They stay in control at all times and are not swayed by what the audience is throwing at them, no matter how negative or irrelevant the subject matter may be' (Martin, Lawrence). 'Effective people project managers need to be autocratic when situations demand them to display this behaviour' (Steve). 'Self-development is an important competence for project managers to have. This often leads to the recognition of other areas for improvement, for example, how they manage their team members or the way in which they communicate with the team' (Sarah). 'It is not a weakness of an effective people project manager to ask for help. I consider this to be rather strength' (Lisa). 'Good people project managers sell themselves in the best possible light at all times'(Christopher). 'Competent project managers keep positive in adverse situations and do not let the situation control them' (Steve). 'Good people project managers listen actively to the problems discussed by their team members and do their best to help them as best as they can, and be seen to be doing this' (Andrew, Kelly). 'Effective people project managers are able to do more than one thing and are able to stay focused with the team at all times. Playing games is not acceptable-people will know straight away if the PM is acting or not. Acting might give some short-term gains but it will damage the personal relationships of the PM in the long term' (Maria).

Practitioners suggest that skills on their own do not make an effective people project manager. It is the associated behaviours that drive the effectiveness of the skills. They consider that both need to be adopted and applied by project managers to improve their managing people skills. It appears that not every people skill set is of paramount importance to make an effective people project manager. The sharing of the in-depth practical knowledge and experience of the practitioners made a major contribution to develop the six important skills and behaviours practitioners consider make an effective people project manager (Table 2).

Table 2. Six specific skills and behaviours of an effective people project manager

Skill	Behaviours
Understanding behavioural characteristics	Be genuine and open and honest with others. Show openly that you believe in your team members' abilities. Show an open and authentic concern for others that is based on true feelings and not on invented ones. Develop an understanding of the relationship between behaviours and feelings and how you can make this work for you in your teams. Adopt a repertoire of behaviours so you can deal with people in different situations and circumstances
Leading others	Show a high level of motivation towards innovation to inspire others to become more creative and innovative. Adopt a leadership style that is appropriate to the situation, for example, situational, transitional, visionary or charismatic. Ensure that your team members comply with your wishes. Apply directive, firm or demanding behaviours according to the attitudes and behaviours of your team members
Influencing others	Convince, influence or impress others in order to support their agenda, or the desire to have a specific impact or effect on others. Influence others by selling them the benefit, for example, why they should change so they can see the benefit and make the appropriate changes to their behaviour or attitude. Share with others what it feels like to work in a highly successful team so they adopt the behaviours that are associated with success. Influence team members to unblock the values and beliefs people have to help them develop better. Share with others what it feels like to work in a highly-valued team
Authentizotic behaviour	Show open concern for others. Accept people for what they are and do not try to force them to change. Empower people by delegating tasks to them and ask them to take on board more responsibilities. Develop an understanding of what makes the other person tick and what is important to that person. Show genuine concerns and feelings for the needs of others. Make people feel good about work, themselves, others and the project itself
Conflict management	Establish the root causes of the conflict by talking to others openly and honestly to find out. Concentrate on the work issues and do not get personal. Show loyalty, integrity, trust, help and support when dealing with conflicts. Be tolerant and prepared to compromise. Observe behaviours of team members to sense early when conflicts begin to develop, and then take corrective actions to resolve these
Cultural awareness	Develop, display and apply an awareness of the cultural differences of team members. Show an understanding and knowledge of the values and beliefs of other cultures. Adapt some of other people's own home country behaviours appropriate to the situation when managing people from diverse cultures. Adopt cultural awareness behaviours to manage people in their projects effectively. Show an open optimism about cultural differences and show views that confirm that you see cultural diversity as an enhancement to your own values and beliefs

4. Discussion

This paper suggests a number of skills and behaviours that could, if adopted, help project managers to become better at managing people in their projects and deliver projects successfully in the increasingly challenging and competitive working environments. Project managers need to show open and honest concerns for and genuine interests in the people they work with. Play-acting is an acceptable behaviour when applied from time to time, for example to reinforce some of the natural behaviours of project managers. Project managers must not use this to coerce people into carrying out unprofessional or unethical actions. They must not use people as a means to an end as this appears to lead to short-term fixes only. It is important for project managers to understand the feelings and emotions of people better. This understanding will help them to predict likely future behaviours of their team members better so they can plan ahead to avoid, for example, people conflicts much earlier. Showing respect for others and what they stand for is another behaviour that carries a lot of weight in effective people management. Showing respect, it appears, is applicable to any culture. People value being respected for what they are and stand for. It makes them feel good about themselves but also about the person showing the respect. This often leads to improved interpersonal relationships between people.

More and more businesses operate at a truly global level and the projects are implemented by people of different nations. It is therefore essential that project managers have a better and deeper understanding of the values and beliefs people from other countries hold if they wish to deliver their projects successfully in these working environments. Effective people project managers show an

open optimism about cultural differences and show views, through their behaviours, that they see cultural diversity as an enhancement to their own values and beliefs. Cultural awareness skills and behaviours are an important part of the repertoire of skills and behaviours that make an effective people project manager. Not all people skills will necessarily be applicable and effective in all projects anywhere in the world. Different cultures place different values on, for example, what is important to them. This necessitates the need to adapt some of the suggested behaviours to fit the local cultural environment, relating to both people and companies. The adoption and application of people skills are not a panacea for success. Technical competences and knowledge of the application of tools and techniques are as important. To be effective, project managers need both technical and people skills to deliver their projects successfully.

5. Conclusions

Considering all the challenges project managers are facing it is evident that one area where project managers need to make big improvements, is in the area of people management. Skills on their own, including their applications, do not make an effective people project manager. Behaviours drive outcomes. Specific behaviours for each skill need to be applied by project managers to make these skills truly effective. The impact changes in attitude have on behaviours was not considered here. This topic might be covered by future research based on the existing work of Fisher (2006).

Вопросы для размышления

1. Присутствуют ли в существующих на сегодняшний день стандартах в области управления проектами компетенции менеджера проекта, учитывающие управление взаимодействием участников проекта и его команды в частности?
2. На Ваш взгляд, является ли исчерпывающим выявленный автором статьи список компетенций по управлению участниками проекта? Обоснуйте ответ. Можно ли еще что-то добавить к данному списку, исходя из существующих на данный момент исследований, не упомянутых в статье?
3. Покажите на примере из российской или зарубежной практики, какие компетенции менеджера проекта в области управления участниками проекта, из перечисленных в статье или известных Вам, являются наиболее важными?
4. Считаете ли Вы, что представленное описание поведения менеджера проекта, в рамках выявленных в статье компетенций, в полной мере отражает их суть? Следует ли дополнить их характеристики?

Блок 5. «Управление человеческими ресурсами»

Прочитайте статью⁵ и сделайте ее критический анализ на русском языке.

Researchers in the field of strategic human resource management (SHRM) have increasingly relied on the resource-based view of the firm to explain the role of human resource practices in firm performance (*Wright, Dunford & Snell 2001*). Indeed, theoretical research on SHRM has suggested that systems of HR practices may lead to higher firm performance and be sources of sustained competitive advantage because these systems of practices are often unique, causally ambiguous, and difficult to imitate (*Lado & Wilson 1994*). However, HR practices can only be a source of sustained competitive advantage when they support resources or competencies that provide value to a firm (*Wright et al. 2001*). Thus, Wright, Snell, and their colleagues (*e.g., Snell, Youndt & Wright 1996; Wright et al. 2001*) have argued that SHRM research should identify resources that are critical for advantage in a given competitive context and the HR practices to build and support these resources.

High-technology firms are an important and interesting context in which to study the effects of human resource practices and employee-based resources because such firms play an increasingly important economic role and exist in an environment characterized by rapid change, ambiguity, and hypercompetition (*D'Aveni 1994*). These turbulent environmental conditions place a premium on both the speed and the quality of top management team (TMT) decision making and firm action (*Eisenhardt 1989*). A key factor in a TMT's ability to achieve both speed and quality is the use of real-time information (*Eisenhardt 1989*). The social networks of top managers, defined as the systems of relationships top managers have with employees and other actors outside of their organization, are a chief source of timely and relevant information on the state of both the external environment and the organization. Thus, the distinct information capabilities created through different TMT networks – both external networks and internal networks – may provide a competitive advantage for high-tech firms (*Barney 1991*).

In this article, we argue that TMT social networks will be a source of competitive advantage in high technology firms. Specifically, we use the information-processing and “boundary-spanning” literatures to develop hypotheses linking TMT social networks and firm performance. Further, we argue that firms may systematically develop and sustain social networks through supportive HR practices. In particular, we hypothesize that a set of network-building HR practices – including mentoring, incentives, and performance appraisals to encourage the development of business relationships – are significantly related to TMT networks. Finally, we predict that TMT networks will mediate the relationship between HR practices and firm performance. We tested our hypotheses in a sample of 73 technology firms. CEOs provided data on HR practices; top management team members provided data on networks; and secondary sources provided data on firm performance.

BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

TMT Social Networks and Firm Performance

We focus on the networks of top managers because they are an important subset of those employees who have contact both with the employees of their own firm and with important external actors.

As such, they are in a particularly favorable position to collect and manage the information that enables organizations to act (*Mintzberg 1973; Thompson 1967*). Information theory (*Galbraith 1973*) suggests that organizations need to be able to access and use information in order to reduce uncertainty and take actions to increase performance. Three components of information management lead to effective action under uncertainty: information gathering (from inside and outside a firm), processing, and distribution. Through their unique position at the apex of their

⁵ Статья составлена по: Collins C., Clark K. (2004) Strategic human resource practices, top management team social networks, and firm performance: The role of human resource practices in creating organizational competitive advantage. // *Academy of Management Journal*, 46(6): 740-751.

organization, top managers are able to affect the information flow within the organization by gathering and redistributing information across key external actors and internal locales. As we argue below, the structure (size and range) and strength of ties of TMT external and internal networks provide informational benefits that lead to competitive advantages and higher firm performance.

In this research, TMT social networks refer to the sets of relationships top managers have with others in their own organization (internal networks) and with individuals outside of the organization who hold information of potential value to the firm (external networks). Importantly, networks differ in *size*, defined as number of contacts, and *range*, defined as diversity of contacts (Burt 1982). Large networks are potentially, but not necessarily, diverse (Granovetter 1973). For example, a TMT with a customer focus may develop a very large network of contacts with current and potential customers but may have few contacts with other types of actors (financial institutions, suppliers, and competitors, for example). In addition to varying on these dimensions of structure, networks can also vary on the strength of ties between actors. Strong ties are those that are of long duration, exercised frequently, and emotionally close (Granovetter 1973). Further, if TMT social networks are idiosyncratic because they are created through firm-specific practices, then they can lead to sustainable competitive advantage (Barney 1991).

In addition to the size and range of networks, we address the strength of the ties they comprise.

Krackhardt (1992) argued that strong ties are desirable because they aid in the development of trust and reciprocity, what he referred to as *philos*. *Philos* enables parties to exchange complex information that could not be transferred over weaker links (Hansen 1999). Additionally, from an information perspective, the critical contingency is the type of information that is required from a network. For technology firms, sensitive and complex information is particularly useful as rivals attempt to gain first-mover advantages through innovation (D'Aveni 1994). Where information is complex, sensitive, or proprietary, strong ties are required to motivate individual actors to transfer information (Hansen 1999).

Hypothesis 1. TMT external networks that are large in size, broad in range, and characterized by strong ties will be associated with increased firm performance.

Hypothesis 2. TMT internal networks that are large in size, broad in range, and characterized by strong ties will be associated with increased firm performance.

SHRM and the Development of TMT Social Networks

While the above discussion suggests that TMT networks are valuable and linked to higher firm performance, it is important to understand how firms can develop and support this organizational resource. Research on strategic human resource management suggests that firms can create and support employee-based competencies through HR practices (Wright et al. 2001). Similarly, Leana and Van Buren (1999) argued that HR practices are the primary means by which firms can manage the set of social relationships held by organizational employees.

Research on SHRM suggests that HR practices can enhance firm performance when they are internally aligned with one another to manage employees in a manner that leads to competitive advantage (Delery & Doty 1996). Further, the appropriateness of a set of HR practices may depend on the competency that a firm is trying to develop (Snell et al. 1996). HR practices can create value for a firm when the individual practices are aligned to develop critical resources or competencies (Wright et al. 2001). It is important to note that the employee-based capabilities built and sustained through HR practices will be difficult to imitate because these practices and policies may be firm-specific, socially complex, and path-dependent (Lado & Wilson 1994). Even if a set of practices can be imitated, there will be a considerable time lag between the implementation of a system and its impact (Wright et al. 2001). Thus, we argue that a system of HR practices can underlie and support the sustainability of the competitive advantage created through TMT networks. To elicit desired behaviors from employees, including top managers, firms must provide feedback and incentives that reinforce the desired behaviors (Locke & Latham 1990). Performance appraisals and

compensation are the primary HR practices firms use to elicit and reinforce desired behaviors (Latham & Wexley 1981).

Because behavioral outcomes depend on both individual motivation and appropriate skills (Locke & Latham 1990), firms should also train TMTs to learn relationship-building skills. The best learning opportunities may come from mentorship or interacting and exchanging ideas with peers (Noe 2002). For example, TMT members with many years of firm-specific experience can mentor new members on how to develop strong relationships with many different sets of actors. Finally, firms must provide opportunities for performance of desired behaviors (Locke & Latham 1990). Organizations can increase the access TMT members have to external and internal actors by providing them with the time and resources for this task (Cohen & Prusak 2001). For example, top managers may be able to develop larger and broader networks if they have budgeted funds for relationship building.

Hypothesis 3. A set of specific networking-building HR practices will be positively related to the size, range, and strength of ties of TMT external networks.

Hypothesis 4. A set of specific network-building HR practices will be positively related to the size, range, and strength of ties of TMT internal networks.

TMT Social Networks as a Mediator of the HR-Firm Performance Relationship

As discussed above, Wright and his coauthors (2001) argued that human resource practices lead to higher firm performance through their effects on employee-based firm capabilities and resources. In this article, we have argued that a system of specific network-building HR practices can be used to manage the external and internal social networks of top managers, and that these employee-based resources should have significant effects on firm performance. Therefore, we expect that one way HR practices affect firm performance is through their effect on TMT social capital.

Hypothesis 5. TMT external and internal social networks will mediate the relationships between sets of HR practices and firm performance.

METHODS

Sample

The target population for the study was high-technology companies in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. Within each company, we collected (1) a detailed CEO questionnaire to measure HR practices, (2) detailed TMT (excluding CEO) questionnaires to measure social networks, and (3) secondary source records to measure financial performance. An initial list of companies was identified through the 1998 *Mid-AtlanTech Almanac*. We identified and contacted 211 actively operating high-tech firms. Of the 211 firms contacted, 85 agreed to participate in the study. Usable responses were collected from 73 companies, for a participation rate of 35 percent. The mean number of employees was 1,742, with a standard deviation of 3,391; the median number of employees was 510.

Variable Definition and Measurement

HR practices. As discussed above, we were interested in the effects of a set of specific network-building practices and wanted to control for the potential effects of incentive pay based on organizational performance. We have collected the following information: *Incentive pay based on company performance*, such as bonuses and stock options; *network-building HR practices* including training, performance assessment, and rewards designed to help and encourage top managers to build relationships with external and internal actors; *External and internal social networks*, including the size, range, and strength of ties for their contacts in nine external categories of actors (external board members, suppliers, customers, financial institutions, competitors, alliance partners, government agencies, trade associations, and “other external”) and four internal categories (sales and marketing, research and development, production and operations, and “other internal”).

Network size refers to the total number of contacts in a TMT's social network; *Network range* refers to the diversity of contacts in a TMT's social network.

Strength of ties is a multifaceted construct consisting of interaction frequency, relationship duration, and the emotional intensity or closeness of a bond (*Granovetter 1973*). Individually, strength of ties was measured as the linear combination of the standardized scores of the three components of tie strength.

TABLE 1
Results of Factor Analysis for Human Resource Practices^a

Variable	Component 1	Component 2
Incentive pay		
TMT members' variable pay is based on how well the company as a whole is performing.	.76	.03
This firm uses multiple incentives (e.g., stock options, signing bonuses) to attract top candidates for the TMT.	.73	.19
The majority of TMT members' pay is based on variable compensation (bonuses, stock, profit sharing, etc.).	.69	.17
Incentive-based pay for the TMT is based on how well the company is performing as a whole.	.71	.22
Network-building HR practices		
TMT members are provided expense accounts for developing job-related personal contacts.	.15	.82
TMT members have received training to develop personal relationships with key internal stakeholders.	.09	.81
TMT members are evaluated on their ability to develop relationships with employees across different areas of the firm.	.11	.81
The TMT frequently discusses strategies for developing personal relationships with key external stakeholders.	.26	.76
TMT members are provided financial incentives for developing job-related personal relationships with key internal employees.	.22	.77
In this organization, TMT members are evaluated on their ability to develop relationships with key external stakeholders.	.22	.72
In this firm there are incentives for developing job-related personal relationships with key internal stakeholders.	.30	.68
TMT members mentor one another on how to cultivate job-related personal relationships with other employees of this firm.	.32	.56
Eigenvalues	2.84	4.48

^a Boldface indicates the factor on which an item primarily loads.

Financial performance. We primarily used COMPUSTAT to collect measures of sales growth and stock performance for the fiscal year that followed the collection of the HR practice and social network data. **Firm size as control variable.** According to the resource-based view, firms with superior resources will be able to conceive of and implement unique strategies that rivals will find difficult to emulate (*Barney 1991*). Because large firms have more such resource advantages than do small firms, we included firm size as a control. We measured firm size as the natural logarithmic transformation of the number of full-time employees (*Kimberly 1976*).

RESULTS

Table 2 reports the means, standard deviations, and correlations of all variables. We used hierarchical regression analysis to test the hypotheses since this procedure allowed us to test for mediation and control for firm size and TMT incentive pay (entered in step 1 of regressions). Tables 3 and 4 give regression analysis results.

Hypotheses 1 and 2: TMT Social Networks and Firm Performance

As shown in model 1 of Table 3, which reports the results of the regression analysis of the relationships between TMT networks and firm performance, the range of external networks was significantly related to sales growth ($\beta = 0.23, p < .05$) and stock returns ($\beta = 0.29, p < .05$). The strength of ties of external networks was significantly related to sales growth ($\beta = 0.28, p < .01$) and stock returns ($\beta = 0.24, p < .05$). External network size was not significantly related to either measure of firm performance. In addition, internal network size was significantly related to sales

growth ($\beta = 0.25, p < .01$) but not stock returns ($\beta = 0.14, n.s.$). The range of internal networks was significantly related to stock returns ($\beta = 0.24, p < .05$) but not sales growth ($\beta = 0.10, n.s.$). The strength of ties of internal networks was not significantly related to either measure of firm performance (sales growth, $\beta = 0.07, n.s.$; stock returns, $\beta = 0.16, n.s.$). Thus, we found partial support for relationships stated in Hypotheses 1 and 2.

TABLE 2
Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations^a

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. TMT incentive pay	3.31	0.69											
2. Network-building HR practices	2.74	0.89	.29**										
3. External network size	72.79	55.91	.23*	.37**									
4. External network strength of ties	0.10	0.71	.18	.42**	.30**								
5. External network range	0.71	0.22	.29*	.20	.45**	.49**							
6. Internal network size	39.56	36.08	.23*	.44**	.39**	.28**	.39**						
7. Internal network strength of ties	0.30	0.70	.34*	.48**	.13	.35*	.38*	.22*					
8. Internal network range	0.81	0.20	.18	.32**	.23*	.40**	.42**	.43**	.51**				
9. Sales growth	0.33	0.71	.19*	.21*	.17	.31**	.23*	.28**	.12	.18			
10. One-year stock returns	1.44	8.42	.27*	.29*	.06	.28*	.31*	.25*	-.09	.29*	.29*		
11. Firm size	631.77	1,573.71	.20*	.03	-.02	.19	.18	.05	.17	-.05	.25*	-.08	

^a The value of n is 73 for all correlations except one-year stock return, for which n is 52.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Hypotheses 3 and 4: Network-Building HR Practices and TMT Networks

Table 4 gives the results of our regression analysis of the relationships between network-building HR practices and TMT networks. The HR practices were significantly related to the size of TMT external networks ($\beta = 0.34, p < .01$) and the strength of ties in TMT external networks ($\beta = 0.36, p < .01$), but these practices were not significantly related to TMT external network range ($\beta = 0.11, n.s.$). As shown in Table 4, network-building HR practices were significantly related to all three measures of internal networks (size, $\beta = 0.34, p < .01$; range, $\beta = 0.29, p < .01$; strength of ties, $\beta = 0.41, p < .01$). Thus, our results suggest that specific network – building practices may be an effective means for firms to purposefully manipulate the networks of their top managers.

Hypothesis 5: TMT Networks as a Mediator of the HR-Firm Performance Relationship

We tested for mediation following the three-step procedure outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986). In step 1 (Table 3, model 2), we found significant relationships between the set of network-building HR practices and both sales growth ($\beta = 0.24, p < .01$) and stock returns ($\beta = 0.27, p < .05$). In step 2, we found significant relationships between the HR practices and external and internal TMT networks (see the results presented above). Finally, in the presence of TMT social networks, network-building HR practices were no longer significantly related to either measure of firm performance (Table 3, model 3). Indeed, the t -values for the relationships between the HR practices and firm performance drop dramatically, suggesting full mediation. Thus, we found strong support for Hypothesis 5: HR practices for TMT network development appear to affect firm performance through TMT external and internal social networks.

Practical Effects

Importantly, the effects are also meaningful from a practical and financial standpoint. Further, the network-building HR practices and incentive pay based on organizational performance had similar practical effects. Regarding the direct effects of HR practices on performance, our results showed that a one-standard-deviation increase in specific network-building practices yielded an 18.7 percent growth in sales and a 2.55 percent stock return, and a one-standard-deviation increase in incentive pay based on organizational performance yielded a 17.2 percent growth in sales and a 2.93 percent stock return. However, it is important to note that the mediating effects of TMT

networks accounted for nearly all of the effect of network-building practices on sales growth but less than half of the effect of incentive pay practices based on organizational performance.

TABLE 3
Results of Regression Analysis of Relationships with Firm Performance^a

Variable	One-Year Sales Growth				One-Year Stock Returns			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Firm size	0.09 (0.98)	0.06 (0.41)	0.14 (1.68)	0.13 (1.49)	-0.10 (-0.98)	-0.13 (-1.19)	-0.15 (-1.29)	-0.13 (-1.20)
TMT incentive pay	0.19* (2.01)	0.12 (1.52)	0.17 (1.88)	0.10 (1.48)	0.23* (2.17)		0.22* (2.05)	0.09 (1.09)
Network-building HR practices			0.24** (2.66)	0.01 (0.11)			0.27* (2.41)	0.02 (0.12)
External network size		-0.08 (-0.81)		-0.02 (-0.11)		0.05 (0.36)		0.03 (0.30)
External network range		0.23* (2.10)		0.21* (2.12)		0.29* (2.35)		0.27* (2.30)
External strength of ties		0.28** (2.74)		0.27** (2.66)		0.24* (2.08)		0.25* (2.03)
Internal network size		0.25** (2.51)		0.21* (2.10)		0.14 (1.24)		0.11 (0.96)
Internal network range		0.10 (1.20)		0.14 (1.58)		0.24* (2.12)		0.26* (2.20)
Internal strength of ties		0.07 (0.62)		0.02 (0.17)		-0.16 (-1.31)		0.01 (0.11)
ΔR^2	.04	.12*	.07*	.17**	.06	.13*	.09*	.15*
F	0.82	2.87	4.41	6.06	1.48	2.75	4.81	3.13

^a Standardized coefficients are reported, with *t*-values in parentheses. *n* = 73 for sales growth, *n* = 52 for stock returns.

* *p* < .05

** *p* < .01

DISCUSSION

This study was motivated by a desire to understand the role of human resource practices in creating sustainable competitive advantage. In general, our results supported the notion that one way HR practices lead to higher firm performance is through developing and reinforcing employee-based resources that are valuable in a particular competitive environment (*e.g.*, Wright *et al.* 2001). We found that a set of specific network-building HR practices was significantly related to the valuable firm resource of TMT social networks. Further, we found that the set of network-building HR practices led to higher firm performance (measured as both sales growth and stock performance) through the practices' effect on the external and internal social networks of top management teams. Although our hypotheses focused on links between specific network-building HR practices and TMT networks, the findings suggest there may be multiple methods by which firms can develop and manage top manager networks.

While there may be several ways for organizations to build the resource of TMT networks, our results suggest that specific, targeted HR practices may be more effective than general practices (that is, performance-based incentive practices). Specifically, the relationships between specific network-building practices and firm performance were larger than those between performance-based incentive practices and firm performance. These findings suggest that firms should use specific sets of HR practices if they are trying to develop and reinforce a particular employee-based resource or competency. However, we did find large, direct, practical effects for the link between incentive pay based on organizational performance and both sales growth and stock returns. Thus, general sets of HR practices (such as pay based on organizational performance) affect performance, but they may do so in ways other than affecting employee-based resources.

This study also supported the notion that top managers' social networks are important for firm performance. Moreover, diverse ties may provide access to novel information, and close ties may allow for the understanding needed for effective transfer when information is complex. Overall, TMTs may wish to selectively build strong, trusting relationships with a range of external actors, rather than build large networks. Since range and strength theoretically provide different but

complementary capabilities, it would be of value to explore interactions, threshold levels, and the possibility of combined effects.

TABLE 4
Relationship between HR Practices and TMT Networks^a

Variable	Size		Range		Strength of Ties	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
External networks						
Firm size	0.03 (0.41)	-0.04 (-0.34)	0.12 (1.17)	0.14 (1.27)	0.17 (1.58)	0.18 (1.53)
TMT incentive pay	0.24* (2.28)	0.21* (2.16)	0.24* (2.39)	0.21* (2.18)	0.13 (1.14)	0.10 (0.98)
Network-building HR practices		0.34** (2.90)		0.11 (0.96)		0.36** (3.12)
ΔR^2	.07*	.08**	.07*	.01	.05	.16**
ΔF	2.94	4.13	2.89	0.63	2.16	11.48
Internal networks						
Firm size	0.01 (0.28)	0.03 (0.66)	0.04 (0.51)	0.01 (0.04)	0.10 (0.98)	0.12 (1.14)
TMT incentive pay	0.16 (1.72)	0.11 (1.12)	0.15 (1.71)	0.11 (1.14)	0.29** (3.05)	0.25* (2.56)
Network-building HR practices		0.34 (3.22)		0.29** (2.84)		0.41** (3.51)
ΔR^2	.04	.14**	.03	.08**	.11**	.13**
F	1.74	8.47	1.54	4.09	4.02	5.22

^a Standardized coefficients are reported, with *t*-values in parentheses; *n* = 73.

* *p* < .05

** *p* < .01

Large and diverse internal TMT networks were related to firm performance, but strong ties were not. The data suggest that a high level of connectedness internally allows a TMT to become aware of information reservoirs and the information needs of various organizational locales. The TMT can then facilitate the exchange of information within its firm and become better able to seek relevant information from external contacts. Because membership in an organization usually creates a nominal threshold level of trust and goal congruence, strong internal ties may not be necessary for accessing and transferring information internally.

Although our results are important, there are several limitations to their generalizability. First, the hypotheses were tested on a relatively small sample of firms; thus, our power to detect smaller effects was limited. For example, the direct link between performance-based incentive practices and firm performance found in previous studies was not significant here, when TMT network measures were also present. Second, while the relationships may be predictive for similar types of firms, and environmental turbulence appears to be increasing in most sectors, it is unclear if this same model would be predictive with a sample of low-technology or regulated firms, whose environments are less dynamic. Third, this research is an incomplete test of the role of HR practices in building competitive advantage. In particular, we only examined HR practices for a relatively idiosyncratic set of organizational employees. There are many different groups of employees inside organizations that can create competitive advantage (*Lepak & Snell 1999*); thus, future research should examine how HR practices affect firm resources that are developed around other employees besides top managers.

We also note several limitations that may have led to the overestimation of effect sizes for the relationships between the variables in the study. For example, the research was a field study in which the survey measures of HR practices and social capital were collected concurrently; thus, it is not possible to prove causality between constructs. Our results are also potentially biased because we had a single respondent report the HR practices of each firm (*Gerhart, Wright, McMahan & Snell 2000*). In addition, although this study goes further than other studies in examining potential mediators of the link between HR practices and firm performance, important variables remained unmeasured in our study. In particular, future research should examine the potential mediators between HR practices and networks (such as high levels of collective goal orientation and access)

and between networks and firm performance (access to valuable information and transfer of information, for instance). Similarly, we did not control for a number of general high-performance practices that may be related to both firm performance and specific networking practices. For example, by asking about training and performance assessment for networking, we may have been picking up on general “high-commitment practices” (*Delery & Doty 1996*) of internal development. Thus, our findings for the specific networking practices may be overstated. Future research is necessary to determine the extent to which specific HR practices affect firm performance and mediators above and beyond the effects of general high-performance practices.

Overall, this study contributes to the literatures on strategic human resource management and social networks in several ways. First, we begin to look into the black box enclosing the interface between HR practices and firm performance by providing evidence that a set of network-building HR practices is significantly related to firm performance through TMT networks. The study also provides evidence that multiple sets of HR practices may exist inside firms for the same set of employees. Importantly, our findings suggest that specific and general HR practices affect firm performance in different ways – specific practices seem to affect performance by building and reinforcing a specific employee-based capability, whereas general practices may affect performance more broadly through other factors such as employee skills or motivation. Therefore, SHRM researchers should be careful to base their identification of sets of HR practices on the mediators that they are interested in studying. The study also provides evidence that both external and internal networks serve as important informational resources for high-technology firms.

From a practical standpoint, it appears that firms may be able to purposefully develop and manage the networks of their top managers. However, since different network characteristics affect firm performance differently, companies should be careful to create the network characteristics that are most likely to affect performance in their particular environmental context.

Вопросы для размышления

1. Каковы основные проблемы, рассматриваемые в статье?
2. Какие из приведенных в статье исследовательских методов и выводов по результатам исследования представляются вам спорными, недостаточно обоснованными? Почему?
3. Каковы ограничения проведенного исследования?
4. Каковы направления использования HR-менеджерами результатов этого исследования?
5. Являются ли рассмотренные в статье проблемы актуальными для российских организаций?

Блок 6. «Экономика впечатлений: менеджмент в индустрии гостеприимства и туризме»

Прочитайте статью⁶ и сделайте ее критический анализ на русском языке.

Although the development of Chinese outbound tourism is a relatively recent phenomenon, China has quickly become a major tourist-generating market drawing worldwide awareness (*Pan et al. 2007; Ryan & Gu 2008*). As a major player in the international tourism market, the United States is among the last Western countries obtaining Approved Destination Status (ADS) and joining in the competition for Chinese outbound tourists. In December 2007, the American and Chinese governments signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) that granted the United States the benefits of the ADS (e.g., allowing Chinese travel agents to sell U.S. travel products to group leisure travelers and permitting American destinations to promote themselves in China) (*Burnett et al. 2008; Sheatsley et al. 2009*). As their counterparts in many other Western countries, American tourism and hospitality practitioners frequently ask: What kind of services should we deliver to Chinese tourists? This paper attempts to provide some preliminary insight into this question.

Understanding customers' expectations and preferences, and the benefits they seek is critical to marketers. In the consumer behavior literature, the disconfirmation paradigm holds that customer satisfaction is a function of performance-specific expectation and expectancy disconfirmation (*Oliver 1980*). Service marketing researchers also believe that customers' perception of service quality involves a comparison of service performance against their expectations (*Shoemaker, Lewis & Yesawich 2007*). Further, the classic service quality model (*Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1985*) proposes five gaps critical to customers' perceived service quality, of which Gap 1 (difference between consumer expectations for service/quality and management perceptions of consumer expectations) and Gap 5 (difference between consumer expectations about service/quality and perceptions of actual service/quality) both relate to consumer expectations. Thus, it seems that understanding Chinese tourists' expectations is crucial for delivering quality services to this market. The purpose of this paper, then, is to qualitatively examine Chinese tourists' service expectations when traveling overseas.

Finally, across different countries and cultures, peoples' behavioral characteristics, values, and expectations can differ substantially. The work of Turner, Reisinger, and McQuilken (2001) suggests that cultural differences would influence the importance customers assign to different aspects of services, and then their pre-travel expectations, which would in turn significantly affect their post-trip satisfaction level. For most Western marketers who have limited experiences with Chinese customers, it is important to acknowledge that conventional marketing wisdom, mainly acquired from research and experiences with Western consumers, may not apply to Chinese tourists. This study will focus on Chinese outbound travelers' expectations on non-Asian travel products, where cultural differences are likely to play a role. Ultimately, the authors expect that findings from the present study may help lay some groundwork for new tourism marketing conceptualizations and a more universal research paradigm (*Li & Petrick 2008*).

Literature review

Service expectation: the conceptual background

Customer expectations are "pretrial beliefs about a product ...that serve as standards or reference points against which product performance is judged" (*Zeithaml, Berry & Parasuraman 1993, p. 1*). Most research on service expectations has entailed examination of either service quality or satisfaction. This comes as no surprise considering the central role expectation plays in conceptualizing satisfaction and service quality (*Oliver 1980; Parasuraman et al. 1991; Pizam et al. 1978; Turner et al. 2001; Zeithaml et al. 1993*).

⁶ Статья составлена по: Li X(R), Lai C., Harrill R., Kline S., Wang L. When east meets west: An exploratory study on Chinese outbound tourists' travel expectations. // *Tourism Management*, Vol. 32, Iss. 4, Aug. 2011.

Satisfaction is commonly defined as “an affective state that is the emotional reaction to a service experience” (*Spreng, MacKenzie & Olshavsky 1996, p. 17*), while perceived quality generally refers to “a consumer’s judgment about a product’s overall excellence or superiority” (*Zeithaml 1988, p. 3*). To most supporters of the disconfirmation paradigm, the conceptualization of satisfaction and perceived quality both involve a frame of reference to customers’ expectation (*Robledo 2001*). For instance, Oliver (1980, p. 460) maintains that expectations “create a frame of reference about which one makes a comparative judgment” and “satisfaction increases as the performance/expectation ratio increases.” Perceived quality, on the other hand, is viewed as the “degree and discrepancy between customers’ perceptions and expectations” (*Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1988, p. 17*). Nevertheless, the satisfaction and quality literature traditionally hold different views of expectation in conceptualization and research practices (*Boulding et al. 1993; Parasuraman et al. 1988; Zeithaml et al. 1993*).

The satisfaction literature tends to view expectations (variously termed as “expected standard” (*Miller 1977*), “predictive expectations” (*Prakash 1984; Swan & Trawik 1980*), “will expectations” (*Boulding et al. 1993*), or “expectations-as-prediction standard” (*Zeithaml et al. 1993*)) as customers’ predictions of what *will* happen in a service encounter (*Boulding et al. 1993; Parasuraman et al. 1988*). For instance, Oliver (1981, p. 33) indicated that “It is generally agreed that expectations are consumer-defined probabilities of the occurrence of positive and negative events if the consumer engages in some behavior.” In contrast, the service quality literature generally views expectations (variously termed as “ideal expectations” (*Boulding et al. 1993; Miller 1977*), “desired expectations” (*Swan & Trawik 1980*), “normative expectations” (*Prakash 1984*), “expectations-as ideal-standard” (*Zeithaml et al. 1993*)) as the ideal standard of services, i.e., “what a customer wants in an ideal sense” (*Boulding et al. 1993, p. 9*). Further, some other researchers also suggested that customer may form expectations about what *should* or *ought to* happen in a service encounter (*Boulding et al. 1993; Tse & Wilton 1988*), or expectations about what is the minimum acceptable level (*Miller 1977; Woodruff et al. 1987; Zeithaml et al. 1993*).

Admittedly, the nuances among the above-mentioned types of expectations are not always as salient or clear-cut as researchers expected. The present study, following Zeithaml et al.’s (1993) notion of “desired service,” defines travel expectations as the normative level tourists hope the service providers will perform regarding various aspects of their trips, such as accommodations, modes of transportation, food, etc. The authors realized that to avoid unnecessary confusion, some clarification must be made at the research operation level. This issue will be addressed in the “Methodology” section.

The development of Chinese outbound tourism

The Chinese government, through the establishment of the Approved Destination Status (ADS) system, started allowing the Chinese public to travel overseas for leisure purposes in early 1990s. In 1997, through the enactment of the “Provisional Regulation on Self-supported Outbound Travel,” the Chinese government officially revised its tourism policy so that people could travel abroad at their own expense (*Arlt 2006; Guo et al. 2007*). To date, there were a total of 139 countries and territories with ADS, and 104 of these agreements were already implemented (*Qian 2010*). In 2009, Mainland Chinese citizens made approximately 47.66 million trips outside Mainland China (*Qian 2010*). In the same year, despite the global economic slowdown, China outbound tourism maintains a 4-percent growth rate (*Qian 2010*).

From destinations’ point of view, China has become an important source market. In Asian countries such as Japan, Singapore, and the Philippines, the Greater China Region (Mainland China, Hong Kong, Macao, and Taiwan) has emerged as their leading source market (*Japanese Tourism Marketing Co. 2009; Philippine Department of Tourism 2009; Singapore Department of Statistics 2009*). In other countries, such as the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom, China is among their fastest-growing source markets and has quickly become one of their top Asian markets (*Canadian Tourism Commission 2008; Office for National Statistics 2008; Sheatsley et al. 2009*).

A recent study estimated that the current Chinese outbound travel market comprises approximately 22 million people who have traveled or plan to travel to destinations outside Mainland China, Hong Kong, and Macao. Among them, 11.5 million have traveled or plan to travel to destinations outside Asia (*Li, Harrill, Uysal, Burnett & Zhan 2010*). Although the current size of Chinese outbound travel is already quite impressive, from a percentage-of-total population standpoint, Chinese outbound tourism development remains in an early stage but with huge growth potential (*Lim & Wang 2008*). Chinese outbound travel is hence expected to continue growing steadily (although at a lower rate) and “contribute to the stability of the world’s tourism economy” (*Dai 2008*).

Studies related to Chinese outbound tourists’ expectations

Corresponding to the growth of Chinese outbound tourism, more studies on Chinese tourists’ travel behavior have recently been published. For instance, Yu and Weiler (2001) analyzed the behavior of Mainland Chinese pleasure travelers to Australia and found that Chinese pleasure travelers preferred package travel because of convenience and reasonable prices. Their findings suggested that the major benefits sought by Chinese visitors in a pleasure trip include scenic beauty, safety, famous attractions, different cultures, and services in hotels and restaurants among others. Yu and Weiler (2001) also reported that Chinese tourists’ satisfaction level varied among gender, educational backgrounds, and their travel party. In a comprehensive review on the development and implications of Mainland Chinese outbound tourism, Guo et al. (2007) indicated that Mainland Chinese tourists generally prefer package tours involving multiple destination countries, which seems to deliver better value for money than single-destination package.

According to Y. Wang, Vela, and Tyler (2008), the service expectations of Chinese travelers differed based on their travel purposes. The result from a survey using an adapted SERVQUAL questionnaire showed that Chinese tourists expected reliable and enthusiastic services and adequate facilities, similar to what typical hotels in China would offer. Based on a survey of Mainland Chinese tourists to Canada conducted by the CTC, Huang (2008) summarized 55 expectations into 12 factors. His study proposed that there exist three expectation patterns among Mainland Chinese tourists to Canada, related to entertainment, variety seeking, and health/low price.

In sum, the foregoing review suggests that due to culture and socio-economic differences, Chinese travelers may have particular travel expectations, preferences, and requirements that are not yet well understood by Western marketers. To the authors’ best knowledge, few studies have systematically investigated the travel expectations of Mainland Chinese outbound tourists. Hence, the present study attempts to shed some light on this.

Methodology

This study is the second phase of a carefully designed project on Chinese outbound travel market from a United States perspective. The multi-phase project employed a variety of quantitative and qualitative techniques, and each phase was designed with the aim of “building on, adding to, and refining insights from preceding phases” (*Parasuraman et al. 1991, p. 39*).

As indicated, the current study focused on Chinese outbound tourists’ expectations of long-haul (i.e., outside Asia) travel products. Due to the exploratory nature of the study, the authors took a qualitative approach and conducted multiple focus groups (FG), which is quite common in customer expectation studies (*Lidén & Edvardsson 2003; Parasuraman et al. 1991; Wang et al. 2000*). Group dynamics is the most distinctive methodological feature of FG, which encourages members to build off each other’s thoughts and ideas (*Catterall & Maclaran 2006*). Moreover, FGs may help examine how people regard an experience and why they feel that way (*Bernard 2000*), which fits the purpose of this study.

Following Li et al. (2010), the FG sessions were held in 11 cities in China by a professional marketing research company. In addition to the country’s three gateway cities (Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou), the research team selected eight secondary cities (Chongqing, Xi’an, Shenyang,

Tianjin, Nanjing, Hangzhou, Wuhan, and Shenzhen) to keep a geographical balance, and also for market targeting and strategic planning purposes. Although there is no universal rule for the number of FGs required for a project, it is believed that 11 sessions are adequate for this study (*Calder 1977*).

Catterall and Maclaran (2006) suggest FGs be implemented as follows: (1) FGs usually last for one-and-a-half hours; (2) FGs should consist of up to eight participants; (3) FG participants should be homogeneous in personal characteristics; and (4) FGs should consist of strangers rather than acquaintances. Following these suggestions, eight participants were recruited for each FG session (i.e., each city). Because the ultimate purpose of this study is to help U.S. travel industry better understand the Chinese market, it was decided that each FG session should include both past visitors (defined as travelers who had visited the United States for pleasure (or for business but with a pleasure component) in the past three years, $N = 4$), and potential visitors (travelers who had visited destinations outside of Asia (but not the United States) for pleasure in the past three years, $N = 4$). Each FG session was held at a neutral location in each city, with one or two professional moderator(s) leading the discussion.

Before the FGs were launched, a moderator's guide was developed, containing a series of questions about participants' previous trips outside Asia, such as their most memorable experiences when traveling outside Asia, decision-making procedures, and what they hope service providers understand about Chinese tourists. After multiple rounds of discussion with project sponsors and the research vendor, the research team decided to examine service expectations by asking about participants' criteria when selecting accommodations, food, transportation, tour guides and itineraries, and entertainment and activities for their outside-of-Asia trips (e.g., When traveling outside of Asia, what criteria do you use to select your accommodations?). This is partly because the notion of "service expectation" might be too abstract for participants to talk about, and Chinese respondents are generally not so forthcoming in their views (*Roy, Walters & Luk 2001*). Further, asking about criteria instead of expectations might avoid the potential different interpretations of service expectations as "will," "ideal," or "should" standards in participants' mind, as previously indicated. A pilot test showed that the term "criteria" (*Biaozhun*) was easily understood and well-responded to by participants. Each FG session was videotaped, transcribed in Chinese, and later professionally translated into English. Two of the authors, both proficient in Chinese and English, also proofread the translated transcripts.

Results and findings

A total of 88 participants were convenience sampled and recruited by the research company; they included 45 males and 43 females. Most of them were 30–49 years old ($n = 51$) and had a monthly household income between RMB 10,000 and 34,999 (approximately USD\$1471–\$5147) ($n = 66$). Because the FG study mainly focused on five aspects of Chinese outbound tourists' travel experiences (i.e., accommodations, food and restaurant, tour guides and itineraries, entertainment and activities, and transportation), the following research findings are organized accordingly. Notably, the participants made more comments on lodgings, food, and tour guides/itineraries (Table 1).

Table 1. Demographic profile of respondents (n = 88)

	Tianjin	Beijing	Shanghai	Shenzhen	Guangzhou	Nanjing	Chongqing	Hangzhou	Xi'an	Shenyang	Wuhan	Total
Gender												
Male	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	45
Female	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	43
Age												
20–29	1	5	4	3	2	4	3	2	2	2	3	31
30–39	4	3	3	4	4	2	3	4	3	4	4	38
40–49	2		1	1	2	1		2	2	2		13
50–59	1					1	1		1		1	5
60+							1					1
Monthly household income												
¥0–9,999							1	2	2	6	2	13
¥10,000–14,999	1	1	1		2	2		1	4	1	3	16
¥15,000–19,999	2	2		2	3	2		2	1		3	17
¥20,000–24,999	4	2	3	3		1	4					17
¥25,000–29,999				1	2	1		3	1			8
¥30,000–34,999	1	1	2			1	3					8
¥35,000–39,999					1							1
¥40,000–44,999			1	2								3
¥45,000–49,999		2										2
¥50000+			1			1				1		3

Hotel/accommodations

Participants generally related to their past outbound travel experiences when answering this question. Some of their comments were essentially critiques and complaints about their previous travel experience, which reflected their expectations indirectly. Many FG participants commented on inadequate facilities and equipment. A very common complaint concerned lack of hot drinking water and Chinese tea. For example, a respondent from Nanjing said, “*They do not provide hot water for drinking. Chinese like drinking hot tea.*” Because Chinese hotels traditionally provide a large set of “standard amenities” (e.g., toothpaste and toothbrushes, combs, shampoo and lotion, slippers, shoe mitts, even disposable razors and shaving cream), Chinese tourists (particularly those first-time outbound travelers) generally expect foreign hotels to do the same thing. This expectation, if unfulfilled, could create a bit frustration as some Chinese tourists do not pack such items when traveling, and they might not be able to communicate with the hotel requesting these items due to language barrier.

Similar to previous studies (Wong & Kwong 2004; Wong & Lau 2001), cleanliness/hygiene and safety/security were two important selection criteria. Also, participants like to choose hotels in good locations, such as “close to tourist spots”, “urban surroundings,” although some respondents preferred quiet places. Eight of the 11 FGs like to stay in conveniently located hotels. Further, respondents seriously cared about service quality. For instance, a respondent in Beijing said, “*The service must be good. For example, when you inquire about something, they should reply...They should clean the guest room more often.*”

Finally, the price level and quality grade requirements were the other two problems that many of the respondents brought up. According to Yao (2006), due to the impact of Confucianism in China, Chinese tourists consider frugality a social virtue. Most Chinese tourists are price/value-conscious. Some respondents indicated that 50–100 U.S. Dollars (USD) a night was acceptable, and said they like to stay at three star or better hotels. Participants also mentioned that the hotel grading system in foreign countries differed from that in China. A Nanjing participant stated that, “*We stayed in a four-star hotel in XXX, but in my mind, its facilities were merely better than a two-star hotel in China.*” For some participants, “good value” is a critical requirement. Table 2 reports some of the most common expectations of hotels. The frequencies listed (in terms of the number of individuals and FG sessions that mentioned each issue), although not for statistical purpose, could reflect the relative importance and level of consensus in respondents’ minds (Table 2).

Table 2. Chinese tourists' expectations regarding hotel/accommodations

	Individuals FG sessions	
Facilities/equipment	21	7
Should provide bathroom/hot water for showering	5	4
Should provide (one-use) toiletries	3	3
No hot water for drinking	3	3
Swimming pool unavailable	3	2
Cleanliness/hygiene	16	9
Convenient transportation	12	8
Safety and security	11	5
Good quality of service	9	4
Good location	8	7
Quietness	2	2
Close to entertainment venues/shopping malls/pubs	2	2
Good value for money	4	3
Comfortable	2	2
Quality or grade requirement	8	5
Three stars or higher	5	4
Middle grade	2	1
Medium/low price	10	5
50–100 US\$ per night	6	2

Food and restaurants

Seven FGs expressed willingness to try local or new cuisines, but participants also admitted that they could not do that for too long and too often. Some indicated that the food “*must be acceptable to Chinese,*” which seems rather ambiguous. Meanwhile, eight FGs believed “*Chinese food should be provided*” throughout the trip. Many participants complained about Western food as being too sweet, unhealthy (few vegetables and fruits, high calories), with too many uncooked or cold dishes (including ice water), and too much fried food.

One-third of the FGs suggested more food options be offered. The price issue was brought up again. Shenyang and Wuhan participants expected the food to be reasonably priced and with authentic local flavor. Their budget for food was approximately 10–30 USD per day (Table 3).

Table 3. Chinese tourists' expectations regarding food/restaurants

	Individuals FG sessions	
<i>Don'ts</i>		
Food too sweet	5	3
Too many uncooked or cold dishes	5	4
Unhealthy/not nutritious enough (e.g., too much meat)	4	4
Price too high	4	2
Food not authentic	3	3
Too much fried food	2	1
<i>Dos</i>		
Try local cuisine or new cuisine	14	7
Should provide Chinese food	10	8
Should provide more choices (of dishes)	4	4
More vegetable and fruits	3	3
Translated menu available	2	2
Hygiene	2	2
Acceptable for Chinese	2	2

Tour guides/itineraries

According to Wong and Kwong (2004), "time" was one of the most important criteria when Hong Kong residents choose package tours. Many participants in the present study preferred less- hectic schedules. This also supports the study by Zhu (2005), which found that relaxation was one of the primary motivations of Chinese outbound tourists. Most of the FG comments mirrored the following: "*The schedule was so tight that I could not experience the local life.*" In addition, participants thought the schedules were not always properly arranged. A respondent in Chongqing said, "*I prefer longer stays at fewer locations.*" Another respondent in Nanjing said, "*The problem is that they spent too little time at attractions, but a lot of time at shopping venues.*" Many respondents preferred less (forced) shopping.

Focus group participants also suggested they would like to travel with people sharing similar backgrounds and interests. The Beijing FG even suggested that tourists be grouped based on their age and/or personalities. Finally, the price issue came up the third time. Respondents in Shanghai and Beijing expected discounts.

One of the reasons people participate in group tours when traveling abroad is they would experience fewer cultural and language barriers. Not surprisingly, many FG respondents had high expectations of their tour guides' cultural knowledge and language ability: "[We] *look for Chinese-speaking tour guides; if the locals want to be a tour guide for Chinese tourists, they must learn Chinese.*" (Xi'an)

Furthermore, the respondents emphasized the importance of professionalism: "*I expect the guide to be more passionate. The guide only gave a brief introduction on the motor coach...He seemed to have finished his job after the brief introduction.*" (Shenzhen).

Finally, four FGs suggested that the tour guides should have tourists' interests at heart. For example, "*Go to fun places instead of places where tour guides can make profit.*" (Nanjing); "*Take tourists to somewhere meaningful, not just for the tips.*" (Tianjin) (Table 4).

Table 4. Chinese tourists' expectations regarding tour guides/itineraries

	Individuals FG sessions	
<i>Itinerary</i>		
Tight scheduling	11	8
Unreasonable schedule	9	7
Travel with like-minded people	7	5
Less (forced) shopping	5	4
Some flexibility and free-time options	4	3
Extra charge and tip issue	4	2
Last-minute change of itineraries	3	1
<i>Tour guide</i>		
Good attitude	13	7
Chinese-speaking receptionist/personnel	11	8
Familiar with local culture and history	8	5
Serve the interests of tourists	5	4
Capable of solving problems	4	3

Entertainment/activities

Most respondents showed interest in local culture and customs such as participating in local events, festivals, and shows. A respondent in Beijing commented, “[I would like to experience] local surroundings. For example, younger tourists who visit England can go to a concert to experience the atmosphere; older tourists may want go to an opera.”

As for activities, some FG participants reported interests in shopping. For example, a respondent in Xi’an expected tour operators to have a better understanding of “...*Chinese shopping habits: What kind of things should they buy when traveling abroad? What gifts would they buy for seniors and what would they buy for children? So that they could provide suitable products to satisfy Chinese needs for shopping.*” All participants indicated that they did not want “forced” shopping. In addition, their activities of interest include extreme sports, horse-riding, fruit-picking, gambling, shows, and parties (Table 5).

Table 5. Chinese tourists' expectations regarding entertainment and activities

	Individuals FG sessions	
Experience local culture and hospitality	14	7
Experience nightlife (such as night scene)	10	8
Reduce activities at night	3	2
Experience new things	3	2
<i>Specific activities of interest</i>		
Parties	8	1
Shopping (not forced shopping)	5	4
Pubs/bars	2	2
Shows/art performances	2	2

Transportation

In general, participants were impressed by the transportation system in Western countries (particularly Europe). A respondent in Xi’an stated that, “*The transportation in foreign countries is very convenient, which impressed me the most. You can buy a one-day pass. With that pass, you may take ship, train, subway or bus within that day.*” Several participants mentioned car rental, but were not sure about the policy and feasibility (e.g., there was some concern over driving in a foreign country using a license issued in China and confusion about the need for an “international driving license”; plus, under the current ADS scheme with most Western countries, Chinese leisure

travelers have to travel in groups, which means a “self-drive tour” is still not an option for Chinese tourists in those countries). A respondent in Wuhan preferred to take taxis, while another respondent in Hangzhou complained that it was hard to take a taxi and the price was too high (Table 6).

Table 6. Chinese tourists’ expectations regarding transportation

	Individuals FG sessions	
Would prefer to rent a car	3	3
Price too high	3	2
Few transportation options	3	2
Air-conditioning temperature too low	2	2
For motor coaches		
Hygiene	8	4
Fast	2	1

What service providers should know about Chinese tourists

Close to the end of each FG session, the moderator(s) asked the participants what service providers should understand about Chinese tourists. Most respondents suggested that Western service providers know more about the Chinese lifestyle and particularly the country’s food culture. This is presumably because they were not quite impressed by the accommodations and food (most of the comments focused on these two areas). For example, a respondent in Tianjin went back to the hot-water issue and commented, “*Make sure hot drinking water is available. Some hotels offer coffee machines where we can boil water; but others do not. Not having hot drinking water will make us uncomfortable, especially when we are not used to the local food or climate.*”

Chinese tourists’ consumption habits and their travel motivations are two other things Western marketers must understand. For instance, a respondent in Nanjing said, “*Chinese always haggle, which does not seem to be common in Western countries.*” A respondent in Shanghai thought that “*They lack a real understanding of the younger generation of Chinese tourists...For example, they think Chinese are either poor or poorly mannered.*” Finally, some participants also mentioned that they expect more respect from their Western hosts and service providers, and there should be no racial discrimination against Chinese (Table 7).

Table 7. What service providers should know about Chinese tourists

	Individuals FG sessions	
Chinese lifestyle	8	7
Food culture	8	7
Consumption habits/capacity	4	4
No racial discrimination against Chinese, more respect	3	3
Chinese tourists’ travel motivations	2	2
Understanding the characteristics and psyche of Chinese tourists	2	2

Conclusions

Chinese outbound tourists’ travel behavior is subject to unique external factors such as ADS arrangements and internal factors such as their relative inexperience with overseas travel but high social status. Findings from this study suggest that while as a phenomenon Chinese outbound tourism is still in its infancy, Chinese outbound tourists are quickly growing into a larger and more sophisticated group of consumers. When traveling overseas, they expect quality services, respect, and better cultural understanding of their wants and needs. Satisfying and meeting these expectations will require a combination of insight into culturally specific behaviors and understanding of broader cultural beliefs. Thus, successful Western marketers should be well-

prepared to accommodate the basic needs of the Chinese tourists visiting a destination for the first time, as well as adding social and psychological familiarity and comfort to products and services offered. A better understanding of culturally embedded norms and values as applied to satisfaction and service quality should result in a rewarding experience for visitors and effective branding and marketing for destinations and businesses.

Вопросы для размышления

1. Какие методы сбора и анализа данных использованы авторами настоящего исследования?
2. Данное олимпиадное задание подготовлено на основе оригинальной статьи. Как правило, статьи содержат параграф “Limitations”, однако, при подготовке данного задания он был исключен. Какие “Limitations” вы можете отметить у настоящего исследования?
3. Каким образом результаты данного исследования могут быть использованы с практической точки зрения?
4. Основываясь на целях, методологии и результатах настоящего исследования, приведите свои аргументированные соображения по целесообразности (нецелесообразности) проведения исследования ожиданий/предпочтений:
 - а) российских туристов, выезжающих в зарубежные страны;
 - б) иностранных туристов, посещающих Россию.

