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The Thought Worlds of Marketing and Sales:

Which Differences Make a Difference?

Mannheim 2007

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Abstract

The literature is divided on whether differences between the thought worlds of marketing and sales are deleterious or beneficial. This paper empirically investigates various facets of thought world differences and their effects on various outcomes. It confirms that differences generally hamper the cooperation between marketing and sales which leads to a lower market performance of the business unit. However, some facets of thought world differences enhance the market performance of the business through a direct effect that outweighs the negative effect mediated by the quality of marketing and sales cooperation: Market performance is enhanced if one side plays the customers' advocate while the other plays the products' advocate. Market performance is also enhanced if one side plays the advocate of short-term considerations while the other plays the advocate of long-term considerations. In contrast, differences between marketing and sales in regard to product knowledge and interpersonal skills are deleterious to market performance. Thus, the kind of difference makes a difference.



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1 Introduction

Marketing's interfaces with other business functions have attracted increasing research attention. Most studies have focused on marketing's boundaries with R&D (Gupta, Raj, and Wilemon 1986; Ruekert and Walker 1987a) and manufacturing (Griffin and Hauser 1992; Kahn and Mentzer 1998). Others have investigated its interfaces with quality management (Morgan and Piercy 1998), engineer¬ing (Fisher, Maltz, and Jaworski 1997), HR (Chimhanzi 2004), IT (Glazer 1997), and finance (De Ruyter and Wetzels 2000; Zinkhan and Verbrugge 2000). Finally, there has been integrative work, comparing several interfaces (Maltz and Kohli 1996, 2000; Ruekert and Walker 1987b).

Curiously, only little attention so far has been devoted to the interface between marketing units and sales units. Research by Panigyrakis and Veloutsou (1999), Piercy (1986) as well as by Workman, Homburg, and Gruner (1998) has indicated that marketing and sales are very often separate depart—ments in organizational reality. Pioneering qualitative work on the interface between marketing and sales (M & S henceforward) has pointed out that it is highly conflict-laden in managerial practice: "The marketing-sales relationship, whilst strongly interdependent, is reported as neither collaborative nor harmonious" (Dewsnap and Jobber 2000, p. 109). Montgomery and Webster (1997, p. 16) report from an MSI conference that "intrafunctional conflict within marketing was a more important topic (...) than we had expected. The most frequently discussed issue was the conflict between sales and marketing."

The pioneering articles consistently attribute these frictions between M & S to differing goals (Strahle, Spiro, and Acito 1996) and "windows on the world" (Cespedes 1996, p. 27). Marketing has been characterized as more long-term oriented and sales as more short-term oriented, marketing as oriented toward products and sales as oriented toward customer relationships (Cespedes 1994). The concept of departmental orientations has been introduced to the organizational literature by Lawrence's and Lorsch's (1969) work on differentiation. More recently, departmental orientations have been framed as part of a broader concept in the organizational literature: departmental thought worlds. The thought world concept has found several applications in literature on strategy-making and new product development (Dougherty 1992; Franckwick et al. 1994; Griffin and Hauser 1996; Maltz 1997; Workman 1993). In their research agenda, Deshpandé and Webster (1989, p. 12, emphasis added) call for more research on "the thought worlds of managers (...). Such an inquiry would center on understanding how



differences in the world views of different groups or departments would help or hinder the enactment of marketing decisions. This approach can be applied usefully to several of the subfunctional divisions, including marketing versus sales.

This statement by Deshpandé and Webster (1989) raises the question whether differences between departmental thought worlds are helpful or hindering. As we will show in our hypothesis development, different research traditions have come to partly contradicting conclusions. However, to the best of our knowledge, no academic research so far has empirically distinguished which kinds of thought world differences are helpful and which are hindering.

Interestingly, contradicting perspectives on the nature of thought world differences can also be found in the managerial literature: Some authors call for similar thought worlds of M & S (Donath 1999). Others call for differentiated thought worlds: Cespedes (1996, p. 30) purports that "the solution is not to eliminate differences among these groups" and that "paradoxically, there is virtue in separating and distinguishing functional roles in order to improve the crossfunctional coordination needed" (Cespedes 1995, XXII). Again, Cespedes' paradox has, to the best of our knowledge, never been followed up on by large-scale empirical research.

Against this background, our study focuses on the thought worlds of M & S. Taking up the unsolved puzzle raised by both academic and managerial literature, the key question of our study is: How do differences between the thought worlds of M & S impact their organizational outcomes? We will especially inquire whether various facets of thought world differences (e.g., product vs. customer orientation, short-term vs. long-term orientation) have positive or negative consequences. To wit: Does the kind of difference make a difference?

At this point, we should clarify which understanding of M & S was used in our study. The literature distinguishes an activity-based perspective and a functional group perspective (Workman, Homburg, and Gruner 1998). The activity-based perspective defines marketing based on specific tasks, such as communication, market research, product management, or pricing – regardless of which organizational subunit carries them out. The functional group perspective focuses on the departmental subunits labelled marketing and sales, regardless of their activities. As our paper studies departmental thought worlds, our perspective follows a functional group perspective.



2 Developing the Thought World Perspective on Marketing and Sales

This section translates the thought world concept to the M & S context. We will develop the conceptualization of M & S thought worlds from the top down, starting with categories of thought world dimensions and ending with definitions of specific dimensions. Figure 1 provides an overview of our conceptual framework.

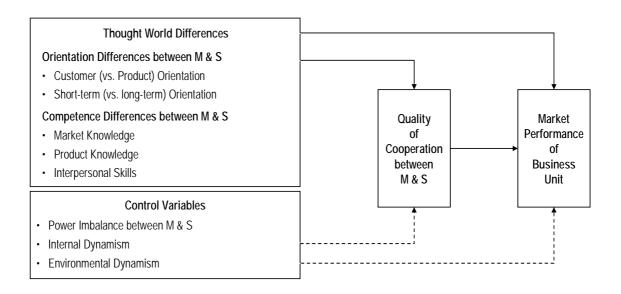


FIGURE 1: Conceptual Model

Dougherty (1992) groups thought world dimensions by two categories: funds of knowledge and systems of meaning. Dougherty explicates systems of meaning in terms of what is seen when looking into the future, what is considered critical, and how the task is understood. In her terminology, then, thought world differences would be different funds of knowledge and different systems of meaning. Interestingly, this parallels the differentiation concept of Lawrence and Lorsch (1969, p. 11) who define differentiation as "the difference in cognitive and emotional orientation among managers in different functional departments", explicitly subsuming (p. 9) "working styles and mental processes", "differences in attitude and behavior, not just the simple fact of segmentation and specialized knowledge." It is important to note that both concepts encompass knowledge and cognitive orientations. Building on these well-known concepts, our framework specifies two types of thought world dimensions: competence dimensions and orientation dimensions. We refer to orientations as the goals, time hori-



zons, and objects at which M & S array their activities. Orientations regulate which information is processed and how conflicting arguments are weighted. We define competence as the level of technical and social capabilities in M & S.

2.1 Orientation Dimensions

Our conceptualization of the orientation dimensions is, on the one hand, grounded in the work of Lawrence and Lorsch (1969). Their conceptualization of differentiation winnows several types of departmental orientations. The two types that have been picked up the most frequently by later research are goal orientation and time orientation (Dougherty 1992; Griffin and Hauser 1996). On the other hand, the orientation dimensions hark back to the managerial reports of differences between M & S referenced in our introduction (e.g., Cespedes 1995; Lorge 1999): Sales has been claimed to be rather short-term oriented and marketing has been conjectured to be comparatively long-term oriented. Differing time orientations are important because they affect judgments on organizational resource investments. As an example, a short-term oriented department may give investments into customer loyalty less priority than a long-term oriented department. Therefore, we define short-term (vs. long-term) orientation of marketing/sales as the extent to which the activities of marketing/sales are guided by immediate action rather than by extensive planning.

Another type of difference has been reported in regard to what M & S seek to optimize: Cespedes (1995) and Lorge (1999) argue that marketing often focuses on products, while sales focuses on customer accounts. One potential clash between a product-oriented and a customer-oriented department occurs when the product-oriented department suggests to eliminate an unprofitable product whereas the customer-oriented department wants to preserve the product because it is the "anchor product" in one important customer relationship. Dougherty (1992, p. 188) uses a similar distinction to compare systems of meaning: Some view their task in building the product while others in developing relationships with buyers. Hence, we define customer (vs. product) orientation of marketing/sales as the extent to which the activities of marketing/sales are guided by customer-related rather than product-related strategies, plans and performance evaluations.

2.2 Competence Dimensions

One hallmark of interdepartmental division of labor is the development of specialized knowledge (McCann and Galbraith 1981). Given constraints on time and other resources, the depth



of knowledge required to cope with a complex task can be accomplished only by forsaking proficiency in other fields of knowledge. Considering knowledge is important in the study of thought worlds as spe¬cial¬ized knowledge hampers the ability of two departments to communicate. In fact, "technology-mar¬ket funds of knowledge" are a key dimension of Dougherty's (1992) thought world concept. While mar¬ket knowledge pertains to the external environment of the organization, technology pertains primar¬ily to the internal environment of the organization. Building on this dichotomy, we define market knowl¬edge of marketing/sales as the extent to which a typical employee in marketing/sales is knowledge¬able about competitors and customers, and product knowledge of marketing/sales as the extent to which a typical employee in marketing/sales is knowledgeable about products and internal processes.

In addition to such "hard" skills as market and product knowledge, the literature has also discussed "soft" skills or social skills. Important social skills are the abilities to deal with conflicts or to gain trust. Several authors have highlighted that the social competence of the interfacing parties facilitates building interfunctional relations (Hutt 1995; Lucas and Bush 1988; Maltz and Kohli 2000). A similar reasoning is proposed in the early work of Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) whose conceptualization of interdepartmental differentiation includes what they call "interpersonal orientation". Thus, we deem it crucial to the thought world concept to include the interpersonal skills of marketing/sales which we define as the extent to which a typical employee in marketing/sales is able to sustain conflicts, to communicate, and to convince.

2.3 Outcome Variables

Our framework distinguishes two levels of outcomes: the level of interdepartmental cooperation and the overall level of the business unit. At the cooperation level, the integration construct coined by Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) is widely used in the interface literature (e.g., Kahn 1996; Leenders and Wierenga 2002). It has originally been defined as "the quality of the state of col¬labo¬ra¬tion that exists among departments that are required to achieve unity of effort by the demands of the environment" (Lawrence and Lorsch 1969, p. 11). However, ever since Lawrence and Lorsch (1969, p. 11), the term integration has been fraught with ambiguity: "While we will be using the term 'integration' primarily to refer to this state of interdepartmental relations, we will also, for convenience, use it to describe both the process by which this state is achieved and the organizational devices used to achieve it." Therefore, we



prefer the term quality of cooperation between M & S which we define as the extent to which there exists a state of collaboration between M & S that is characterized by unity of effort.

It is worth emphasizing that a lot of prior literature on marketing's interfaces has merely looked at the quality of cooperation and has not taken the business level into account (e.g., Maltz and Kohli 1996, 2000; de Ruyter and Wetzels 2000; Kahn, Reizenstein, and Rentz 2004). However, thought world differences may have a different impact on cooperation quality than on the overall performance of the business. Therefore, it is indispensable to analyze cooperation-level and business-level outcomes simultaneously. We define the market performance of the business as the extent to which the organization achieves better market-related outcomes than its competitors with respect to such metrics as customer satisfaction and loyalty, new customer acquisition, market share etc.

2.4 Control Variables

Finally, our framework comprises three context variables that have been shown to affect interfunctional relationships and that we need to control for. First, research has pointed out the enormous variation in the structural and non-structural design of the marketing organization (Homburg, Workman, and Jensen 2000; Workman, Homburg, and Gruner 1998). These design variations manifest themselves in varying degrees of power that marketing and sales units have over marketing activities (Homburg, Workman, and Krohmer 1999; Piercy 1989). By controlling for varying degrees of power, we ensure that our results hold across different organizational configurations. Moreover, power imbalance between two groups has been shown to negatively affect their relationship (Anderson and Weitz 1989; Bucklin and Sengupta 1993) which makes its consideration even more essential. We define power imbalance between M & S as the extent to which power over market-related activities is biased toward either marketing or sales. Second, internal change has been demonstrated to encumber internal working relationships and attitudes (Reilly, Brett, and Stroh 1993; Worrall, Parkes, and Cooper 2004) as well as marketing's interfunctional relationships (Maltz and Kohli 2000; Maltz, Souder, and Kumar 2001). We define internal dynamism as the extent to which organizational structures, processes, leadership, and strategy within the organization change frequently. Third, market turbulence and technological turbulence have been shown to impact the market performance of the firm (Kirca, Jayachandran, and Bearden 2005). We define environmental dynamism as the extent to which competitive activities, customer needs, and technology in the market change frequently.



3 Hypotheses Development

As pointed out in the introduction, it is contentious whether differences between M & S are helpful or hindering. In this chapter, we will first juxtapose two general perspectives on differences between organizational subunits: the "thought world differences are bad" perspective and the "thought world differences are both good and bad" perspective. We will then argue that, while these perspectives permit a clear hypothesis with respect to how thought world differences affect interdepartmental cooperation quality, they do not permit a clear hypothesis with respect to how thought world differences affect overall market performance. Therefore, we will suggest two competing hypotheses concerning the impact of thought world differences on overall market performance.

3.1 The "Thought World Differences are Bad" Perspective

The first perspective on thought world differences is grounded in the social psychology of groups. This research has a strong tradition of viewing thought world differences as detrimental to inter-group cooperation. One simple type of arguments that have been advanced against thought world differences, are variations on the "similarity leads to attraction" theme. As Brown (1996, p. 176) notes, "if there is one 'law' of social relations which is almost universally accepted in social psychology it is that similarity leads to attraction". Conversely, differences are conjectured to lead to inter-group aversion.

A more refined argument is proffered by the social identity and self-categorization perspective (Abrams and Hogg 1999; Tajfel and Turner 1986): Striving to positively distinguish their in-group, people tend to develop negative stereotypes of the out-group (Brown 1996; Hogg and Terry 2000). As Ashford and Mael (1989, p. 33) note, this "desire for favourable intergroup comparisons generates much conflict between differentiated and clearly bounded subunits." The theory holds that even small thought world differences are exacerbated by the desire for positive distinctiveness.



3.2 The "Thought World Differences Are Both Good and Bad" Perspective

The second perspective on thought world differences is grounded in literature on (strategic) team decision making. This perspective separates two levels of outcomes: the cooperation between organizational subunits and the overall performance of the business. Thought world differences are held to hamper the quality of inter-unit cooperation and to fuel inter-unit conflict, but also to foster decision quality and organizational (or team-) performance. Milliken and Martins (1996, p. 403) use the metaphor of a "double-edged sword".

Much literature in the "both good and bad" tradition revolves around the diversity of teams (Simons, Pelled, and Smith 1999; Williams and O'Reilly 1998). Some facets of diversity jeopardize team cohesion: For instance, diversity in regard to race, tenure, and values tends to fuel dysfunctional relationship conflicts (Amason 1996; Jehn 1997; Menon, Bharadwaj, and Howell 1996). In contrast, other facets of diversity represent an opportunity for the quality of team decisions: Informationally and functionally diverse teams are better linked to external networks and have better access to information.

These arguments are related to earlier work on lens models (Mason and Mitroff 1981; Mitroff 1974): Brunswik (1955) suggested that, in an uncertain environment, decision makers cannot observe the "true state" of reality, but have to infer it from a set of available cues. The cues function as a lens between reality and judgment. Depending on how they weight the cues, different people arrive at different judgments. This means that, by confronting and combining diverse views, more precise inferences to real states are possible (Kim and McLeod 1999; Licata, Mowen, and Chakraborty 1995).

3.3 Impact of Thought World Differences on Cooperation Quality: A Clear Hypothesis

It is important to note that the two perspectives make consistent predictions on cooperation quality as an outcome variable: There is consensus in the literature that thought world differences are deleterious to interdepartmental cooperation. Different orientations imply different priorities in the allocation of resources: As an example, compared to a product-oriented department, a customer-oriented department will be more critical of investments into additional product features that are technically fancy, but that the customer is not willing to pay for. On the contrary, a product-oriented department will be more critical of creating additional product variants that please one important account but drive up engineering costs.



Different competences mean that one side has greater market knowledge, product knowledge, or interpersonal skills than the other. As a consequence of this dissimilarity, M & S will develop a stronger in-group identification and more stereotypes about the other group, which ultimately increases conflict (Hogg and Terry 2000). Knowledge differences and different interpersonal skills will also hinder communication between M & S, which negatively affects their ability to reach agreement on debated issues. Therefore, we submit:

H1: Thought world differences between M & S with respect to

- a) customer (vs. product) orientation,
- b) short-term (vs. long-term) orientation,
- c) market knowledge,
- d) product knowledge, and
- e) interpersonal skills

are negatively related to the quality of cooperation between M & S.

3.4 Impact of Thought World Differences on Market Performance: Two Competing Hypotheses

After our review of the two perspectives, the impact of thought world differences on market performance is everything but unequivocal. The "thought world differences are bad" perspective conjectures a negative impact on cooperation quality, which imposes the question why the same negative mechanisms should not also apply to market performance. In contrast, the "thought world differences are both good and bad" perspective suggests that a positive impact of thought world differences on market performance is possible. As Millikan and Martins (1996, p. 403) summarize, "diversity offers both a great opportunity for organizations as well as an enormous challenge." In addition, it is not clear whether all differences are good for market performance, or only some. As the current state of theory is ambiguous and permits two equally plausible lines of reasoning, we will submit two competing sets of hypotheses to empirical exploration.

On the one hand, it can be argued that different orientations and different competences undermine market performance just as they undermine the quality of cooperation between M & S. As far as different orientations are concerned, frequent internal debates on alternative strategic directions can paralyze the organization. Due to the paralysis, the organization may miss



market opportunities. The positive effect of consensus on performance has also received some empirical support (Bourgeois 1980; Dess 1987; Homburg, Krohmer, and Workman 1999).

As far as different competences are concerned, these may create an interpretive barrier (Dougherty 1992). As a consequence, M & S may interpret strategies differently, causing strategies to get badly implemented. Interpretive barriers due to knowledge differences and different interpersonal skills may even preclude an informed discussion and decision-making of the coalitions in the first place (Frankwick et al. 1994). Finally, it has been shown that market performance is positively influenced by market knowledge and market-oriented capabilities throughout the organization (Day 1994; Marinova 2004). These arguments would lead to hypothesizing:

H2-1: Thought world differences between M & S with respect to

- a) customer (vs. product) orientation,
- b) short-term (vs. long-term) orientation,
- c) market knowledge,
- d) product knowledge, and
- e) interpersonal skills

have a negative impact on the market performance of the business unit.

On the other hand, different orientations and different competences can be argued to enhance market performance. In fact, some studies have found that strategic dissent, rather than strategic consensus, enhances performance (Bourgeois 1985; Dooley and Fryxell 1999). If diverse orientations enter the discussion, more arguments will be processed, more alternatives will be pondered, different skills are shared, and the quality of decisions increases (Eisenhardt and Schoonhoven 1990). Studies have repeatedly shown the advantages of such dialectical and devil's advocacy approaches to decision-making (Cosier 1978; Schweiger, Sandberg, and Ragan 1986). The synthesis emerging from task conflict over the diverse standpoints has been proven as superior to the individual perspectives themselves (Jehn and Mannix 2001; Mason and Mitroff 1981; Schweiger and Sandberg 1989) and has been shown to lead to higher profits for the business (Balasubramanian and Bhardwaj 2004). As far as different competences are concerned, they allow the integration of more information. Contrasting diverse ideas and



competences has been shown to stimulate creativity and learning (Fiol 1994; Jehn, Northcraft, and Neale 1999). Hence, an alternative hypothesis is:

H2-2: Thought world differences between M & S with respect to

- a) customer (vs. product) orientation,
- b) short-term (vs. long-term) orientation,
- c) market knowledge,
- d) product knowledge, and
- e) interpersonal skills

have a positive influence on the market performance of the business unit.

3.5 Impact of Cooperation Quality on Market Performance

Our final hypothesis pertains to the relationship between the cooperation-level and the business-level of consequences. Numerous studies have demonstrated that the quality of cooperation between two departments bears on the market-related outcomes jointly achieved by those departments (for instance, the meta-analysis of Kirca, Jayachandran, and Bearden 2005). Two conceptual arguments shed light on this observation: One line of reasoning emphasizes that high-quality cooperation leads to market performance due to better processing and usage of market-related information in the organiza—tion (Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Menon, Jaworski, and Kohli 1997). Another line of reasoning points out that high-quality cooperation means a commitment to implementing decisions (Amason 1996; Homburg, Krohmer, and Workman 1999). Therefore, we hypothesize:

H3: The quality of cooperation between M & S is positively related to the market performance of the business unit.



4 Methodology

4.1 Data Collection Procedure

Given the need for empirical research on the M&S interface, we have conducted a large scale mail survey in seven industry sectors in one European country: financial services, chemical and pharmaceutical industry, machinery industry, utilities, electronics, consumer-packaged goods, and automotive. These sectors were selected based on their macroeconomic importance. By including consumer goods, industrial goods, and services, we also sought for a variety of market settings. We obtained a random sample of strategic business units from a commercial list provider. The sample was stratified by company size in order to have enough variance with respect to this important organizational antecedent. Telephone calls were made in order to verify that the SBU had both a marketing and a sales subunit and to identify informants with an overview of both subunits. The names of 1700 executives were obtained through these procedures.

Respondents were asked to refer to their strategic business unit, or, if their company only had one SBU, to their company. Given our prior identification of SBUs with separate marketing and sales units, respondents were familiar with both terms and were asked to refer to the units labelled marketing and sales.

All respondents were addressed by a personalized letter. As an incentive to participate, we offered a benchmarking report as well as free papers from our University's working paper series. Four weeks after mailing the questionnaires, follow-up phone calls were made. As a further step to ensure the appropriateness of the respondents, two items were included at the end of the questionnaire asking how competent the respondents felt to answer the questions and how strongly the respondents are involved in the cooperation between M & S. Returned questionnaires were discarded if one of these items was rated lower than four on a five-point scale, five indicating high competence. As a result, 337 completed and usable questionnaires were obtained, which is a response rate of 20%. We controlled for a possible non-response bias by comparing construct means for early and late respondents (Armstrong and Overton 1977). Only one of the ten constructs showed significant (p<.10) differences between early and late respondents. Hence, this test speaks against the existence of a major non-response bias. Table 1 describes the composition of our sample. Beyond the information contained in Table 1, it is important to note that 177 of our respondents have professional experience in



both M & S, i.e., know both thought worlds from inside. The average job experience of these people in M & S is 16.6 years, with a median of 14 years.

Given that our independent and dependent measures stem from the same person, we collected additional performance data from independent sources to validate our market performance measure. Using two financial databases and annual reports from the firms' websites, we obtained operating profits and operating revenues. Segment reports were used when available. We did not use the objective performance data if the revenues figures obtained from the financial reports were substantially larger than the self-reported revenues stated in the questionnaire. As publicity requirements are less comprehensive in Europe than in the United States, we could not get the required figures for many family-owned, foundation-owned, and state-owned companies. Overall, these procedures yielded financial performance data for 185 of our 337 datasets. Matching the time horizon of the market performance measure, a 3-year average was computed for the return on sales. We standardized that return on sales by industry.

Industry		Position of Responden	t	Numbe Employ	
Financial Services	26%	Head of Marketing	46%	<400	23%
Consumer Packaged Goods	19%	Head of Sales	36%	400-999	15%
Utilities	12%	General Manager / Director	4%	1000-2999	27%
Chemical/Pharmaceutical	12%	Head of Marketing Communication	4%	>3000	28%
Automotive	11%	Head of Product Management	4%		
Machinery	10%	Other	6%		
Electronics	5%				
Other	5%				

TABLE 1: Sample Composition

4.2 Measurement Procedure

General Measurement Approach. Two types of measures were used in the survey: reflective multi-item measures, and formative multi-item measures. If observed variables (and their variances and covariances) were manifestations of underlying constructs, we used a reflective measurement model (Bagozzi and Baumgartner 1994). In that case, the scales' psychometric properties can be assessed by means of confirmatory factor analysis (Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Fornell and Larcker 1981). We applied reflective measures if not otherwise indicated.



If a construct was a summary index of observed variables, a formative measurement model is more appropriate (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer 2001; Jarvis, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff 2003). In that case, observed variables cover different facets of the construct and cannot be expected to have significant intercorrelations. We used a formative scale to measure market knowledge and product knowledge because, for example, being knowledgeable about customers does not necessarily go along with being knowledgeable about competitors. Thus, the knowledge constructs represent a knowledge index across the partial facets of knowledge. We applied the same formative measurement logic to the power imbalance construct: for example, if sales dominates price-related tasks, that does not inevitably entail that sales dominates market research tasks as well.

Scale Development. As our study is the first to quantitatively explore the thought worlds of marketing and sales, we could not draw on many well-established scales in the literature. Most scales had to be modified from existing scales or newly created. The modification and creation of scales was based on an extensive literature review and semi-structured qualitative interviews with at least one manager from each of the industries sampled. A draft of the questionnaire was pre-tested and refined with 20 additional managers. Through these procedures, we ensured the content validity of our items. Appendix A lists our scale items and the literature that we built on. As our thought world domains are rather broad and unexplored, we used quite heterogeneous items (Little, Lindenberger, and Nesselroade 1999). No questionnaire items of the thought world constructs were eliminated. As indicated in Appendix A, only on one of the control variables (environmental dynamism) the item pool was purified due to extremely low item-to-total correlations.

Scale Assessment. Appendix A provides our scale properties. Appendix B provides summary statistics and correlations. Measure reliability and validity of the reflective measurements were assessed using confirmatory factor analysis, which is considered to be superior to more traditional criteria (such as Cronbach's alpha) because of its less restrictive assumptions (Bagozzi, Yi, and Phillips 1991; Gerbing and Anderson 1988). All independent and dependent latent variables were included in one multi-factorial CFA model. This model showed a satisfactory fit to the data (AGFI=.9, RMSEA=.08, SRMR=.08). Based on the estimates from this model, composite reliability and discriminant validity were scrutinized. Composite reliability represents the shared variance among a set of observed variables measuring an underlying construct (Fornell and Larcker 1981). All of our constructs exceed the threshold value of



.6 that is recommended in the literature (Bagozzi and Yi 1988, p. 82), the lowest reliability being .63. Discriminant validity was assessed based on the criterion suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981) and did not show any violation: The highest extent of shared variance between two latent variables in the phi matrix is .18, which is much lower than the average variance extracted of any construct.

Measurement of Differences. For each orientation and competence variable, a twin scale was used: one for marketing and the other for sales. The items for the differences between orientations and competences were computed by subtracting the item scores of marketing from the item scores of sales and by squaring that difference (Tsui and O'Reilly 1989). Hence, the larger the discrepancy between M & S, the larger the difference score, regardless of who has the higher and who has the lower score. Our approach is consistent with diversity research that uses measurements of dissimilarity built on squared differences (Jehn, Chadwick, and Thatcher 1997; Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly 1992). An alternative approach, polynomial regression, cannot be applied in our case as it assumes measurement without error (Edwards 1994, 2001; Smith and Tisak 1993; Tisak and Smith 1994). One important caveat is that, depending on the correlation between the constituents, the reliability of algebraic difference scores may be poor (Peter, Churchill, and Brown 1993). However, given composite reliabilities of .88, .63 and .69 for our reflective measures, this is not a serious problem in our case.

4.3 Hypotheses Testing Procedure

Our hypotheses propose both direct and indirect effects of thought world differences on market performance. The indirect effects, mediated by the quality of cooperation, are all hypothesized to be negative, whereas the direct effects may be positive. As we seek to simultaneously test the direct and the indirect path hypotheses and to explore whether the direct or the indirect effects are stronger, we are bound to using structural equation modelling. We used the LISREL 8.72 software package. Polynomial regression which has been suggested as an alternative to difference scores (Edwards 1994, 2001) cannot model the direct and indirect paths that are essential to testing our hypotheses.

Given our sample size of 337, it is impossible to include all constructs into one single structural equation model: The ratio between the number of observations and the number of parameters to be estimated (N:t) would be only 1.5:1 for this complex model. However, a ratio of 5:1 is generally viewed as a minimum requirement to achieve stable inference, given



that methods for the estimation and testing of structural equation models are based on asymptotic theory (Bentler and Chou 1987; Baumgartner and Homburg 1996). Complex covariance structure models with small sample sizes are receiving increasing attention in methodological research (Hoogland and Boomsma 1998). Recent simulation studies hypothesize that even higher ratios than 5:1 may be necessary for stable inferences on the total model (Herzog, Boomsma, and Reinecke 2006). Against this background, we analyze five separate models, one for each thought world facet (i.e., product knowledge, interpersonal skills etc.). Each model contains the difference construct, the two outcome variables, and the three control variables. Our N: t ratios are 6:1 for two of the five models and 5:1 for the other three. Given that the highest correlation between two constructs in Appendix B is only .32, separating the models involves a rather limited danger of a missing variable bias.

Measures of overall fit evaluate how well the model reproduces the observed variables' covariance matrix. GFI and AGFI are two descriptive overall fit measures for which a minimum value of 0.9 is usually considered to be acceptable (Bagozzi and Yi 1988; Baumgartner and Homburg 1996). RMSEA is a fit measure based on the concept of noncentrality. Usually values up to .08 are considered to indicate reasonable model fit (Browne and Cudeck 1993). As shown in Table 2, three models miss the RMSEA criterion very closely (.09 after rounding up). However, AGFI and GFI values indicate satisfactory fit for all our five models.

5 Results

5.1 Descriptive Results

Figure 2 shows the overall means for the five thought world dimensions. Mean differences are highly significant (p < .001) for customer (vs. product) orientation, short-term (vs. long-term) orientation and market knowledge. The average thought world profile of marketing and sales is fairly balanced between customers and products as well as between the short run and the long run. However, sales inclines toward a customer orientation and a short-term orientation, while marketing inclines toward a product orientation and a long-term orientation. Sales has a higher market knowledge than marketing. M & S do not differ in regard to product knowledge and interpersonal skills.



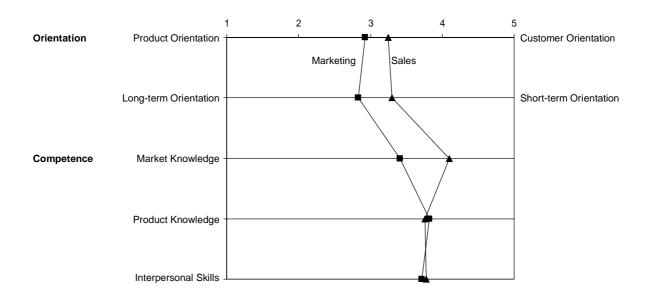


FIGURE 2: Thought World Profiles of Marketing and Sales

These results provide large-scale empirical confirmation to anecdotal descriptions of M & S thought worlds in the literature. As an example, Cespedes (1994) as well as Kotler (1977) state that sales has a shorter time horizon than marketing. With respect to customer (vs. product) orientation, Cespedes (1996, p. 27) claims that "each group has a different window on the world: Product management tends to view developments in terms of assigned products, (...) sales in terms of its specific accounts." Carpenter (1992, p. 29) points out the superior market knowledge of sales: "Salespeople are in constant contact with prospects and customers. They're a fantastic informational conduit."

5.2 Results of the Hypotheses Tests

Table 2 summarizes the results of our five structural equation models. To begin with the least complex hypothesis, Hypothesis 3 is corroborated: All five models consistently show a positive and highly significant impact of the quality of M & S cooperation on the market performance of the business unit. Hypotheses 1a through 1e are also confirmed: Different orientations as well as different competences of M & S adversely affect the quality of cooperation. The effects are highly significant. To summarize, thought world differences are bad for the quality of cooperation between M & S.

We now evaluate which of the competing hypotheses concerning the effect of thought world differences on market performance are empirically supported. The results are intriguing. Dif-



ferences in regard to customer (vs. product) orientation have a positive direct effect on the market performance of the business unit, confirming Hypothesis 2-2a. Hence, it is beneficial to have one side champion a product orientation and the other side champion a customer orientation. In the same way, differences in regard to short-term (vs. long-term) orientation have a positive direct effect on the market performance of the business unit, which supports Hypotheses 2-2b: It is beneficial to have one side play the advocate of short-term considerations and the other side the advocate of long-term considerations.

	Independent Variable			Dependent	Variable	
Domain	Construct	Model	- •	Cooperation n M & S	Market Per of Busine	
			Hyp.	Result	Нур.	Result
		1				.24 ***
		2				.25 ***
Performance	Quality of Cooperation between M & S	3			H ₃ : + ✓	.25. ***
		4				.24 ***
		5				.21 ***
Orientation	Differences between M & S in regard to Customer (vs. Product) Orientation	1	H _{1a} : - ✔	11 ***	H_{2-1a} : - H_{2-2a} : + \checkmark	.14 ***
Orientation	Differences between M & S in regard to Short-term (vs. Long-term) Orientation	2	H _{1b} : - ✔	23 ***	H _{2-1b} : - H _{2-2b} : + ✓	.10 **
	Differences between M & S in regard to Market Knowledge	3	H _{1c} : - ✔	07 **	H _{2-1c} : - H _{2-2c} : +	.00
Competence	Differences between M & S in regard to Product Knowledge	4	H _{1d} : - ✔	08 ***	H _{2-1d} : - ✓ H _{2-2d} : +	09 **
	Differences between M & S in regard to Interpersonal Skills	5	H _{1e} : - ✓	28 ***	H _{2-1e} : - ✓ H _{2-2e} : +	13 ***
			χ^2 / df	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
		1	3.0	.08	.95	.94
Model	Global Fit Statistics	2	3.2	.08	.95	.94
iviouei	Giodai Fit Statistics	3	3.3	.09	.95	.94
		4	3.2	.09	.96	.94
		5	2.7	.08	.95	.94

TABLE 2: Results of Hypotheses Tests

n.s.: t < 1.282; *: t ≥ 1.282, p<0.10; **: t ≥ 1.645, p<0.05; ***: t ≥ 2.326, p<0.01; **✓**: hypothesis confirmed

As different orientations have a negative effect on cooperation quality, but a positive impact on market performance, it is insightful to compare its positive direct effect on market per-



formance to the negative indirect effect that is mediated by cooperation quality. For differences in regard to customer (vs. product) orientation, the direct effect is .14 while the indirect effect is -.03, yielding a positive total effect on market performance of .11. In the case of differences in regard to short-term (vs. long-term) orientation, the direct effect is .10 while the indirect effect is -.06, yielding a positive total effect on market performance of .04. It is one of our key findings that the beneficial effect of different orientations on market performance, both in regard to customer (vs. product) orientation and in regard to short-term (vs. long-term) orientation, outweighs the detrimental effect on cooperation quality.

To continue the tests of the competing hypotheses, we found no significant effect for differences in regard to market knowledge, so that neither hypothesis is supported. However, there are significant effects for differences in regard to product knowledge and in regard to interpersonal skills: Differences in regard to product knowledge have a negative im¬pact on market performance. This confirms Hypothesis 2-1d. Likewise, differences in regard to interpersonal skills have a negative direct impact on the market performance of the business unit, which confirms Hypothesis 2-1e. Thus, another key finding of our study is that the signs for different competences between M & S are opposite to the signs for different orientations: different orientations between M & S are good for market performance, while different competences are bad for market performance.

5.3 Assessing the Effects of the Respondents' Functional Background

As shown in Table 1, our sample cumulates respondents from marketing and respondents from sales. Thus, it is necessary to probe whether the results of our hypotheses tests differ between marketing respondents and sales respondents. Using the two largest groups in the dataset, the "Head of Sales" (n=120) and the "Head of Marketing" (n=155), we conducted two tests to assess whether the effects of thought world differences differ between the marketing respondents and the sales respondents. First, we tested whether the correlations between the difference variables and the dependent variables are significantly different. Toward this end, correlations were transformed into Fisher z values. The correlations are significantly different on a 5% (two-tail) level if the normal curve deviate of the z difference exceeds 1.96 (Cohen et al. 2003, p. 49). As shown in Table 3, none of the 10 correlations differs significantly between marketing and sales respondents: the highest value found was 1.64, the lowest 0. Hence, comparing the key correlations does not indicate a single violation that would speak against cumulating marketing respondents and sales respondents.



As a second test, we analyzed two-group LISREL-models for the marketing respondents and the sales respondents. We compared a constrained case where the effects of thought world differences on the dependent variables are set equal across the marketing and sales groups to an unconstrained case. If the introduction of the equality constraint increases the Chi-Square statistic by more than 3.841, the equality model fits the data significantly (5%) worse. As shown in Table 3, none of the Chi-Square differences even gets close to the critical value of 3.841. To conclude, there is strong evidence that the results of the hypotheses tests do not differ between marketing respondents and sales respondents and that pooling them is justified.

		Correlation Comparison	Multi-Group Model Comparison
Predictor Variable	Dependent Variable	Normal Curve Deviate of z Difference*	χ²- Difference between Constrained and Unconstrained Model**
Differences regard to Customer	Quality of Cooperation	.33	.88
(vs. Product) Orientation	Market Performance	83	2.06
Differences in regard to Short-	Quality of Cooperation	60	1.94
term (vs. Long-term) Orientation	Market Performance	.08	.03
Differences in regard to Market	Quality of Cooperation	1.64	.05
Knowledge	Market Performance	65	1.07
Differences in regard to Product	Quality of Cooperation	.82	.01
Knowledge	Market Performance	08	.09
Differences in regard to Inter-	Quality of Cooperation	95	.00
personal Skills	Market Performance	0	.04

TABLE 3: Comparing Respondents From Marketing to Respondents From Sales

5.4 Assessing the Validity of the Performance Measure

In order to scrutinize whether the results of our hypotheses tests are merely statistical artifacts of a same source bias (Podsakoff et al. 2003), we used the objective performance data obtained from independent sources. We reanalyzed the structural equation models for the five difference constructs substituting the objective performance measure for the perceptual market performance measure.

Table 4 shows the parameter estimates for our validation analyses. The results are largely consistent with those for the market performance measure (Table 2). To begin with, all positive and negative effect signs are the same as in the main analyses: Orientation differences



positively affect overall business performance, while competence differences negatively affect overall business performance. The performance effects of customer (vs. product) orientation, short-term (vs. long-term) orientation, product knowledge, interpersonal skills, and cooperation quality are significant, which is consistent with the main analyses. The effect of market knowledge differences on overall business performance is significant in the validation analysis, while it is not significant in the main analysis. However, we do not see this as a major concern for the validity of our performance measure, because the sign of the market knowledge effect is consistent with the emergent hypotheses on thought world differences (orientation differences are good, competence differences are bad). To conclude, our validation analyses suggest that our subjective performance measure has external validity.

	Independent Variable	_	Dependen	t Variable
Domain	Construct	Model	Quality of Cooperation between M & S	Standardized Financial Performance
		1		.30 ***
	Quality of Cooperation between M	2		.27 ***
Performance	Quality of Cooperation between M & S	3		.18 ***
	a 5	4		.19 ***
		5		.18 ***
Orientation	Differences between M & S in regard to Customer (vs. Product) Orientation	1	47 ***	.23 **
Orientation	Differences between M & S in regard to Short-term (vs. Long-term) Orientation	2	26 ***	.29 **
	Differences between M & S in regard to Market Knowledge	3	07 *	33 ***
Competence	Differences between M & S in regard to Product Knowledge	4	12 ***	07 *
	Differences between M & S in regard to Interpersonal Skills	5	20 ***	14 **

Values shown are completely standardized path coefficients n.s.: t < 1.282; *: $t \ge 1.282$, p<0.10; **: $t \ge 1.645$, p<0.05; ***: $t \ge 2.326$, p<0.01

TABLE 4: Replication of Hypotheses Tests with Objective Performance as Dependent Variable



6 Discussion

6.1 The Kind of Difference Makes a Difference

Harking back to the seeming paradox that we discussed in the introduction of this paper, we are now in a better position to answer whether differences between M & S are beneficial or deleterious. Our empirical results reject the "thought world differences are bad" perspective and support the more differentiated "thought world differences are both good and bad" perspective. The results for our exploratory hypotheses suggest that different orientations between M & S have a positive effect on overall market performance, whereas difference obviously makes a difference.

What does it mean that different orientations are good? One typical situation that illustrates how market performance is enhanced by different time orientations, arises in the context of pricing: Faced with price pressure from customers, sales may be tempted to myopic price cuts (and hence, revenue and profit sacrifices) if marketing did not act as the devil's advocate (Schweiger, Sandberg, and Ragan 1986) arguing for a long-term perspective. Kotler (1977, p. 68) has noted that, in the sales organization, "people are not counterbalanced often enough with 'brand management' personnel, who think in terms of long-run product strategy and its financial implications." A typical situation that exemplifies how different customer (vs. product) orientations foster market performance occurs in the context of new product development: the product-oriented department may be tempted to equip a new product version with too many new features, if it were not counterbalanced by the customer-oriented department that warns against overcharging the customer.

But whence comes it that competence differences are bad? Why do diverse competences decrease market performance? The thought world literature draws attention to one adverse effect of diverse competences: Dougherty (1992, p. 182) points out that "thought worlds with different funds of knowledge cannot easily share ideas". And: "These differences can preclude the development of an optimal design" (p. 196). We conclude that there is a fundamental difference between orientation differences and competence differences: Different orientations do not inhibit mutual ex¬change and synthesis of positions. In contrast, differences between the interpersonal skills and be¬tween the knowledge funds of M & S pose an interpretive barrier



that precludes the exchange, understanding, and synthesis of ideas, and, ultimately, optimal decisions (Frankwick et al. 1994; Workman 1993).

6.2 Academic Contribution

This study extends academic marketing research in several ways. First, it is one of the first to deal with the managerially important interface between M & S. This interface has long been neglected in the literature, but has lately been chosen as one of the topics of the AMA thought leadership forums (Rouziès et al. 2005). In the past, many organizational studies have treated M & S as one functional unit although they are often separate departments in practice. Moreover, many writers have assumed that the unification of M & S is advantageous, if not mandatory for the implementation of the marketing concept. Finally, it has been suggested that, as organizations move toward process forms, functional differences become less relevant (Piercy 1986; Webster 1992; Workman, Homburg, and Gruner 1998). Our study challenges these assumptions by showing which benefits accrue from differences between separate M & S units.

Second, ours is, to the best of our knowledge, the largest empirical database of the M & S interface. The M & S interface has long been empirically under-researched. We collected questionnaires from several industries and from more than 300 firms. In comparison, the pioneer studies of Strahle, Spiro, and Acito (1996) sampled 25 firms while Workman, Homburg, and Gruner (1998) sampled 47 firms. Our large sample allows us to derive statements that can be generalized across industries.

Third, this paper identifies dimensions of M & S thought worlds. Our conceptualization of the thought world dimensions unites the work of Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) on differentiation with new literature on thought world differences (Dougherty 1992). This paves the way for more quantitative work on the thought worlds of M & S and on thought worlds in general. We hold that a quantitative approach to thought worlds is a valuable complement to a qualitative (or interpretive) approach (Dougherty 1992; Frankwick et al. 1994; Workman 1993). Both approaches make specific contributions to knowledge and stimulate each other.

Fourth, our study conceptually and empirically distinguishes between beneficial and deleterious kinds of thought world differences. It challenges the widespread notion that all thought world differences are deleterious. For example, Dewsnap's and Jobber's (2002) conceptual work on the M & S interface had unilaterally focused on the negative consequences of inter-



group differentiation between M & S. Our finding that different orientations can be beneficial, builds a bridge to the new theory of team diversity (Jehn, Northcraft, and Neale 1999; Simons, Pelled, and Smith 1999) and team conflict (Jehn and Mannix 2001; Pelled, Eisenhardt, and Xin 1999) that has pointed out the positive effects of diversity and task conflict.

6.3 Limitations and Avenues for Future Research

We would like to indicate several limitations of our study. First, the response rate is fairly low. Therefore, despite the encouraging tests reported in the paper, we cannot exclude that the respondents to our survey are already concerned with the M & S interface and that our perceptual measures are truncated. Second, the marketing-related questions and the sales-related questions were answered by the same informant. Hence, although the tests reported in this paper do not indicate larger problems, we cannot exclude a potential common method bias and a potential loss of information. Third, almost half of our observations stem from respondents who have, in their career, been immersed only in either a marketing or a sales thought world. Therefore, the thought world assessments provided by these respondents are perceptions of an outsider. Future research should obtain all measures from paired thought world insiders. Fourth, although we collected performance data from independent sources, we do not have that data for all firms in our sample. Fifth, although our conceptualization of M & S thought worlds covers the most frequently mentioned differences between M & S, we cannot claim to cover all dimensions that are relevant. Future research should additionally explore such cognitive orientations as quantitative vs. qualitative orientation, analytical vs. intuitive orientation, ability to deal with structured vs. unstructured problems, such emotional orientations as high vs. low arousal, positive vs. negative outlook, expressive vs. non-expressive attitude. Sixth, future research should investigate whether thought worlds are really shaped by functional membership or rather by educational background. For example, it should be explored whether engineers in marketing, in terms of their thought world, are closer to engineers in sales or to their commercial colleagues in marketing. Seventh, as our study asked the respondents to refer to the units labelled marketing and sales in their organization and as different organizations use the terms marketing and sales differently, the marketing units and the sales units in our study are not homogeneous. While our power imbalance measure controls for different activity profiles of M & S, our data does not permit to discern the reporting relationships of M & S, budgets, and access to top management. Future research should also investigate the relationship between interdepartmental differences and integration mechanisms



(Martinez and Jarillo 1989; McCann and Galbraith 1981; Van den Ven, Delbequec, and Koenig 1976). Finally, there is a need for taxonomical work identifying empirical varieties of M & S configurations.

6.4 Managerial Implications

Our results send four messages to managerial practice. First, this study shows that identical thought worlds in M & S are not desirable. It refutes the often-heard claim to completely level any differences between M & S. Thought world differences are both good and bad. It is the kind of difference that makes a difference.

Second, this study cautions managers not to maximize harmony between M & S. What is good for the quality of cooperation between M & S is not necessarily good for the market performance of the business unit. Our results encourage firms to install an internal role structure that fosters devil's advocacy. Devil's advocacy ensures that more relevant information and more arguments enter into market-related decisions.

Third, this study demonstrates that different goal orientations and different time orientations of M & S are bad for the cooperation quality between M & S, but good for the market performance of the business unit. One side should champion the product dimension of the business while the other side should champion the customer dimension of the business. Likewise, one side should champion the long-term dimension of the business while the other side should champion the short-term dimension of the business. In this sense, our study confirms our introductory citation from Cespedes (1996, p. 30) "not to eliminate differences" and to distinguish the functional roles of M & S.

Fourth, this study suggests that differences between M & S in regard to interpersonal skills and product knowledge are detrimental both cooperation quality and market performance. Thus, in terms of interpersonal skills, Donath's (1999) call to get marketing and sales "one the same wavelength" is supported as well.

To summarize, the mode of symbiosis suggested by this study is that M & S should have similar competences and different orientations. In a nutshell: similar people with different missions. People in the M & S organization should be qualified to work in either a marketing or a sales environment. This can be achieved through training policies in the short-run, job rotation in the mid-run, and hiring policies in the long-run. Tasks should be assigned such that one side, likely marketing, plays the long-term oriented advocate of product profitability,



while the other side, likely sales, plays the short-term oriented advocate of customer relationship profitability. Design of incentive systems helps to achieve the desired orientations.

7 Conclusion

We believe that just as conflict is being rehabilitated in recent organizational research (Pondy 1992), it is time to "un-demonize" interdepartmental differences in research on marketing's interfaces. This is underscored by our finding that market performance grows best in an environment that maintains a certain level of tension between marketing as a long-term, product's voice and sales as a short-term, customer's voice.



APPENDIX A

Scale Items for Construct Measures

Construct	Items	Composite Reliability	Construct
Quality of Cooperation between M&S	To what extent do you agree with the following statements: In our business unit / company, marketing and sales collaborate frictionless act in concert coordinate their market-related activities have few problems in their cooperation achieve their common goals trust each other	.93	 reflective measure based on Ellinger (2000) 5-point scale anchors: 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree
Market Perform- ance of Business Unit	To what extent has your business unit / your company achieved better results than the competition in the following areas over the last 3 years: achieving customer satisfaction and loyalty achieving or maintaining the envisioned market share gaining new customers making profits fast reaction to opportunities and threats in the market	.78	 reflective measure based on Homburg and Pflesser (2000) 5-point scale anchors: 1=much worse, 3=like, 5= much more than competition
Differences be- tween M & S in regard to Customer (vs. Product) Orientation	The sales (marketing) unit of our business unit / company aligns volume and revenue plans primarily by 1=products vs. 5=customers aligns strategy definition primarily by 1=products vs. 5=customers aligns performance evaluations primarily by 1=products vs. 5=customers	.88	 reflective measure based on Cespedes (1995), Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) 5-point semantic differential squared difference between marketing and sales item scores
Differences be- tween M & S in regard to Short- term (vs. Long- term) Orientation	The sales (marketing) unit of our business unit / company is characterized by a 1=systematic/analytical approach vs. 5=pragmatic/intuitive approach has a planning horizon that is rather 1=long-term vs. 5=short-term	.63	 reflective measure based on Cespedes (1995), Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) 5-point semantic differential squared difference between marketing and sales item scores
Differences be- tween M & S in regard to Market Knowledge	Please think of a typical employee in marketing (sales) in your business unit / in your company. How do you assess this employee with respect to the following aspects: • knowledge about customers • knowledge about competitors	formative scale	formative measure 5-point scale anchors: 1=low, 5=high squared difference between marketing and sales item scores
Differences be- tween M & S in regard to Product Knowledge	Please think of a typical employee in marketing (sales) in your business unit / in your company. How do you assess this employee with respect to the following aspects: • knowledge about products • knowledge about internal processes	formative scale	formative measure 5-point scale anchors: 1=low, 5=high squared difference between marketing and sales item scores
Differences be- tween M & S in regard to Interper- sonal Skills	Please think of a typical employee in marketing (sales) in your business unit / in your company. How do you assess this employee with respect to the following aspects: • ability to work in a team • communication skills • negotiation skills • persuasiveness and assertiveness • conflict tolerance • empathy	.69	 reflective measure 5-point scale anchors: 1=low, 5=high squared difference between marketing and sales item scores
Power Imbalance between M&S	Please rate who in your business unit/in your company is primarily responsible for the following tasks: Communication tasks (e.g., definition of communication activities, design of trade fair appearances) Market research tasks (e.g., analysis of market potential, planning and execution of a customer satisfaction analysis) Distribution tasks (e.g., customer relationship management, definition of sales channels) Service tasks (e.g., definition of product-related services and training offers) Strategic tasks (e.g., definition of a market strategy) Product-related tasks (e.g., design and introduction of new products) Price-related tasks (e.g., definition of price positioning, discounts, and price promotions)	formative scale	formative measure based on Homburg, Workman, and Krohmer (1999) 5-point scale anchors: 1=predominantly marketing's responsibility, 3=joint responsibility, 5=predominantly sales' responsibility computed as squared deviation from scale middle (i.e., 3)





Construct	Items	Composite Reliability	Construct
Internal Dynamism	Please indicate how frequently the following aspects change in your business unit / in your company: • work processes • evaluation criteria for employees • organizational structure • superiors • business strategy	.78	 reflective measure 5-point scale anchors: 1=very seldom, 5=very frequently
Environmental Dynamism	Please indicate how frequently the following aspects change in the market served by your business unit / by your company: • products of the competition • customer needs • product technology • (services of the competition, eliminated) • (advertising campaigns of the competition, eliminated)	.66	 reflective measure based on Maltz and Kohli (1996) 5-point scale anchors: 1=very seldom, 5=very frequently



APPENDIX B

Correlations and Summary Statistics

l										l	Correlations	tions					l	l	l	l	l
	Variables	1	2	3	4	2	9	7	8	6	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1	Market Performance of BU	1.00																			
2.	Quality of Cooperation between M&S	.27	1.00																		
ĸ.	Differences between M&S in regard to Customer (vs. Product) Orientation	Ξ.	05	1.00																	
4.	Customer (vs. Product) Orientation of M	.05	80:	32	1.00																
s.	Customer (vs. Product) Orientation of S	.17	.13	.14	.26	1.00															
9	Differences between M&S in regard to Short-term (vs. Long-Term) Ori- entation	.00	21	.25	05	07	1.00														
7.	Short-term (vs. Long-term) Orientation of M	18	-11	90	.05	-00	-:30	1.00													
∞i	Short-term (vs. Long-term) Orienta- tion of S	10	24	.23	07	00.	.25	.13	1.00												
6	Differences between M&S in regard to Interpersonal Skills	14	23	.02	03	06	.18	.10	90.	1.00											
10.		.25	.29	00	.22	.04	02	21	03	31	1.00										
11.		.23	.40	80.	.02	.14	-:11	-111	17	16	.37	1.00									
12.	Differences between M&S in regard to Market Knowledge	.02	05	.13	20	.12		60:		.31		.07									
13.	Market Knowledge of M	.20	.18	06	.23	03	01	20	.00	17	.50	.16	58	1.00							
14.	Market Knowledge of S	.25	.18	80.	.03	.19	60:-	05	10			.44			1.00						
15.	Differences between M&S in regard to Product Knowledge	80	10	04	02	.01	.13	.13	00.	.32		07	.30	23	00:	1.00					
16.	Product Knowledge of M	.27	.23	.15	11	.10		20		28	.41	.24	17			33	1.00				
17.		.14	.12	03	.22	00.		04	27	.00	.17	.21			.40		07	1.00			
18.	Power Imbalance between M&S	04	-111	04	.07	.04	.10	.07	14	.14	04	.02	.12	03	.11	. 17	. 15	1 60.	1.00		
19.	Internal Dynamism	12	06	60.	.03	00.		07	. 07	06		.04	05	. 07	.02		.03		03	1.00	
20.	Environmental Dynamism	.10	.16	.13	09	.00	04	.01	01	07	.07	.19	.02	01		.01		03	05	.22	1.00
Sur	Summary Statistics																				
Em	Empirical Range	1.4-5	1.3-5	0-16	1- 5	1- 5	0-16	1- 5	1- 5	8.8-0	1.2-5	1- 5	0- 16	1-5	2- 5	0-16	1-5 1	1,5-5 (0-4	1-4.8	1- 5
Mean	an	3.46	3.51	2.07	2.93	3.25	2.12	2.83	3.30	1.25	3.72	3.78	2.51	3.41	4.10	2.06	3.82	3.76	2.03	2.69	2.80
Sta	Standard Deviation	99.0	08.	3.00	1.04	1.01	2.60	95	0.93	1.36	.72	99.	2.39	.85	99.	2.41	.82	.70	.80	69:	.78
												١					l	l	l	l	I



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