Product-market positioning and prospector strategy: An analysis of ...

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# Product-market positioning and prospector strategy

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## An analysis of strategic patterns from the resource-based perspective

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Abstract Adopts a firm-level approach and attempts to develop our understanding of the means through which different types of firm compete. Addresses specifically, a lacuna in existing knowledge by investigating a fundamental research question: "How do firms pursuing a prospector mode of market strategy differ from those pursuing a defender, analyzer or reactor strategy in terms of the product-market positioning attributes they exhibit?" Miles and Snow provide the basis for the assessment of strategy types, while "strategic market positioning" is characterised as the product-market positions established by the firm. Conceptualises strategic market positioning as the ways in which firm-specific resources and assets are deployed to build positional advantages in product-markets. Presents analyses of data generated from high technology, medium and large, industrial manufacturing firms and discusses these results in the light of previous findings. Places particular emphasis on the distinguishing characteristics of prospector-type firms. Identifies a number of potential research avenues from this study and discusses several implications for executives.

#### Introduction and background

Many theories have been developed that concern the competitive advantage of firms. By and large, these contributions can be associated with frameworks grounded in three extant paradigms (Teece *et al.*, 1997): the competitive forces paradigm; the strategic conflict paradigm; and the efficiency paradigm, which has given rise to the resource-based view of the firm. First, the competitive forces paradigm (Porter, 1980, 1985) considers the positioning strategies a firm can pursue to earn monopoly rents in an industry or strategic group. Second, the strategic conflict paradigm is founded on game theory and centres on the concepts of competitive deterrence and market imperfections, and emphasises the role of sunk costs and commitment in maintaining a competitive position



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that allows a firm to earn monopoly rents in its product-markets (Shapiro, 1989). Third, the resource-based paradigm emphasises the entrepreneurial rents that a firm earns on extant assets and capabilities that contribute to superior efficiency or differentiation, but which are difficult for rivals to acquire or develop quickly (Penrose, 1959). While the first two paradigms are useful in explaining industry-level forces and competitive interactions between firms that are closely matched in terms of their strategic orientation, their relevance to competitive positioning analysis at the firm-level is limited because they fail to acknowledge the existence of firm-specific assets and capabilities that constrain strategic options and which impart path-dependency to the history of a firm's strategic behaviour and performance. In contrast, the resource-based perspective can facilitate explanations of these firm-level competitive phenomena and has been characterised as the dominant strategy paradigm (Priem, 2001).

Miles and Snow (1978) provide the basis for the assessment of strategy types ("strategic pattern") here, while "strategic market positioning" is characterised as the product-market positions established by the firm (Kald et al., 2000). Consistent with the co-integration of the resource-based view and the strategic positioning construct popularised in the marketing literature (see Fahy and Smithee, 1999), strategic market positioning is conceptualised as the ways in which firm-specific resources and assets are deployed to build positional advantages in product-markets. Recent work has begun to develop these links between the resource-based view and the strategic market positioning construct (Hooley et al., 1998). In this respect, sources of advantage, hereafter referred to as product-market positions, may be regarded as the ways in which firm-specific resources and assets are deployed to build positional advantages in a firm's product-markets. It is product-market positions in this sense, focused on the connectivity between a firm's internal assets and its behaviour and perceived positions in its external environments that form the interests of this research investigation. This interpretation is consistent with these recent attempts to link a firm's positioning strategy to its resources and capabilities, and – in particular – is consistent with the notion that competitive positioning strategies, "give equal weight to market demands and capability profiles when selecting targets and implementing positioning strategies" (Hooley et al., 1998, p. 106).

Day and Wensley (1988) established a research agenda and tradition in which they declared, "businesses seeking advantage are exhorted to develop distinctive competences and manage for lowest delivered cost or differentiation through superior customer value. The promised payoff is market share dominance and profitability above average for the industry. This advice is sound, but usually difficult to follow. Management must first understand the reasons for the current advantages or deficiencies of the business . . . Without a proper diagnosis, managers cannot choose the best moves to defend or enhance

the current position. For many reasons the prevailing approaches to understanding competitive advantages are unlikely to yield valid and insightful diagnoses" (Day and Wensley, 1988, p. 1). In addressing this challenge, several researchers have since empirically examined the relationships between competitive strategy and marketing tactics (McKee et al., 1989; Golden et al., 1995), distinctive marketing competency (Conant et al., 1990; Woodside et al., 1999) and adaptive tactics (McDaniel and Kolari, 1987). However, knowledge remains far from conclusive regarding the association between product-market positions and the mode of competitive strategy employed; more particularly, the issue of which product-market position elements are associated with the "prospecting" or "first mover" mode of competitive strategy is now a question that has attracted the attention of management executives, organizational scientists, industry analysts and prescriptive management theory in general (Robinson et al., 1994; Henderson and Mitchell, 1997; Conger et al., 1998).

This paper reports the findings from an exploratory study of medium and large, high technology, industrial manufacturers. The specific focus of the investigation was to examine empirically the potential differences between firms pursuing the prospector-type of competitive strategy and those pursuing alternative strategy modes ("defender", "analyser" and "reactor" types) with respect to their product-market positions exhibited. This study is presented, first, with a review of extant knowledge regarding modes of competitive strategy, with an emphasis on prospecting strategy behaviour and theories concerned with competitive differences. Second, the nature of product-market positions is discussed and their role in strategy formation is considered. Third, an account of the empirical investigation is given which continues with a description of the analytical approach and research findings. Finally, these results are interpreted and discussed within the context of prior evidence and notable conclusions and implications are drawn from this study.

#### Strategic orientation and strategic pattern

Firm-level strategy is synonymous with strategic orientation that is commonly defined as:

[...] how an organization uses strategy to adapt and/or change aspects of its environment for a more favourable alignment (Manu and Sriram, 1996, p. 79).

Variously referred to as strategic pattern, strategic choice, strategic thrust, strategic predisposition and strategic fit; strategic orientation is conceptualised here as relatively enduring in nature; several studies across multiple industries and environmental contexts have reported that firms' strategies may remain remarkably stable for long periods (Schul *et al.*, 1995). To suggest that a firm which has a stable strategy or enduring strategic orientation does not mean that the detailed ways in which it implements the strategy are invariant; rather, it is the general nature of the firm's approach to the marketplace that is stable.

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This is endorsed by Fox-Wolfgramm *et al.* (1998) and a significant number of others who argue that, "second-order change, a shift from one strategic orientation to another, is atypical even in times of environmental upheaval ... Authors have noted, for example, that organizations typically converge around a prevailing archetype: strategic orientation and inertia tend to bound the organizational change to that which is consistent with the archetype representing first-order change" (Fox-Wolfgramm *et al.*, 1998, p. 87). Furthermore, at the firm-level, strategic orientation is typically consistent because it comprises, "a pattern in a stream of decisions (past or intended) that (a) guides the organization's ongoing alignment with its environment and (b) shapes internal policies and procedures" (Hambrick, 1983, p. 5).

Despite the historical difficulty in circumscribing and delineating the strategic orientation construct, various important contributions have been made to improve our understanding of the strategy domain (e.g. Hofer and Schendel, 1978; Porter, 1980; Wissema *et al.*, 1980; Galbraith and Schendel, 1983; Venkatraman, 1989). Arguably one of the most well-received approaches to conceptualising and operationalising strategic orientation has been provided by Miles and Snow (1978) from their study of four diverse industries (college textbook publishing, food processing, healthcare and electronics).

Miles and Snow (1978) classified firms according to how they responded to three key elements of what they referred to as "an adaptive cycle". They suggested that firms could be associated with a strategic pattern depending on how they tackled their strategic management of product-markets ("the entrepreneurial problem"), systems for producing and distributing products ("the engineering problem") and the development of organisational structure and processes to support the entrepreneurial and engineering decisions ("the administrative problem"). As a result, these authors argued that the, "adaptive cycle is a general physiology of organizational behaviour. By dealing with the organization as a whole, the adaptive cycle provides a means of conceptualizing the major elements of adaptation and of visualizing the relationships among them" (Miles and Snow, 1978, p. 27). Their derived typology considers that all firms can be classed as a "prospector", "defender", analyser" or "reactor". Prospectors tend to adopt a proactive stance to their competitive environment and endeavour to exploit new opportunities along both product and market development growth vectors. In contrast, defender organisations aspire to maintain a stable position through their focus on protecting and securing their product-market activities. Analysers are a hybrid of these first two types and tentatively explore developments in product policy and market opportunities but simultaneously secure key customers, products and skills. Finally, reactor organisations lack any clear strategy and only respond to competitive circumstance when forced to do so in a characteristically inconsistent and unstable manner.

This view of strategic orientation belongs to the classificatory school of business strategy, which attempts to classify firms' strategy according to either

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#### Prospector strategy and strategic differences

The extent of environmental turbulence and complexity experienced by high technology firms is now without precedent, driven by the increased pace of change in information and communications technologies, fundamental advances in commercial research and development, increasing integration within the global economy, and growth in demand for products with significant knowledge-based components (Department of Trade and Industry, 1998). Within such environments it can be suggested that incumbent firms should become more cognisant of the need to be prospector-oriented (Naman and Slevin, 1993). This can be likened to being more entrepreneurial (Dess et al., 1997) and strategically innovative (Markides, 1998) or simply attempting to exploit the benefits of being a first-mover (Kerin et al., 1992), market pioneer (Robinson et al., 1994), newcomer (Mitchell, 1991) or first entrant (Green et al., 1995) in the relevant product-market. Previous empirical studies provide evidence that environmental turbulence (Naman and Slevin, 1993) and environmental complexity (Zahra, 1991) are both positively related to innovative, risk-taking and proactive behaviour by firms. These dimensions are considered properties of the corporate entrepreneurship construct (Barringer and Bluedorn, 1999), but also correspond closely with prospector-orientation. The nature of prospecting strategic behaviour is now becoming more of a competitive requirement (The Economist, 1998) with little sanctuary from aggressive competitive actions in most product-markets (Doyle and Wong, 1998).

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Segev (1987) argues that being a prospector-type company is most compatible with entrepreneurial orientation (see Burgelman, 1983), which much of the commercial business media present as an ideal that should be pursued by all within a company. Furthermore, a substantial literature is devoted to the value, properties and means of creating greater prospecting behaviour. A recent study by Crant (2000, p. 435) observed that: "Many practitioner-oriented publications argue that managers should be more proactive on the job, and that proactive behaviour is an increasingly important component of job performance. Organizational research on the antecedents and consequences of proactive behaviour has appeared in several different literatures and has taken different approaches toward defining, measuring and understanding proactivity" (for a recent review of the diverse set of literatures that directly address proactive behaviour in organisational contexts see Crant (2000)).

The debate surrounding whether firms should pursue ideals of strategic "similarity" or "differences" compared with their competitor referents is well developed within the strategic management literature – for an extensive review of both of these viewpoints see Deephouse (1999). The arguments within this debate transcend extant schools of thought in strategy and organisation research with the fundamental premises being that, "by being different a firm benefits because it faces less competition, *ceteris paribus*... By being the same, a firm benefits because it is recognized as legitimate, *ceteris paribus*" (Deephouse, 1999, p. 147). Consequently, the literature is replete with contradictory prescriptions concerning strategic similarity and differences (Suchman, 1995).

The arguments in support of (prospecting) differences contend that a firm with a "different" strategic orientation benefits, under certain conditions, because of the following reasons:

- The prospector faces less competition for resources (Baum and Singh, 1994).
- Potential failure rates are reduced (Hannan and Freeman, 1977).
- Imitation provides little advantage that is not sustainable and prospector orientation tends to provide a greater level of sustainability (Jennings and Zandbergen, 1995).
- High rents can be generated as the firm faces less competition and develops a possible monopoly of strategic space (Baum and Singh, 1994).
- Distinct strategic positions are characterised by resource profiles that are rare, non-substitutable and inimitable (Barney, 1991).
- Profits from a distinct position tend to persist for a period (Gimeno and Woo, 1996) and prospector orientation provides gains in market share, sales growth and new product sales in comparison with analysers, defenders and reactors (Matsuno and Mentzer, 2000). Also, in

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- Proactiveness and market-seeking are central to prospector orientation (Aragón-Correa, 1998; Luo and Park, 2001) and reflects a firm's inertia for exploiting emerging opportunities, experimenting with change and mobilising first-mover actions (Dess et al., 1997; Lynn et al., 1996) based on their strategic discovery processes (Shane, 2000). Characterised as wandering between and within product-market domains, this trait is an enabler for competitive advantage because of its proactive pursuit of new products and new markets. Grounded in action orientation, proactiveness has been associated with competitive superiority due to the "step-ahead" tactics pursued and market leadership characteristics exhibited by firms with this strategic orientation (Gatignon and Xuereb, 1997).
- Risk aspects of strategic orientation can be described as the possible losses or gains that are derived from an action. Therefore, risk-taking is important in resource allocation situations and can act as a key parameter in determining the decision processes involved in prospector orientation (Dickson and Giglierano, 1986). Risk-oriented firms are purported to combine the entrepreneurial skills of constructive risk taking with opportunistic venture seeking (Bettis and Hall, 1982).

#### Product-market positions and strategic positioning

Segev (1989) draws certain similarities and contrasts between the Miles and Snow (1978) typology described above and Porter's (1985, p. 487) generic strategies of differentiation, cost leadership and focus. However, it should be recognised that he observed fundamentally, "the two typologies are different, each stressing somewhat different aspects of business-level strategy". In addition, he argued theoretically that the prospecting-type firm may exhibit various additional strategic characteristics not reported by Miles and Snow (1978) and these "characteristics" form the empirical interests of this study.

Beyond Segev's (1989) work, many other accounts have been reported that declare multiple conceptual departures between Miles and Snow (1978) and Porter (1985). For instance, it was suggested recently that: "Although the strategic typologies of Miles and Snow (1978), Porter (1980), and Gupta and Govindarajan (1984) are based on many common assumptions, they focus on different characteristics of a business unit strategy: strategic pattern, strategic position and strategic mission" (Kald *et al.*, 2000, p. 203) – these authors expand on this distinction arguing that Gupta and Govindarajan (1984) capture

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strategic mission, Miles and Snow (1978) provide the basis for strategic pattern, and Porter (1985) describes strategic positioning (see Kald *et al.*, 2000, Figure 2, p. 207 for a summary). Consequently, the Miles and Snow (1978) conceptualisation adopted here is an approach for capturing the strategic pattern or "problem and solutions sets" (Miles and Snow, 1978) and is not designed to reflect product-market positions *per se*. Furthermore, the Miles and Snow (1978) approach describes the type of firm and does not discriminate among types in business performance terms – other strategy studies (e.g. those based on Porter (1985) and Gupta and Govindarajan (1984)) make explicit that strategic orientation makes a significant contribution in explaining business performance, while many studies subscribing to the Miles and Snow (1978) conceptualisation have not found that levels of business performance discriminate between the four (or three[1]) modes of strategic pattern unless various mediating/moderating variables are introduced to the analysis (e.g. Smith *et al.*, 1986; McKee *et al.*, 1989; Woodside *et al.*, 1999).

In their work, Miles and Snow (1978) focused primarily on the structures and managerial processes underlying the strategic patterns and "only surmised about the functional (production, marketing, etc.) policies that might accompany each strategy" (Hambrick, 1983, p. 10). While other studies have embellished on certain elements of such functional practices (McDaniel and Kolari, 1987; McKee *et al.*, 1989; Conant *et al.*, 1990), knowledge is distinctly limited as to which specific product-market positions are emphasised by what type of strategic orientation in relation to the Miles and Snow typology. More specifically, given the aspirational qualities of the prospector-type firm described above, further research is needed regarding the distinctive differences between prospectors and other strategic patterns in terms of the resources and positions they use to pursue competitive advantage.

Consistent with the integration of the resource-based view and the strategic market positioning construct, product-market positions are defined here as the ways in which firm-specific resources and assets are deployed to build positional advantages in a firm's product-markets. The subject of the research, therefore, is the boundary-spanning activities that connect a firm's internal resource base and its external competitive positions in product-markets. The ways in which resources and assets are used secures competitive positions, which determine a firm's business performance levels in comparison with its main competitors (Bharadwaj *et al.*, 1993; Hunt and Morgan, 1995; Hooley *et al.*, 1998).

Significant interest has been displayed in the role of resource-based capabilities as a means of creating competitive advantage (Mahoney and Pandian, 1992). It has been argued that:

Resources are considered to be the basic inputs to the production process. Firm-specific resources include items of capital equipment, skills and individual employees, brand names ... On their own however, few resources are productive. Productive activity requires the

cooperation and coordination of teams of resources. A capability is the capacity for a coordinated set of resources to perform some task or activity. Resources are the source of a firm's capabilities; capabilities are the main source of its competitive advantage (Grant, 1991). Thus although there may be conceptual distinctions, it is difficult from a measurement perspective to divorce the concepts of resource availability and the capability to utilize those resources (Chandler and Hanks, 1994, p. 334).

Consequently, we are interested to investigate the boundary-spanning ways in which firm-specific resources and assets are deployed to build positional advantages in a firm's product-markets.

When certain types of, "resource-based capabilities are abundant, firms that exhibit such traits survive more easily, grow more rapidly, are more profitable and have more organizational slack ... Competence and superior processes in one or more of the firm's value-chain functions are thought to enable the firm to generate rents from a resource advantage. Thus we expect a firm with a wide variety of resource-based capabilities to have a *broad range of possible actions* and to be able to exploit numerous resources" (Chandler and Hanks, 1994, p. 334, emphasis added). It is anticipated that firms such as prospectors generally exhibit these resource-based capabilities more than other strategic patterns.

A comprehensive appreciation of product-market positions requires an understanding of the complex, boundary-spanning ways in which a firm's resources are connected with its competitive positions. This presents a particular kind of challenge to strategy and organisation researchers because, on the one hand, managers have been typically regarded as the most useful source of information about the perceived competences and capabilities that are internal to firms, while on the other hand, it can be argued that customer-centric research methods are more appropriate for the assessment of positional advantages (Day and Wensley, 1988). In either case the most appropriate and relevant way in which the researcher can assess the key issues is via mental models that enable competitive situations to be selected, classified, sorted, simplified and interpreted by the individual (Kiesler and Sproull, 1982). This approach, applied to the mental models of managers, has gained a substantive position in strategic management research under the label of the emerging revisionist view which seeks to determine how, "managers make sense of their complex and fluid competitive market arena and then decide where and how they have achieved a competitive advantage" (Day and Nedungadi, 1994, p. 31).

Founded on this approach Roth and Morrison (1992), following Miller (1987), argued that product-market positions could be represented in four dimensions: complex innovation, marketing differentiation, product/market scope and conservative cost control. In contrast, Katsikeas (1994) reports four comparable dimensions: production capability, marketing capability, product superiority and competitive pricing. Chandler and Hanks (1994), on the other hand, propose three dimensions: innovation, quality and cost leadership. In addition, Day and

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Nedungadi (1994) identify seven product-market position themes: low cost processing, superior service, dealer strength, lowest delivered cost, broad market scope, segment focus and innovative features. Alternatively, Wright *et al.* (1995) suggest three product-market position dimensions: high costs and high innovation/differentiation; low costs and low innovation/differentiation; and low costs and high innovation/differentiation. Hooley *et al.* (1998) propose that there are six basic positioning strategies, each differentially rooted in the resource profiles of firms: low price; superior quality; rapid innovation; superior service; differentiated benefits; and tailored offering. Thus, while there may be some overlap regarding the nature of product-market positions, the particular means by which firms can compete appear to differ markedly.

We now report the empirical study conducted which attempted to identify the differences between firms pursuing the prospector-type of business strategy and those associated with the defender, analyser and reactor strategy modes with respect to their product-market positions on the basis that, "we still however know relatively little about how it is that, over time, some firms manage to become successful using their capabilities, while other firms do not" (Helfat, 2000, p. 955).

#### Research method

Sampling considerations

The sampling frame was compiled from the Kompass directory of UK firms and, following a systematic random selection, a list of 1,000 medium and large, high technology, industrial manufacturers was generated for survey purposes. The threshold-level for minimum firm size was 100 employees. This criterion was employed in order to exclude smaller firms that typically lack a comprehensive product-market position portfolio and tend to compete based on niche strategy indicating the unique nature of their decision making (Lyles et al., 1993; Dodge et al., 1994). This control for firm size both accommodates the fact that the large firms dominate the high technology sector (Hughes, 1999) and reduces the effect of spurious results attributed to type of firm (see Murphy et al., 1996). In circumscribing the nature of high technology firms, various formal approaches such as the Organization for Cooperation and Development's criterion of a research and development to sales ratio of more than 4 per cent were considered. However, for the purposes of this study a liberal interpretation of high technology was applied which included those firms characterised by: rapid product innovation; exploitation of frequent new technologies in production processes; a high level of technical and scientific expertise necessary for operations; and research and development being a key driver underlying the future growth of the industry. In practice, the main proxy indicator used by governments and industry to determine high technology sectors exhibiting these characteristics tends to be Standard Industry Classification codes. Consequently, the following sectors were sampled:

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A single key-informant was targeted in each sampling unit, namely the head of marketing. Despite the fact that it has been argued that measurement error can arise from differences between informants within the same sampling unit (Bowman and Ambrosini, 1997; Phillips, 1981), we contend that this method is appropriate for use in this study because of the particular subject matter under investigation. The nature of the empirical approach and the conceptual character of the study justified why a single key-informant, as a senior executive of a firm, should be targeted. Guidelines provided by Huber and Power (1985) for using the key-informant technique were followed in an attempt to minimise the effects of potential systematic and random sources of measurement error.

Survey administration and respondent issues

The survey was administered pursuant with Dillman's (1978) guidelines for the total design method, prenotification letters, questionnaire package and a series of reminder correspondence were respectively dispatched to informants. A total of 181 responses were received, of which 32 were ineligible because: company policy prevented involvement in external studies; firms had moved principal location; respondent organisations fell below the minimum medium size threshold of 100 full-time personnel; or the research instrument was inadequately completed. Although the response rate yielded may *prima facie* appear low, the rate is comparable with other studies adopting a similar research design (Piercy and Morgan, 1994; Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 1996; Harzing, 1997). Furthermore beyond Dillman's (1978) protocols, recommended practice concerning questionnaire salience and length, return postage, anonymity guarantee and university sponsorship were all incorporated in order to bolster the potential response (Jobber and O'Reilly, 1998; Roth and BeVier, 1998).

In a study of the definition of response rates, Wiseman and Billington (1984) observed that most researchers fail to report survey returns correctly in their empirical studies. That is, often factors such as ineligibility and number of non-contacts go unreported. The method of response rate calculation proposed by the Council of American Survey Research Organizations (CASRO) (1982), takes account of these factors and makes an assumption that the percentage of ineligible responses among non-respondents is equivalent to that in the respondent set. This method of response rate calculation has been welcomed as a source of standardization for research reports (Wiseman and Billington, 1984) and has also been extensively used in academic papers (Karimabady and Brunn, 1991). By adopting the CASRO response rate standard for this study, the survey yielded a response rate of 18 per cent.

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Respondent firms ranged across the industrial sectors surveyed. Firm size was similarly distributed with number of employee bands scoring the following proportion of the respondent set: 100-250 employees = 45 per cent; 251-500 employees = 34 per cent; 501-1,000 employees = 8 per cent; and, 1,001 employees or more = 13 per cent. Analyses of individual respondent characteristics revealed that the majority were marketing directors (55 per cent), while the remainder of the respondents were marketing/business development managers (42 per cent), or other executive personnel appointed at the strategic apex of the firm (3 per cent). Doubts regarding the suitability of the informants surveyed are assuaged by the fact that the mean tenure of respondents in their employer firms was 11 years; indicating that informants were familiar with and experienced regarding the strategic priorities and resources and capabilities of their firm.

Non-response bias was tested in a manner that has become the convention in assessing non-response bias in mail surveys of organisational research issues (see Armstrong and Overton, 1977). The data set was divided into two groups: early respondents to the mail survey and late respondents, determined by a mid-point threshold date between the initial mailing and the date of the returned questionnaire. The basic rationale for this is that late respondents are more similar to non-respondents than early respondents. No differences were computed across the product-market position dimensions and the conclusion was drawn that the respondents are not significantly dissimilar to non-respondents.

#### Construct operationalization and measurement

Snow and Hrebiniak's (1980) approach for describing the strategic patterns characterised by the Miles and Snow (1978) typology was used for assessment of firms' strategic orientation. These strategic patterns are:

- Prospector. This firm typically operates within a broad product-market domain that undergoes periodic redefinition. The firm values being "first in" in new product and market areas even if not all of these efforts prove to be highly profitable. The firm responds rapidly to early signals concerning areas of opportunity, and these responses often lead to a new round of competitive actions. However, this type of firm may not maintain market strength in all of the areas it enters.
- Defender. The firm attempts to locate and maintain a secure niche in a relatively stable product area. The firm tends to offer a more limited range of products than its competitors, and tries to protect domain by offering high quality, superior service, lower prices and so forth. Often this type of firm is not at the forefront of developments in the industry—it tends to resist industry changes that have no direct influence on current areas of operations and concentrates instead on doing the best possible job in a limited area.

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 Reactor. This firm does not appear to have a consistent product-market orientation. The firm is usually not as aggressive in maintaining established products and markets as some of its competitors, nor is it willing to take as many risks as other competitors. Rather, the firm responds in those areas where it is forced to by environmental pressures.

Respondents were asked to specify which paragraph most closely described their firm's approach, when compared with competitors, in their main marketplace. Respondents were informed that none of the paragraphs characterised inherently "good" nor "bad" strategic behaviour and indices, rather that the strategy labels indicated in the list above, were assigned to each paragraph for coding purposes. The use of this approach generated 55 prospectors, 24 defenders, 46 analysers and 24 reactors.

This paragraph approach has been commonly used and validated extensively (e.g. Speed, 1993; James and Hatten, 1995; Rajagopalan, 1996) and it was considered more convenient than the lengthy multi-item strategy typology batteries used by Hambrick (1981) and Conant *et al.* (1990) because of the inherent response bias likely to be attributed to more competitively dominant firms and the perceived sacrifice in response rate using such an approach. Further, several studies have found empirical support for the stance adopted here where, for instance, Shortell and Zajac (1990) have validated the Miles and Snow strategy typology and managers' ability to self diagnose their firm's relative strategic orientation, and Conant *et al.* (1990) reported strong convergence between the multi-item assessment and the self-typing paragraph approach.

Product-market positions were operationalised following a review of pertinent variables sourced to previous studies. A battery of items was compiled (Table I) to capture the principal product-market positions likely to be exhibited by a sample of industrial manufacturers. These measures were related to studies by Miller and Friesen (1978), Bourgeois (1980), Dess and Davis (1984), Robinson and Pearce (1988), Parker and Helms (1992), and Roth and Morrison (1992). Some of the items in Table I refer more obviously to a firm's internal resources and competences, while others are more closely related to its external market positions. Respondents were presented with the following question: "It is rather common for firms competing in the same industry to choose different methods through which to compete. Please indicate the degree to which your firm has emphasized each of the following

EJM 37,10	Communality	7.70	0.73	0.55	99.0	0.53	0.52	0.65	0.61	0.49	(bountinos)
422	(CA6) Differentiation focus	0.02	0.10	0.19	0.01	-0.15	0.05	-0.12	-0.03	0.24	
	(CA5) Product scope and development	0.20	0.02	-0.27 0.13	-0.11	0.13	0.39	0.07	0.18	-0.03	
	Factor loading <sup>a</sup> (CA4)  by Price-cost ion leadership	0.05	0.04	0.13	0.05	0.05	-0.25	-0.03	-0.05	0.12	
	Factor (CA3) Quality orientation	90.0	0.27	0.14	0.32	90.0-	60.0	0.79	69.0	0.50	
	(CA2) Marketing capabilities	0.18	0.01	0.01	0.73	0.62	0.52	0.01	0.11	-0.03	
	(CA1) Production process orientation	0.82	0.80	0.63	-0.04	0.31	0.14	0.03	0.28	0.38	
able I. rincipal components halysis of roduct-market position	Product-market position	Major expenditure on production process-oriented R&D	process	wajor enort to ensure avanability of raw material Suilding brand identification	techniques and methods	distribution	peveloping and reining existing products	capabilities capabilities capabilities	highly trained experienced personnel	control procedures	

	(CA1)	(CA2)	Facto (CA3)	Factor loading <sup>a</sup> (CA4)	(CA5)	(CA6)	
Product-market position	Production process orientation	Marketing capabilities	Quality orientation	Price-cost leadership	scope and development	Differentiation focus	Communality
Concerted effort to build reputation within industry	0.12	0.22	0.50	0.19	70.0	0.49	0.60
Products in lower priced market	CO.O —	77.0	0.00	0.10	00:0	1000	10:0
segments Continuing overriding concern for	0.14	0.13	-0.19	89.0	0.15	-0.18	0.59
lowest cost per unit	0.17	0.14	0.18	0.65	-0.12	0.14	0.54
New product development	0.07	0.13	0.04	-0.10	0.80	60.0	89.0
Broad product range	-0.09	0.05	0.12	0.28	0.71	-0.01	0.62
Emphasis on the manufacture of specialty products	0.04	-0.13	-0.08	-0.02	0.18	0.85	62.0
Products in higher priced market							
segments	0.28	0.22	-0.01	-0.21	-0.07	09.0	0.54
Eigenvalues	3.63	2.01	1.78	1.37	1.32	1.13	
Percentage of variance explained	20.20	11.20	06.6	09.7	7.40	6.30	
Note: a Principal components analysis with varimax orthogonal rotation converging in eight iterations	lysis with var	imax orthogona	al rotation conv	erging in eight	iterations		

Product-market positioning

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Table I.

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competitive methods over the past three years." The response scale ranged from "Not at all considered" (1) to "Major emphasis" (7). The three-year retrospective time-horizon was used to take account of year-to-year or seasonal variations common in competitive marketplaces.

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#### Analysis and results

Principal components analysis was performed on these data in order to transform the set of product-market position measures into a composition of unrelated linear combinations of such items. Using the varimax orthogonal rotation procedure, in line with the Kaiser (1958) normalisation criterion, six factors were extracted accounting for 62.6 per cent of the total variance (Table I). The derived factor solution was conceptually interpretable and characterised by a clear factor structure indicating convergent validity within each factor and discriminant validity between factors. The factors were labelled:

- (1) production process orientation (CA1);
- (2) marketing capabilities (CA2);
- (3) quality orientation (CA3);
- (4) price-cost leadership (CA4);
- (5) product scope and development (CA5); and
- (6) differentiation focus (CA6).

Apart from CA1, which is entirely internally oriented, the individual factors each represent a mixture of firms' internal competences and external positioning. This pattern in the results is consistent with our conceptualisation of product-market positions as boundary-spanning activities that connect a firm's internal resource base and its external competitive positions.

Indices were computed for each factor by determining the mean summated score for individual items with a loading greater than 0.50 (Crawford and Lomas, 1980). In order to ensure suitable scale assessment, data checks needed to be conducted prior to comparative statistical analyses. First, the Cronbach alpha coefficient for each factor scale was calculated (Table II) and it was observed that, although CA4-6 exhibited relatively low alpha values, all measures satisfied Nunnally's (1967) threshold of acceptable reliability for exploratory research. Second, scale validation was accomplished by item-to-total scale correlation analysis which revealed that all bivariate relationships were both positive and highly statistically significant (Table II). Consequently, the six product-market position scales were considered appropriate for assessing differences amongst the four strategic patterns of prospector, defender, analyser and reactor.

Table III displays the mean scores for each strategic pattern across the product-market positions. Given our aim of investigating the specific ways in

			Cronbach's	]		tal scal	e	Product-market positioning
Product-market position dimension	Mean	SD	alpha	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	
CA1: production process orientation	3.90	1.52	0.74	0.84	0.85	0.74		
CA2: marketing capabilities	4.40	1.26	0.67	0.79	0.68	0.71	0.65	1.40=
CA3: quality orientation	5.33	1.01	0.67	0.70	0.76	0.70	0.68	1425
CA4: price-cost leadership	3.76	1.20	0.55	0.76	0.72	0.71	_	
CA5: product scope and development	5.28	1.29	0.53	0.84	0.81	_	_	
CA6: differentiation focus	4.71	1.47	0.53	0.86	0.79	-	_	Table II.
Note: a Pearson's r. All coefficients ar	e statisti	cally si	gnificant whe	re <i>p</i> <	0.001			Scale statistics

which prospectors compete in comparison with other strategic patterns in UK high technology sectors, it is notable that, with just one exception, prospectors place more emphasis than every other strategic pattern on every product-market position.

To test for statistical significance of the observed differences in Table III a multivariate analysis of variance revealed that significant overall differences existed across the strategic patterns. Univariate analyses, with *post hoc* comparisons, were then examined to specifically assess inter-group differences. Most notable are the observed differences between prospectors and reactors, prospectors placing significantly greater emphasis on four of the six product-market positions: marketing capabilities (CA2), quality orientation (CA3), product scope and development (CA5) and differentiation focus (CA6). Compared with defenders, prospectors place significantly more emphasis on marketing capabilities (CA2) and product scope and development (CA5). Compared with analysers, prospectors emphasise product scope and development (CA5) and differentiation focus (CA6) to a significantly greater extent.

The results, therefore, identify the conceptual nature of the differences between Miles and Snow's strategic patterns, and also illustrate the specific product-market positions that prospectors in UK high technology sectors emphasise significantly more than other strategic patterns. The next section discusses these results more fully and relates them to previous research findings.

#### Discussion

The pattern of results in Table I supports our conceptualisation of product-market positions as boundary-spanning activities that connect a firm's internal resource base and its external positions. In so doing they also suggest adding a pointer to the direction in which strategic management research might be developed. Although some researchers (e.g. Collis and Montgomery, 1995) explicitly view the resource-based perspective as one that combines the internal analysis of the firm with an external analysis of its

EJM 37,10	s test	P > D; P > R P > R P > D; P > A; P > R P > A; P > R	
1426	Duncan's test $(p < 0.05)$	P > D; P > R P > R P > D; P > A; P > D; P > A; P > A; P > R	
	$\begin{array}{c} \text{Univariate} \\ F\text{-value} \end{array}$	0.95 3.56* 2.47 1.04 6.32* 3.63*	
	Reactor (R)	3.68 4.04 4.84 3.77 5.15 4.13	
	Analyser (A)	4.15 4.33 5.32 3.79 5.06 4.43	
	Strategic pattern Defender Anali (D) (A)	3.56 3.95 3.36 4.60 4.72	
	Prospector (P)	3.93 4.80 5.52 3.90 5.80 5.17	
Table III. Differences in product-market positions among strategic patterns	Product-market position dimension	CA1: production process orientation CA2: marketing capabilities CA3: quality orientation CA4: price-cost leadership CA5: product scope and development CA6: differentiation focus	Multivariate summary Wilks' lambda = 0.70; approximate $F = 2.52**$ Pillai's trace = 0.32; approximate $F = 2.47**$ Hotelling's trace = 0.38; approximate $F = 2.56**$ Roy's largest root = 0.20 Notes: $*p < 0.05; **p < 0.001$

industry and wider competitive environment, there is little consensus on this (Fahy and Smithee, 1999). Many writers maintain the distinction between "outside-in" and "inside-out" approaches to strategy analysis, and debate whether strategy should be environment- or resource-led (de Wit and Meyer, 1998). Our findings support Collis and Montgomery (1995) and more recent attempts (Hooley *et al.*, 1998; Fahy and Smithee, 1999) to develop an integrated view, in which the key aspects of strategy are neither internal capabilities nor external positioning, but are focused on the nature and extent of connectivity between a firm's resources and its external environment. The key strategic issue in the turbulent context of high technology firms is adaptive fit between an organisation and its environment. There is no persuasive theoretical premise to devote privileged attention to either one over the other.

Our results illuminate the specific nature of the competitive differences between strategic patterns in the high technology sector. Most striking, when comparing the full profiles of the strategic patterns, is the observation that the reactor firms emphasise not one product-market position more than prospectors, and place significantly less emphasis on marketing capabilities (CA2), quality orientation (CA3), product scope and development (CA5) and differentiation focus (CA6). The implication is that, in the UK high technology sector, they appear bereft of any advantages that potentially enable a reactor to outperform a prospector. Interpretation of this finding leads us to consider previous research that suggests: "reactors represent a residual strategy – they lack consistency in strategic choice and perform poorly" (Parnell and Wright, 1993, p. 30); "reactors do not present any consistent pattern of response behaviour to environmental conditions" (Matsuno and Mentzer, 2000, p. 4); and "the reactor does not have a consistent response to the entrepreneurial problem" (Slater and Olson, 2000, p. 814). There are various reasons that might account for this:

- management may fail to articulate and implement a viable business strategy with supporting market propositions;
- there may be a lack of synergy between technology, structure, processes and overall business strategy; and
- there may be resistance to organic initiatives because of misplaced adherence to a failing strategic plan (Miles and Snow, 1978).

In previous literature that has discussed reactors, it has been suggested that they might exhibit a late-mover mode of operation that can often eclipse pioneer firms in markets (Shankar *et al.*, 1998), and several accounts exist as testimony to this (e.g. the personal computer and video game markets). It can be argued that late-mover advantages can accrue to the reactor firm in two ways. First, the pioneer might invest heavily in determining the category concept and buyer attraction for the product (Carpenter and Nakamoto, 1989); then, after consumer preferences and behaviours have been established, the

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late-mover reactor can develop a unique product position, undercut on price or out-distribute the pioneer (Shankar *et al.*, 1998). Second, the late-mover might be able to by-pass the pioneer through innovative means (Berndt *et al.*, 1995). However, the research results reported here indicate that high technology reactor firms in the UK are capable of taking neither route to competitive advantage over prospectors.

Turning to a comparison in terms of the individual factors, quality orientation (CA3) requires consideration because our results demonstrate that it is one of the two most important product-market positions, especially for defenders and analysers who rated it as the most important factor; prospectors and analysers as the second most important; and the only significant difference is between prospectors and reactors. The items that compose CA3 (extensive customer service capabilities, personnel training, quality control, reputation building) are of intuitive importance for high technology firms, and are consistent with their need to build an image of trust and reliability in their customer base.

The findings of particular interest in Table III are the product-market positions that distinguish prospectors from other strategic patterns: marketing capabilities (CA2); product scope and development (CA5); and, differentiation focus (CA6). Turning first to product scope and development (CA5), prospectors rated this as the most important product-market position, and emphasized it significantly more than all other strategic patterns. The two items that load highly on this factor (new product development; broad product range) suggest, in the high technology sector, that it involves competences spanning research and development (R&D) and commercial innovation. Such an interpretation allows a close relationship to be drawn between the results of this research and the earlier literature on prospecting strategic patterns; involving problems particularly issues and solutions entrepreneurial-engineering interface. The results are also consistent with previous research that: finds evidence indicating prospectors spend a significant percentage of turnover on research and development (Hambrick, 1983); suggests that, for many prospecting firms, maintaining the image of an innovator in product terms is an even more important than securing high profitability (McDaniel and Kolari, 1987); and, finds that: "prospectors have a strong concern for product and market innovation and attempt to pioneer in those areas" (Manu and Sriram, 1996, p. 80).

The results in Table III reveal significant differences between prospectors and both defenders and reactors for marketing capabilities (CA2). Marketing capabilities are fundamental ingredients of organisational prosperity (Day, 1994) and developing such capabilities is one of the most effective ways a firm can implement a customer-focused strategy (Woodruff, 1997). These capabilities enable a firm to synchronise resource deployment and encourage proactive exploitation of identified market opportunities (Vorhies and

Yarbrough, 1998). The finding that prospectors emphasise marketing capabilities more than reactors is consistent with the proactive versus reactive paradigm in marketing management (Piercy, 1981). Regarding prospectors and defenders, we find that the former pay significantly more attention to branding, product policy, distribution and advances in marketing methods when compared with the latter. For the defender firm, a preoccupation with the internal business environment is common which causes executives to be myopic in their planning and decision making resulting in an emphasis on efficiency rather than frame-breaking effectiveness (Day and Nedungadi, 1994). This narrow focus leads the defender to pay less attention to the marketplace where customers, suppliers, competitors and allied constituencies all exist. In contrast, the prospecting firm is able to experiment with new marketing methods and identify patterns in emerging market trends and customer preferences. Thus, a firm pursuing, "a prospector strategy is the creator of change and uncertainty in the marketplace to which competitors are forced to react" (Stathakopoulos, 1998, p. 539). It might be surprising that no prospector-analyser differences were calculated for CA2, but it needs to be recognised that the analyser-type of competitive strategy is a prospector/defender hybrid. One reason that no difference was found here might be that the analyser, being informed but conservative, displays many of the market orientation characteristics documented within the literature. For instance, two seminal studies conceptualise market orientation with a focus on information processing functions (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Narver and Slater, 1990) indicating the limited differences likely between the analyser mode of strategy (implicitly market-driven) and the prospecting mode of strategy (explicitly market-driven). For instance, analysers are, by their character, intensive market scanners and they exhibit frequent dialogue with customers and commonly assess their competitors' activities (Slater and Narver, 1993). In this regard, Slater and Narver (1993) report market orientation as a significant parameter in their estimation of both prospector and analyser groups from a sample of 140 industrial strategic business units.

The items that compose CA6 are characteristic of premier, quality, bespoke high technology products that serve a narrow market segment. Previous research (e.g. Parker and Helms, 1992) has found that such elements empirically capture the differentiation focus strategy presented by Porter (1980), and it is this connection that explains the label assigned to CA5. Day and Nedungadi (1994, p. 39) suggest that firms with a market-driven focus inherently maintain a "segment focus" on a particular homogenous group(s) within the mass market. Table III reveals that prospecting firms emphasise this product-market position significantly more than analysers and reactors, but that no significant difference was observed between the prospector and defender groups of firm. A possible interpretation of this finding, particularly given the earlier discussion of CA3 which is the product-market position rated

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most highly by defenders, is that industrial-based high technology defender businesses might enjoy unique loyalty benefits and thus are able to exploit the long-term relationships invested with customers. Furthermore, in such markets switching costs tend to be high which may allow the defender to sustain a dominant position, like the prospector firm, within narrow customer segments founded on a differentiation approach in terms of product-market positions.

For both the production process orientation (CA1) and price-cost leadership (CA4) product-market positions, no significant differences (p > 0.05) were found between any pair of strategic patterns from these data. For production process orientation it was anticipated that defenders in particular, with their internal focus, would have outstripped the prospector group. However, it needs to be understood that in order for prospectors to maintain their proactive orientation, the commercial realities of developments in production and engineering are required to ensure continuity, coherence and prudent growth in organisational performance. Similarly, price-cost leadership (CA4) involves performing many activities at a lower cost than competitors while still offering a parity product (Bharadwaj et al., 1993). Such direct advantages can often be temporary (Day and Wensley, 1983; Chandler and Hanks, 1994) and are vulnerable to being undermined by customers' perceived relative quality in both fragmented and consolidated industries. Therefore, this might explain the non-significant finding for this dimension in distinguishing prospectors from other strategic patterns and also noteworthy is the extremely low relative emphasis placed on price-cost leadership positioning by all firms surveyed.

#### Conclusions and implications

Although the prospector mode of strategic behaviour has been studied for more than two decades it remains that this type of firm is: "a complex business to manage" (Slater and Narver, 1993, p. 47). This study found that the key distinguishing features of this pioneer, first-mover and entrepreneurial firm was the way in which it articulated its product-market positions, which are the ways in which firm-specific resources and assets are deployed to build positional advantages in product-markets. The main findings reveal that prospectors place more emphasis than at least one of the alternative strategic patterns (defenders, analysers and reactors) on marketing capabilities, quality orientation, product scope and development and differentiation focus. Prospecting strategy is not only externally focused (Wright et al., 1995), but also balances the signals and demands of the marketplace with internal skills and capabilities. Related to the concept of "strategic fit" between the internal and external environment, this study demonstrates how, in a changing external environment, prospecting firms articulate their sources of competitive advantage in a dynamic sense. Given that the prospector attempts not only to seek but maintain strategic fit, it follows that this firm's heightened awareness of potential external opportunities and flexibility towards internal developments will be enduring in nature.

These features are laudable and many executives in organisations will aspire to adopt a prospecting outlook in management philosophy, decision making and strategic practice, especially those in competitive marketplaces experiencing environmental uncertainty and turbulence. Such executives may learn from findings in several respects. Attempts should be made to engineer the key dimensions of product scope and development, marketing capabilities and differentiation focus to organisational thinking. These are product-market positions that will allow the firm to reassess and develop its portfolio of customer offerings, build on market standing established through excellence and achievement, and ensure a focused approach to positioning within specific target markets. The means through which such changes could be made might include policy revisions, internal marketing efforts and wholesale strategic change programmes. In addition, executives in prospecting firms will need to support and develop these product-market positions by constructing an appropriate platform for building a prospecting culture capable of questioning organisational norms and assumptions, focusing on the implementation of strategies not merely the formulation of creative ideas, and encouraging generative learning and innovation through trial and experimentation.

Future investigations in this field may wish to consider a number of research avenues that have been arisen from this study. Certain questions have already been raised within theories of competitive analysis and conjectural variations (Mueller, 1997) that are associated with the findings here. These theories concern competitive interactions in the marketplace and are relevant because they provide a dynamic element to market evolution. Moreover, Bowen and Wiersema (1999) propose methods to extend the relevance and rigour of strategy and organisation research by suggesting that we move beyond cross-sectional methods that are most often used in applied settings and assume static parameters across firms and over time. Naturally, inferences from this study are limited but more powerful and systematic longitudinal methods might be used in future studies where strategic positioning issues are analysed in combination with the strategic pattern exhibited by firms.

A theme derived from this research is the manner in which prospector firms perceive reactions from competitors (i.e. other prospectors and defenders, analysers and reactors) and the impact this has on subsequent strategic behaviours and the product-market positions that are emphasised. In fact, it has even been suggested that some firms may simply set out to "react" in the most hostile manner:

[...] competitive reactions may hurt a firm regardless of the accuracy with which the reactions are perceived; indeed one of the practical implications of much of the research on competitive reactions is to better understand how competitors can best react to hurt a firm (Clark and Montgomery, 1996, p. 117).

The explication of this notion, within the context of prospecting strategic behaviour, would be both interesting and timely. An additional question could

be proposed, beyond the premise that prospecting strategic behaviour is an ideal that should be pursued by a firm, and both its management and shareholders, whereby analysis is made of a firm's balance between being strategically "different" and being strategically "similar" to its competitor referents. As various researchers have suggested, firms often face conflicting pressures to conform and to differentiate (Chen and Hambrick, 1995) within an industry and these forces are balanced at a point that is called the "competitive cusp" (Porac *et al.*, 1989, p. 414). Deephouse (1999) has recently advanced this notion as the theory of strategic balance and rather than study firms according to conventional strategic pattern, insights may be revealed by addressing strategic positioning and strategic pattern issues within the context not of conformity or distinctiveness, but rather of an eclectic form of strategic practice.

Researchers might also consider the role of contingency effects such as the degree of strategy level, environmental turbulence, product-market characteristics and industry setting which may all confound, to a greater or lesser extent, the findings reported here. Regarding this first consideration of strategy level, future interests may develop to evaluate the interplay within levels of the strategy hierarchy. We have studied business-level strategy exclusively here but issues of corporate parenting and its effects on both strategic pattern and strategic positioning may prove to be influential (see Varadarajan *et al.*, 2001). Similarly, replication studies would help to facilitate a greater understanding and improve overall knowledge of the manner in which prospectors differ, in competitive terms, from defenders, analysers and reactors.

#### Note

1. On the basis that certain studies do not include reactor-type firms.

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#### Further reading

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