

Organizational design in export framed by product strategy and firm characteristics: a descriptive, predictive, and prescriptive analysis*

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to research how core product standardization/adaptation and firm characteristics may frame organizational design in exporting. The aim is to outline organizational design for optimal export performance and note that wrong organizational design may prevent effectiveness and success, despite how good the chosen strategy is. To achieve the above mentioned, empirical research grounded on positivist paradigm, quantitative approach, and survey techniques with descriptive, predictive and prescriptive analysis was employed, following well-known business principle that organizational structure follows strategy. Obtained findings indicate that organizational design may be framed on three parameters: standardization as an export marketing strategy for core products, firm size, and capital ownership. Those variables and their sub-levels are used for indicating prescriptions for organizational configuration, complexity, formalization, centralization, coordination and control, and suitable approach in international management depending on main export destination.

Keywords: organizational design, product standardization/adaptation, firm characteristics, export, Serbia

JEL Codes: L22; F23; M31

1 Introduction

For more than 50 years, standardization/adaptation has been a dilemma in exporting, attracting attention of international business, strategic marketing, and organizational studies researchers, as well as managers of export-oriented firms (Shoham 1996; Theodosiou/Leonidou 2003; Powers/Loyka 2010; Schmid/Kotulla 2011; Tan/Sousa 2013; Samiec/Chirapanda 2019).

Even though previous researchers formed a solid explanation of the stated dilemma, several topics were still less researched. First, the majority of the

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attention is concentrated on multinationals from developed economies even the number of exporters from emerging countries rapidly growing (Lages/Montgomery 2004; Samiee/Chirapanda 2019). More research is required to better understanding of export behaviour of emerging countries firms due to diversity and instability of their business environments, less developed legal and financial institutions, and deficiencies in areas of business information, human capital and infrastructure (Meyer/Peng 2016; Samiee/Chirapanda 2019). Second, the export marketing strategy (EMS) is usually viewed within marketing, neglecting the broader organizational context in which the marketing acts as function, process, organizational unit or business philosophy (Shoham 1996; Chung/Wang/Huang 2012). This makes research of marketing driven organization relevant and important (Olson/Slater/Hult 2018; Hofer/Niehoff-Hoeckner/Totzek 2019). Third, previous research primarily concentrated on price or channel management impact of organizational level, disregarding product as core element of export marketing mix (Sousa/Novello 2014; Grewal/Saini/Kumar/Dwyer/Dahlstrom 2018; Hofer et al. 2019). Fourth, when broader organizational implications were discussed a few issues were considered. Several authors researched interdependence between EMS and culture (Magnusson/Westjohn/Semenov/Randrianasolo/Zdravkovic 2013), role of organizational units in the process of EMS implementation (Solberg 2000), impact of EMS on decision-making (Chung et al. 2012), influence of organizational learning on EMS design (Lages/Mata/Griffith 2013), and the relationship between EMS and international human resource management (Olson et al. 2018). Fifth, when elements of organizational design in exporting were researched, heterogeneity of firms were not considered, attention is on developed economies multinationals, and differences between large firms/small businesses, and foreign-owned/domestic firms are not spotted (Estrin/Meyer/Wright/Foliano 2008; Palmie/Zeschky/Winterhalter/Sauter/Haefner/Gassmann 2016; Zanin/Comuzzi/Costantini 2018). Sixth, prescription is rare in previous research, even though it is crucial for better managerial decision-making (Saad 2001; Sharda/Delen/Turban 2018; Lepenioti/Bousdekis/Apostolou/Mentzas 2020).

Following foregoing gaps, the purpose of this paper is to research how core product EMS and firm characteristics may frame organizational design in exporting in an emerging country context.

This paper tries to contribute to related literature in three fields. First, it focuses on core product EMS in a broader organizational context. Second it employs integrated analytic approach with descriptive, predictive, and prescriptive aspects, considering that prescription offering practice-based guidelines for organizational improvement and its special value for strategic management in emerging countries context where relevance of theories, concepts, and practices from developed countries have to be evaluated (Meyer/Peng 2016; Lepenioti et al. 2020). Finally, organization design for heterogeneous firms is prescribed

respecting "strategy follows structure" principle which stated that the purpose of structure is to organize firm's resources for delivering chosen strategy (Galan/Sanchez-Bueno 2009).

The focus of this paper is only on core product EMS, due to its central role for firm and fact that all the other elements of EMS are based on it (Bloch/Richins 1983; Richter 2012:27). A few often researched firm characteristics, as predictors of core product standardization/adaptation, are researched due to disagreement of their influence in literature (Powers/Loyka 2010; Schmid/Kotulla 2011; Tan/Sousa 2013). Additionally, the question how core product EMS and firm characteristics may frame organizational design is prescribed for its crucial components – configuration, complexity, formalization, centralization, coordination and control (Burton/Obel 2004).

2 Theoretical framework and conceptualization

Marketing strategy describes firm's choices for the product, market, activities, and resources for designing, creating, communicating, and delivering value to consumers, through which firms try to achieve its objectives (Varadarajan 2010). In international business it usually refers to the standardization/adaptation dilemma (Theodosiou/Leonidou 2003; Powers/Loyka 2010; Schmid/Kotulla 2011; Tan/Sousa 2013; Samiee/Chirapanda 2019). Standardization implies the same marketing mix for different countries, while adaptation relates to tailoring elements of EMS for each of the countries where a firm operates (Kotler/Manrai/Lascu/Manrai 2019). Proponents of standardization mark economies of scale, consistency in managing relationships with customers, and cost savings as benefits, whereas proponents of adaptation insist on reaching competitive advantage through the delivery of adapted value to the various markets and consumers. The contingency theory appeals for adequate level of integration of standardization and adaptation, depending on various contingencies (Zeithaml, V.A./RajanVaradarajan/Zeithaml, C.P. 1988; Chung et al. 2012; Gnizy 2019). Additionally, it implies for choosing proper organizational design for EMS that can lead to the desirable business outcomes (Gnizy 2019). Such a design depends mostly on the choice of firm's strategy and its characteristics, because firm's plan of export activities begins by specifying the goals, then defining EMS, and finally developing organization design that will support the chosen strategy (Albaum/Duerr 2011:29; Parboteeah/Cullen 2018:398). Above mentioned was a reason to survey core product EMS and its predictor in term of firm characteristics and then to prescribe framework for organizational design in export activities, following concept of market driven organization and considering importance of organizational design for achieving marketing goals (Day 1999; Lee/Kozlenkova/Palmatier 2015).

Standardized core product EMS is often the option when foreign and home markets are similar, while adaptation is a solution for high psychic distance between the foreign and home markets (Kotler et al. 2019). This conclusion needs to be modified by inclusion of firm characteristics.

One group of authors claimed that large firms often choose standardization while smaller firms often use adaptation in their EMS for product (Cavusgil/Zou 1994; Pla-Barber/Alegre 2007; Pham/Monkhouse/Barnes 2017; Birru/Runhaar/Zaalberg/Lans/Mulder 2019). This difference is the consequence of small business inferiority in terms of available resources and capacities, and their focus on serving niches in export markets. Based on these arguments hypothesis H1 is formed:

Hypothesis 1: Firm size influences the level of standardization/adaptation for product in exporting.

Second groups of authors stated that there is a difference between very experienced and less experienced firms, when they select an EMS for the core product (Cavusgil/Zou 1994; Chung et al. 2012; Pham et al. 2017; Birru et al. 2019). An often cited argument is that experienced exporters prefer adaptation because they use experience gained on foreign markets for better positioning and communication with consumers. Less experienced exporters usually use a strategy that is similar to the one for the domestic market. As a result, hypothesis H2 is formed:

Hypothesis 2: Length of export experiences influences the level of standardization/adaptation for product in exporting.

Some researchers point out that there is a difference in EMS between firms based on the technological level of the production process. High-tech firms often choose standardization compared to medium and low level tech firms who opt for adaptation (Filatotchev/Stephan/Jindra 2008; Azar/Ciabuschi 2017; Gebrekidan/Hoc/Mukhtar 2019). It is explained by some evidence that standardized products of the high-tech firms have global consumers' acceptance, while low-tech firms have to adapt its products to satisfy expectations of the consumers in terms of taste, habits and preferences on different markets. Based on those finding, hypothesis H3 is formed:

Hypothesis 3: Technological level of the production process influences the level of standardization/adaptation for product in exporting.

Research on the influence of the capital ownership on EMS is mainly related to emerging countries, indicating that foreign-owned firms tend to be more internationalized, have greater access to resources and more experience, and achieve better outcomes compared to domestic firms. All of this gives them

possibility to select a different level of EMS for core product opposed to domestically owned firms (Douma/George/Kabir 2006; Filatotchev et al. 2008; Ciszewska-Mlinaric/Trapczynski 2020). Based on previously cited hypothesis H4 is formed:

Hypothesis 4: Capital ownership influences the level of standardization/adaptation for product in exporting.

The outcome of mentioned firm characteristics were controlled by impact of export product type, following agreement between researchers that firms exporting industrial product often choose standardization, while firms that export consumer product prefer adaptation (Samiee/Roth 1992; O' Donnell/Jeong 2000; Chung et al. 2012).

However, firms define their organizational design depending on their resources. It can be treated as a process of designing structure, setting rules, unifying activities of different organizational segments, units and actors, and establishing effective and efficient control and coordination mechanisms in the firm through configuration, complexity, formalization, centralization, and coordination and control (Burton/Obel 2004). Configuration can be seen the basis for the division of organizational activities, complexity defines the breath, depth and dispersion of the configuration by the degree of horizontal, vertical, and spatial differentiation, formalization represents a way to obtain standardized behaviour in an organization, centralization is the degree in which formal authority to make discretionary choices is concentrated on an individual, unit, or level, while coordination and control are mechanisms which allow organization to achieve defined goals and efficiency (Burton/Obel 2004:46,73,78,80,84). Grounded on this, two propositions were made:

Proposition 1: Level of product standardization/adaptation influences organizational design in export business.

Proposition 2: Firm characteristics influence organizational design in export business.

3 Methodology

3.1 Research design and procedure

This paper includes descriptive, predictive, and prescriptive analysis. Descriptive was used to access level of core product standardization/adaptation, predictive for identifying firm characteristics that influence a marketing strategy for product, and prescriptive for suggesting organizational design in exporting depending on chosen strategy and firm characteristics that could predict it.

Conducted empirical research was based on a positivist paradigm due to its deterministic nature, focus on relations between causes and consequences, reductionist approach to business reality, and insistence of precise measurement (Creswell 2014:7). Quantitative research design was implied because numerous past studies gave framework for the test of validity of existing findings in one new case. An e-mail survey was used as a research technique due to the need for quick communication and common use of e-mail in the field of business (Illieva/Baron/Healey 2002).

The questionnaire comprises data on five firm characteristics, firm size, export experience, technological level of production process, capital ownership, and export product type, and level of core product standardization/adaptation in exporting. Research procedure consisted of providing the firms with an invitation letter and four follow-ups (Dillman/Smyth/Christian 2014). Following problem-solving aim of prescriptive analysis in data-driven context, variation of organizational design was not surveyed, but taken from literature (Saad 2001; Klatt/Schlaefke/Moeller 2011; Sharda et al. 2018).

3.2 Research context, sample and measurement

The chosen empirical setting was Serbia due to the three reasons. First, exports of goods and services as % of GDP raised from 8.11 % in 1995 to 51.05 % in 2019 showing a significant growth (The World Bank 2021). Second, as a small, upper-middle income emerging economy, Serbia may act like a laboratory for testing theories from developed countries, counting that there are many other similar economies (Burgess/Steenkamp 2006; Meyer/Peng 2016). Third, its position in European trade is almost unique due preferential trade regimes with nearly all countries in Europe – neighbouring countries, European Union and Eurasian Union.

The multi-industry sample of manufacturing Serbian exporters with annual export earnings larger than one million euro is selected, according to the data of the Serbian Ministry of Economy. There were 609 firms which met this criterion. The questionnaire was addressed to the head of export and marketing or to owners/managers of the firms. A total of 164 usable responses were obtained, achieving nominal response rate of 26.93 %.

Researched variables were measured by replications from previous studies. Firm size was measured by the number of employees and annual sale, so small, medium, and large firms were defined (Pla-Barber/Alegre 2007). Export experience was classified by the number of years of the firm's involvement in exporting (Cavusgil/Zou 1994). By technological level of the production process firms were divided into low, medium-low, medium-high and high-tech industries (Filatotchev et al. 2008; OECD 2011). Capital ownership was measured by the percentage of domestic and foreign capital indicating two group of firms – dom-

inantly domestic and dominantly foreign-owned (Ciszewska-Mlinaric/Trapczynski 2020).

Core product standardization/adaptation was measured on a five-point Likert-type scale with a high level of standardization as a starting point, and a high level of adaptation as a final point. This type of measurement scale was chosen based on its frequent use in similar studies (Lages/Montgomery 2004; Chung et al. 2012).

Export product type was included in research as control variable with intention to control the effect of independent variables on the dependent variable. This variable had two levels, and firms were classified into exporters of industrial product and exporters of consumer product (Samiee/Roth 1992; O' Donnell/Jeong 2000; Chung et al. 2012).

3.3 Data processing and analysis

Data processing and analysis was performed in SPSS and AMOS. Preliminary testing included non-response and common method biases checking, identifying reasons for non-participation and temporal stability of data assessment. It was followed by descriptive statistics to obtain general insight into the data. Then, ordinal regression was employed to estimate predictors of product EMS depending researched firm characteristics. Finally, group differences were tested to answer the question of existence of statistically significant differences between levels of independent variables which pose as predictors of EMS.

4 Research results

4.1 Preliminary testing

The set of the independent sample t-tests showed that there is no statistically significant differences in terms of size $t(162) = .874$, export experience $t(162) = -.048$, technological level of the production process $t(162) = .063$, capital ownership $t(162) = -.745$, and type of export product $t(162) = -1.824$, between early and late respondents on the level of $p < .050$. It led to conclusion that non-response bias is not a concern (Armstrong/Oventon 1977).

Common method bias was minimized by following relevant recommendations from literature regarding research design and tested statistically (MacKenzie/Podsakoff 2012). Harman's single factor test show that 30.37% of the variance is explained by a single factor, while common latent factor model in confirmatory factor analysis produce significant chi-square statistics, $\chi^2(5, n=5) = 19.816$, $p = .001$, with fitting values of CFI = .780, IFI = .760, RFI = .740, RMSEA = .060. Following the appropriate rule of thumb it was concluded that common method bias is not present in the conducted research.

A brief telephone interview with a random sample of 30 survey non-participants was used for identifying reasons for non-participation. Obtained responses fit common reasons for non-participation in business surveys (Dillman et al.2014).Temporal stability of collected data was accessed by checking job titles of respondents (Huber 1985). It indicates that there were only 17.21 % of respondents with unknown job titles, all the other belong to middle or high management. It confirmed data temporal stability, because data was provided by the relevant group of people.

4.2 Descriptive analysis

The respondents' profile and results of the descriptive statistics are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Respondents' profile and descriptive statistics results

Variable name	Variable type	Groups [Code]	Percentage
Firm size [FS]	Independent	Small [1]	15.9
		Medium [2]	53
		Large [3]	31.1
Export experience [EE]	Independent	< 5 years [1]	9.1
		6 – 10 years [2]	40.9
		11 – 25 years [3]	28
		> 25 years [4]	22
Technological level of the production process [TLPP]	Independent	Low technology[1]	48.2
		Medium low technology [2]	31.7
		Medium high technology [3]	16.5
		High technology [4]	3.6
Capital ownership [CO]	Independent	Dominantly domestic [1]	63.4
		Dominantly foreign [2]	36.6
Export product type [EPT]	Control	Product for industrial markets [1]	56.1
		Product for consumer markets [2]	43.9
Product standardization/adaptation [P-S/A]	Dependent	High level of standardization [1]	39.6
		Moderate level of standardization [2]	37.8
		Neutral [3]	15.2
		Moderate level of adaptation [4]	3.7
		High level of adaptation [5]	3.7

They indicate that majority of respondents opted for standardization in EMS for a core product ($M = 1.939$, $SD = 1.013$, $Md = 2.000$).

4.3 Predictive analysis

Ordinal regression was conducted by polytomous logistic universal model procedure, PLUM (O'Connell 2006:26). Its application comprised of two steps. In the first step, its assumptions were checked, then fitting information was

calculated and regression parameters were estimated (McCormick/Salcedo/Peck/Wheeler 2017:77).

The types of variables included in ordinal regression were appropriate. Dependent variable was measured on a five point ordinal scale, and all independent and control variable were appropriate. Dataset of 164 respondents was satisfactory for four regression predictors with alpha $\alpha = .050$, statistical power of .800, and medium effect size $f = .150$ because minimum required number was 85 (Faul/Erdfelder/Buchner/Lang 2009). Multicollinearity was checked by transforming independent variables in dummy variables and then accessing *VIF* and *TOL* values. Obtained *VIF* values, ranged between 1.067 – 2.264 and *TOL* values, ranged between 433-.937, indicated absence of multicollinearity (Allison 2012:60–63). General model did not give a significantly better fit to the data than the ordinal proportional odds model, based on result $\chi^2 = 50.418$, $p > .050$ which satisfied parallel lines assumption (Long 1997:297).

Calculated model fitting information and parameter estimations were presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Ordinal regression results

		Model Fitting Information					
Model		-2 Log Likelihood	χ^2	df	p		
Intercept Only		341.617	-	-	-		
Final		297.757	43.860	13	.000		
		Goodness-of-Fit			Pseudo R2		
		χ^2	df	p			
Pearson		389.154	415	.814	Cox and Snell	.261	
					Nagelkerke	.282	
Deviance		252.777	415	1.000	McFadden	.214	
<i>Link function: Logit.</i>							
		Regression parameters estimation					
		Estimate	Wald	df	p	95 % CI	
		(SE)				Lower	Upper
Threshold	[P-S/A = 1]	3.934 (1.206)	10.649	1	.001	1.571	6.297
	[P-S/A = 2]	6.011 (1.263)	22.663	1	.000	3.536	8.486
	[P-S/A = 3]	7.438 (1.304)	32.543	1	.000	4.882	9.993
	[P-S/A = 4]	8.174 (1.339)	37.264	1	.000	5.550	10.798

Location	[FS=1.00]	2.193 (1.045)	4.403	1	.032	.145	4.242
	[FS=2.00]	2.096 (1.043)	4.038	1	.051	.052	4.141
	[FS=3.00]	0 ^a	.	0	.	.	.
	[EE=1.00]	-.660 (.742)	.792	1	.374	-2.113	.794
	[EE=2.00]	-.348 (.454)	.585	1	.444	-1.238	.543
	[EE=3.00]	-.281 (.466)	.364	1	.546	-1.194	.632
	[EE=4.00]	0 ^a	.	0	.	.	.
	[TLPP=1.00]	.390 (.551)	.502	1	.479	-.689	1.470
	[TLPP=2.00]	.340 (.413)	.514	1	.410	-.469	1.148
	[TLPP=3.00]	.318 (.389)	.678	1	.393	-.420	.980
	[TLPP=4.00]	0 ^a	.	0	.	.	.
	[CO=1.00]	1.585 (.358)	19.548	1	.000	.882	2.288
	[CO=2.00]	0 ^a	.	0	.	.	.
	[EPT=1.00]	.997 (.363)	7.555	1	.006	.286	1.708
	[EPT=2.00]	0 ^a	.	0	.	.	.

Link function: Logit.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Based on statistically significant chi-square statistic $\chi^2(13) = 43.860$, $p < .050$ it was concluded that the final model gives a significant improvement over the baseline intercept only model. In addition, goodness-of-fit information was sufficiently large both for the Pearson's chi-square statistic for the model $\chi^2(415) = 389.154$, $p = .814$, as well as for chi-square statistic based on the deviance

$\chi^2(415) = 252.777, p = 1.000$. Obtained pseudo R^2 in interval.214 –.282 was satisfactory considering that pseudo R^2 in interval.200 –.400 represent a good fit (Louviere/Hensher/Swait 2000:55).

Regression parameters estimation show that firm size [FS] (estimation 2.193, 95 % CI .145 – 4.245, Wald $\chi^2 = 4.403, p = .032$) and capital ownership [CO] (estimation of 1.585, 95 % CI .882 – 2.288, Wald $\chi^2 = 19.548, p = .000$) statistically significantly predict core product EMS. Those results were in accordance with export product type [EPT] as control variable (estimation.997, 95 % CI .286 – 1.708, Wald $\chi^2 = 7.555, p = .006$).

5 Prescriptive analyses

Previous findings rejected hypotheses H_2 about influence of length of export experiences and H_3 about impact of technological level on the production process on EMS. It implies two things. First, it questions well-known proposition of learning-by-exporting, which reveals that as a result of exporting, firms acquire new knowledge, which enhances their expertise and performance (Silva/Afonso/Africano 2012; Lages et al. 2013). In the researched case, there is no impact of export experience on EMS for core product, which confirmed the finding from the previous research that learning-by-exporting is not simply the result of a presence in the export market. It requires commitment to exporting, advanced managerial skills, ability to absorb and process knowledge, and high levels of appropriability and technological opportunity of the firm (Albornoz/Ercolani 2007; Silva/Afonso/Africano 2012; Wang/Xu/Dai 2021). Moreover, there is no influence of technological level on the production process on core product EMS, even though literature suggests that technology-intensive firms benefit from their technological resources, thus they paid more attention on their strategic issues in exporting (Arsyad/Hwang 2014).

Hypotheses H_1 and H_4 , regarding firm size and capital ownership as predictor of core product EMS, are confirmed. However, ordinal regression results did not answer the question of statistically significant differences in core product EMS between firms depending on their size and capital ownership. To answer the question, several cross-tabulation were formed and Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U tests were employed. Those tests were chosen keeping in the mind data nature and number of compared groups (Black 2020:623,647). Results of conducted tests were presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Differences between levels of variables which pose as statistically significant predictors of product standardization/adaptation

		[FS] * [P-S/A] Cross tabulation					
		[P-S/A=1]	[P-S/A=2]	[P-S/A=3]	[P-S/A=4]	[P-S/A=5]	Total
[FS=1]	count	11	8	5	1	1	26
	% within [FS]	42.3 %	30.8 %	19.2 %	3.8 %	3.8 %	100 %
	% within [P-S/A]	16.9 %	12.9 %	20 %	16.7 %	16.7 %	15.9 %
	% of total	6.7 %	4.9 %	3 %	.6 %	.6 %	15.9 %
[FS=2]	count	30	39	13	1	4	87
	% within [FS]	34.5 %	44.8 %	14.9 %	1.1 %	4.6 %	100 %
	% within [P-S/A]	46.2 %	62.9 %	52 %	16.7 %	66.7 %	53 %
	% of total	18.3 %	23.8 %	7.9 %	.6 %	2.4 %	53 %
[FS=3]	count	24	15	7	4	1	51
	% within [FS]	47.1 %	29.4 %	13.7 %	7.8 %	2 %	100 %
	% within [P-S/A]	36.9 %	24.2 %	28 %	66.7 %	16.7 %	31.1 %
	% of total	14.6 %	9.1 %	4.3 %	2.4 %	.6 %	31.1 %
Total	count	65	62	25	6	6	164
	% within [FS]	39.6 %	37.8 %	15.2 %	3.7 %	3.7 %	100 %
	% within [P-S/A]	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %
	% of total	39.6 %	37.8 %	15.2 %	3.7 %	3.7 %	100 %
Differences statistics [FS]							
Mean Rank: [FS=1] = 82.87; [FS=2] = 84.77; [FS=3] = 74.49							
K-W Test Statistics: $\chi^2(2,164) = .640, p = .726$							
		[CO] * [P-S/A] Cross tabulation					
		[P-S/A=1]	[P-S/A=2]	[P-S/A=3]	[P-S/A=4]	[P-S/A=5]	Total
[CO]=1	count	29	40	24	6	5	104
	% within [CO]	27.9 %	38.5 %	23.1 %	5.8 %	4.8 %	100 %
	% within [P-S/A]	44.6 %	64.5 %	96 %	100 %	83.3 %	63.4 %
	% of total	17.7 %	24.4 %	14.6 %	3.7 %	3 %	63.4 %
[CO]=2	count	36	22	1	0	1	60
	% within [CO]	60 %	36.7 %	1.7 %	0 %	1.7 %	100 %
	% within [P-S/A]	55.4 %	35.5 %	4 %	0 %	16.7 %	36.6 %
	% of total	22 %	13.4 %	0.6 %	0 %	0.6 %	36.6 %
Total	count	65	62	25	6	6	164
	% within [CO]	39.6 %	37.8 %	15.2 %	3.7 %	3.7 %	100 %
	% within [P-S/A]	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %
	% of total	39.6 %	37.8 %	15.2 %	3.7 %	3.7 %	100 %

Differences statistics [CO]							
Mean Rank: [CO=1] = 95.36; [CO=2] = 60.21							
M-W U Test Statistics: $U = 1,782.50$, $z = -4.867$, $p = .000$							
[EPT] * [P-S/A] Cross tabulation							
		[P-S/A=1]	[P-S/A=2]	[P-S/A=3]	[P-S/A=4]	[P-S/A=5]	Total
[EPT]=1	count	47	32	4	4	5	92
	% within [EPT]	51.1 %	34.8 %	4.3 %	4.3 %	5.4 %	100 %
	% within [P-S/A]	72.3 %	51.5 %	16 %	66.7 %	83.3 %	56.1 %
	% of total	28.7 %	19.5 %	2.4 %	2.4 %	3 %	56.1 %
[EPT]=2	count	18	30	21	2	1	72
	% within [EPT]	25 %	41.7 %	29.2 %	2.8 %	1.4 %	100 %
	% within [P-S/A]	27.7 %	48.4 %	84 %	33.3 %	16.7 %	43.9 %
	% of total	11 %	18.3 %	12.8 %	1.2 %	.6 %	43.9 %
Total	count	65	62	25	6	6	164
	% within [EPT]	39.6 %	37.8 %	15.2 %	3.7 %	3.7 %	100 %
	% within [P-S/A]	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %
	% of total	39.6 %	37.8 %	15.2 %	3.7 %	3.7 %	100 %
Differences statistics [EPT]							
Mean Rank: [EPT = 1] = 72.05; [EPT = 2] = 95.85							
M-W U Test Statistics: $U = 2350.500$, $z = -3.396$, $p = .001$							

Result of Kruskal-Wallis test indicated that there were no statistically significant differences in core product EMS depending on firm size. It means that all firms use the standardization strategy, although the large firms use higher degree of it than small and medium ones. Depending on capital ownership, Mann-Whitney U test indicated statistically significant difference between firms with dominantly domestic and dominantly foreign-ownership. Although both groups of firms use standardization, firms with dominantly foreign-owned capital use higher level of such a strategy dominantly domestically-owned firms. The control variable export product type produced statistically significant results. Results of Mann-Whitney U test showed that exporters of industrial product opt for standardization, while exporters of consumer product use adaptation.

Previously employed tests spotted two dichotomies for organizational design prescription – small business, i.e., small and medium firms/large firms, and dominantly domestically-owned/dominantly foreign-owned firms. In addition, as results of descriptive analysis indicated, standardization as core product strategy represents third parameter for organizational design prescription. Such a finding is revealed in previous studies. They explained that emerging market firms usually use standardization as result of absence of extensive international experience and host market information, just extending plans and strategies that have proven domestically (Samiee/Chirapanda 2019).

In Figure 1 we outlined organizational design in exporting keeping in mind the following. First, descriptive analysis indicated standardization, as less complex strategy than adaptation, is predominant strategy for product. It implied need for exporters to suit organizational design considering similarities between different markets and consumers, thus ensuring organizational efficiency (Olson/Slater/Hult 2005). Second, predictive analysis suggested that that two pairs of parameters, large firms/small businesses and domestic/foreign capital ownership, may predict chosen strategy. Due to the positive relation of firm size with the organizational configuration, complexity, formalization and decentralization it was concluded that the larger the size of the firm, the higher the level of development of stated organizational elements is required (Burton/Obel 2004:175). Likewise, foreign-ownership in the emerging countries increases a possibility of employing more resources, capabilities, and expertise that can help pursue more sophisticated strategies and more suitable organizational design, enabling greater success in export business (Douma et al. 2006; Filatotchev et al. 2008; Ciszewska-Mlinaric/Trapczynski 2020).

Figure 1: Organizational design in exporting depending firm size and capital ownership

	Configuration	Complexity	Formalization	Centralization	Coordination and control
Small business domestic ownership	Simple or functional	Low	Low	Moderate to high	Personal and informal
Small business foreign ownership	Simple (may be part of international functional, divisional or matrix structure)	Low	Low to high	Moderate to high	Depending on level of headquarter-subsidary integration
Large firms domestic ownership	Extended domestic (unit, department, sector, division or representative office)	High	Moderate to high	Moderate to low	Sophisticated
Large firms foreign ownership	Functional, divisional or matrix	High	Moderate to high	Moderate to low	Depending on level of headquarter-subsidary integration

Elements of the organizational design

Combination of firm size and capital ownership

According to Figure 1 simple or functional structure, with low complexity and formalization, moderate to high centralization and more personal and informal control and coordination is appropriate for small business with dominant domestic ownership. Their owners or CEOs are in charge for almost all strategy related decision-making, there are small/relatively small number of

employees, tasks, and activities that have to be coordinated and controlled, and such firms usually export only one or a few interrelated export products (Day 1999; Burton/Obel 2004:163–179; McShane/Von Glinow 2018:371; Zanin/Comuzzi/Costantini 2018:70). However, small businesses with dominant foreign ownership may have similar complexity and centralization, but their simple structure could be a part of international functional, divisional or matrix structure, but their control and coordination will depend on headquarter – subsidiary integration (Martinez/Jarillo 1989; Estrin et al. 2008; Czinkota/Ronkainen 2013:309–319; Steers/Nardon 2015:178–182).

Structure of large, domestically-owned firms may arise as an extension of the organizational structure for the domestic market in a form of a separate unit, department, sector, division or office abroad (Czinkota/Ronkainen 2013:309–319; Steers/Nardon 2015:178–182). They may suit a high complexity and moderate to high level of formalization, moderate to low level of centralization, and sophisticated control and coordination because growth in size generates more control and coordination needs due to the rise of complexity within operational processes and interdependence with external competitive forces (Martinez/Jarillo 1989; Burton/Obel 2004:178–179; Zanin et al. 2018:70). Functional, divisional or matrix configuration could be appropriate for large foreign-owned firms. The functional could be suitable for exporters of narrow range of products on one or a few markets, with economies of scale and low costs as a backbone of their production philosophy, the divisional to exporters with substantial number of products exported to several markets, while the matrix is appropriate for exporters of large number of products worldwide (Burton/Obel 2004:163–172; Czinkota/Ronkainen 2013:309–319; Steers/Nardon 2015:178–182; McShane/Von Glinow 2018:371–380). Their complexity, formalization and centralization could be similar to the large, domestically-owned firms; however their coordination and control, as in the case of foreign-owned small business, will depend on relation with headquarter (Martinez/Jarillo 1989; Estrin et al. 2008; Czinkota/Ronkainen 2013:309–319; Steers/Nardon 2015:178–182). They may act as active, autonomous or receptive subsidiary (Jarillo/Martinez 1990). However, coordination and control in exporting comprise managing not only among different functional units inside firm, but between firm and foreign distributors and intermediates (Zhang/Hu/Gu 2008). For such purpose, export managers may employ formal mechanisms such as output or process control, and informal mechanisms such as social control regardless of firm size and capital ownership (Florez/Ramon/Velez/Concepcion Alvarez-Dardet/Araujo/Sanchez 2012). In addition, the increase of export intensity or export involvement usually requires more complexity, formalization, centralization, coordination and control in internal organization of the firm and its policies concerning exporting when considering export venture as a unit of analysis (Cavusgil 1984; Diamantopoulos/Inglis 1988; Dalli 1995). However, higher export intensity does

not consequently require separate organizational unit because export issues may be dealt by individuals or sections in other departments, such as marketing or sales (Diamantopoulos/Inglis 1988). Appropriate organizational configuration must be chosen in order to minimize the cost of achieving export goals (Reid 1983).

As a response to cross-cultural issues, a firm has at its disposal ethnocentric, polycentric, global, and transnational option (Tayeb 2000). In the researched case, taking into account the intention of applying standardization as product strategy, the three approaches are suggested for Serbian firms' main export destinations – neighbouring countries, the European Union countries and the Eurasian Economic Union countries.

Markets of the neighbouring countries are the only destinations for Serbian exporters where consumer goods have dominance over industrial. Those are the markets that have many similarities with the Serbian ones in terms of consumers' tastes, habits, purchasing power, cultural patterns and infrastructure. Therefore, large domestically-owned firms could adopt a modified ethnocentric approach. To gain and maintain the competitive advantage, this approach should include strategies of moderate adaptation for other marketing mix elements, especially for the price due to the competition from local firms and multinationals. In contrast, large foreign-owned firms can access these markets using transnational approach, relying on high quality and brand name as the core attributes of their products.

For the European Union market, different approaches for various exporters are required, knowing that Serbian exports to this destination consists mostly of raw materials, parts of equipment, and machines. Domestically-owned firms may employ a polycentric approach with a significant price, distribution, and promotion adaptation. For foreign-owned firms, a logical choice is the transnational approach.

Finally, for the Eurasian Union markets, large domestically-owned firms should use a polycentric approach, given the characteristics of this market and structure of the domestic exports, which includes both consumer goods and raw materials. In the case of large foreign-owned firms, acceptable approach could be transnational strategy.

For small businesses, regardless of capital ownership and main export destination, polycentric approach could be appropriate since their export mainly targets narrow market niches. Unlike large firms, small businesses are usually constrained in terms of economy of scale, financial and human resources, and usage of information resources. However their propensity for competitive actions and responses, flexibility and rapidity, and less structured and faster implementations of business decisions, allow them to more adaptively approach

price, promotion and distribution issues (Chen/Hambrick 1995). Nevertheless, domestically-owned small businesses have to be especially aware of some of the problems associated with polycentrism, mainly related to coordination and decision-making, as they may harm strategy execution (Wind/Douglas/Perlmutter 1973).

6 Concluding remarks

This paper researched how core product EMS and firm characteristics may frame organizational design in exporting on a sample of firms from small, upper middle income emerging economy with preferential status in the European trade. It follows well-known business principle that organizational structure follows strategy. Unlike previous studies that are descriptive/predictive in their nature, focusing mainly on price and distribution elements in EMS for firms from developed countries, this paper is different. It employed descriptive, predictive, and prescriptive analysis to find that firm size, capital ownership, and standardization EMS may be treated as parameters for designing organizational configuration, complexity, formalization, centralization, and coordination and control mechanisms in exporting taking into account heterogeneity of firms. On the organizational theory level, this paper synthesizes previous findings from various sources to implement them in one unique case, and shows overall organizational design in exporting, confirming once again usefulness of the contingency theory in international business.

Research findings have several implications for practitioners. First the as foundation of conducted research was the real experience of exporters, they can compare their experience with the experiences of other similar firms, review their practice and possibly find information useful for business improvement regarding their firms' dysfunctional organizational aspects. Flaws in organizational design can lead to the absence of coordination, slow and inefficient decision-making, not-efficient problem-solving, roles confusion, and unmotivated employees. In addition, due its implications on costs, competitiveness, efficiency and profitability, standardization/adaptation topic is always relevant for managers. Secondly, managers' decisions regarding export marketing strategy and organizational design might rest on a high level of subjectivity. This study advises how to advance and objectivise decision-making processes. It underlines direct impact of relationship between strategy and organizational design on competitiveness and its indirect impact on firm performance. Third, managers should recognize organizational design as a source of competitive advantage.

However, the research has several limitations. First it is related to one-country context. Including more countries would help to test the findings of this study. Secondly, a limited number of firm characteristics were researched. Additional studies may include empirical research with more characteristics and types of

export behaviour such as export intensity, export market orientation, active/passive approach to exporting, short term/long term export orientation, and level of export dynamism. In addition, other elements of the marketing mix and environmental variables from export markets and consumers abroad as contingencies may be included in future studies. Thirdly, more interesting findings might be obtained by exploring interaction effects of researched independent variables in this paper. This would allow constricting more detailed typologies of firms and organizational designs appropriate for export business. Fourthly, export venture as a unit of analysis pose a limitation, consequently firm level export and diversity of export products and export markets might be explored in further studies. Fifthly, various types of export, such as indirect and direct exporting, may be included to spot their impact on organizational design. Another opportunity for further research lies in mixed research design by collecting not only primary, but secondary data as well. It would be useful to include macroeconomic data related to export for broader explanation. Finally, organizational design variations and discussions were done in a prescriptive way, implying that in the future they should be empirically researched by comparing the actual situation to given suggestions.

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