

Strategic Alliances:

Managers' Response Behaviour in Adverse Situations



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Abstract

Firms and non-government organisations (NGOs) have a high failure rate (50-70%) to build alliances due to their different objectives. The NGO wants to contribute to society, and the firm wants to make money. This failure prompted this research on alliances between firms and NGOs in adverse situations. This research investigates managers response behaviour in adverse situations. These new insights can contribute to a lower failure rate.

Currently, little is known about managers' response behaviour to these alliances in adverse situations. These adverse situations are negative events, which disrupt the alliance between the partners resulting in alliance instability.

Recent studies show that the behaviour of managers in adverse situations differ. The behaviour of managers in adverse situation can increase and decrease the success of the partnership. Some studies indicate that when the partner gives a helping hand, it enhances the success of the partnership. Conversely, other studies show that when the partner reacts negatively, the partnership ends.

The study measures the response behaviour of managers with seven different response strategies: exit, opportunism, aggressive voice, creative voice, considerate voice, patience, and neglect. The effect of investment and involvement on the response strategy is investigated. Most studies on these alliances used qualitative research. Therefore, this study uses a mixed- method approach to conduct this research. Managers of NGOs and firms are interviewed about their response behaviour in adverse situations. With a vignette study, students are asked about their response behaviour in adverse situations. The vignettes converge four different relational-based alliances: philanthropic alliances, transactional alliances, integrative alliances, and transnational alliances. These alliances differ from each other in their degree of investment and involvement.

The author compares the outcomes to answer the research question:

What is the response behaviour of managers in different relational-based alliances between firms and NGOs in an adverse situation?

Research is done to the effect of investment and involvement on the response behaviour of managers and will control for managers' decision-making behaviour. Managers decision-making style can influence the preference of response strategy in adverse situations.

A manager's involvement directly influences the preference of response strategy. Trust and commitment are necessary; without trust and commitment, alliance managers often opt for an exit strategy by the alliance manager in an adverse situation. When the involvement of managers in the alliance is high, managers prefer to voice their opinions in a creative way (i.e. creative voice strategy).

There are no significant results found for the effect of investment on a response strategy.

Managers' thinking style influences their decision-making behaviour. Managers with a rational approach prefer a more considerate voice strategy in adverse situations. These managers want to reduce uncertainty and create commitment through transparent communication. The influence of an experimental thinking style is not significant.

This research expands current alliance literature by testing the effect of three variables: investments, involvement, and thinking style.

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During my time as student at the Radboud University, I have gained extensive knowledge about the field of Business Administration. Partnerships as a topic, piqued my interest specifically, which motivated my Masters dissertation. The alliance between firms and NGOs also has currency.

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Content

Abstract.....	3
Acknowledgements	5
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	8
1.1 Background Information.....	8
1.2 Research Question.....	9
1.3 Relevance.....	10
1.4 Structure.....	11
Chapter 2: Theoretical Background	12
2.1 Defining Strategic Alliances	12
2.2 Adverse Situations.....	14
2.3 Response Behaviour and Strategies	14
2.4 Characteristics of Relational-based Alliances.....	16
2.4.1 Investments	16
2.4.2 Involvement	17
2.5 Decision-making	18
Chapter 3: Methodology.....	21
3.1 Research Method.....	21
3.1.1 Mixed Method.....	21
3.1.2 Vignette Study.....	21
3.1.3 Interviews.....	23
3.2 Variables	25
3.3 Data Analysis Process	27
3.4 Data analysis for Quantitative Research.....	27
3.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analyses.....	28
3.4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	28
3.4.3 MANCOVA.....	29
3.5 Data Analysis for Qualitative Research.....	31
3.6 Quality of the Data	31
3.7 Integration.....	33
Chapter 4: Results	35
4.1 Results of the Vignette Study.....	35
4.1.1 Quality of the Data	35
4.1.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis	35
4.1.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	38
4.1.4 MANCOVA.....	39



4.2 Results Interview44

 4.2.1 Investments44

 4.2.2 Involvement46

 4.2.3 Decision-making48

Chapter 5: Conclusion50

 5.1 Interpretation of the Findings.....50

 5.2 Additional Insights53

Chapter 6: Discussion54

 6.1 Academic Implication.....54

 6.2 Managerial Implication.....55

 6.3 Limitations56

References.....58

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter covers background information on the research topic, explains the relevance of the objective, and illustrates the structure of this research.

1.1 Background Information

Recently, resource-dependent alliances between firms (profit organisations) and non-government organisations (NGOs) have become more important for both parties (Rivera-Santos & Rufin, 2011). Resources dependency alliance is the recognition by the partners that certain goals can only be achieved together (Samii, Wassenhove & Bhattacharya, 2002). Jamali and Keshishian (2008) stated that organisations (particular NGOs) look for alliances with other institutions to achieve specific goals. Examples of specific goals are acquiring necessary resources or creating social responsibility (Jamali & Keshishian, 2008).

Jamali and Keshishian (2008, p.279) argued, “a partnership (or alliance) is a sort of collaboration to pursue common goals while leveraging joint resources and capitalizing on the respective competences and strengths of both partners”. The boundaries between these two parties have become increasingly permeable. Both parties have the desire to work together, but the reasons for these alliances are diverse. For businesses, it is about increased legitimacy, positive reputation effects, increased social status, recognition, and opportunities to expand their corporate social value (Jamali & Keshishian, 2008). The NGOs favour alliances with companies because of increased competition for limited funding, escalating social needs, hostile environmental forces, and concerns about sustainable development (Melaville, Asayesh & Blank, 1993).

These (relational-based) alliances between firms and NGOs occur in four different stages: philanthropic, transactional, integrative, and transnational (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012a). Philanthropic collaborations happen when the firm donates money to the NGO. A Philanthropic partnership is a partnership with infrequent interaction and low magnitude of resources (Austin, 2000). Transactional collaboration involves more resources. The partnership is of relative importance to both partners’ mission (Austin, 2000). In this kind of partnership, the firm enters new markets and attracts new clients, while the NGO enjoys financial support from the firm (Gray & Stites, 2013). With integrative partnerships, the social impact is higher because of a deeper level of trust. Partners share norms and values and interact intensively (Cozzolino, 2012). In a transnational partnership, the collaboration is intensive, with a large number of

resources, as the stakeholders are involved to realise the common goal. The transnational partnership also has a high social impact (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012b).

Through successful alliances, firms and NGOs reinforce each other and share resources for their common good (Jamali & Keshishian, 2008). Such relationships need to address a wide range of social issues while both parties also try to generate benefits for their organisation (Murphey, Arenas & Batista, 2014). Notwithstanding, their divergent objectives can create adverse situations (Rivera-Santos & Rufin, 2011). Such adverse situations can be product recalls, pollution incidents, or dishonouring an agreement (Bruyaka, Philippe & Castañer, 2018). A tangible example of an adverse situation between NGOs and firms is the alliance between the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) and Essent. WWF decided in 2009 to terminate the partnership because Essent was taken over by the electric utility company Rheinisch-Westfälisches Elektrizitätswerk (RWE). RWE is one of the biggest polluters in Europe. The German company burns a lot of coal and has done little to reduce air pollution from its plants in last decade. The association with RWE harms the reputation of WWF (NCDO, 2013). The unethical behaviour of one partner can influence the credibility of the other partner in the alliance (Partnerships Resource Centre, 2011).

In such adverse situations managers make crucial decisions for their partnership. How managers make these decisions depend on their decision making style. According to Pacini and Epstein (1999), there are two different decision making styles. The first decision making style is the experimental decision making style. Managers who prefer the experimental decision making style want to make decisions based on their feelings (Epstein, Pacini, Denes-Raj & Heier, 1996; Kahneman, 2003). The second decision making style is the rational decision making style. With the rational thinking style, managers prefer to analyse all possible options before they take a decision (Scott & Bruce, 1995). The choice of decision making style depends on manager's personal characteristics (Pacini & Epstein, 1999). Therefore, the response behaviour of managers can differ in adverse situations.

1.2 Research Question

The way NGOs and firms deal with adverse situations is crucial for the success of the partnership (Arino & De La Torre, 1998). This research aims to gain insight into managing an alliance between firms and NGOs. There is little known about the partner's response behaviour and how it might be predicted in adverse situations (Tjemkes, Furrer & Hensler, 2012).

This lack of knowledge raises the following question:

What is the response behaviour of managers in different relational-based alliances between firms and NGOs in an adverse situation?

To answer the research question, the author conducts a mix of qualitative and quantitative research. First, a vignette study measures the response behaviour of managers in adverse situations. Second, the researcher conducts interviews to glean in-depth information of the response behaviour of managers in these relational-based alliances.

1.3 Relevance

Scientific Relevance:

Although these alliances are important for both parties, many alliances do not succeed, with failure rates as high as 50-70% (Hodge, Greve & Boardman, 2010). Partnerships between firms and NGOs face uncertainty and interdependence that can create adverse situations (Barkema & Vermeulen, 1997; Bruyaka et al., 2018). These internal tensions can provide inherent instabilities of strategic alliances. According to Inkpen and Beamish (1997), alliance instability refers to unplanned changes or dissolutions from the perspective of one of the organisations in the alliance. However, there is a lack of knowledge about how firms and NGOs deal with alliance instability. This study enriches the studies of Furrer et al. (2012), Austin and Seitanidi (2012) and Pacini and Epstein (1999). It combines these three studies, to investigate the response behaviour of managers in different relational-based alliances and take managers decision-making behaviour into account. This knowledge provides clearer understanding of response behaviour in adverse situations, which increases the chance of a successful partnership (Arino & De La Torre, 1998).

Moreover, many studies on alliances between firms and NGOs are qualitative. This paper adds quantitative research with a vignette study, which enriches current knowledge to response behaviour of managers in strategic alliances (Bruyaka et al., 2018).

Societal Relevance:

Strategic alliances between firms and NGOs create value for society because the alliance helps to solve complex social problems and ensures positive social change. Besides the value for

society, it also creates value for businesses and non-profit firms to address environmental issues and deliver economic gains (AL-Tabbaa, Leach & March, 2014). Therefore, the improvement of alliances between firms and NGOs contribute to the sustainability of society. This study can help to provide a clearer understanding of response behaviour in adverse situations, which can increase the success of the partnership (Arino & De La Torre, 1998).

1.4 Structure

This report continues with background information of strategic alliances between NGOs and firms in Chapter 2. In this chapter, with the usage of scientific research, the author formulates hypotheses. Chapter 3, explains the research methodology; quantitative and qualitative. First, the author illustrates the vignette study and interviews and then explains the data analysis strategies. The thesis presents the results of the vignette study and interviews in Chapter 4. The researcher analyses the vignette study with factor analyses and regression analysis, and the interviews with coding. Chapter 5 includes the conclusion of the results to answer the research question. Finally, Chapter 6 discusses the contribution and limitations of this study.

Chapter 2: Theoretical Background

This chapter explains the theoretical background of the research topic. First, the author defines the definition of strategic alliances. Subsequently, the researcher investigates different response strategies and relational-based alliances influencing the preference of a response strategy. Once the theoretical background of the research topic is transparent, the author formulates hypotheses to be tested.

2.1 Defining Strategic Alliances

According to Kinderis and Jucevičius (2013), strategic alliances mean:

1. voluntary agreement for free exchange, cooperation and mutual relationships without common ownership
2. mutual benefit based on trust, partnership and risk management; both parties maintain their autonomy
3. the enterprises collaborate to achieve strategic goals and increase competitiveness in the market
4. the partnership helps to develop a new business model which creates conditions for efficiency development.

There are several motives for strategic alliances:

1. the ability to enter new markets,
2. to reduce financial and political risk,
3. to gain added value,
4. and social profit (Kinderis, & Jucevičius, 2013)

A partnership is a popular mechanism for dealing with complex collective action problems and everyday challenges (Loza, 2004; Wolf, 2008). These alliances are formed to address multifaceted social and environmental problems (Mandell & Steelman, 2003). Innovation in an alliance is necessary to harness the resources more effectively for a wider social good. The integration of innovation improves the partnership outcomes and social activities. The innovative partnerships yield more benefit for companies, nonprofit organizations, and society at large. It increases the investments and involvement in the partnership. Social alliances are not quick fixes and require commitment and investments (Jamali, Yianni & Abdallah, 2011). According to Jamali et al. (2011), the more innovative partnership involves regular interactions

and open lines of communication with three critical competencies: trust, communication and coordination.

The collaboration between firms and NGOs occurs in four stages: philanthropic, transactional, integrative, and transformational (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012).

Philanthropic collaborations are partnerships where the resource flow is unilateral. Firms donate money to the NGO. Resources, which NGOs gain from firms, contribute to their mission. It is a sole creation rather than a co-creation. The interaction is limited, and the functions are independent. The firm is not involved in the decision-making process and activities of the NGO. This kind of partnership requires little investments and involvement (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012).

With *transactional collaborations*, the resource flow is bilateral. The benefits of the relationships are more direct; more resources are generated for the NGO; and there is more interaction between the firm and the NGO than the philanthropic collaborations. The partnership is of relative importance for both parties to reach their goal (Austin, 2000). In this kind of collaborations the investments are high but the involvement low.

With *integrative collaborations*, there is deeper trust; the interaction is intensive. The social impact of the integrative collaborations is higher than the transactional collaborations. The partnership is integral to the strategic success of both parties. There are substantial resources involved, and the partners create an organisational cohesion with each other (Cozzolino, 2012). This kind of partnerships requires high involvement but low investments (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012).

With *transformational collaborations* partners learn together about social needs and support each other to meet these needs. This partnership involves joint creation and disruptive social innovations. It requires a large number of resources, intensive collaborations, and a broad scope of activities. This kind of partnership has a significant social impact compared to philanthropic and transactional collaborations. Few of these partnerships exist. Most stakeholders are committed to a transformational collaboration as it requires high levels of involvement and investments (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012; Kindornay, Tissot & Sheiban, 2014).

This study investigates the response behaviour of managers in these four different relational-based alliances in adverse situations.

2.2 Adverse Situations

Adverse situations represent discontinuous resource instability, which influences the alliance. These adverse situations hinder the normal operations of the alliance (Bundy & Pfaffer, 2015). One of the partners in the alliance can experience reputation or legitimacy penalties (Jonsson, Greve, & Fujiwara-Greve, 2009; Kang, 2008), losses in stock value (Barnett & King, 2008; Boone & Ivanov, 2012) or threats to survival (Jensen, 2006; Singh & Mitchell, 1996). How partners react to these adverse situations differs. Sometimes, partners will help each other, which strengthens their relationship. In contrast, one partner can react negatively and terminate the alliance. This response behaviour provides scope for further research (Bruyaka et al., 2018).

2.3 Response Behaviour and Strategies

According to Farrell (1983), behavioural responses to adverse situations of managers are diverse on two dimensions: *constructive* versus *destructive* and *active* versus *passive*.

Constructive (agreeable) behaviour means that the managers strive to maintain or renew a relationship with the organisation. The managers want to resolve a conflict. The responses are more pleasant and relax. Conversely, managers display *destructive* (disagreeable) behaviour when they prefer to terminate the relationship and may even escalate a conflict. These responses could be unpleasant and strained.

When managers are involved with dealing directly with an issue, they display *active* behaviour. In contrast, *passive* behaviour is when the managers avoid dealing directly with problematic situations. The managers wait and do not take action (Farrell, 1983; Hagedoorn, Yperen, Van de Vliert & Buunk, 1999).

Furrer et al. (2012) identify seven different response strategies: exit, opportunism, aggressive voice, creative voice, considerate voice, patience, and neglect.

Exit Refers to ending the partnership, which is the most destructive response strategy. With an exit strategy, the partners need to find alternatives to achieve their desired goals. Exit is an active-destructive response strategy

(Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Rusbult, Zembrodt & Gunn, 1982; Tjemkes et al., 2012).

- Opportunism* With this response strategy, the partner increases benefits through means forbidden by the alliance contract (Ping, 1993). It is an active-destructive response strategy (Wathne & Heide, 2000).
- Considerate voice* A response strategy to improve the partnership by communicating and discussing problems with the partner cooperative; an active-constructive response strategy (Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Ping, 1993).
- Aggressive voice* A powerful imposition of opinions; not avoiding conflicts. It is an active-destructive response strategy (Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Hibbard, Kumar & Stern, 2001).
- Creative voice* This response strategy is used to implement innovative solutions to solve problems in a partnership to develop mutually satisfactory solutions. This is an active-constructive response strategy (Tjemkes & Furrer, 2010; Zhou & George, 2001).
- Patience* Also called loyalty; a response strategy used when the partner accepts the issue, and the manager believes the partnership will improve in the future. This is a passive-constructive response strategy (Ping, 1993; Tjemkes & Furrer, 2010).
- Neglect* When this response strategy is implemented, little effort is spent on maintaining the partnership (Ping, 1993), because the partnership does not benefit in the future. Possible solutions to solve problems will be ignored. This is a passive-destructive response strategy (Farrell, 1983; Rusbult et al., 1982; Tjemkes & Furrer, 2010).

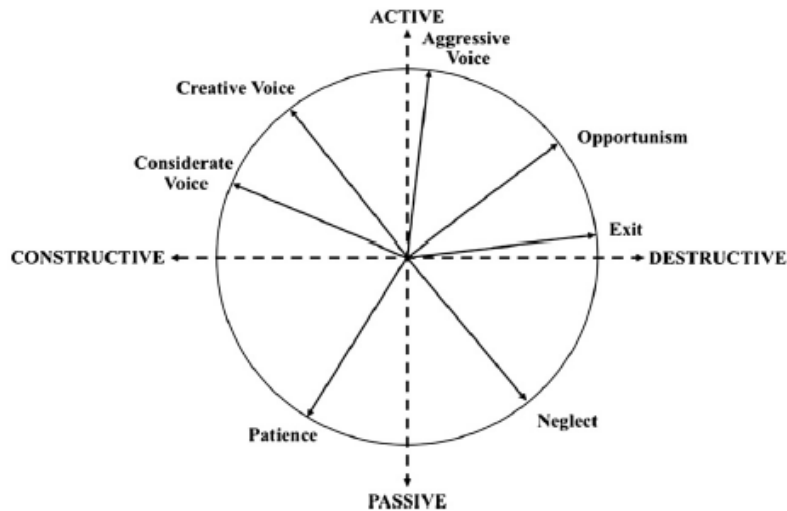


Figure 1: The 7 response strategies (Furrer et al., 2012, p.427)

2.4 Characteristics of Relational-based Alliances

This research focuses on two characteristics of relational-based alliances, which influence the response behaviour of the manager: investments and involvement. The author formulates hypotheses based on these characteristics of relational-based alliances.

2.4.1 Investments

Investments refer to the costs in the partnership, which act as exit barriers for partners in strategic alliances. When a partner decides to terminate the relationship, the investment costs are relinquished. Alliance specific investments are a form of dependency; managers invest more time and resource in the alliances because these specific investments create an opportunity for exploitation. Alliance-specific investments ensure that the partners want to reduce the negative consequences in adverse situations (Emerson, 1962; Tjemkes & Furrer, 2010).

Unilateral investments trigger constructive response strategies in adverse situations. In most situations, these response strategies are active because managers are committed to the alliances when the investments are high. Organisations who are looking for alliances to gain resources (knowledge, finances, or innovation) or need a collaboration to solve social or environmental issues, are more likely to work in alliances with a high degree of investments (Spitz, Van Kranenburg & Korzilius, 2020).

Alliance managers protect their investments in response to adverse situations when the investments are high. Most managers do not want to risk losing their investment costs (Ping, 1999; Ping, 1993).

These investments trigger active-constructive response strategies in adverse situations (Ping, 1993). Active-constructive response strategies are considerate voice and creative voice (Furrer et al., 2012). When the alliance-specific investments are low, managers are more likely to react with a destructive response strategy, because the dependency is low. Less dependency allows managers to exit the alliance, become neglectful, or act opportunistically without fear of retaliation (Das & Rahman, 2010).

Destructive response strategies are exit, opportunism, aggressive voice, and neglect (Furrer et al., 2012).

This raises the following hypotheses:

H1: Managers in an alliance with high investments prefer an active-constructive response (creative voice or considerate voice) strategy more in adverse situations.

H2: Managers in an alliance with low investments prefer a destructive response (exit, opportunism, aggressive voice, and neglect) strategy more in adverse situations.

2.4.2 Involvement

Involvement refers to the relationship quality of the alliance and the frequency of interaction between the two parties, which is needed to manage the partnership (Seitanidi & Ryan, 2007). The level of involvement influences the collaboration process. The amount of interaction is important to monitor activities, outcomes and benefits of the partnership (Contractor, Woodley & Piepenbrink, 2011). Without trust and commitment, the partnerships will not deliver their economic payoff (Cullen, Johnson & Sakano, 2000; Uzzi, 1997).

Involvement increases the interaction between the partners, which increases trust, respect, and commitment (Arino, De la Torre & Ring, 2001). High involvement alliances increase the possibility to create high social impact (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012a; Byiers, Guadagno & Karaki, 2016; Van Tulder, Van Tilburg, Francken & Da Rosa, 2013). Managers in alliances with high involvement are more tolerant in problematic situations, preferring passive-constructive response strategies (Hibbard et al., 2001) such as the patience response strategy (Furrer et al., 2012).

However, collaborations with low involvement increase conflict and distrust and hinder commitment (Anderson & Narus, 1990). Insufficient involvement alliances have a low to modest social impact (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012a; Byiers et al., 2016; Van Tulder et al., 2013). Managers in alliances with low involvement will discontinue the relationship or extract benefits (Deeds & Hill, 1998), because rebuilding the relationship costs too much in money and time. When the involvement of the collaboration is low, the manager will respond to the alliance with a response strategy, because poor performance increases the cost of managing the alliance. Thus, low performance evokes less constructive responses (Anderson & Narus, 1990; Brouthers & Bamossy, 2006). According to Deeds and Hill (1998), managers in alliances with low involvement prefer active-destructive response strategies to terminate the relationship. The active-destructive response strategies are opportunism, aggressive voice, and exit (Furrer et al., 2012).

This raises the following hypotheses:

H3: Managers in an alliance with high involvement prefer a passive-constructive response (patience) strategy in adverse situations.

H4: Managers in an alliance with low involvement prefer an active-destructive response (opportunism, aggressive voice or exit) strategy in adverse situations.

2.5 Decision-making

Managers in adverse situations face uncertainty, confusion and fear, which requires fast, but sound, decisions by managers of the alliances. Managers who operate in crisis have little time to consider all information (Sayegh, Anthony & Perrewé, 2004). Managers have bounded rationality; their personality and background influence their decisions (Hambrick, 2007; Pansiri, 2005). People's rationality is limited, because they do not have the optimal information to make decision due to limited time and cognitive limitations (Simon, 1999).

Cognitive styles refer to how a person represents, organises and processes information. There are two different thinking styles. The intuitive thinking style relies on subjective and incomplete information. A person has limited time to make these decisions based on predictions of uncertain outcomes (Burke & Miller, 1999; Pretz & Tetz, 2007; Sadler-Smith & Shefy, 2004).

An intuitive thinking style is a heuristic approach based on emotions (Epstein, Pacini, Denes-Raj & Heier, 1996; Kahneman, 2003). This cognitive style is risky and preferred by less cautious managers who prefer high-risk response strategies (Stewart & Roth, 2004). They want expected returns (Griffith, Zhang & Cavusgil, 2006). Risk prone managers accept failure more easily (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993). Risk-taking strategies are exit, opportunism, and aggressive voice (Tjemkes, Furrer & van Aquinostraat, 2011).

The second cognitive style is the analytical approach based on objective and complete information. This style requires intellectual judgement without time pressure: a logical process considering all possible options before the manager of the alliance makes a decision (Scott & Bruce, 1995). This analytical approach is a more risk-averse thinking style. Risk-averse managers want to reduce uncertainty and prefer strategies that increase commitment. Strategies to increase commitment are considerate voice, creative voice and patience (Tjemkes & Furrer, 2011).

Managers can differ in their preference for intuitive (experimental) and analytical (rational) information processing (Betsch, 2004, 2008; Epstein, Pacini, Denes-Raj, & Heier, 1996; Hodgkinson, Sadler-Smith, Sinclair, & Ashkanasy, 2009; Glöckner & Witteman, 2010). These differences are important to understand work-related behaviour and outcomes (Betsch, 2004, 2008; Brigham, De Castro, & Shepherd, 2007; Hodgkinson & Sadler-Smith, 2003; Khatri & Ng, 2000; Kickul, Gundry, Barbosa, & Whitcanack, 2009; Sadler-Smith, 2001). Managers tend to prefer one approach, depending on their characteristics.

This research uses the new version of the Rational-Experimental Inventory (REI) of Pacini and Epstein (1999), which measures the rational and experimental thinking styles and includes subscales. These subscales are self-reported ability and engagement. The rational ability (RA) refers to the capacity to think logically and analytically. Rational engagement (RE) shows the reliance on and enjoyment of thinking. Experimental ability (EA) means the capacity to draw on intuition. Experimental engagement (EE) refers to the tendency to rely on initial gut feelings in decision-making.

This raises the following hypotheses:

- H5: Managers in an alliance with an experimental ability prefer risk-taking response (exit, opportunism, and aggressive voice) strategies in adverse situations.*
- H6: Managers in an alliance with experimental engagement prefer risk-taking response (exit, opportunism, and aggressive voice) strategies in adverse situations.*
- H7: Managers in an alliance with a rational ability prefer response strategies that increase commitment (considerate voice, creative voice, and patience) in adverse situations.*
- H8: Managers in an alliance with rational engagement prefer response strategies that increase commitment (considerate voice, creative voice, and patience) in adverse situations.*

Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter explains the research method. The sample size and data analysis will be indicated. Furthermore, the author illustrates the pros and cons of the research method and explains the ethical requirements crucial for conducting research.

3.1 Research Method

The research strategy is a mixed method of qualitative and quantitative research. First, the researcher conducts a vignette study to analyse the response behaviour of managers in adverse situations. The author further interviewed managers of firms and NGOs about their behaviour in adverse situations. The researcher then compared the results of these methods.

3.1.1 Mixed Method

With a mixed method design the researcher focuses on collecting and analysing qualitative and quantitative data for better results (Robins, Ware, DosReis, Willging, Chung & Lewis-Fernández, 2008). According to Abowitz and Toole (2010), a mixed methodology is an appropriate research strategy to examine the behaviour of humans in construction processes. A mixed method in social science research enhances the validity and reliability of the results (Abowitz & Toole, 2010).

Qualitative research enables the researcher to provide in-depth information about a participant's response behaviour. With quantitative method the researcher tests the hypotheses to provide a better understanding of the effect of investment and involvement on response behaviour (Palinkas, Aarons, Horwitz, Chamberlain, Hurlburt & Landsverk, 2010).

A limitation is that a mixed method is more expensive than a single method in terms of time, money and energy (Abowitz & Toole, 2010).

3.1.2 Vignette Study

The author uses an experimental vignette methodology (EVM) to analyse the response behaviour of firms and NGOs in adverse situations. Currently, most studies of alliances between firms and NGOs are qualitative studies (case studies), whereas a vignette study is a quantitative research method (Murphy, Arenas & Batista, 2014). Vignettes gather data about a participant's set of beliefs: short stories about a hypothetical person; reflecting on situations in the local context. Participants are asked about their thoughts and reactions in various hypothetical situations (Gourlay, Mshana, Birdthistle, Bulugu, Zaba, & Urassa, 2014).

According to Atzmüller and Steiner (2010, p.128), a vignette study is “a short, carefully constructed description of a person, object, or situation, representing a systematic combination of characteristics.”

Appropriateness

This methodology increases the internal and external validity for experimental studies and it helps to understand causal relationships (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). It is a challenge for experimental studies to achieve internal and external validity concurrently. An EVM allows the researcher to manipulate and control independent variables at the same time. This enhances internal and external validity (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010; Hox, Kreft & Hermkens, 1991). EVM is a suitable method because it is possible to include relevant factors while excluding factors, which can give confusing results. Therefore, EVM is suitable for this research report, because the variables that correlate with each other are known, but the nature and direction of the causal relationship are unknown. With an EVM theory the nature and the direction of the causal relationship will be tested (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). In this paper, it refers to the relationship between the investment and involvement and response strategy of the manager.

After the author described the adverse situations, the participants answered three different questions on a 5-point Likert scale. 1 is “*strongly disagree*” and 5 is “*strongly agree*.” These questions checked the respondents’ understanding of the case. When a respondent did not understand the case, the researcher decided to exclude the answers of the respondent.

The last question on the questionnaire is: “*The questions in this questionnaire were difficult to understand.*” As most of the participants are non-native English speakers, there is a probability that they did not understand the questions due to a language barrier. This question is important for the validation of the vignette study. The case and the questions are presented in Appendix 1.1 and 1.2.

Limitations of a Vignette Study

For some scenarios it is difficult to create the same context as it would be in real life (Lohrke, Holloway & Woolley, 2010). These discrepancies evoke dissimilar responses, given that the hypothetical scenarios do not always match the real life scenarios (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014).

Another major limitation of EVM, is that the results are not easy to generalise (Hughes & Huby, 2002). The EVM study only shows that certain outcomes can happen, but does not recognise if

certain outcomes do actually happen. To guard the external validity of an EVM, it is necessary to enhance the realism (Hughes & Huby, 2002; Roehling, 1999; Woehr & lance, 1991), by increasing the similarity between experimental and natural settings, to increase the observed effects (Taylor, 2006). According to Aguinis and Bradley (2014), student samples are less suitable to generalise to a larger population, because the vignette study is conducted to address issues, which are associated with managers' response behaviour.

Number of Vignettes

It is necessary to use enough number of vignettes to manipulate critical variables. A low number of vignettes could result in fewer issues presented in the scenario, which create biases. Conversely, too many vignettes lead may overwhelm the participant (Weber, 1992).

Therefore, this research only presented one adverse situation to the participants. There were four different scenarios, each allocated to one. These scenarios are philanthropic, transactional, integrative, or transformative collaboration. After the description of the adverse situation, the researcher asked respondents to react on 36 statements with a 7-point scale: 1 is "*I would definitely not react in this way*" and 7 is "*I would definitely react in this way.*" These statements are presented in Appendix 1.2.

Sample Size

The researcher conducts the vignette study digitally among 139 students at the University and the University of Applied Science. The author selected students are chosen, as it was too difficult to approach 139 managers. A large sample size is required to generalise the results to the complete population (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Hughes & Huby, 2002; Wason, Polonsky, & Hyman, 2002). It is important that the respondents are familiar with the vignette study to provide valid information (Aiman-Smith et al., 2002; Cavanaugh & Fritzsche, 1985).

Ethical Requirements

Before participating, the author obtained permission from the respondents, ensuring them that their answers were anonymous, and they agreed to the publication of the results. Students opted to leave their e-mail address if they wanted to receive the results.

3.1.3 Interviews

The researcher further conducts interviews to make comparisons and to establish the validity of the vignette study. The author conducted semi- structured interviews with four managers

about their response behaviour in adverse situations within an alliance. The interviewer formulates the open-ended questions before starting the interview (Bleijenbergh, 2015).

Appropriateness

Qualitative research is appropriate because the researcher provides detailed descriptions about how partners interact with each other. As the experience of each respondent varies, they describe it in their own words giving the researcher more in-depth information.

A manager's response behaviour is a dynamic process, which cannot be measured on a single scale and at one point in time. The interviews also provide the researcher with important insight about managers' perception (Palinkas et al., 2010).

This study used interviews to understand the context. The researcher used open-ended questions to gain in-depth information about the manager's response behaviour.

For the triangulation of this research, the results of the interviews are compared to the results of the vignette study. Results from the interviews can generate ideas or hypotheses for further qualitative research.

Limitations

It is challenging to analyse the results of interviews with open-ended questions, as the respondents use their own words and describing different alliances.

Another limitation is when the participants do not see value for themselves in the research, they can give inaccurate answers or give the 'socially desired' answers (Bleijenbergh, 2015). Therefore, it is necessary to build a relationship with the respondent, which increases the likelihood of accurate information (Ahmad, Wasim, Irfan, Gogoi, Srivastava & Farheen, 2019). A disadvantage of a semi-structured interview is that the researcher steers the conversation in a certain direction, limited how deep the conversation can go as opposed to unstructured interviews. This decreases validity (Bleijenbergh, 2015).

Number of Interviews

The interviews are conducted for the triangulation of the vignette study. Due to time limitations, the researcher only interviewed four managers during April and May 2020. The researcher identified one manager via LinkedIn and another through a mutual contact. The researcher approach fourteen different NGOs by mail and two agreed to participate.

Respondent 1 is the manager of an environmental organisation: an NGO with different partnerships with profit organisations. He studied a business degree at the University and has five years' experience with working in alliances between NGOs and profit organisations.

Respondent 2 is the manager of a company. This profit organisation has different partnerships with NGOs. He completed business studies at the University of Applied Science and has four years' experience working with alliances between NGOs and profit organisations.

Respondent 3 is a partnership broker who helps partners with their partnering process: supporting managers during their alliance process, to make the partnership a success. She graduated in economic and social cultural studies and has more than a decade of experience with alliances between firms and NGOs. She is a self-employed consultant managing partnerships.

Respondent 4 is the manager of an NGO, committed to alleviating world poverty. It is a large organisation with many partnerships with firms. She's a graduate in social studies and worked for different NGOs over the last ten years.

Ethical Requirements

Ethics are crucial for interviews, as the researcher accesses confidential and sensitive information (Ahmad et al., 2019). Before commencing the interview, the researcher ensures the respondents are aware that they can withdraw from the research and that their answers are anonymous. The researcher asked respondents' permission to use a voice recorder for transcriptions, which the respondents can access before the results are analysed. If the respondents want, they can receive the results by mail.

3.2 Variables

This section describes the variables used in this research.

Independent Variables

The independent variables are the variables, which manipulate other variables (Hair et al., 2014). These variables are investments and involvement, which describe the different kind of alliances that influence the response behaviour of managers in adverse situations (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012; Furrer et al., 2012).

These study measured these factors with different vignettes. There are four scenarios illustrating a philanthropic, transactional, integrative, or transformative collaboration. These scenarios

measured if the investments and involvement are high or low. The study further measured the response strategies of the managers in these different scenarios.

Involvement is an independent variable, which influences managers response strategy. Involvement refers to the relationship quality of the alliance; the interaction between the two parties (Seitanidi & Ryan, 2007).

Another independent variable is investments. Investments refer to the investment costs in the alliance (Emerson, 1962).

Dependent Variables

The dependent variable is the response strategy of managers in adverse situations. According to Furrer et al. (2012), there are seven different response strategies. The vignette study measured these strategies. There are 36 statements about the course of actions in adverse situation related the seven different response strategies of Furrer et al. (2012). The researcher measured the responses on a 7-point Likert scale. The number 1 is, “*I would definitely not react in this way*” and 7 is “*I would definitely react in this way.*”

The Circumplex Structure

This study uses the circumplex structure of Furrer et al. (2012) to analyse the interrelationships among these seven response strategies. Hagedoorn et al. (1999, p.311) stated “a circumplex structure is a conceptual representation of the domain of behavioural reactions that depicts behavioural variables as a combination of the two dimension.” These two dimensions are: destructive - constructive and active - passive. The circumplex structure of Furrer et al. (2012) is continuous and therefore suitable to measure the unmeasured strategies that blend the existing strategies (Hagedoorn et al., 1999), because these overlap to some degree. Therefore, the response strategies are presented in a circular structure, not in a quadrant. Some strategies follow each other up. The related strategies are positioned close together, while the incompatible strategies are placed at opposite sides. It is possible that there are unmeasured strategies between a pair of response strategies (Furrer et al., 2012). This circumplex model of Furrer et al. (2012) prevents effects that could be difficult to observe. Overall, this model provides a better prediction of response strategies by reducing type II errors (Furrer et al., 2012). A type II error is an error that occurs when you fail to reject a false null hypothesis (Hayes, 2019).

Control Variables

The control variable is the decision-making behaviour of managers. According to Pacini and Epstein (1999), there are two different decision-making styles, which are divided in subscales. There are 15 statements about the decision-making behaviour of managers related to rational ability (RA), rational engagement (RE), experimental ability (EA), and experimental engagement (EE). The researcher uses a 5-point Likert scale to measure the answers: 1 is “*Strongly disagree*” and 5 is “*strongly agree*.” Appendix 1.2 presents the questions.

Manipulation Check

The questionnaire includes a control question to measure if the respondent understands the manipulation. On the Likert scale, the respondent can rate the question “*How important is the partnership to your organisation?*” from 1, meaning “*not important*” to 4, meaning “*very important*.” The answer will reveal their understanding of the vignette.

3.3 Data Analysis Process

To test the hypotheses of this report, the researcher statistically analysed the collected data.

The researcher conducts an exploratory factor analysis to find the underlying structure among the items (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2014). It is mainly used to reveal interrelationships. The researcher analyses the outcomes of the exploratory factor analysis due to a confirmatory factor analysis. After conducting an exploratory factor analysis, there are concrete expectations. The researcher checks these expectations with the help of a confirmatory factor analysis (Hair et al., 2014).

The researcher analyses the results of the factor analyses with MANCOVA. This is a multivariate regression analysis. The researcher uses this analysis to check what the effect of the control variable (covariate) is on the dependent variable. A covariate is a metric, uncontrolled, independent variable (Hair et al., 2014). The researcher compares the results of the vignette study with the interviews.

3.4 Data analysis for Quantitative Research

To analyse the vignette study, the researcher uses exploratory factor analysis to investigate the data. After the exploratory factor analysis, the author uses confirmatory factor analysis to test how well the variables represent the construct. Lastly, this study employs MANCOVA to test the variances in the responses (Hart et al., 2014).

3.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analyses

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is used when the researcher has a limited insight which factors cause correlations between variables. An EFA explores the interrelationships between factors. The EFA is a powerful tool to understand the structure of data and to suggest the measurement model. It highlights relationships that are difficult to observe from raw data or the correlation matrix (Hair et al., 2014).

Appropriateness

The correlation matrix helps the researcher to determine whether a factor analysis can be used. First, when some relationships in the correlation matrix are above 0.3, a direct oblimin rotation is appropriate. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measures the adequacy of the sample. It tells the researcher whether the sample adequately represents the population. The KMO needs to be bigger than 0.5: as close to the number of 1 as possible.

The Bartlett's test of sphericity tests the null hypothesis if the variables are uncorrelated in the population. When the 0 hypothesis is accepted, there are no correlations in the population, and the researcher would not be able to do factor analysis. A rejection of the 0 hypothesis is necessary. When the 0 hypothesis is rejected, there is enough correlation in the population. Bartlett's significant level is below 0,05 (Hair et al., 2014).

Factor Extraction Method

Another essential step in factor analysis is the selection of an extraction method. This study uses the common factor analysis, based on the factors' common variance.

The total variance is not taken into account. Communalities are inserted in the diagonal of the correlation matrix. The common factor analysis identifies the underlying dimensions and their common variance. The factors are also known as principal axis factoring (Hair et al., 2014).

3.4.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) enables the researcher to test how well the measured variables represent the construct. It also tests the measurement model, which the study explored with an EFA (Hair et al., 2014). The advantage of a CFA is that it tests the conceptual model and how well it represents a smaller number of constructs. A CFA is suitable because there are some expectations before conducting the factor analysis. This form of factor analysis is useful for testing hypotheses. It assesses the validity of construct measurements. With the CFA, the

researcher can measure the theoretical specification. The results illustrate how well the factors measure reality (Hair et al., 2014).

3.4.3 MANCOVA

The multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) manipulates several non-metric treatment variables to test hypotheses, making it a useful tool for experiments.

It analyses the variance in the responses in groups on two or more metric dependent variables. The MANCOVA aims to analyse the effect of the covariate on a proportion of the respondents. The covariate analysis can eliminate some errors outside the control of the researcher, which can bias the results.

Another benefit of a covariate analysis is that it analyses differences between respondents. Respondents have unique characteristics, resulting in different reactions.

According to Hair et al. (2014), there are two requirements for using analysis of covariance. First, the covariate needs some correlation with the dependent variable. Second, the covariates must have an equal effect on the dependent variable across groups. When these two requirements are not met, the researcher cannot use MANCOVA.

Variables

The MANCOVA tests multiple independent variables. The variables, investments and involvement, are fixed and categorically scaled.

The dependent variable is the “*response strategy*” chosen by the manager. The dependent variable in the MANCOVA needs to be metrically scaled. The researcher calculates the average mean scores of the seven response strategies. For the covariates, it is necessary that the variables highly correlate with the dependent variable but do not correlate with the independent variables (Hair et al., 2014). This study used four covariates in the MANCOVA: Rational ability (RA), Rational engagement (RE), Experimental ability (EA), and Experimental engagement (EE). These variables were introduced in paragraph 3.2.

Assumptions

There are several assumptions to be met for a MANCOVA analysis. When these assumptions are not met, the results are not valid.

First, the observations need to be independent. When this assumption is not met, responses in one group impact the responses in the other group. For example, when the participants remain in a noisy room or the constructions are confusing (Hair et al., 2014).

The second assumption is that the variance-covariance matrices need to be equal for all treatment groups. This assumption is not met when the variance of one group differs from the variance of another group for the dependent variables. To test the equality of covariance matrices, the researcher used the Box's M test. A significant result indicates a difference between groups. Thus, to meet this assumption, the Box's M test needs to be non-significant. A value bigger than 0.05, indicates that there is an equality of covariance matrices, ensuring no differences between groups (Hair et al., 2014).

The third assumption for the Box's M test is equal groups sizes. Dividing the largest group by the smallest group can check this. The outcome needs to be smaller than 1.5 (Hair et al., 2014).

The fourth assumption is that the dependent variable needs to be normally distributed, this means that the joint effect of two variables is normally distributed. To check for multivariate normal distribution, each variable is checked individually (Hair et al., 2014).

Violation of this assumption can create problems for the Box's M test but there are different transformations which can solve this problem (Hair et al., 2014)

The last assumption is sensitivity to outliers. MANCOVA is sensitive to outliers. The researcher has to be aware of that. This means, the researcher has to check the data for outliers and delete them (Hair et al., 2014).

Fit

To assess the fit of the MANCOVA, the researcher looks at the significance test and the statistical power. To test the significance test, the researcher has a choice of measures to use: Roy's greatest characteristic root, Wilks' lambda, Pillai's criterion, and Hostelling's T2.

The researcher used Wilks' lambda to test the significance in this report. Researchers use this test routinely to measure the overall significance between groups in a multivariate situation (Hair et al., 2014). "Power is the probability that a statistical test will identify a treatment's effect if it actually exists" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 689). It is crucial to maintain an alpha level to

the power of 0.8. When the alpha level is too stringent, it is difficult to identify valid results because the power of the MANCOVA is too low (Hair et al., 2014).

3.5 Data Analysis for Qualitative Research

This chapter describes the analysis of interviews with managers.

The author coded the transcribed data in three steps: open code, axial code, and selective code. First, the researcher awarded concepts to fragment, to connect the concepts with codes. These codes are concrete. During the axial coding process, the researcher looked for connections between the open codes and tried to distinguish themes. This step gave the researcher overarching codes, which degrees the number of codes. In the last step, selective coding, the researcher recognised patterns. It connects the empiricism with the theory, which represents relations (Boeije, 2005). To enhance the validity of the interviews, the codes are checked due to another student who is familiar with alliances between firms and NGOs.

3.6 Quality of the Data

The researcher checked the quality of the data before analysing it. Low quality data lead to biased outcomes (Hair et al., 2014).

Data Cleaning

During data cleaning, it is crucial to be aware of outliers. Outliers are observations with a unique combination of characteristics, which are different from the other observations (Hair et al., 2014). Problematic outliers are not a correct representation of the population. It is an iterative process to examine the data on outliers. Identified outliers increases generalisation.

Missing data also requires rigorous examination because these variables can create substantial effects. Missing data is a result of errors in the data collection or an omission of answers. Missing data arise when a participant fails to answer a question in the vignette study. Before the researcher started the analysis, she investigated the multivariate relationships for a greater understanding of the variables and relationships.

The impact of missing data is that the sample size can reduce to inappropriate sample size. Missing data below 10 per cent can generally be ignored (Hair et al., 2014). The researcher deleted eight respondents from the data set. For example, one respondent did not complete the questionnaire earnestly, and for another, some missing data are above 10 per cent. This change left only 131 respondents for the analysis.

Reliability

Reliability is an assessment, which measures the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable. This objective is to measure if the respondents do not vary significantly across time. The results have to be the same at any point in time (Hair et al., 2014).

Another way to measure reliability is with the Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha measures the internal consistency, which means that the items of a scale measure the same construct and are highly intercorrelated. Cronbach's alpha has to exceed 0.7, and for exploratory research, 0.6 (Hair et al., 2014).

An additional diagnostic to test the reliability of the factors, is that the item-to-total correlation should exceed 0.5, and the inter-item correlations should exceed 0.3 (Hair et al., 2014).

Reliability refers to the replicability of the process and results (Leung, 2015). For qualitative research, the reliability is usually replaced by transparency. The researcher must provide insights for the choices made and thoroughly explain the data collection (Bleijenbergh, 2015).

A student colleague of the author, familiar with alliances between firms and NGOs analysed the codes of the interviews, to enhance reliability.

Unidimensionality

Unidimensionality means that a factor is the only factor that the indicator could form, and they could not form any other factors. Unidimensionality is critical when more than two constructs are involved. When there is unidimensionality, there is convergence validity which means that the indicators converge this construct. Each scale should consist of items, which load highly on a single factor, to test unidimensionality. Thus, each separate factor reflects a dimension (Hair et al., 2014).

Internal Validity

Validity means appropriateness of the tools, process, and data (Leung, 2015). The research is internally valid when the researcher measures what he or she wants to measure (Bleijenbergh, 2015). Semi-structured interviews achieve internal validity. Before conducting the interviews, the researcher tested some questions. A pre-test is crucial to check if the vignette study is clear

and will test the right measures. The triangulation of these two different methods enhances the internal validity of this research (Leung, 2015).

External Validity

External validity or generalisability, means the results need to be extrapolated to a larger population.

In qualitative research, a generalisable finding is not an expected attribute (Bleijenbergh, 2015 & Leung, 2015). For qualitative research, it is difficult to achieve external validity because there are fewer respondents compared to quantitative research.

For the vignette study, there were 131 participants. The researcher compared the outcomes of the vignette study with the interviews, to enhance the external validity. The triangulation enhances the external validity of this research (Leung, 2015).

3.7 Integration

The author used an integration method; the triangulation metaphor.

This study measures the response behaviour of managers with two different sources at different times, called between-method triangulation (Flick, von Kardoff & Steinke, 2004). In this research, a vignette study and interviews measured the response behaviour of managers in adverse situations, which increased the validity of the results. The researcher compared these two methods to create a general overview.

Qualitative and quantitative research relates to the same phenomena (Flick et al., 2004). The author gained a deeper understanding of the relationships through interviews. This study used coding to analyse relationships. With the vignette study, the researcher analyses the influences of investments and involvement, and the direction of this influences on the response strategies. The researcher compared the results of both studies.

Another point for attention is the different types of respondents. The researcher conducted the vignette study among students but interviewed managers in the workplace. The research indicated a similarity in the decision direction of the student and manager population (Bateman & Zeithaml, 1989; Croson & Donohue, 2006). From this similarity in outcomes, the author concluded that the answers of the students accurately represent real-life relationships. The outcomes of the vignette study reproduces managers' response behaviour in adverse situations.



If the outcomes of the vignette study and interviews differed completely, the vignette study did not reproduce the manager's response behaviour in adverse situations.

Chapter 4: Results

This chapter explains and analysis the results of the vignette study and the interviews.

4.1 Results of the Vignette Study

The author analysed the results with the SPSS analysis and AMOS. First, the researcher established the quality of the data and then conducted the factor analyses. The study employed the MANCOVA analysis to identify any differences between high and low investments and high and low involvement. The analysis controlled for the decision-making behaviour of managers.

4.1.1 Quality of the Data

A sample of 139 students completed the questionnaire. Ninety-seven of these students are business students studying business administration at University or University of Applied Science. Eighteen respondents followed a social study and six students were from other departments. Of the respondents, 51.6 per cent is female and 46.9 per cent is male. One point six per cent of the respondents identified as 'other' on the form. The age of the respondents range between 18 and 99; the average age of 23.48 with a standard deviation of 7.13.

There are four different scenario's and each scenario was completed by 31-41 students. Two of these scenarios had high investments on the questionnaire, completed by 72 respondents and 76 students responded to the two scenarios with low investments. The two scenarios with high involvement were filled in by 74 respondents. Sixty-five respondents completed the other two scenarios with low involvement. The outcomes are presented in Appendix 2.1.

The Total Dataset

After the data cleaning, 131 respondents were left. Of the total data set 65 (51.6 %) are female and 60 (47.6%) are male, one respondent choose other (0.8%). Five (3.8%) respondents are missing. The age of the respondents ranged between 18 and 31. The average age of the respondent is 22.88 with a standard deviation of 2.37. Thirty to thirty-eight students responded to the four different scenarios.

4.1.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis

The researcher conducted an exploratory factor analysis to explore which variables influence the response behaviour of managers.

Appropriateness Response Strategy

To conduct a factor analysis, the KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were analysed.

The KMO test is 0.790, which means that the sample size is adequate. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is 0.00, which indicates that the variables are uncorrelated. It is appropriate to conduct the factor analysis, because KMO is above 0.5 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant.

Appropriateness Decision-making

The KMO and Bartlett's test is used to measure the appropriateness of the factor analysis for decision-making. KMO is 0.709, which means the sample size is adequate. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is 0.00, indicating the variables are uncorrelated. The KMO is above 0.5 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant, below 0.05.

Unidimensionality Response Strategy

The factor loadings of each factor measures the unidimensionality.

It is important that the items load on one single factor. This is the case for variables 1, 13, 14, 18, 30, and 32. These six items refer to the exit strategy. The variables 11, 17, 23, 27, and 36 load on a single factor; these five items refer to the opportunism strategy. Variables 6, 9, 12, 21, and 24 are unidimensional and refer to the patience strategy. Variables 2, 20, 28, 29, 31, and 34 load on a single factor, generating the creative voice strategy. Variables 8, 10, 16, and 22 are unidimensional, and create the aggressive voice strategy. The last three variables 4, 7 and 15 are also unidimensional, and refer to the considerate voice strategy.

Variables 3, 5, 19, 25, 26, 33, and 35 are not unidimensional as they load on more than one item. The researcher disregarded these factors because unidimensionality is required.

All the factor loadings are above 0.3. No items need to be deleted due to low loadings. Appendix 2.2 shows the outcomes of the exploratory factor analysis.

Unidimensionality Decision-making.

The author found four factors for the factor analysis of decision-making. The first factor refers to respondents with an experimental ability and experimental engagement. The variables 43, 49, 48, and 55 load on the first factor, named experimental 1. The second factor refers to people with a rational ability and rational engagement. The variables 42, 47, and 50 load on factor 2,

named rational. The third factor refers to individuals with experimental ability and experimental engagement, named experimental 2. The variables 46 and 57 load high on the third factor. The last factor refers to people with rational ability. The variables 53 and 54 load high on factor four, named rational ability. Appendix 2.3 shows the outcomes of the exploratory factor analysis.

Reliability Factors Response Strategy

Once unidimensionality was established, the researcher analysed the reliability of the factors.

All scales have a Cronbach's alpha above 0.6., indicating the reliability of these scales. The Cronbach's alpha of the exit strategy will increase from 0.899 to 0.908 when the researcher deletes variable 14. Variable 14 does not belong to the exit strategy. Similarly, for the reliability analysis of the patience scale, when variable 21 is deleted, the Cronbach's alpha will increase from 0.833 to 0.844. The researcher will delete variable 21 as it belongs to the neglect strategy; the inter-item correlation is below 0.3 and the item-to-total correlation is below 0.5.

For considerate voice strategy the Cronbach's alpha will increase from 0.806 to 0.858 when variable 4 is deleted. This variable will not be deleted because there will be two variables left which converge the considerate voice strategy. That is quite low. Variable 4 belongs to the considerate voice strategy scale and the Cronbach's alpha is high when variable 4 is included. The results of the reliability tests are presented in Appendix 2.4.

Reliability Factors for Decision-making

The Cronbach's alpha measures the reliability of the factors for decision-making. Cronbach needs to be above 0.6, for internal consistency. For experimental 1, the Cronbach's alpha is 0.652. For rational, the Cronbach's alpha is 0.663. The Cronbach's alpha for experimental 2 is 0.622. For rational ability, the Cronbach's alpha is 0.660. For all factors the Cronbach's alpha is above 0.6, confirming the reliability of the factors. No variable will be deleted to increase the internal consistency. The results of the reliability tests are presented in Appendix 2.5.

Preliminary Factor Solution Response Strategy

It is preferable to have seven factor solutions without cross-loadings for the response strategies. However, the results of the factor analysis show a six-factor solution with cross-loadings. The neglect strategy is not found in the exploratory factor analysis (EFA). A curvilinear pattern is found, indicating a circumplex structure. The means of the response strategies indicate a

curvilinear pattern. The level of explained variance is 59.459 per cent, almost 60 per cent, is high enough (Hair et al., 2014). The results are presented in Appendix 2.3.

Preliminary Factor Solution Decision-making

The ideal solution is to find four factors: experimental engagement, experimental ability, rational engagement, and rational ability. The factor analysis identified four factors in this study with an explained variance of 46.79%. As it is under 60%, it is considered low. The four factors do not indicate the subscales of engagement and ability. Two factors indicate individuals with experimental ability and experimental engagement. One factor indicates people with rational ability and rational engagement. The last factor refers to people with rational ability.

4.1.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The results of the exploratory factor analysis were used in the confirmatory factor analysis. The validity of the six factors were tested. The confirmatory factor analysis analysed the convergence validity, discriminant validity, and reliability.

Convergence validity means that the average variance extraction (AVE) is compared to the proportion of explained variance in the factor analysis. This needs to be above 0.5. The square root AVE needs to be more than the correlations between the latent variables, to assess discriminant validity. This research used the Cronbach's alpha to test the construct reliability and measure the internal consistency of the set of items belonging to each other. Cronbach's alpha should be above 0.7.

Response Strategies

The researcher removed items with high cross-loadings and low internal consistency leaving 22 items. For the convergent validity, all factors have an AVE-value of 0.5 to 0.67. The reliability of the six factors are above 0.7, indicating that the constructs are reliable. These results can be seen in Appendix 2.4. The normed chi-square is 1.746, below 3, making this model acceptable. The CFI is 0.882 is also acceptable, and indicates that the model fits well (Hair et al., 2014). The RMSEA in the model is 0.076. A value below 0.06 is a good fit, and a value below 0.08 is an acceptable fit. The RMSEA indicates the inadequacy of fit (Hair et al. 2014). The GFI is 0.782, which evaluates the fit between an estimated model and the observed covariance matrix. A GFI above 0.9 considerate a good fit. The GFI for the response strategies is quite low. The results are shown in Appendix 2.6.

Decision-making

After removing the items with high cross-loading and low internal consistency, 11 items are left.

For the convergent validity, all factors have an AVE-value between 0.37 to 0.54. An AVE-value below 0.5 does not suggest adequate convergent validity. The reliability for all factors are above 0.6, this is below 0.7. The average inter-item correlation of the factors are low. This means a low internal consistency of the factors of decision making. This can be seen in Appendix 2.3. The normed chi-square is 1.386; below 3 making the model acceptable. The CFI is 0.937, above 0.9, indicating that the model fits well. The RMSEA in the model is 0.056. As this value is below 0.06, it is a good fit. The RMSEA indicates the unsuitability of fit (Hair et al. 2014). The GFI is 0.933, which evaluates the fit between an estimated model and the observed covariance matrix. A GFI above 0.9 is considered a good fit. The results are shown in Appendix 2.7.

Discriminant Validity

The researcher checked the AVE-value between the different constructs to assess the discriminant validity. The constructs have discriminant validity, when the squared root of the AVE is more than the latent variables correlations, which is similar for response strategies and decision-making. There is discriminant validity for the latent variables. The outcomes are presented in Appendix 2.6 and 2.7.

4.1.4 MANCOVA

Assumptions

Before the MANCOVA analysis can be started, the assumptions need to be met.

First, the researcher assumes the categories of the independent variables are fixed. The categories are mutually exclusive.

Second, the dependent variables need to be distributed normally, which does not happen in this study. For opportunism, the skewness is below two. The transformations improve the skewness and kurtosis slightly for patience, creative voice, considerate voice, and aggressive voice. The significant outcomes do not change when using the transformed variables and the adjusted R²

decreased. Therefore, this research did not use the transformed variables. The transformations are presented in Appendix 2.8.

Third, there is an equal variance across groups. This strongly affects the F-test. The Box's M test, measures the homogeneity of the variance-covariance matrices. The Box's M test is significant, this means that there is homogeneity of variance. Therefore, the researcher used the Pillai's Trace. This measure is more robust when the Box's M test is significant. The Levene's test is significant for one response strategy, the considerate voice, with an alpha level of 0.001. This result indicate that the error variance of the dependent variable is not equal across groups. The last assumption is to check for outliers, which can affect the analysis. Therefore, it is important to delete the outliers in the analysis. The output for the assumptions is presented in Appendix 2.8.

Manipulation Check

The respondents understood the manipulation. The descriptive table shows that the most important partnership has the highest mean and the least important partnership has the lowest mean. The output is presented in Appendix 2.8.

MANCOVA Results

The results of MANCOVA analysis show significant effects, when all variables are analysed simultaneously. The Box's M test is not significant, therefore the researcher used the Pillai's Trace's measure. The direct effects of investments ($V = 0.092$, $F(6.113) = 1.915$, $p = 0.084$) are not significant. Therefore, hypothesis 1 and 2 can be rejected.

The direct effect of involvement ($V = 0.136$, $F(6.113) = 2.957$, $p < 0.05$) is significant. The interaction effects between investment and involvement ($V = 0.137$, $F(6.113) = 2.979$, $p < 0.05$) is also significant. The control variable rational ($V=0.196$, $F(6.113) = 4.581$, $p < 0.001$) and rational ability ($V=0.119$, $F(6.113) = 2.547$, $p < 0.05$) are significant. The control variables experimental 1 ($V=0.037$, $F(6.113) = 0.720$, $p = 0.634$) and experimental 2 ($V=0.028$, $F(6.113) = 0.542$, $p = 0.775$) are not significant. Therefore, hypotheses 7 and 8 can be rejected (see table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Results Mancova

Effect	Pillai's Trace's	F	N2	Sign.
Investment	0,092	1,915	0,092	0,084
Involvement	0,136	2,957	0,136	0,010*
Investment * involvement	0,137	2,979	0,137	0,010*
Experimental 1	0,037	0,720	0,037	0,634
Rational	0,196	4,581	0,196	0,000***
Experimental 2	0,028	0,542	0,028	0,775
Rational ability	0,119	2,547	0,119	0,024*

Note: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

Direct Effect of Involvement

The analysis shows that there are significant difference between high and low involvement ($V = 0.136$, $F(6.113) = 2.957$, $p < 0.05$). The difference is significant for the following response strategies: exit strategy ($F(1.118) = 12.571$, $p < 0.01$) and creative voice strategy ($F(1.118) = 4.623$, $p < 0.05$).

Managers in alliances with low involvement prefer the exit strategy compared to managers in alliances with high involvement. However, managers in alliances with high involvement prefer the creative voice strategy compared to managers in alliances with low involvement. The partial eta squared for the exit strategy is 0.096 and the partial eta squared for the creative voice strategy is 0.038, which indicates a weak effect. The observed power for the exit strategy is 0.940 and for the creative voice strategy the observed power is 0.569. The power for creative voice strategy is low, because it is below 0.8. There is no significant effect for the following response strategies: opportunism, patience, considerate voice and aggressive voice (see table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Direct effect of involvement

Response strategy	M high involvement	M low involvement	F	Sig.
Exit	6,631	8,775	12,571	0,001**
Opportunism	5,773	6,238	0,624	0,431
Patience	2,383	3,084	2,261	0,135
Creative voice	11,604	10,880	4,623	0,034*
Aggressive voice	9,366	9,108	0,296	0,587
Considerate voice	11,452	10,936	2,421	0,122

Note: *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.



Control Variables

The multivariate test shows two control variables as significant. These control variables are rational ($F(1.118) = 14.384, p < 0.001$) and rational ability ($F(1.118) = 8.284, p < 0.05$). The adjusted R2 increases when the control variables are added, which explains some of the variance in the model.

The control variables are significant for the response strategy, considerate voice. The B-coefficients of both variables are positive for the considerate voice strategy. Managers with a rational ability and rational engagement prefer more a considerate voice strategy. The partial eta squared for the considerate voice strategy for the control variable rational is 0.109 with a power of 0.964. For rational ability, the partial eta squared for considerate voice is 0.066 with a power of 0.815. This indicates for both control variables a weak effect. The control variables experimental 1 and experimental 2 are not significant.

Table 4.3 Summary of the hypotheses

Hypothesis	Results	Explanation
1	Rejected	There are no significant results found for the effect of investments on response strategy
2	Rejected	There are no significant results found for the effect of investments on response strategy
3	Partially supported	Respondents who are in alliances with high involvement prefer an active-constructive response strategy more in adverse situations. They are more likely to choose creative voice. There are no significant results found for considerate voice.
4	Partially supported	Respondents who are in alliances with low involvement prefer an active-destructive response strategy more in adverse situations. They are more likely to choose an exit strategy. There are no significant results found for opportunism and aggressive voice.
5	Rejected	There are no significant results found for the effect of experimental ability on response strategy
6	Rejected	There are no significant results found for the effect of experimental engagement on response strategy



7	Partially supported	There are significant results found for the effect of rational ability on response strategy. Managers with a rational ability prefer more a considerate voice response strategy in adverse situations. No significant results are found for patience and creative voice.
8	Partially supported	There are significant results found for the effect of rational engagement on response strategy. Managers with a rational engagement prefer more a considerate voice response strategy in adverse situations. No significant results are found for patience and creative voice.

Additional Insights

The analysis shows that the interaction effect between investment and involvement is significant for considerate voice strategy ($F(1,129) = 10.112, p < 0.01$). Managers in alliances with low involvement and high investments or high involvement and low investments prefer the considerate voice strategy in adverse situations compared to managers with low involvement and low investments or high involvement and high investments. The partial eta squared of the considerate voice strategy is 0.079, which indicates a weak effect.

The study found no significant for the following response strategies: exit, opportunism, patience, considerate voice, and aggressive voice (see table 4.4)

Table 4.4 Interaction effect between investment and involvement

Response strategy	Low involv/ low invest	Low involv/ high invest	High involv/ low invest	High involv/ high invest.	F	Sig
Exit	9,685	7,865	6,475	6,787	3,0398	0,084
Opportunism	6,199	6,277	4,775	6,770	2,593	0,110
Patience	3,111	3,057	2,504	2,263	0,040	0,842
Creative v	10,283	11,478	11,532	11,675	2,398	0,124
Aggressive v	8,599	9,616	9,384	9,348	1,202	0,275
Considerate v	10,200	11,673	11,781	11,124	10,112	0,002**

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

4.2 Results Interview

The results of the interviews are explained through a substantiation of quotes from the managers. The transcription and the codes of the interviews are presented in Appendix 3.

4.2.1 Investments

Profit organization X needs NGOs for their knowledge and network, to develop and sell new concepts. Therefore, profit organisation X invests in the partnership with NGOs. NGOs need also firms, receiving funding and projects from profit organisations. The NGO depends on the profit organisations and therefore invest much labour to secure the partnership. This dependency encourages active-constructive behaviour in adverse situations.

This researcher based this deduction on the following quotes.

“So what you see it that, the moment we take initiative, we will be appreciated by NGOs. And that is very important.” (respondent 2)

“Uh what you see is that the partnership with NGOs, we learn a lot from them uh how it works in practice, we can develop concepts which we can sell. But therefore we need NGOs to pull up with and to invest with.” (respondent 2)

“Ja, they mainly finance our projects. We will make sure we will exempt someone to maintain the partnership with profit organization x.” (respondent 1)

“Profit organisation x makes us successful, because they give us a lot of money under conditions. Ja they finance our projects. Uh that is for us a very important client and financier. So, we will do everything to preserve the partnership.” (respondent 1)

Another reason that high investments motivate active-constructive behaviour is that the investment costs increase the risk of a partnership, and managers will hold onto the partnership to safe their investments (respondent 1,2 and 3).

“In partnership x we invest 100.000 euros. We will exempt someone to hold on the partnership”. (respondent 1)

“And that is a lot of money for us, really a lot of money. That is a half to one percent of our revenue. But when you have invest a lot, you will hold on.”(respondent 2)

“But when you are in the project, perhaps you invest more and take more risk, more than you would like to do.” (respondent 2)

Respondent 1 and 3 argued that investments are a form of commitment, indicating a high level of interaction between the partners. Partners depend on each other to achieve their goals. This feeling increases the investments in the partnership (respondent 3). Investments provide commitment and interaction, which enhance involvement. Thus, investments and involvement strengthen each other. When a manager invests in the partnership, he or she believes there is a chance for a successful alliance between the organisations. The author base this conclusion on the following quote.

“when the partners invest in something, they also want that the partnership will be a success”
(respondent 1)

“Look, I think when you invest in something. Whether that is money or it is more manpower. I think it is a form of commitment. When you are ready to commit, you are ready to participate active.” (respondent 3)

According to all respondents, low investment costs creates a destructive response strategy. When a partner terminates the relationship, neither partners will have substantial costs or lose investments. When the alliance faces a setback, it is easier to choose termination. Parties choose to end their collaboration as no resources are lost. This assumption is based on the following quotes about partnerships with low investment costs.

“When someone does not feel it anymore, you stop. And you need to know that they should like it too, it must also yield something and otherwise uh okay than we each go our own way.”
(respondent 1)

“There have to be mutual benefits. And when there is no mutual benefit, you get disengaged partners.” (respondent 3)

Investments motivate active-constructive behaviour in adverse situations. When partners depend on each other, it enhances the investments in the partnership, and managers want to protect their investments. Investments are also a form of commitment; this stimulates active-constructive behaviour in adverse situations. Low investments provide destructive response strategies, as it is easier to terminate or ignore the partnership without having substantial losses. From these results, it follows that the interviews support hypotheses 1 and 2.

4.2.2 Involvement

Organisations feel the societal pressure to increase their positive social impact, but they often cannot do it alone. Respondents 3 and 4 stated that different types of expertise are needed to understand the complexity. Respondent 1 argued that, when partners collaborate on a project, and there is a conflict of interests, the partners need to be transparent. According to respondent 3, it is crucial for partners to be honest with each other why it turned out differently. The partners must do everything to make it work.

According to all respondents, trust and motivation are vital for a partnership between NGOs and profit organisations. It is important to pay attention to the process and the people in the partnership. Everyone must feel heard. When the basis of the partnership is honest and robust, the managers tend to be more accepting and willing to compromise compared to alliances, where the relationship is not steady (respondent 3).

Trust is necessary for a healthy relationship. Open communication and honest interest in the other's goals can create trust, and help the partners to explore each other's businesses (respondents 1, 3 and 4). Trust between partners increases the likelihood of a continuation of the alliance in an (respondent 2).

“So uh I think NGO x can fairly easily looks for another partners, but we too. You know, so it is uh the trust which helps you further.” (respondent 2)

Relationship management is crucial to make the partnership a success (respondent 4).

Based on interview 1, high involvement encourages constructive behaviour and an active-constructive response strategy in adverse situations. The intrinsic motivation of the partnership is important for managers. The partnership needs to support the mission of the NGO. When the

firm has intrinsic motivation to contribute to society, it enhances its involvement in the partnership.

“As long as you have good conversations, you can explain things, so continue to measure what you are doing, explain, be honest. Then you have to get out of there.” (respondent 4)

“They think along with us, they try to help us, they have the same mind set. They understand us and they understand that we also want to earn money.” (respondent 2)

“The more you are intrinsically intertwined, uh ja, the more difficult it is to exit.”
(respondent 1)

Respondent 1, who supports high involvement, is in a partnership with profit organisation X. Supporters of the NGO critiqued this partnership, because of organisation X uses a lot of plastic in their business. Respondent 1 displayed active-constructive behaviour by communicating his motivation for the alliance to the supporters of the NGO.

“We get questions from our supporters and we try to answer these questions as well as possible, because we believe their intrinsic motivation is true and they want to do something for their own social responsibility” (respondent 1)

Respondent 2 argued that in alliances with high involvement, it is essential to draw up clear agreements in advance to cater for the partners' different interests. The profit organisation wants to make the world better while earning money within the alliance. Making a profit is not the primary objective of an NGO, which could be a conflict of interest but can also encourage active-constructive behaviour in adverse situations.

“You need to make good agreements. Because both have other interests.” (respondent 2)

“The moment when there is a problem, they have a problem-solving attitude to think along with us. And they do not say, ja, that is your problem.” (respondent 2)

Communication is crucial in the partnership. The partner feels annoyed, when there are no agreements about the decision-making process or the internal and external communication to

society. Therefore, string agreements about the internal and external communication are necessary (respondent 3). Open communication decreases uncertainty as both parties are cognisant about the workings of the partnership. Uncertainty stimulates aggression in the partnership. Limited trust in the partnership creates low involvement, which leads to an active-destructive response strategy.

“And uh when the trust does not recover, you need to stop.” (respondent 1).

“What happened at that time was that the parties choose to exit the partner. No thought was given to help each other, how can we take care that uh what are the possibilities.” (respondent 3).

“You do not let you use for their goals, you can pronounce for that. And when other parties will do that, I choose to stop the partnership.” (respondent 1)

Trust, communication and the intrinsic motivation are key aspects for the involvement in the alliance. Highly involved managers apply active-constructive response strategies, while low involvement stimulates active-destructive response strategies. The results from the interviews reject hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 4 is supported by the interviews; managers in alliances with low involvement prefer active-destructive response strategies in adverse situations.

4.2.3 Decision-making

Respondent 1 and 3 agreed that they make emotive-driven decisions; their need to contribute to society. Firms and NGOs that feel they need each other to have a positive social impact are more invested (respondent 3). Managers with an experimental thinking style prefer constructive response strategies in a calm and harmonious situation; based on the following quote.

“I think everybody knows, we need to do it together. So, you need to invest more.” (respondent 3)

Respondent 1 opts for gentle relations as opposed to hard strategies like aggressive voice and opportunism.

“Ja, I am really soft in relations. It is about trust from inside and I am not a collaboration partner who is going to make it difficult for someone else.” (respondent 1).

However, managers with an experimental thinking style prefer more active-destructive response strategies in adverse situations. When a partner feels exploited in the alliance, they may respond aggressively.

“You don't have to get bragged. You don't just have to let yourself used for their goals, then you can speak up for that.” (respondent 1)

“When other parties do that, than I choose to terminate the partnership.” (respondent 1)

“When people feel uncertainty, than they often uh, when they do not address it. You get hostility. You get violence.” (respondent 3)

Respondent 2 and 4 prefer a rational decision-making style; their decisions are calculated and ‘business-like.’ These managers tend to screen and vet their potential partner. Managers with an rational decision-making style want to reduce risk. Forming transparent agreements in advance is necessary; both parties understand the expectations and goals.

Managers 2 and 4 prefer active-constructive response behaviour in adverse situations.

“Uh he, so you need to do everything to make the partnership a success, and when a project is not a success you need to be transparent uh you need to be very clear why this happens.” (respondent 4)

“At the moment you are clear, open and transparent, you often come to an agreement.” (respondent 2)

Managers with an experimental thinking style prefer constructive response strategies when the alliance is harmonious, but when they feel exploited or that the partner is not fully invested, they opt for active-destructive response strategies like exit, opportunism and aggressive voice. This finding supports hypothesis 5 and 6. The managers with an rational thinking style wants to reduce risks and make business-like decisions. They formulate clear agreements beforehand, to ensure the success of the partnership. Rational managers prefer active-constructive response strategies, such as creative voice and considerate voice in adverse situations. These results partially support hypothesis 7 and 8, because no explanation is found for patience.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

This research investigated the response behaviour of managers in alliances between NGOs and firms, in adverse situations. This study specifically examined the effect of investments and involvement on the response behaviour. Furthermore, this research controlled for the effect of managers' decision-making behaviour. With a vignette study among 131 students and four interviews with managers of NGOs and firms, the researcher found a significant effect of involvement on response strategy. The decision-making behaviour of managers can also influence the response strategy.

5.1 Interpretation of the Findings

Investments

According to the interviews, investments directly influence the choice of response strategy by alliance managers in adverse situations. The study found that when the investments in the alliances are high, alliance managers prefer creative voice and considerate voice responses.

Creative voice and considerate voice are active-constructive response strategies. There are substantial costs when a partner terminates the alliance. Managers do not want to lose their investments.

The respondents further stated that low investment costs evoke destructive response strategies. When the partner terminates the alliance, there are no substantial costs.

However, the results of the vignette study do not support these results. There are no significant results found for the effect of investments on the response strategy. There is a discrepancy between the results of the vignette study and interviews.

Involvement

The involvement of the manager in the alliance has a significant effect on the preferences of response strategy by alliance managers. Managers in alliances with high involvement prefer creative voice strategy more in adverse situations. When the involvement is high, alliance managers prefer an active-constructive response strategy.

This finding does not support hypothesis 3. The expectation was that, when the involvement is high in the partnership, managers prefer passive-constructive response strategies. However, according to the interviews, managers in an alliance with high involvement also prefer active-

constructive response strategies. The respondents disagreed that high involvement provides passive behaviour. It follows that the results of the vignette study and the interviews reject hypothesis 3.

However, the study also found significant results for low involvement. When the involvement in the alliance is low, managers prefer exit strategies compared to managers in alliances with high involvement. The exit strategy is an active-destructive response strategy in adverse situations. According to the interviews, low involvement provides an active-destructive response strategy. The respondents argued that, when the involvement partnership is low, the partnership needs to be terminated.

Trust and intrinsic motivation are necessary to continue the partnership. When there is no trust or the intrinsic motivation low, it is better to terminate the alliance. Thus, hypothesis 4 is supported by the vignette study and interviews, but the author found no significant results for the other two active-destructive response strategies: opportunism and aggressive voice.

Experimental Thinking Style

The managers of the interviews argued that managers with an experimental thinking style prefer active-destructive response strategies in adverse situations. Uncertainty can result in violence, and managers will speak up when they feel the partner takes the partnership not seriously. The vignette study shows no significant results for experimental ability and experimental engagement. Hypothesis 5 and 6 are supported by the interviews and rejected by the vignette study. So, the vignette study and the interviews do not show the same results for the effect of experimental decision making on response strategy in adverse situations.

Rational Thinking Style

The results of the vignette study show that rational thinking style influences the response strategy. Managers with a rational ability and rational engagement prefer a considerate response strategy. This research found no significant results for patience and creative voice.

The interviewees indicated that managers with a rational thinking style prefer active-constructive response strategies. Active-constructive response strategies are considerate voice and creative voice. In both studies, the results show that managers with a rational thinking style

prefer considerate voice strategy. The results of the vignette study and interviews partially support hypothesis 7 and 8.

Interpretation

Managers in alliances with high involvement are more likely to choose a creative voice strategy in an adverse situation: an active-constructive response strategy. The managers use this response strategy to implement innovative solutions to problems in a partnership. The intention is to develop mutual-satisfactory solutions (Tjemkes & Furrer, 2010; Zhou & George, 2001).

When the involvement in the partnership is low, managers are more likely to choose the exit strategy. It is easier for managers to terminate the alliances with low involvement compared to alliances with high involvement. Low involvement have a low to modest social impact (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012a; Byiers et al., 2016; Van Tulder et al., 2013) and the costs to rebuild the relationship is large (Anderson & Narus, 1990; Brouthers & Bamossy, 2006).

The thinking style of managers can influence their response strategy. Managers with a rational thinking style are more likely to choose considerate voice strategy in adverse situations. They want to improve the partnership through communication and discussing the issues with the partner cooperative (Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Ping, 1993). Managers with a rational thinking style are more risk-averse; they want to reduce uncertainty and create commitment (Scott & Bruce, 1995; Tjemkes & Furrer, 2011). Therefore, the managers vet potential partners and draw up transparent agreements.

When managers with a rational thinking style face an adverse situation, they will work hard to make the partnership a success. They would communicate openly and clearly about the problems which may hinder and the solutions which may save the partnership.



Table 5.1 Summary of the significant response strategies in both studies

Variables	Response strategy vignette	Response strategy interview
High level of investments	-	Active-constructive
Low level of investments	-	Destructive
High level of involvement	Creative voice (active-constructive)	Constructive
Low level of involvement	Exit (active-destructive)	Active-destructive
Experimental thinking style	-	Active-destructive
Rational thinking style	Considerate voice (active-constructive)	Active-constructive

5.2 Additional Insights

The exploratory factor analyses identified a circumplex structure and six response strategies. The study did not find a neglect strategy. The MANCOVA analyses and interviews found no significant results for passive response strategies, indicating that involvement and rational thinking style encourage active response strategies.

There is a significant interaction effect between investment and involvement. When the investments are high, there is a form of dependency, which fosters commitment. Commitment provides involvement in the alliances. This link is similar for high involvement. When the involvement is high, managers are more willing to invest in the alliance.

In the vignette study, the researcher found a significant interaction effect between investment and involvement. Managers in partnerships with low involvement and high investments prefer considerate voice strategies compared to alliances with low involvement and investments.

Managers in a partnership with high involvement and low investments also prefer a considerate voice strategy compared to managers in alliances with high involvement and investments. Therefore, managers in transactional and integrative partnerships prefer considerate voice strategies compared to managers in philanthropic and transnational partnerships.

Chapter 6: Discussion

The last chapter discusses the academic implication and the managerial application of this research. It also explains the limitations of the research and how these affect the results.

6.1 Academic Implication

This study offers new insights in the alliances between firms and NGOs. Most studies conduct research on alliances between firms (Furrer et al., 2012).

This study expands the existing knowledge about the response behaviours of managers in alliances between firms and NGOs. Therefore, this research contributes to the alliance literature.

This research employs the four relational-based alliances of Austin and Seitanidi (2012) to investigate the effect of involvement and investment on response strategies. Furthermore, this research extends current alliance literature to control for managers' cognitive styles based on the theory of Pacini and Epstein (1999).

This research broadens current literature because the effect of investments and involvement is measured based on relational-based alliances. The researcher found significant results for involvement. When the involvement is high, managers prefer creative voice strategies in an adverse situation. However, when the involvement is low, managers prefer an exit strategy.

Trust and commitment are necessary to continue a partnership (Cullen et al., 2000; Uzzi, 1997). Without trust and commitment, it is better to terminate the alliance.

Furrer et al. (2012) found that high investments provide active response strategies. However, the results of the vignette study do not support that theory. This research measures the effect for alliances between firms and NGOs and not for alliances between investments. Therefore, the results of both studies may differ.

Currently, there is a dearth of research on the effects of the four types of relational-based alliances (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012) on response strategy. The author recommends further research on these four types of relational-based alliances, with managers.

This research adds to the current literature by including managers' thinking style. There is research investigating the different thinking styles in decision-making but none on the effect of

managers' cognitive styles on response strategies in alliances situations. This research controls for the effect of managers' experimental or rational thinking styles on response strategies. Managers with an experimental, also called intuitive thinking style, are more risk-prone (Burke & Miller, 1999; Pretz & Totz, 2007; Sadler-Smith & Shefy, 2004).

The author found no significant results for the effect of managers' experimental thinking style on response strategies. However, the results for managers with a rational thinking style were significant. These managers preferred a rational thinking style; they analyse all possible options before taking a decision (Scott & Bruce, 1995). Such managers prefer a considerate voice strategy as they want to reduce uncertainty and create commitment (Tjemkes & Furrer, 2011); therefore they want to communicate problems, cooperate, and ensure the partnership is a success (Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Ping, 1993).

Further research to study the effect of managers' decision behaviour in strategic alliances and the subscales of Pacini and Epstein (1999) is recommended. More research can be generated if the subscales, ability and engagement, lead to different response strategies. In this research, the subscales are not found.

6.2 Managerial Implication

Austin and Seitanidi (2012) argued that four different collaborations exist, depending on the degree of investments and involvement. Other studies investigated the influences of investments and involvement on the response strategy and employed the seven response strategies of Furrer et al. (2012).

This research combined these two theories, investigating the effect of investment and involvement on the response strategy of managers. In addition, it employed the theory of Pacini and Epstein (1999), to control for the decision-making behaviour of managers.

The researcher found significant effects for involvement on response strategies. When the involvement is high, managers prefer a creative voice strategy. Involvement encourages trust and commitment. The intrinsic motivation of the partner is essential. The partners can foster trust and commitment through open communication; talking about important issues in the alliance and delving into the other business. For a successful alliance, it is essential to pay attention to the relationship. With a strong, supportive relationship, the partners can weather many storms.

When the involvement is low, managers are more likely to terminate the alliance. Therefore, mutual benefits are necessary to increase involvement when partners start collaboration.

It is advisable to collaborate and agree on a clear set of expectations, values, principles, and goals, to nurture the relationship between partners. Decreasing uncertainty and creating commitment is vital for rational thinking managers. Managers with a rational thinking style prefer to communicate with each other in a clear, open, and transparent way to avoid negative consequences.

6.3 Limitations

The first limitation is that there are six of the seven response strategies found with the factor analysis. The researcher did not find the neglect strategy. Therefore the hypothesis for the neglect strategy could not be tested. Different items had double loaders and could not be included in the analyses (Hair et al., 2014).

The second limitation is that there is an ultra-Heywood case for the exploratory factor analysis of the decision-making behaviour of managers. The model, which is fitting is incorrect. This issue can occur due to small sample size, sampling variability, or model misspecification. The last variable 55 cannot be deleted from the model, because the communality of variable 49 is above one. The communality of this variable is quite low, and therefore, the explained variance of the factor analysis of decision-making is low (Hair et al., 2012). For the decision-making style, the subscales are not found. Therefore the difference between ability and engagement could not be tested, because these variables load on the same factor.

The third limitation is that some strategies are not distributed normally. The skewness and kurtosis are above two. An assumption for the analysis is that the dependent variables need to be distributed normally (Hair et al., 2014). Further, the Box M test is significant, and therefore the Pillai's Trace's will be used for MANCOVA.

The limited-time to conduct this research is the fourth limitation. The researcher interviewed four managers from firms or NGOs to compare the outcomes with the vignette study. The sample size is too small to generalise the results to a larger population. Further research with more interviews among other managers, can enhance the external validity of this study.

The researcher conducted the vignette study among a student population as it was not achievable to identify 131 managers, with cross-sector partnerships within the limited timeframe. Therefore, the outcomes of the vignette study can differ from the outcomes of interviews with the managers. However, when the researcher compared the results of the vignette study to the interviews with the managers, she noticed a similarity in responses.

The author recommends further research conducting a vignette study among managers of NGOs and firms who have more alliance experience to enhance the external validity of this research.

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