A Cross-Cultural Perspective of Marketing Departments' Influence Tactics

Andreas Engelen and Malte Brettel

ABSTRACT

Recent marketing literature has shown that an influential marketing department is a driver of an organizationwide market orientation and, in some studies, of firm performance. Recognizing the importance of a strong marketing department, this study develops a theoretical model of the levers of marketing departments' influence and examines the degree to which the effects of the levers are subject to national cultural variations. The authors empirically validate the theoretical model using 740 firms from six Western and Asian countries. The findings reveal both culturally dependent and independent effects. For example, although a great degree of innovativeness in the marketing department has a positive impact on the department's influence across cultures, a high level of accountability and integration with other departments shows cultural dependencies. Global marketing managers learn whether they should advise their local marketing department to use standardized influence tactics or make necessary adaptations to local circumstances.

Keywords: cross-cultural marketing, national culture, coalitional view, marketing influence, marketing department

The extant literature shows that an influential marketing department drives an organization's market orientation (Verhoef and Leeflang 2009) and, in some cases, its performance (Moorman and Rust 1999). In a study of seven Western countries, Verhoef et al. (2009) find that a marketing department's accountability and innovativeness are major determinants of its influence in the organization, thus the marketing department can control its level of influence by developing specific capabilities. However, because Verhoef et al. show the determinants of the marketing department's influence only in the Western context, it is unknown whether their findings apply in other cultural settings, such as in the Asian context.

This issue is worth addressing for several reasons: First, the influence tactics employed by a marketing department aim to change the attitudes and behaviors of other organizational members, whether top management or other functional areas, consistent with the marketing department's interests (Homburg, Workman, and Krohmer 1999). In addition, national culture is considered a major driver of people's perceptions and behaviors in organizations (Triandis 1994). Therefore, the effectiveness of influence tactics might depend on people's cultural predeterminations because people who have different cultural predeterminants react differently to specific influence tactics. In the related research stream of managerial influence tactics, Fu and Yukl (2000) find empirical differences between the effectiveness of influence tactics in different national contexts. Thus, both theoretical arguments and empirical findings on the individual level of influence tactics indicate that the effectiveness of marketing departments' tactics can be culturally dependent. Second, in addition to examining marketing

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as a separate function, the marketing literature has examined the construct of market orientation as an organizationwide business culture, and recent research indicates that the organizational drivers of the market orientation construct are subject to national cultural characteristics (Brettel et al. 2008). For example, a participative leadership style is more important in the European context than in the Asian context. These findings provide a sound basis for assuming that similar cultural dependencies exist for the drivers of marketing departments' influence. However, given the dominance in this research field of empirical studies in Western countries, no final determination has been made.

Third, from a managerial perspective, marketing's role is in decline; according to many senior managers, "marketing has died, [is] impotent, or most likely [will] become irrelevant" (Schultz 2003, p. 7), and "marketers are being marginalized, in the sense that many strategically important aspects of marketing are being taken away by other functions in the organization" (Sheth and Sisodia 2005, p. 11). Because the marketing department is the organizational subunit in which most marketing experts work, it is important for marketing practitioners to understand how a marketing department can regain its influence in the organization (Nath and Mahajan 2008). For global marketing managers—that is, people in charge of marketing departments in several countries—the task is even more complex because they need to know whether to provide local marketing departments with standardized advice on influence tactics or differentiated advice on how the departments can maintain or increase their influence.

This study develops a theoretical model that examines the degree to which the effect of marketing departments' various influence tactics is dependent on national cultural characteristics. To empirically validate the model, we collected survey data from 740 firms in culturally diverse national settings: Austria, Germany, and the United States (representing Western countries) and Hong Kong, Thailand, and Singapore (representing Asian countries).

We begin by presenting the theoretical premises of the marketing department's influence in the organization and of the national culture construct. Then, we derive our research model and present the study's methodology and an outline of the findings. Finally, we interpret the findings of the study in light of their research and practical implications.

THEORETICAL PREMISES

Power and Influence of the Marketing Department

Power refers to the ability to cause changes in the attitudes or behaviors of other organization members, and influence is the exercise of power (Homburg, Workman, and Krohmer 1999). This study focuses on the concept of the marketing department's influence because it deals with the actual exercise of power rather than its mere existence. Cyert and March (1963) and Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) provide the theoretical foundation for examining a subunit's influence and power within an organization and also present the coalitional view of the firm, which states that people can band together in organizations to build coalitions whose members might have conflicting goals, preferences, and interests regarding the organization's direction. Pfeffer and Salancik (p. 230) point out that these subunits are dependent on each other for organizational resources and that "those sub-units most able to cope with the organization's critical problem acquire power in the organization." Therefore, the power and influence of an organizational subunit is a function of the degree to which other organization members are dependent on the contribution of the subunit.

Prior studies show that determinants of the marketing department's influence are found in external contingencies (e.g., market turbulence; Homburg, Workman, and Krohmer 1999) and in the marketing department's capabilities. This study draws on the determinants of influence proposed by Verhoef and Leeflang (2009), who identify five major capabilities by which a marketing department might increase its organizational influence: accountability, innovativeness, creativity, customer connecting, and integration with other departments. In the terminology of the coalitional view, these marketing capabilities are "influence tactics." When capabilities are not primarily intended to influence other members (e.g., the innovativeness of the marketing department), they are referred to as passive or expert influence tactics (Mallalieu 2006).

National Culture

Kluckhohn (1951, p. 86) provides the leading definition of national culture: "Culture consists in patterned ways of thinking, feeling, and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiment in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values." Cultural values are at the core of the national culture construct, and these values "determine and provide legitimacy for (or sanction) collective and individual preferences for certain states of affairs and modes of conduct over available alternatives" (Lachman, Nedd, and Hinings 1994, p. 41). People are born and are socialized into a national culture that determines their values, and these cultural values determine the behavior of people in organizations and establish what is appropriate behavior (Lytle et al. 1995). Cultural values permeate organizations by defining organizational phenomena as culturally acceptable, relatively neutral, or culturally unacceptable (Smircich 1983).

Steenkamp (2001, p. 36) argues that culture can be examined at the national level because there are "forces at the national level pushing to a meaningful degree of within-country commonality"; a series of studies empirically validates this view (e.g., Schwartz and Ros 1995; Smith and Schwartz 1997). Researchers have developed sets of cultural dimensions—of which the four cultural dimensions from Hofstede (2001) are the most prominent—that systematically delineate the differences among national cultures. Pursuant to prior research on organizational phenomena (Kirkman, Lowe, and Gibson 2006), we apply this framework in the current study.

The dimension of power distance refers to the degree of accepted inequality between superior and subordinate, while the dimension of individualism is related to the degree to which people are integrated into social groups. The uncertainty dimension is the degree to which people in the culture are threatened by uncertain situations, and the dimension of masculinity describes whether masculine values (e.g., monetary success) or feminine values (e.g., health) are dominant.

Hofstede's (2001) country classifications originate in the early 1970s; thus, an inherent limitation is that the country classifications might be outdated. To mitigate this issue, we built on GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) country classifications, which are also provided for some of Hofstede's dimensions (collectivism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance). Country scores for the six countries we examine correlate between Hofstede and the GLOBE study for power distance ($\rho = .90$) and individualism/collectivism ($\rho = .61$), and there are some differences for the cultural dimension of uncertainty avoidance (a low correlation of $\rho = .12$). Critics also claim Hofstede did not derive his framework on the basis of theoretical foundations. This issue is at least partly addressed in the GLOBE study (e.g., Javidan et al. 2006).

RESEARCH MODEL

The research model integrates Verhoef and Leeflang's (2009) proposed influence tactics and their effect on the marketing department's influence with Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions. We follow Lachman, Nedd, and Hinings's (1994) theoretical model, which outlines the effect of national cultural values on organizations. Lachman, Nedd, and Hinings state that an organization's employees' behaviors and perceptions are culturally predetermined by their early childhood socialization. They argue that, to achieve organizational effectiveness, an organization must find congruence between the employees' national cultural values and the values that underlie the structure and processes of the organization. When organizational practices, such as influence tactics, are inconsistent with national cultural values, employees might feel dissatisfied and not respond according to expectations. In this vein, Newman and Nollen (1996, p. 755) find that practices that "reinforce national cultural values are more likely to yield predictable behavior ... and high performance because congruent management practices are consistent with existing behavioral expectations and routines that transcend the workplace."

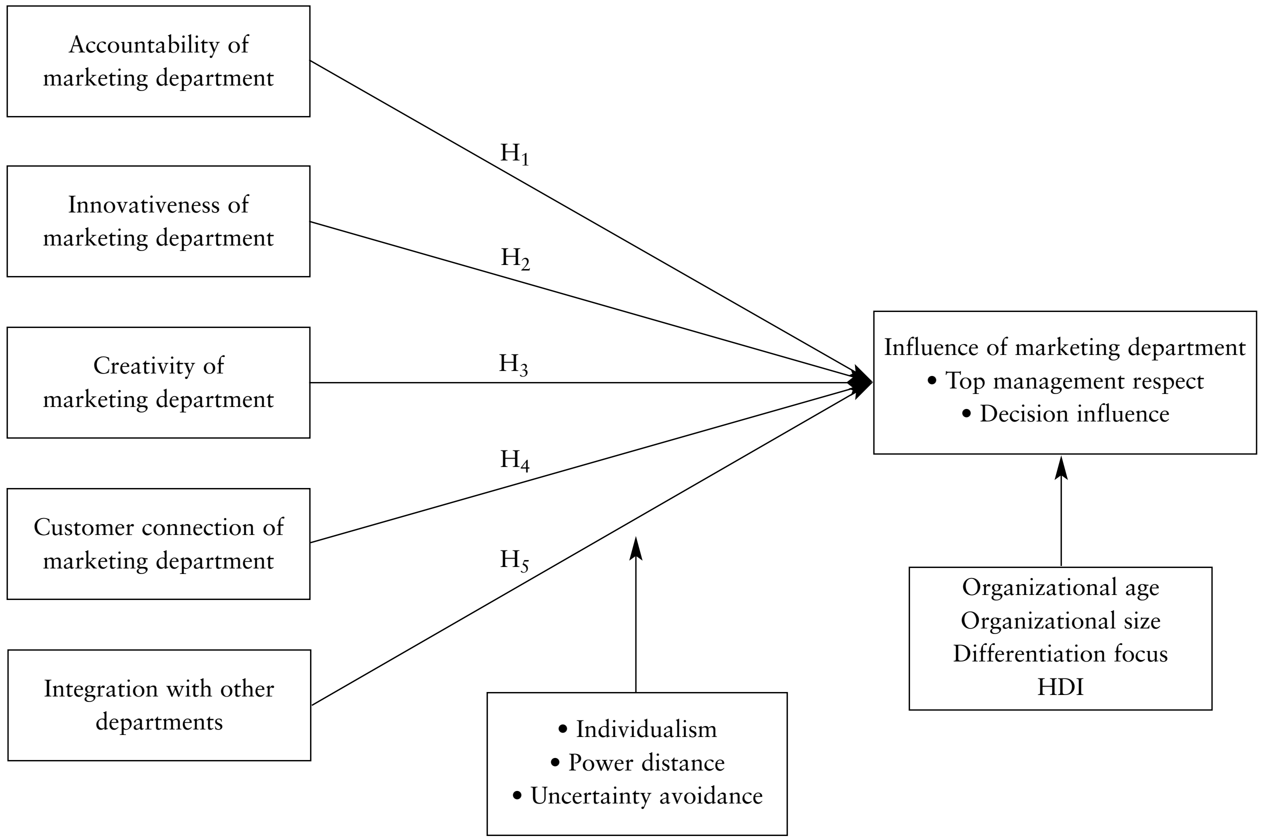
Building on this notion, we follow a two-step approach: First, for each influence tactic, we briefly address why an increase in the marketing department's influence would be expected. Second, we analyze the degree to which the influence tactic is aligned with the national cultural dimensions, focusing on the three major dimensions of individualism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance. A stronger relationship between the influence tactic and the marketing department's influence is expected when there is congruence between the nature of the influence tactic and a cultural dimension than when there is incongruence.

We control for various organizational characteristics and drivers at the national level, paying particular attention to the national macroeconomic development stage of the Human Development Index (HDI) (Cano, Carrillat, and Jaramillo 2004). Figure 1 summarizes the research model.

Accountability

Accountability is part of the group of recommendation tactics in which the source (e.g., the marketing department) predicts that the entire organization will be more profitable by following the source's proposals (Frazier

Figure 1. Overview of the Research Model



and Summers 1984). Verhoef et al. (2009) find that in the Western context, accountability consistently is positively related to the influence of the marketing department. The importance of accountability is also reflected in claims by practitioners that "[chief executive officers] are questioning whether marketing adds value to the corporation and its shareholders commensurate with its costs" (Sheth and Sisodia 2002, p. 350). Sheth and Sisodia (2005, p. 11) emphasize the practical relevance of accountability by observing that "a key problem is that most marketing managers are not finance literate and have trouble answering questions about the productivity of expenditures."

We examine whether the impact of accountability on the marketing department's influence depends on individualism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance levels. In individualist cultures, each person is considered primarily as an individual, whereas collectivist cultures consider social groups primary, with each person being a member of the social group (Triandis 1994). Therefore, individualist cultures emphasize individual decision making, and employees of organizations in these cultures have more freedom to develop, for example, marketing programs on their own, whereas collective decision making prevails in more collectivist cultures (Van Everdingen and Waarts 2003). A high degree of accountability is expected to be more important in individualist cultures because accountability is only important when the marketing department or its members have the authority to develop and implement marketing activities on their own. Collectivist cultures prefer overall group decision making at the organizational level (Singh 2006). Furthermore, harmony and compromise are major elements of collectivist cultures and are not necessarily promoted by a marketing department that develops a program and seeks to convince other organizational members (e.g., top management or other organizational functions) to follow its suggestions.

Another cultural dimension we examine is the degree of power distance, which refers to the accepted level of inequality between people in organizations (Hofstede 2001). Low power distance cultures are characterized by a stronger delegation and dissemination of decision authority and freedom for people at lower hierarchical levels because they are considered capable of working on their own (Nakata and Sivakumar 2001). Conversely, higher power distance cultures tend to leave all decision authority to top management. Thus, in low power distance countries, marketing departments are more likely to have the freedom to develop plans and activities on their own, implying the necessity of embracing accountability to gain support for these ideas. O'Sullivan and Abela (2007) show that the marketing department's performance measurement capabilities are positively related to the chief executive officer's satisfaction with marketing. However, because their study was conducted in the U.S. context, the prevalence of low power distance in the United States might underlie these findings. In high power distance cultures, a marketing department that designs plans on its own and tries to convince other organizational members to follow them is likely to conflict with the core cultural value that decisions and actions are planned and determined at the top management level. Thus, there is greater congruence between a low degree of power distance and the influence tactic of accountability.

People in cultures that rank high in uncertainty avoidance consider uncertainty and risk continuous threats that must be fought (De Luque and Javidan 2004). Uncertain situations cause stress and anxiety. By providing sound arguments for the financial outcomes of their activities, marketing departments in such cultures can decrease the uncertainty associated with their activities and better predict future events (Nakata and Sivakumar 2001). Thus, there is congruence between the influence tactic of accountability and cultures with high uncertainty avoidance because accountability addresses a major value of these cultures (i.e., the need to reduce uncertainty to avoid anxiety and stress). In cultures with low uncertainty avoidance, people are not as frightened of uncertain situations and might even consider uncertainty an opportunity to create new solutions (Hofstede 2001). Therefore, the increased transparency of marketing activities' consequences is not as highly valued as it is in cultures with high uncertainty avoidance.

In general, the influence tactic of accountability is more congruent with high levels of cultural individualism and uncertainty avoidance and low power distance. Thus:

H_1: The effect of marketing's accountability on marketing departments' influence is greater (a) when individualism is high rather than low, (b) when power distance is low rather than high, and (c) when uncertainty avoidance is high rather than low.

Innovativeness

The innovativeness of the marketing department refers to the extent to which it contributes to the development of new products and services. Because innovation is a key driver of business growth (Song and Thieme 2009), an innovative marketing department contributes critical resources to the organization, which results in more influence for the department. From a managerial perspective, a decline in the marketing department's influence is at least partly attributable to the department's lack of innovativeness, because reports show that "[chief executive officers] are often disappointed by the level of innovation in their business, for which they hold marketers at least partially accountable" (Webster, Malter, and Ganesan 2005, p. 41).

Cultures that score low on individualism place primary emphasis on group preferences and following a strong "we" mentality to which people subordinate (Triandis 2004). Maintaining harmonic relationships between people is an important characteristic of these collectivist cultures (Hofstede 2001). Because innovation involves doing something new, changes in the organization might be required, including assigning new jobs and roles to organization members. Thus, an innovative marketing department can destroy harmonic and stable relationships and thereby violate a major pillar of collectivist cultures. Because innovative marketing departments behave in contrast to the values prevalent in collectivist cultures, they are less likely to influence other organization members to change their behaviors. In cultures that score high in individualism, however, stable and harmonic relationships are not as important as they are in collectivist cultures; people in the work group tend to pay more attention to their own objectives and preferences than to those of the group (Gelfand et al. 2004). As a result, changes incited by the marketing department's innovation are more likely to be welcomed as opportunities, and concerns about temporary disruptions in harmony are less likely.

In high power distance cultures, innovations typically originate at the top management level or are significantly promoted by top management (Nakata and

Sivakumar 1996). In low power distance cultures, innovation champions exist across hierarchical levels (Shane 1994). Therefore, an innovative marketing department is likely to be more important in low power distance cultures because its innovations might run counter to the preferences of high power distance cultures, in which innovations need to originate from top management levels. Thus, a marketing department that excels in innovativeness might not be capable of changing the attitudes or behaviors of other organizational members in high power distance cultures, because members of these organizations expect innovations to come from top management.

Because high uncertainty avoidance cultures consider uncertainty and risk threats and because innovation is inherently associated with uncertain situations, innovation is antithetical to high uncertainty avoidance cultures (Hauser, Tellis, and Griffin 2006). Van Everdingen and Waarts (2003, p. 221) state that "organizations in countries with a high uncertainty avoidance index generally show characteristics such as resistance to innovation ... and the constraining of innovations by rules." In low uncertainty avoidance cultures, however, uncertain situations are not as feared and might even be valued for the new opportunities they create. Thus, innovative marketing departments address a major value of low uncertainty avoidance cultures and are likely to change the attitudes and behaviors of other organizational members.

Consequently, the association between a marketing department's innovativeness and its influence is stronger when the level of individualism is high and the level of power distance and uncertainty avoidance is low:

> H_2: The effect of marketing's innovativeness on the marketing department's influence is greater (a) when individualism is high rather than low, (b) when power distance is low rather than high, and (c) when uncertainty avoidance is low rather than high.

Creativity

The influence tactic of creativity refers to "the extent to which [the marketing department] develops actions to market products or services that represent meaningful deviations from common marketing practices in product or service categories" (Verhoef and Leeflang 2009, p. 17). Creativity can lead to product differentiation, which can have a positive impact on organizational performance (Griffiths-Hemans and Grover 2006). Therefore, a creative marketing department can contribute valuable resources to an organization; according to Pfeffer and Salancik's (1978) coalitional view of the firm, this contribution should lead to increased influence in the organization.

For collectivism and individualism, we can again apply the argument raised in the derivation of H_2 for innovativeness. A high degree of creativity might lead to new structures and solutions that can destroy the current structures and have a negative impact on the harmony among people that is highly valued in collectivist cultures. Similarly, a high degree of power distance is expected to have a negative impact on the effect of the marketing department's creativity on its influence in the organization because people in high power distance cultures do not value creative suggestions that derive from organizational levels other than top management (Nakata and Sivakumar 1996). Furthermore, a marketing department with a high degree of creativity is likely to do new things in the marketplace, such as a new promotion campaign. Although low uncertainty avoidance cultures might welcome such activities, members of high uncertainty avoidance cultures might react with stress and anxiety (De Luque and Javidan 2004). Therefore, it is unlikely that the marketing department's creativity will influence other organizational members to change their attitudes and behaviors. Thus:

> H_3: The effect of marketing's creativity on the marketing department's influence is greater (a) when individualism is high rather than low, (b) when power distance is low rather than high, and (c) when uncertainty avoidance is low rather than high.

Customer Connection

Consistent with Verhoef and Leeflang (2009, p. 17), the customer-connecting role of the marketing department refers to the extent "to which the marketing department is able to translate customer needs into solutions that fit those needs, as well as the extent to which the department demonstrates the criticality of external customers and their needs to other organizational functions." By showing that its activities are aligned with customer preferences, the marketing department shows other organizational members that its activities are likely to lead to market success. The managerial perspective emphasizes the relevance of this influence tactic because of criticisms that "marketing has come to view itself too narrowly and in many cases merely as sales support" (Sheth and Sisodia 2005, p. 11) and that marketing no longer connects with the customer (Selden and MacMillan 2006).

People in collectivist cultures value strong relationships and consider integration into groups a major element (Triandis 1994). Therefore, we expect that the marketing department's relationship with external customers is of specific importance in collectivist cultures (Ambler and Styles 2000). An isolated marketing department that does not cultivate external relationships with customers might have little influence in collectivist cultures because it ignores a major value of the culture. Conversely, in individualist cultures, relationships between people are not as important as they are in collectivist cultures (Hofstede 2001). Therefore, marketing departments that show a close customer connection do not address a major value of individualist cultures.

Regarding the power distance dimension, we argue that a strong customer connection is more aligned with low power distance cultures. In high power distance cultures, the top management is responsible for all crucial organizational activities (Nakata and Sivakumar 2001); thus, the expectation might be that the customer-connecting role is limited to top management members. In low power distance cultures, in which people across all hierarchical levels are expected to take important actions on their own, organizational members expect the marketing department and its members to show customer proximity.

The influence tactic of customer connecting can reduce uncertainty and risk involved in activities and thus holds a stronger appeal in high uncertainty avoidance cultures. Integrating the customers' perspective in product development decisions reduces the risk of failure in the marketplace, which is likely to be highly valued in high uncertainty avoidance cultures (Griffith, Myers, and Harvey 2006). In contrast, low uncertainty avoidance cultures do not strongly value the customer integration efforts of a marketing department, because uncertain situations do not have the same problematic relevance as they do in high uncertainty avoidance cultures.

Examining the influence of national culture on the effect of marketing's customer connection, we offer the following hypothesis:

H_4: The effect of marketing's customer connection on the marketing department's influence is greater (a) when individualism is low rather than high, (b) when power distance is low rather than high, and (c) when uncertainty avoidance is high rather than low.

Integration with Other Departments

Research in both innovation and marketing has extensively examined the integration of marketing with other departments, concluding that, in general, more integration leads to better performance (Troy, Hirunyawipada, and Paswan 2008). Integration with other departments is an influence tactic of coalition formation, whereby the marketing department builds alliances with other functions to gain support for its programs and activities (Verhoef and Leeflang 2009). From a managerial perspective, problems with other functional departments are a major reason for marketing's current situation because "clashes between marketing and other departments also have been reported in the popular press and are considered a cause of marketing's decline within the firm" (Schultz 2003, p. 9).

In collectivist cultures, people are tightly integrated into groups; people also have a strong "we" mentality and make their decisions according to what is best for the group (Triandis 1994). When a marketing department integrates with other functions in the organization, it addresses a major value of collectivist cultures. As Nakata and Sivakumar (2001, p. 265) state, "Interaction and interdependency coincide with collectivism and collectivism with intensive information sharing." In their study on managerial influence tactics, Fu and Yukl (2000) find that coalition formation is a major influence tactic in the collectivist Chinese context, and it has less importance in the more individualistic U.S. context. Individualist cultures do not value strong group adherence to the same extent, and they have a stronger "I" mentality.

Regarding power distance, the accepted inequality in high power distance cultures leads to centralized decision structures and the use of formal rules that constrain information sharing and collaboration between departments by hierarchy (Van Everdingen and Waarts 2003). Nakata and Sivakumar (2001) find that low power distance cultures have fewer boundaries between people; therefore, organizational structures that require direct interaction between people can be established, and the influence tactic of integration with other departments is feasible.

The resource-dependency view advocates cross-functional integration because uncertainty is reduced when each function contributes unique perspectives (Olson et al. 2001). When organizational members in high uncertainty avoidance cultures recognize strong integration between marketing and other departments, they develop greater confidence in the overall coalition because it is less likely for relevant aspects of decisions to be ignored and more likely for the uncertainty of decision making to be reduced. Therefore, the influence tactic of integration is more suitable in the context of high uncertainty avoidance cultures. In low uncertainty avoidance cultures, because people are not as concerned with uncertain situations, integrating the marketing department with other departments is not as highly valued as it is in high uncertainty avoidance cultures (Griffith, Myers, and Harvey 2006). Thus:

> H_5: The effect of marketing's integration with other departments on the marketing department's influence is greater (a) when individualism is low rather than high, (b) when power distance is low rather than high, and (c) when uncertainty avoidance is high rather than low.

METHODOLOGY

Samples

We conducted a survey to empirically validate our theoretical model. The industry sectors we targeted were financial services, consumer goods, utilities, chemical, automotive, and machinery/electronics in all countries to ensure sampling frame equivalence. We generated data from 740 firms in Austria (79 firms), Germany (135 firms), the United States (120 firms), Hong Kong (69 firms), Singapore (137 firms), and Thailand (200 firms). In all countries, we conducted an online survey to ensure data collection equivalence. We gathered data from January to April 2010 in all countries. For each firm, we measured the share of indigenous and foreign workforce. We excluded firms with more than 15% of foreign workforce to guarantee that there were no multinational companies that might distort effects from the local national culture. Furthermore, we excluded respondents who had been in their current position for six months or less.

We chose countries on the basis of their differences in relevant cultural dimensions (Table 1) and macroeconomic development stages, which we use in a post hoc investigation. The Western countries represent individualist cultures with low power distance and a tendency for high uncertainty avoidance. The three Asian countries are collectivist—that is, high in power distance and low in uncertainty avoidance. Although these classifications draw on Hofstede's (2001) scores, they are confirmed by more qualitative literature from anthropology that confirms, for example, that power distance and collectivism are high in the Thai culture (e.g., Browell 2000; Komin 1990; Mulder 1996) and that high individualism and low power distance are major cornerstones of the Western cultures (e.g., Glunk, Wilderom, and Ogilvie 1997).

Most of the respondents are managing directors or leading managers who are the most appropriate for assessing influence measures in an organization (e.g., Verhoef and Leeflang 2009). Table 2 shows the breakdown of respondents and organization size.

Table 1. Classifications on Cultural Dimensions from Hofstede (2001) and on Macroeconomic Measures Based on the Human Development Report (United Nations Development Program 2009) and the CIA World Factbook

	Power Distance	Individualism/ Collectivism[a]	Uncertainty Avoidance	HDI	GDP per Capita (in U.S. Dollars)
Austria	11	55	79	.955	39.40
Germany	35	67	66	.947	34.10
United States	40	91	62	.956	46.40
Hong Kong	68	20	57	.944	42.70
Singapore	74	21	48	.944	50.30
Thailand	64	20	34	.783	8.10

[a]High values reflect strong individualism. GDP = gross domestic product.

Table 2. Sample Composition Percentages

Industry	Austria	Germany	United States	Hong Kong	Singapore	Thailand
Position of Respondent						
Managing director	56	46	77	50	28	60
Leading manager	38	48	11	38	50	38
Other staff	6	6	12	12	21	2
Organization Size						
<100	44	51	40	43	31	41
100–200	50	29	41	40	39	25
>200	6	20	19	17	30	34

Because we collected both dependent and independent variables from each respondent, common method bias might be a problem in the data. To rule this out, we integrated an additional factor into the research model, on which we loaded all items in addition to their original construct (Podsakoff et al. 2003). The path coefficients of the core model remained the same after the integration of this additional factor. In addition, after adding the common method factor, we found very small differences in the fit measures between the model without the common method factor (χ^2/d.f. = 2.295, comparative fit index [CFI] = .96, root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = .06, and Tucker–Lewis index [TLI] = .95) and the model with the common method factor (χ^2/d.f. = 2.285, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .06, TLI = .96) (De Clercq, Thongpapanl, and Dimov 2009). In adition, according to Carson's (2007) formula, the trait variance for each multi-item construct is substantially greater than the method variance (Table 3).

Measures

This study draws on constructs available in the literature, and we formulated the items for the variables as Likert-type statements with a seven-point scale. To ensure translation equivalence, we translated measures into the local languages, and a third person back-translated them (Brislin 1980). We conducted qualitative interviews in all countries to ensure functional equivalence (i.e., the extent to which the behaviors have the same function across cultures), conceptual equivalence (i.e., the extent to which the domains of the concepts are the same across cultures), and category equivalence (i.e., the extent to which the classification scheme can be used across cultures) (Hult et al. 2008).

Independent Variables. The measurement models for the influence tactics of the marketing department draw on the work of Verhoef and Leeflang (2009). The measurement model for accountability, as Verhoef and Leeflang use it, is based on the work of Moorman and Rust (1999), as are the indicators for the customer-connecting role of the marketing department. The items for creativity of the marketing department are based on the work of Andrews and Smith (1996), and the items for integration with other departments build on the work of Maltz and Kohli (1996).

Dependent Variables. We measured the influence of the marketing department using two constructs: decision influence and top management respect. We measured the decision influence of each department using the method originally applied by Homburg, Workman, and Krohmer (1999), in which each respondent divides 100 points among a set of departments, assigning influential departments more points, for four major decision categories made at the organizational level: strategic direction of the organization, expansion into new geographic markets, new product development, and investment in information technology. The measurement model for top management respect is from the work of Verhoef and Leeflang (2009), who follow Van Bruggen and Wierenga's (2005) lead.

Moderating Variables. We used Hofstede's (2001) scores for measuring the cultural dimensions of individualism,

Table 3. Descriptives and Correlation Matrix with the Square Root of AVE in the Diagonal

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Accountability	.91														
2. Creativity	.37	.93													
3. Innovativeness	.25	.11	N.A.												
4. Customer connection	.36	.09	.34	.88											
5. Integration	.04	–.10	.24	.21	.93										
6. Decision influence	.23	.48	.16	.22	–.01	N.A.									
7. Perceived influence	.25	.19	.18	.09	.00	.39	.94								
8. Individualism	–.41	–.44	.10	.00	.16	–.20	.01	N.A.							
9. Power distance	.30	.49	–.08	–.03	–.16	.21	.02	–.87	N.A.						
10. Uncertainty avoidance	.26	–.45	.09	.10	.18	–.20	.07	.82	–.82	N.A.					
11. HDI	–.14	–.28	.09	.11	.15	–.13	.15	.56	–.41	.85	N.A.				
12. GDP	.00	–.14	.05	.12	.12	–.07	.18	.27	–.14	.63	.94	N.A.			
13. Firm size	.02	.08	–.04	.00	–.03	.02	–.02	–.09	.06	–.13	–.16	–.15	N.A.		
14. Firm age	.10	.09	–.01	–.03	–.08	–.13	–.19	–.14	.06	–.26	–.41	–.44	.06	N.A.	
15. Differentiation focus	–.08	.03	.05	–.05	–.05	.07	.03	–.01	.18	–.29	–.23	–.21	.08	–.01	N.A.
Statistics															
M	4.34	24.78	4.27	4.63	4.51	21.07	4.92	34.0	53.9	50.7	.88	28.722	264	32.3	48.2
SD	1.14	19.32	1.06	1.15	1.31	14.41	1.12	20.9	16.3	16.0	.08	17.323	1732	33.1	18.3
Common Method Test															
Trait variance[a]	.69	.67	—	.65	.79	.67	.81	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Method variance[a]	.12	.11	—	.09	.12	.15	.11	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

[a]Calculated using the formula provided by Carson (2007).
Notes: N.A. = not applicable. GDP = gross domestic product.

power distance, and uncertainty avoidance (Tellis, Prabhu, and Chandy 2009). We took the HDI and gross domestic product (GDP) per capita (for a post hoc investigation) from the Human Development Report (United Nations Development Program 2009) and from the Central Intelligence Agency's (CIA) World Factbook.

The Appendix shows all the items, as well as Cronbach's alphas, composite reliabilities, and values for the average variances extracted (AVEs) for all reflective constructs. Table 3 reports the correlations between constructs and the square roots of the AVEs for all multi-item constructs in the diagonal. For each construct, because the square root of the AVEs is larger than all correlations of the constructs with all other constructs, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion is fulfilled, indicating discriminant validity for our measures. Table 4 shows the means of the decision influence measures and the influence tactics across all national cultural settings.

Following Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998), we analyzed configural invariance (the same pattern of factor loadings across cultures), metric invariance (equal loadings), and scalar invariance (equal intercepts) for all multi-item constructs with three items or more. The tests of metric invariance (constraining the factor loadings to be invariant) and scalar invariance (further constraining the intercepts to be invariant) confirm a good fit of the data. When we compared accountability, creativity, and customer connection for all six countries simultaneously, partial metric and partial scalar invariance were established because of significant increases in chi-square. Overall, tests indicate that measurement models are comparable across cultures.

Econometric Model

Following our conceptual model, we formulate the econometric model as follows:

$$(1)\ \mathrm{IMD} = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{4}\alpha_i Z_i + \sum_{i=1}^{5}\alpha_{4+i}\mathrm{INT}_i + \alpha_{10}\mathrm{IND} + \alpha_{11}\mathrm{PDI} + \alpha_{12}\mathrm{UAI} + \sum_{i=1}^{5}\alpha_{12+i}\mathrm{INT}_i \times \mathrm{IND} + \sum_{i=1}^{5}\alpha_{17+1}\mathrm{INT}_i \times \mathrm{PDI} + \sum_{i=1}^{5}\alpha_{22+i}\mathrm{INT}_i \times \mathrm{UAI} + \varepsilon_{\mathrm{IMD}},$$

where IMD measures the influence of the marketing department, Z_i are the control variables, INT_i are the five influence tactics, IND is the degree of individualism, PDI is the degree of power distance, and UAI is the degree of uncertainty avoidance. The control variables, the five influence tactics, the three cultural dimensions, and the interactions among the influence tactics and cultural dimensions explain IMD.

Table 4. ANOVA on Major Constructs of the Research Model

Variables	Austria	Germany	United States	Hong Kong	Singapore	Thailand	F-Ratio
Decision Influence							
Strategy	13.6	17.8	21.7	26.2	25.1	25.8	12.64**
New product development	15.5	16.2	22.2	18.0	28.4	28.1	16.41**
Expansion in other markets	18.5	18.7	19.3	29.2	22.4	24.5	4.91*
Information technology investments	16.1	20.4	20.1	19.3	18.5	19.3	.73
Accountability	4.05	4.21	4.75	4.49	4.75	4.53	33.0**
Innovativeness	10.23	15.41	26.12	34.83	31.54	31.21	65.3**
Creativity	4.34	4.45	4.43	4.29	4.21	4.14	1.61
Customer connection	5.01	4.50	5.29	5.20	4.69	4.48	6.23**
Integration with other departments	5.00	4.78	4.91	4.66	4.75	4.75	1.31

*$p < .05$.
**$p < .01$.

FINDINGS

Results of Hypotheses Testing

We used multiple regression models with interaction terms to validate the research model. We formed interaction terms of the research model's dependent variables and the scores of the Hofstede indexes, as reported in Table 1 (Chan, Yim, and Lam 2010). To resolve the issue of multicollinearity, we built ten subsamples and randomly eliminated 10% of all datasets in each subsample. Because findings remained largely stable, we conclude that multicollinearity is not an issue in our study (Echambadi et al. 2006). We first estimated the core research model that links the influence tactics of the marketing department with its influence for each nation in isolation. Table 5 presents the findings.

Next, we estimated regression models with data from all countries (see Table 6). First, we entered the control variables and the independent variables and found that innovativeness, creativity, and customer connection are positively related to the influence of the marketing department, and accountability and integration with other departments are not. Second, we integrated the interaction terms in order to test our hypotheses. Accountability has a greater effect when power distance is low and uncertainty avoidance is high, lending support to H_{1b} and H_{1c}. We reject H_{1a} because there is no significant interaction with the degree of individualism. The degree of power distance and uncertainty avoidance has a negative impact on the effect of innovativeness, in support of H_{2b} and H_{2c}. However, we reject H_{2a}. For creativity, because no significant interaction effects emerge, we reject H_3. Customer connection has a greater effect on marketing departments' influence when individualism is high, which counters H_{4a}. We reject H_{4b} and H_{4c} because there are no significant interaction effects with power distance and uncertainty avoidance. However, the results support H_{5a} and H_{5c} because integration has a greater effect on the marketing department's influence when individualism is low and uncertainty avoidance is high. We reject H_{5b} because there is no interaction with the degree of power distance.

Additional Analyses

We conducted additional analyses to increase the robustness of our findings.[1] Burgess and Steenkamp (2006) identify the socioeconomic development stage of a nation as an important driver at the national level, in

Table 5. Findings from the Core Research Model

	Austria	Germany	United States	Hong Kong	Singapore	Thailand
Controls						
Firm size → IMD	–.17	–.05	–.12*	–.12	.08	.00
Firm age → IMD	.08	–.20	.04	.08	–.16*	.08*
Differentiation focus → IMD	.00	.14	.14*	.04	–.03	.07
Main Effects						
Accountability of marketing department → IMD	.28**	.14**	.10*	.00	–.10	.04
Innovativeness of marketing department → IMD	.58***	.37***	.60***	.19***	.44***	.49***
Creativity of marketing department → IMD	–.17	–.09	–.12*	.19**	.16**	.17***
Customer connection of marketing department → IMD	.13**	.40***	.18**	.09*	.18*	.08*
Integration with other departments → IMD	.14	–.10	–.05	.28***	.13**	.13**

*$p < .1$.
**$p < .05$.
***$p < .01$.
Notes: Standardized coefficients are reported. IMD = influence of marketing department.

Table 6. Findings of Interaction Term Analysis with National Culture (Dependent Variable: Influence of Marketing Department)

Independent Variables	Parameter	Standardized Coefficients (Step 1)	Standardized Coefficients (Step 2)
Controls			
Firm size	α_1	.00	–.02
Firm age	α_2	–.12*	–.11*
Differentiation focus	α_3	.09*	.10**
HDI	α_4	–.47**	–.65***
Main Effects			
Accountability of marketing department	α_5	.15	.73**
Creativity of marketing department	α_6	.07**	.20
Innovativeness of marketing department	α_7	.45***	.89***
Customer connection of marketing department	α_8	.12**	.21**
Integration with other departments	α_9	–.03	–.57*
Individualism	α_{10}	.00	–.47**
Power distance	α_{11}	–.25	–.37
Uncertainty avoidance	α_{12}	.66*	.13
Interaction Effects			
H_{1a}: Accountability of marketing department × individualism	α_{13}		–.13
H_{2a}: Innovativeness of marketing department × individualism	α_{14}		–.05
H_{3a}: Creativity of marketing department × individualism	α_{15}		–.05
H_{4a}: Customer connection of marketing department × individualism	α_{16}		.71***
H_{5a}: Integration with other departments × individualism	α_{17}		–.27***
H_{1b}: Accountability of marketing department × power distance	α_{18}		–.74***
H_{2b}: Innovativeness of marketing department × power distance	α_{19}		–.20*
H_{3b}: Creativity of marketing department × power distance	α_{20}		.10
H_{4b}: Customer connection of marketing department × power distance	α_{22}		.45
H_{5b}: Integration with other departments × power distance	α_{23}		.26
H_{1c}: Accountability of marketing department × uncertainty avoidance	α_{23}		.56***
H_{2c}: Innovativeness of marketing department × uncertainty avoidance	α_{24}		–.34**
H_{3c}: Creativity of marketing department × uncertainty avoidance	α_{25}		–.27
H_{4c}: Customer connection of marketing department × uncertainty avoidance	α_{26}		.26
H_{5c}: Integration with other departments × uncertainty avoidance	α_{27}		.17*
(Adjusted) R^2		25.0%	27.2%
F-value		18.060***	8.998***

*$p < .1$.
**$p < .05$.
***$p < .01$.
Notes: Standardized coefficients are reported.

addition to national culture. To investigate the role of socioeconomic context, we built interaction terms between the influence tactics and two measures of the stage of socioeconomic development (the HDI from the Human Development Report [United Nations Development Program 2009] and the GDP per capita from the CIA World Factbook) (Cano, Carrillat, and Jaramillo 2004). Our findings show that only customer connection has a greater effect on the marketing department's influence when HDI is strong than when it is weak. The analyses with GDP per capita as the moderating variable show no significant effects, emphasizing that national culture is the more important driver of the effectiveness of influence tactics on a marketing department's influence at the national level.

Furthermore, because of the metric operationalization of the cultural dimensions, we used multiple regression analysis with the interaction terms. However, some studies in cross-cultural comparisons build on group comparisons in structural equation modeling (e.g., Homburg et al. 2005). Therefore, to increase the robustness of our findings, we formed two groups (Western countries and Asian countries) and conducted multigroup analyses in AMOS 16.0 (Table 7). Although this analysis does not isolate the effects of the national cultural dimensions, the findings indicate that accountability has a greater effect in Western countries (with lower power distance and higher uncertainty avoidance) than in Asian countries, and integration with other departments has a greater impact in the Asian context (with stronger collectivism) than in the Western context. Thus, the findings from the interaction term analysis are largely confirmed.

To further increase the robustness of our findings, we estimated our regression model with country scores provided by the GLOBE project (House, Javidan, and Dorfman 2001). The GLOBE project uses the cultural dimensions of power distance, collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance similarly to Hofstede (2001). Although subject to criticism, the GLOBE study addresses some weaknesses of the Hofstede (2001) scores, such as the age of the country scores and the missing theoretical foundation (e.g., Javidan et al. 2006). The findings are confirmed for the power distance and collectivism dimensions and are largely confirmed for the uncertainty avoidance dimension; the only difference is that a significant, positive interaction effect for customer connecting and uncertainty avoidance emerges.

Furthermore, we acknowledge that considerable knowledge about the organization is necessary to determine the use of influence tactics. Therefore, our sample includes only answers from respondents who had been in their organizational positions for more than six months. We also reestimated our regression model with a smaller sample of respondents who had been in their current positions for more than three years. The effects of direct and interaction terms did not change for the directions and general significances of path coefficients.

DISCUSSION

Implications for Research

The findings of this study indicate that the effectiveness of some of the influence tactics employed by marketing departments to strengthen their influence in an organi-

Table 7. Multigroup Analysis on the Core Research Model (Western vs. Asian Countries)

Hypotheses	Western Countries	Asian Countries	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta d.f. = 1)$
Accountability → IMD	.35***	.02	4.221**
Innovativeness of marketing department → IMD	.22***	.37***	.334
Creativity of marketing department → IMD	–.13	.11**	4.134**
Customer connection → IMD	.21**	.18*	.944
Integration with other departments → IMD	.07	.40*	3.232*

*$p < .1$.
**$p < .05$.
***$p < .01$.
Notes: IMD = influence of marketing department.

zation depends on several cultural factors. The findings on the effect of national culture on accountability are particularly intriguing. Although the results for the Western countries confirm that accountability has a positive effect, as Verhoef and Leeflang (2009) and Verhoef et al. (2009) also find, we find that accountability has no impact on the marketing department's influence in the Asian countries. As the interaction term analysis indicates, the effect of accountability is greater when power distance is low and uncertainty avoidance is high for the Western countries examined in the study. Thus, the need for strong accountability by the marketing department expressed in a series of studies (Rust et al. 2004) contains a significant Western cultural bias. Because the post hoc analysis further indicates that the effect of accountability is not contingent on the country's stage of socioeconomic development, this analysis emphasizes that national culture is the major driver at the national level for the differences between Western and Asian countries. Although the impact of power distance and uncertainty avoidance is as we expected, no moderating effect from individualism emerges. We expected a greater effect when individualism is high because only in individualist cultures are departments free to decide on their own what is necessary for meaningful systems of accountability. However, accountability could also be consistent with collectivist cultures because marketing departments demonstrate the consequences of marketing activities for the overall organization; that is, they evaluate the effect of marketing activities on the well-being of the entire organization (Triandis 1994), and the well-being of the group (in this case, the organization) is a major value in collectivist cultures (Hofstede 2001). Therefore, both individualist and collectivist cultures contain facets that match with accountability, which can explain the nonsignificant interaction effect.

Innovativeness, the most effective influence tactic in all of the national cultures examined, has greater effects when power distance and uncertainty avoidance are low. However, individualism has no moderating effect, because collectivist cultures avoid the conflict and changing roles that innovations from an innovative marketing department can cause. Considering the extant literature, this finding might be surprising. There are two main explanations for this finding: First, an innovative marketing department contributes to the firm's well-being; therefore, because a group's well-being is a major concern in collectivist cultures (Triandis 1994), collectivist cultures might also value an innovative marketing department. Second, although we expected a positive moderating effect of individualism because innovativeness can destroy harmony, this is only a problem with in-groups (compare the differentiation between in-groups and out-groups in collectivist cultures in Huff and Kelley 2003), and particularly in large organizations, not all organizational members are likely to be in-groups (Triandis 2001). Thus, organizational members expecting negative consequences for out-groups but not necessarily for in-groups can explain the finding of no interaction between innovativeness and the cultural dimension of individualism.

Creativity shows no direct effect on the influence of the marketing department, and no cultural dimensions had moderating effects. Creativity alone might be insufficient because, regardless of culture, employees are aware that creativity does not necessarily lead to increased firm performance. In other words, creativity is not a valuable resource that organizational members across all cultures are aware of, even if creativity matches some cultural properties (e.g., a low degree of uncertainty, as argued in the respective hypothesis derivation).

However, the customer-connecting influence tactic is highly effective for increasing marketing departments' influence across cultures, although the effects of cultural dimensions are partly reversed, as we expected. We argue that collectivist cultures value marketing departments that have strong relationships with customers because personal relationships are one of their cornerstones. The opposite finding in our data can be explained by the differentiation between in-groups and out-groups (Triandis 1994). When customers are considered an out-group, the relationship between the marketing department and customers might be detrimental in collectivist cultures; this factor can explain the finding of a greater effect between customer connecting and the influence of the marketing department in individualist cultures (Huff and Kelley 2003; Michailova and Hutchings 2006). Furthermore, power distance does not have a moderating effect, possibly because the customer connectedness of the marketing department is not affected by power distributions across hierarchical levels in the organization. Finally, the findings do not confirm the expected positive moderation of uncertainty avoidance. Because no significant, positive interaction emerges, the information provided by the customer might not necessarily be considered valuable in reducing uncertainty; this view agrees with the work of Christensen and Bower (1996), who state that customer information can be detrimental in certain circumstances.

In our Western samples, integration with other departments has no effect on marketing's influence in the organization, but it is a major driver of marketing's influence in Hong Kong, Thailand, and Singapore. The interaction term analysis indicates that the degree of collectivism is one explanation for this finding because collectivist cultures value the interaction with other organizational members more than individualist cultures do. However, contrary to our expectations, power distance does not moderate the relationship between integration with other departments and the marketing department's influence. An explanation for this finding might be that power distance is not relevant because it refers to relationships between people of different hierarchical levels (Carl, Gupta, and Javidan 2004), and integration between different functions takes place primarily between people with equal hierarchical positions in the organization.

Marketing can be viewed as an organizationwide culture, as defined by the extensively researched market orientation construct, or as a functional group within the organization, which is the perspective of this study. Prior research has shown that the organizational antecedents of the market orientation construct depend on national culture. For example, Brettel et al. (2008) show that a participatory leadership style is more conducive to a strong market orientation in Western countries with a low degree of power distance. This study elaborates on the view of marketing as a functional subunit and finds that organizational drivers of marketing's influence are partly dependent on national culture. Therefore, the organizational embedding of both marketing perspectives can be subject to national cultural variations.

Limitations and Avenues for Further Research

The study has some limitations that present useful avenues for further research: First, the study focuses on national culture, but other moderators might also affect the examined relationships. Verhoef and Leeflang (2009) recommend addressing corporate culture as a moderator of these relationships; therefore, future studies could extend our model by investigating the interaction effects between national culture and corporate culture, particularly in light of Webster and White's (2010) observation that national and corporate cultures are interdependent.

Second, the study builds on the determinants of the marketing department's influence as proposed by Verhoef and Leeflang (2009). Although our study shows that some of these influence determinants are also relevant in the Asian context, future studies could extend the set of influence tactics. For example, they could investigate the effect of upward appeal as an influence tactic that might be particularly important for high power distance cultures.

Third, an inherent limitation in the use of Hofstede's (2001) and GLOBE's dimensions is the assumed identity of national and cultural borders. In addition, as Eisingerich and Rubera (2010) recently acknowledged, there might be regional variations in national cultures, which would require more refined analysis with regional differentiation.

Fourth, because the same measurement models were employed in all countries, the study follows an etic measurement approach. Although Berry (1989) recommends this approach for a first cross-national study, future studies should adjust the measurement models according to local particularities. For example, in the Asian context, accountability could also include the impact of marketing activities on the overall society's well-being, which is valued more than financial outcome in collectivist cultures (Hofstede 2001). Future studies should examine these different understandings and adapt measurement models to define national differences.

Fifth, the study is limited to three cultural dimensions; we leave out Hofstede's (2001) remaining dimensions. An analysis of how masculinity affects the influence tactics was not possible with our sample; because the six countries show similar classifications, there is insufficient variance in our country scores. Furthermore, we could not empirically analyze long-term orientation, because for some countries in our sample, Hofstede does not provide classifications (e.g., Austria). However, because these cultural dimensions could also have an impact on the effectiveness of the influence tactics, future studies, building on other country choices, should incorporate them.

Implications for Managerial Practice

Marketing departments have experienced a steady decline in their role within organizations. Because marketing departments are the homes for most marketing experts, this issue affects all marketing practitioners. This study shows that marketing departments across various national cultures do not need to settle for declining influence because there are effective tactics they can apply to maintain or extend their influence. Specifically, our research identifies associations between influence tactics and the influence of the marketing department that are culture bound or not culture bound: First, the findings provide information to marketing departments in non-Western settings that have not yet been informed by the Western-based studies of Verhoef and Leeflang (2009). Second, the findings provide guidance for global marketing managers in charge of marketing departments across national cultures for both standardization and local adaptations of influence tactics.

Although partly moderated by national culture, the finding that both innovativeness and customer connecting are positively related to the influence of the marketing department across cultural contexts provides opportunities for standardization. Globally operating marketing managers should advise their marketing departments across national cultures to capitalize on their market knowledge to develop innovative products, for example, by installing processes that identify developments in the marketplace. The implementation of uniform systems for converting customer needs into innovative products should also be pursued in marketing departments in all cultures (Verhoef and Leeflang 2009). Furthermore, marketing departments could encourage their employees to be innovation champions, either by creating adequate organizational structures (e.g., allowing marketing department members to spend some part of their working time on their own ideas) or by setting appropriate incentives (Shane 1994). As Table 4 illustrates, marketing departments have relatively low scores on the innovativeness measure (especially in Western European countries, where less than 15% of all innovations originate in the marketing department), which indicates that there is considerable potential for strengthening marketing's influence.

Customer connecting should also be a top priority for marketing departments across cultures. Global marketing managers should encourage their marketing departments to spend a significant part of their work time in customer interactions gaining information on the customers' needs. The marketing department should develop systems that translate these customer needs into product ideas and document current information on customer interactions in one system for access by all members. Furthermore, the departmental culture should position the customer in the foreground of all activities (Homburg and Pflesser 2000).

Global marketing managers also learn that a more diversified approach to accountability and integration with other departments is necessary, and marketing departments should use tactics that correspond to the local national cultural values. For example, global marketing managers should advise marketing departments in Western contexts to achieve greater accountability. As Table 4 shows, marketing's scores on the accountability measures are lower than those for other influence tactics. Because of the generally noted lack of finance-related knowledge in marketing departments (Sheth and Sisodia 2002), capabilities in analytics, finance, and cost accounting should be developed through additional training or by recruiting new employees with the appropriate expertise. Furthermore, marketing plans should include the financial outcomes of proposed marketing activities. Global marketing managers should also install uniform accountability metrics across marketing departments in Western contexts.

Marketing departments in Eastern contexts should foster their integration with other functional departments, which is consistent with the collectivist nature of Eastern settings. Marketing departments in these settings should cooperate closely with other departments to foster their influence within the organization. Such cooperation can be achieved by setting up regular meetings between functional departments or by sharing information on marketing-related issues with other departments using circulating documents. Marketing departments could also be centrally located so they are close to other departments. They could also invite other departments, such as research and development, to discuss planned marketing activities and to obtain their perspectives, and members of marketing departments could connect with members of other departments on a much more informal basis, such as by engaging in social events within the organization.

NOTE

1. Details on these additional analyses are available on request.

Appendix. Scales

Construct (Inspiration or Basis) [Reflective vs. Formative Items in Multi-Item Scale]	Items	Source	Coefficient α	Composite Reliability	AVE
Decision influence (Homburg, Workman, and Krohmer 1999; Verhoef and Leeflang 2009) [formative]	For each of the four decisions, distribute 100 points over the sales, marketing, R&D, and manufacturing departments. (Departments with high levels of influence receive more points than departments with low levels of influence.) 1. Strategic direction of the organization 2. Expansion into new geographic markets 3. New product development 4. Investments in information technology (efficient resource planning, customer relationship management, Internet)	Survey	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Top management respect (Van Bruggen and Wierenga 2005; Verhoef and Leeflang 2009) [reflective]	The top management of our firm: 1. Has little respect for activities of the marketing department. (R) 2. Considers the marketing department an expensive department. (R) 3. Recognizes the strategic importance of the marketing department.	Survey	.93	.96	.89
Accountability of marketing department (Moorman and Rust 1999; Verhoef and Leeflang 2009) [reflective]	The marketing department in our firm: 1. Is effective at linking its activities to financial outcomes. 2. Shows the financial outcomes of its plans. 3. Pays little attention to the financial outcomes of activities. (R)	Survey	.92	.94	.83
Innovativeness of marketing department (Verhoef and Leeflang 2009) [formative]	What is the percentage of new products in the last three years that were initiated by the following departments? Please divide 100 points across (1) R&D, (2) marketing, (3) sales, and (4) other departments. The points assigned to the marketing department are used as the innovativeness score of the marketing department.	Survey	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Customer connection of marketing department (Verhoef and Leeflang 2009) [reflective]	The marketing department in our firm: 1. Is effective at translating customer needs into new products or services. 2. Promotes customer needs in our firm. 3. Rarely shows how customer needs can be taken into account in our strategy. (R) Does not have sufficient knowledge and skills to translate customer needs into technical specifications (R)	Survey	.87	.94	.78

Appendix. Continued

Construct (Inspiration or Basis) [Reflective vs. Formative Items in Multi-Item Scale]	Items	Source	Coefficient α	Composite Reliability	AVE
Creativity of marketing department (Andrews and Smith 1996; Verhoef and Leeflang 2009) [reflective]	Compared to what our competitors were doing in the last year, our marketing programs in the last year were: 1. Dull ... exciting. 2. Fresh ... routine. (R) 3. Novel ... predicable. (R) 4. Trendsetting ... warmed over. (R) 5. Nothing special ... an industry model.	Survey	.96	.96	.88
Integration with other departments (Maltz and Kohli 1996; Verhoef and Leeflang 2009) [reflective]	To what extent has the marketing department and other departments had problems concerning coordination of activities in the past three years? ("no problems at all/very many problems") To what extent has the marketing department and the other departments hindered each other's performance in the past three years? ("no hindrance at all/hindered a lot")	Survey	.93	.94	.87
Firm size	How many employees in terms of full-time equivalents does your firm have?	Survey	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Business to business (B2B) vs. business to consumer (B2C)	Please indicate the percentage of your turnover that arises from B2B or B2C markets: B2B (1) ... B2C (10)	Survey	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Differentiation/cost leadership (Govindarajan and Fisher 1990)	How does your sales volume in the last three years distribute on products that follow a differentiation strategy versus those that follow a cost leadership strategy?	Survey	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance	—	Hofstede (2001)	—	—	—
Human Development Index (HDI)	—	Human Development Report (United Nations Development Program 2009)	—	—	—
GDP per capita	—	CIA World Factbook	—	—	—

Notes: N.A. = not applicable. (R) = reverse-scored item.

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