London School of Commence Westminster International College

DOCTOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

RESEARCH TITLE:

A moderating effect of leadership and innovation on the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations: Critical instance case study of a flavour business of food industry in Malaysia.

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DECLARATION

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

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Date: 28th May 2021

STATEMENT 1

This thesis is the result of my own investigations, except where otherwise stated. Where correction services have been used the extent and nature of the correction is clearly marked in a footnote(s). Other sources are acknowledged by footnotes giving explicit references. A bibliography is appended.

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ABSTRACT

This research was aimed at two key areas: (1) whether the business development strategies of product development, diversification and market development drive business growth performance; (2) whether leadership and innovation are main drivers for product development, diversification and market development to drive business growth performance. A flavour business in the food industry of Malaysia for one of the top 10 global flavour industry leaders was selected for the critical instance case study in this research. This flavour organisation in Malaysia was named as GFM. Exploratory sequential mixed-method approach was applied in this research where an email interview was conducted for the exploratory primary qualitative data collection first, then an online survey was created based on the qualitative data analysis of the email interview for the explanatory primary data collection and quantitative data analysis to test the hypothesized theoretical framework. Pragmatism was used as the research philosophy and radical structuralist was used as the research paradigm in this research. Findings from this research confirmed diversification (independent variable) drove business growth performance (dependent variable), while leadership (moderating variable) was the main driver strengthening diversification for higher success rate to lead for the stronger business growth performance. Today, many studies reveal the importance of business growth for the survival and future successes of mature organisations in the current turbulent, hyper-competitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis. Many studies show different drivers that can help to foster the success rate of different business development strategies for driving business growth performance. However, there are limited studies existed to link and explain the relationship between the business development strategies of product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations, and the moderating effect of the drivers of leadership and innovation on the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations. Those limitations can be the factors why today there are less than 20% of organisations in worldwide are successful in new business developments for business growth, over 50% of new ventures fail within five years and about one-third of all new organisations fail within the first few years of operation in business developments, while another significant percentage fail within four years. Findings from this research which includes a new generated and verified research model of business growth performance and the real case study of GFM eventually will contribute for closing the research gaps, and will be significant and beneficial to mature organisations from different industries as they will be able to learn and apply those findings in their real-life business challenges, and their business plan design, implement and execution, leading for successful diversification to drive business growth for the business resilience and further growth for survival and future successes.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.0 BACKGROUND OF RESEARCH

Globalization, technological advancement, increasing worldwide and regional competition, increasing demands from customers for more sophisticated products, and the rapid changing of today's business environment have led to increasing challenges for organisations to maintain their business growth (Audretsch & Belitski, 2021; Kachouie *et al.*, 2017; Beqiri, 2014; Kutsikos & Kontos, 2013). Audretsch & Belitski (2021) highlighted that the corporate world had incorporated the acronym VUCA (volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity) that expressed the speed of change, the unpredictability events, the multiplicity of forces and various ways of seeing the reality that respectively best described the current business environment. The business growth includes the business expansion, stability, profitability and efficiency (Aithal, 2016). Organisations need to maintain their competitiveness and viability for continuous business growth through continuously initiating and implementing fundamental large-scale changes in the way they operate and do business to adapt the current turbulent, hypercompetitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis, otherwise they will run the risk going out of businesses (Buller & Mcevoy, 2016; Bharijoo, 2005; By, 2005; Sachkmann *et al.*, 2009; Biedenbach & Soderholm, 2008).

According to Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory, mature organisations that have achieved maturity stage in their business life cycle will live on past success. They have passed the survival test and growing to a point seeking to protect what they have gained instead of targeting new territory (Dufour *et al.*, 2018). At this stage, the formalisation and control through bureaucracy are the norm for mature organisations (Quinn & Cameron, 1983), and their top management team will focus on planning and strategy, leaving daily operations to middle managers (Daft & Weick, 1984). Mintzberg (1984) warned this maturity stage was ordered from an ending growth to start of a decline due to decreasing innovativeness (ability to renew) of mature organisations and increasing formalisation turning them into the bureaucracy full of political struggles, where their competitive advantages would start to slowly erode and they will enter either the revival stage to reinvent their businesses or the decline stage to struggle with the need of a change for business resilience. Audretsch & Belitski 2021 emphasized that the business resilience was an important characteristic of organisations that related directly to their survival and leveraging external shocks, which led to functioning in the market despite a relative lack of such competencies, time and resources.

Mature organisations at the decline stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory will experience erosion of competitive advantages that result in decreasing sales and profits (Hanks, 1990; Miller & Friesen, 1984), and loss of market share and market position (Lester *et al.*, 2003; Miller & Friesen, 1984). This deterioration in performance eventually drives mature organisations into financial and business failures (Shumway, 2001; Chava & Jarrow, 2004; Campbell *et al.*, 2011). Mortality rates go up when organisations achieve maturity stage in their organisational life cycle as the organisational endowments depreciate and are not replenished (Brüderl & Schüssler, 1990), and because accumulated rules, routines and structures limit their abilities to react to changing environmental conditions (Barron *et al.*, 1994; Hannan, 1998; Thornhill & Amit, 2003). Organisational inertia is also apparent in the innovative activities of mature organisations as they have achieved the success and comfort zone, their desire to develop and champion radical new technologies directions is tempered by the much stronger desire not to disrupt existing markets and lose their paychecks even though with a bigger and better business opportunity (Sorensen & Stuart, 2000). Mature organisations tend to exploit existing competencies rather than explore new technologies to achieve further business growth.

Today's contemporary, hypercompetitive, volatile and fast-changing business environments have added pressure for organisations to be active in the three business development strategies: product development, diversification and market development for financial fruition, economic development and employment for continuous business growth (Arthur & Histrich, 2011; Cassiman & Veugelers, 2002; Morgan & Berthon, 2008). Organisations with business development strategies will generate robust returns on investment, growth in sales, volume, profit, market share and employment for continuous business growth (Zahra & George, 2002; Jennings & Beaver, 1997; Lumpkin & Dess, 2001). Product development, diversification and market development help mature organisations to develop new values and new demands in a new uncontested market space, making their competition becomes irrelevant and opportunities to grow become unlimited; to pioneer a new value-cost frontier with a supporting business model for the achievement of both differentiation and low cost simultaneously to increase value propositions and innovations for the creation of win-win situation for both buyers and sellers for continuous business growth (Kim & Mauborgne, 2017; Bagheri *et al.*, 2013; Mina & Mohseni, 2015; Appelbaum & Wohl, 2000; Alhaddi, 2014; Chakrabarti, 2014; Raman, 2014).

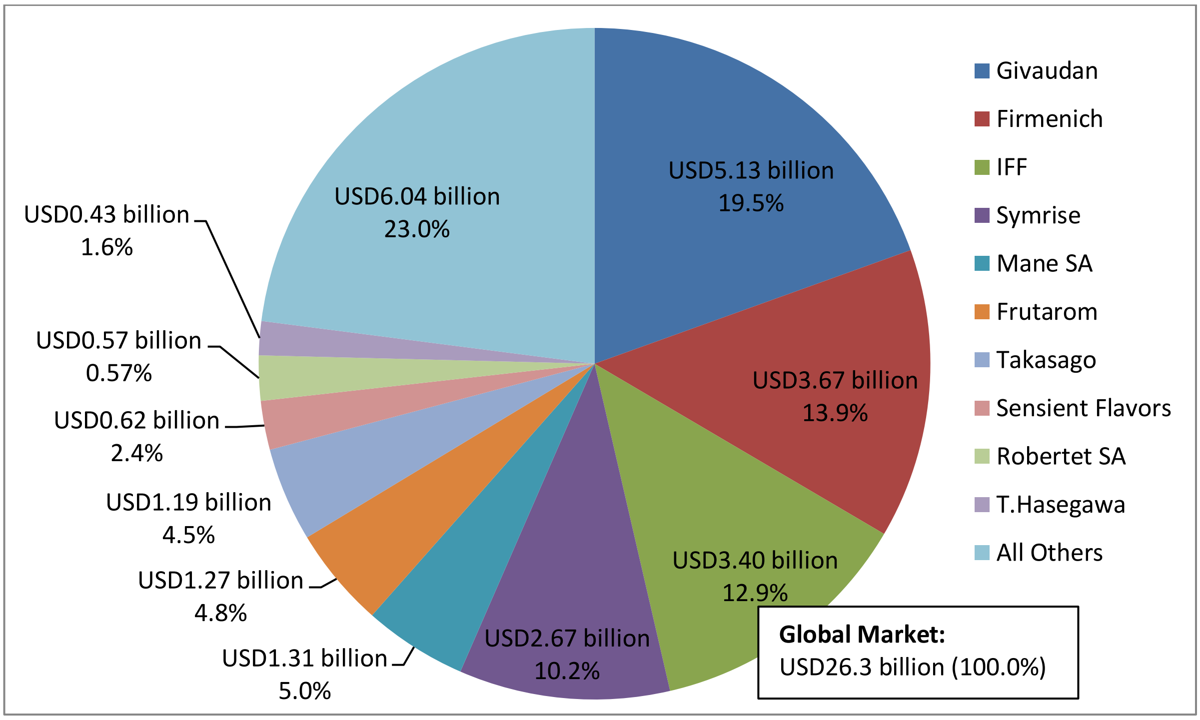
In this research, a flavour business of food industry in Malaysia for one of the top 10 global flavour industry leader is selected for the critical instance case study of this research journey. This global flavour manufacturer was named as Company GF, and their operation site in Malaysia was named as Company GFM (GF Malaysia). GF has been established for more than 200 years, producing different types of flavours for various food processing industries (beverages, dairy, healthcare, savoury, snacks and sweet goods) in worldwide. GF is present in more than 140 locations, having more than 60 production sides in worldwide. GF established their operation site in Singapore in 1995 as a critical hub providing services primarily for ASEAN region, and also supporting critical operations and houses regional management functions for Asia Pacific region.

GFM was established in Malaysia in 2000 and they were in crisis as their top management decided to close down GFM and move the operation site in Malaysia to Singapore, if GFM was not performed for a double digits of sales growth in 2019 and 2020, and achieved their sales target of USD25.9 million in 2020. GFM was classified as a mature organisation since 2014. In flavour business, flavours are created and produced for food industry to alter the aroma and taste of food and beverage products. Flavours play important roles in food industry for consistent quality (aroma and taste), sustainable raw material supply with stable price, and improvement opportunities for food and beverage products.

Food and beverage manufacturers today require flavours for their new products and product line extensions, and they use flavours for improvements, changes in formula or processing for their existing food and beverage products in the market. In order to create perfect flavours to address new market challenges and create inspiring solutions for customers, flavourists must have at their fingertips hundreds of flavour descriptors and capabilities to identify around a staggering 2,500 raw materials by name, aroma and taste together with their skill, knowledge and experience to know in what quantities each raw material should be used for the creation of perfect flavours.

Figure 1.0.1 indicates the top 10 global flavour industry leaders with the total market value of USD26.3 billion in 2017. The top 10 global leaders were Givaudan with 19.5% of market share (USD5.13 billion sales revenue), following by Firmenich with 13.9% market share (USD3.67 billion sales revenue), IFF with 12.9% of market share (USD3.40 billion sales revenue), Symrise with 10.2% of market share (USD2.67 billion sales revenue), Mane SA, Frutarom, Takasago, Sensient, Robertet SA and T. Hasegawa.

Figure 1.0.1: Top 10 global flavour industry leaders 2017.



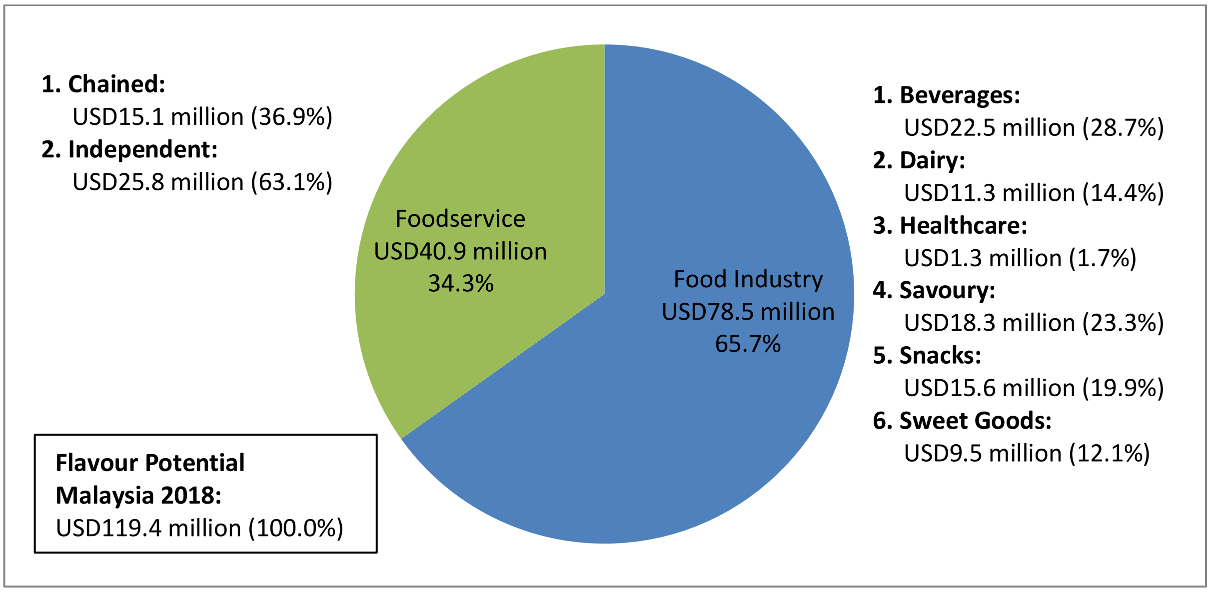
Sources: Leffingwell & Associates (2018)

Figure 1.0.2 indicates the total flavour market value of Malaysia 2018 was USD120.5 million, where 65.1% (USD78.5 million) was contributed by the food industry and the remaining 34.9% (USD42.0 million) was contributed by the foodservice. This total flavour market value of Malaysia 2018 (USD120.5 million) was only 0.46% of the total global flavour market value 2017 (USD26.3 billion). Figure 1.0.3 indicates the population of Malaysia in 2018 was 31.5 million, only 0.41% of the world population 2018 (7,633 million). Referring to Figure 1.0.3, Asia had the highest population 2018 (4,545 million), following by the continents of African and Middle East (1,288 million), Europe (743 million), South America (652 million) and North America (364 million), the higher the population, the bigger the market size and vice versa. The small total flavour market value and population of Malaysia in 2018 showed Malaysia is a small flavour market compared with other countries.

Flavour business in the food industry is divided into six main segments: beverages, dairy, healthcare, savoury, snacks and sweet goods. Beverages consist of soft drinks, fruit juices, instant beverages, etc. Dairy consists of milk products, ice-cream, yoghurts, yellow fats (margarines), etc. Healthcare consists of medicines, supplements, etc. Savoury consists of ready-made meals, soups, sauces, dressings, processed seafood, processed meat, etc. Snacks consists of nuts, seeds, potato chips, puffed snacks, tortilla chips etc. Sweet goods consist of biscuits, wafers, cookies, chocolate confectionery, sugar confectionery, bubble gum, chewing gum etc. Flavour business in the foodservice is divided into two main segments: chained and independent. Chained foodservice is defined as the local restaurant or cafe chains with 10 or more units, or international restaurant or cafe chains that have a presence of both more and fewer than 10 units in a country. Independent foodservice is defined as local restaurant or cafe chains with less than 10 units. It also includes small businesses with a branded formula with fewer than 10 units.

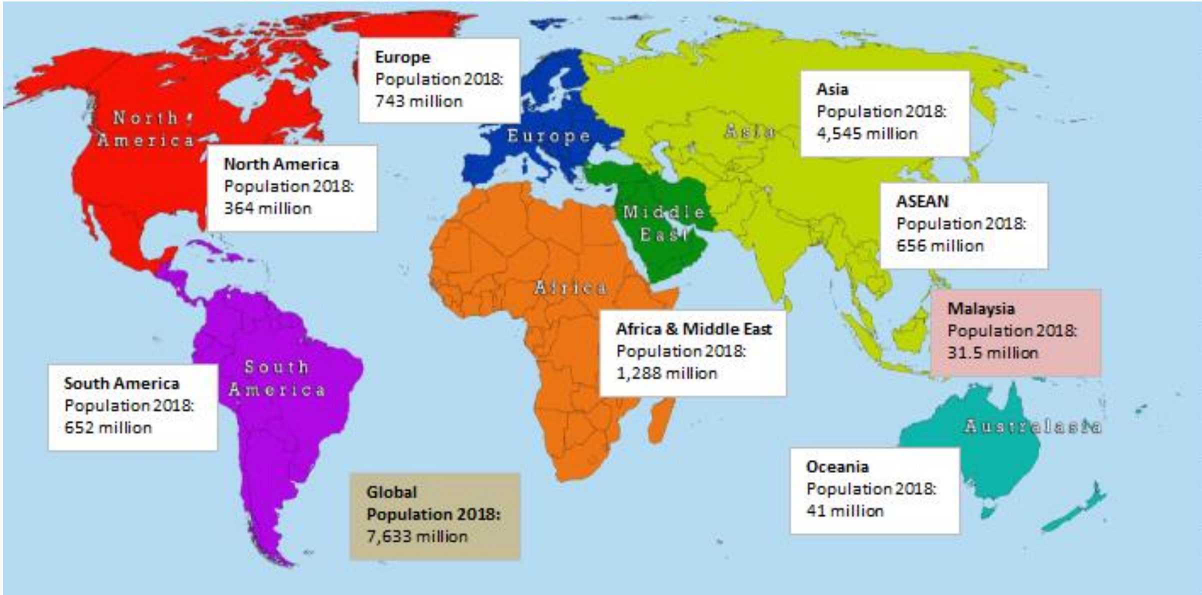
Referring to Figure 1.0.2, the USD78.5 million (65.7%) of flavour business in the food industry 2018 in Malaysia was mainly contributed by beverages (USD22.5 million, 28.7%), following by savoury (USD18.3 million, 23.3%), snacks (USD15.6 million, 19.9%), dairy (USD11.3 million, 14.4%), sweet goods (USD9.5 million, 12.1%) and healthcare (USD1.3 million, 1.7%). For the USD40.9 million (34.3%) of flavour business in the foodservice 2018 in Malaysia, it was contributed by independent foodservice (USD25.8 million, 63.1%) and chained foodservice (USD15.1 million, 36.9%).

Figure 1.0.2: Flavour Market Value of Malaysia 2018.



Sources: Euromonitor (2018)

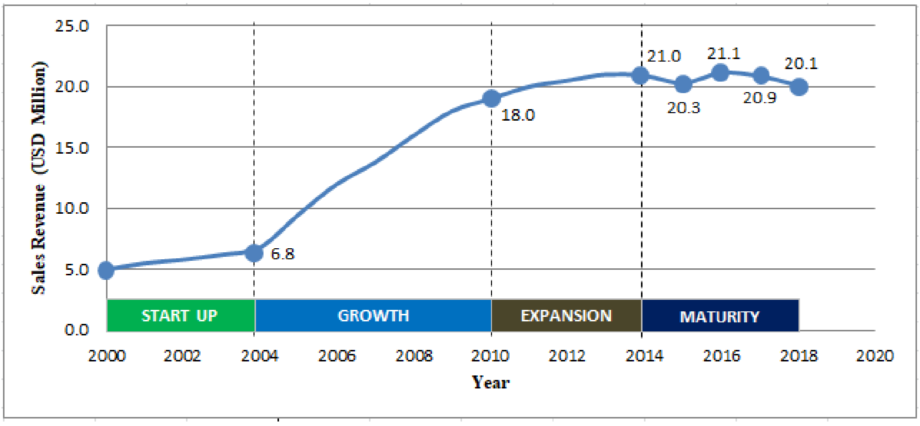
Figure 1.0.3: World population 2018.



Sources: The World Bank (2019)

Figure 1.0.4 indicates the flavour business of GFM in 2000 to 2018, starting with the flavour sales of USD5.0 million in 2000. GFM experienced start-up stage for the first four years with the achievement of USD6.8 million (36% growth) flavour sales in 2004. In 2005 to 2010, GFM underwent the growth stage and grew USD11.2 million achieving USD18.0 million (165% growth) of flavour sales in 2010. GFM's flavour business started to slow down in 2011 to 2014, where they just grew USD3.0 million sales (17%) in these three years. In 2015 to 2018, GFM started facing the maturity stage where their flavour business became unstable with no sales growth. In 2018, GFM achieved flavour sales of USD20.1 million, 5.0% drop from the flavour sales of USD21.1 million in 2016. According to Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory, this is a negative sign for GFM because they were in the high risk approaching to the decline stage. GFM was also facing erosion of competitive advantages, sales and profit drops, and loss of market share and market position.

Figure 1.0.4: Flavour business of GFM in 2000 to 2018.



GF top management put high expectation on GFM and they set a 5-year (2016 to 2020) sales target of average 5.0% growth per annum for GFM. GFM eventually needed to achieve the sales target of USD25.9 million in 2020 (USD21.3 million in 2016, USD22.4 million in 2017, USD23.5 million in 2018 and USD24.7 million in 2019). However, GFM achieved only USD20.1 million sales in 2018, which was USD3.4 million behind their sales target 2018 (USD23.5 million), and this increased their gap to achieve the sales target 2020 (USD25.9 million). In order to catch up with the sales target 2020, GFM needed to grow additional USD5.8 million sales instead of USD2.4 million in 2019 and 2020.

GF top management was not satisfied with the 3-year (2016 to 2018) sales performance of GFM and they pressured GFM to perform and achieve the sales target of USD25.9 million in 2020. If GFM could not perform and achieve the sales target of USD25.9 million in 2020, the top management decided to close down GFM and move their operation site in Malaysia to Singapore. This top management's decision created a crisis for GFM, as this was about the survival of GFM and their employees would lose jobs after the closing. Crisis is defined as a short-term undesired, unfavourable and critical situation in an organisation creating a distressing, uncertain and worrisome situation, which directly endangers the existence and further development of the organisation, and it is caused by intertwined and simultaneous action of both external and internal sources (Dubroyski, 2004; Barnett & Pratt, 2000; Barton, 1993; Fearn-Banks, 2011; Grunert, 2007; Heath, 1998; Hermann, 2008; Hommel *et al.*, 2006; James & Wooten, 2010; Kraus & Kolle, 2004; Lalonde, 2008; Lerbinger, 1997; Neubauer, 1999; Roux-Dufort, 2003).

Figure 1.0.5 and Figure 1.0.6 indicate the flavour potential of Malaysia in 2018 versus GFM's flavour sales in 2018 for the six main segments: beverages, dairy, healthcare, savoury, snacks and sweet goods. In 2018, GFM achieved sales of USD20.1 million and it was 16.7% of the flavour potential of Malaysia in 2018 (USD120.5 million). GFM focused their flavour business mainly in the food industry as 94.5% (USD19.0 million) of their sales in 2018 were contributed by the food industry and the foodservice contributed only 5.5% (USD1.1 million). Flavour potential of the food industry 2018 in Malaysia was USD78.5 million and GFM had sales of USD19.0 million with 24.2% of the market share. Flavour potential of the foodservice 2018 in Malaysia was USD42.0 million and GFM had sales USD1.1 million with only 2.6% of the market share. This shows GFM still has plenty business opportunities and spaces to grow in the foodservice sector in Malaysia.

Referring to Figure 1.0.5 and Figure 1.0.6, the flavour potential Malaysia 2018 for beverage segment was USD22.5 million and GFM had USD2.5 million sales (11.1% of the market share); for dairy segment was USD11.3 million and GFM had USD3.5 million sales (31.0% of the market share); for healthcare segment is USD1.3 million and GFM had USD0.2 million sales (15.4% of the market share); for savoury segment was USD18.3 million and GFM had USD9.3 million sales (50.8% of the market share); for snack segment was USD15.6 million and GFM had USD2.0 million sales (12.8% of the market share); for sweet goods segment was USD9.5 million and GFM had USD1.5 million sales (15.8% of the market share); for chained foodservice segment was USD15.1 million and GFM had USD1.1 million sales (7.3% of the market share); for independent foodservice segment was USD25.8 million and GFM had zero sales. In 2018, GFM achieved the highest flavour market share in savoury segment (50.8%), following by dairy (31.0%), sweet goods (15.8%), healthcare (15.4%), snacks (12.8%), beverages (11.1%), chained foodservice (7.3%) and independent foodservice (0.0%). This shows GFM still has big business opportunities and spaces to grow in the segments of independent foodservice, chained foodservice, beverages, snacks and sweet goods in Malaysia. Healthcare is not selected and considered as one of the business opportunity for GFM because it has very low flavour potential Malaysia 2018 (USD1.3 million only).

Figure 1.0.5: Flavour potential Malaysia 2018 in different segments.

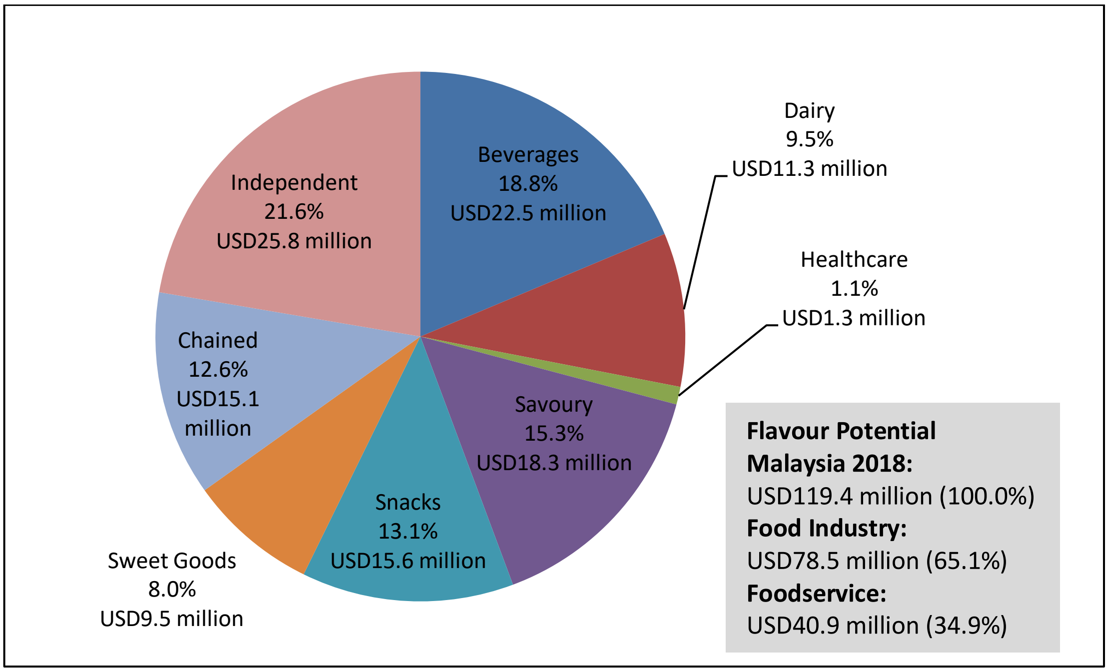
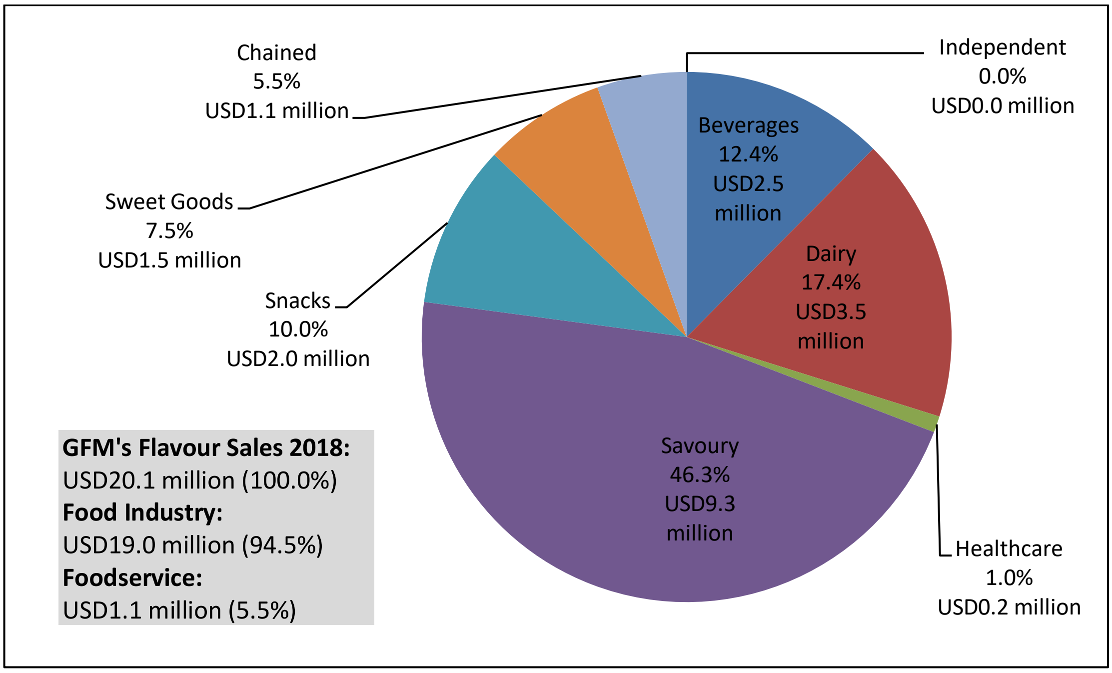


Figure 1.0.6: GFM's flavour sales 2018 in different segments.



Referring to Figure 1.0.7, the top 10 customers of GFM contributed sales of USD16.9 million (84.1% of the total sales 2018) and the top one customer alone contributed sales of USD6.5 million (32.3% of the total sales 2018), indicating GFM depended heavily on their top 10 customers for their business growth. GFM serviced only their existing customers, and they did not explore, identify and establish new customers as they depended on their only exclusive distributor in Malaysia to do this job for them.

Figure 1.0.7: Top 10 customers' flavour sales of GFM in 2018.

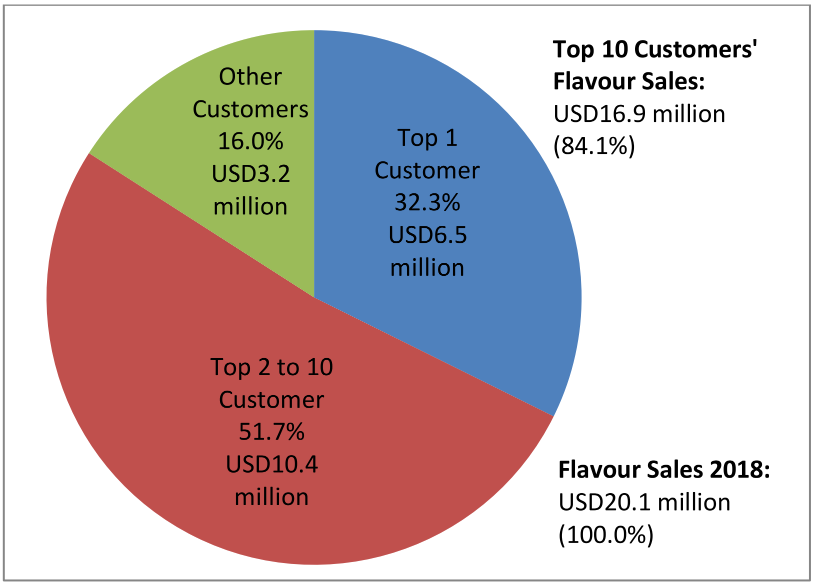
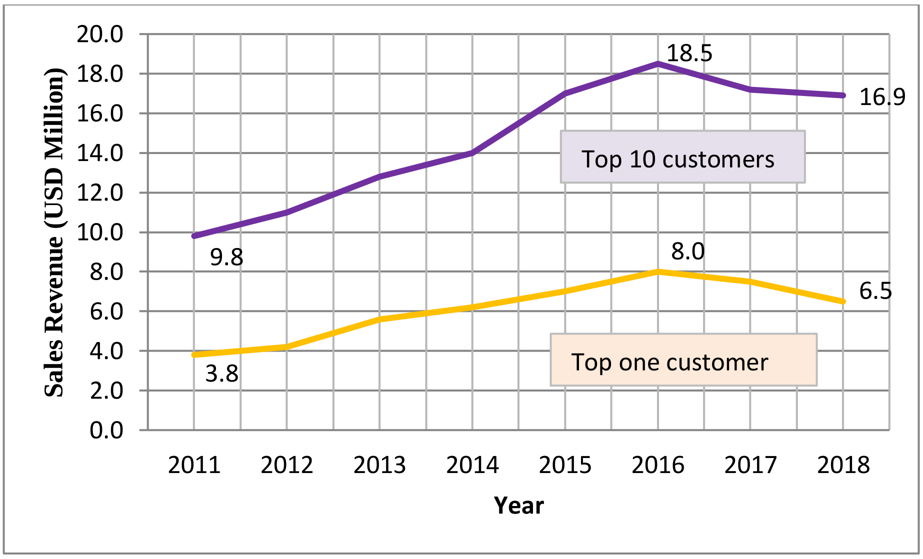


Figure 1.0.8 indicates flavour sales of the top 10 customers and top one customer of GFM in 2011 to 2018. There was a clear sign of business slowdown since 2016, where 8.6% sales drop from 2016 (USD18.5 million) to 2018 (USD16.9 million) for the top 10 customers, and 18.8% sales drop from 2016 (USD8.0 million) to 2018 (USD6.5 million) for the top one customer. Initially, the top 10 customers will work with GFM for most of their projects, but now they maintain relationships and work equally with all their selected flavour suppliers. This increases the bargaining power of buyers (customers) and GFM is no longer able to win most of the projects from their top 10 customers like last time.

Moreover, the top 10 customers now will open to let more new potential flavour suppliers to approach and work with them, making the competition even tougher for GFM. GFM will face more new competitors in Malaysian market, and both existing and new competitors are aggressive in attacking their existing businesses with key customers. This increases the threat of entry and industry rivalry for GFM. The top one customer has long-term business plan to move upstream and manufacture some main flavours themselves instead of buying from GFM. Some other top 10 customers plan taking out and not using flavours in formula or processing for their existing food and beverage products in the market. Those flavour replacements and deletions will cause serious business erosion for GFM, and increase the threat of substitutes for GFM.

Figure 1.0.8: Flavour sales of GFM's top 10 customers and top one customer in 2011 to 2018.



GFM is led by a Country Manager, who will report to the Head of Flavour ASEAN. GFM Country Manager uses transactional leadership type to lead her team. GFM Country Manager uses rewards to foster desired work behaviour and indicate which steps needed to be taken by her team. Transactional leaders shall provide clear direction and expected others to follow, and they will carefully monitor their followers to ensure that expectations are met, but GFM Country Manager is not able to provide clear direction to her team and she is weak in monitoring the progress. GFM Country Manager has less listening skill and makes quick decisions with little input from others, and she will confront the underperforming subordinates and reward who are excelling in their works.

GFM Country Manager plays her roles as a manager instead of as a leader, she focuses on short-term goals, maintains the status quo and looks for fast answers; she is eager to learn to get ahead to make things done; she waits for instruction and direction from top management, and she keeps GFM going in a straight line. McGregor's Theory X Management Style is used by GFM Country Manager, she agrees that people dislike works and they will avoid if possible, and those people must be coerced, controlled, directed and threated to get them to work.

GFM was facing the utmost challenge to achieve their 5-year (2016 to 2020) sales target of USD25.9 million in 2020 due to the seven competitive drivers in Figure 1.0.9. GFM was in crisis because they were asked to close down by their top management if they could not perform and achieve the sales target of USD25.9 million in 2020, and the employees of GFM would lose their jobs. The application of Porter's Five Force Theory showed GFM was facing high industry rivalry, high threat of new entry, high threat of substitution, high bargaining power of buyer and low bargaining power of supplier.

Figure 1.0.9: Competitive drivers of GFM.

This research examined whether the three business development strategies: product development, diversification and market development drove business growth for mature organisations of food industry in Malaysia, and what was the moderating effect of leadership and innovation on the relationship between the three business development strategies with the business growth performance of mature organisations, using the flavour business of GFM as a critical instance case study. Then, the collected data were useful for GFM to generate an organisational transformation plan to overcome the seven competitive drivers in Figure 1.0.9 for their business resilience. This business resilience drove GFM to achieve their sales target of USD25.9 million in 2020, and help them to solve the crisis of being closed down.

1.1 RESEARCH GAPS

Today, there are different business theories existed to explain mature organisations, business development strategies, leadership and innovation. For examples, Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory is used to explain mature organisations (Miller & Friesen, 1984); Ansoff Matrix Theory is used to explain the four business development strategies of product development, diversification, market development and market penetration (Dawes, 2018; Kotler *et al.*, 2007; Yenidogan & Aksoy, 2017; Boyd *et al.*, 1995; Yin, 2016). For leadership theories, there are Bass' Transformational Leadership Theory to explain the transformational leadership (Farkas & Vera, 2014; Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Sahu,2014), Weber's Transactional Leadership Theory to explain the transactional leadership (Farkas & Vera, 2014; Xenikou, 2017), and Lewin's Leadership Theory to explain the authoritarian leadership, participative leadership and delegative leadership (Lewin *et al.*, 1939). For the innovation theory, Kalbach's Innovation Theory is used to explain the four innovation strategies of incremental, breakthrough, disruptive and game-changer (Kalbach, 2012).

However, there are limited business theories existed to link and explain the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations, and the moderating effect of leadership and innovation on the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations. This limitation can be the main factor why today there are less than 20% of mature organisations in worldwide are successful in the business development for continuous business growth and survival (Berry, 2017); over 50% of new business fail within five years (Aldrich, 1999) and about one-third of all new organisations fail within the first few years of operation in the business development, while another significant percentage fail within four years (Barringer & Gresock, 2008); high failure rate reaching over 70% for the new business development (Arthur & Hisrich, 2011); approximately 55% of organisations disappear from the Fortune 500 list each year, partially due to business failure in the market (Lin *et al.* 2019).

The high failure rate in the new business development is due to many organisations today manage their business development strategies in a highly amateur fashion with limited understanding of the world of business, and they do not have relevant accumulated data or experienced analysis resources, historical knowledge, experience, routines and paradigms in the business development (Cai *et al.*, 2014; Ambos & Birkinshaw, 2017; Baum & Bird, 2000). Delmar & Shane (2003) added on that a significant factor that contributed to the success or failure in business development was planning, or lack of planning. Russo (2010), Laszlo & Zhexembayeva (2011) and Accenture (2013) highlighted that many mature organisations were weak in their business development strategy execution, and facing challenges to maintain continuous business growth for their survival and future success. Mature organisations live on their past successes and in the comfort zone more to protect what they have gained instead of targeting new territory (Dufour *et al.*, 2018). This is the reason mature organisations are not active in business development. Mature organisations will experience increasing formalization and control through bureaucracy (Quinn & Cameron, 1983;), decreasing leadership and innovation (Daft & Weick, 1984; Mintzberg, 1984), erosion of competitive advantages, decreasing sales and profits, as well as loss of market share and position (Hank, 1990; Miller & Friesen, 1984; Lester *et al.*, 2003).

While organisations are lacking skills, time and budget, their ability to strategically use internal and external knowledge for innovation, manage it, and support operational infrastructure becomes important to maintain their continuous business growth and productivity (Audretsch & Belitski, 2021). Son *et al.* (2020) shared that leadership had a crucial role in the success or failure of organisations, and the global market was bolstering organisations that could create, share and apply knowledge a little quicker than their key competitors. Ting *et al.* (2020) supported and added on that leaders played an important role in establishing organisations' superiority for continuous progress and development, and guiding employees to solve problems in the organisations. Leaders play a role in managing knowledge, which is important to the innovative performance of organisations (Ting *et al.,* 2020). Today, many Malaysian organisations have poor innovative performance because most of them only imitate existing products in the markets rather than being novel and creative (Ting *et al.*, 2020). Most Malaysian organisations are not effectively managing and using their knowledge resources and capability, and they are suffering from a shortage of skilled workers and weak productivity growth due to a lack of employee creativity and innovation (Ting *et al.* 2020).

In this research, it involves the critical instance case study of the flavour business of GFM. GFM is a mature organisation facing business decline and in crisis of being closed down, if they do not achieve their 5-year sales target of USD25.9 million in 2020. Referring to Figure 1.0.9, the other issues for GFM include the high expectation from their top management, the small market size with high market share, the high sales contribution and business slowdown of their top 10 customers, the small customer base due to weak business development strategies to explore, identify and establish new customers, the high bargaining power of customers, the high threat of substitutes and new entry, the high market competition, as well as the poor leadership and innovation.

The collected data from this research will show the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations. It will also show the moderating effect of leadership and innovation on the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations. This research finding will be useful for mature organisations to design their business strategy in order to achieve successful product development, diversification and market development for continuous business growth for their survival and future success.

GFM will be able to learn and apply this research finding to their business strategy design, driving successful business development strategies to overcome their seven competitive drivers in Figure 1.0.9, and delivering double digits of sales growth in 2019 and 2020. Then, GFM will be able to achieve their 5-year sales target of USD25.9 million in 2020 and overcome their crisis of being closed down. This will also lead GFM moving from maturity stage to revival stage in their organisational life cycle for continuous business growth for the survival and future success.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENTS

PS1: What are the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations?

PS2: What is the moderating effect of leadership and innovation on the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations?

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

RO1: To study whether product development drives business growth.

RO2: To study whether diversification drives business growth.

RO3: To study whether market development drives business growth.

RO4: To investigate whether leadership affects the strengths of product development, diversification and market development for business growth.

RO5: To investigate whether innovation affects the strengths of product development, diversification and market development for business growth.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

RQ1: What is the relationship between product development and business growth performance?

RQ2: What is the relationship between diversification and business growth performance?

RQ3: What is the relationship between market development and business growth performance?

RQ4: What is the relationship between leadership with product development, diversification and market development for business growth?

RQ5: What is the relationship between innovation with product development, diversification and market development for business growth?

1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

H1: Product development leads to business growth.

H2: Diversification leads to business growth.

H3: Market development leads to business growth.

H4: The stronger the leadership, the higher the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

H5: The stronger the innovation, the higher the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

1.6 SCOPE OF RESEARCH

This research studied whether the business development strategies of product development, diversification and market development in Ansoff Matrix Theory drove business growth for mature organisations, and what will be the moderating effect of leadership and innovation on the relationship between these three business development strategies with the business growth performance of mature organisations. Business growth is defined as the business expansion, stability, profitability and efficiency of mature organisations.

This is a research focusing on the study of mature organisations with high risk entering the decline stage in their organisational life cycle, and it involved a critical instance case study of the flavour business of food industry in Malaysia for a mature organisation called GFM. GFM is the operation site for Company GF in Malaysia, and they are one of the top 10 global flavour industry leader in the food industry in Malaysia. Figure 1.6.1 indicates the different issues happening on GFM and mature organisations.

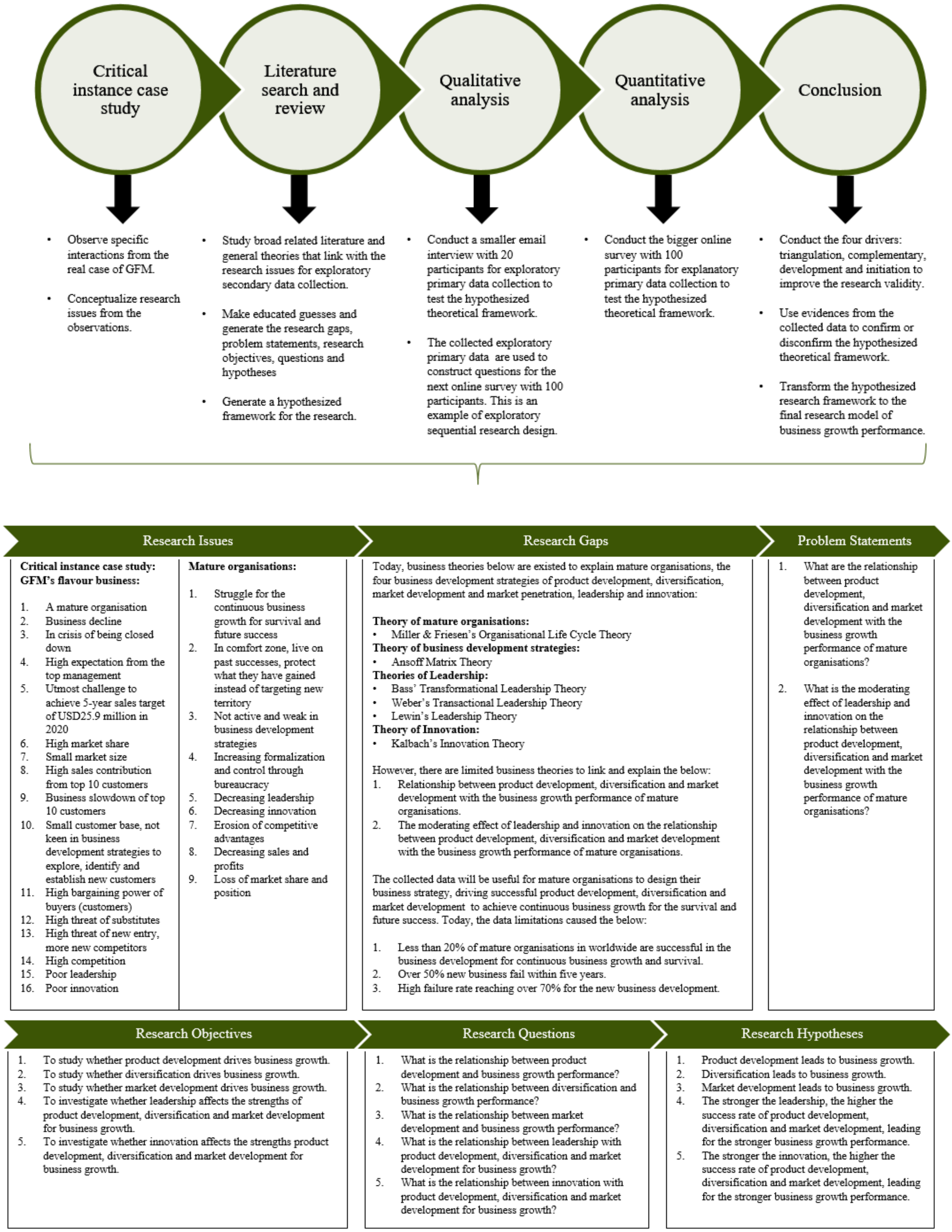
Research philosophy of pragmatism was used in this research for understanding reality (ontology), building knowledge (epistemology) and gathering information (methodology). Creswell (2013) mentioned that pragmatism was not faithful to any one system of philosophy or reality, but focused on the research enquiry and problem. According to Creswell (2013), pragmatism placed the research problem centrally and applied all approaches to understand the problem, and all the research questions, data collection and analysis methods were chosen as those most likely to provide insights into the research questions with no philosophical loyalty to any alternative paradigms. Research paradigm of radical structuralist was used in this research, where there is readiness to adopt a critical perspective on organisational life, and approach the organisational problems from the viewpoint of overturning the existing state of affairs (Saunder *et al.*, 2009).

Referring to the research flowchart in Figure 1.6.1, this research started with a critical instance case study to observe specific interactions from the real case of GFM, and research issues were conceptualized from the observations. Then, the research involved literature search and review to study broad related literature and general theories that link with the research issues for secondary exploratory data collection before any educated guesses were made, and the research gaps, problem statements, research objectives, research questions and research hypotheses were generated. After that, the hypothesized framework of the research was generated, and a qualitative analysis following by a quantitative analysis was conducted to test it. The qualitative analysis involved a smaller email interview with 20 participants for exploratory primary data collection, and the quantitative analysis involved bigger online survey with 100 participants for explanatory primary data collection. The collected exploratory primary data from email interview were used to construct questionnaire for the online survey as an example of exploratory sequential research design. Four drivers: triangulation, complementary, development and initiation were conducted to improve the research validity before the collected data were used as evidences to confirm or disconfirm the hypothesized research framework, and finally the research model of business growth performance was generated.

Referring to the research flowchart in Figure 1.6.1, the combination of inductive and deductive approaches was used, where the inductive approach involved observations of specific interactions and conceptualization of research issues from the real case of GFM, and a qualitative analysis was conducted to test the hypotheses. The deductive approach involved the study broad related literature and general theories, making educated guesses and generating gaps, problem statements, objectives, questions and hypotheses for the research. The deductive approach also involved generation of a hypothesized theoretical framework for the research, and a quantitative analysis was conducted to test the hypotheses.

Exploratory sequential mixed-method approach was applied in this research, where an email interview was conducted to collect the exploratory primary qualitative data first, then an online survey was created based on the qualitative data analysis of email interview to collect the explanatory primary data to test the hypothesized theoretical framework. All 20 participants invited for the email interview and 100 participants invited for the online survey were selected from the food industry of Malaysia and Singapore through the purposeful sampling method. Purposeful sampling is defined as a judgemental sampling which allows using judgement to select the samples that will be best enable to answer the research questions and meet the research objectives. The email interview involved 20 experts having more than ten years of business development experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore, while the online survey involved 100 employees having minimum five years of working experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore. NVivo, the qualitative data analysis computer software produced by QSR International was used to analyse the collected qualitative data from the email interview. SPSS, the software package widely used for statistical analysis in social science was used to analyse the collected quantitative data from the online survey.

Figure 1.6.1: Research Flowchart.



1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF RESEARCH

Findings of this research will clearly indicate whether the three new business development strategies: product development, diversification and market development in Ansoff Matrix Theory (independent variables) will drive business growth (dependent variable), and whether leadership and innovation drivers (moderator variables) for the success of product development, diversification and market development for the business growth.

This research studied the flavour business of GFM as the real critical instance case study for a mature organisation. GFM would learn and apply those findings to the success of their organisational transformation plan to overcome the seven competitive drivers in Figure 1.0.9 for their business resilience. This business resilience led GFM for the achievement of their 5-year sales target of UD25.9 million in 2020, and helped them to solve the crisis of being closed down.

Figure 1.6.1 indicates the different issues where GFM and other mature organisations will face in their organisational life cycle. Findings from this research eventually will be beneficial for all mature organisations from different industries, where they can use those findings to design their business strategy, driving successful product development, diversification and market development to achieve continuous business growth for survival and future success.

Findings of this research will contribute closing the research gaps of limited business theories to link and explain the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations, and the moderating effect of leadership and innovation on the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations. This eventually will help to increase the percentage of mature organisations in worldwide to be successful in the business development for continuous business growth and survival.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 MATURE ORGANISATIONS AND THEIR BUSINESS GROWTH

Miller & Friesen (1984) distinguished business life cycle into five stages: birth, growth, maturity, revival and decline in their Organisational Life Cycle Theory in Figure 2.0.1. According to Miller & Friesen (1984), organisations changed over time, the changes included their business growth, leadership, structure, innovativeness and many other areas. Tichy (1980), Mintzberg (1989) and Kimkberly & Miles (1980) supported Miller & Friesen (1984) and mentioned organisations changed over time as they attempted to grow in different forms by having a set of organisational activities that changed over time, and the changes would affect their business growth.

Mature organisations are defined as organisations at the maturity stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory, ordering from an ending growth to start of a decline due to decreasing innovativeness (ability to renew) and increasing formalisation turning them into the bureaucracy full of political struggles (Mintzberg, 1984). At this stage, the formalisation and control through bureaucracy are the norm for mature organisations (Quinn & Cameron, 1983) and their top management team will focus on planning and strategy, leaving daily operations to middle managers (Daft & Weick, 1984). The competitive advantages of mature organisations will start to slowly erode and they will enter either the revival stage to reinvent their business or the decline stage to struggle with the need of a change for business resilience and growth (Mintzberg, 1984). Mature organisations live on past successes, they have passed survival test at birth stage and growth stage, growing to a point that they may seek to protect what they have gained instead of targeting new territory (Dufour *et al.,* 2018).

At the birth stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory, it marks the beginning of business introduction and development by organisations, and they struggle for survival (Lippitt & Schmidt, 1967) mediated by product development and acquisition of necessary resources (Jawahar & McLaughlin, 2001). At this stage, organisations generate negative cash (Scott & Bruce, 1987) without any power over their external environment and therefore need to adapt to it (Lyden, 1975). The organisational structure is simple, often informal and with centralized leadership (Smith *et al.*, 1985; Gray & Ariss, 1985), and the focus is on viability, or simply identifying a sufficient number of customers to support existence of organisations.

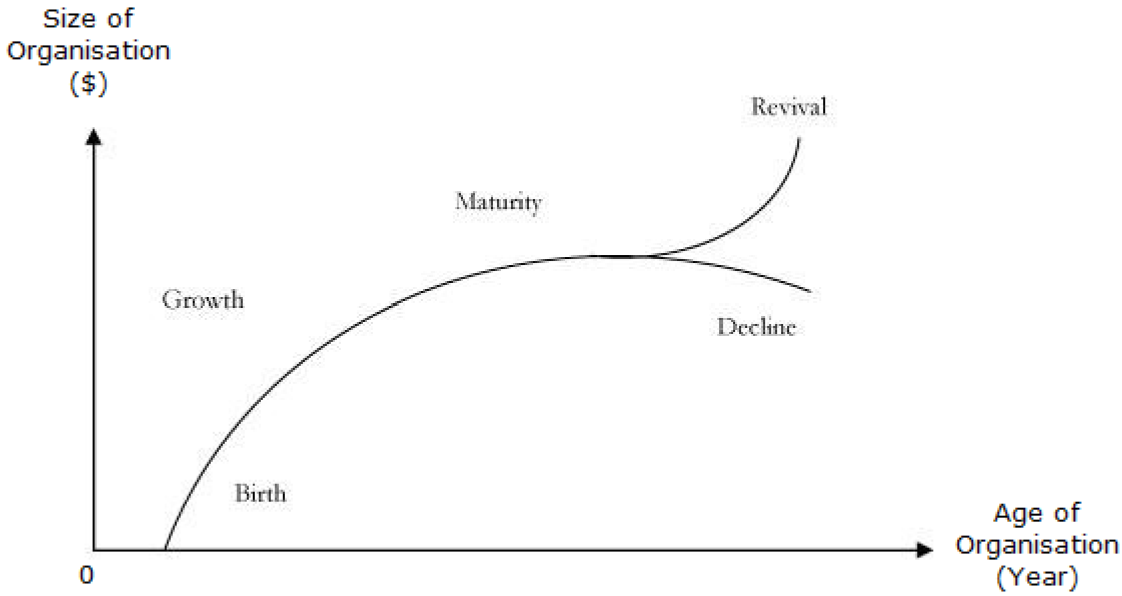
At the growth stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory, organisations develop some formalisation of structure (Quinn & Cameron, 1983) and establish their own distinctive competitive advantages, growth in sales and market share (Miller & Friesen, 1984).

The structure and processes are gradually becoming formal with organisations adapting U-form structure (Gaibraith, 1982). According to Churchill & Lewis (1983) and Scott & Bruce (1987), the focus of organisations would switch to manage relatively rapid expansion with the primary goal being the generation of enough revenue to continue operations and finance sufficient growth to stay competitive. Daft & Weick (1984) shared the growth stage provided several interesting alternatives where some organisations grew larger and prosper well enough to enter the next stage of maturity, some “hit and missed”, earning marginal returns in some fiscal cycles, and others failed to generate sufficient revenue to survive.

At the decline stage in Miller & Friesen’s Organisational Life Cycle Theory, organisational members become more concerned with their personal goals than they are with organisational goals (Mintzberg, 1984). Organisations are unable to meet the external demands of a former stage and experience erosion of competitive advantages resulting in decreasing sales and profits (Hanks, 1990; Hanks *et al.,* 1994), and loss of market share and market position (Lester *et al.*, 2003; Miller & Friesen, 1984). This decline stage may end up either negatively for the future organisational existence when it leads to the demise or the loss of independence or it may turn into successful revival. Therefore, business growth is important for the survival and future success of mature organisations. It is important for mature organisations to achieve continuous business growth toward success in the current turbulent, hyper-competitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis (Bergmiller & McCright, 2009). However, most mature organisations today are already in comfort zone to enjoy their past successes, they become less flexible, inactive and not serious in their strategy implementation and execution to drive further business growth (Russo, 2010; Laszlo & Zhexembayeva, 2011; Accenture, 2013; Garza-Reyes, 2015).

At the revival stage in Miller & Friesen’s Organisational Life Cycle Theory, mature organisations will present a renewed focus on exploration of new possibilities to return to a leaner time with collaboration and teamwork to foster innovation and creativity through the use of a matrix structure and decision-making which is very much decentralised (Miller & Friesen, 1984). At this stage, mature organisations may adapt M-form structure to keep both their old and new business lines separated from each other, and new resources such as new people skilled in R&D, engineering, planning or performance analysis are also brought in to help the revival to happen for business resilience and further growth (Miller & Friesen, 1984; Hanks, 1990; Hanks *et al.*, 1994).

Figure 2.0.1: Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory.



Source: Miller & Friesen (1984)

According to Aithal (2016), organisations achieved business growth when they achieved growth, stability, profitability and efficiency, where the growth involved the expansion of a business, its markets, products, services and size; the stability involved a consolidation strategy for organisations, often before a period of growth; the profitability was concerned how well returns had been generated from the business; the efficiency was concerned with how well resources had been used in meeting organisational objectives. Nidumolu *et al.* (2009), Lubin & Esty (2010) and Kiron *et al.* (2012) added on that the business growth offered opportunities for organisations to drive innovation, increase competitiveness and generate bottom line results through lowering costs and increasing revenues. It also brings a positive impact on product and process design as well as the brand equity, and it is relevant for the future success of organisations (Carcano, 2013).

Dubrovski (2014) supported Aithal (2016) and viewed business growth as a key success factor for organisations to achieve a healthy core business with available financial resources, a positive attitude and sufficient motivation to employees for the reorganisation process, a capable and competent management team with the necessary authorization and capability of ensuring a positive cash flow and profit which included development of future prospects for added values. Dubrovski (2014) explained further that the available financial resources should be in long-term to get ready to overcome liquidity deficits including the payment of remedial costs and ensure development steps (revitalization).

In order for organisations to achieve business growth for organisational resilience in the current global economy with increased competition and ever changing markets especially in the crisis context, Ates & Bititci (2011) and Sanchez & Perea (2015) emphasized the need for organisations to pay attention for long term planning and external communication to drive change proactively in order to manage disturbances of the normal workflow and regain a dynamically stable stage that allowed their organisational goals to be achieved. Sanchez & Perea (2015), Su & Tang (2016), Carter (2010), Appelbaum & Wohl (2000), Kang & Montoya (2013), Mccampbell (1997), Liu *et al.* (2005), Baker & Sinkula (1999) and Mallic & Schroeder (2005) stressed further that organisations should always get prepared and ready to confront with any unpredicted business crises for survival and continuous business growth.

Business growth is important for the survival and future success of organisations. In order to achieve the business growth, organisations shall continue to strengthen themselves and become more resourceful through learning from the past mistakes, making proactive decisions, creating a culture of innovation, collaboration and maintenance of positive adjustment under challenging conditions not only to defend the idea for organisational resilience, but also encompass the key idea to emerge stronger (Sanchez & Perea, 2015). Organisations need to focus more on innovation in exploring new ideas and designing new products to develop new markets than maintaining cost leadership in old markets through cost-cutting strategies (Su & Tang, 2016), and they shall employ effective survival techniques in the short team as well as plan for the success in the long term when facing a crisis (Appelbaum & Wohl, 2000).

For organisations to achieve business growth, they shall continually in search of the next innovative step toward success in order to survive and remain competitive when facing a crisis, and they must develop new products as existing products will enter decline stage (Mccampbell, 1997). The existing product replacement with new products must be envisioned, conceptualized, designed, developed, marketed and finally sold in sufficient quantity for mature organisations to ensure continued growth, to earn significant profits to placate their shareholders, to remain competitive and retain market share in the industry (Mccampbell, 1997). Liu *et al.* (2005) agreed with Sanchez & Perea (2015) and Mccampbell (1997), they addressed that mature organisations should constantly innovate and conduct research for new technology and new product development to cope with customer demands and the threats from both existing and new competitors as product life cycles had become shorter than before due to advances in science and technology, and rapid market changes.

Baker & Sinkula (1999) shared the ability to learn a rapidly changing business environment was a key to survival and growth for organisations when facing a crisis. Bharijoo (2005), By (2005), Sackmann *et al.* (2009) and Biedenbach & Soderholm (2008) added on that the organisations would reduce the risk of out from business when facing a crisis through maintaining their competitiveness and viability by continuously adapting to changing circumstances with initiating and implementing fundamental large-scale changes in the way they operated and ran their business. According to Aboody & Lev (2000), Hagedoorn & Cloodt (2003), Hu (2001), Jang & Huang (2005), Nikzad *et al.* (2007) and Sher & Yang (2005), organisations should take R&D investment strategy as central to the survival and renewal to allow carrying out specific innovation project when facing a crisis, and a strong R&D investment strategy would allow the organisations to achieve better performance and business growth, to create competitive advantages and enhance economic value of a business. R&D investment strategy will encourage an organisation's operations for long-term growth opportunities through conducting R&D activities for commercially technological innovation, process improvements and productive capacities under special government science and technology plans (David *et al.*, 2000).

2.1 CRISIS SITUATION IN ORGANISATIONS

Buller & Mcevoy (2016), Bharijoo (2005), By (2005), Sachkmann *et al.* (2009) and Biedenbach & Soderholm (2008) warned the need for organisations to maintain their competitiveness and viability for business growth through continuously initiating and implementing fundamental large-scale changes in the way they operated and ran their business to adapt the current turbulent, hypercompetitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis, otherwise they would run the risk going out of business. The word crisis has been used interchangeably with other terms such as disaster, business interruption, catastrophe and emergency (Herbane, 2010), and it is defined as a short-term undesired, unfavourable and critical situation in organisations, creating a distressing, uncertain and worrisome situation that directly endanger the existence and further development of organisations (Dubrovski, 2011; Barnett & Pratt, 2000; Crone, 2007; Fearn-Banks, 2011; Grunert, 2007; Hermann, 2008; Hommel *et al.*, 2006; James & Wooten, 2010). Crisis is a progressive process that is not restricted to one area within a common border, but it can ensnare rapidly and emerge with other crises for consequence extension, and it is caused by intertwined and simultaneous action of both external and internal sources (Hart *et al.*, 2001).

Crisis consists of three common elements: a threat, a surprise and a short time decision, and the best way for crisis management is to prevent it, and the best way prevent a crisis is to anticipate it (Mikusova & Horvathova, 2019). Litovchenko (2012) and Coombs & Hollady (2012) mentioned that crisis management was not a single activity but several levels of activity like crisis prevention, planning, training, response and recovery that considered both internal and external environmental factors, and could be divided into three processes: the pre-crisis (prevention and preparation), the crisis (response) and the post-crisis (learning & revision).

Crisis management team covers external and internal members who routinely deal with issues affecting the survival of organisations, experiencing difficulties that directly endanger their existence and further development (Dubrovski, 2014; Carter, 2010). Crisis management team is expected to have experience in working under pressure, to be prepared for crises, to have a realistic confidence in own abilities, to remain focussed and to adapt for changing conditions, to take duties and responsibilities for risk and information assessment, judgement and decision making, planning, organizing, leading and monitoring for the purpose to stop organisations from a crisis through achieving a drastic change and providing the foundation for redevelopment and resilience (Haus *et al.,* 2016; Durbrovski, 2014).

Lymersky (2014) stressed the need for organisations to detect symptoms of a crisis in time so that proper preventive actions and timely curative activities could be implemented to mitigate or even prevent their occurrences, and working on the wrong symptoms and reasons was just a waste of time, money and efforts to make the crisis situation worse. Symptoms of a crisis are the signals or signs that indicate a possible crisis in the organisations or foreseen ones, and those symptoms can be caused by both internal and external factors (Dubrovski, 2016).

Internal factors such as declining of market shares, decreasing of orders in the next business period, increasing of stock, increased rate of customers' complaints and product recall from the perspective of Sales & Marketing; worsening of financial results, creative accounting to present better results, increased number of legal procedures from the perspective of Finance & Accounting; declining productivity, failures in production, postponed development projects from the perspective of Development & Production; leaving of the best workers, dissatisfaction, changed behaviour of management, spreading of unhealthy corporate culture from the perspective of Human Resources; limited communication, the appearance of informal parallel organisation, obsolete organisational procedures from the perspective of Organisation & Information can be the possible symptoms for a crisis in organisations (Dubrovski, 2016). External factors such as changes in the market, change in the industry, changes on the basis of general and technological process, a general economic crisis, social changes, political changes, macroeconomic measures, natural disasters, sociopathological phenomena caused by external business environment can be the possible symptoms for a crisis in organisations (Durbrovski, 2016).

Ansoff (1979), Dess & Beard (1984), Bierly & Daly (2007) and Teece *et al.* (1997) highlighted that the current turbulent, hyper-competitive and complex business environment was the main factor causing more and more organisations fell into crisis situation, where turbulent business environment was referring to the dynamic and volatile business environment with rapid and unpredictable changes in various market elements such as customer preference, technology and competitor structure. Carter (2010), Kiss & Barr (2014), Bowen & Wiersema (2005) referred hyper-competitive business environment to the worldwide and regional increasing competition, fast and slow-paced competition, foreign and domestic-based competition from competitors in the industry. Duncan (1972) and Koufteros *et al.* (2005) referred complex business environment to the uncertain equivocal, proliferate and diversified of relevant factors in both internal and external business environments.

In the current turbulent business environment, Sorensen & Stuart (2000) and Jansen *et al.* (2006) warned the repeated changes in customer demands, technology and business practices made existing products and services obsolete, and organisations needed to continuously modify their products and services, or develop new ones in order to stay competitive for business growth. Hitt *et al.* (2000) also warned the sudden and unpredictable changes in this business environment reduced the value organisations' existing knowledge and even rendered it obsolete.

Organisations need to introduce an exploratory innovation strategy and develop new products that move away from existing products, services and markets in order to minimize the threat of obsolescence for driving business growth (Hitt *et al.,* 2000). Eisenhardt & Martin (2000) shared the reliance of organisations whether on new knowledge, products and services through the introduction of exploratory innovation strategy or existing knowledge, products and services through the introduction of exploitative innovation strategy depended upon the turbulence of business environment.

Revilla (2010) commented that both exploration and exploitation should be combined according to environmental factors by generating the alternative strategies of ambidexterity or punctuated equilibrium for organisations to achieve business growth. The benefits of exploitative innovation are less in turbulent business environment as customer preferences are relatively stable in stable business environment and the competition is based on strategies relating to efficiency and cost reduction to focus on incremental processes (exploitation) of product developments rather than radical product innovations (exploration) (Bierly & Daly, 2007). Therefore, the organisations in stable business environment will become complacent, not learning as fast as the organisations facing higher business environmental turbulence, and will invest less in exploratory innovation (Revilla, 2010).

In the current hyper-competitive business environment, Stalk & Hout (1990), Wheelwright & Clark (1992) and Sanchez (1995) stressed that the business environment in many industries had been changing and becoming very competitive in recent years due to shortening product life cycles and increasing demands from customers asking for more sophisticated products and also more product variety. In order for organisations to cope with the hyper-competitive business environment for the benefits of positive and increasing returns (Bayus et al., 2003; Chandy & Tellis, 2000; Sorescu *et al.,* 2003), it is important for the organisations to oversee relevant innovations emerging in their respective markets (Golovatchev *et al.*, 2010), to involve in sophisticated R&D cooperation works (Roijakkers & Hagedoorn, 2006) and apply dispersed knowledge from around the world (Chesbrough, 2003).

Brown & Eisenhardt (1997) and Eisenhardt & Tabrizi (1995) addressed fast-paced competitive business environments required fast-paced action, and vice-versa. Brown & Eisenhardt (1995) added further that the implementation of both fast and slow new product development processes could have a positive effect on organisational performance to drive new business development for business growth, and the pace of new product development should be matched to the pace of environmental competitiveness change. Kiss & Barr (2014) agreed with Brown & Eisenhardt (1995) and claimed organisations that implemented new product development strategies more quickly would have higher performance in higher growth industries (high turbulent industries with fast-paced competition), and organisations that implemented new product development strategies more slowly would have higher performance in lower growth industries (less turbulent industries with slow-paced competition).

Kiss & Barr (2014) strongly pointed out that new businesses operating under less turbulent industries with slow-paced competition would get benefits of spending more time learning the environment, doing testing, and integrating the related knowledge into the new product development process outweighed the potential effects to be gained through first-mover advantages. Those related knowledge incorporating into the product will improve its quality and market performance, and then can be transferred into organisational repository to guide future new product development activities. According to Kiss & Barr (2014), organisations that attempted a more rapid pace of new product development in less turbulent industries with slow-paced competition would limit the knowledge accumulation through learning and information processing, and eventually would increase the likelihood of negative performance effects due to poor product design and manufacturing or weak and ineffective market introduction that might quickly outweigh the positive effects of being quick to the market.

In contrast, organisations that adopt a slower pace of new product development in high turbulent industries with fast-paced competition may spend too much time in learning and testing for the new product development, which eventually miss the important, fleeting and windows of opportunity (Kiss & Barr, 2014). However, Kiss & Barr (2014) also highlighted the organisations that had been working in slow-paced new product development for less turbulent industries with slow-paced competition for certain periods would have potential and capability to speed up the testing, trials and new product development with the immediate available information stored in the organisational repository, possibly even skipping essential steps for product launching into the market first and reaped possible first-move advantages.

Caves (1996), De Backer (2002) and Driffield & Munday (2000) stated that foreign-based competition was stronger in its effects and more disruptive than domestic-based competition, and it had significantly greater economic and competitive ramifications for a country's domestic markets. This foreign-based competition can even lead to the disappearance of an entire domestic industry (Bowen & Wiersema, 2005). Caves (1996), De Backer (2002), Driffield & Munday (2000) and Esposito & Esposito (1971) described further that increased foreign-based competition would increase the rate of technological development in an industry since foreign organisations were likely to be leveraging specific advantages creating greater pressure on domestic organisations to increase efficiency to remain competitive in the market.

Foreign-based competition brings both advantages and disadvantages to domestic organisations (Bowen & Wiersema, 2005). The disadvantages of foreign-based competition are the failing profits, reduced growth and declining market share as the competition among organisations in red ocean grows fierce leading to price wars, which are detrimental to innovation, and make the market space becomes crowded and the prospects of growth decline (Alhaddi, 2014; Eskandari *et al.*, 2015; Mina & Mohseni, 2015; Tantau & Mateesescu, 2013), while the advantages of foreign-based competition are the rationalization of production, pressures on the domestic organisations for greater plant efficiency and technological developments (Domowitz *et al.*, 1986; Ghosal, 2002; Katics & Petersen, 1995; Tybout , 2001), and the domestic organisations are require to rise to a 'world class' level to remain competitive in the market (Lucas, 1993).

In the current complex business environment, organisations are facing problems to identify key factors strategically important for driving business growth (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993). Internal business environmental complexity will increase the number of criteria to be specified by different functions within the organisations, and the need of connecting people from the different functions are required for them to think together and create contexts where knowledge can be flowed, interpreted, leveraged and integrated for the development of effective coordination mechanisms within any new business development initiative for driving business growth (McDermott, 1999; Berdrow & Lane, 2003).

Business environmental complexity is related with communication problems between upstream and downstream knowledge workers, users, suppliers and producers due to difference in language norms and mental models, and the ability to integrate, align and recombine different knowledge stream and competences (Henderson & Cockburn, 1994). Liker *et al.* (1996) warned that many organisations today are poorly equipped to face complex business environment because they are highly bureaucratic with functional structures that inhibit the free flow and processing information. Today complex business environment causes the market is overloaded with variety of information flows that constant evolve, making products and services become more diverse and adaptable, and customers require individualised solutions and personalised customizations, while the product and service lifecycles are shortening (Kutsikos & Kontos, 2013).

According to Yenidogan & Aksoy (2017), there was shifting of the traditional rhetoric of efficiency-driven economy spreading throughout the 20th century towards a knowledge-based, innovation-driven competitiveness and economic development in the 21st century, and the strategy processes and performance outcomes of the organisations in this new economy were affected by a complex set of systemic factors (politic, economic, social, technological, ecological, legal factors) at the local, regional, national and international levels. Iansiti (1995), Song *et al.* (2001) and Carter & Baker (1991) added on the greater the environmental turbulence, the greater the environmental complexity, and vice versa.

2.2 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT AND BUSINESS GROWTH

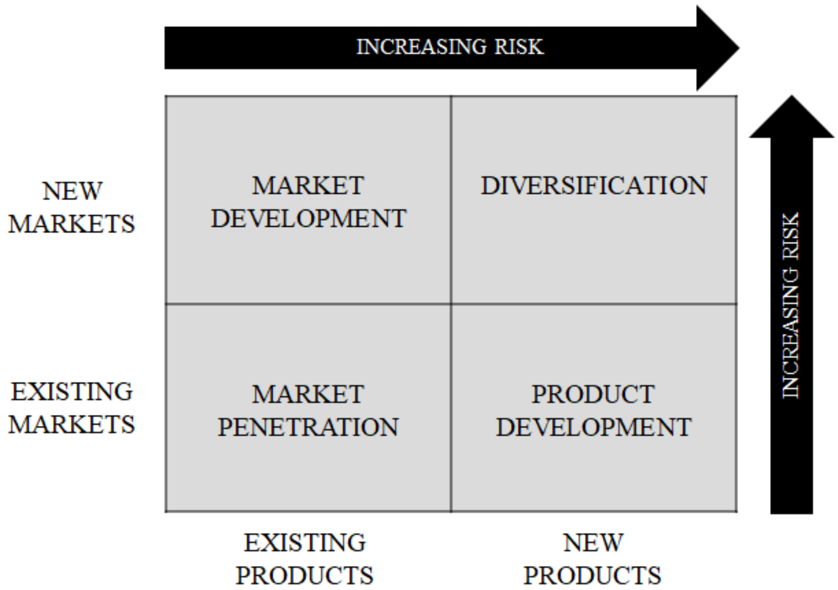
Hisrich *et al.* (2001) defined new business development as the process to create something new with value by devoting the necessary time and effort, assuming the accompanying financial, psychic and social risks, and resulting rewards of monetary, satisfaction and independence for organisations. Jennings & Beaver (1997) and Lumpkin & Dess (2001) supported Hisrich *et al.* (2001) and stated that the superior performance in business development generated robust returns on investment and growth in sales, volume, profit market share, and employment which in turn drove business growth for organisations. McCann & McCarren (2012) added on that the success in business development contributed organisations for growing business, gaining market share, attracting and retaining customers, competing for success, conducting operations and achieving objectives for business growth.

Cornelissen & Clarke (2000) supported Hisrich *et al.* (2001) and claimed business development targeted to provide specific solutions to identified needs or problems together with a significant value to an identified market segment, which in turn supported and justified for business growth in organisations. According to Kutsikos & Kontos (2013) and Lindic *et al.* (2012), the new business growing was the dominant source of job creation, market innovation, economic growth and establishing significant competitive advantages for organisations to drive business growth. Shane (2003) aligned with Kutsikos & Kontos (2013) and Lindic *et al.* (2012), and highlighted the new business growing facilitated the ability of organisations to survive, grow and generate profit in the face of competition for business growth.

Today, many organisations in worldwide still face challenges and difficulties to achieve success in the business development for business growth. Berry (2017) shared only 20% organisations in worldwide were successful in the business development for continuous business growth and survival. Aldrich (1999) shared over 50% of new businesses failed within 5 years. Barringer & Gresock (2008) shared about one-third of all new organisations including both for profit and non-profit organisations failed within the first few years of operation in the business development, while another significant percentage failed within four years. Therefore, Kim & Mauborgne (2017) stressed business development to be an integral part of an organisational strategy to drive business growth, and it could not be a random, high-risk endeavour that conducted through trial and error, it needed a reliable process.

Ansoff Matrix Theory in Figure 2.2.1 shows and explains the four business development strategies that can be implemented and executed by organisations to drive business growth. Ansoff Matrix Theory was invented by Harry Igor Ansoff in 1965 and it is a tool used by organisations to analyse and plan their product and market growth strategies (expansion of the current business and activities or diversification into new business), to analyse the risk associated with each of the four strategies: market penetration, product development, market development and diversification that help organisations to drive business growth.

Figure 2.2.1: Ansoff Matrix Theory.



Source: Ansoff (1965)

In the market penetration strategy, organisations target to increase market share and frequency of product usage through increasing sales volume to their existing customers or finding more new customers in the same market to sell the same product (Dawes, 2018; Boyd *et al.*, 1995). Organisations target to secure dominance of growth markets and restructure a mature market by driving out competitors. This can be achieved by a combination of competitive pricing strategies, advertising, sales promotion and perhaps more resources dedicated to personal selling.

In the market development strategy, organisations target market expansion such as geographic expansion and targeting new customer segments for their existing products for further sales growth (Boyd *et al.*, 1995). This can be done in a number of ways such as entering into a new domestic market (expanding regionally), entering into a new foreign market (expanding internationally), having new product dimensions or packaging, new distribution channels and different pricing policies to attract new customer segments or create new market segments for further sales growth of the existing products.

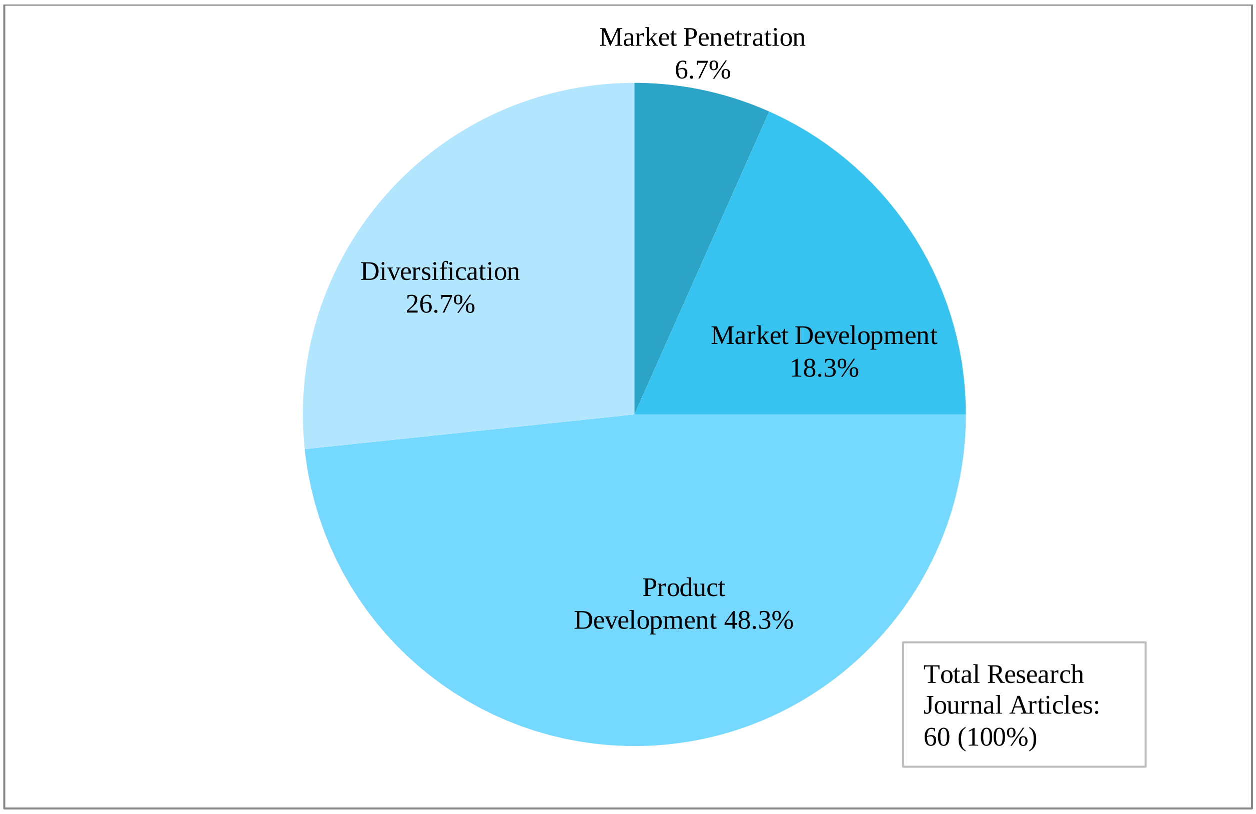
In the product development strategy, organisations target to develop and innovate products that have new and different characteristics (product line extensions and new product offerings), and promote for their existing customers in the same market for further sales growth (Dawes, 2018; Boyd *et al.*, 1995; Yin (2016). This can be achieved through investing in R&D for new product development to cater the existing market, acquiring a competitor's product and merging resources for a new product creation that better meets the need of existing market or establishing strategic partnerships with other organisations to gain access to each partner's distribution channels or brand.

In diversification strategy, organisations diversify and expand their activities by operating in new lines of business that are different from current operations for new opportunities in dealing with new unfamiliar customer groups for further sales growth (Boyd *et al.*, 1995). The diversification strategy can be divided into two types: related diversification and unrelated diversification where the related diversification means the organisations remain the business diversification in a market or industry which they are familiar. The diversification strategy can be divided again into horizontal, vertical and lateral diversification where the horizontal diversification involves the extension of the production programme; the vertical diversification involves business expansion in the forward or backward direction; the lateral diversification is one of the riskiest and costliest strategy as it will involve the search for new opportunities through the introduction of completely new products into a new market.

A literature review had been conducted to study 60 related research journal articles on the four business development strategies: market penetration, market development, product development and diversification in Ansoff Matrix Theory. Figure 2.2.2 shows the study outcome, indicating the business development strategy of product development is supported with the highest number of research journal articles (48.3%) that it leads organisations for business growth, following by diversification (26.7%), market development (18.3%) and market penetration (6.7%). The top three business development strategies: product development, diversification and market development were selected for further studies with an email interview to collect exploratory primary qualitative data, and then an online survey to collect explanatory primary data. This was how the below first problem statement generated in this research.

PS1: What are the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations?

Figure 2.2.2: Study of 60 research journal articles on business development strategies in Ansoff Matrix Theory.



New Venture Development	Journal Articles	Journal Article Number
Market Penetration	Su & Tang, 2016; Ahire & Devaraj, 2001; Berry, 2017; Munoz-Bullon *et al.*, 2015	4
Market Development	Alghamdi, 2016; Baum *et al.*, 2011; Munoz-Bullon *et al.*, 2015; Cai *et al.*, 2014; Hartono, 2015; Kachouie *et al.*, 2017; Kirkley, 2016; Lumpkin *et al.*, 2010; Oviatt & McDougall, 1994; Su & Tang, 2016; Yip & McKem, 2014	11
Product Development	Aithal, 2016; Bagheri *et al.*, 2013; Baum *et al.*, 2011; Brown & Eisenhardt, 1995; Chakrabarti, 2014; Defelix *et al.*, 2015; Eskandari *et al.*, 2015; Greitemann *et al.*, 2014; Hooley *et al.*, 2005; Jovanovic *et al.*, 2010; Kachouie & Sedighadeli, 2015; Kim & Mauborgne, 2017; Klingenberg *et al.*, 2013; Kotabe, 1990; Lichtenthaler, 2018; Lu & Beamish, 2001; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; McDermott & O'Connor, 2002; Mina & Mohseni, 2015; Porter, 1980; Prasad & Junni, 2017; Reade & Lee, 2016; Shan & Jolly, 2013; Su & Tang, 2016; Stock *et al.*, 2002; Teece *et al.*, 1997; Yeo & Deilami, 2017; Zahra, 1993; Zahra & George, 2002	29
Diversification	Aithal, 2016; Alhaddi, 2014; Arthur & Hisrich, 2011; Baum *et al.*, 2011; Beqiri, 2014; Cai *et al.*, 2014; Chakrabarti, 2014; Eskandari *et al.*, 2015; Hartono, 2015; Hisrich *et al.*, 2010; Kachouie *et al.*, 2017; Kim & Mauborgne, 1997; Kneipp *et al.*, 2019; Raman, 2014; Su & Tang, 2016; Yip & McKem, 2014	16
	Total:	60

Dawes (2018), Kotler *et al.* (2007), Yenidogan & Aksoy (2017), Boyd *et al.* (1995) and Yin (2016) supported the implementation and execution of the four business development strategies in Ansoff Matrix Theory drive organisations for business growth. Dawes (2018) mentioned Ansoff Matrix Theory was familiar to almost anyone who had done a business strategy or marketing strategy course in the last 50 years. It has prominently featured, and still features in marketing strategy / planning texts and business strategy / planning texts for new business development. Boyd *et al.* (1995) shared Ansoff Matrix Theory enabled organisations to move into two major directions in seeking future growth: expansion of its current businesses and activities or diversification into new businesses. Yin (2016) mentioned that diversified development strategies helped organisations to maximise profit and occupy more markets.

Kotler *et al.* (2007) provided examples of how Ansoff Matrix Theory could be used, using the consumer goods of multinational Unilever for new business development. According to Kotler *et al.* (2007), in the market penetration strategy, Unilever cut the price of its branded margarine or increasing its advertising to win more business from their existing and new customers for business growth; in the market development strategy, Unilever reviewed demographic groups such as kids, teenagers and young adults to see if any of these groups could be encouraged to buy, or buy more Unilever's ice-cream for business growth; in the product development strategy, Unilever offered their products in new sizes, new packaging or launched new products such as Flore cholesterol lowering margarine to win more new business for business growth; in the diversification strategy, Unilever invested into the growing health and fitness industry, which included gym equipment, health foods and slimming programs for driving business growth.

Block & MacMillan (2003) added on that the more mature a market, the more difficult and expensive for organisations to grow by increasing their market share (market penetration), therefore it became imperative for the organisations to innovate and develop new products (product development) and new markets (market development) in order to survive and grow. Block & MacMillan (2003) emphasized that an organisation's very survival depended on constant growth and defence against competition, and the long-run competitiveness could not be maintained without innovation and the generation of new ventures through diversification.

2.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT AND BUSINESS GROWTH

Kang & Montoya (2013) claimed product development as a business development strategy involving in the development of either new products or improved products for organisations to expand their product portfolio for greater sales and profits for driving business growth. Organisations with higher product development rate will have higher new production rate to allow organisations to replace existing products more quickly and expand their product portfolio more quickly than their competitors (Miller, 1988; Fujimoto & Sheriff, 1989; Kekre & Srinivasan, 1990; Sanchez, 1995). The broader product portfolio will enable organisations to meet their customer needs more effectively by covering a wider range of market segments, and each product is able to focus more effectively on specific market niches for greater increase in sales and profit for driving business growth (Bagozzi, 1986; Kotler, 1986; Bower & Hout, 1988). Mccampbell (1997) supported Kang & Montoya (2013) and emphasised the importance of new product development for organisations as their existing products would enter decline stage and should be replaced with new products to ensure continued growth, to remain competitive and retain market share in the industry.

Bordley (2003), Quelch & Kenny (1994) and Nobeoka & Cusumano (1997) supported Kang & Montoya (2013) and mentioned when organisations developed a large number of new products (high new product development and introduction rates), they expanded their product portfolio and exhibited greater increase in sales and profits for driving business growth compared to organisations that developed and introduced fewer products. They mentioned organisations with larger product portfolio and highly diverse product lines were able to better satisfy market heterogeneous needs and wants, to deter new entering competitors and defend their competitive advantages in the market. Ansoff (1988) and Day (1981) added on the need for organisations to be active in product development to continuously introduce new products, in order to maintain market value and drive business growth to ensure the organisational survival.

According to Kang & Montoya (2013), the product development could be divided into three categories: first-to-market, fast follower and delayed entrant. First-to-market products are the pioneering products that are new to the market, bringing new technology, new features and new marketing strategies to customers (Kang & Montoya, 2013). The success of first-to-market product development helps organisations to create new markets and bring benefits not only increased profitability and financial performance, but also the advantages related to market share and customer mind share to build and sustain their competitive advantages for driving business growth (Golder & Tellis, 1993; Kerin *et al.*, 1992; Wind & Mahajan, 1997). New or pioneering products yield not only an immediate or short-term financial performance, but also persistent long-term financial performance for organisations to drive business growth, while non-pioneering mature or follower products do not significantly contribute to the financial performance of organisations (Kang & Montoya, 2013).

Kang & Montoya (2013) warned the need for organisations to balance between the number of first-to-market products (new or pioneering products) and late-entered products (mature or follower products) to the market as a new or pioneering product required more resources and it would hurt other products in the portfolio due to resource constraints and cannibalization, leading to negative indirect effects to the organisations for driving business growth. Organisations that are too aggressive in product development activities with the excessive number of new products and the introduction intensity are negatively related to financial performance and it will prevent them to achieve business growth (Chandy & Tellis, 1998; Baumol *et al.*, 1982; Lancaster, 1990; Moorthy, 1984). Organisations with a narrower product line with a focused product portfolio and fewer distinct product offerings will enable the organisations to lower design, production and inventory costs because of scale economies, and improve financial performance for driving business growth (Baumol *et la.*, 1982; Lancaster, 1990; Moorthy, 1984).

Kang & Montoya (2013) also warned the sales and profit of organisations would not increase to drive business growth based on the product development strategy with new or pioneering products alone and without support from the mature or follower products. Clark & Fujimoto (1991) and Nobeoka & Cusumano (1995) agreed with Kang & Montoya (2013) and warned that new or pioneering products with more new components required more lead time and engineering resources, therefore successful organisations should have multi-project strategies in product development in order to avoid or mitigate the trade-off between new designs and reused designs for higher performance to drive greater sales and profits for business growth.

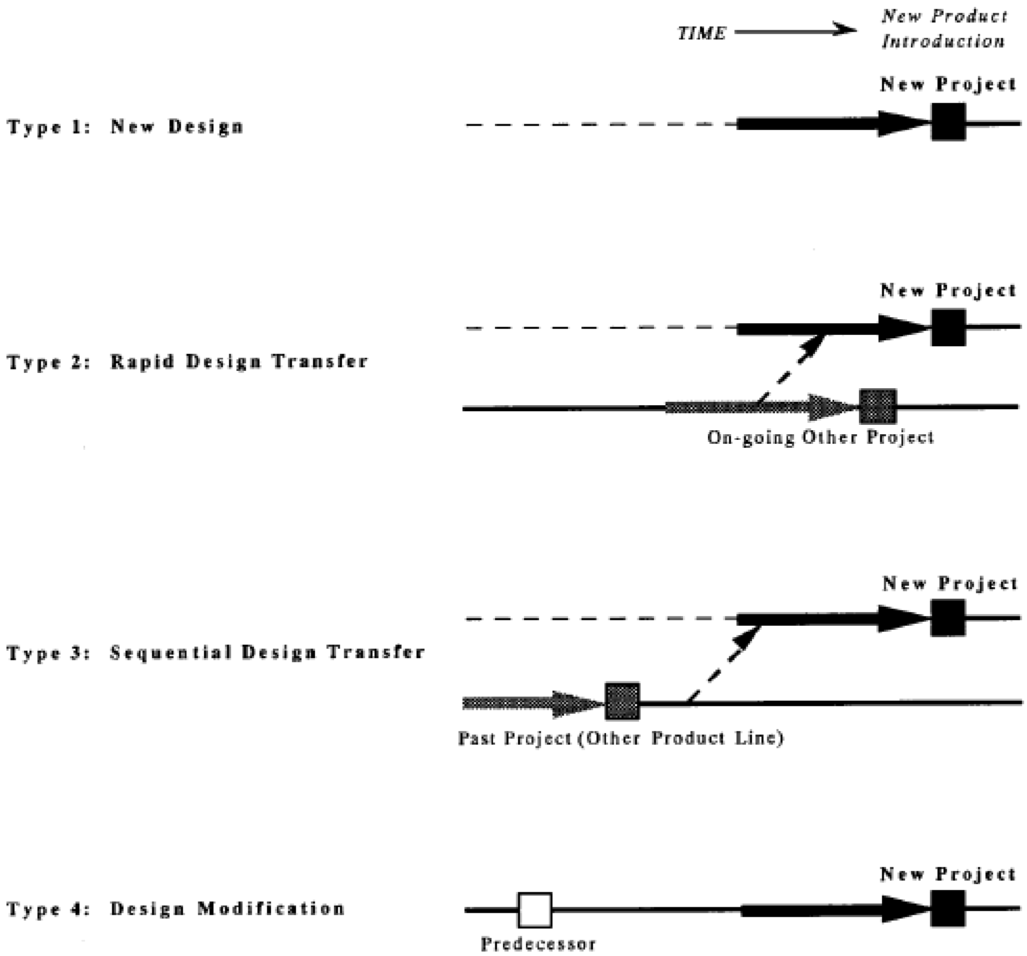
Multi-project strategies in product development induct the combination of two types of potentially related capability where one is the ability to manage individual projects effectively and another is the ability to leverage existing technologies to introduce many new products quickly, providing organisations with a potent competitive formula to respond more effectively to the changes in technologies and the continuous changes in customers' preference and demands for driving business growth (Garud & Kumaraswamy, 1995; Sanchez, 1995; Abeggien & Stalk, 1985; Womack *et al.*, 1990). It involves the consideration of both the linkages between different product lines (interproduct line linkages) and the linkages between past and present projects (evolutionary linkages) to create benefits of leveraging a distinctive product platform among multiple product lines (Wheelwright & Sasser, 1989; Wheelwright & Clark, 1992) as well as the usage of core technologies (Meyer & Utterback, 1993) among derivative projects for organisations to drive business growth.

Organisations can leverage key technologies from existing products in two different ways: one way is using existing core technologies with the gradual introduction of new components in a product redesign or replacement project to enhance the original product competitiveness and achieve economies of substitution in development (Sanchez, 1995; Garud & Kumaraswamy,1995); another way is transferring the technologies to another product line that targets a different market segment from the original product to extend the investment to move into a new market segment and achieve economies of scope in development (Goldhar & Jelinek, 1983; Cusumano, 1991, 1992; Kotha, 1995; Sanchez, 1995). According to Garud & Kumaraswamy (1995) and Pine (1993), organisations could utilize their investment effectively and still maintain a high new product introduction rate to achieve high flexibility and mass customization in development through reducing the number of new components in each project, carrying over substantial portions of existing designs, and reusing existing core technologies as often as possible.

Referring to Figure 2.3.1, multi-project strategies in product development can be categorized into four types (new design strategy, rapid design transfer, sequential design transfer and design modification) depending on the extent of changes, technology application purposes, and the timing of technology leveraging (Nobeoka & Cusumano, 1997). New design strategy involves creating a new core technology by incorporating the latest technology or totally new designs into a new product without placing many restrictions. Rapid design transfer strategy involves transferring a core design from a base product before the base product has completed its design engineering. In this strategy, some of the development phases overlap chronologically and mutual adjustments in design between the new product and the base product are possible and likely.

Sequential design transfer strategy involves transferring a design from a base product to a new product after the base product has finished its development, and it often reuses an existing design that is off-the-shelf. Differences between the sequential design transfer strategy and the rapid design transfer strategy are the sequential design transfer strategy involves transferred design that is already relatively old, mutual adjustments of the core design between the new product and the base product are no longer possible. The new product may be forced to change to accommodate elements of the core design and other components from the base product. There are too many design compromises and insufficient product integrity for the sequential design transfer, making less efficient and effective than the rapid design transfer strategy. Design modification strategy involves a project that replaces an existing product and contains a core design inherited from predecessor product. In this strategy, there is no any ongoing interproject with a base product either, and has to consider constraints from the core design of the predecessor product.

Figure 2.3.1: Typology of product development strategies.



Sources: Nobeoka & Cusumano (1997)

Kang & Montoya (2013), Su et al. (2013), Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven (1990), McDougall *et al.* (1994) and Schoonhoven *et al.* (1990) shared the relationship between the pace of product development and organisational performance for business growth was heavily influenced by the level of industry growth. They highlighted organisations in high-growth industries will require more and higher pace of product development than organisations in low-growth industries in order to compete for greater sales and profits for business growth.

High-growth industries are attractive for new entrants because they are associated with high product demand (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1990; McDougall *et al.*, 1994; Sandberg & Hofer, 1987; Schoonhoven *et al.*, 1990). High-growth industries will attract more new competitors to enter and battle for competitive supremacy in the industries through different competitive approaches and different product designs, which often result increase of the speed of change in customer preferences and demands as customers become aware of different product configurations, and the different advantages and disadvantages that each configuration provides (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1990; McDougall *et al.*, 1994; Schoonhoven *et al.*, 1990; Eisenhardt & Tabrizi, 1995; Moorman & Miner, 1998). This eventually will drive new ventures to become red oceans fast because the market space becomes crowded, the prospects of growth decline, all the involved organisations face with declining market share, reduced growth and failing profits (Alhaddi, 2014; Eskandari *et al.*, 2015).

Low-growth industries are associated with more predictable and stable patterns of information flows where the pressure to act quickly on the received information is lower. New ventures in low-growth industries are afforded the opportunity to spend more time learning about multiple dimensions of the environment and carefully integrating this information at well-determined stages associated with the new product development process that can be grouped into two major stages: design (concept generation and product design) and process (testing, trial, prototyping, engineering analysis) (Moorman & Miner, 1998; Cohen *et al.*, 1996).

Kiss & Barr (2014) commented that the shorter product development strategy implementation durations led to better performance outcomes for organisations that compete in turbulent, high-growth industry environments with fast changes in products and competitors, and the longer product development strategy implementation durations led to better performance outcomes for organisations that compete in stable, low-growth industry environments. Organisations that implement product development strategy quickly is able to capture first-mover advantages and pre-empt competitors who are late to the market for reaching higher levels of organisational performance for business growth (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997; D'Aveni, 1994; Schoonhoven *et al.*, 1990).

Cooper (1984) and Krakaya & Kobu (1994) disagreed that shorter product development strategy implementation durations were better than longer product development strategy implementation durations, as the fast implementation of product development strategy would result of restricted information-processing activities that led to shortening key processes and a reduction in technological content to an underperforming product, wasteful resource allocation and undesirable organisational performance outcomes. Product development strategy involves the acquisition, creation, utilization and dissemination of information and knowledge that originated from inside or outside of organisations and it can be viewed as a learning process (Adam *et al.*, 1998; Atuahene-Gima & Murray, 2007; Bierly & Chakarabarti, 1996; Dougherty, 1992; Kessler *et al.*, 2000; Moorman & Miner, 1997) and its success depends on absorptive capacity (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990; March & Simon 1958). Absorptive capacity is the ability of organisations to identify, acquire and utilize information that is new, and what is learned and how fast it is learned will depend on what organisations already know and new knowledge added incrementally (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990; March & Simon, 1958).

Chen *et al.* (2012), Crawford (1992) and Sethi (2000) supported that longer product development strategy implementation durations were better than shorter product development strategy implementation durations as the searching, selecting, acquiring and disseminating information were time-intensive activities for organisations to gather more relevant information, an in-depth understanding of the market and the product offered. The implementation of a broader or more novel range of related actions for product development and the mindful resource allocation are translated into better product and organisational outcomes for driving business growth. Longer product development strategy implementation durations drive organisations to learn more about competitor- and customer-driven product requirements, so that the organisations will be able to take riskier and more novel actions to explore alternatives to improve product specifications (Crawford, 1992; Sethi, 2000). Longer product development strategy implementation durations also drive organisations to execute and refine their carefully planned implementation strategies to avoid inconsistent and wasteful actions, and improve the developing product quality as well as the organisational performance for driving business growth (Calantone *et al.,* 1997; Lukas & Menon, 2004).

Findings from the above literature review show there is relationship existed between product development and business growth performance. The below first research objective, question and hypothesis are then generated for further analysis with the email interview and online survey.

RO1: To study whether product development drives business growth.
RQ1: What is the relationship between product development and business growth performance?
H1: Product development leads to business growth.

2.4 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DIVERSIFICATION AND BUSINESS GROWTH

Le (2019) referred diversification as the increase of market heterogeneity and business expansion for organisations to drive business growth. According to Le (2019), different scholars would interpret diversification differently based on their different research purposes and interests to enhance competitiveness, reduce risks, and optimize resource utilization, operators' own interests and appeals. The term "diversity" was firstly appeared and proposed in the 1950s by Harry Igor Ansoft in his publication of "Strategies of Diversification" in Harvard Business Review" in 1957, and he explained only organisations that had developed to certain stage would take diversification strategy for business growth through the development of new markets with new products for longer development and more profit (Le, 2019).

Since the beginning of diversification in the 1950s, countries around the world had experienced many corporate diversification booms and diversified operations had become an important model for the rapid expansion of some large American organisations to cross regions, industries and markets, to develop factories around the world, to expand businesses and make profits from various industries (Le, 2019). However, in the 1980s and 1990s, those large American organisations began to change their business strategy from diversification to specialization, gradually returning to strengthen their leading business and divest businesses that were not performing well or not related to the dominant business, so that the performance of those large organisations significantly improved. Since then, how should organisations abandon the choice of specialization and diversification strategy, and whether diversification strategy is beneficial or unfavourable to business growth have become topics that scholars are eager to study (Le, 2019). This makes today still no definite answer whether diversification is beneficial to business growth, and it shapes the relationship between diversification and business growth into four different types: positive correlation, negative correlation, non-significant correlation and inverted U-shaped correlation (Kipley & Lewis, 2009).

The "positive correlation" relationship between diversification and business growth shows the higher the degree of diversification, the more favourable the business growth. Le (2019), Farjoun & Moshe (1998) Cohen & Jeffrey (2005), Craig *et al.* (1993), Chiu *et al.* (2008) and Helfat *et al.* (2004) claimed diversified organisations generated competitive advantages such as economies of scope, economies from internalizing transactions, sharing of tangible resources such as distribution networks, information technology systems, sales forces and research laboratories, sharing of intangible resources such as brands, corporate reputation and technology, sharing of general management capabilities, internal capital markets and internal labour markets for greater performance to drive business growth. Diversified organisations share R&D personnel, manufacturing facilities and marketing knowledge among different products to increase their ability to cope with different technologies, manufacturing facilities and customers when entering into a new emerging field for greater performance to drive business growth (Zahra & Covin, 1993). Diversification is classified as a growth strategy for organisations to explore new business areas that promise greater profitability and it leads them to expand and enter new markets and new product lines which are related or /and unrelated to their existing business to drive business growth (Eren & Erol, 2000; Thompson & John, 2003).

According to Ansoff (1957), diversification involved the increase of new product categories in new markets for organisations to drive business growth. Penrose (1959) mentioned diversification should not only reflect in the increase of the number and variety of final products in industries, but also in the horizontal and vertical integration for organisations to drive business growth. Chandlers (1962) explained diversification differently from Ansoff (1957) and Penrose (1959), he explained from another perspective of strategy and structure where he believed adjusting organisational structure would improve the success rate of diversification to increase the final product line of organisations to drive business growth. Gort (1962) clarified that merely changing the production or integration of products was not truly diversified as diversification should involve the behaviour of organisations to develop and gradually increase the number of new markets that were significantly different from the original production markets in terms of production methods, products, markets and different industries for driving business growth. Ulgen *et al.* (2004) added on that diversification was a strategy implemented by top executives of organisations to achieve business growth by entering new business and attaining above-average returns by taking advantages of incoming opportunities.

Kim & Mauborgne (2004) claimed successful diversification would help organisations to move from a red ocean crowded with competition to blue ocean of uncontested market space and explosive growth. Table 2.4.1 indicates the differences between red ocean strategy and blue ocean strategy, and blue ocean strategies will reframe thinking from red ocean focusing on current customers and defending current position to blue ocean focusing on noncustomers, and innovate to pursue new opportunities (Kim & Mauborgne, 2004). Kim & Mauborgne (2004) explained further that blue ocean strategist did not take industry conditions as given but setting out to reshape them in their favour to create uncontested markets to serve instead of continue to compete in existing markets. Blue ocean strategists will aim to make the competition irrelevant through focusing on creating and capturing new demands instead of seeking to beat the competition through fighting over existing customers (Kim & Mauborgne, 2004). Instead of making the value-cost trade-off, blue ocean strategists will simultaneously pursue differentiation and low cost, aiming to break the value-cost trade off (Kim & Mauborgne, 2004).

Table 2.4.1: Red ocean strategy versus blue ocean strategy.

Red Ocean Strategy Focus on current customers	**Blue Ocean Strategy** Focus on noncustomers
Compete in existing markets	Create uncontested markets to serve
Beat the competition	Make the competition irrelevant
Exploit existing demand	Create and capture new demand
Make the value-cost trade-off	Break the value-cost trade-off
Align the whole system of a firm's activities with its strategic choice of differentiation or low cost	Align the whole system of a firm's activities in pursuit of differentiation and low cost
Defend current position	Innovate and pursue new opportunities

Source: Kim & Mauborgne (2004)

Block & MacMillan (2003) consider diversification strategy as a new venture development strategy because it required a fundamentally different approach to management, one consisting of integrated entrepreneurial management and leadership; it involved an activity new to organisations, including major new products, development of new markets, commercialisation of new technology and major innovative projects; it was initiated or conducted internally, and involved significantly higher risk of failure or large losses as well as greater uncertainty than the base business of organisations; it would be managed separately at some time during its life and undertaken for the purpose of increasing sales, profit, productivity or quality.

Diversification strategy is divided into two types: related diversification and unrelated diversification (Anil & Yigit, 2011; Le, 2019), where the related diversification involves market expansion into new areas within the sector that comprises but also differs from the existing products lines and markets (Johnson *et al.*, 2002), and the unrelated diversification involves entering in a new market, product line of the business that is not affiliated with the existing one (Wright et al., 1998).

Related diversification is also known as concentric diversification and it can be further divided into two types: horizontal diversification and vertical diversification (Johnson *et al.*, 2002), where the horizontal diversification is closely related to organisations' core business but is outside of its current market and product line, and this new business field is complementary to an existing product line, a by-product of an existing product or another product that will introduce a competitive advantage for organisations to drive business growth (Wright *et al.*, 1998), while the vertical diversification takes place for the production process with more than one step and organisations decide to perform one of these steps with their own facilities through to the raw materials or to the customers (Miller *et al.*, 1996). According to Le (2019), Farjoun & Moshe (1998), Cohen & Jeffrey (2005), Craig *et al.* (1993), Chiu *et al.* (2008) and Helfat *et al.* (2004), related diversification was conducive to give full play to organisations' original expertise, proprietary skills, marketing channels and other advantages with small integration risk, and it induced for sharing physical resources, sharing intangible resources (brand, reputation, technology, marketing capability and operational capability) together with transfer of skills, and sharing general management skills for organisations to drive business growth.

Unrelated diversification is also called as centrifugal diversification and it is always been regarded as an extremely dangerous strategy as its implementation is generally accompanied by the expansion of business scope and the increase of business areas in an unfamiliar field which will cause organisations to face increase of management and financial risks, to further diversify their resources and invest hugely in the process of developing the new field, to face new business-specific risks, laws and regulations, and special regulatory risks of regulatory authorities in the new field (Le, 2019). Organisations that are further diversified their human and material resources in new field will inevitably affect the cultivation and development of their original core competitiveness and bring the risk of the decline of their core competitiveness (Le, 2019).

Tihanyi *et al.* (2003) shared unrelated diversification had the advantage of growing into other business to reduce existing risks, organisations whose product were threatened by the environmental uncertainty or in decline phase of their life curve would prefer to engage in an unrelated diversification to overcome the risk arising from current industries. Organisations that expand their product lines and activities to different sectors with lower environmental uncertainty and higher profitability will confirm survival and make their cash flow more reliable (Tihanyi *et al.*, 2003). Craig *et al.* (1993) shared the transaction cost in internal capital control would be less in unrelated diversification than in related diversification as the top executives would have the opportunity to access all the available information regarding each independent business unit and monitor each business unit at the lowest transaction cost. Unrelated diversification is being economic on shared services such as public relations, legal services, financial issues and internal balance sheets, and it helps organisations to exploit their existing management skills for multiple business and at the same time to contribute profitability (Craig et al., 1993).

The "negative correlation" relationship between diversification and business growth shows the higher the degree of diversification, the more unfavourable the business growth. Porter (2001), Hill & Jones (1998), Lane *et al.* (1998) and Singh *et al.* (2007) warned that diversification would increase organisational differentiation and cause negative impacts to the organisational performance for driving business growth as it required more resources, greater collaboration and integration of interdependencies on the part of organisations, leading to increased costs of monitoring, integrating and coordinating the activities. The continued diversification escalates the dispersion of business interests, which then will cause conflict in terms of greater managerial information-processing demands and organisational complexities, inhibit organisations from responding to major external changes, raise the costs of operation, bureaucracy and governance with the corresponding negative impacts on organisational performance for driving business growth (Tallman & Li, 1996; Morrison & Roth, 1992; Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2007). Johnson *et al.* (2002), Doukas *et al.* (2002) and Hitt *et al.* (1994) agreed that diversification created negative aspects to the organisational performance for driving business growth as the continued diversification increased in coordination and control problems between the various business for managers and employees lost incentive, increased agency costs and reduced operational efficiency which eventually would exceed the benefits of diversification.

The "non-significant correlation" relationship between diversification and business growth shows the degree of diversification has no significant effect on business growth. Christensen & Montgomery (1981), Grant *et al.* (1988), Hill (1983), Hill *et al.* (1992), Montgomery (1985) and Ferris *et al.* (2002) shared no significant relationship between diversification strategy and business growth after controlling for industry effects, prior performance or measuring relatedness differently. Gort (1962) and Palepu (1985) supported and mentioned there was no correlation between diversification and business growth indicators such as increase in sales and profits. Ravenscraft (1983) added on that the relationship between the degree of diversification and the marginal gross profit margin of organisations was not obvious.

The "inverted U-shaped correlation" relationship between diversification and business growth shows there is a non-linear "U" relationship between the degree of diversification and business growth. Palich *et al.* (2000), Varadarajan & Ramanujam (1987), Kakani (2000), Markides (1995), Grant *et al.* (1988) and Markides & Willamson (1996) claimed that diversification was associated with increased business growth and profitability up to a point, after which further diversification beyond that point was associated with declining business growth and profitability due to the problem creation of complexity and the rising administrative costs of complexity. Rumelt (1974) added on that diversification involved organisations to carry out new activities related to the original activities through limited resources and strength for driving business growth, but excessive diversification would also reduce synergies and cause negative cause negative impacts on business growth.

Gary (2005) showed initial diversification moves for organisations created value through increasing resource utilization and reducing organisation slack, and once the organisation slack fell to zero, further diversification would serve only to overextend resources to cause in rising overstretching costs and negative impacts to organisational performance for driving business growth. Therefore, organisations must maintain some level of organisational slack throughout the diversification moves to prevent overextending shared resources (financial slack on the balance sheet, human resources and technology) and maintain the slack to be aligned to match their growth rate for continuous business growth and expansion (Mishina *et al.*, 2004; Meyer & Lieb, 2003; Thomson & McNamara, 2001).

Based on findings from the above literature review, although there is still no define answer whether diversification strategy is beneficial for business growth, but those findings show organisations with greater allocated resources, lesser cost of operations, superior information processing power, better cross-functional capabilities and coordination activities to handle the challenges of diversification will enjoy the diversification-performance relationship which is curvilinear, following and inverted U-shaped relationship in driving business growth. This shows there is relationship existed between diversification and business growth performance, where then the below second research objective, question and hypothesis are then generated for further analysis with the email interview and online survey.

RO2: To study whether diversification drives business growth.
RQ2: What is the relationship between diversification and business growth performance?
H2: Diversification leads to business growth.

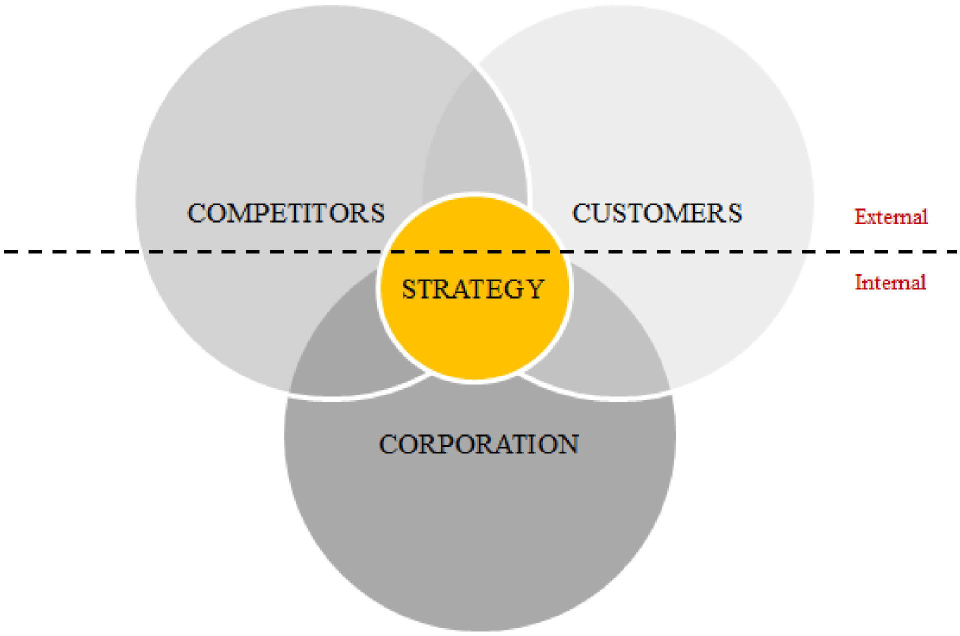
2.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MARKET DEVELOPMENT AND BUSINESS GROWTH

Kanagal (2017) claimed market development as a business development strategy involving marketing orientation, marketing concept and market strategy for organisations to identify and develop new market segments for their current products for continuous business growth and expansion. Market development involves the development of strategic thrusts and sustainable competitive advantages that are not imitable, replaceable or transferrable, and needed by organisations to convert a marketing opportunity to an organisational opportunity for targeted non-buying customers in currently target market segments and also new customers in new market segments for further business growth and expansion (Kanagal, 2017; Nath *et al.*, 2010; Vorchies & Morgan, 2005). Day & Reibstein (1997) explained further that a sustainable competitive advantage must be valuable in the market; durable and not subjected to obsolescence and depreciation; hard to obtain and replicate for the replacement; no threats of retaliation. Dzogenuku & Keelson (2019) supported Kanagal (2019) and mentioned that market development was important for organisations to create, communicate and deliver valuable products and services to satisfy their customer better than peers by leveraging on basic marketing thoughts to drive business growth.

Kanagal (2017) defined the "marketing orientation" in market development as the ability of organisations to implement their marketing concept, to orient their marketing strategy to the market requirement, and continually re-orient the marketing strategy to the changes that occurred in the market environment for achieving success in market development to drive business growth. Marketing orientation involves three behavioural thoughts: customer orientation, competitor orientation and inter-functional coordination, where the customer orientation is the careful understanding of buyers and consumers over a period to create superior value for targets, the competitor orientation encompasses acquiring information on existing and potential competitors to inform organisational strategy to appreciate both short-term strengths and weaknesses as well as long-term capabilities of the key existing and potential competitors, and the inter-functional coordination is the coordination and use of organisational resources in creating superior value for customers (Narver & Slater, 1990).

Trompenaars & Coebergh (2014) referred to Ohmae's 3C Theory in Figure 2.5.1 and explained the need for the three behavioural thoughts in marketing orientation to be in balance in the form of a strategic triangle in order to lead organisations to achieve sustainable competitive advantages and differentiate themselves from their competition, to identity their key characteristics, strengths and weaknesses in relation to the opportunities and threats that related to potential customers and competitors, driving them for the success in market development for business growth. The level of market orientation will determine the degree of market development success, and organisations with the stronger market orientation will be able to develop better marketing strategy to achieve higher degree of market development success for higher business growth. (Narver & Slater, 1990; Wang *et al.*, 2012; Long, 2013; Jaworski & Kohli, 1993).

Figure 2.5.1: Ohmae's 3C Theory.



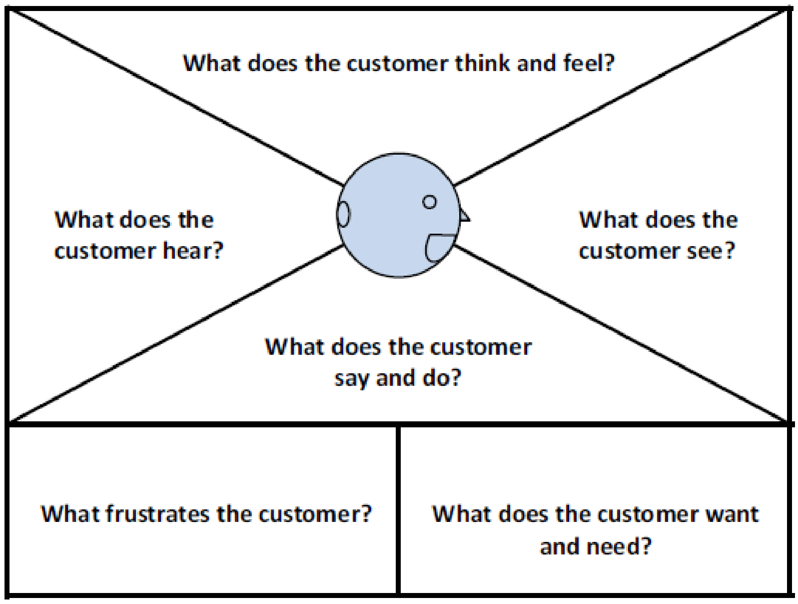
Source: Trompenaars & Coebergh (2014)

Tajeddini (2010), Kotler & Armstrong (2010) and Ruekert (1992) disagreed with Trompenaars & Coebergh (2014) that the three behavioural thoughts in marketing orientation needed to be in balance in the form of a strategic triangle for organisations to achieve sustainable competitive advantages, leading to the success in market development for business growth. They believed customer orientation was the most critical external environmental factor in developing sustainable market orientation, and they highlighted marketing orientation was customer oriented, focusing on consumer needs and making profits by creating customer satisfaction. Customer orientation is the degree of information getting from customers and will be used by organisations to develop good strategy to meet ever changing customer needs for driving business growth for the survival and profits (Tajeddini, 2010; Kotler & Armstrong, 2010; Ruekert, 1992)

Kohne (2019) shared the customer empathy map in Figure 2.5.1 as a powerful tool that could be used by organisations for data collection about customers. This customer empathy map shows how customers feel, what they think and what they exactly want, so that organisations could develop new markets and deliver products that not only met but exceeded the expectations of their target customer base (Kohne, 2019). In the customer empathy map, there are six points: listen, think and feel, see, say and do, frustration, and desire that will be examined by organisations to collect important information and really understand about their ideal customers.

In the "listen", organisations will get the information of what do their customers hear and from whom does they hear it, what influences their customers and how is they influenced by it; in the "think and feel", organisations will gather the information of what do their customers think and feel, what are their customers' hopes, worries and challenges, and what are their customers' professional and private goals; in the "see", organisations will collect the information of what do their customers see and where they see this, what do their customers perceive, how their customers see the market, the business environment and themselves, and what else do their customers see; in the "say and do", organisations will get to know what do their customers say, how their customers say it and to whom do they say it, what are their customers doing, where do their customers do it and with whom do they do it, and in which situations do their customers say or do something; in the frustration, organisations will understand what frustrates their customers, what are their customers' fears and possible obstacles, what is blocking and bothering their customers, and how their products help to reduce their customers' frustration; in the "desire", organisations will know what makes their customers happy, what are their customers' goals and how they achieve the goals, what are their customers' wishes, and how can their products lead their customers to a pleasure gain (Kohne, 2019).

Figure 2.5.2: Customer empathy map.



Sources: Kohne (2019)

According to Kanagal (2017), the "marketing concept" in market development involved the conceptualization, design, build-up, execution and monitoring of marketing programs to identify and satisfy customers based on their needs and wants for successful market development to drive business growth. The structure of marketing concept is presented in seven steps: status quo analysis, marketing goals, marketing strategy, marketing tools, marketing mix, realization of the marketing concept and controlling (Kohne, 2019). In the "status quo analysis", organisations study and understand where are they standing, where do their customers stand, what does the current market situation look like, what are the current influences affecting their product, what risks do they see and how they can handle or minimize the risks, how their target customers want to be addressed and what kind of relationship they are looking for, and how much available budget they have, in order to make sure they have complete picture of the current situation and the marketing concept is not based on wrong assumptions or wrong assessment (Kohne, 2019).

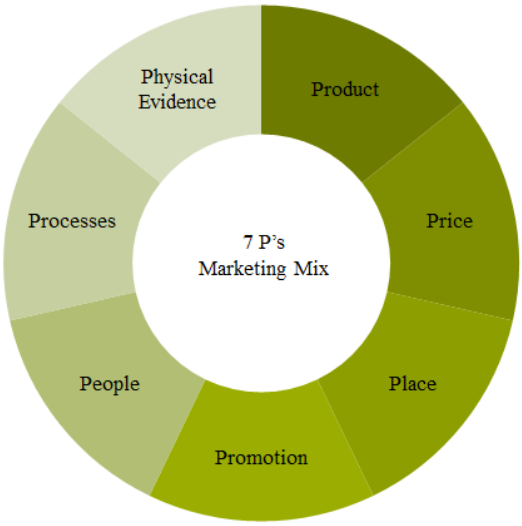
In the "marketing goals", organisations define measurable goals of the marketing concept, and decide whether to inform and sensitize their customers to attract attention with their marketing concept; in the "marketing strategy", organisations brainstorm and clarify how they want to be perceived, what do organisations and their products stand for, how their competitors are moving in the target market, which products already exist and how do their competitors advertise those products in the target market. In the "marketing tools", organisations define the tools they will use to implement their decided marketing strategy, and the Booms & Bitner's 7 P's Marketing Mix

Theory in Figure 2.5.3 remains the best-known marketing construct and strategy applicable across all sections especially at the implementation of strategic marketing plan (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). Booms & Bitner's 7 P's Marketing Mix Theory was originally devised by Jerome McCarthy and published in 1960 with the design of the first four Ps: product, price, place and promotion at a time where business were more likely to sell products, rather than services and the role of customer service in helping brand development was not so well known (McCarthy, 1964). In the late 70's it was widely acknowledged by marketers that the Marketing Mix should be update, leading to the creation of extended Marketing Mix with additional three Ps: people, process and physical evidence by Bernard Booms and Mary Bitner in 1981 (Booms & Bitner, 1981).

In the "marketing mix", organisations will use Booms & Bitner's 7 P's Marketing Mix Theory to define their marketing options in terms of product, price, place, promotion, people, process and physical evidence fort their marketing strategy implementation. For the first P (Product), organisations will determine the related information such as detailed product description, what is it, how does it look like, what is its unique selling point, what variants are there, what problems does it solve, what is included, what do customers get after the purchase and how can the product be used by customers. For the second P (Price), organisations will link it to their product's real and perceived value, what is the value of their product to customers, what are the supply costs and competitors' prices, are there any established price points for the product in the market, are customers price sensitive, will a small price decrease help to gain extra market share or will a small price increase help to gain extra profit margin, what discounts should be offered to customers, when and if discounting is appropriate to draw in more customers. For the third P (Place), organisations will explain how the product will be produced, stored and provided to customers, where they will sell and deliver the product to the market, and how to access to the right distribution channels. For the fourth P (Promotion), organisations will think about how are their target customers reached, what marketing message needs to be conveyed, in which ways the product is advertised, how the competitors do their promotions and how does that influence the choice of promotional activity.

For the fifth P (People), organisations understand consumers are not the only important people to consider in their marketing strategy, but they also need to take into the account of people who will be delivering the marketing and sales of their product. Organisations need to make sure they have right people to be trained for the job to deliver excellent service and marketing. For the sixth P (Process), organisations need to make sure their business has a good process in place, which is efficient, effective and consistent for excellence in developing a brand reputation and customer loyalty in their marketing strategy. For the seventh P (Physical Evidence), it refers to everything customers see or hear when interacting with the business of an organisation. Organisations need to consider about their branding, product packaging, a physical space such as a shop, and even the way their people act and dress, as it has a great impact on customers and can either lead to an increase or decrease in sales.

Figure 2.5.3: Booms & Bitner's 7P's Marketing Mix Theory.



Source: Booms & Bitner (1981)

In the "realization of the marketing concept", organisations involve in the implementation and execution of their marketing strategy to drive market development for business growth; in the "controlling", organisations involve in the measurement management, monitoring and controlling management, learning and improvement management of their marketing activities, and they will think whether their budget is completely used up, whether enough customers and the planned sales figures have been reached, whether enough sales appointments have been generated and the number of new customers increased as planned (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010).

Kanagal (2017) mentioned that the "marketing strategy" in market development was formulated for direction setting of marketing programs, making strategic marketing decisions to achieve the desired revenues and market share, to improve the long term financial performance of organisations for driving business growth. Marketing strategy leads to the identification, creation, capture, communication and delivery of superior customer value for organisations to develop market and gain business (Cadogan, 2009), and it consists of three essential components: product differentiation, competitor orientation and brand profiling emphasis (Svendsen *et al.*, 2011). The "product differentiation" is linked with the product and service offerings that are perceived by customers as different from competitors' offerings, the "competitor orientation" is related with the use of everyday tactics for organisations to modify their value offerings and strengthen their position relative to competitors, and the "brand profiling emphasis" involves the organisations to profile brands and reputation to varying degrees in marketing and sales (Svendsen *et al.*, 2011; Dickson & Ginter, 1987).

Ghosh & John (1999) and Simon & Sullivan (1993) shared organisations that put high brand profiling emphasis would seek to obtain highly desired and valuable positions to build brand equity, and focus on extra margins caused by the brand, resulting in an incremental increase in sales for driving business growth. Brand profiling emphasis is important for organisations to build brand associations combined with brand awareness, perceived quality and brand loyalty (Uslu *et al.*, 2013), generating positive feelings and increase customers' preference for the brand, to increase customers' satisfaction level with their services, to influence customers' purchase decisions and increase customers' purchase intention with their products, to help creating a basis for brand extension and establish entry barriers for their competitors (Lin, 2015; Chen & Change, 2008; Chen & Tseng, 2010; Chen , 2001; Low & Lamb, 2000). The brand awareness refers to the ease with which customers can recall the brand in a given product category (Keller, 1993), the perceived quality refers to the extent to which customers consider a particular brand superior to others and the brand loyalty refers to the probability that customers will change brands (Aaker, 1991).

In the "marketing strategy", organisations will use their tangible and intangible resources including the combination of individual skills and knowledge of their employees to understand complex customer specific needs, to achieve product differentiation relative to competition and superior brand equity for driving market development that lead for business growth (Day, 1994; Dutta *et al.*, 1999; Song *et al.*, 2005, 2007; Vorhies & Morgan, 2005). Narsimhan *et al.* (2006) and Day (1994) emphasized organisations that spent more resources to interact with customers could enhance their market sensing abilities and once built it was very difficult to be imitated by competitors. Marketing strategy helps organisations to create and retain strong bond with customers and channel members (Song *et al.*, 2007), to deliver better customer value and sustain customer loyalty through the unique marketing communication (Song *et al.*, 2007; Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Kumar et al., 1998; Narver & Slater, 1990), to create a strong brand image to allow organisations to produce superior performance in market development to drive business growth (Ortega & Villaverde, 2008).

According to Robinson & Lundstrom (2003), there were three distinct modes of market development: full ownership, licensing or entering into a joint venture and exporting. Full ownership is accomplished by merging, acquiring or building new facilities in the target market. Licensing or entering into a joint venture involves cooperative expansion arrangements to provide access to markets by offering the licensee or partner the right for the process, technology, management, trademarks, patents, trade secrets or other items of value for a fee or royalty. Exporting involves increased distribution of products to markets that are outside of location in which they are produced through normal channels without the need of merger, acquisition, joint venture arrangement, the purchase or construction of new operations within the targeted markets. Robinson & Lundstrom (2003) shared the two major risks: political risk and economic risk in market development that will negatively impact organisations for business growth. Political risk is regarding how stable the local government is and the attitude towards the decision, while economic risk is regarding currency restrictions, fluctuating exchange rates and economic stability of the new market (Robinson & Lundstrom, 2003). Economic risk also includes the trade regulations in the form of tariffs, quotas or embargos of the new market (Robinson & Lundstrom, 2003). Johnson (2010) and Arnold (2003) added on that the challenges of poor distribution systems, government restrictions, cultural complexities, populations widely dispersed over rural areas and potential customers with unpredictable income streams in emerging markets could be the factors that cause market development failure to drive organisations for business growth.

Findings from the above literature review show market development strategy involves the building of marketing orientation, marketing concept and marketing strategy to develop strategic thrusts and sustainable competitive advantages for organisations to drive business growth. The research findings show there is relationship existed between market development and business growth performance, and the below third research objective, question and hypothesis are generated for further analysis with the email interview and online survey.

RO3: To study whether market development drives business growth?
RQ3: What is the relationship between market development and business growth performance?
H3: Market development leads to business growth.

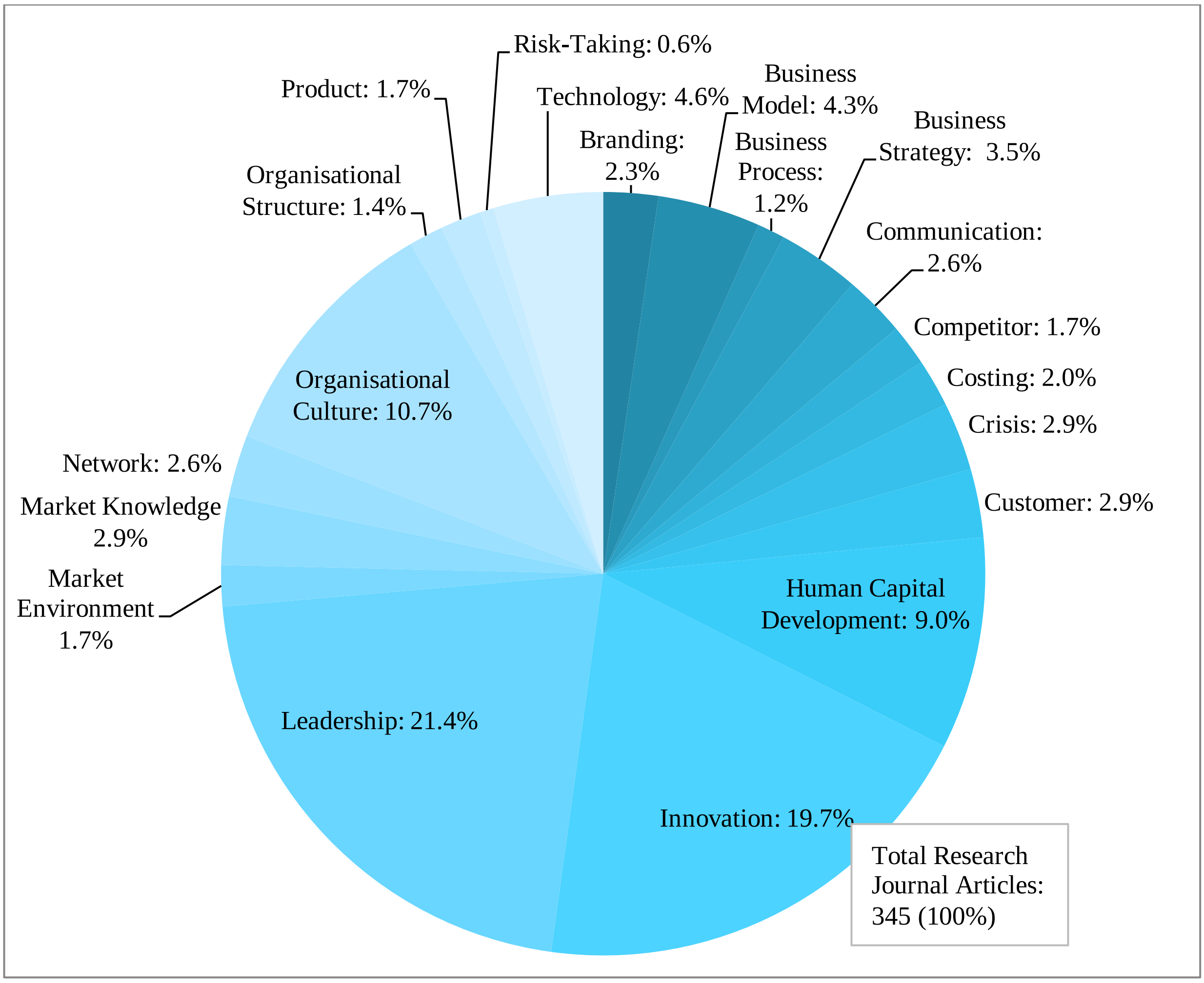
2.6 BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT DRIVERS FOR BUSINESS GROWTH

A literature review had been conducted to study 345 related research journal articles on the different drivers that could lead for the success of business development for driving organisations for business growth. Figure 2.6.1 shows the study outcome, indicating the top 10 drivers with support of the highest number of research journal articles are leadership (21.4%), innovation (19.7%), organisational culture (10.7%), human capital development (9.0%), technology (4.6%), business model (4.3%), business strategy (3.5%), crisis (2.9%), market knowledge (2.9%) and customer (2.9%). The top two business development drivers: leadership and innovation were selected for further studies with an email interview to collect exploratory primary qualitative data, and then an online survey to collect explanatory primary data.

The study showed both leadership and innovation linked on the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance. The effectiveness of both leadership and innovation could either strengthen, diminish and negate the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, and this success rate eventually affected the business growth performance of organisations. The stronger the effectiveness, the higher the success rate of product development, diversification and market development for the stronger business growth performance of organisations, and vice versa. This was how the below second problem statement generated in this research, and the moderating effect instead of mediating effect was mentioned in the problem statement.

PS2: What is the moderating effect of leadership and innovation on the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations?

Figure 2.6.1: Study of 345 research journal articles on different business development drivers for business growth.



Drivers for New Venture Development	Journal Articles	Journal Article Number
Branding	Butler & Tischler, 2016; Cheng *et al.*, 2012; Eskandari *et al.*, 2015; Kamasak, 2017; Li & Wei, 2016; Roehm & Tybout, 2006; Van Heerde *et al.*, 2007; Xu *et al.*, 2015	8
Business Model	Barney, 2012; Beqiri, 2014; Birkie, 2018; Buisson & Silberzahn, 2010; Cao *et al.*, 2018; Geissdoerfer, 2018; Kamasak, 2017; Kim & Mauborgne, 2005; Kuckertz *et al.*, 2016; Lindic *et al.*, 2012; Orellano *et al.*, 2018; Ray *et al.*, 2014; Shane & Nicolaou, 2015; Weigelt, 2013; Zhao *et al.*, 2019	15
Business Process	Berry, 2017; Butler & Tischler, 2016; Lindic *et al.*, 2012; Prasad & Junni, 2017	4
Business Strategy	Ahluwalia *et al.*, 2000; Ambos & Birkinshaw, 2007; Benoit, 1997; Butler & Tischler, 2016; Dawar & Pillutla, 2000; Epstein, 2008; Kim & Mauborgne, 2017; Li & Wei, 2016; Oliveira *et al.*, 2017; Puzakova *et al.*, 2013; Srivastava *et al.*, 2017; Zajac *et al.*, 2000	12
Communication	Alghamdi, 2016; Berry, 2017; Chu & Cheung, 2017; Dimov, 2007; Gartner, 1985; Gil & Mataveli, 2017; Li & Wei, 2016; Morioka *et al.*, 2016; Weiner, 2009	9

Competitor	Alghamdi, 2016; Barney, 1991; Chakrabarti, 2014; Atuahene-Gima & Ko, 2001; Krlev, 2012; Mina & Mohseni, 2015	6
Costing	Aithal, 2016; Alhaddi, 2014; Barquet, 2016; Chakrabarti, 2014; Kim & Mauborgne, 2005; Srivastava *et al.*, 2017; Wrigley & Straker, 2016	7
Crisis	Archibugi *et al.*, 2012; Cleeren *et al.*, 2013; Coombs & Hollady, 2012; Dutta & Pullig, 2011; Hart *et al.*, 2001; Heerde *et al.*, 2007; Humphreys & Thompson, 2014; Mikusova & Horvathova, 2019; Su & Tang, 2016; Votolato & Unnava, 2006	10
Customer	Alghamdi, 2016; Bagheri *et al.*, 2013; Munoz-Bullon *et al.*, 2015; Eskandari *et al.*, 2015; Atuahene-Gima & Ko, 2001; Kirkley, 2016; Lindic *et al.*, 2012; Mina & Mohseni, 2015; Saatchi *et al.*, 2014; Xu & Wu, 2018	10
Human Capital Development	Albrecht *et al.*, 2015; Appelbaum & Wohl, 2000; Ates & Bititci, 2011; Jerome, 2013; Munoz-Bullon *et al.*, 2015; Chandler *et al.*, 2005; Chen *et al.*, 2016; Davis *et al.*, 2016; Densten, 2005; Eskandari *et al.*, 2015; Foo *et al.*, 2006; Grossman *et al.*, 2012; Holan & Philips, 2004; Jiang *et al.*, 2009; Kim & Mauborgne, 2017; Kuckertz *et al.*, 2016; Madonsela, 2017; Massingham, 2010; Massingham & Tam, 2015; McMullen & Shepherd, 2006; Miles, 2012; Lorenzo *et al.*, 2018; Pickett, 1998; Rao, 2017; Sahu, 2017; Schein, 2002; Srivastava *et al.*, 2017; Staniewski, 2009; Weiner, 2009; West, 2007; Verheul *et al.*, 2010	31
Innovation	Adams *et al.*, 2016; Alghamdi, 2016; Amabile *et al.*, 1996; Ates & Bititci, 2011; Baden-Fuller & Pitt, 1996; Bagheri *et al.*, 2013; Baum *et al.*, 2010; Beqiri, 2014; Bercovits & Feldman, 2007; Birkie, 2018; Bocken, 2015; Brown & Eisenhardt, 1995; Butler & Tischler, 2016; Cao *et al.*, 2018; Castano *et al.*, 2016; Chakrabarti, 2014; Charter & Clark, 2007; Christensen, 1997; Collins, 2006; Costa *et al.*, 2018; Donders *et al.* 2012; Defelix *et al.*, 2015; Eskandari *et al.*, 2015; Gartner *et al.*, 2010; Geroski *et al.*, 1993; Greitemann *et al.*, 2014; Griffith *et al.*, 2004; Nohria & Gulati, 1996; Hartono, 2015; Hess & Rothaermel, 2011; Hisrich *et al.*, 2007; Hung & Chou, 2013; Kang, 2011; Kessler *et al.*, 2020; Khan & Wuest, 2019; Kim & Mauborgne, 2005; Kirkley, 2016; Klingenberg *et al.*, 2013; Knudsen & Mortensen, 2011; Kraiczy, 2013; Kutsikos & Kontos, 2013; Lee, 1999; Lichtenthaler, 2018; Long, 2019; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Madonsela, 2017; Matthyssens *et al.*, 2006; McGrath, 2010; Merrilees *et al.*, 2011; Morgan & Berthon, 2008; Nebhwani *et al.*, 2011; Park, 2017; Prasad & Junni, 2017; Reade & Lee, 2016; Schaltegger *et al.*, 2016; Shan & Jolly, 2013; Sherman *et al.*, 2005; Song, 2011; Sosna *et al.*, 2010; Srivastava *et al.*, 2017; Su & Tang, 2016; Szekely & Strebel, 2013; Teece *et al.*, 1997; Wallin & Krogh, 2010; Yeo & Saboori-Deilami, 2017; Zahra, 1993; Zahra & George, 2002; Zhao *et al.*, 2019	68
Leadership	Acs *et al.*, 2005; Alhaddi, 2014; Ambos & Birkinshaw, 2007; Arslan & Straub, 2013; Avey *et al.*, 2008; Aydin, 2012; Barney, 1991; Bass, 1998; Bass & Barrett, 1981; Baum & Bird, 2010; Bergstron, 2004; Blattner & Walter, 2015; Braun *et al.*, 2013; Burnes, 2004; Burja, 2011; Caruso *et al.*, 2002; Chapman *et al.*, 2014; Chen *et al.*, 2012; Chen *et al.*, 2016; Coglisera & Brigham, 2004; Coker *et al.*, 2017; Correia Santos *et al.*, 2015; Davis, 2016; De Jong & Witteloostuijn, 2004; Drazin *et al.*, 1999; Dumdum *et al.*, 2002; Dvir *et al.*, 2002; Elenkov & Manev, 2005; Ensley *et al.*, 2006; Francis *et al.*, 2003; Felix *et al.*, 2018; Flateen *et al.*, 2011; Frese & Gielnik, 2014; Ghadi *et al.*, 2013; Gregoire *et al.*, 2010; Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; Haus *et al.*, 2016; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Hughes *et al.*, 2010; Jafarnejad *et al.*, 2013; Jerez-Gomez *et al.*, 2005; Jovanovic *et al.*, 2010; Kamasak, 2017; Kearney & Gebert, 2009; Kim & Mauborgne, 2017; Kirkley, 2016; Kuckertz *et al.*, 2016; Leitch & Harrison, 2018; Lester & Krejci, 2007; Ling *et al.*, 2008; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Mehrzi & Singh, 2016; Messersmith & Yi-Ying, 2017; Mikusova & Horvathova, 2019; Mumford *et al.*, 2002; Muralidharan & Pathak, 2018; Northouse, 2013; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Rao, 2017; Reimers-Hild & King, 2009; Sahu, 2017; Schein, 1995; Shepherd, 1999; Spector, 1986; Stephan & Pathak, 2016; Stewart & Roth, 2004; Teece *et al.*, 1997; Timmons, 1999; Vaccaro *et al.*, 2012; Vecchio, 2003; Weiner, 2009; Yan & Yan, 2016; Zhou, 2016; Zopounidis, 1994	74

Market Environment	Ambos & Birkinshaw, 2007; Barringer & Gresock, 2008; Berry, 2017; Kamasak, 2017; Kirkley, 2016; Saatci *et al*., 2014	6
Market Knowledge	Alghamdi, 2016; Al-Mamun *et al*., 2019; Atuahene-Gima, 2005; Costa *et al*., 2018; Fang & Zou, 2009; Kim & Mauborgne, 2017; Lindic *et al*., 2012; Mina & Mohseni, 2015; Ozgen & Baron, 2007; Tsai *et al*., 2008	10
Network	Acquaah, 2012; Appelbaum & Wohl, 2000; Burt, 1992; Fem *et al*.,2012; Grossman *et al*., 2010; Huggins & Johnston, 2010; Kamasak, 2017; Lassalle & McElwee, 2016; Park, 2017	9
Organisational Culture	Albrecht *et al*., 2015; Alghamdi, 2016; Ates & Bititci, 2011; Barringer & Gresock, 2008; Berry, 2017; Burnes, 2004; Cai *et al*., 2014; Campos, 2014; Chapman *et al*., 2014; Chu & Cheung, 2018; Critten, 2016; Davis *et al*., 2016; De Massis *et al*., 2016; Farkas & Vera, 2014; Felix *et al*., 2018; Ghisi & Martinelli, 2006; Goh, 1998; Haddad & Kotnour, 2015; Kamasak, 2017; Kirkley, 2016; Kroth, 2007; Levenson & Fink, 2017; Linzalone & Schiuma, 2015; Madonsela, 2017; Mehrzi & Singh, 2016; Moran & Brightman, 2001; Nogueira *et al*. 2018; Porter *et al*., 2016; Rao, 2017; Reade & Lee, 2016; Sahu, 2017; Santos *et al*., 2012; Schein, 2002; Sisson & Elshennawy, 2015; Staniewski & Awruk, 2014; Tantau & Mateesescu, 2013; Yip & McKem, 2014	37
Organisational Structure	Burnes, 2004; Dubrovski, 2016; Halkos & Tzeremes, 2007; Iannotta *et al*., 2007; Schein, 2002	5
Product	Alghamdi, 2016; Berry, 2017; Epstein, 2008; Kim *et al*. 2005; Prasad & Junni, 2017; Su & Tang, 2016	6
Risk-Taking	Bin & Park, 2002; Kim & Mauborgne, 2017	2
Technology	Ambastha & Momaya, 2004; Banon & Sanchez, 2002; Birkie, 2018; Camison & Villar-Lopez, 2014; Eskandari *et al*., 2015; Geissdoerfer *et al*., 2018; Julien, 1995; Kirkley, 2016; Kutsikos & Kontos, 2013; Lorenzo *et al*., 2018; Man & Strandhagen *et al*., 2017; O'Neill *et al*., 2014; Ortega & Villaverde, 2008; Raman, 2014; Spanos & Lioukas, 2001; Yip & McKem, 2014	16
	Total:	345

2.7 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP WITH PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT, DIVERSIFICATION AND MARKET DEVELOPMENT FOR BUSINESS GROWTH

Kouzes & Posner (1995) defined leadership as a set of principles, techniques, activities, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation that could be applied to human aspects for the successful change implementation, execution and management to influence intrinsic acceptable while reducing resistance, and direct others to accomplish a certain objectives or achieve a common goal. According to Kouzers & Posner (1995), leadership involved five main practices: modelling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart, in order to influence and lead team members to achieve common goal. Haddad & Kotnour (2015) described leadership a person's influence to others, driving them for the innovation of new ideas and new concepts to bring new desired outcomes for organisations to achieve successful new business development for business growth. According to Haddad & Kotnour (2015), leadership included the practices of mobilizing talents, allocating resources and formulating strategies to help organisations to achieve successful business development for driving business growth.

Bass & Bass (2008), Kang *et al.* (2015), Norbom & Lopez (2016), Elenkov & Manev (2005), Ensley *et al.* (2006), Simsek *et al.* (2015), Zhou (2016), Lyons *et al.* (2012), Leitch & Volery (2017) and Harrison *et al.* (2016) added on that leadership has substantial effect on some organisational outcomes such as innovation process, opportunity identification and exploitation, and business development for driving business growth. Leadership plays important roles to drive organisations for successful product development (Calantone, 2003; Kach *et al.*, 2014; Karlsson & Ahlstrom, 1997; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Kiss & Barr, 2014; Revilla, 2010), diversification (Campillo & Gago, 2010; Gary, 2005) and market development (Millson *et al.*, 2011; Yin, 2016) for driving business growth.

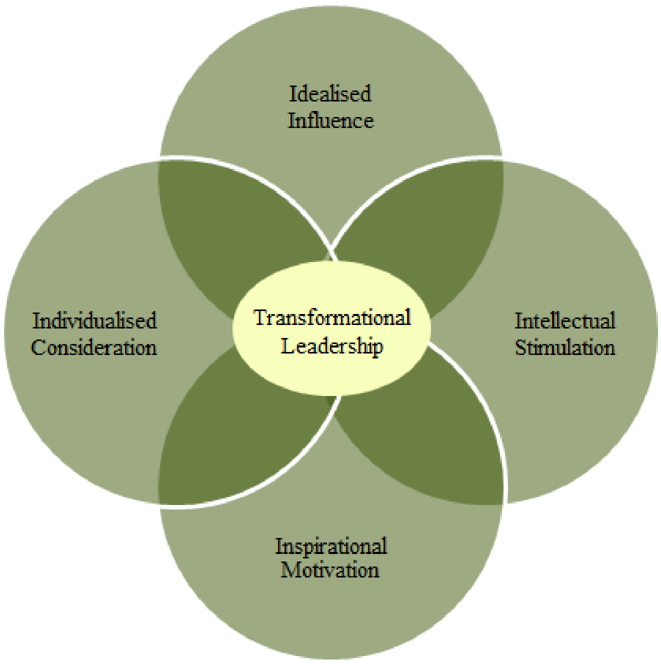
Kouzes & Posner (1995) and Davis *et al.* (2016) shared leaders with exemplary leadership made sure their organisations were heading in the right direction; made right decisions at the right time to align their organisations with the changing environment, and motivated employees to work and implement the changes; gained great impact and authority to deal with major uncertainties, leading their organisations for successful product development, diversification and market development for driving business growth. Leaders with exemplary leadership are proactive about learning from diversity; committing to establish a climate of openness, equity, tolerance and inclusion; demonstrating excellent communication, facilitation and team building skills; possessing understanding, humour, honesty and integrity; empowering team members with the information and resources necessary for decision making, self-expression and idea sharing; listening to by management; promoting self-esteem; building rapport; supporting development, acknowledging value and recognising individually dimensions into their selection, appraisal and pay policies.

Leaders with exemplary leadership learn more from failure than from success, as for them today's success can bring about tomorrow's failure, and this success-breeds-failure trap can be avoided by learning from success, as well as from failure (Sunday *et al.,* 2014). Sunday *et al.* (2014) described further that leaders with exemplary leadership had vision about what to accomplish; made a commitment to the mission and to the people they wanted to lead; took accountability for the mission accomplishment and the welfare of people they were leading; assumed responsibility for risk of loss and failure and accepted recognition for success. Appelbaum & Wohl (2000) compared the role of managers and leaders, and mentioned that managers preferred to maintain the status quo, but leaders would find excitement in change; managers looked for fast answers, but leaders fired off fast questions; managers were eager to learn so they would get ahead, but leaders established learning environments so others could get ahead; managers had a clear idea of the way things were done, but leaders knew what was really done and moved into the unknown to see what was yet to be done; managers were trained to keep organisations going in a straight line, but leaders dealt with the vision, missions and the goals of organisations; leadership roles were delegated from the workgroup, but management roles were delegated down from the top of organisations.

Leadership can be divided into nine different types: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, authoritarian leadership, participative leadership, delegative leadership, affiliative leadership, coaching leadership, pacesetting leadership and shared leadership (Chapman *et al.*, 2014; Felix *et al.,* 2018; House *et al.*, 2004). According to Bass' Transformational Leadership Theory in Figure 2.7.1, transformational leadership can be described by for sub-dimensions: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration. Idealised influence drives transformational leaders to act in charismatic way with the power and influence to make their followers to accept them as the role model due to their high moral standards and value, adhered to an ethical code of conduct, providing a vision and mission to their followers, and getting high respect and admiration from their followers (Farkas & Vera, 2014; Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Sahu, 2014). Inspirational motivation allows transformational leaders to be able to motivate and excite their followers for their plans and expectation, inspiring their followers to work towards achieving the similar objectives or vision (Bass, 1998; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Inspirational motivation also includes motivating followers on continuous learning, acquiring new skills to increase the chances of development in organisations (Bass, 1998; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Intellectual stimulation allows transformational leaders to focus on rationality and problem solving, to challenge the status quo and encourage creativity in organisations, and to stimulate the ability of their followers to think about previous problems in novel ways and rethink their thoughts from a fresh position (Farkas & Vera, 2014; Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Sahu, 2017). Individualised consideration drives transformational leaders personally listen to individual problems and provide support for the individual requirements of their followers, to coach, advise and support their followers, to find learning opportunities that are suitable for their followers' needs, to promote continuous growth, and believe in the empowerment of their followers (Farkas & Vera, 2014; Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Sahu, 2017).

Figure 2.7.1: Bass' Transformational Leadership Theory.



Sources: Farkas & Vera (2014); Mittal & Dhar (2015); Sahu (2014)

Rijal (2010) shared transformational leaders would align the organisational vision, organisational design and management practices, change long held assumptions, values and beliefs, and encourage team members to learn new behaviours. Chen *et al.* (2016) claimed transformational leaders would become role models for spanning boundaries and proactively reaching outside actors to exchange information, foster inter-organisational collaboration, forge coalitions and leverage resources for organisations to achieve successful product development, diversification and market development for driving business growth.

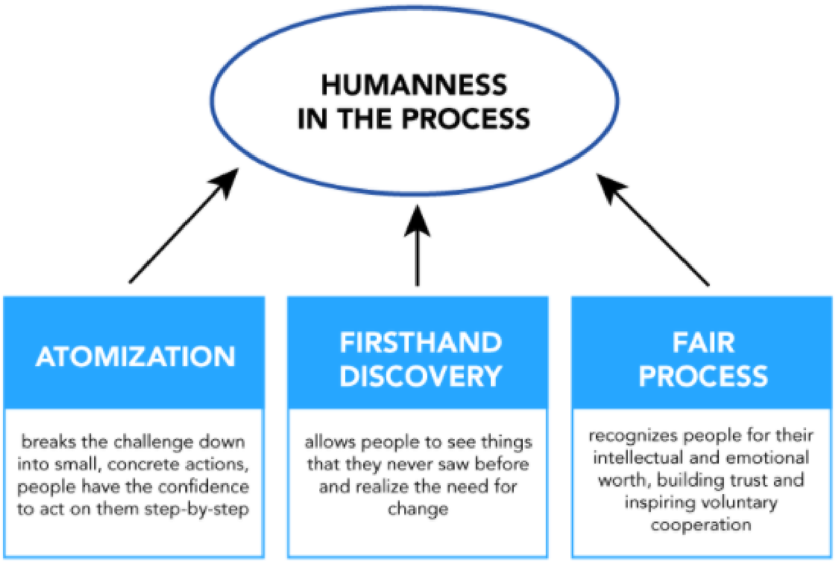
Transformational leaders transform and inspire team members for greater value to organisations (Ghadi et al., 2013), and bring about high levels of employee engagement, job satisfaction and organisational commitment to increase employee retention and loyalty, to minimize employee turnover and maximize their morale (Bass, 1998; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Ghadi *et al.*, 2013; Men & Stacks, 2013; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2016; Saks, 2006; Bhatnagar, 2007; Tims *et al.*, 2011; Salanova *et al.*, 2011). Engaged employees will feel involved, loyal, enthusiastic and empowered; have great energy and passion in work; bring new ideas to work; take initiative and seek to improve themselves, others and the business; consistently exceeded goals and expectations; be curious and interested; be creative and responsible; ask questions; encourage and support team; be optimistic, positive and persistent; overcome obstacles and stay focused on tasks; commit to high-quality performance standards to their organisations (Mehrzi & Singh, 2016; Rao, 2017). This eventually helps to improve team members' performance and productivity to give competitive edge over others, and team members will work together as a team toward a common vision, common goals and shared values for leveraging, sustaining and transforming works into results (Densten, 2005; Xu & Thomas, 2011; Ghadi *et al.*, 2013; Rao, 2017).

Kim & Mauborgne (2017) introduced the humanness in the process in Figure 2.7.2 to show how transformational leadership could be implemented and executed by organisations to drive blue ocean strategy for business growth. In the blue ocean strategy, organisations to not take industry conditions as given, but setting out to reshape them in their favour to create uncontested markets to serve instead of continues to compete in existing markets (Kim & Mauborgne, 2017). Besides that, blue ocean strategy aims to make the competition irrelevant through focusing on creating and capturing new demand instead of seeking to beat the competition through fighting over existing customers, driving successful new business development for business growth (Kim & Mauborgne, 2005).

The humanness in the process helps to build psychological understanding into the blue ocean process so that team members are confident and willing to engage fully at every step even though they are hesitant, may not trust one another or are sceptical of their ability to succeed on the journey of blue ocean shift (Kim & Mauborgne, 2017). This humanness in the process consists of three elements: atomization, firsthand discovery and the exercise of fair process. Atomization helps breaking the challenge down into small, concrete steps that move team members forward in increments that inspire and build their confidence to act on them step-by-step, and the culmination of these small steps leads to a blue ocean shift (Kim & Mauborgne, 20017). Firsthand discovery helps creating the conditions that will enable team members to discover for themselves, to see things that they never saw before and realize the need for change instead of being told (Kim & Mauborgne, 2017). This will inspire team members' confidence, optimism and creativity to bring them along from the beginning of the blue ocean shift process, so that they understand it and feel invested in the shift.

Fair process consists of three principles: engagement, explanation and clear expectations, acting as the foundation on which the blue ocean shift process is built (Kim & Mauborgne, 2017). It recognizes team members for their intellectual and emotional worth, building trust and inspiring voluntary cooperation. According to Kim & Mauborgne (2017), engagement meant actively involving team members in strategic decisions that affected them by asking for their input and allowing them to refute and challenge the merits of one another's ideas and assumptions, in order to build collective wisdom to generate better decisions and greater commitment from the team members involved in executing them; explanation meant providing team members with a clear account of thinking that underlies the process and the strategic decisions reached at each step to foster team members' trust in leaders by reassuring them that their opinions had been considered and decisions had been made with the overall interests at heart; clear expectations meant stating clearly what the goals and milestones were, and what their roles and responsibilities were, at each step and in moving forward after the blue ocean shift process was completed, in order to make team members felt safe and respected.

Figure 2.7.2: How humanness is built in the process.



Source: Kim & Mauborgne (2017)

Weber's Transactional Leadership Theory in Figure 2.7.3 describes transactional leadership as a type of leadership focusing on short-term goals and it helps organisations to achieve short-term goals quickly and efficiently (Farkas & Vera, 2014). Transactional leadership maintains status quo, where the leaders tend to be inflexible and opposed to change as they believe their followers will perform best with structured policies, procedures and rules, and when the chain of command is definite and clear (Farkas & Vera, 2014). Transactional leaders do not sell changes to their followers but dictate and assign tasks.

Transactional leadership involves active or passive management by exception, where the leaders will carefully monitor and ensure their followers will perform and meet their expectations (Farkas & Vera, 2014). In the active management by exception, transactional leaders will anticipate problems, actively monitor their followers' performance and take corrective action if deviation happens, while in the passive management by exception, transactional leaders will not interfere with the ongoing works of their followers until and unless an issues arises and have become serious (Riaz & Haider, 2010). Transactional leadership involves contingent reward and extrinsic motivation, it promotes compliance by followers through both rewards and punishments, where followers will be rewarded when they are successful and will be reprimanded or punished when they fail. Transactional leaders utilize rewards in order to foster desired work behaviour and indicate which steps need to be taken by their followers (Farkas & Vera, 2014).

Figure 2.7.3: Weber's Transactional Leadership Theory.

Sources: Farkas & Vera (2014); Xenikou (2017)

Comparison between transactional leadership and transformational leadership shows transactional leadership has no promotion of creativity as goals and objectives are already set and no rewards for personal initiative, while transformational leadership challenges the status quo and encourage creativity in organisations, and motivates followers on continuous learning to acquire new skills to increase development in organisations (Riaz & Haider, 2010). Transactional leaders believe all their followers are Theory X employees, while transformational leaders believe their followers will include Theory Y and Theory Z employees, as well as Theory X employees.

According to McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, Theory X employees dislike work and will avoid responsibility if possible; they are interested in basic needs (physiological needs and safety needs) than higher needs, and they must be coerced, controlled, directed and threated with punishments to get them work (Aydin, 2012). Theory Y employees prefer to work, care about organisations, seek and accept responsibility, and exercise self-control and self-motivating; they commit to work as capable of finding solutions to work-related problems; they are interested in both basic and psychological needs (belongingness and love needs, and esteem needs), and work hard to achieve self-fulfilment needs (Aydin, 2012). According to Ouchi's Theory Z, Theory Z employees have very well developed sense of order, discipline, moral obligation to work hard and a sense of cohesion in team; they seek and accept accountability, participate in the decision of organisations to a great degree, very knowledgeable about the various issues of organisations; they can be trusted to do their jobs with their utmost ability as long as their management can be trusted to support them and look out for their career growth and well-being (Aydin, 2012).

Weber's Transactional Leadership Theory was created by Max Weber in 1947 based on his idea that organisations gave their employees something they wanted in exchange for getting something organisations wanted, positing that employees were not self-motivated and required structure, instruction and monitoring in order to ensure expectations are met (Farkas & Vera, 2014; Xenikou, 2017). However, Bass' Transformational Leadership Theory was created by Bernard Bass in 1985 based on his idea that task awareness led to people's motivation, a focused team with a common organisational goal activated the higher-order needs of followers to provide better performance and results, specifying how leaders influence their followers to transform, perform, create and innovate for organisations to achieve business growth (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Lewin's Leadership Theory in Figure 2.7.4 explains authoritarian leadership as a type of leadership focusing strongly on both command by leaders and control of followers, where the leaders will provide clear direction, play an active role in problem solving and decision making, and will expect others to follow; the leaders will take full and sole responsibility for decisions and full control over their followers, and they make quick decisions on their own with little or no consultation with others; the leaders do not hesitate to confront others who are underperforming, yet will also reward those who are excelling in their work; the leaders have less skilled at listening to others' ideas and some team members feel demotivated and lose enthusiasm (Chapman *et al.*, 2014). Authoritarian leadership does not usually get involved in the group's work and it is less likely to see creative decisions under this leadership, and its abuse is usually viewed as controlling, bossy and dictatorial (Lewin *et al.*, 1939). Gupta *et al.* (2004), Coker *et al.* (2017) and Muralidharan & Pathak (2018) added on that authoritarian leadership might affect entrepreneurial and innovative activities negatively. Although authoritarian leadership will create dysfunctional and even hostile environments pitting followers against their leaders, but it is best applied to the situations especially the crises where rapid decisions and decisive actions are required with little time for group decision-making.

Participative leadership is also known as democratic leadership where the leaders express their priorities and values in setting goals and making decisions; the leaders encourage participation and exchange of ideas from their team members regarding the direction the team shall take and what actions shall be prioritised when they face with a complex problem; the leaders will encourage collaboration within organisations, elicit ideas from others, listen attentively and build consensus, but may put off making different decisions, and some team members feel that the leaders should decide more and facilitate less (Chapman *et al.*, 2014; De Jong & Wittellostuijn, 2004; Franco & Haase, 2017). However, this leadership makes team members feel engaged in the process, motivating and fostering their commitment for achieving organisational objectives. Participative leadership will produce more creative problem solving, entrepreneurial and innovative activities than authoritarian leadership, so it is best applied to adopt it in competitive, non-emergency situations (Van Hemmen *et al.*, 2015; Yan & Yan, 2016).

Delegative leadership is also known as Laissez-Faire leadership where the leaders hand over responsibility to achieve organisational objectives for their followers; the leaders leave the decision-making up to their followers with little or no guidance, and let them to set goals, decide on work methods, define individuals' roles and set their own pace of work. Delegative leadership tends to result in groups that lack direction and followers who blame each other for mistakes, refuse to accept personal responsibility, make less progress and produce less work (Lewin *et al.*, 1939). However, this leadership can be useful and effective in the self-managed or autonomous teams involving high qualified experts that are self-motivated, highly skilled and knowledgeable (Lewin *et al.*, 1939).

Figure 2.7.4: Lewin's Leadership Theory.

Source: Lewin *et al.* (1939)

In affiliative leadership, the leaders will promote good relationships and communication within the group; the leaders will be interested in the personal welfare of the team, easy to get on with and spend time on team building; the leaders have a high level of trust in team members and give great flexibility in how they do their jobs, but some team members feel the leaders should be more forceful and provide clearer direction to the team (Chapman *et al.*, 2014). In coaching leadership, the leaders will support the efforts to develop the skills of others in the team with helping team members to identify their strengths, weaknesses and potential; the leaders are good listener and they use open-ended questions to help others to resolve work challenges; the leaders provide ongoing performance feedback their team members and see mistakes and underperformance as learning opportunities, and this focus on individuals may limit the productivity of the team as a whole (Chapman *et al.*, 2014). In pacesetting leadership, the leaders will set the pace and high performance standards for themselves, leading by example and focusing on achieving results; the leaders will expect others to be competent in their roles, if someone's performance is lagging, they will reassign the job to someone who is more competent, some team members feel that the leader need to be more sensitive and tolerant of other team members' views and working styles (Chapman *et al.*, 2014; Stephan & Pathak, 2016)].

Shared leadership involves the utilization and combination of different forms of leadership to obtain greater results (Drazin *et al.*, 1999; Mumford *et al.*, 2002). Hauschildt & Kirchmann (2001), Howell & Boies (2004) and Friedrich *et al.* (2009) shared organisations having multiple leaders with diverse skills and expertise to take on different elements of a leadership role would show better business performance. Stassers *et al.* (1995) added on that heterogeneous teams could contribute to solve complex problems because of the existence of diversity in perceptions, skills and knowledge. However, Sapienza (1997) and Dunne *et al.* (2016) disagreed with Stassers *et al.* (1995), and commented heterogeneous teams could produce relationship conflicts among team members to cause poor performance, and collaborative style was negatively and not significantly related to innovativeness and business performance.

Findings from the above literature review showed leadership effectiveness is a major driver affecting the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, which eventually will affect the business growth performance of organisations (Dunne et al., 2016; Fiedler, 1996). Future leaders need to be pioneers who are ready to take risks, create new paths, shape new approaches, have strong values that drive their actions and master the art of forming teams, and lead the teams with different leadership types for culture building and changing to drive organisations for successful product development, diversification and market development for stronger business growth performance (Lindquist & Marcy, 2016; Quinn, 1988; Cameron &

Quinn, 2006; Ulrich, 1996; Bass & Bass, 2008; Kang *et al.*, 2015; Norbom & Lopez, 2016; Elenkov & Manev, 2005; Ensley *et al.*, 2006; Simsek *et al.*, 2015; Zhou, 2016; Lyons *et al.*, 2012; Leitch & Volery, 2017; Harrison *et al.,* 2016). The below fourth research objective, question and hypothesis were then generated for further analysis with the email interview and online survey.

RO4: To investigate whether leadership affects the strengths of product development, diversification and market development for business growth,

RQ4: What is the relationship between the leadership with product development, diversification and market development for business growth?

H4: The stronger the leadership, the higher the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

2.8 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INNOVATION WITH PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT, DIVERSIFICATION AND MARKET DEVELOPMENT FOR BUSINESS GROWTH

Hartono (2015) shared different scholars had different interpretations on innovation, but all of them agreed that innovation helped organisations to drive successful business development for business growth. According to Damanpour (1991), Zhong & Nieminen (2015), Hess & Rothaermel (2011), Ahuja *et al.* (2008), Swift (2018) and Sood & Tellis (2019), they agreed with Hartono (2015) that innovation drives success in new business development for business growth. They mentioned that innovation was an important determinant of organisational performance and market capitalisation, leading organisations for sustainable competitive advantages to drive successful product development, diversification and market development for business growth. Knudsen & Mortensen (2011), Sherman *et al.* (2005) and Wang *et al.* (2018) added on that innovation affected financial performance of an organisation because it enabled additional revenues or higher margins from new products, specific services or superior business models.

Baden-Fuller & Stopford (1994), Baden-Fuller & Pitt (1996), Matthyessens *et al.* (2006), Kim & Mauborgne (1999), Pitt & Clarke (1999) and O'Connor *et al.* (2004) supported Hartono (2015) and mentioned that value innovation helped organisations to rejuvenate to attain competitive advantages, achieve superior customer value and create new market space to out-compete instead of out-perform their competitors for driving business growth. Su & Tang (2016) shared organisations focusing on innovation were indeed more productive than organisations focusing on cost-cutting, and innovation allowed organisations to develop and maintain a lasting, sustainable competitive advantages. Su & Tang (2016) shared further that organisations should innovate and explore new ideas, design new products for the ever changing market to achieve successful new business development for business growth.

As shared by Hartono (2015), different scholars interpreted the meaning of innovation differently. Amabile *et al.* (1996) defined innovation as the identification and utilization of business opportunities to create new products, services or markets, and it started with selection of an idea identified as a business opportunity and end with the commercialization of the invention for business growth. Long (2019) described innovation as new ideas, equipments or methods; new technologies, products and processes or novel ways of organizing and managing production; new marketing and business models that helped organisations to meet higher or potential needs in new business development to drive business growth. Damanpour (1991) and Nohria & Gulati (1996) supported Long (2019), and described innovation as the generation, development and implementation of new ideas or behaviours to help organisations to achieve growth, and it included any new policies, structures, methods or processes, products or market opportunities.

Wallin & Krogh (2010) defined innovation as a process to create and manage knowledge or new ideas for the development and introduction of something new and useful for organisation to achieve successful new business development for driving business growth. Innovation as a process to create and manage knowledge or new ideas, Doran & O'Leary (2011), Ganotakis & Love (2012) and Roper *et al.* (2008) shared further that innovation involved knowledge sourcing, transformation and exploitation; Elmquist et al. (2009) mentioned that innovation involved knowledge acquisition, integration and exploitation; Lichtenthaler & Lichtenthaler (2009) stated that innovation involved knowledge exploration, retention and exploitation; Battisti & Stoneman (2013) shared that innovation involved processes of sourcing, using and exploiting of new ideas; Hansen & Birkinshaw (2007) claimed that innovation involved new idea generation, conversation and diffusion.

Hartono (2015), Hansen & Birkinshaw (2007), Damanpour (1991), Wallin & Krogh (2010), Battisti & Stoneman (2010, 2013), Nohria & Gulati (1996) and Levinthal & March (1993) summarised innovation as a process of creating, building and managing learning, intelligence and knowledge for the generation, development and implementation of new ideas or behaviours for organisations to develop, introduce, produce and promote something new and useful such as new organisational concepts, strategies, structures, cultures, behaviours, competencies and capabilities; new business models; new management techniques; new technologies, manufacturing methods and processes; new product and services; new markets and customers; new sources of raw material supply; new costs; new marketing, distribution and social systems. Hartono (2015) and Levinthal & March (1993) stressed that learning, intelligence and knowledge together with their implementation and management practices are crucial to support organisations for innovation success to drive successful new business development for business growth.

Learning is a process of creating, acquiring, and transferring knowledge, and modifying behaviour to reflect new knowledge and insights for organisations to move successfully from the old world to the new that will enable them to thrive into the coming century for continuous business development and growth (Garvin, 1993). Learning is a key determinant of organisations' propensity to generate new knowledge and lead to higher knowledge base, leading organisations to continuously search for new alternatives in established settings and to discover imbalances of resources in creating markets where none existed, and to improve established marketing effectiveness to provide superior value to customers (Sinkula *et al.*, 1997; Oviatt & McDougall, 1994; Day, 1994). Learning involves knowledge acquisition, dissemination and sharing, an important intangible asset for organisations to mediate the positive relationships between the resource purchase, resource attraction and resource internal development with the new venture performance to promote business growth (Cai *et al.*, 2014). Learning allows organisations to acquire external information and knowledge on technological advances and apply it for achieving successful new business development for business growth after the combination of existing knowledge with the newly acquired and assimilated knowledge, which in turn leads to a high level of absorptive capacity (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990; Zahra & George, 2002).

Goh (1998), Jerez-Gomez *et al.* (2005), Leonard-Barton (1992) and Dibella *et al.* (1996) referred learning as any changes in the organisational operation that maintained or improved performance, and it involved the implementation of appropriate management practices, structures and procedures that enabled the exchange and integration of knowledge from experience into a body of collective knowledge that shaped organisational know-how on resource use and organisational activities to manage competition. According to Rowland & Hall (2014), learning could be divided into three types: single loop learning, double loop learning and triple loop learning (deuteron learning), where single loop learning was about error detection and correction; double loop learning was about examining underlying values and assumptions, challenging fundamental norms, aiming and surfacing differences between theories in use and espoused theories; triple loop learning was a transformation learning, learning how to learn, reflecting on previous learning or failure to learn, identifying facilitators and inhibitors of learning and devising new learning strategies

Intelligence is defined as the ability of organisations to succeed in new venture creation and growth in a given sociocultural context by capitalizing on strengths and correcting or compensating for weaknesses in order to adapt, shape and select environments, and through a combination of analytical, creative and practical abilities (Sternberg, 2005). Intelligence also includes the willingness of organisations to take risks and overcome obstacles (Sternberg, 2005) for successful creation and development of high-growth opportunities, which are critical for economic well-being (Bhide, 2000; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). Intelligence consists of three components: practical intelligence, analytical intelligence and creative intelligence (Sternberg, 1997, 2004), where practical intelligence is the experience-based accumulation of skills, dispositions, tacit knowledge, and the ability to apply the same to solve everyday problems, and it can be improved with the additional relevant experience to provide “know how” for generation and development of new venture ideas (Sternberg *et al.*, 1995; Sternberg, 2007); analytical intelligence is the ability of organisations to learn, remember and retrieve information quickly for the collection, integration and interpretation of large amounts of complex information for generation and development of new venture ideas (Sternberg, 1997, 2004); creative intelligence is the ability of organisations to generate high-quality novel ideas that meet the needs of a task or context, and organisations with high creative intelligence will challenge the status quo and seek alternative ways to solve problems and gain advantages from opportunities to drive successful new business development for business growth (Sternberg, 2004).

According to Baum & Bird (2010), the practical intelligence would provide ready knowledge about past ideas, processes and optional paths to success (business models) to organisations as a starting point for invention and problem solution during the idea getting phase, while the creative intelligence would act as a source of novel ideas and option, and the analytical intelligence would involve in finding information and evaluating complex arrays of options. Shane (2000) shared that organisations needed creative intelligence during all phases of new venture development for idea getting (conception and elaboration of new product and process design, and new business models), opportunity recognition, startup and growth. Caruso *et al.* (2002) and Baron & Markman (2003) introduced the additional two types of specific intelligence: social intelligence and emotional intelligences that getting attention from organisations for driving successful new business development for business growth. Social intelligence is defined as the capacity to know oneself and to know others, and it is developed from experience with people and learning from success and failures in social settings, while emotional intelligence is defined as the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately, and this emotional information is useful to guide thinking and behaviour (Caruso *et al.*, 2002; Baron & Markman, 2003).

Knowledge is a primary resource in organisations to improve organisational efficiency, effectiveness, innovation and customer services (Chang & Lin, 2015) as well as a major determinant in the creation and development of innovation (Schwens & Kabst, 2011). Knowledge loss has emerged as one of the most important organisational risk today (Massingham, 2010), and it caused lost organisational memory (Holan & Philips, 2004), inefficiency and ineffectiveness (Jiang *et al.*, 2009), declining capability (Joe et al., 2013), decreased psychological contract (Massingham & Tam, 2015), decreased organisational output (Droege & Hoobler, 2003) and productivity (Osterman, 1987). Knowledge management process involves the generation, representation, storage, transfer, transformation, application, embedding and protection of knowledge through interpersonal social relationships and appropriate organisational culture for organisations to drive the success in new venture development for economic sustainability in business.

Innovation generates knowledge or new ideas from external sources (parties outside organisations such as customers, consumers, competitors, suppliers, industry, government, academia and universities) as well as internal sources (within units and across units inside organisations such as the entrepreneur, the R&D function or the joint efforts of a number of inter-function teams), and this combination allows organisations to achieve better innovative performance to achieve stronger competitive advantages in new business development for driving business growth (Collins, 2006; Hansen & Birkinshaw, 2007; Berchicci, 2013; Calabrese *et al.*, 2005; Leydesdorff & Etzkowitz, 1996; Gust-Bardon, 2014). Segarra-Cipres *et al.* (2012), Henderson & Clark (1990) and Kogut & Zander (1992) argued that new ideas in innovation were not based so much on the organisations' internal resources due to their limited capacity to detect valuable external knowledge and integrate it into the innovation process, therefore external sources played important roles to help organisations to integrate and adopt current and acquired external knowledge to achieve sustainable competitiveness. Parthasarty & Hammond (2002) added on that external integration could impact innovation speed and frequency by facilitating coordination with boundary groups to expedite knowledge transfer, to improve the value of products to customers, to enhance quality, to reduce cost and shorten time-to-market.

However, not all scholars agree that external integration will foster improvements in process innovation, organisational learning and time-to-market. Eisenhardt & Tabrize (1995), Liker *et al.* (1996) and Corswant & Tunalv (2002) argued that the supplier involvement in innovation actually increased the organisational complexity of coordinating design decisions, slowed the pace of innovation, and led to deterioration in innovation capabilities. Eisenhardt & Tabrize (1995) also shared higher levels of customer integration in innovation were not strongly associated with higher levels of innovation quality. Croswant & Tunalv (2002) and Littler *et al.* (1995) added on that external integration made innovation costlier, more complicated, less efficient, more time consuming, and more difficult to control and manage.

Teece et al. (1997) and Zahra & George (2002) claimed absorptive capacity helped organisations to create and maintain competitive advantages in dynamic business environment, driving success in new business development for business growth. Cohen & Levinthal (1990) and Flatten *et al.* (2011) defined absorptive capacity as an organisational ability to recognise opportunities, the value of new information or the value of external knowledge, assimilate, translate and apply it for commercial ends. Cassiman & Veugelers (2002) and Morgan & Berthon (2008) described further that strong absorptive capacity helped organisations to promote innovation, stimulate new products, and improve performance in the business development for driving business growth. Ernst *et al.* (2010) supported Cassiman & Veugelers (2002) and Morgan

& Berthon (2008) mentioned the success of organisations was related directly with their ability to develop and launch new products that met market requirements and generated satisfactory financial returns. Teece *et al.* (1997) added on that organisations possessed the capacity to develop rapid and flexible product innovations would be successful in the market. Morales *et al.* (2007) found absorptive capacity influenced organisational learning and innovation which eventually helped organisations to generate better performance in the business development for driving business growth.

Cohen & Levinthal (1990) claimed absorptive capacity was composed of three phases: identification, assimilation and exploration. However, Zahra & George (2002) expanded and claimed absorptive capacity was composed of four phases: acquisition, assimilation, transformation and exploitation, where transformation involved internalisation and conversion of assimilated external knowledge. March (1991) defined exploration as the more consuming activities such as searching, variation, risk-taking, experimentation, flexibility and discovery, while exploitation as the activities such as refinement, choice, production, efficiency, selection, implementation and execution. Exploration has uncertain and often long-term benefits, while exploitation has more certain and often short term benefits (Popadic & Cerne, 2016).

Both exploration and exploitation helped organisations to drive success in the business development for business growth. According to Li *et al.* (2008), Greve (2007), Benner & Tushman (2003) and Danneels (2002), exploration was seen as synonymous with radical innovation where organisations would search for new knowledge and use unfamiliar technologies in product creation with unknown demand to meet the needs of new markets, while exploitation as incremental innovation where organisations would use and refine existing knowledge, technologies and products to service existing markets. Exploration enables organisations to scan a variety of opportunities from both internal and external business environments, and create capabilities through developments of new knowledge, processes, products or markets that are necessary for long-term survival and prosperity (Benner & Tushman, 2002; Levinthal & March, 1993; Ireland *et al.*, 2003; March, 1991; Uotila *et al.*, 2009; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). However, exploitation enables organisations to manage their existing resources, skills and capabilities efficiently to broaden existing knowledge and improve the designs of existing processes, products and services to strengthen the relationship with existing customers and engage new customers for further business growth (Benner & Tushman, 2003; Lubatkin *et al.*, 2006; Siren *et al.*, 2012; Levinthal & March, 1993).

March (1991) claimed the ability for organisations to balance exploration and exploitation was crucial for the business development success, long-term survival and competitive advantages for driving business growth. However, Gupta *et al.* (2006), Levinthal & March (1993) and Tushman & O'Reilly (1996) emphasized achieving an ambidextrous approach between exploration and exploitation was not an easy task because both activities drew resources. Raisch & Birkinshaw (2008) and Levinthal & March (1993) agreed with March (1991), and addressed ambidexterity was a critical organisational capability that drove organisational actions and performance in new business development for business growth. Cao *et al.* (2009) and He & Wong (2004) supported March (1991), and shared ambidextrous organisations with a high degree of exploratory and exploitation activities were more successful in business and resulted in higher sales growth.

Li *et al.* (2008), Siren *et al.* (2012), Bierly & Daly (2007) and Venkatraman *et al.* (2006) disagreed with March (1991) that an ambidextrous approach between exploration and exploitation would contribute for the business development success to drive business growth. According to Li *et al.* (2008), both exploration and exploitation had a positive effect on organisational performance, but an ambidextrous approach showed no significant effect on organisation performance. Siren *et al.* (2012), Bierly & Daly (2007) and Venkatraman *et al.* (2006) argued ambidexterity did not necessarily guarantee performance and had no significant effect on organisational performance in new business development for business growth.

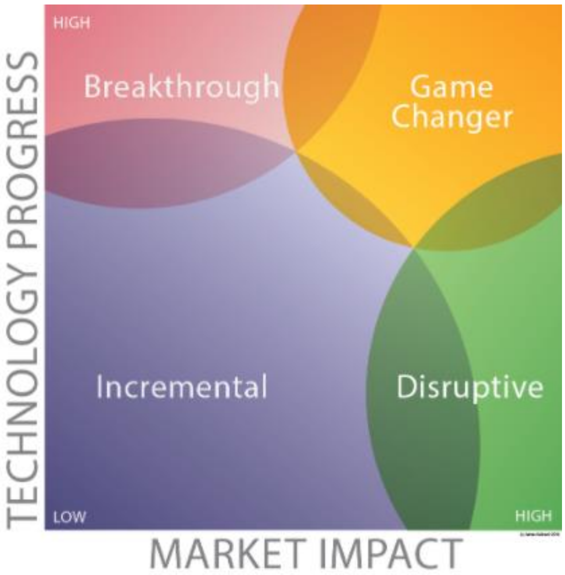
Levinthal & March (1993) warned organisations overly focused on exploration might never gain from the knowledge they created, which eventually led to a "failure trap" and no performance benefits. Gibson & Birkinshaw (2004) and March (1991) warned organisations overly focused on exploitation led to a "success trap" where the organisations could yield success in short-term, but would see a decrease in success over the long-term and eventually would fall from a leader in technology to obsolete organisations. According to Leonard (1995), Levinthal & March (1981) and Tushman & Anderson (1986), organisations that invested heavily in exploitation of existing knowledge such as refining existing products and services would reduce their possibility to explore new knowledge development such as development of new expertise and technology. In summary, an organisational strategy of exploitation to the exclusion of exploration is a route to obsolescence, while an organisational strategy of exploration to the exclusion of exploitation is a route to elimination (March, 1991).

Kalbach's Innovation Theory in Figure 2.8.1 shows innovation is an essential condition of organisational struggle for business continuity through gaining sustainable competitive advantages over competitors to drive the business development for business growth, and a relationship exists between the technological maturity or market impact, and different types of innovation strategy: incremental, breakthrough (product-based breakthrough), disruptive (market-based breakthrough) and game-changer (radical) (Kalbach, 2012).

Incremental innovation indicates the extent of technological progress representing in the improvements in existing capabilities, services and products. It does not create new markets but rather only evolves existing application context with better value (Čiutienė & Thattakath, 2015), additional or enhanced functions, and its basic technologies to support the value creating activities are the same with the existing ones (Schuh & Guo, 2015). Breakthrough innovation is characterized by a significant technological progress and a relatively low market impact, promising advanced performance improvements that propel the existing products or services ahead of competitors. The R&D team is often responsible for initiating and developing breakthrough innovation projects, striving for the next patentable formula, device and technology to drive new business development for business growth (Kalbach, 2012).

Disruptive innovation exercises high market impact at low technological progress, addressing underserved market needs with a different value proposition of products such as product improvements to provide ease of use or accessibility for people with low budget (Yenidogan & Aksoy, 2017). Game-changer innovation creates a radical impact on perceived value of product technology and it transforms markets through introduction of new product categories, which can ensure long-term success for a business (Yenidogan & Aksoy, 2017). The game-changer innovation allocates the largest funds to R&D and the incremental innovation allocates the lowest funds to R&D (Yenidogan & Aksoy, 2017).

Figure 2.8.1: Kalbach's Innovation Theory.



Source: Kalbach (2012)

Yenidogan & Aksoy (2017) combined the Kalbach's Innovation Theory in Figure 2.8.1 with the Ansoff Matrix Theory in Figure 2.2.1 to create the innovation framework in Figure 2.8.2 to deduce a fit between innovation types and new business development strategies consistent with the product-market characteristics. Figure 2.8.2 shows incremental innovation is suitable for the market penetration strategy, targeting for improvements of existing products for existing markets; breakthrough innovation is suitable for the product development strategy, targeting for new product developments for existing markets; disruptive innovation is suitable for the market development strategy, targeting existing products for new market development; game-changer innovation is suitable for the diversification strategy, targeting completely new products for new market development.

Figure 2.8.2: Ansoff Matrix modified for innovation typology.

Source: Kalbach (2012)

Prasad & Junni (2017) stressed the current business environment with growing competition, rapid market changes and fast-paced technological development necessitated organisations to respond with an increased focus on innovativeness for introduction and implementation of new or improved products, services and production processes to drive business growth. Lindic *et al.* (2012) agreed with Prasad & Junni (2017) and mentioned that the current challenging business environment pushed organisations of all sizes in different industries to be innovative and to constantly review their processes and practices to survive in the market.

Findings from the above literature review showed innovation is a key element for organisational survival in volatile environment (Yeo & Deilami, 2017), and the delivery of innovative responses to the market through continuous changes and improvements is necessary for organisations to be more sustainable and resilient (Ates & Bititci, 2011). Innovation is a way for organisations to respond to market changes, technology changes, customer changes and competition through changing in the processes and products with inputs like financial resources, commitment and R&D, and outputs in terms of new products, number of patents and new manufacturing processes to drive successful product development, diversification and market development for stronger business growth performance. The fifth research objective, question and hypothesis were then generated for further analysis with the email interview and online survey.

RO5: To investigate whether innovation affects the strengths of product development, diversification and market development for business growth.

RQ5: What is the relationship between innovation with product development, diversification and market development for business growth?

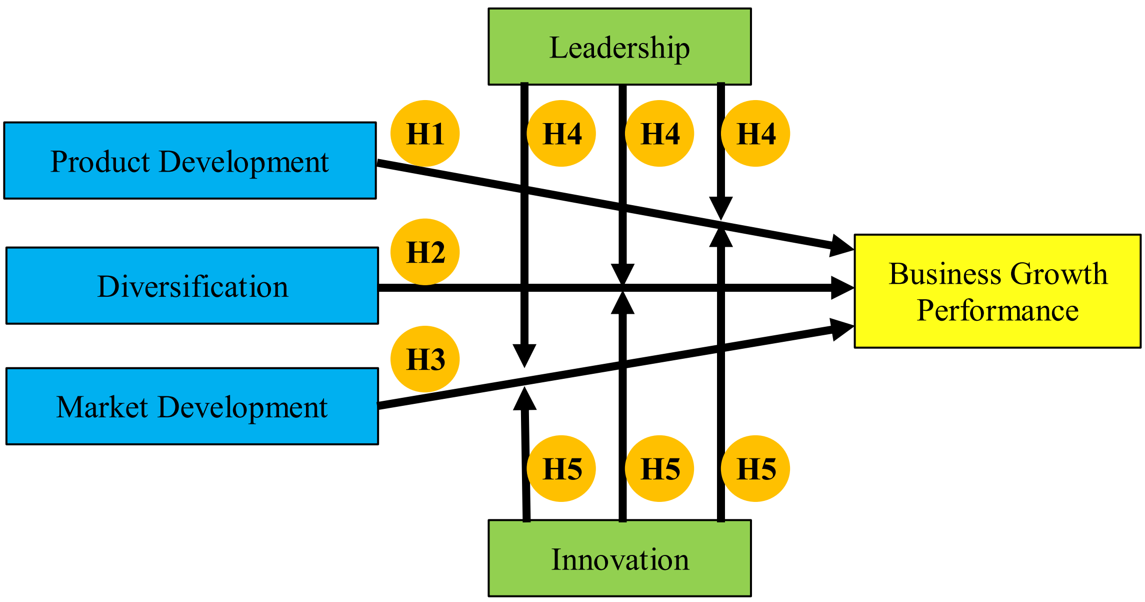
H5: The higher the innovation, the higher the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

2.9 HYPOTHESISED RESEARCH FRAMEWORK OF BUSINESS GROWTH PERFORMANCE

Based on the collected exploratory secondary data from the above literature review to generate the two problem statements (PSs), the five research objectives (ROs), research questions (RQs) and research hypotheses (Hs), the hypothesized theoretical framework of business growth performance in Figure 2.9.1 is created to show the relationships between leadership and innovation with product development, diversification and market development for business growth.

Referring to the hypothesized research framework, business growth performance is the dependent variable in this research, the three business development strategies of product development, diversification and market development are the three independent variables that will affect the performance of business growth. Both leadership and innovation are the two moderating variables that will affect the performance of product development, diversification and market development in driving the business growth performance. Both leadership and innovation are classified as moderator variables instead of mediating variables because their effectiveness will either strengthen, diminish and negate the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, and this success rate eventually affected the business growth performance of organisations. H1 to H5 are the five research hypotheses that have been created for further testing before the hypothesized research framework of business growth performance in Figure 2.9.1 will be validated and confirmed as a business growth model for mature organisations in the food industry of Malaysia.

Figure 2.9.1: Hypothesized research framework of business growth performance.



2.10 FLAVOUR BUSINESS IN THE FOOD INDUSTRY OF MALAYSIA

Malaysia is an emerging market. Johnson (2010) described emerging markets as the markets having poor distribution systems, government restrictions, cultural complexities, populations widely dispersed over rural areas and potential customers with unpredictable income streams. According to Johnson (2010), emerging markets are expected to provide nearly 75% of the world's growth in the foreseeable future, and organisations must have innovative strategies and business models with reinvented components of customer value proposition, profit formula, key processes and key resources in order to overcome the challenges in emerging markets, and to be successful in new business development for business growth.

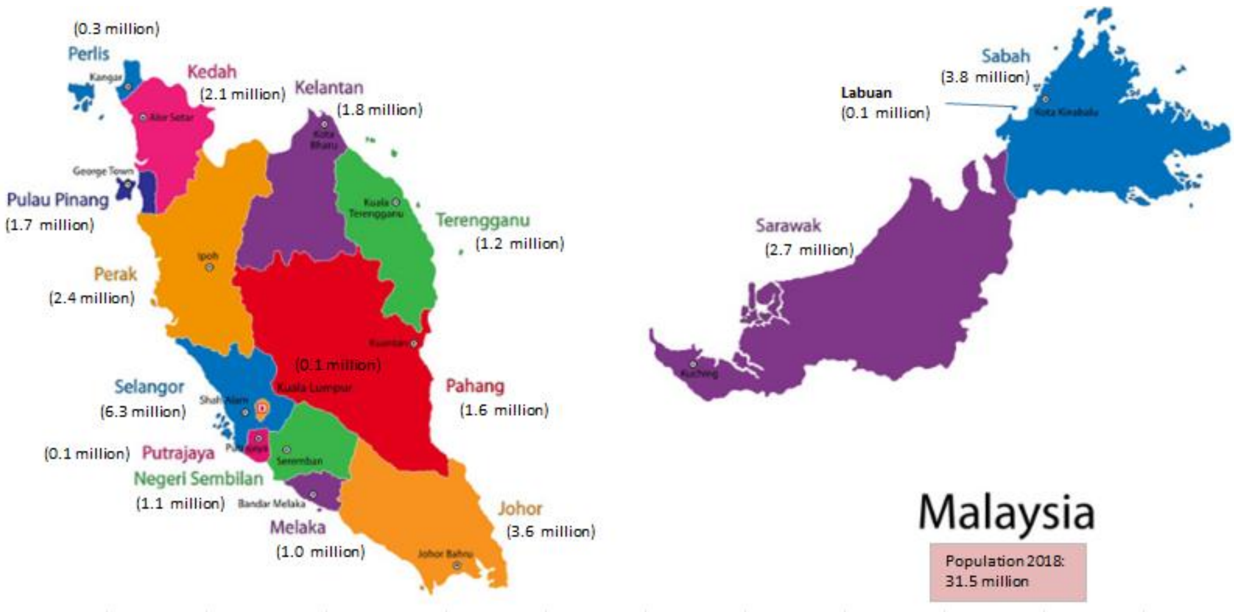
Emerging markets are the markets at formative stage of their economic development and will be expected to grow rapidly (Encarta, 2011). Emerging markets are the world's fastest growing developing segment with a growing middle to high income class (Sudhr & Talukdar, 2015) and increasing economic growth leveraged on market liberalization plus relatively growing economic infrastructure (Puffer *et al.*, 2010), and this rapid socio-economic growth will create jobs for the growing population and create wealth for daring investors operating in emerging markets (Guillen & Garcia-Canal, 2009).

Referring to Figure 2.10.1, Malaysia is a country with 13 states (Johor, Kedah, Kelantan, Melaka, Negeri Sembilan, Pahang, Pulau Pinang, Perak, Perlis, Sabah, Sarawak, Selangor and Terengganu) and three federal territories (Kuala Lumpur, Labuan and Putrajaya), and Malaysia had a market size of 31.5 million population in 2018. Selangor is the state with the highest population (6.3 million) and market size, following by Sabah (3.8 million), Johor (3.6 million), Sarawak (2.7 million), Perak (2.4 million), Kedah (2.1 million), Kelantan (1.8 million), Pulau Pinang (1.7 million), Pahang (1.6 million), Terengganu (1.2 million), Negeri Sembilan (1.1 million), Melaka (1.0 million), and Perlis is the state with the lowest population (0.3 million) and market size.

Referring to Table 2.10.1, Malaysia is multi-ethnic and multi-cultural with 61.3% of the population is Muslim, 19.8% is Buddhist, 9.2% is Christian, 6.3% is Hindu, and the remaining 3.4% of the population is others. Malaysia population in 2020 was 32.4 million with 2.9% growth from the population 2018 of 31.5 million. In 2018, Malaysia achieved annual 4.7% GDP (Gross Domestic Product) growth and 7.1% GNI (Gross National Income) per capita growth. Country income per capita for Malaysia was USD10,800 in 2020 with 18.7% growth versus the country income per capita of USD9,100 in 2011. Unemployment rate of Malaysia in 2018 was 3.4%.

Figure 2.10.2 indicates the population pyramid of Malaysia in 2018, where overall population was made up of those at working age of 20 to 34, and the deployment of this growing working-age population drove Malaysia towards productive economic activity.

Figure 2.10.1: Malaysia population 2018



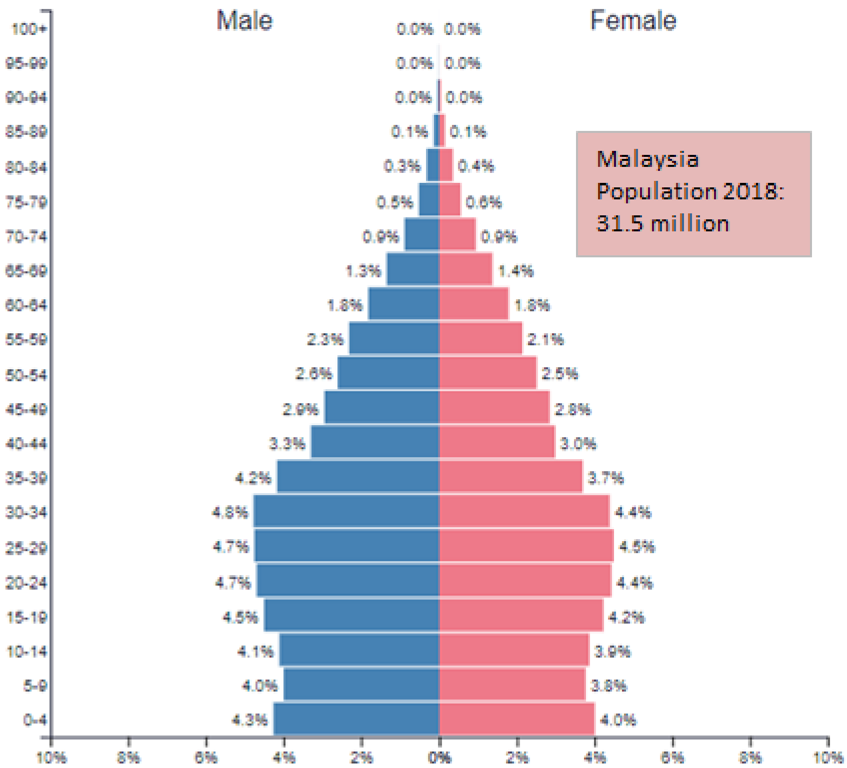
Sources: Department of Statistic Malaysia (2019)

Table 2.10.1: Malaysia population, gross domestic product (GDP), gross national income (GNI), unemployment rate and culture.

Year	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
Malaysia population (million)	28.7	29.1	29.5	29.9	30.3	30.7	31.1	31.5	32.0	32.4
Malaysia population growth (annual %)	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.3
GDP growth (annual %)	5.3	5.5	4.7	6	5.1	4.5	5.7	4.7	4.3	-1.7
GNI per capita (USD'000)	9.1	10.2	10.8	11.1	10.7	10.2	9.9	10.6	11.1	10.8
GNI per capita growth (annual %)	9.6	12.1	5.9	2.8	-3.6	-4.7	-2.9	7.1	4.3	-2.4
Unemployment rate (annual %)	3.1	3.0	3.1	2.9	3.1	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	5.0
Religions	Muslim 61.3%; Buddhist 19.8%; Christian 9.2%; Hindu 6.3%; Others 3.4%									

Sources: The World Bank (2020)

Figure 2.10.2: Malaysia population pyramid 2018.



Sources: The World Bank (2020)

Referring to Table 2.10.2, the food flavour business in Malaysia was divided into two main segments: food industry with the potential of USD78.5 million in 2018 and foodservice with the potential of USD40.9 million in 2018. This shows the total food flavour business potential Malaysia in 2018 is USD119.4 million, and it is estimated to achieve USD162.0 million in 2025 with growing of 35.7% from 2018 (USD119.4 million). The flavour business potential in the food industry in Malaysia is estimated to achieve USD89.7 million in 2025 with growing of 14.3% from 2018 (USD78.5 million), while the flavour business potential in the foodservice in Malaysia is estimated to achieve USD72.3 million in 2025 with growing of 76.8% from 2018 (USD40.9 million). The foodservice has very much higher growth rate of flavour business potential than the food industry in Malaysia. In the food industry 2018 in Malaysia, beverages were the sub-segment with the biggest flavour business potential (USD22.5 million), following by savoury (USD18.3 million), snacks (USD15.6 million), dairy (USD11.3 million), sweet goods (USD9.5 million), and finally healthcare (USD1.3 million). In the foodservice 2018 in Malaysia, the flavour business potential of independent foodservice (USD25.8 million) was bigger than chained foodservice (USD15.1 million).

Table 2.10.2: Food flavour business in Malaysia.

Year		2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025
Total Flavour Potential Malaysia (USD million)		112.5	115.3	119.4	124.2	129.7	135.6	141.9	148.8	156.3	162.0
Food Industry (USD million)	Beverages	24.1	22.4	22.5	22.2	22.4	22.6	22.9	23.3	23.7	24.1
	Dairy	10.7	11.0	11.3	11.7	12.1	12.5	12.8	13.2	13.6	14.0
	Healthcare	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6
	Savoury	17.2	18.1	18.3	18.6	19.1	19.6	20.1	20.7	21.2	21.8
	Snacks	15.1	15.3	15.6	16.1	16.4	16.8	16.9	17.1	17.3	17.5
	Sweet Goods	9.1	9.3	9.5	9.7	9.9	10.1	10.2	10.4	10.6	10.7
	Total:	77.5	77.4	78.5	79.7	81.3	83.0	84.4	86.2	88.0	89.7
Foodservice (USD million)	Chained Foodservice	11.7	13.5	15.1	17.3	19.2	21.3	23.7	26.2	29.1	31.2
	Independent Foodservice	23.3	24.4	25.8	27.2	29.2	31.3	33.8	36.4	39.2	41.1
	Total:	35.0	37.9	40.9	44.5	48.4	52.6	57.5	62.6	68.3	72.3

Sources: Euromonitor (2020)

In conclusion, Malaysia is still a potential market for mature organisations to drive new business development to achieve business growth as the overall population of 31.5 million in Malaysia in 2018 was made up of those considered to be of working age of 20 to 34 to drive Malaysia towards productive economic activity, and the flavour potential in Malaysia is estimated to grow 35.7% from USD119.4 million in 2018 to USD162.0 million in 2025, mainly contributed by the foodservice segment with 76.8% growth from USD40.9 million in 2018 to USD72.3 million in 2025.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Walliman & Walliman (2011) defined research as an activity that involved finding out, in a more or less systematic way, things researchers did not know, and the purpose of research was to achieve new discoveries about an identified subject or phenomenon so that new knowledge, information and data could be obtained. The essence of research is to have a clear sense of purpose about what is needed to be discovered, then approach the process of discovery in a systemic way using established conventions for data collection, and finally the process of data interpretation will yield answers for the field of inquiry, answering the research questions, and offering solutions or providing information to bridge existing knowledge gaps.

Brown (2006) claimed research methodology as the philosophical framework within which the research was conducted or the foundation upon which the research was based. Research methodology is the specific procedures or techniques, using by researchers to identify, select, process and analyse information about a research topic. It shows the through-path which researchers formulate their research problems and objectives, present their result from the data obtained during the study period, critically evaluate the study's overall validity and reliability, and finally show how the research outcome at the end will be obtained in line meeting research objectives. Research methodology is the framework which is associated with a particular set of paradigmatic assumptions that researchers will use to conduct their research (O'Leary, 2004), and it is the most appropriate to achieve research objectives with the possibility to replicate the methodology used in other researches of the same nature (Allan & Randy, 2005).

Research methodology outlines the research philosophy (positivism, realism, interpretivism or pragmatism), research paradigm (functionalist, interpretive, radical humanist and radical structuralist), research approach (deductive, inductive, and combination of deductive and inductive), research design (exploratory, descriptive and explanatory), research method (mono and multiple), research data (primary, secondary and tertiary), sample population consideration, sample size determination, sampling technique (probability and non-probability), sampling frame, questionnaire design, test marketing, data collection methods, and data analysis methods (quantitative and qualitative).

3.1 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Saunders *et al.* (2009) mentioned that research philosophy was related with the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge, and it had important assumptions to explain about researchers' view on the world. These assumptions determine research approaches and methods using by researchers. Johnson & Clark (2006) highlighted the importance for business and management researchers to be aware of philosophical commitments they made through their choice of research strategy as this had significant impact on what they did and their understanding on what they were investigating. Saunders *et al.* (2009) shared that the choice of philosophy researchers adopted was influenced by practical considerations, mainly by the researchers' particular view of the relationship between knowledge and developed process. However, Johnson & Clark (2006) contended that the important issues was not so much whether researches should be philosophically informed, but more to how well researchers were able to reflect and defend their philosophical choices in relation to the alternatives that had been adopted. It is important that researchers do not fall into the trap of thinking on research philosophy is 'better' another, but researchers need to think the 'better' depends on the research objectives and questions that they are seeking to answer.

According to Saunders *et al.* (2009), research philosophy was classified to ontology, epistemology and axiology. Ontology is based on the nature of reality, and it rises on questions of the assumptions researchers have about the way the world operates and the commitment holds to particular views (Wynn & Williams, 2012; Tracy, 2013). Ontology can be classified on the basis of objectivism and subjectivism, where objectivism portrays the position that social entities exist in reality external to social actors concerned with their existence, and subjectivism is concerned on the social phenomena which are emerged from the perceptions and consequences of those social actors concerned with their existence (Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

Epistemology is about the acceptable knowledge in a study field, and it can be divided into two aspects: 'resources' researchers and 'feelings' researchers (Wynn & Williams, 2012; Saunders *et al.,* 2009). According to Saunders *et al.* (2009), 'resources' researchers dealed with data from perspective of natural scientist, and 'feeling' researchers were concerned about the feelings and attitudes of the workers towards their managers. According to Chua (1986), epistemology was concerned with the notion of what counted as acceptable truth by specifying the source, characteristics, and assessment of trust claims, and it demonstrated to researchers how to acquire and develop knowledge claims, how to evaluate the trust or validity of these claims, and how these claims could be measured against existing knowledge.

Axiology is a branch of philosophy which is concerned about judgements, aesthetics and ethics about the values associate with areas of research and theorizing (Wynn & Williams, 2012; Saunders *et al.*, 2009)]. Heron (1996) argued that the values were the guiding reason of all human kinds, and researchers demonstrated axiological skill by being able to articulate their values as a basis for making judgements about what researches they were conducting and how they would execute them. Saunders *et al.* (2009) emphasized the great importance for researchers to play their own values in all stages of research process in order to get credible research results.

Table 3.1.1 indicates the comparison of four research philosophies: positivism, realism, interpretivism and pragmatism in ontology, epistemology and axiology (Burrell & Morgan, 1982). This research followed the research philosophy of pragmatism, where research issues from a critical instant case study were place centrally and all approaches were applied to understand the research issues, then generate the research gaps and problem statements. After that, the research objectives, questions, hypotheses, data collection and analysis methods were chosen as those most likely to provide insights into the research questions with no philosophical loyalty to any alternative paradigms. According to Scott (2016) and Creswell (2013), pragmatism focused on those ideas that apply practical, disclaiming philosophy's reputation of being excessively idealistic and abstract, it focused on what and how the research enquiry and not faithful to any one system of philosophy or reality. Pragmatism contends that the most important determinant of the epistemology, ontology and axiology researchers adopt is the research question, and it is ready to change and respond to particular circumstances in which human beings are inevitably placed (Saunders *et al.*, 2009; Scott, 2016).

Pragmatism agrees with Onwuegbuzie & Leech (2005) and Bryman *et al.* (2008) that mono-method research is the biggest threat to the advancement of the research, and complete picture of a research cannot be generated by any one method alone. Therefore, pragmatists will use multiple methods of data collection to best answer research questions, both quantitative and qualitative sources of data will be employed, and practical implications of the research that best to address the research problems will be focused (Scott, 2016; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). According to Hopmann (2002), the strengths of one methodology shared that strengths of one methodology would help to compensate for the limitations of others, and those convergent findings across methodologies produced results with greater confidence.

Pragmatism agrees with Feyerabend (1993) and Grey (2010) for their arguments that strict scientific methods like positivism will not help for scientific progress and will damage intellectual innovation. Therefore, some amount of ad-hoc postulates breaking the rule will help to drive scientific progress. Pragmatists are ready to challenge the status quo of positivism to transit the research from normal science and knowledge accumulation extraordinary science and knowledge accumulation. They target high flexibility in investigative techniques and be more open-minded to promote collaboration among researchers regardless of philosophical orientation, and develop positive attitude towards mixed-method research, having better position to use qualitative researches to inform the quantitative portion of researches, and vice versa (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005).

Pragmatism is viewed as a holistic endeavour that requires prolonged engagement, persistent observation and triangulation, and able to combine empirical precision with descriptive precision (Qnqueguzie, 2003). It is armed with a bi-focal lens rather than with a single lens to be able to zoom into microscopic detail or to zoom out to indefinite scope, or combine the macro and micro levels of a research issue for more effective research conduction (Willems & Ruash, 1969). According to Rossman & Wilson (1985) and Greene *et al.* (1989), pragmatists should conduct the four points below to increase the validity and reliability of research data:

1. Triangulation, seeking convergence and corroboration of results from different methods studying the same phenomenon.
2. Complementarity, seeking elaboration, enhancement, illustration and clarification of the results from one method with results from the other method.
3. Development, using the results from one method to help inform the other method.
4. Initiation, discovering paradoxes and contradictions that lead to a reframing of the research questions.

Table 3.1.1: Comparison of four research philosophies in ontology, epistemology and axiology.

Research Philosophy	Positivism	Realism	Interpretivism	Pragmatism
Ontology: Researcher's view of the nature of reality or being.	External, objective and independent of social actors.	Objective. Exists independently of human thoughts and beliefs or knowledge of their existence (realist), but it interpreted through social conditioning (critical realist).	Socially constructed, subjective, may change, multiple.	External, multiple, view chosen to best enable answering of research question.
Epistemology: Researcher's view regarding what constitutes acceptable knowledge.	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on causality and law like generalisations, reducing phenomena to simplest elements.	Observable phenomena provide credible data, facts. Insufficient data means inaccuracies in sensations (direct realism). Alternatively, phenomena create sensations which are open to misinterpretation (critical realism). Focus on explaining within a context or contexts.	Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus upon the details of situation, a reality behind these details, subjective meanings motivating actions.	Either or both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent upon the research question. Focus on practical applied research integrating different perspectives to help interpret the data.
Axiology: Researcher's view of the role of values in research.	Research is undertaken in a value-free way. Researcher is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance.	Research is value laden. Researcher is biased by world views, culture experiences and upbringing. These will impact on the research.	Research is value bound. Researcher is part of what is being researched, cannot be separated and so will be subjective.	Values play a large role in interpreting results, the researcher adopting both objective and subjective points of view.

Source: Burrell & Morgan (1982)

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

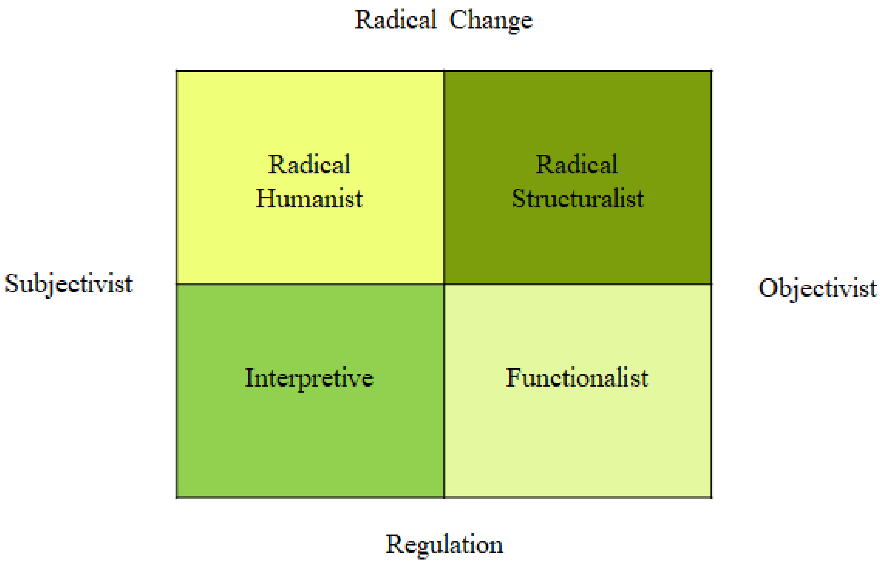
Burrell & Morgan (1982) stated that there were four paradigms: functionalist, interpretive, radical humanist and radical structuralist which could be used in management and business researches to generate fresh insights into real-life issues and problems. According to Burrell & Morgan (1982), the four paradigms helped researchers to clarify their assumptions about their view on the nature of science and society; to offer a useful way of understanding the way researchers approached their work; to help researchers to plot their own route through their research, and to understand where it was possible and they should go.

Referring to Figure 3.2.1, Burrell & Morgan (1982) arranged the four paradigms to correspond to four conceptual dimensions: radical change and regulation, and subjectivist and objectivist. Radical change dimension will adopt a critical perspective on organisation life and it approaches organisational problems from the viewpoint of overturning the existing state of affairs, while regulatory dimension is less judgemental and critical where it seeks to work within the existing state of affairs to explain how the organisational affairs shall be regulated and suggests how the organisational affairs shall be improved from current framework (Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

Objectivism holds that truth and falsehood are aspects of conceptual knowledge, while subjectivism holds that truth, in effect, resides only in the mind (Peikoff, 1993). According to Peikoff (1993), an objectivist would carry mind-set of a particular statement could be true for one person and false for another only when there was a radical difference in the relevant perceptual evidence available to the two persons, and it did not depend on mental choices, subjective processing, emotions or whims; an subjectivist would carry mind-set of a particular statement could be true for one person and false for another based solely on one's mental choices, subjective processing or emotions. Objectivism explains that truth (and perceptual knowledge) is a relationship between a consciousness and reality; truth is reality, as conceptually processed by a consciousness, and does not exist disembodied in external reality, while subjectivist explains that truth amounts to whatever one believes, and there is no such thing as knowledge of reality, only some sort of experience inside one's own mind (Peikoff, 1993).

This research followed the research paradigm of radical structuralist, targeting to achieve fundamental change based upon an analysis of such organisational phenomena as power relationships and pattern of conflict which involves structural patterns with work organisations such as hierarchies and reporting relationships (Saunders *et al.,* 2009). Radical structuralist is needed for mature organisations to drive successful product development, diversification and market development for continuous business growth for the survival and future success.

Figure 3.2.1: Four paradigms for the analysis of social theory.



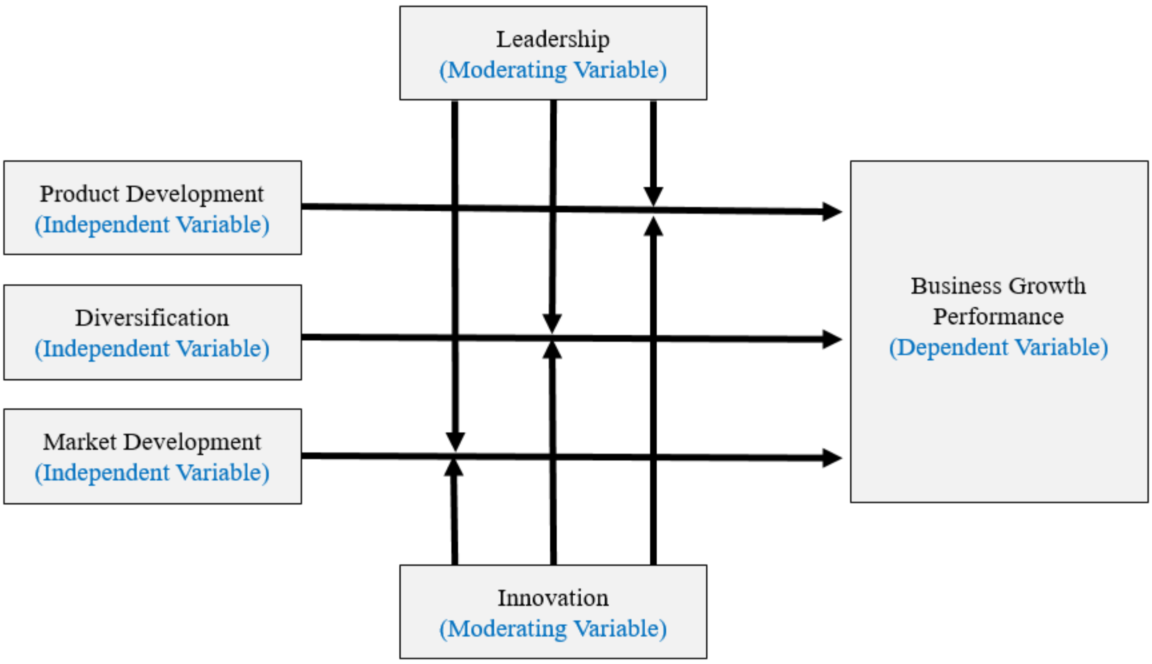
Source: Burrell & Morgan (1982)

3.3 RESEARCH CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Conceptual framework of the research in Figure 3.3.1 indicates the possible relationships existed between leadership, innovation, product development, diversification, market development and business growth performance. The first three research objectives were studying whether product development, diversification and market development drove business growth. Therefore, business growth performance was categorised as the dependent variable in this research, while product development, diversification and market development were categorised as the three independent variables that might affect the performance of dependent variable (business growth).

The next two research objectives were investigating whether leadership and innovation affected the strengths of product development, diversification and market development to drive business growth performance. This was why leadership and innovation were categorised as moderating variables instead of mediating variables because both leadership and innovation might affect the strength and direction of the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with business growth performance. A mediating variable explains the process through which two variables are related, while a moderating variable affects the strength and direction of that relationship.

Figure 3.3.1: Conceptual framework of the research.



3.4 RESEARCH APPROACH

Saunders *et al.* (2009) and Tracy (2013) stated that there were three types of research approach: deductive approach, inductive approach and combination of deductive and inductive approaches. This research used the combination of deductive and inductive approaches, where the inductive approach was conducted due to limited and outdated existing literature for this research topic, and some of the processes and characteristics of deductive approach such as study broad or general theory, explain causal relationships between variables, collect quantitative data, apply controls to ensure data validity and apply operationalisation were included to ensure clarity of definition in the inductive approach.

Table 3.4.1 indicates the differences in processes for both deductive and inductive approaches (Tracy, 2013). Creswell (2002) shared that a research topic having a wealth of existing literature from which researchers could define a theoretical framework and a hypothesis would lend more readily to deductive approach, while a research topic that was new and exciting much debate with little existing literature would lend more readily to inductive approach by generating data, analysing and reflecting upon what theoretical themes the data were suggesting. Time for data collection and analysis for deductive approach is shorter than inductive approach, and deductive approach is a lower-risk strategy than inductive approach where researchers in inductive approach will live with the fear that no useful data patterns and theory will emerge at the end of their research (Saunders *et al.,* 2019). Table 3.4.2 indicates the 8-step research process using the combination of deductive and inductive approaches in this research.

Table 3.4.1: Differences between deductive and inductive approaches to process.

Deductive Approach	Inductive Approach
1. Study broad or general theory.	1. Observe specific interactions.
2. Make an educated guess or a hypothesis about the social world on the basis of the theory	2. Conceptualize general patterns from the observations.
3. Conduct research that tests the hypothesis.	3. Make tentative claims.
4. Use the evidence to confirm or disconfirm the original theory.	4. Draw conclusions that build theory.

Source: Tracy (2013)

Table 3.4.2: Research process for the combination of deductive and inductive approaches.

Combination of Deductive and Inductive Approaches	
1.	Observe specific interactions.
2.	Conceptualize general patterns from the observations.
3.	Study broad or general theory.
4.	Make an educated guesses and generate the research gaps, problem statements, research objectives, questions and hypotheses.
5.	Generate a hypothesized theoretical framework for the research.
6.	Conduct both qualitative and quantitative analyses to test the hypotheses.
7.	Use the evidence to confirm or disconfirm the hypothesized theoretical framework
8.	Draw conclusions that build the research theoretical model.

3.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

This research started with a critical instance case study to observe specific interactions from a real case, and research issues were conceptualized from the observations. Then, exploratory sequential mixed-method approach was applied in this research, where an email interview was conducted to collect the exploratory primary qualitative data first, then an online survey was created based on the qualitative data analysis of email interview to collect explanatory primary data to test the hypothesized theoretical framework. The exploratory primary qualitative data of email interview and explanatory quantitative data of online survey were collected for qualitative and quantitative analyses respectively.

Exploratory sequential mixed-method is an approach combining qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis in a sequence of phases (Creswell & Clark, 2018). In the first phase, the primary exploratory qualitative data is collected and analysed, and the results will direct the next, quantitative phase, which can be a survey or some other form of quantitative data collection (SAGE Publications, 2019). The qualitative analysis provides critical fodder for developing specific research questions for the quantitative phase, and it help researchers to identify a larger range of topics and how individuals frame their understanding around a particular event or phenomenon (SAGE Publications, 2019). According to SAGE Publications (2019), the qualitative phase was described as “exploratory” because it was data driven rather than driven by a conceptual framework, but this did not mean that researchers were not allowed to use information from the literature review. The reason to postpone the quantitative data collection is because researchers need additional conceptual leverage before conducting a survey or questionnaire, and the collected qualitative data can be used by them to better understand the research problem. (SAGE Publications, 2019). Table 3.5.1 indicates the advantages and challenges for researchers to conduct the exploratory sequential mixed-method research.

Table 3.5.1: The advantages and challenges of conducting exploratory sequential mixed-method research.

Advantages	Challenges
Presents the use of a relatively new methodology.	Requires skills in both quantitative and qualitative research.
Involves a complex and sophisticated methodology using both quantitative and qualitative data.	Requires additional skills in mixed methods research.
Affords the ability to draw insights beyond the quantitative and qualitative data analysis.	Involves extensive time and resources to collect and analyse both qualitative and quantitative data.
Opens the possibility of multiple publications (example, a quantitative paper, a qualitative paper, a mixed methods paper).	Places a demand on the researcher to often educate reviewers about the essential characteristics of mixed methods research.

Source: Creswell (2022)

In the email interview (qualitative research), 20 experts having more than 10 years of flavour business experience in the food industry of Malaysia and Singapore were selected through purposeful sampling and invited to participate in a non-standardised, semi structured one-to-one email interview, and an interview questionnaire with 10 open-ended questions was emailed to the 20 participants for their responses. In this email interview, the participants were informed what the interview was about, what the interview was for, and how much time was needed. Open-ended questions were used to encourage participants to tell stories rather than just answer questions. Email interview instead of face-to-face interview was preferred because the 20 experts stay far away from each other and they would require more time to think before they could give quality answers for the 10 open-ended questions.

In the online survey (quantitative research), an online survey form of self-administered questionnaire starting with two open-ended exploratory questions, following by 12 Likert 1-4 rating scale (strongly disagree, disagree, agree and strongly agree) questions were created based on the qualitative data analysis of email interview. The collected exploratory primary qualitative data from the email interview were useful for the construction of the right, good quality, more meaningful and easier applied questions for the online survey, so that data at the right level can be collected to answer the research questions and objectives. The clear, concise, to the point and one thing at a time questions will be asked and asking leading questions will be avoided in the online survey. Hundred employees with minimum five years of working experience in the food industry of Malaysia and Singapore were selected through purposeful sampling, and invited to participate for this online survey, and the created online survey questionnaire was distributed to the 100 participants for their responses. Participants could choose not to answer the questions if they were not very sure about the answer.

This research involved both qualitative and quantitative researches. Agarwal *et al.* (1992), Porter (1995) and Kadous *et al.* (2005) viewed quantitative factors as being more salient, reliable and convincing than qualitative factors, and were deserving of a greater weight in decision making. However, Alasuutari (2010) and Hopmann (2002) argued that quantitative research made researchers easily missed the bigger picture, and it often failed to capture some of the most important, albeit subtle aspects in the research. Bailey *et al.* (1999) and Bryman (2012) complained that qualitative research was alleged to be merely story-telling and full of anecdotes together with personal impressions of researchers, and it was unscientific because its findings could not often be replicated and generalized. Sarma (2015) and Cherardi & Turner (2002) added on that qualitative research was subjective (no question of exactness), did not involve any measurement of variables and generally did not test any hypotheses, and it was too vague (very little specificity was involved), rarely focused on accuracy and highly flexible. In conclusion, both quantitative and qualitative research methods have their own strengths and weaknesses. Table 3.5.2 indicates the advantages and disadvantages of both qualitative and quantitative research methods.

Table 3.5.2: The advantages and disadvantages of both qualitative and quantitative research methods.

Qualitative Research Method	
Advantages	**Disadvantages**
• Focuses on the views of participants, not the researcher. • Provides detailed perspectives of a few people. • Captures the voices of participants. • Allows participants' experiences to be understood in context. • Appeals to people's enjoyment of stories.	• Limits drawing generalisations. • Provides only soft data (not hard data such as numbers). • Studies few people. • Uses highly subjective interpretation. • Minimises use of the researcher's expertise due to reliance on participants.
Quantitative Research Method	
Advantages	**Disadvantages**
• Relies on many researcher decisions. • Draw conclusions from large numbers of people. • Analyses data efficiently. • Investigates relationships within the data. • Examines probable causes and effects. • Controls for bias. • Appeals to people's preference for numbers.	• Presents often dry, impersonal accounts. • Limits gathering the actual words of participants. • Provides limited understanding of the setting or context of participants. • Relies too much on the researcher's decisions.

Source: Creswell (2022)

Bryman *et al.* (2008) highlighted that complete picture could not be generated by any one method alone, and combination of both quantitative and qualitative research methods would generate more complete picture for researchers. Dickinson & Heath (2005) supported Bryman *et al.* (2008) and stated that comparing quantitative and qualitative data allowed for additional insights into the research. Hopmann (2002) emphasized that the strengths of one methodology often helped to compensate for the limitations of the others, convergent findings across methodologies generated greater confidence in the results. Newman & Benz (1998) and Sieber (1973) supported Hopmann (2002), and mentioned that both quantitative and qualitative research methods had inherent strengths and weaknesses, researchers should utilize the strengths of both methods in order to understand better social phenomena. Ryan & Bernard (2000) shared that abundantly clear the value of turning qualitative data into quantitative data could produce information that engendered deeper interpretations of the meaning in the original corpus of qualitative data. Maxwell (2009), Rossman & Wilson (1985), Greene *et al.* (1989) shared the below nine drivers that could be used to improve the research validity:

- Triangulation, in order to find convergence and corroboration of results from different methods studying the same phenomenon.
- Complementarity, in order to find elaboration, enhancement, illustration and clarification of the results from one method with result from the other method.
- Development, in order to use the results from one method to help inform the other method.
- Initiation, in order to discover paradoxes and contradictions that lead to a reframing of the research questions.
- Expansion, in order to expand the breadth and range of inquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components.
- Intensive long-term (field) involvement, in order to produce a complete and in-depth understanding of filed situations, including the opportunity to make repeated observation and interviews.
- Rich data collection, in order to cover fully the field observations and interviews with detailed and varied data.
- Respondent validation, in order to obtain feedback from the participants studied, to lessen the misinterpretation of their self-reported behaviours and views.
- Quasi-statistic, in order to use actual numbers instead of adjectives.

Yin (2003) and Saunders *et al.* (2009) shared that research design could be classified into three types: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. Exploratory research is used to find out 'what was happening; to seek new insights; to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light to clarify the researchers' understanding on the problem (Robson, 2002). Principal ways of conducting exploratory research are searching of the literature, interviewing experts in the subjects, and conducting focus group interviews (Adam & Schvaneveldt, 1991).

Descriptive research is used to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations which could be an extension of or a forerunner to the exploratory research for the purpose to have a clear picture of the phenomena first before proceed for data collection (Robson, 2002). Descriptive research can be an extension of or a forerunner to the explanatory research as well for the purpose of explaining the results or a particular part of the findings in more depth (Creswell, 2015). Explanatory research is used to study a situation or a problem in order to establish and explain the causal relationships between variables.

There are eight types of research strategy: experiment, survey, case study, action research, grounded theory, ethnography, archival research and multiple methods that can be used for exploratory, descriptive and explanatory researches (Yin, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddie, 2003; Curran & Blackburn, 2001). Scott (2016), Onwuegbuzie & Leech (2005) and Saunders *et al.* (2009) stressed that eventually what was most important in researches was not the types of research design and strategy, but whether the selected research design and strategy could answer the particular research questions and meet research objectives. The choice of research design will be guided by the research questions and objectives, the extent of existing knowledge, the amount of available time and other resources, as well as the selected research philosophy and paradigm (Saunders *et al.,* 2009).

Hakim (2000) shared that the purpose of experiment was to study causal links, whether a change in one independent variable would affect change in another dependent variable, or the change and the relative importance of two or more independent variables. Therefore, experiment tends to be used in exploratory and explanatory researches to answer 'how' and 'why' questions. An experiment will involve a 6-stage process: (1) definition of a theoretical hypothesis; (2) selection of samples of individuals from known populations; (3) random allocation of samples to different experimental conditions, the experimental group and the control group; (4) introduction of planned intervention or manipulation to one or more of the variables; (5) measurement on a small number of dependent variables; (6) control of all other variables (Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

Survey tends to be used in exploratory and descriptive researches to answer 'who, what, where and how' questions (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Survey strategy has advantages in the collection of a large amount of data from a sizeable population in a highly economical way; the collection of standardised data for easy comparison and suggest possible reasons for particular relationship between variables, so that models of these relationships can be produced; the collection of quantitative data which can be analysed quantitatively using descriptive and inferential statistics; more control over the research process (Saunders *et al.,* 2009). However, survey strategy needs researchers to spend longer time to ensure the sample is representative, to design and pilot their data collection instruction, to ensure a good response rate and analyse the results.

Case study is a strategy involving an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence (Robson, 2002). Case study tends to be used in explanatory and exploratory research to answer 'why, what and how' questions, and different data collection techniques such as interviews, observation, documentary analysis questionnaires could be used in case study (Morris & Wood, 1991). Researchers in case study need to triangulate multiple sources of data to ensure that the data are telling the valid and reliable information. According to Yin (2003), case study could be differentiated in four types based upon two discrete dimensions: single case versus multiple cases; holistic case versus embedded case.

Single case study will involve the study of a critical case, or an extreme or unique case which allowed researchers to analyse a phenomenon that few other researchers have considered before. Multiple case studies will involve the study of more than one case which allowed researchers to focus upon the need to establish whether the findings of the first case occur in other cases, and the need to generalise from their findings. Yin (2003) argued that multiple case studies were preferable to a single case study, and it was necessary for researchers to have a strong justification for the reason to use a single case study. Holistic case study involves the study of the organisation as a whole without logical sub-units within the organisation. Embedded case study involves the study of a number of logical sub-units such as departments or work groups within the organisation.

Coghlan & Brannick (2005), Eden & Huxham (1996) and Robson (2002) defined that action research would involve four common themes: (1) focused research in action rather than research about action, so the research would concern with the resolution of organisational issues such as the implications of change together with those who experience the issues directly; (2) involved the practitioners in the research and the researcher is part of the organisation within which the research and the change process were taking place; (3) emphasized the iterative nature of the process of diagnosing, planning, taking action and evaluating; (4) had implications beyond the immediate project. Action research combines both data gathering and facilitation of change within organisations, the recognition that time needs to be devoted for diagnosing, planning, taking action and evaluating, and the involvement of employees as the practitioners throughout the research process, and particularly useful to answer 'how' questions. Schein (1999) stressed the importance of employee involvement throughout the research process, as employees were more likely to implement the change which they had helped to create, and once employees had identified the need for change and widely shared this need in organisations, it became difficult to ignore and the pressure for change would come from within organisations.

Grounded theory strategy uses a combination of inductive and deductive approaches for theory building, where data collection starts without the formation of an initial theoretical framework, and theory is developed from data generated by a series of observations (Goulding, 2002). Collis & Hussey (2003) added on that data generated by a series of observations would lead to the generation of predictions which were then tested in further observations, as constant reference to the data to develop and test theory. Suddaby (2006) emphasized the six common misconceptions about ground theory where ground theory was not an excuse to ignore the literature or defer reading existing theory until the data were collected and analysed; not presentation of raw data as the collected data were considered at a conceptual level in order to draw conclusions containing theoretical insights; not theory testing, content analysis or word counts; not simply routine application of formulaic procedures to data, it was an interpretive process, not a logico-deductive one and researchers should treat it as a highly creative one; not perfect, researchers needed to develop a tacit knowledge of, or feel for the data; not easy, as it required considerable experience, hard work and creativity to conduct this research strategy.

Ethnography strategy is rooted firmly in the inductive approach, and its purpose is to describe and explain the social world the research subjects inhabit (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Ethnography strategy is very time consuming and it needs researchers to immerse themselves in the social world being researched as completely as possible, and the process for ethnography strategy needs to be flexible and responsive to change as researchers will constantly develop new patterns of thought based on what they have observed (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Archival research is a research strategy using of administrative records and documents as the principal source of data (recent as well as historical documents) (Bryman, 1989). It is important that not to conflate archival research strategy with secondary data analysis, as the data using in archival research strategy are analysed because they are a product of day-to-day activities, part of the reality being studied rather than having been collected originally as data for research purposes (Hakim, 2000). Secondary data are originally collected for a different purpose, the administration of the organisation (Hakim, 2000).

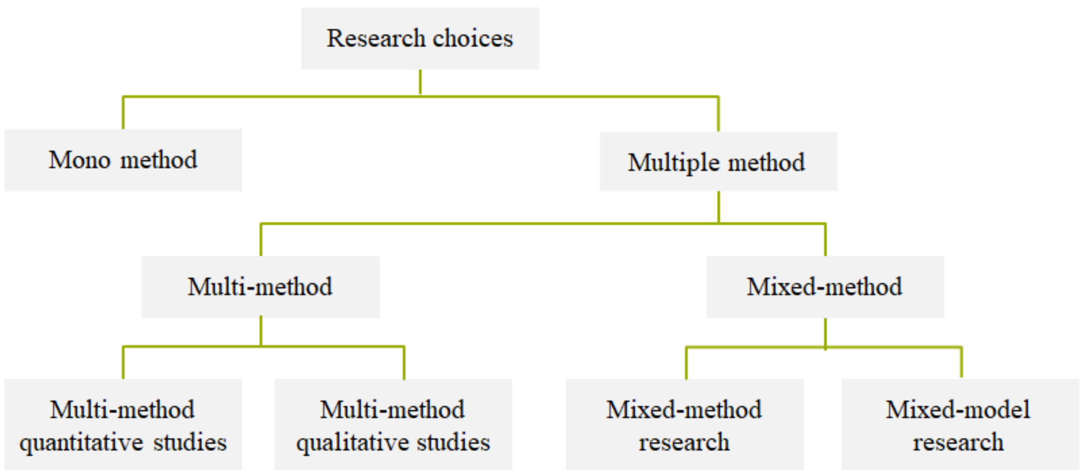
Referring to Figure 3.5.1, researchers can choose either mono method using a single data collection technique and correspond analysis procedures or multiple methods using more than one data collection technique and analysis procedures to answer their research questions. Curran & Blackburn (2001) emphasized the use of multiple methods choice is increasingly advocated within business and management researches where researchers would use quantitative and qualitative techniques and procedures in combination as well as use primary and secondary data in a single research study. In mono method, researchers will combine either a single quantitative data collection technique with quantitative data analysis procedures or a single qualitative data collection technique with qualitative data analysis procedures (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). In multiple methods, researchers will combine more than one data collection technique with associated analysis techniques, but restricted with either a quantitative or qualitative world view (Tashkkori & Teddlie, 2003).

Multi-method quantitative study will involve more than one quantitative data collection techniques together with more than one quantitative data analysis procedures, while multi-method qualitative study will involve more than one qualitative data collection techniques together with more than one qualitative data analysis procedures (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Mixed-method is referring to the research using both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures (Tashkkori & Teddlie, 2003).

Mixed-method research will involve quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures either at the same time (parallel) or one after the other (sequential) but does not combine them where quantitative data will be analysed quantitatively and qualitative data will be analysed qualitatively (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Mixed-model research will combine quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures as well as combining quantitative and qualitative approaches at other phases of the research where quantitative data can be converted into narrative that can be analysed qualitatively, and qualitative data can be converted into numerical codes that can be analysed statistically (quantitatively) (Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

Creswell (2015) mentioned that mixed method research could be designed in three different ways: convergent design, explanatory sequential design and exploratory sequential design. In convergent design, both qualitative and quantitative data are collected more or less simultaneously, then the data sets are analysed and the results are compared; in explanatory sequential design, the quantitative data are collected first, following by the collection of qualitative data, generally with the purpose of explaining the results or a particular part of the findings in more depth; in exploratory sequential design, the qualitative data are collected first, then a survey is created based on an analysis of the qualitative data (Creswell, 2015). Bryman *et al.* (2008) highlighted that qualitative methods in explanatory sequential design had potential to offer greater insight into the research question than quantitative methods that often highlight the trend but not a reason behind it.

Figure 3.5.1: Research choices of mono method and multiple methods.



Source: Saunders *et al.* (2009)

Referring to Figure 3.5.2, there are three different types of research data: primary, secondary and tertiary. Primary data are record of event or evidence which is first described or actually happened without any interpretation or commentary. Primary data contain original thinking, report on new discoveries or shared fresh information. Primary data contain information which is shown for the first time or original materials where other research is based. Examples of primary data include dissertations, scholarly journal articles (research based), some government reports, symposia and conference proceedings, original artwork, poems, photographs, speeches, letters, memos, personal narratives, diaries, interviews, autobiographies and correspondence.

Secondary data offer an analysis or restatement of primary data, trying to describe or explain primary data. Secondary data work to summarise, interpret, reorganise and provide an added value to primary data. Examples of secondary data include textbooks, edited works, books and articles that interpret or review research works, histories, biographies, literary criticism and interpretation, reviews of law and legislation, political analyses and commentaries. Tertiary data are sources that index, abstract, organise, compile or digest other sources. Some reference materials and textbooks with chief purpose to list, summarise or simply repackage ideas or other information are categorised as tertiary data as well. Tertiary data are usually not credited to a particular author. Examples of tertiary data are dictionaries / encyclopedias, almanacs, fact books, Wikipedia, bibliographies, directories, guidebooks, manuals, handbooks and textbooks, indexing and abstracting sources.

Saunders *et al.* (2009) shared that primary data could be collected through observation, interview and questionnaire. Observation involves systematic observation, recording, description, analysis and interpretation of people's behaviour if the research is concerned about what people do. Observation can be examined in two different types: participant observation and structured observation, where participant observation is qualitative and derives from the work of social anthropology to discover the meanings that people attach to their actions, while structured observation is quantitative and concerns more with the frequency of those actions (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). In participant observation, researchers will participate in the lives and activities of those whom they are studying. Kahn & Cannell (1957) explained that an interview was a purposeful discussion between two or more people in order to gather valid and reliable data there were relevant with the research questions and objectives.

Healey (1991) and Healey & Rawlinson (1993, 1994) stated that there were two different types of interview: standardised and non-standardised. Standardised (structured) interview is normally used to gather quantifiable data for quantitative analysis, and questionnaires based on a predetermined and standardised or identical set of questions will be used in their interview. Non-standardised (semi-structured or unstructured) interview is used to gather data for qualitatively analysis. In the semi-structured interview, researchers will have a list of themes and questions to be covered in the interview. However, in the unstructured interview, researchers have no predetermined list of questions to work through, but they have a clear idea about the aspects that they want to explore. The objective of unstructured interview is to explore in depth a general area in which researchers are interested, so interviewees are given a chance to talk freely (non-directive) about events, behaviour and beliefs in the relation to the topic area.

Both semi-structured and unstructured interviews are very helpful in the exploratory study to find out what is happening and to seek new insights, and in the explanatory study to allow researchers to infer causal relationships between variables (Robson, 2002; Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Structured interviews play important role in descriptive study as the means to identify general patterns. Structured interview can also be used in a statistical sense in explanatory study. Tashakkori & Teddlie (1998) and Healey & Rawlinson (1994) shared that in a survey strategy, researchers could use semi-structured or unstructured interviews initially as exploratory study to help to identify the questions that should be asked in a questionnaire administered as a structured interview, and the exploratory information was very helpful for the design of the structured interview for descriptive study.

The exploratory information will lead to the discussion into areas that researchers have not previously considered but which are significant for their understanding, and help them to address their research questions and objectives. Tashakkori & Teddlie (1998) and Bryman 2006 highlighted that both semi-structured and unstructured interviews could be used to explain and validate the descriptive findings from the questionnaire administered as a structured interview. The explanatory information will add significance and depth to the collected data from the descriptive study.

Saunders *et al.* (2009) highlighted the three data quality issues: reliability, forms of bias, and validity and generalisability that could be identified in relation to the use of semi-structured and unstructured interviews. According to Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2008) and Silverman (2007), reliability was concerned whether alternative researchers would be able to reveal similar information and interviewers where the interviewers demonstrated bias in the way they interpreted the collected responses from interviewees due to their own beliefs and frame, and interviewee bias where the interviewees provided partial or incorrect information due to sensitive questions, lack of trust to interviewers, and unwillingness to take part in the time-consuming requirements of the interview process. Yin (2003) stressed that qualitative research using semi-structured or unstructured interviews would not be able to be used to make statistical generalisations about the entire population.

In order to overcome the data quality issues of qualitative research using semi-structured and unstructured interviews, researchers need to ensure this research can be replicated by other researchers. Marshall & Rossman (1999) stressed that researchers need to be clear to make and retain notes relating to their research design, the reasons underpinning the choice of strategy and methods, and the data obtained, so that could be referred by other researchers to understand the processes and reanalyse the collected data. The use of semi-structured and unstructured interviews shall not lead to a lack of rigour in relation to the research process.

Referring to Figure 3.5.2, non-standardised interview can be divided to one-to-one and one-to-many where one-to-one includes face-to-face interview, telephone interview and electronic interview, and one-to-many (main focus group) includes group interview and electronic group interview. According to Morgan & Symon (2004), electronic interview could be sub-divided into asynchronous and synchronous depending upon whether the interview was undertaken in real time (synchronous) or offline (asynchronous). Internet forums (web forums, message boards, discussion boards, discussion forums, discussion groups and bulletin board) and emails can be used for asynchronous interviews, and chat room is an online forum operating in synchronous mode.

Robson (2002) stressed that questionnaire was usually not particularly good for exploratory study which required large numbers of open-ended questions, but it worked best with standardised questions that researchers were confident that all respondents would interpret the same way. Therefore, questionnaire tends to be used for descriptive and explanatory studies which enable researchers to identify and describe the variability in different phenomena. Jankowicz (2005) stated that questionnaire required less skill and sensitivity to administer than semi-structured or in-depth interviews. However, the comment from Jankowicz (2005) had been argued by many authors such as Bell (2005) and Oppenheim (2000) who highlighted that it was far harder to produce a good questionnaire using to collect the precise data that researchers require to answer their research questions and achieve the research objectives. According to Saunders *et al.* (2009), the design of questionnaire would affect the response rate, the reliability and validity of the collected data. Saunders *et al.* (2009) stressed that the response rates, validity and reliability could be optimised through careful design of individual questions, clear and pleasing layout of the questionnaire, lucid explanation of the purpose of the questionnaire, pilot testing, and carefully planned and executed administration.

Figure 3.5.2 shows questionnaire is divided into two types: self-administered and interviewer-administered. Self-administered questionnaire is usually completed by the respondents through internet or intranet (internet and intranet-mediated questionnaires), posted to respondents who will complete and post back to the researchers (postal or mail questionnaire) or delivered to the respondents and collected later (delivery and collection questionnaires). Interviewer-administered questionnaire is recorded by the interview on the answers from the respondents through telephone call and structured interviews. Saunders *et al.* (2009) highlighted that the choice of questionnaire would be influenced by the factors such as characteristic of the respondents, importance of reaching a particular person as respondent, importance of respondents' answers not being contaminated or distorted, size of sample and targeted response rate, number of questions and the types of questions.

Questionnaire offers only one chance for data collection, as it is difficult to identify respondents and return to them to collect additional information, so the questions in questionnaire need to be defined precisely prior to the data collection. Ghauri & Gronhaug (2005) stressed that it was necessary for researchers to review the literature carefully and discuss their ideas widely with colleagues, project tutor and other interested parties, and conceptualise their own research clearly prior the design of questions in the questionnaire. Foddy (1994) added on that the questions must be understood by respondents in the way intended by researchers and answers from respondents must be understood by researchers in the way intended by respondents.

Bourque & Clark (1994) mentioned that researchers could adopt or adapt used questions in other questionnaires, or develop their own questions when designing individual questions. Bourque & Clark (1994) then highlighted adopting or adapting questions were more efficient than developing own questions as long as researchers were still able to collect the related data from the adopted and adapted questions to answer their research questions and to achieve their research objectives. Adopting or adapting questions are necessary if researchers wish to replicate or compare their findings with other studies. Fink (2003), Dillman (2007) and DeVaus (2002) shared two types of question: open and closed questions could be used in a questionnaire. Fink (2003) explained that open questions referred to as open-ended questions which allow respondents to give answers in their own way. Dillman (2007) and DeVaus (2002) explained that closed questions referred as closed-end questions or forced-choice questions, providing a number of alternative answers from which the respondents were instructed to choose.

Foddy (1994) stated that closed questions could be divided into six types: list, category, ranking, rating, quantity and matrix. For list questions, respondents will be offered with a list of responses, and respondents can consider all possible responses and choose any of the responses. For category questions, each respondent's answer can fit only a category, and these questions are useful for the data collection about behaviour or attributes. For ranking questions, respondents are requested to place things in rank order, so that they can discover their relative importance to the respondents. It is important for researchers to ensure that the instructions for the ranking questions are clear and will be understood by respondents. Cooper & Schindler (2008) stressed that respondents found ranking more than seven items took too much effort reducing their motivation to complete the questionnaire, therefore researchers should keep the rank questions to this length or shorter.

For rating questions, Corbetta (2003) explained that those questions were used to collect opinion data, and should not be confused with scales (a coherent set of questions that are regarded as indicators of a construct or concept). As shared by Dillman (2007), Likert-style rating scale was most frequently used in rating questions, where respondents would be asked how strongly they agreed or disagreed with a statement or series of statements (usually with four-, five-, six- or seven-point rating scale). Dillman (2007) also highlighted that respondents were most likely to process the data for the rating questions that were presented in a straight line rather than in multiple lines or columns, and the same order of response categories could avoid confusing respondents. Schrauf & Navarro (2005) and Miller & Salkind (2002) emphasized that it often made sense for researchers to use or adapt existing scales instead of developing their own scales, as those existing scales had been designed and developed for a reasonably similar group of respondents to measure what researchers interested in, and had been empirically tested and validated.

For quantity questions, those questions will be responded through number, which gives the amount of a characteristic to collect behaviour or attribute data. For matrix questions, a matrix or grid of questions will be developed for researchers to record the responses to two or more similar questions at the same time. Dillman (2007) argued that although using matrix questions would save space, but respondents would have difficulties to comprehend the designs and this would be a barrier to response. Saunders *et al.* 2009 emphasized the importance and necessary for researchers to design good quality questions with the below conditions in their questionnaire for effective data collection.

- Questions that can collect data at the right level of detain to answer the investigative questions.
- Respondents have the necessary knowledge to answer the questions, and the questions shall not talk down and embarrass respondents.
- Words using in the questions shall be familiar and understood in the same way by all the respondents. Researchers shall use simple words and avoid jargon, abbreviations and colloquialisms in the questions.
- Words using in the questions shall not sound similar or look similar, as respondents may be confused especially when they read the questions quickly.
- Words using in the questions shall not result in biased responses or a response rate.
- No long questions, no more than one question at the same time, as the respondents has difficulties to remember the whole questions and those questions are often difficult to understand, which eventually will result in no response at all.
- Questions shall not include a negative or double negative, as it is difficult for respondents to understand.
- Questions need to be ambiguous, avoiding poor sentence structure having words with several different meanings or having an unclear investigative question.
- Questions shall not imply with certain correct answer or prevent certain answers from being given, and closed questions shall be included to collect mutually exclusive responses from respondents.
- Researchers shall outline appropriate advice for the type of questionnaire and clear instructions to record each answer to the respondents at earlier discussion.

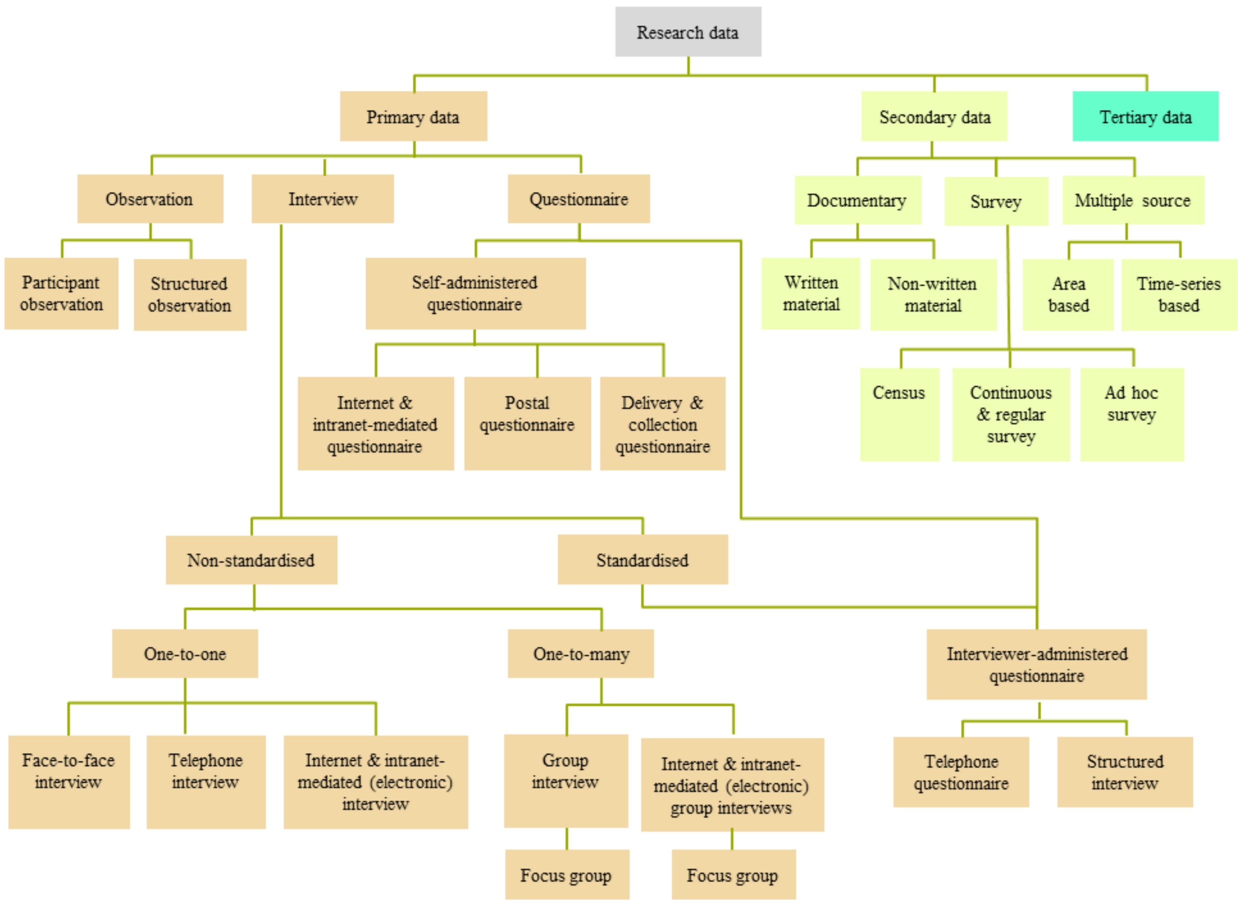
Bryman (1989), Dale *et al.* (1988), Hakim (1982), Hakim (2000) and Robson (2002) generated a variety of classifications for secondary data, and their ideas were used to create three main sub-groups of secondary data: documentary, survey and multiple sources as indicated in Figure 3.4.2. Documentary secondary data include written materials such as notices, correspondence (including emails), minutes of meeting, reports to shareholders, diaries, transcripts of speeches and administrative, public records, books, journal, magazine articles and newspapers, and non-written materials such as voice and video recordings, picture, drawings, firms and television programmes, DVDs and CD-ROMs as well as organisations' databases.

Survey-based secondary data are collected using a survey strategy (usually by questionnaires), and have been collected through one of the three distinct sub-types of survey strategy: censuses, continuous and regular surveys or ad hoc surveys as indicated in Figure 3.3.2.

Hakim (2000) shared that censuses were usually carried out by governments, and were unique comparing with surveys as participation was obligatory. Censuses provide very good coverage of the population surveyed. Hakim (1982) stated that continuous and regular surveys were those surveys, excluding censuses that were repeated over time. According to Saunders *et al.* (2009), ad hoc surveys were one-off surveys and were far more specific in the subject matter.

Multiple-source secondary data are based entirely on documentary or on survey secondary data or an amalgam of the two so that different data sets can been combined to form another data set for data analysis by researchers to answer their research questions and objectives. Refer to Figure 3.3.2, multiple-source secondary data can be divided into two types: area based and time-series based, where the time-serious based multiple-source secondary data are collected through combination of selected comparable variables from a number of surveys or from the same survey that has been repeated a number of times, and area based multiple-source secondary data are collected through combination of different sources having the same geographical basis.

Figure 3.5.2: Types of research data.



Source: Saunders *et al.* (2009)

3.6 SAMPLE POPULATION

In this research, all the samples (participants) were selected from organisations in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore. This research preferred the samples (participants) from organisation than individual and group. The non-probability purposive homogeneous sampling method was used to select the 20 samples (experts) having more than 10 years of flavour business experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore for the email interview, and the same non-probability purposive homogeneous sampling method was used to select the 100 employees with minimum five years of working experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore for the online survey.

3.7 SAMPLE SIZE

Israel (2012) emphasized the criteria to determine the sample size of population was the level of precision, the level of confidence, and the level of variability. According to Sekaran (2003), the minimum sample size of at least 100 respondents should be recommended to run a research study. Similarly, sample size between 20 and 500 is appropriate for most of the researchers according to rule of thumb by Roscoe (1975). Sudman (1976) and Kish (1965) highlighted that a sample of 20 to 50 elements per group and response present at 50% to 80% was sufficient to achieve comparative analysis of group. However, the target to have more responses from the respondents will increase the statistical accuracy of a research study.

Guest *et al.* (2006) advised that for researches where the aim was to understand commonalities within a fairly homogenous group, 12 in-depth interviews should be sufficient, but the 12 in-depth interviews are not sufficient if the sample was drawn from a heterogeneous population or the focus of the research question was wide ranging. Creswell (2007) suggested that for a general study, 25 and 30 interviews should be sufficient. Patton (2002) pointed out that the sample size was actually dependent on the research questions and objectives based on what the researchers needed, what would be useful and have credibility, and what could be done within their available resources.

In this research, the rule of thumb by Roscoe (1975) was followed, where the sample size between 20 and 500 was appropriate for a research study. This research also followed Guest *et al.* (2006), who advised that for research to understand commonalities within a fairly homogenous group, 12 in-depth interviews should be sufficient. In the email interview (exploratory research), 20 experts having more than 10 years of flavour business experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore were selected and invited for the participation. In the online survey (explanatory research), 100 employees with minimum five years of working experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore were invited for the participation.

3.8 SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

The non-probability purposive homogeneous sampling technique was applied in this research, where 20 experts with more than 10 years of flavour business experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore were selected for the email interview, and 100 employees with minimum five years of working experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore were selected for the online survey.

Saunders *et al.* (2009) stated that sampling provided a valid alternative to a census when it was impracticable for researchers to survey the entire population or the budget and time constraints prevented researchers from surveying the entire population or researchers had collected all the data but needed the results quickly. Referring to Figure 3.8.1, there are two different types of sampling technique: probability or representative sampling and non-probability or judgemental sampling. Process of probability sampling involves identification of a suitable sampling frame based on the research questions and objectives, decision on a suitable sample size, selection of the most appropriate probability sampling technique for the sample selection, and finally sample checking whether it is representative of the population (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). For non-probability sampling, it does not have a sampling frame so researchers will select samples based on their subjective judgement on the research questions and objectives (Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

Figure 3.8.1 shows probability sampling can be conducted through five main techniques: simple random, systematic, stratified random, cluster and multi-stage. Simple random sampling involves random sample selection without bias from the sampling frame using random number tables, a computer or an online random number generator, and it is best used when researchers have an accurate an easily accessible sampling frame listing the entire population. Tracy (2013) commented that simple random sampling created an equal opportunity for all the members of a sampling frame to be chosen. Systematic sampling involves sample selection at regular intervals from the sampling frame. Systematic sampling involves researchers to select the sample at regular intervals from the sampling frame.

Stratified random sampling is a modification of random sampling where researchers will divide the sampling frame into two or more relevant and significant strata, and a random sample (simple or systematic) is then drawn from each of the strata. Cluster sampling is similar to stratified sampling, where the researchers need to divide the sampling frame into discrete groups prior to sampling (Henry, 1990). However, the sampling frame for cluster sampling is the complete list of clusters rather than a complete list of individual cases within the population. Multi-stage sampling is also called as multi-stage cluster sampling, involving taking a series of cluster samples and each involving some form of random sampling.

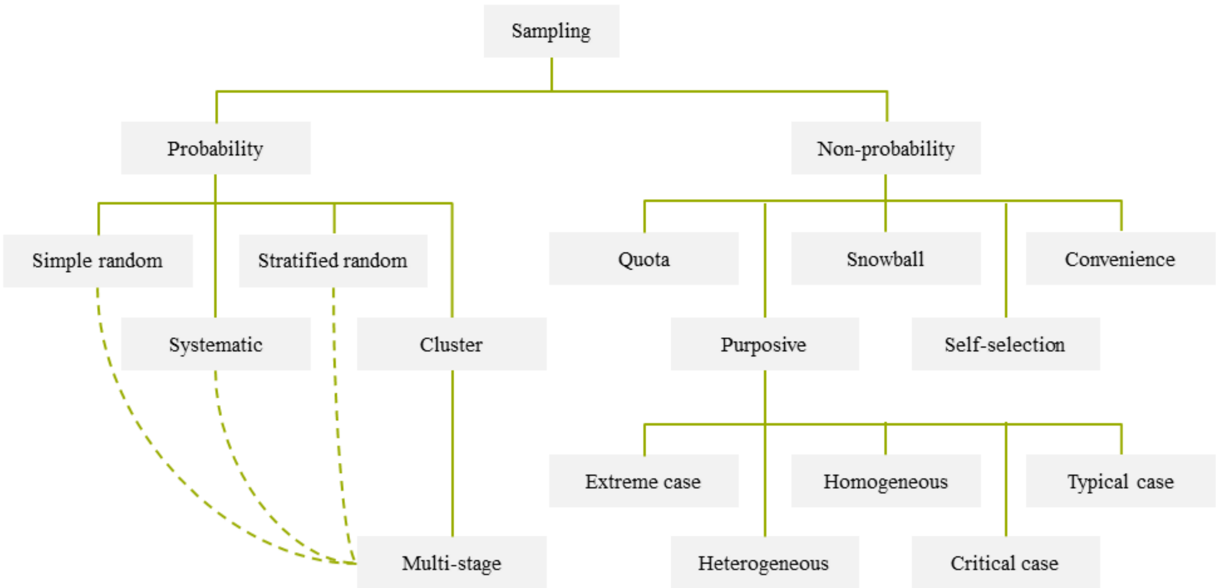
For non-probability sampling, it can be conducted through five main techniques: quota, purposive, snowball, self-selection and convenience. Barnett (1991) shared that quota sampling was a type of stratified sample in which selection of cases within strata was entirely non-random. Quota sampling is less costly and can be set up very quickly, and it is normally used for large populations which getting a sampling frame is not possible. Purposive sampling is called as judgemental sampling as well, where researchers will use their judgement to select cases that will best enable them to answer their research questions and to meet their research objectives. Neuman (2005) shared that purposive sampling worked with very small samples, where the researchers would target to select cases that were particularly informative for the research, and the selection of cases should be dependent on the research questions and objectives.

Purposive sampling can be further divided into five strategies: extreme case, heterogeneous, homogeneous, critical case and typical case. Extreme case sampling is also called as deviant sampling, where it focuses on unusual or special cases on the basis that the findings from these unusual or special cases will enable the researchers to learn the most and to answer the research questions, and to meet the research objectives. Heterogeneous sampling is also called as maximum variation sampling which enables the researchers to collect data to describe and explain the key themes that can be observed. In order to ensure maximum variation within a sample, Patton (2002) suggested researchers to identity the diverse characteristic (sample selection criteria) prior to selecting the sample.

Homogeneous sampling will focus on one particular sub-group and all the sample members are similar, which enables researchers to study the group in great depth. Critical case sampling involves the selection of critical cases that are important and able to make a point dramatically, so that the data collection can be done to understand what is happening in each critical case to make logical generalisations. Typical case sampling is used as part of a research project to provide an illustrative profile through a representative case.

Snowball sampling needs researchers to ask study participants to recommend other participants to expand the sample size. Lee (1993) stressed that the bias of snowball sampling is huge, as the respondents are most likely to identify other potential respondents who are similar to themselves, resulting in a homogeneous sample. Self-selection sampling happens when researchers allow each case to identify their desire to take part in the research. Researchers will publicise their need for cases through appropriate media advertisement or invitation to take part, and collect data from those who respond to them. Convenience sampling is also called as haphazard sampling, which involves selecting randomly those cases that are easiest to obtain for the sample, and the researchers will continue the sample selection process until their required sample size has been reached. Convenience sampling is prone to bias, as the cases appear in the sample only because of the ease of obtaining them.

Figure 3.8.1: Sampling techniques.



Source: Saunders *et al.* (2009)

3.9 SAMPLE FRAME

Total 120 of samples (participants) were selected from organisations in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore through non-probability purposive homogenous sampling techniques for the email interview and online survey in this research. Those organisations in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore include flavour houses, food ingredients manufactures, food manufacturers and related distributors or trading companies. The reason why organisations in the food industry of Singapore were included in this research because those organisations in Singapore are running their business in Malaysia as well, and they have excellent knowledge and experience to contribute for this research.

3.10 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

Referring to Appendix I, the email interview questionnaire is designed with 10 open-ended questions, while the online survey questionnaire is designed with self-administered questionnaire starting with two open-ended exploratory questions, following by 12 Likert 1-4 rating scale (strongly disagree, disagree, agree and strong agree) questions.

The email interview and online survey are started with the description to explain the purpose for this research; who is undertaking this research; who is being asked to participate such as broad details about the sampling frame, sample determination and size; how will these data be collected; what is the estimated time is required to complete the questionnaire; all responses will be kept anonymous and no one will be identifiable in the research; the participation is entirely voluntary and all information will be kept in the strictest confidentially.

A section of participant consent is included in the email interview and online survey, where all the participants must complete the section to acknowledge they have confirmed that they have read and understand the information sheet for the research, and they have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily; they understand that their participation is voluntary and that they are free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason; they agree to take part in the research study before they are allowed to start taking part in the questionnaires.

The email interview and online survey are ended with the demographic questionnaire to gather the information of gender, age, years of experience in food industry, department and job level of the participants. The questionnaire design is important because it affects the response rate, as well as the reliability and validity of data collection. The questionnaire should only state the relevant questions that are designed using simple, understandable, unambiguous words to gather the relevant data (Zikmund, 2003). Referring to Table 3.10.1 and Table 3.10.2, the collected exploratory secondary data from the literature review in Chapter 2 had been referred before the 10 open-ended questions in the email interview, the two open-ended questions and 12 Likert 1-4 rating scale questions in the online survey were generated. This helped to generate more relevant questions for both the email interview and online survey, targeting to improve the reliability of validity of data collection.

For the online survey questionnaire, the first two open-ended exploratory questions in Section (1) are designed to open up and trigger participants' thinking and readiness for the next 12 Likert 1-4 rating scale questions in Section (2). Questions 1 and 2 are designed to test the relationship between business growth performance and future success of mature organisations; Questions 3 and 4 are designed to test the relationship between product development and business growth performance; Questions 5 and 6 are designed to test the relationship between market development and business growth performance; Questions 7 and 8 are designed to test the relationship between diversification and business growth performance; Questions 9 and 10 are designed to test the relationship between leadership with product development, market development and diversification for business growth; Questions 11 and 12 are designed to test the relationship between innovation with product development, market development and diversification for business growth. Besides referring to the collected exploratory secondary data from Chapter 2, the collected exploratory primary data from the email interview were also referred before the 10 open-ended questions in the email interview, the two open-ended questions and 12 Likert 1-4 rating scale questions in the online survey were generated.

In this research, the four drivers: triangulation, development, complementary and initiation had been applied to increase its validity and reliability. Triangulation involved the study to compare the collected explanatory quantitative primary data from the online survey with the collected secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2, seeking for convergence and corroboration of results from two different methods to study the same phenomenon. Development involved the use of collected exploratory secondary data from the literature review in Chapter 2 to generate the questionnaires of email interview and online survey, and also the use of collected exploratory qualitative primary data from the email interview to generate the online survey questionnaire. Complementary involved the use of collected explanatory quantitative primary data from the online survey to test and describe findings from the literature review in Chapter 2 and email interview, explaining the causal relationships between variables. Initiation involved in the literature review in Chapter 2 to study different sources of scholarly research journal articles, peer reviewed research journal articles, case studies and books, discovering paradoxes and contradictions that lead to a reframing of the research questions.

Table 3.10.1: Email interview questionnaire design.

Questionnaire construct	Related to	Sources from the literature review in Chapter 2 that had been referred for the question generation
Participant Consent	Voluntary participation.	• Saunders *et al.* (2009)
Q1: What do you think about the flavour business in the food industry of Malaysia?	Flavour business in the food industry in Malaysia	• Malaysia is an emerging market, which is at formative stage of their economic development and will be expected to grow rapidly (Encarta, 2011). • Emerging markets are the world's fastest growing developing segment with a growing middle to high income class (Sudhir & Talukdar, 2015) and increasing economic growth leveraged on market liberalization plus relatively growing economic infrastructure (Puffer *et al.*, 2010), and this rapid socio-economic growth will create jobs for the growing population and create wealth for daring investors operating in emerging markets (Guillen & Garcia-Canal, 2009). • Emerging markets are expected to provide nearly 75% of the world's growth in the foreseeable future, and organisations must have innovative strategies and business models with reinvented components of customer value proposition, profit formula, key processes and key resources in order to overcome the challenges in emerging markets, and to be successful in new business development for business growth. • Malaysia population in 2020 was 32.4 million with 2.9% growth from the population 2018 of 31.5 million. In 2018, Malaysia achieved annual 4.7% GDP (Gross Domestic Product) growth and 7.1% GNI (Gross National Income) per capita growth. Country income per capita for Malaysia was USD10,800 in 2020 with 18.7% growth versus the country income per capita of USD9,100 in 2011. Unemployment rate of Malaysia in 2018 was 3.4% (The World Bank, 2020). • According to the population of Malaysia in 2018, the overall population of Malaysia was made up of those at working age of 20 to 34, and the deployment of this growing-age population drove Malaysia towards productive economic activity (The World Bank, 2020). • The food flavour business in Malaysia was divided into two main segments: food industry with the potential of USD78.5 million in 2018 and foodservice with the potential of USD40.9 million in 2018 (Euromonitor, 2020). • The flavour potential in Malaysia is estimated to grow 35.7% from USD119.4 million in 2018 to USD162.0 million in 2025 (Euromonitor, 2020).

		• The flavour business potential in the food industry in Malaysia is estimated to achieve USD89.7 million in 2025 with growing of 14.3% from 2018 (USD78.5 million), while the flavour business potential in the foodservice in Malaysia is estimated to achieve USD72.3 million in 2025 with growing of 76.8% from 2018 (USD40.9 million) (Euromonitor, 2020). • In the food industry 2018 in Malaysia, beverages was the sub-segment with the biggest flavour business potential (USD22.5 million), following by savoury (USD18.3 million), snacks (USD15.6 million), dairy (USD11.3 million), sweet goods (USD9.5 million), and finally healthcare (USD1.3 million). In the foodservice 2018 in Malaysia, the flavour business potential of independent foodservice (USD25.8 million) was bigger than chained foodservice (USD15.1 million)(Euromonitor, 2020). • The foodservice has very much higher growth rate of flavour business potential than the food industry in Malaysia (Euromonitor, 2020).
Q2: In today competitive flavour business in the food industry of Malaysia, many mature organisations are facing challenges to maintain their continuous sales growth for long-term, what do you think?	Many organisations in the food industry in Malaysia are facing challenges to maintain their continuous sales growth for long-term.	• Organisations at the decline stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory are unable to meet the external demands of a former stage and experience erosion of competitive advantages resulting in decreasing sales and profit (Hanks, 1990; Hanks *et al.,* 1994), and loss of market share and market position (Lester *et al.*, 2003; Miller & Friesen, 1984). • Organisations need to pay attention for long term planning and external communication to drive change proactively in order to manage disturbances of the normal workflow and regain a dynamically stable stage for achieving business growth for organisational resilience in the current global economy with increased competition and ever changing markets especially in the crisis context (Ates & Bititci, 2011; Sanchez & Perea, 2015). • In order to achieve the business growth, organisations shall continue to strengthen themselves and become more resourceful through learning from the past mistakes, making proactive decisions, creating a culture of innovation, collaboration and maintenance of positive adjustment under challenging conditions not only to defend the idea for organisational resilience, but also encompass the key idea to emerge stronger (Sanchez & Perea, 2015). • Organisations need to focus more on innovation in exploring new ideas and designing new products to develop new markets than maintaining cost leadership in old markets through cost-cutting strategies (Su & Tang, 2016), and they shall employ effective survival techniques in the short term as

		well as plan for the success in the long term when facing a crisis (Appelbaum & Wohl, 2000). • Absorptive capacity helps organisations to create and maintain competitive advantages in dynamic business environment through new business development for driving business growth (Teece et al., 1997; Zahra & George, 2002). It is defined as an organisational ability to recognise opportunities, the value of new information or the value of external knowledge, assimilate, translate and apply it for commercial ends (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990; Flatten *et al.*, 2011). • Many mature organisations are weak in new business development strategy implementation and execution, and facing challenges to maintain continuous business growth for their future success (Russo, 2010; Laszlo & Zhexembayeva, 2011; Accenture, 2013). • Competition is harder for new businesses due to their inherent resources constraints and new business development takes more time and effort with high failure rate reaching over 70% in certain countries and environments (Arthur & Hisrich, 2011). • The high failure rate in new business development for business growth is also due to many organisations today manage their new business development strategies in a highly amateur fashion with limited understanding of the world of business, and they do not have relevant accumulated data or experienced analysis resources, historical knowledge, experience, routines and paradigms in new business development (Cai *et al.*, 2014; Ambos & Birkinshaw, 2017; Baum & Bird, 2000).
Q3: Is business growth a big topic for today flavour business in the food industry of Malaysia? Why?	Business growth is a big topic for flavour business in the food industry in Malaysia.	• Business growth is important for the survival and future success of mature organisations. It is important for mature organisations to achieve continuous growth toward success in the current turbulent, hyper-competitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis (Bergmiller & McCright, 2009). • The word crisis has been used interchangeably with other terms such as disaster, business interruption, catastrophe and emergency (Herbane, 2010), and it is defined as a short-term undesired, unfavourable and critical situation in organisations, creating a distressing, uncertain and worrisome situation that directly endanger the existence and further development of organisations (Dubrovski, 2014; Barnett & Pratt, 2000; Crone, 2007; Feam-Banks, 2011; Grunert, 2007; Hermann, 2008; Hommel *et al.*, 2006; James & Wooten, 2010). • Crisis is a progressive process that is not restricted to one area within a common border, but it can ensnare rapidly and emerge with other crises for consequence extension, and it is caused by

		intertwined and simultaneous action of both external and internal sources (Hart *et al.*, 2001). • Business growth offers opportunities for organisations to drive innovation, increase competitiveness and generate bottom line results through lowering costs and increasing revenues (Nidumolu *et al.*, 2009; Lubin & Esty, 2010; Kiron *et al.,* 2012). It also brings a positive impact on product and process design as well as the brand equity, and it is relevant for the future success of organisations (Carcano, 2013). • Business growth helps organisations to achieve a healthy core business with available financial resources, a positive attitude and sufficient motivation to employees for the reorganisation process, a capable and competent management team with the necessary authorization and capability of ensuring a positive cash flow and profit which include development of future prospects for added values (Dubrovski, 2014; Aithal, 2016). • In the current turbulent business environment, the repeated changes in customer demands, technology and business practices make existing products and services obsolete, and organisations need to continuously modify their products and services, or develop new ones in order to stay competitive for business growth (Sorensen & Stuart, 2000; Jansen *et al.* 2006). • In the current hyper-competitive business environment, the business environment in many industries have been changing and becoming very competitive in recent years due to shortening product life cycles and increasing demands from customers asking for more sophisticated products and also more product variety (Stalk & Hout, 1990; Wheelwright & Clark, 1992; Sanchez, 1995). • Hyper-competitive business environment is referred to the worldwide and regional increasing competition, fast and slow-paced competition, foreign and domestic-based competition from competitors in the industry (Carter, 2010; Kiss & Barr, 2014; Bowen & Wiersema, 2005). • In the current complex business environment, organisations are facing problems to identify key factors strategically important for driving business growth (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993). • Internal business environmental complexity will increase the number of criteria to be specified by different functions within the organisations, and the need of connecting people from the different functions are required for them to think together and create contexts where knowledge can be flowed, interpreted, leveraged and integrated for the development of effective coordination mechanisms

		within any new venture development initiative for driving business growth (McDermott, 1999; Berdrow & Lane, 2003). • Business environmental complexity is related with communication problems between upstream and downstream knowledge workers, users, suppliers and producers due to difference in language norms and mental models, and the ability to integrate, align and recombine different knowledge stream and competences (Henderson & Cockburn, 1994). • Today complex business environment causes the market is overloaded with variety of information flows that constant evolve, making products and services become more diverse and adaptable, and customers require individualised solutions and personalised customizations, while the product and service lifecycles are shortening (Kutsikos & Kontos, 2013). • Today, many organisations in worldwide still face challenges and difficulties to achieve success in new business development for business growth, where over 50% of new businesses fail within 5 years (Aldrich, 1999) and about one-third of all new organisations including both for profit and non-profit organisations fail within the first few years of operation in new business development, while another significant percentage fail within four years (Barringer & Gresock, 2008).
Q4: Why many mature organisations are still not serious with their strategy implementation and execution for further business growth even though they know it is critical and important for their future success?	Mature organisations are not serious with their strategy implementation and execution for further business growth.	• Most of the mature organisations today are already in comfort zone to enjoy their past successes, they become less flexible, inactive and not serious in their strategy implementation and execution to drive further business growth (Russo, 2010; Laszlo & Zhexembayeva, 2011; Accenture, 2013; Garza-Reyes, 2015). • New business development needs to be an integral part of an organisational strategy to drive business growth, and it cannot be a random, high-risk endeavour that is conducted through trial and error, it needs a reliable process (Kim & Mauborgne, 2017).
Q5: Do you agree that organisations that fail to maintain business growth eventually will run the risk going out of business? Why?	Organisations that fail to maintain business growth eventually will run the risk of going out of business.	• Organisations shall always get prepared and ready to confront with any unpredicted business crises for survival and continuous business growth (Sanchez & Perea, 2015; Su & Tang, 2016; Carter, 2010; Appelbaum & Wohl, 2000; Kang & Montoya, 2013; Mccampbell, 1997; Liu *et al.*, 2005; Baker & Sinkula, 1999; Mallic & Schroeder, 2005). • For organisations to achieve business growth, they shall continually in search of the next innovative step toward success in order to survive and remain competitive when facing a crisis, and they must develop new products as existing products will enter

		decline stage (Mccampbell, 1997). The existing product replacement with new products must be envisioned, conceptualized, designed, developed, marketed and finally sold in sufficient quantity for mature organisations to ensure continued growth, to earn significant profits to placate their shareholders, to remain competitive and retain market share in the industry (Mccampbell, 1997). • Mature organisations shall constantly innovate and conduct research for new technology and new product development to cope with customer demands and the threats from both existing and new competitors as product life cycles had become shorter than before due to advances in science and technology, and rapid market changes (Liu *et al.*, 2005). • Organisations need to maintain their competitiveness and viability for business growth through continuously initiating and implementing fundamental large-scale changes in the way they operated and ran their business to adapt the current turbulent, hypercompetitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis, otherwise they will run the risk going out of business (Buller & Mcevoy, 2016; Bharijoo, 2005; By, 2005; Sachkmann *et al.*, 2009; Biedenbach & Soderholm, 2008).
Q6: New business development will drive business growth, do you agree? Why?	New business development will drive business growth.	• The superior performance in new business development generates robust returns on investment and growth in sales, volume, profit market share, and employment which in turn drives business growth for organisations (Jennings & Beaver, 1997; Lumpkin & Dess, 2001). • The success in new business development contributes organisations for growing business, gaining market share, attracting and retaining customers, competing for success, conducting operations and achieving objectives for business growth (McCann & McCarren, 2012). • New business development provides specific solutions to identified needs or problems together with a significant value to an identified market segment which in turn supports and justifies for business growth in organisations (Cornelissen & Clarke, 2000). • New business growing is the dominant source of job creation, market innovation, economic growth and establishing significant competitive advantages for organisations to drive business growth (Kutsikos & Kontos, 2013; Lindic *et al.*, 2012). • New business growing facilitates the ability of organisations to survive, grow and generate profits in the face of competition for business growth (Shane, 2003).

Q7: Referring to the four different types of business development strategy: market penetration, market development, product development and diversification, please number the top three business development strategies in order of importance to you in the choice driving business growth. Number the most important as 1, the next 2 and the last one 3. If the business development strategy is out of the top three, please leave blank.	The four business development strategies in Ansoff Matrix Theory.	• Referring to Figure 2.2.2: New business development strategies in Ansoff Matrix Theory that help organisations to drive business growth, product development is supported with the highest number of research journal articles (48.3%), following by diversification (26.7%), market development (18.3%) and market penetration (6.7%). • The four growth strategies in Ansoff Matrix Theory can be considered as the four new business development strategies that can be implemented and executed by organisations to drive business growth (Dawes, 2018; Kotler *et al.*, 2007; Yenidogan & Aksoy, 2017; Boyd *et al.*, 1995; Yin, 2016).
Q8: Kindly describe how the selected top three business development strategies will help organisations to drive business growth.	What and how the top three business development strategies in Ansoff Matrix Theory to help organisations to drive business growth?	• Today, many business theories and studies show different success factors that can be analysed by organisations before they determine and shape their strategic position in the market for driving business growth. • Those business theories and studies explain mainly the "what" and "why", what are the success factors to drive business growth and why those success factors are needed and important for driving business growth, but they do not go into deeper to explain the "how", how those success factors can be implemented and executed by organisations to drive business growth. • There are very limited business theories and studies show strategic plans that can be implemented and executed by organisations to drive business growth. Ansoff Matrix Theory is a business theory which is different from others, as it will explain four different growth strategies that can be implemented and executed by organisations as four different new business development strategies to drive business growth (Dawes, 2018; Kotler *et al.*, 2007; Yenidogan & Aksoy, 2017; Boyd *et al.*, 1995; Yin, 2016). • However, Ansoff Matrix Theory is similar with other business theories, as it explains mainly the "what" and "why", what are the new business development strategies that can be analysed and planned by

		organisations to drive business growth and why those strategies are needed and important, but it does not go into deeper to explain the "how", how the four different new business development strategies can be implemented and executed by organisations to drive business growth.
Q9: Referring to the 10 different drivers (business model, business strategy, crisis, customer, human capital development, innovation, leadership, market knowledge, organisational culture and technology) for business development, please number the top three drivers in order of importance to you in the choice driving business development for business growth. Number the most important as 1, the next 2 and the last one 3. If a driver is out of the top three, please leave blank.	Drivers for the business development strategies.	• Referring Figure 2.6.1: Drivers for new business development, 20 different drivers had been discovered to lead for the success in new business development for business growth, and the top ten drivers with support of the highest number of research journal articles are leadership (21.4%), innovation (19.7%), organisational culture (10.7%), human capital development (9.0%), technology (4.6%), business model (4.3%), business strategy (3.5%), crisis (2.9%), market knowledge (2.9%) and customer (2.9%).
Q10: Kindly describe how the selected top three drivers will help organisations to drive for successful business development for business growth?	What and how the top two drivers to lead organisations for the success in new business development for business growth?	• Today, many business studies show different drivers that can help to foster different new business development strategies for business growth. • However, there are very limited business studies go into deeper to explain which are main drivers for new business development and how they can drive successful new business development for business growth, so that organisations will be able to learn from those business studies for their implementation and execution of main drivers to lead for successful new business development for their business growth.
Demography	Gender, age, years of experience in food industry, department and job level of participants.	• Saunders *et al.* (2009)

Table 3.10.2: Online survey questionnaire design.

Questionnaire Construct	Related to	Sources
Participant Consent	Voluntary participation	• Saunders *et al.* (2009)
SECTION (1)		
Q1: Business growth is critical and important for the future success of organisations, do you agree?	Business Growth is linked to the survival and future success of organisations.	• Business growth leads for organisational resilience in the current global economy with increased competition and ever changing markets especially in the crisis context (Ates & Bititci, 2011; Sanchez & Perea, 2015). • Business growth offers opportunities for organisations to drive innovation, increase competitiveness and generate bottom line results through lowering costs and increase revenues (Nidumolu *et al.*, 2009; Lubin & Esty, 2010; Kiron *et al.*, 2012). It also brings a positive impact on product and process design as well as the brand equity, and it is relevant for the future success of organisations (Carcano, 2013). • In order to achieve the business growth, organisations shall continue to strengthen themselves and become more resourceful through learning from the past mistakes, making proactive decisions, creating a culture of innovation, collaboration and maintenance of positive adjustment under challenging conditions not only to defend the idea for organisational resilience, but also encompass the key idea to emerge stronger (Sanchez & Perea, 2015).
Q2: New business development will drive business growth, do you agree? Why?	Business development drive organisations for business growth.	• New business development is linked to entrepreneurship and it is defined a process to create something new with value by devoting the necessary time and effort, assuming the accompanying financial, psychic and social risks, and resulting rewards of monetary, satisfaction and independence for organisations (Hisrich *et al.*, 2001). • The success in new business development contributes organisations for growing business, gaining market share, attracting and retaining customers, competing for success, conducting operations and achieving objectives for business growth (McCann & McCarren, 2012). • New business development targets to provide specific solutions to identified needs or problems together with a significant value to an identified market segment which in turn support and justify for business growth in organisations (Cornelissen & Clarke, 2000). • New business growing is the dominant source of job creation, market innovation, economic growth and establishing significant competitive advantages for organisations to achieve business growth (Kutsikos & Kontos, 2013; Lindic *et al.*, 2012). • New business growing facilitates the ability of organisations to survive, grow and generate profits in the face of competition for business growth (Shane, 2003).

		• Organisations that achieve successful new business development generate robust returns on investment, growth in sales, volume, profit, market share and employment for continuous business growth (Zahra & George, 2002; Jennings & Beaver, 1997; Lumpkin & Dess, 2001). • New business development helps mature organisations to develop new values and new demands in a new uncontested market space to make their competition becomes irrelevant and opportunities to grow become unlimited, to pioneer a new value-cost frontier with a supporting business model for the achievement of both differentiation and low cost simultaneously to increase value propositions and innovations for the creation of win-win situation for both buyers and sellers for continuous business growth (Kim & Mauborgne, 2017; Bagheri *et al.*, 2013; Mina & Mohseni, 2015; Appalbaum & Wohl, 2000; Alhaddi, 2014; Chakrabarti, 2014; Raman, 2014).
SECTION (2)		
Q1: A mature business will struggle for further growth and will face high risk of sales erosion	Dependent Variable: Business Growth Performance	• Business growth is important for the survival and future success of mature organisations. It is important for mature organisations to achieve continuous business growth toward success in the current turbulent, hyper-competitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis (Bergmiller & McCright, 2009). • Mature organisations at the decline stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory will experience erosion of competitive advantages that result in decreasing sales and profits (Hanks, 1990; Miller & Friesen, 1984), and loss of market share and market position (Lester *et al.*, 2003; Miller & Friesen, 1984). This deterioration in performance eventually drives mature organisations into financial and business failures (Shumway, 2001; Chava & Jarrow, 2004; Campbell *et al.*, 2011). • Mortality rates go up when organisations achieve maturity stage in their organisational life cycle as the organisational endowments depreciate and are not replenished (Brüderl & Schüssler, 1990), and because accumulated rules, routines and structures limit their abilities to react to changing environmental conditions (Barron *et al.*, 1994; Hannan, 1998; Thornhill & Amit, 2003).
Q2: Business growth performance is linked to the survival and future success of mature organisations		• Mature organisations are unable to meet the external demands of a former stage and experience erosion of competitive advantages resulting in decreasing sales and profit (Hanks, 1990; Hanks *et al.,* 1994), and loss of market share and market position (Lester *et al.*, 2003; Miller & Friesen, 1984). • Organisations shall always get prepared and ready to confront with any unpredicted business crises for survival and continuous business growth (Sanchez & Perea, 2015; Su & Tang, 2016; Carter, 2010; Appelbaum & Wohl, 2000; Kang & Montoya, 2013; Mccampbell, 1997; Liu *et al.*, 2005; Baker & Sinkula, 1999; Mallic & Schroeder, 2005).

Q3: New product launching will trigger sales growth.	Independent Variable 1: Product Development	• Product development is a new business development strategy involving in the development of either new products or improved for organisations to expand their product portfolio for greater sales and profits for driving business growth (Kang & Montoya, 2013). • The success of organisations is related directly to their ability to develop and launch new products that meet market requirements and generate satisfactory financial returns (Cassiman & Veugelers, 2002; Morgan & Berthon, 2008).
Q4: Every product has its own product life cycle in market and possible be replaced by new products.		• New product development is important for organisations as their existing products will enter decline stage and shall be replaced with new products to ensure continued growth, to remain competitive and retain market share in the industry (Mccampbell, 1997).
Q5: The bigger the market size, the higher the sales growth.	Independent Variable 2: Market Development	• High-growth industries are attractive for new entrants because they are associated with high product demand (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1990; McDougall *et al.,* 1994; Schoonhoven *et al.,* 1990). • The higher the population, the bigger the market size and vice versa (The World Bank, 2019).
Q6: It is easier to find business opportunities in a bigger market.		
Q7: Blue ocean strategy (market-creating moves) is more impactful than red ocean strategy (market-competing move) for the long-term business growth.	Independent Variable 3: Diversification	• Blue ocean strategists will aim to make the competition irrelevant through focusing on creating and capturing new demands instead of seeking to beat the competition through fighting over existing customers (Kim & Mauborgne, 2004).
Q8: Business diversification to create new demands and capture new customers will drive sales growth.		• Successful diversification helps organisations to move from a Red Ocean crowded with competition to Blue Ocean of uncontested market space and explosive growth (Kim & Mauborgne, 2004)
Q9: Most mature organisations have been managed using the same leadership styles without changing for many years.	Moderating Variable 1: Leadership	• Transactional leadership maintains status quo, where the leaders tend to be inflexible and opposed to change as they their followers will perform best with structured policies, procedures and rules, and when the chain of command is definite and clear (Farkas & Vera, 2014). • Transactional leaders utilize rewards in order to foster desired work behaviour and indicate which steps need to be taken by their followers (Farkas & Vera, 2014). • The role of managers and leaders has been compared, managers prefer to maintain the status quo, but leaders will find excitement

		in change; managers look for fast answers, but leaders fire off fast questions; managers are eager to learn so they will get ahead, but leaders establish learning environments so others cam get ahead; managers have a clear idea of the way things are done, but leaders know what is really done and moved into the unknown to see what is yet to be done; managers are trained to keep organisations going in a straight line, but leaders deal with the vision, missions and the goals of organisations; leadership roles are delegated from the workgroup, but management roles are delegated down from the top of organisations (Appelbaum & Wohl, 2000).
Q10: Limitation in job enlargement and empowerment for employees will cause the loss of motivation and confidence in employees.		• Individualised consideration drives transformational leaders personally listen to individual problems and provide support for the individual requirements of their followers, to coach, advise and support their followers, to find learning opportunities that are suitable for their followers' needs, to promote continuous growth, and believe in the empowerment of their followers (Farkas & Vera, 2014; Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Sahu, 2014). • Engaged employees will feel involved, loyal, enthusiastic and empowered; have great energy and passion in work; bring new ideas to work; take initiative and seek to improve themselves, others and the business; consistently exceeded goals and expectations; be curious and interested; be creative and responsible; ask questions; encourage and support team; be optimistic, positive and persistent; overcome obstacles and stay focused on tasks; commit to high-quality performance standards to their organisations (Mehrzi & Singh, 2016; Rao, 2017).
Q11: Organisations with higher investment in innovation will get higher chance in seeking for potential new business opportunities.	Moderating Variable 2: Innovation	• Innovation is an important determinant of organisational performance and market capitalisation, and innovation leads organisations to sustainable competitive advantages for driving successful new business development for business growth (Damanpour, 1991; Zhong & Nieminen, 2015; Hess & Rothaermel, 2011; Ahuja *et al.*, 2008; Swift, 2018; Sood & Tellis, 2019; Hartono, 2015). • Innovation affects financial performance of an organisation because it enables additional revenues or higher margins from new products, specific services or superior business models (Knudsen & Mortensen, 2011; Sherman *et al.*, 2005; Wang *et al.,* 2018). • Innovation helps organisations to rejuvenate to attain competitive advantage, achieve superior customer value and create new market space to out-compete instead of out-perform their competitors for driving business growth (Baden-Fuller & Stopford, 1994; Baden-Fuller & Pitt, 1996; Matthyessens *et al.*, 2006; Kim & Mauborgne, 1997; Pitt & Clarke, 1999; O'Connor *et al.,* 2004).
Q12: Research and development play important roles in business development.		• Organisations shall take R&D investment strategy as central to the survival and renewal to allow carrying out specific innovation project when facing a crisis, and a strong R&D investment strategy will allow the organisations to achieve better performance and business growth, to create competitive advantages and enhance economic value of a business (Aboody & Lev, 2000; Hagedoorn & Cloodt, 2003; Hu, 2001; Jang & Huang, 2005; Nikzad *et al.*, 2007; Sher & Yang, 2005).

		• R&D investment strategy will encourage an organisation's operations for long-term growth opportunities through conducting R&D activities for commercially technological innovation, process improvements and productive capacities under special government science and technology plans (David *et al.*, 2000). • The R&D team is often responsible for initiating and developing breakthrough innovation projects, striving for the next patentable formula, device and technology to drive new venture developments for business growth (Kalbach, 2012).
Section (3)		
Demographic	Gender, age, years of experience in food industry, department and job level of participants	• Saunders *et al.* (2009)

3.11 TEST MARKETING

For the test marketing, the first version (Version 1.0) of email interview and online survey questionnaires in Appendix I were distributed to 20% of the participants (4 persons for the email interview and 20 persons for the online survey for answering. More than half of the participants were not clear with the meaning of mature organisations, some of the participants requested more information and explanation to understand the meaning of mature organisations.

For further improvements, the modified version (Version 2.0) of email interview and online survey questionnaires in the Appendix were designed to include the definition of Miller & Friesen’s Organisational Life Cycle Theory to explain further the meaning of mature organisations to the participants. After the viva session, external examiners commented most questions suggested in the online survey questionnaire were leading questions and double-barrel. For further improvements, the 36 Likert 1-4 rating scale questions in the online survey questionnaire Version 2.0 were restudied, and the modified version (Version 3.0) of online survey questionnaire with 2 open-ended questions and 12 Likert 1-4 rating scale questions in Appendix III was generated.

3.12 DATA COLLECTION

For the literature review, it was a secondary research, involving the search and study of different journal articles and books to gather both secondary exploratory qualitative and quantitative data that are related with the research problems, objectives and questions. For the email interview with 20 experts from the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore, it was a primary research to gather primary exploratory qualitative data, and those data are referred and used to generate the related 14 questions: 2 open-ended questions and 12 Likert 1-4 rating scale (strongly disagree, disagree, agree and strongly agree) questions for the online survey questionnaire to gather primary explanatory data, using as evidences to test, then to confirm or disconfirm the hypothesized theoretical framework before the research theoretical model was generated.

3.13 DATA ANALYSIS

NVivo 12, the qualitative data analysis computer software produced by QSR International was used to analyse the collected primary exploratory data from the email interview questionnaire. NVivo 12 has been designed for qualitative researchers working with very rich text-based and multimedia information, where deep levels of analysis on small or large volumes of data are required. NVivo 12 helps qualitative researchers to organise and analyse non-numerical or unstructured data, and allows them to classify, sort and arrange information, to examine relationships in the data and combine analysis with linking, shaping, searching and modelling.

IBM SPSS Statistics, a powerful statistical software platform for quantitative data analysis produced by SPSS Corporation (acquired by IBM in 2009) was used to analyse the collected primary explanatory data from the online survey questionnaire. With the IBM SPSS Statistics, users are able to analyse and better understand their quantitative data, and solve complex business and research problems through a user friendly interface. Users are able to understand large and complex data sets quickly with advanced statistical procedures that help ensure high accuracy and quality decision making. They can also select and manage the software easily with flexible deployment options.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This research study covered three parts. Part I was the literature review in Chapter 2 for secondary exploratory data collection. Part II was the email interview with 20 selected experts for primary data collection. Part III was the online survey with 100 selected participants for primary explanatory data collection.

This research study started with a critical instance case study to observe specific interactions from the real case of GFM, and research issues were conceptualized from the observations. Then, the literature review in Part I studied broad related literature and general theories that linked with the research issues for secondary exploratory data collection before the research gaps, the two problem statements (PS1 and PS2), the five research objectives (RO1 to RO5), the five research questions (RQ1 to RQ5), the five research hypotheses (H1 to H5) and hypothesized theoretical framework (Figure 2.9.1) were generated. This literature review included a study of 60 research journal articles in Figure 2.2.2 to show product development (48.3%), diversification (26.7%) and market development (18.3%) were the top three business development strategies in Ansoff Matrix Theory to drive organisations for business growth, and a study of 345 research journal articles in Figure 2.6.1 to show the top two drivers for business development were leadership (21.4%) and innovation (19.7%).

The collected secondary exploratory data from literature review were referred to generate the related 10 open-ended questions in the email interview questionnaire to gather primary exploratory data from 20 selected experts for qualitative analysis with NVivo 12. Exploratory sequential mixed-method approach was applied in this research, therefore the collected primary exploratory data from the email interview were referred further to generate the related 14 questions (2 open-ended questions and 12 Likert 1-4 rating scale questions) in the online survey questionnaire. The online survey was conducted to gather primary explanatory data from the selected 100 participants for quantitative analysis with IBM SPSS Statistics.

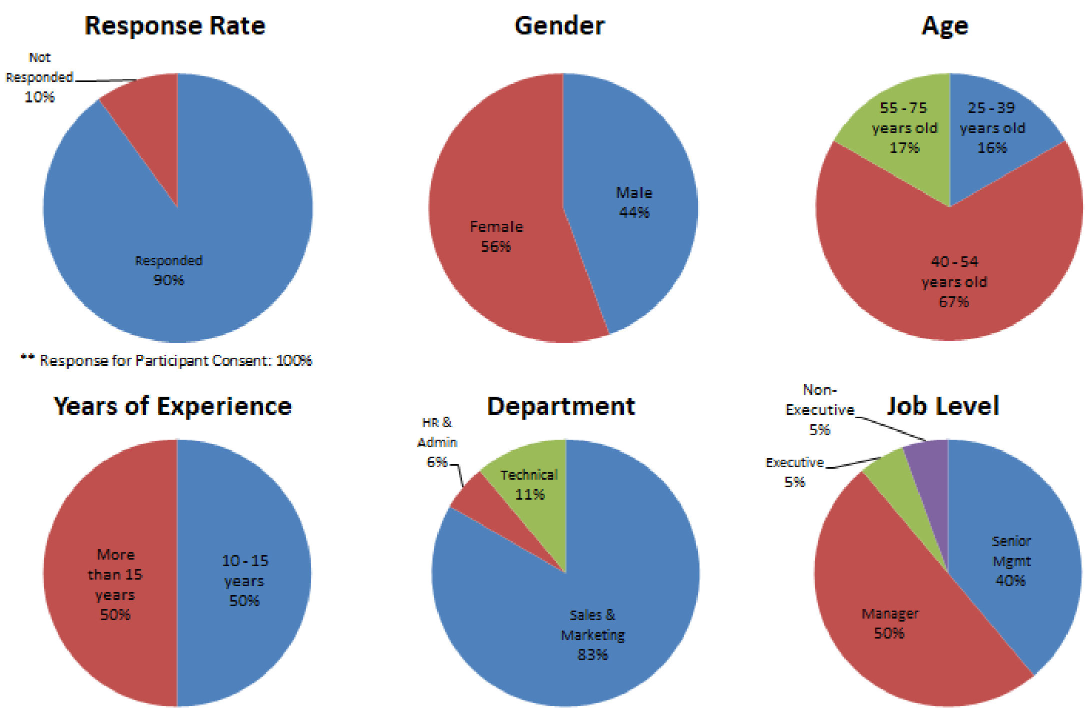
4.1 EMAIL INTERVIEW

DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS

Referring to Figure 4.1.1, the response rate was 90%, showing total 18 participants responded and completed the email interview. All 18 participants responded to the participant consent (100%), indicating that they had read and understand the information for this study. They had considered the information, asked related questions and had been answered satisfactorily before they agreed to take part in the email interview. They understood that their participation was voluntary and they were free to withdraw any time without giving any reasons. There were 8 male (44%) and 10 female (56%) respondents. The result shows 67% of the participants are Generation X with ages between 40-54 years old, 17% of the participants are Baby Boomers with ages between 55-75 years old, and 16% of the participants are Generation Y with ages between 25-39 years old.

All 18 participants have at least 10 years of experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore. 50% of the participants have more than 15 years of experience, while the other 50% of the participants have experience of 10-15 years. The result shows 15 participants (83%) are in-charge of the sales and marketing roles, 2 participants (11%) are in-charge of the technical roles and the last participant (6%) is in-charge of human resources and administrative roles. 7 of them (40%) are coming from senior management, 9 of them (50%) are managers and the other 2 participants are at the job levels of executive (5%) and non-executive (5%) respectively.

Figure 4.1.1: Demographic statistics summary of 18 respondents in the email interview.



DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

Referring to Question 1 in Table 4.1.1, 61% comments (22 References) from respondents are positive to show Malaysia is a potential market for flavour business. According to those 61% positive comments, flavours are very important ingredients for food manufacturers and they are directly linked to the food business in Malaysia. Food and beverage (F&B) industry in Malaysia is a fast growing industry as many food manufacturers in Malaysia deal with export markets aggressively. Apart from those multinational food manufactures, Malaysia has a lot of booming small and medium-sized food manufacturers who are opened to use flavours and this will help the growth of flavour business in the food industry in Malaysia. Flavour business remains important to drive the success of food industry in Malaysia. Today, consumers have higher expectation with not just on the taste but the overall eating experiences as well, and flavours play important roles to deliver those sensorial and experiences to the consumers.

Since early 90s where small and medium-sized food manufacturers picked up the export business opportunities, there had been a good growth for the food industry in Malaysia over the last 10-15 years. Moreover, the government of Malaysia had been mooting to position Malaysia as the Global Halal Food Hub for the last 10 years, and this provides immense opportunities for food manufacturers in Malaysia. Government of Malaysia has also adopted a liberal policy to allow duty-free importation of raw materials to enable the food industry in Malaysia to meet specific market demand. Malaysia is a market that poses great food manufacturing potential with the establishment as a food manufacturing hub in ASEAN long before the emerging markets such as Indonesia, Philippines and Vietnam. Malaysian products have advantages in exporting due to their Halal status, competitiveness and relatively good product quality, and the year-over-year growth in the flavour business in Malaysia has always been around 3-5%. The food processing sector accounts about 10% of Malaysia’s manufacturing output for both domestic and export markets.

Malaysia has become more recognisable in all economic scenes and this will trigger their flavour industry to continue to grow for more business opportunities. Flavour market in Malaysia has potential for further expansion especially now the world recognises the uniqueness of local flavours and their demand has been steadily increasing. Malaysia is one of the leading countries in contract manufacturing for food products. With the market driven by changing consumer lifestyles and Malaysia being in the forefront to new product development, flavour business in Malaysia will continue to grow. Globalisation is also changing consumption habits and thereby increasing demand of flavours for food products. Malaysia has a young and growing population, rising middle class and higher incomes to create business opportunities for convenience foods. Small and medium-sized food manufacturers in Malaysia are taking their business to the next level with better innovation and technology to compete with global players.

The 39% of negative comments from respondents for Question 1 mention the challenges to run flavour business in Malaysia. According to those negative comments, Malaysia is a very competitive and saturated market for flavour business as Malaysia is relatively small in size compared to other ASEAN countries due to smaller population and growth. Food industry in Malaysia is diverse and dominated by small and medium-sized food manufacturers. In terms of innovation and product diversity, food manufacturers in Malaysia are still behind countries such as Thailand and Singapore due to high investments are required for new product launching and diversification. Flavour business in Malaysia is considered mature, small and fragmented with more global and local flavour manufacturers entering this small market to compete for flavour business. The profit margin for flavours has dropped significantly in recent years due to the current fierce competition in the food industry in Malaysia.

Question 2 shows the 8 factors: innovation, planning, country economy, government, resources, marketing, competition and market trend that cause organisations in Malaysia face challenges to maintain their business growth. Competition is the factor with the highest percentage (33%) of comments from respondents for the support, following by planning (17%), resources (13%), innovation (11%), government (9%), marketing (7%), market trend (4%) and country economy (4%). When it comes to the factor of competition, the collected data show flavour business in Malaysia is getting more competitive in the last 10 years due to too many food manufacturers both existing and new players are fighting for an organic growing market share. This fierce competition in the red ocean market environment results in price war and it will hinder the initial plans or goals that have been set by organisations to attain long term business growth. For the factor of planning, the collected data show many organisations in Malaysia especially those small and medium-sized organisations find hard to survive and sustain their business due to limited capabilities in planning for what is next in long run. Those organisations remain in the old and traditional ways of doing their business without changes. For the factor of resources, the collected data show big organisations tend to have more resources to diversify their business for further sales growth, but small organisations will have limited resources for their business diversification. Organisations need to continue to attract and retain talent to ensure the longevity of their business. Raw material costs for flavours are increasing and this eventually causes price increases for flavours even though consumer food products are generally cost conscious.

For the factor of innovation, the collected data show most of small and medium-sized organisations in Malaysia lack of culture to innovation and adapt to consumers' needs, and they do have the capabilities to sustain their business through innovation. Those organisations need to always innovate with new products or technologies to provided upgraded solutions to existing products and technologies for continuous business growth. They need to be creative in providing solutions to existing customers, which then can create new market or new business to them. They need to think of out the box and not holding on the old legacy and old way of doing business. For the factor of government, the collected data show the government of Malaysia lacks the academic infrastructure to nurture and train talents for the food industry. It is important that the government will fully support so that an ecosystem is built to ensure continuous flow of fresh blood into the food industry.

For the factor of marketing, the collected data show many organisations in Malaysia carry ineffective market strategies and they are unable to foresee the change in consumers' trend. In order to deal, survive and excel in the saturated market of Malaysia, organisations need to be creative and having effective unique marketing strategies as well as effective pricing strategies. For the factor of market trend, the collected data show organisations in Malaysia need to invest significant time, money and related resources on assessing the current market trend as well as the possible change of this market trend in coming 3 to 5 years. If they fail to do so, they will not able to maintain their business growth. For the factor of country economy, the collected data show the impact of local economy situation in Malaysia will affect the business growth of organisations in the country. As Malaysia gets richer in the longer term, consumers in the country are likely to opt for more differentiated, premium and global brands, and this can expect a consolidation.

All comments (16 references) from respondents for Question 3 shows business growth is a big topic for organisations in the food industry of Malaysia as they require a combination of hard work, the right business strategy, foresight and acumen to offer differentiated values to their customers, in order to continuously maintain a sustainable growth above the market growth rate in Malaysia that has been established and saturated with many competitors.

Question 4 indicates 28% (11 References) of comments from respondents agree that knowledge and capabilities are one of the main factors to cause organisations in Malaysia having challenges to implement and execute their strategies for business growth, following by organisational mindset and direction (23%, 9 References), resources (13%, 5 References), exposure and interaction (10%, 4 References), market environment (7%, 3 References), people (7%, 3 References) and flexibility (2%, 1 References).

For the factor of knowledge and capabilities, the collected data show most organisations have good strategies, but poor implementation and execution that take up too much of resources and too much time to complete. Sometimes, the strategy plan and direction from the top management are ineffective or not relevant due to lacking of flavour business knowledge and market understanding. Organisations need to have a concrete plan which is aligned with multiple stakeholders. International organisations shall have fewer problems to develop good strategies for business growth, but for local small and medium-sized organisations, they have been run by one owner or one family. They will face the challenges to develop good strategies for business growth due to their limited capabilities.

For the factor of organisational mindset and direction, the collected data show some organisations especially those small and medium-sized organisations are family owned businesses where short-term money making is more important than long-term investment. Those owners are losing focus as they want to do everything with no clear directions. They have been successful from their own entrepreneurial spirit in the past and they are comfortable to keep doing their business in the same way for 20 to 40 years with no changes. The collected data show lacking of foresight from business owners or management team and resistance to change are potential obstacles for organisations to implement and execute strategies for business growth.

For the factor of resources, the collected data show organisations in Malaysia must be equipped with the right supporting system and operational infrastructure to be efficient in the strategy implementation and execution for business growth. Many organisations in Malaysia are lacking of resources such as cash flow, technology and market information to drive the strategy implementation and execution for business growth. For the factor of exposure and interaction, the collected data show the exposure and interaction of local small and medium-sized organisations in Malaysia to the market, suppliers, competitors, customers and consumers are very limited.

For the factor of market environment, the collected data show Malaysia is a very dynamic market with the Gen Z and Millennial consumer behaviours. Unlike larger markets such as Indonesia, Philippines, Vietnam and Thailand in ASEAN, Malaysia is not a sufficiently large market for large players to invest significant resources for aggressive business development plans. Malaysia is a cost conscious market and there are a lot of small players getting active in the flavour business to provide low cost solutions and make this business become extremely competitive. For the factor of people, the collected data show commitment, leadership and team work are the keys for organisations to achieve successful strategy implementation and execution for business growth. Implementation and execution of business plans is a long process and a good strategy must be accompanied by the right people to execute the strategy. For the factor of flexibility, the collected data show many organisations in Malaysia especially those local small and medium-sized organisations cannot adapt the changing business environment.

Question 5 shows 94% of comments (17 References) from respondents agree that the failure to maintain business growth will cause business failures for organisations. Questions 6 shows 80% of comments (16 References) from respondents agree that new business development will help organisations to drive business growth.

Question 7 allows participants to select their top three business development strategies in Ansoff Matrix Theory that can drive business growth for organisations. Both product development and diversification have the highest percentage (29%, 23 References) of comments from respondents as the top two business development strategies that can drive organisations for business growth, following by market development (24%, 19 References) and market penetration (11%, 9 References). The collected data shows the top three business development strategies in Ansoff Matrix Theory that drive organisations for business growth are product development (29%), diversification (29%) and market development (24%).

The collected data from Question 8 explain how product development, diversification and market development drive business growth. For product development, the data show more products will be able to fulfil and support wider range of market needs, and lead for more customers, revenues and profits. Product development helps organisations to create new markets and customers. It also constantly innovates and improves products to make organisations to continue to stay competitive in the market for continuous business growth. For diversification, the data show it is a best way to help organisations to accelerate the return of capital investment and to predict what can be the next market trend. Diversification will not drive organisations to move in the horizontal line, but pushes for needs to improve on all levels in the organisations to create a new way of working, new thinking, new product, new process and new market for business growth. Diversification requires more investments, risks, efforts and time to apply compared with product development and market development. However, it is a Blue Ocean Strategy that helps organisations to create uncontested market space; to make competition irrelevant; to create and capture new demand; to break the value-cost trade-off; to pursue differentiation and low cost. For the market development, the data show it helps organisations to develop new markets with their existing products for further business growth. It is important for organisations to find new markets that have yet to be untapped for the existing products as their existing markets will continue to become more competitive and saturated.

Question 9 allows participants to select their top three drivers for business development. Leadership has the highest percentage (24%, 21 References) of comments from respondent as the top number one driver that helps organisations to achieve successful business development for business growth, following by innovation (20%, 18 References), market knowledge (17%, 15 References), business strategy (15%, 13 References), business model (9%, 8 References), human capital development (6%, 5 References), customer (5%, 4 References), technology (3%, 3 References), organisational culture (1%, 1 Reference) and crisis (0%, 0 References). The collected data show leadership (24%) and innovation (20%) are the top two drivers leading organisations for successful business development for driving business growth.

The collected data from Question 10 explain how both leadership and innovation lead for the successful business development to drive organisations for business growth. For leadership, the data show right leaders will help organisations to plan, manage and drive successful business development for business growth. A strong and competitive leadership will shape the organisational culture and motivate employees to commit for critical thinking on innovation and developing sustainable business solutions for their organisations. This right leadership will continue to be disciplined with can-do attitude and clear goal to success. With the knowledge of "know how" and the right leadership then only a business strategy can be set-up, implemented and executed successfully. For innovation, the data show without innovation, the products made available may not generate strong customers' needs and demands, and the products will not be sustainable. Without innovation, the products will not be remembered by ever demanding consumers, and not being top of consumers' mind. These products will not stand out and thrive in a very competitive landscape. Innovation drives successes and organisations without innovation will not be competitive in their new markets, new products and new customers.

Table 4.1.1: The collected primary exploratory data from NVivo 12 for 18 respondents in the email interview.

Name	File No.	Ref. No.	Ref. %
Q1: Flavour business in the food industry in Malaysia	0	0	0
Positive answers from the respondents	13	22	61
Negative answers from the respondents	11	14	39
Q2: Challenges to maintain business growth	1	1	2
Innovation	4	5	11
Planning	7	8	17
Country economy	2	2	4
Government	3	4	9
Resources	5	6	13
Marketing	3	3	7
Competition	11	15	33
Market Trend	2	2	4
Q3: Attention on business growth	15	16	100
Q4: Challenges to implement and execute strategies for business growth	4	4	10
Organisational Mindset & Direction	7	9	23
Exposure & Interaction	3	4	10
Knowledge & Capabilities	9	11	28
Flexibility	1	1	2
Market Environment	3	3	7
People	3	3	7
Resource	5	5	13
Q5: Failures to maintain business growth cause business failures	0	0	0
Agree	17	17	94
Disagree	1	1	6
Q6: New business development drive business growth	0	0	0
Agree	14	16	80
Disagree	4	4	20
Q7 & Q8: Top three business development strategies in Ansoff Matrix Theory	6	6	7
Market penetration	7	9	11
Market development	14	19	24
Product development	15	23	29
Diversification	15	23	29
Q9 & Q10: Top three drivers for business development	0	0	0
Business model	5	8	9
Business strategy	8	13	15
Crisis	0	0	0
Customer	3	4	5
Human capital development	3	5	6
Innovation	10	18	20
Leadership	11	21	24
Market knowledge	8	15	17
Organisational culture	1	1	1
Technology	2	3	3

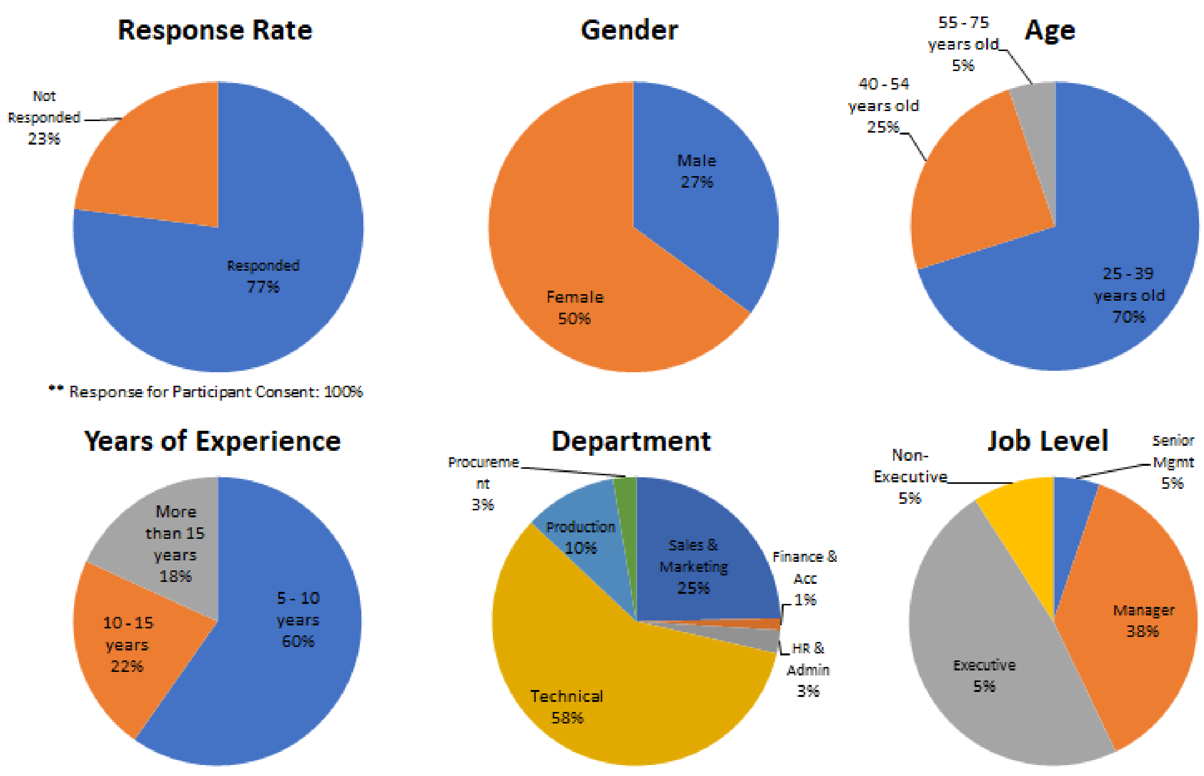
4.2 ONLINE SURVEY

DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS

Referring to Figure 4.2.1, total 77 participants responded and completed the online survey in Part III with the response rate of 77%. All 77 participants responded to the participant consent (100%), showing that they had read and understand the information for this study. They had considered the information, asked related questions and had been answered satisfactorily before they agreed to take part in this study. They understood that their participation was voluntary and they were free to withdraw any time without giving any reasons. There are 27 male (35%) and 50 female (65%) respondents. The result shows 70% of the participants are Generation Y with ages between 25-39 years old, 25% of the participants are Generation X with ages between 40-54 years old, and 5% of the participants are Baby Boomers with ages between 55-75 years old.

In this online survey, 100 employees with minimum five years of working experience in the food industry in Malaysia as well as the food industry in Singapore were selected and invited for the participation. Figure 4.2.1 shows 60% of the participants have 5-10 years of experience, 22% of them have 10-15 years of experience and the remaining 18% of them have more than 15 years of experience. The result shows 45 participants (58%) are in-charge of technical roles, 19 participants (25%) are in-charge of the sales and marketing roles, 8 participants (10%) are in-charge of production roles, 2 participants (3%) are in-charge of the human resources and administrative roles, 2 participants (3%) are in-charge of the procurement roles, and 1 participant (1%) is in-charge of the finance and accounting roles. 37 of them (48%) are executives, 29 of them (38%) are managers, 7 of them (9%) are non-executives and 4 of them (5%) are from senior management.

Figure 4.2.1: Demographic statistics summary of 77 respondents in the online survey.



DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

Referring to Table 4.2.1, Question 1 shows 99% of the participants agreed business growth is critical and important for the future success of an organisation and Question 2 shows 79% of the participants agreed new business development will help organisations to drive business growth. The mode for both Questions 1 and 2 shows "1". The mean for Question 1 is "1.013" and the mean for Question 2 is "1.208". Nominal scale (1 = Yes and 2= No) is used for the data analysis of Questions 1 and 2, the mode of "1" and mean rounds to "1" mean that on average, the participants "agree" with the statements that business growth is critical and important for the future success of an organisations, and new business development will help organisations to drive business growth. The standard deviation for Question 1 is lower than Question 2, meaning there is much variability in Question 2 than Question 1.

Table 4.2.1: Descriptive statistics summary of Section (1):
Question 1 and Question 2 for the online survey.

Part III: Online Survey Questionnaire		SECTION (1)			
		Q1		Q2	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes (1)	76	98.7	61	79.2
	No (2)	1	1.3	16	20.8
Total		77	100.0	77	100.0
Mean		1.013		1.208	
Std. Error of Mean		0.012		0.466	
Mode		1		1	
Std. Deviation		0.114		0.408	
Minimum		1		1	
Maximum		2		2	

Referring to Table 4.2.2, answers of Questions 1 and 2 were collected to test the dependent variable of business growth performance. Questions BG_Q2 and I_Q12 have mean values rounded to "4", showing the participants "strongly agree" with the statements. The rests of the Questions: BG_Q1, PD_Q3, PD_Q4, MD_Q5, MD_Q6, D_Q7, D_Q8, L_Q9, L_Q10 and I_Q11 have mean values rounded to "3", showing the participants "agree" with the statements. Question BG_Q2 has the lowest standard deviation value (0.426), following by Questions I_Q12 (0.524), PD_Q3 (0.584), L_Q10 (0.639), I_Q11 (0.647), BG_Q1 (0.684), D_Q7 (0.732), PD_Q4 (0.774), D_Q8 (0.795), MD_Q5 (0.802), L_Q9 (0.879), and Question MD_Q6 has the highest standard deviation value (0.900). The lower the standard deviation value, the lower the variability of the collected data.

Question BG_Q2 has the lowest value of standard error of mean (0.049), following by Questions I_Q12 (0.060), PD_Q3 (0.067), L_Q10 (0.073), I_Q11 (0.074), BG_Q1 (0.078), D_Q7 (0.083), PD_Q4 (0.088), MD_Q5 (0.091), D_Q8 (0.091), L_Q9 (0.100), and Question MD_Q6 has the highest value of standard error of mean (0.103). Standard error of mean is calculated by taking the standard deviation and dividing it by the square root of the sample size. It is used to measure how much discrepancy there is likely to be in a sample's mean compared with the population mean. As the sample size grows larger, the standard error of mean value decreases versus the standard deviation value, and the sample mean estimates the true mean of the population with greater precision.

Questions BG_Q2, L_Q10 and I_Q12 have mode value of "4", showing the choice of "strongly agree" appears most frequently in these three questions. The remaining nine questions have mode value of "3", showing the choice of "agree" appears most frequently in them. All 12 questions have the highest maximum value of "4". Questions MD_Q6, D_Q7 and L_Q9 have the lowest minimum value of "0". Questions PD_Q4, MD_Q5, D_Q08, L_Q10 and I_Q11 show the minimum value of "1". Questions BG_Q1, PD_Q3 and I_Q12 show the minimum of value of "2", and BG_Q2 is the only question having the minimum of value of "3". This shows that the online survey receives answers of the entire scale range (from "0" to "4") from the participants, and "0" means there are participants not giving answers for Questions MD_Q6, D_Q7 and L_Q9.

Table 4.2.2: Descriptive statistic summary of Section (2):

Questions 1 to 12 for the online survey.

Online Survey Questionnaire		BG_Q1		BG_Q2		PD_Q3		PD_Q4		MD_Q5		MD_Q6	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	No Answer (0)	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	1.3
	Strongly Disagree (1)	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	2.6	4	5.2	5	6.5
	Disagree (2)	15	19.5	0	0.0	9	11.7	14	18.2	29	37.7	13	16.9
	Agree (3)	41	53.2	18	23.4	50	64.9	37	48.1	32	41.6	38	49.4
	Strongly Agree (4)	21	27.3	59	76.6	18	23.4	24	31.2	12	15.6	20	26.0
Total		77	100.0	77	100.0	77	100.0	77	100.0	77	100.0	77	100.0
Mean		3.078		3.766		3.117		3.078		2.675		2.922	
Std. Error of Mean		0.078		0.049		0.067		0.088		0.091		0.103	
Mode		3		4		3		3		3		3	
Std. Deviation		0.684		0.426		0.584		0.774		0.802		0.900	
Minimum		2		3		2		1		1		0	
Maximum		4		4		4		4		4		4	

Online Survey Questionnaire		D_Q7		D_Q8		L_Q9		L_Q10		I_Q11		I_Q12	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	No Answer (0)	1	1.3	0	0.0	3	3.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Strongly Disagree (1)	1	1.3	2	2.6	0	0.0	1	1.3	2	2.6	0	0.0
	Disagree (2)	7	9.1	18	23.4	17	22.1	3	3.9	3	3.9	1	1.3
	Agree (3)	46	59.7	35	45.5	41	53.2	34	44.2	47	61.0	31	40.3
	Strongly Agree (4)	22	28.6	22	28.6	16	20.8	39	50.6	25	32.5	45	58.4
Total		77	100.0	77	100.0	77	100.0	77	100.0	77	100.0	77	100.0
Mean		3.130		3.000		2.870		3.442		3.234		3.571	
Std. Error of Mean		0.083		0.091		0.100		0.073		0.074		0.060	
Mode		3		3		3		4		3		4	
Std. Deviation		0.732		0.795		0.879		0.639		0.647		0.524	
Minimum		0		1		0		1		1		2	
Maximum		4		4		4		4		4		4	

Referring to Table 4.2.3, business growth, product development, market development, diversification, leadership and innovation have mean value rounded to “3”. Recalling the interval scale used (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, and 4 = Strongly agree), this means that on average, the participants “agree” with the statements of business growth is critical and important for the future success of an organisation, the business development strategies of product development, market development and diversification drive business growth for organisations, and both leadership and innovation affect the success rate of business development strategies, leading organisations for business growth.

On average, business growth has the lowest values of standard deviation (0.334) and standard error of mean (0.038), following by leadership (0.380 and 0.043), product development (0.431 and 0.049), innovation (0.464 and 0.053), diversification (0.470 and 0.054) and market development (0.520 and 0.059). The lower the standard deviation value, the lower the variability of the collected data, and the lower the standard error of mean value, the lower the discrepancy in the sample’s mean compared with the population mean. Both business growth and leadership show mode value rounded to “4”, indicating the choice of “strongly agree” from participants appears most frequently. Product development, market development, diversification and innovation show mode value rounded to “3”, indicating the choice of “agree” from participants appears most frequently.

Table 4.2.3: Average reaction of descriptive statistic summary for the dependent variable (BG), independent variables (PD, MD and D) and moderating variables (L and I) in the online survey.

Online Survey Questionnaire	Business Growth (BG)	Product Development (PD)	Market Development (MD)	Diversification (D)	Leadership (L)	Innovation (I)
Total	77	77	77	77	77	77
Mean	3.494	3.153	3.042	3.136	3.494	3.305
Std. Error of Mean	0.038	0.049	0.059	0.054	0.043	0.053
Mode	3.75	3.25	2.75	3.25	3.75	3.00
Std. Deviation	0.334	0.431	0.520	0.470	0.380	0.464
Minimum	2.50	2.00	1.75	2.00	1.75	2.00
Maximum	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Cronbach's Alpha test was developed by Lee Cronbach in 1951 to measure reliability or internal consistency of a survey. It is used to test and see if multiple-question Likert scale surveys are reliable. Table 4.2.4 indicates the rule of thumb using to interpret Cronbach's Alpha (α), and a high level of α-value may mean that the items in the test are highly correlated with high reliability and internal consistency. According to Lavrakas (2008) and Salkind (2015), α-value was also sensitive to the number of items in a test, where a larger number of items could result in a larger α-value, and a smaller number of items in a smaller α-value. Lavrakas (2008) and Salkind (2015) shared a high α-value might mean redundant questions due to asking the same thing in a survey, and a low α-value might mean that there were not enough questions on the survey, where adding more relevant questions to the survey could increase the α-value. Referring to Table 4.2.5, the α-value is 0.825, indicating the 12 Likert 1-4 rating scale (strongly disagree, disagree, agree and strong agree) questions in the online survey has good reliability.

Table 4.2.4: Rule of Thumb for interpreting Cronbach's Alpha for Likert scale questions.

Cronbach's Alpha (α)	Reliability / Internal Consistency
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent
$0.9 > \alpha \geq 0.8$	Good
$0.8 > \alpha \geq 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.7 > \alpha \geq 0.6$	Questionable
$0.6 > \alpha \geq 0.5$	Poor
$0.5 > \alpha$	Unacceptable

Sources: Lavrakas (2008); Salkind (2015)

Table 4.2.5: Reliability statistics of the online survey.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha (α)	0.825

PEARSON CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Pearson Correlation is used to study the relationship between two continuous variables. The changes in one independent variable will impact the dependent variable. The higher the value of Pearson Correlation, the stronger the positive correlation between the independent and dependent variables. Table 4.2.6 shows diversification has the strongest positive correlation with business growth performance ($r = 0.398$, $p = 0.000$). Product development has weaker positive correlation with business growth performance ($r = 0.332$, $p = 0.003$) than diversification. Market development has the weakest positive correlation with business growth performance ($r = 0.224$, $p = 0.050$). Both relationships of diversification and product development with business growth performance are statistically significant at $p < 0.01$, reflecting a high confidence level of association. However, the relationship of market development with business growth performance is insignificant at $p \geq 0.05$.

Table 4.2.7 shows both leadership and innovation have positive correlation with business development performance. Leadership has the stronger positive correlation with business development performance ($r = 0.472$, $p = 0.000$) than innovation ($r = 0.349$, $p = 0.002$). Both relationships of leadership and innovation with business development performance are highly statistically significant at $p < 0.01$.

Table 4.2.6: Pearson Correlation to check the relationship between the dependent variable of business growth performance and the independent variables of product development, market development and diversification.

		Product Development	Market Development	Divesification
Business Growth Performance	Pearson Correlation (r)	0.332**	0.224	0.398**
	Correlation_Sig. (p)	0.003	0.050	0.000
	Mean	3.153	3.042	3.136
	Std. Deviation	0.431	0.520	0.470

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.2.7: Pearson Correlation to check the relationship between the independent variable of business development performance (product development, market development and diversification) and the moderating variables of leadership and innovation.

		Leadership	Innovation
Business Development Performance	Pearson Correlation (r)	0.472**	0.349**
	Correlationa_Significant (p)	0.000	0.002
	Mean	3.490	3.305
	Std. Deviation	0.380	0.464

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Referring to Table 4.2.8, multiple linear regression analysis is used to analyse the linear relationship between the dependent variable of business growth performance and multiple independent variables of product development, market development and diversification by estimating coefficients for the equation for a straight line. The R value of 0.422 shows the positive relationship exists in between the independent variables of product development, diversification and market development with the dependent variable of business growth.

R-square (R^2) is to measure the proportion of the variation in the dependent variable that is explained by variations in independent variables (Gupta, 2000). R^2 explains the degree to which the input independent variables explain the variation of the output dependent variable. According to Gupta (2000), the value R^2 was often seen as a number between “0” and “1” which showed how well a regression line fit into a set of data. If R^2 is closed to 1, it indicates that a regression line fits the data well. If R^2 is closed to “0”, it indicates the regression line does not fit the data very well. In simple terms, the higher the R^2, the more variation of the dependent variable is explained by the independent variables and hence the better the regression model. However, the problem with R^2 is that it will either stay the same or increase with addition of more independent variables, even if they do not have any relationships with the dependent variable. This is where the adjusted R^2 comes to help and it penalizes for adding independent variables which do not improve the regression model. Therefore, if building linear regression on multiple variables, it is always suggested to use adjusted R^2 to judge goodness of model.

Table 4.2.8 shows the R^2 value of 0.178, indicating 17.8% of the variance in business growth performance can be explained by product development, market development and diversification while the remaining 82.2% of the variance in business growth cannot be explained in the regression model. In this research, it involves building linear regression on multiple variables to analyse the linear relationship between the dependent variable of business growth performance and the three independent variables of product development, market development and diversification, therefore only the adjusted R^2 value will be focused for discussion. The adjusted R^2 value of 0.144 reveals that the product development, market development and diversification can collectively explain 14.4% of the variance in business growth performance, while the remaining 85.6% cannot be explained due to other inconsistencies or errors in the data, or other factors besides product development, market development and diversification that can affect the business growth performance.

The ANOVA output shows p = 0.002 ($p < 0.05$) and this confirms a linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables in the linear regression. The model is deemed to be a good fit and valid. Diversification has the highest standardised beta value and the lowest significant value ($\beta = 0.314$, $p = 0.015$), following by product development ($\beta = 0.149$, $p = 0.216$), and market development has the lowest standardised beta value and the highest significant value ($\beta = 0.041$, $p = 0.729$). The standardised β-value is used to show the strength of relationship between the dependent and independent variables, the higher the value, the stronger the relationship. The p-value is used to justify whether the relationship between the dependent variables is valid and significant. If the p-value is less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$), it is statistically significant and it indicates strong evidence against the null hypothesis as there is less than a 5% probability the null is correct. Therefore, the null hypothesis will be rejected and the alternative hypothesis will be accepted. It is vice versa if the p-value is higher than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$).

Diversification is a significant independent variable with p-value less than 0.05, justifying the relationship of diversification and business growth performance is existed. This finding confirms diversification is positively related with business growth performance, supporting the hypothesis "H2" of diversification leads to business growth. Both product development and market development are insignificant independent variables with p-value higher than 0.05, showing the relationships of product development and market development with business growth performance are not valid and significant. This finding rejects the hypothesis "H1" of product development leads to business growth and the hypothesis "H3" of marketing development leads to business growth.

Table 4.2.8: Multiple linear regression analysis to test hypotheses H1, H2 and H3 for the research.

		Product Development	Market Development	Divesification
Business Growth Performance	R	0.422		
	R Square	0.178		
	Adjusted R Square	0.144		
	ANOVA[a,b]_Sig. (p)	0.002		
	Standardized Beta (β)	0.149	0.041	0.314*
	Coefficients[a,b]_Sig. (p)	0.216	0.729	0.015

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
a. Dependent Variable: Business Growth Performance
b. Independent Variables: Product Development, Market Development, Diversification

Referring to Table 4.2.9, the multiple linear regression analysis is used to analyse the linear relationship between the independent variable of business development performance and multiple moderating variables of leadership and innovation by estimating coefficients for the equation for a straight line. It is used to analyse the impacts of leadership and innovation on the business development performance (product development, market development and diversification) to drive organisations for business growth. The R value of 0.938 (near to +1) strongly shows the positive relationship exists in between the moderating variables of leadership and innovations with the independent variable of business development performance.

The R^2 value of 0.881 indicates 88.1% of the variance in business development performance can be explained by leadership and innovation while the remaining 11.9% of the variance in business development performance cannot be explained in the regression model. In this research, it involves building linear regression on multiple variables to analyse the linear relationship between the independent variable of business development performance and the two moderating variables of leadership and innovation, so only the adjusted R^2 value will be focused for discussion. The adjusted R^2 value of 0.877 shows both leadership and innovation can collectively explain 87.7% of the variance in business development performance and the remaining 12.3% of the variance in business development performance cannot be explained due to other inconsistencies or errors in the data, or other moderating variables besides leadership and innovation that can affect the business development performance, which eventually will affect the business growth performance.

The ANOVA output shows $p = 0.000$ ($p < 0.01$) and this confirms a linear relationship between the independent and moderating variables in the linear regression. The model is deemed to be a good fit and valid. Leadership has higher standardised beta value and lower significant value ($\beta = 0.833$, $p = 0.000$) than innovation ($\beta = 0.121$, $p = 0.117$). This shows leadership has stronger positive impacts on the business development performance (product development, market development and diversification) than innovation in driving organisations for business growth.

Leadership is a significant moderating variable with p-value less than 0.01, justifying the strong relationship of leadership and business development performance is existed. This finding confirms leadership is positively related with business development performance, supporting the hypothesis “H4” of the stronger the leadership, the higher the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance. However, innovation is an insignificant moderating variable with p-value higher than 0.05, showing the relationship between innovation and business development performance is not valid and significant. This finding rejects the hypothesis "H5" of the stronger the innovation, the higher the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

<u>Table: 4.2.9: Multiple linear regression analysis to test hypotheses H4 and H5 for the research.</u>

		Leadership	Innovation
Business Development Performance	R	0.938	
	R Square	0.881	
	Adjusted R Square	0.877	
	ANOVA[a,b]_Sig. (p)	0.000	
	Standardized Beta (β)	0.833**	0.121
	Coefficients[a,b]_Sig. (p)	0.000	0.117

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

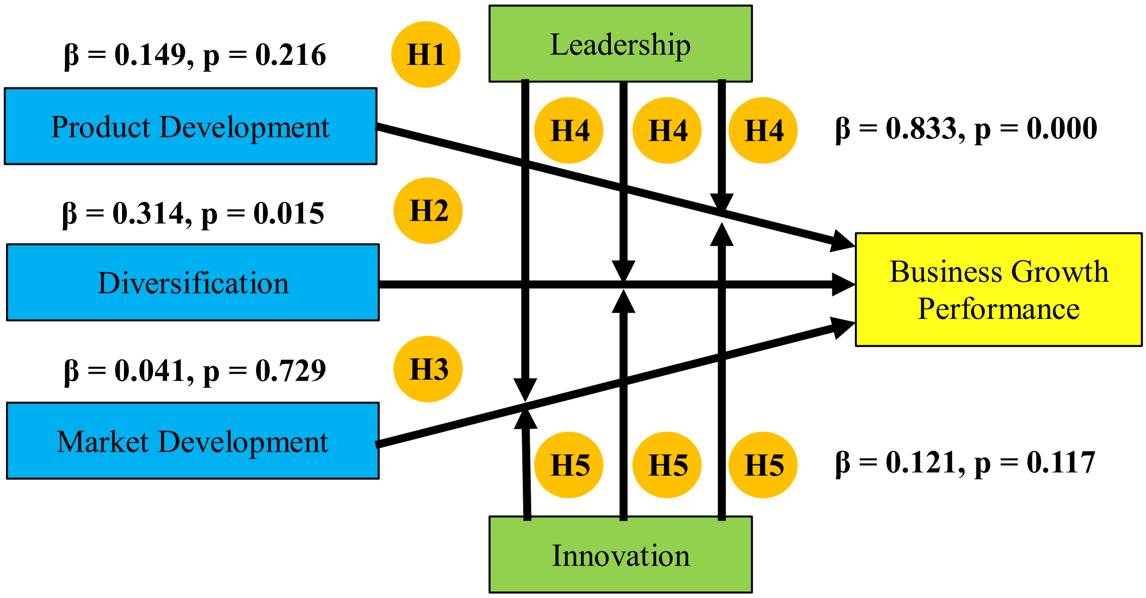
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

a. Independent Variable: Business Development Performance

b. Moderating Variables: Leadership & Innovation

Referring to the hypothesised research framework in Figure 4.2.2, the research finding supports hypotheses H2 and H4, but contradict hypotheses H1, H3 and H5. Among the three independent variables of product development, diversification and market development, diversification is the only significant independent variable ($p < 0.05$) having positive relationship with the dependent variable of business growth performance. The research finding shows diversification leads to business growth. Among the two moderating variables of leadership and innovation, leadership is the only significant moderating variable ($p < 0.01$) showing positive relationship with the independent variables of product development, diversification and market development. The research finding shows the strength of leadership will affect the success rate of product development, diversification and market development to drive business growth performance for organisations.

Figure 4.2.2: Hypothesised research framework to show relationships between the dependent variable and independent variables, and the impacts of moderating variables on the relationship strength between the independent and dependent variables.



MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION RE-TEST ANALYSIS

Multiple linear regression re-test is examined by using significant variables from the previous analysis to re-test. The purpose of the re-test in Table 4.2.10 is to examine the effect to the results of R^2 and adjusted R^2 excluding the insignificant independent variables of product development ($p = 0.216$) and market development ($p = 0.729$) that has exceeded the p-value of 0.05. If both the R^2 and adjusted R^2 values obtain same results with the previous analysis, it means that the insignificant independent variable of market development has no effect on this research.

Table 4.2.10 shows R^2 value of 0.166 and adjusted R^2 value of is 0.155 for the multiple linear regression re-test analysis to test the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. In comparison with the multiple linear regression analysis in Table 4.2.8 with R^2 value of 0.178 and adjusted R^2 value of 0.144, the insignificant independent variables of product development and market development can be eliminated as it does not indicate too much difference in the R^2 and adjusted R^2 values. Although the elimination of product development and market development in this re-test does not indicate too much difference in the R^2 and adjusted R^2 values, but it does improve on the adjusted R^2 value (from 0.144 to 0.155), the standardised β-value of diversification (from 0.314 to 0.407), and the p-value of diversification (from 0.015 to 0.000).

The adjusted R^2 value of 0.155 indicates diversification itself can collectively explain 15.5% of the variance in business growth performance, and the remaining 84.5% of the variance cannot be explained due to other inconsistencies or errors in the data, or other factors that can affect the business growth performance. The higher standardised β-value of 0.407 shows diversification in the re-test has stronger relationship with the business growth performance and the p-value less than 0.01 instead of 0.05 show stronger validity to verify the relationship.

Table 4.2.10: Multiple linear regression re-test analysis to test the research hypothesis H2.

		Divesification
Business Growth Performance	R	0.407
	R Square	0.166
	Adjusted R Square	0.155
	ANOVA[a,b]_Sig. (p)	0.000
	Standardized Beta (β)	0.407**
	Coefficients[a,b]_Sig. (p)	0.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

a. Dependent Variable: Business Growth Performance

b. Independent Variable: Diversification

The purpose of the re-test in Table 4.2.11 is to examine the effect to the results of R^2 and adjusted R^2 excluding the insignificant moderating variable of innovation ($p = 0.117$) that has exceeded the p-value of 0.05, and using the significant independent variable of diversification ($p = 0.015$) with the p-value less than 0.05 instead of the independent variable of business development performance (product development, diversification and market development) in Table 4.2.8.

Table 4.2.11 shows R^2 value of 0.359 and adjusted R^2 value of is 0.350 for the multiple linear regression re-test analysis to test the moderating effect of leadership on the relationship between the independent variable of diversification and the dependent variable of business growth performance. The R^2 value of 0.359 indicates 35.9% of the variance in diversification can be explained by leadership, while the remaining 64.1% of the variance in diversification cannot be explained in the regression model. The adjusted R^2 value of 0.350 shows leadership can collectively explain 35.0% of the variance in diversification and the remaining 65.0% of the variance in diversification cannot be explained due to other inconsistencies or errors in the data, or other moderating variables besides leadership that can affect diversification, which eventually will affect the business growth performance.

The ANOVA output shows $p = 0.000$ ($p < 0.01$) and this confirms a linear relationship between the independent variable of diversification and moderating variable of leadership in the linear regression. The model is deemed to be a good fit and valid. The standardised beta value of 0.599 with p-value of 0.000 ($p < 0.01$) shows leadership has strong positive impacts on the relationship between diversification and business growth performance.

Table 4.2.11: Multiple linear regression re-test analysis to test the research hypothesis H4.

		Leadership
Diversification	R	0.599
	R Square	0.359
	Adjusted R Square	0.350
	ANOVA[a,b]_Sig. (p)	0.000
	Standardized Beta (β)	0.599**
	Coefficients[a,b]_Sig. (p)	0.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

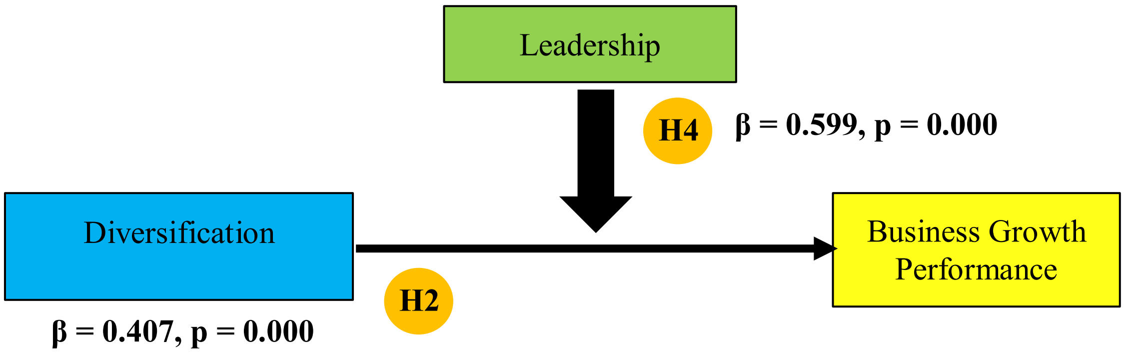
a. Independent Variable: Diversification

b. Moderating Variable: Leadership

4.3 FINAL RESEARCH MODEL OF BUSINESS GROWTH PERFORMANCE

In summary, the hypothesized research framework in Figure 2.9.1 is transformed to the final research model of business growth performance in Figure 4.3.1 to show the research finding confirms that the business development strategy of diversification is the significant independent variable leading organisations for business growth (dependent variable). Both product development and market development are confirmed as insignificant independent variables and will be excluded from the hypothesized research framework. The research finding confirms that leadership is the significant moderating variable to affect the strength of relationship between diversification and business growth performance, the stronger the leadership, the higher the success rate of diversification to lead for the stronger business growth performance. Innovation is confirmed as insignificant moderating variable and will be excluded from the hypothesized research framework.

Figure 4.3.1: Research model of business growth performance.



CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This research conducted the four points: triangulation, complementarity, development and initiation which had been highlighted by Rossman & Wilson (1985) and Greene *et al.* (1989) to increase the validity and reliability of research data. Then, those research data can be used by GFM to design a strong organisational transformation plan for implementation and execution, leading for success business development for business resilience and growth to overcome their crisis of being asked to close down and move the operation site in Malaysia to Singapore by their top management.

Triangulation involved seeking convergence and corroboration of results from different methods studying the same phenomenon (Rossman & Wilson, 1985; Greene *et al.*, 1989). This research involved seeking convergence and corroboration of results from three different methods: the literature review in Chapter 2, the email interview and online survey for research objectives to study whether the business development strategies of product development, diversification and market development drive business growth performance, to investigate whether leadership and innovation affect the strengths of product development, diversification and market development for business growth. The literature review in Chapter 2 involved the collection of secondary exploratory data, the email interview involved the collection of primary exploratory qualitative data through using the qualitative data analysis of NVivo 12, and the online survey involved the collection of primary explanatory quantitative data through using the quantitative data analysis of IBM SPSS Statistics. In the online survey, each of the variables were tested with two related questions for the reason to seek for convergence and corroboration as well. For example, Questions D_Q7 and D_Q8 were used to test the independent variable of diversification, and Questions L_Q9 and L_Q10 were used to test the moderating variable of leadership.

Complementarity involved seeking elaboration, enhancement, illustration and clarification of the results from one method with results from the other methods (Rossman & Wilson, 1985; Greene *et al.*, 1989). In this research, the collected primary exploratory qualitative data from email interview were used for the elaboration, enhancement, illustration and clarification with the secondary exploratory data in Chapter 2. As an exploratory sequential mixed-method approach, the collected primary exploratory data were then used to generate the 14 questions of online survey to gather the primary explanatory quantitative data. Results from the online survey were used for the elaboration, enhancement, illustration and clarification with results from the email interview and literature review as well.

Development involved using results from one method to help inform the other method (Rossman & Wilson, 1985; Greene *et al.*, 1989). In this research, the collected primary explanatory quantitative data from the online survey were used to explain the collected secondary exploratory data from the literature review and primary exploratory qualitative data from the email interview to confirm whether hypotheses H1 of product development leads to business growth, H2 of diversification leads to business growth, H3 of market development leads to business growth, H4 of the stronger the leadership, the higher the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance, and H5 of the stronger the innovation, the higher the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

Initiation involved discovering paradoxes and contradictions that led to a reframing of the research questions (Rossman & Wilson, 1985; Greene *et al.*, 1989). In this research, the collected secondary exploratory data in the literature review included both positive and negative comments from research journal articles to find paradoxes and contradictions for the discussion to reframe research questions of whether the business development strategies of product development, diversification and market development drive business growth performance, and whether leadership and innovation affect the strengths of product development, diversification and market development for business growth.

5.1 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF EMAIL INTERVIEW

The collected primary exploratory data of Question 1 in Table 4.1.1 are aligned with the collected secondary exploratory data for Question 1 in Table 3.10.1, indicating Malaysia is still a potential market for flavour business even though it is a competitive, saturated, small and fragmented market. The collected secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2 support this statement and show Malaysia is an emerging market which is at formative stage of their economic development and will be expected to grow rapidly (Encarta, 2011). The flavour potential in Malaysia is estimated to grow 35.7% from USD119.4 million in 2018 to USD162.0 million in 2025, where the food industry is estimated to grow 14.3% from USD78.5 million in 2018 to USD89.7 million in 2025 and the foodservice is estimated to grow 76.8% from USD40.9 million in 2018 to USD72.3 million in 2025 (Euromonitor, 2020). The overall population of Malaysia in 2018 was made up of those at working age of 20 to 34, and the deployment of this growing-age population drove Malaysia towards productive economic activity (The World Bank, 2020). This is also the reason why we will see more and more global and local flavour manufacturers will invest and enter this small market to compete for the flavour business.

The collected primary exploratory data of Question 2 in Table 4.1.1 are aligned with the collected secondary exploratory data of Question 2 in Table 3.10.1, indicating many organisations in the food industry of Malaysia are facing challenges to maintain their continuous sales growth for long term, and those challenges can be competition, planning, resources, innovation, government, marketing, market trend and country economy. Findings from the literature review in Chapter 2 support this statement and share many mature organisations are weak in new business development strategy implementation and execution, and facing challenges to maintain continuous business growth for their future success (Russo, 2010; Laszlo & Zhexembayeva, 2011; Accenture, 2013; Garza-Reyes, 2015). Many organisations today manage their new business development strategies in a highly amateur fashion with limited understanding of the world of business, with no relevant accumulated data or experienced analysis resources, historical knowledge, experience, routines and paradigms to cause high failure rate in new business development for business growth (Cai *et al.*, 2014; Ambos & Birkinshaw, 2017; Baum & Bird, 2000).

The collected primary exploratory data of Question 3 in Table 4.1.1 are aligned with the collected secondary exploratory data of Question 3 in Table 3.10.1, indicating business growth is a big topic for flavour business in the food industry in Malaysia. Findings from the literature review in Chapter 2 support this statement and mention business growth is important for the survival and future success of mature organisations, driving them for continuous growth in the current turbulent, hypercompetitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis (Bergmiller & McCright, 2009). Business growth offers opportunities for organisations to drive innovation, increase competitiveness and generate bottom line results through lowering costs and increasing revenues (Nidumolu *et al.*, 2009; Lubin & Esty, 2010; Kiron *et al.,* 2012). It also brings a positive impact on product and process design as well as the brand equity (Carcano, 2013). Business growth helps organisations to achieve a healthy core business with available financial resources, a positive attitude and sufficient motivation to employees for the reorganisation process, a capable and competent management team with the necessary authorization and capability of ensuring a positive cash flow and profit which included development of future prospects for added value (Dubrovski, 2014; Aithal, 2016).

The collected primary exploratory data of Question 4 in Table 4.1.1 are contradicting with the collected secondary exploratory data of Question 4 in Table 3.10.1 that many mature organisations are not serious with their strategy implementation and execution for further business growth. According to the collected primary exploratory data in Table 4.1.1, all organisations are serious and they know the importance to have a strong strategy for continuous business growth, but whether there is an equally good plan to carry it out, it is a challenge for all organisations. Knowledge and capabilities, organisational mindset and direction, resources, exposure and interaction, market environment, people and flexibility are the seven factors to cause organisations in Malaysia to face challenges to implement and execute their strategies for business growth. Findings from the literature review in Chapter 2, Kim & Mauborgne (2017) supported this statement that it was not an easy task for organisations to implement and execute strategies successfully for business growth. Kim & Mauborgne (2017) highlighted that new business development strategies needed to be an integral part of an organisational strategy to drive business growth, it needed to be a reliable process and could not be a random, high-risk endeavour that was conducted through trial and error.

The collected primary exploratory data of Question 5 in Table 4.1.1 are aligned with the collected secondary exploratory data for Question 5 in Table 3.10.1, indicating organisations that fail to maintain business growth eventually will run the risk of going out of business. Findings from the literature review in Chapter 2 support this statement and highlight organisations need to maintain their competiveness and viability for business growth through continuously initiating and implementing fundamental large-scale changes in the way they operated and ran their business to adapt the current turbulent, hypercompetitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis, otherwise they will run the risk going out of business (Buller & Mcevoy, 2016; Bharijoo, 2005; By, 2005; Sachkmann *et al.*, 2009; Biedenbach & Soderholm, 2008). Organisations shall always get prepared and ready to confront with any unpredicted business crises for survival and continuous business growth (Sanchez & Perea, 2015; Su & Tang, 2016; Carter, 2010; Appelbaum & Wohl, 2000; Kang & Montoya, 2013; Mccampbell, 1997; Liu *et al.*, 2005; Baker & Sinkula, 1999; Mallic & Schroeder, 2005).

The collected primary exploratory data of Question 6 in Table 4.1.1 are aligned with the collected secondary data for Question 6 in Table 3.9.1, indicating new business development will drive business growth. Findings from the literature review in Chapter 2 support this statement and highlight the superior performance in new business development generates robust returns on investment and growth in sales, volume, profit, market share, and employment which in turn drives business growth (Jennings & Beaver, 1997; Lumpkin & Dess, 2011). It also contributes organisations for attracting and retaining customers, competing for success, conducting operations and achieving objectives for business growth (McCann & McCarren, 2012). It is the dominant source of job creation, market innovation, economic growth and establishing significant competitive advantages for organisations to drive business growth (Kutsikos & Kontos, 2013; Lindic *et al.*, 2012). It facilitates the ability of organisations to survive, grow and generate points in the face of competition for business growth (Shane, 2003).

The collected primary exploratory data of Questions 7 and 8 in Table 4.1.1 are aligned with Figure 2.2.2, showing product development, diversification and market development are the top three business development strategies in Ansoff Matrix Theory to drive organisations for business growth (Dawes, 2018; Kotler *et al.*, 2007; Yenidogan & Aksoy, 2017; Boyd *et al.*, 1995; Yin, 2016). The collected primary exploratory data of Question 8 provide general description on how the top three business development strategies help organisations to drive business growth. This information is important to be used for the triangulation and complementarity with findings from the literature review in Chapter 2 before the generation of related questions for the online survey questionnaire to test the same statement of whether product development, diversification and market development drive business growth.

The collected primary exploratory data of Questions 9 and 10 in Table 4.1.1 are aligned with Figure 2.6.1, showing leadership and innovation are the top two drivers for successful business development to drive organisations for business growth. The collected primary exploratory data of Question 10 provide general description on how the top two drivers of leadership and innovation lead organisations for the successful business development for business growth. Those data are used for the triangulation and complementarity with the findings from the literature review in Chapter 2 to increase the validity and reliability of research data, in order to generate more accurate questions for the online survey questionnaire to collect primary explanatory data to further test the same statement of whether leadership and innovation affect the strengths of product development, diversification, and market development for business growth.

5.2 QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF ONLINE SURVEY

The collected primary explanatory quantitative data of Section (1): Question 1 in Table 4.2.1 of the online survey show 98.7% of participants agree that business growth is critical and important for the survival and future success of organisations. This is aligned with the result from Table 4.2.3, where the business growth (BG) has both mode and mean values rounded to "3" with the meaning that on average the participants "agree" with the same statement of business growth is critical and important for the future success and survival of organisations. These two primary explanatory quantitative data in Table 4.2.1 and Table 4.2.3 of the online survey are convergent and corroborative with the primary exploratory qualitative data from the email interview of Question 5 in Table 4.1.1, showing 94% of participants also agree that failures to maintain business growth will cause business failures for organisations.

The collected secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2 shows the business growth leads organisations to achieve business resilience (Ates & Bititci, 2011; Sanchez & Perea, 2015) and then emerge stronger for further business growth (Sanchez & Perea, 2015). It shows the business growth helps organisations to drive innovation, increase competitiveness and generate bottom line results through lowering costs and increase revenues (Nidumolu *et al.*, 2009; Lubin & Esty, 2010; Kiron *et al.*, 2012). Business growth brings a positive impact on product and process design as well as the brand equity for the future success of organisations (Carcano, 2013).

Business growth is a key success factor for organisations to achieve a healthy core business with available financial resources, a positive attitude and sufficient motivation to employees for the reorganisation process, a capable and competent management team with the necessary authorization and capability of ensuring a positive cash flow and profit which included development of future prospects for added value (Dubrovski, 2014; Aithal, 2016). Healthy core business with available long-term financial resources helps organisations to get ready to overcome liquidity deficits including the payment of remedial costs and ensure development steps (revitalization) (Dubrovski, 2014). The collected primary explanatory quantitative data from Table 4.2.1 of the online survey are used to elaborate, enhance, illustrate and clarify the collected primary exploratory qualitative data from Table 4.1.1 of the email interview, as well as the secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2. These collected primary explanatory quantitative data from Table 4.2.1 explain the primary exploratory qualitative data from the email interview and the secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2 to validate that business growth is critical and important for the survival and future success of organisations.

According to the collected secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2, mature organisations at the decline stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory will experience erosion of competitive advantages that result in decreasing sales and profits (Hanks, 1990; Miller & Friesen, 1984), and loss of market share and market position (Lester *et al.*, 2003; Miller & Friesen, 1984). This deterioration in performance eventually drives mature organisations into financial and business failures (Shumway, 2001; Chava & Jarrow, 2004; Campbell *et al.*, 2008). Mortality rates go up when organisations achieve maturity stage in their organisational life cycle as the organisational endowments depreciate and are not replenished (Brüderl & Schüssler, 1990), and because accumulated rules, routines and structures limit their abilities to react to changing environmental conditions (Barron *et al.*, 1994; Hannan, 1998; Thornhill & Amit, 2003). Therefore, it is important for mature organisations to achieve continuous business growth for their survival and success in the current turbulent, hyper-competitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis (Audretsch & Belitski, 2021; Sousa *et al.*, 2020; Lin *et al.*, 2019; Bergmiller & McCright, 2009). Audretsch & Belitski (2021) shared the business growth drove mature organisations for business resilience, and this was an important characteristic of mature organisations that related directly to their survival and leveraging external shocks, which led to functioning in the market despite a relative lack of such competencies, time and resources.

Section (1): Question 2 of the online survey in Table 4.2.1 shows 79.2% of participants agree that business development strategies drive organisations for business growth, while 20.8% of the participants disagree with the statement. This is aligned with the result from the email interview of Question 6 in Table 4.1.1, showing 80% participants also agree that business development strategies drive organisations for business growth, while 20% of the participants disagree with the statement. Findings from the literature review in Chapter 2 highlight organisations that achieve successful business development will generate robust returns on investment, growth in sales, volume, profit, market share and employment for continuous business growth (Zahra & George, 2002; Jennings & Beaver, 1997; Lumpkin & Dess, 2001). New business development help mature organisations to develop new values and new demands in a new uncontested market space to make their competition become irrelevant and opportunities to grow become unlimited, to pioneer a new value-cost frontier with a supporting business model for the achievement of both differentiation and low cost simultaneously to increase value propositions and innovations for the creation of win-win situation for both buyers and sellers for continuous business growth (Kim & Mauborgne, 2017; Bagheri *et al.*, 2013; Mina & Mohseni, 2015; Appalbaum & Wohl, 2000; Alhaddi, 2014; Chakrabarti, 2014; Raman, 2014).

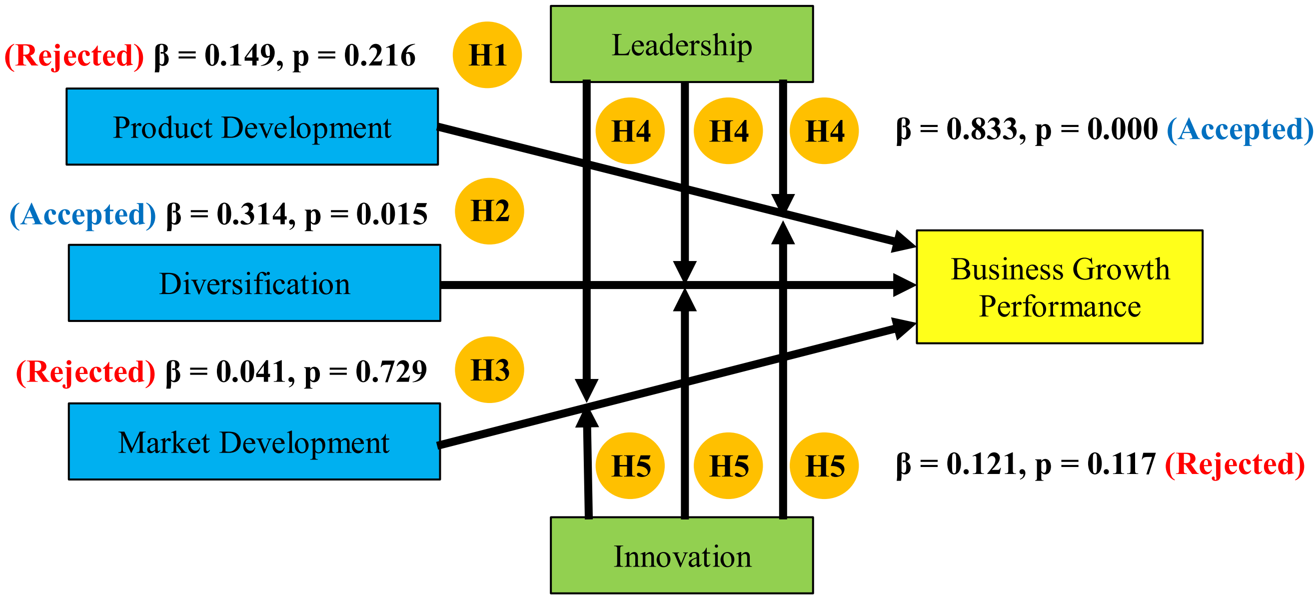
Referring to Table 4.2.5, the online survey scored Cronbach's Alpha (α) test value of 0.825, indicating the items in the test are highly correlated with high reliability and internal consistency. Referring to Table 4.2.4, Lavrakas (2008) and Salkind (2015) shared the test with α-value of 0.9 or more than 0.9 showed excellent reliability and internal consistency, the test with α-value between 0.8 and 0.9 showed good reliability and internal consistency, the test with α-value between 0.7 and 0.8 showed acceptable reliability and internal consistency, and the test with α-value less than 0.7 was questionable, poor and unacceptable.

Findings of Pearson Correlation Analysis in Table 4.2.6 show both product development ($r = 0.332$, $p = 0.003$) and diversification ($r = 0.398$, $p = 0.000$) are significant business development strategies that can be executed to drive organisations for business growth. Diversification ($r = 0.398$) is more effective than product development ($r = 0.332$) in driving business growth. However, Table 4.2.5 shows market development has p-value more than 0.05, which means it is an insignificant business development strategy that can be executed to drive organisations for business growth. Table 4.2.7 shows both leadership ($r = 0.472$, $p = 0.000$) and innovation ($r = 0.349$, $p = 0.002$) are significant moderating factors to drive the business development performance of product development, market development and diversification for organisations to achieve business growth. Leadership with r-value of 0.472 shows higher effectiveness in driving product development, market development and diversification than innovation with r-value of 0.349.

Findings of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis in Table 4.2.8 show diversification ($\beta = 0.314$, $p = 0.015$) is the only business development strategy, which is significant with p-value less than 0.05 in driving business growth for organisations. It is convergent and corroborative with the findings of Pearson Correlation Analysis in Table 4.2.6, showing diversification is significant in driving business growth performance. However, it is contradicting with the findings in Table 4.2.6, as it shows product development is insignificant ($p > 0.05$) in driving business growth performance. Findings of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis in Table 4.2.9 are convergent and corroborative with the findings of Pearson Correlation Analysis in Table 4.2.7, showing leadership ($\beta = 0.833$, $p = 0.000$) are significant ($p < 0.01$) in driving the business development performance of product development, market development and diversification. However, it is contradicting with the findings in Table 4.2.7, as it shows innovation is insignificant ($p > 0.05$) in driving the business development performance of product development, market development and diversification for business growth.

Figure 5.2.1 indicates the final findings on the hypothesized framework of business growth performance for this research. The first research objective (RO1) of this research is to study whether product development drives business growth, where the first research question (RQ1) is to understand what is the relationship between product development and business growth performance, and the first research hypothesis (H1) is to test whether product development leads to business growth. The collected primary explanatory quantitative data of online survey in Figure 5.2.1 appear to contradict with the collected primary exploratory quantitative data of email interview, showing that product development does not have significant relationship with business growth performance. Hypothesis H1 is rejected, indicating product development does not lead organisations for business growth.

Figure 5.2.1: Final findings on the hypothesized research framework of business growth performance.



According to the collected secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2, the current turbulent business environment, the repeated changes in customer demands, technology and business practices make existing products and services obsolete (Sorensen & Stuart, 2000; Jansen *et al.*, 2006). The current hyper-competitive environment causes changings in many industries due to shortening product life cycles and increasing demands from customers asking for more sophisticated products and also more product variety (Wheelwright & Clark, 1992; Sanchez, 1995). Therefore, organisations need to continuously modify their products and services, or develop new ones in order to stay competitive for business growth (Sorensen & Stuart, 2000; Jansen *et al.*, 2006). However, it is important for organisations to manage their ambition and aggressiveness in new product development as the excessive number of new products and the introduction intensity are negatively related to financial performance and not able to achieve business growth due to resource constraints and cannibalization (Chandy & Tellis, 1998; Lancaster, 1990; Kang & Montoya, 2013).

Ali *et al.* (2020) highlighted that new product development was the key to the business growth of mature organisations, yet the failure rate of new products was very high due to lack of marketing skills and creativity, and due to the market competition that had significantly increased over time with higher customers' expectations to new products, higher speed of innovation, dynamic technological advancement, shorter product life-cycles and higher rate of new product development. According to Ali *et al.* (2020), in order for organisations to build new products that resulted in sustainable competitive performance, sufficient tangible resources such as adopting a new technology accessing sufficient financial capital and infrastructure, as well as sufficient intangible resources such as intellectual capital, networking, market knowledge and reputation were needed, otherwise it would be challenging for organisations to achieve success in the product development strategy for business growth. Those reasons support why eventually product development does not drive the business growth performance.

The second research objective (RO2) of this research is to study whether diversification drives business growth. The second research question (RQ2) is to understand what is the relationship between diversification and business growth performance, and the second research hypothesis (H2) is to test whether diversification leads to business growth. The collected primary explanatory quantitative data of online survey in Figure 5.2.1 are convergent and corroborative with the collected primary exploratory qualitative data of email interview, confirming diversification drive business growth performance. Hypothesis H2 is supported and accepted, indicating diversification leads organisations for business growth.

According to the collected secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2, the success in diversification helps organisations to move from a Red Ocean crowded with competition to Blue Ocean of uncontested market space and explosive growth (Kim & Mauborgne, 2004). Diversification drives organisations to explore new business areas that promise greater profitability, leading them to expand and enter new markets and new product lines which are related or/and unrelated to the existing business to drive business growth (Eren & Erol, 2000; Thompson & John, 2003). This will also confirm survival for the organisations and make their cash flow more reliable due to lower environmental uncertainty and higher profitability (Tihanyi *et al.* 2003).

However, organisations need to manage their ambition and aggressiveness in diversification as the excessive diversification increases organisational differentiation and causes negative impacts to the organisational performance for driving business growth due to more resources, greater collaboration and integration of interdependencies on the part of organisations, leading to increased costs of monitoring, integrating and coordinating the activities (Porter, 2001; Hill & Jones, 1998; Lane *et al.*, 1998; Singh *et al.*, 2001). Excessive diversification escalates the dispersion of business interest which causes conflict in terms of greater managerial information-processing demands and organisational complexities, inhibits organisations from responding to major external changes, and raises the costs of operation, bureaucracy and governance with the corresponding negative impacts on organisational performance for driving business growth (Tallman & Li, 1996; Morrison & Roth, 1992; Chakrabarti *et al.*, 2007). This inevitably affects the cultivation and development of the original core competitiveness and brings the risk of decline of the core competitiveness (Le, 2019).

The third research objective (RO3) of this research is to study whether market development drives business growth. The third research question (RQ3) is to understand what is the relationship between market development and business growth performance, and the third research hypothesis (H3) is to test whether market development leads to business growth. The collected primary explanatory quantitative data of online survey in Figure 5.2.1 are convergent and corroborative with the collected primary exploratory qualitative data of email interview, confirming market development does not drive business growth performance. Hypothesis H2 is rejected, indicating market development does not lead organisations for business growth.

The collected secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2 emphasised the challenges for organisations to implement and execute the business development strategy of market development as it involves the development of strategic thrusts and sustainable competitive advantages that must be valuable in the market, durable and not subjected to obsolescence and depreciation, not imitable, replaceable or transferrable, no threats of retaliation, and needed by organisations to convert a marketing opportunity to a business opportunity for their targeted non-buying customers in currently target market segments and also new customers in new market segments for further business growth and expansion (Kanagal, 2017; Nath *et al.*, 2010; Vorchies & Morgan, 2005; Day & Reibstein, 1997). Most organisations manage their market development strategy in a highly amateur fashion with limited understanding of the world of business, and they do not have relevant accumulated data or experienced analysis resources, historical knowledge, experience, routines and paradigms in new business development (Cai *et al.*, 2014; Ambos & Birkinshaw, 2017; Baum & Bird, 2000). Although with sufficient tangible resources, many organisations still cannot achieve success in the market development strategy for driving business growth performance due to lack of intangible resources of marketing capabilities, skills and creativity, lack of skilled marketing staff and experienced managers (Ali *et al.* 2020). Those challenges could be the reasons why market development is not significant in leading business growth for organisations.

The collected secondary data from the literature review in Chapter 2 also show the two major risks: political risk and economic risk in market development that will negatively impact organisations for business growth (Robinson & Lundstrom, 2003). Robinson & Lundstrom (2003) explained political risk as how stable the local government was and the attitude towards the decision, while economic risk was related with currency restrictions, fluctuating exchange rates, economy stability, trade regulations in the form of tariffs, quotas or embargos of the new market. Johnson (2010) and Arnold (2003) added on that the challenges of poor distribution systems, government restrictions, cultural complexities, populations widely dispersed over rural areas and potential customers with unpredictable income streams in emerging markets could be the factors that cause the failure of market development to drive business growth performance of organisations.

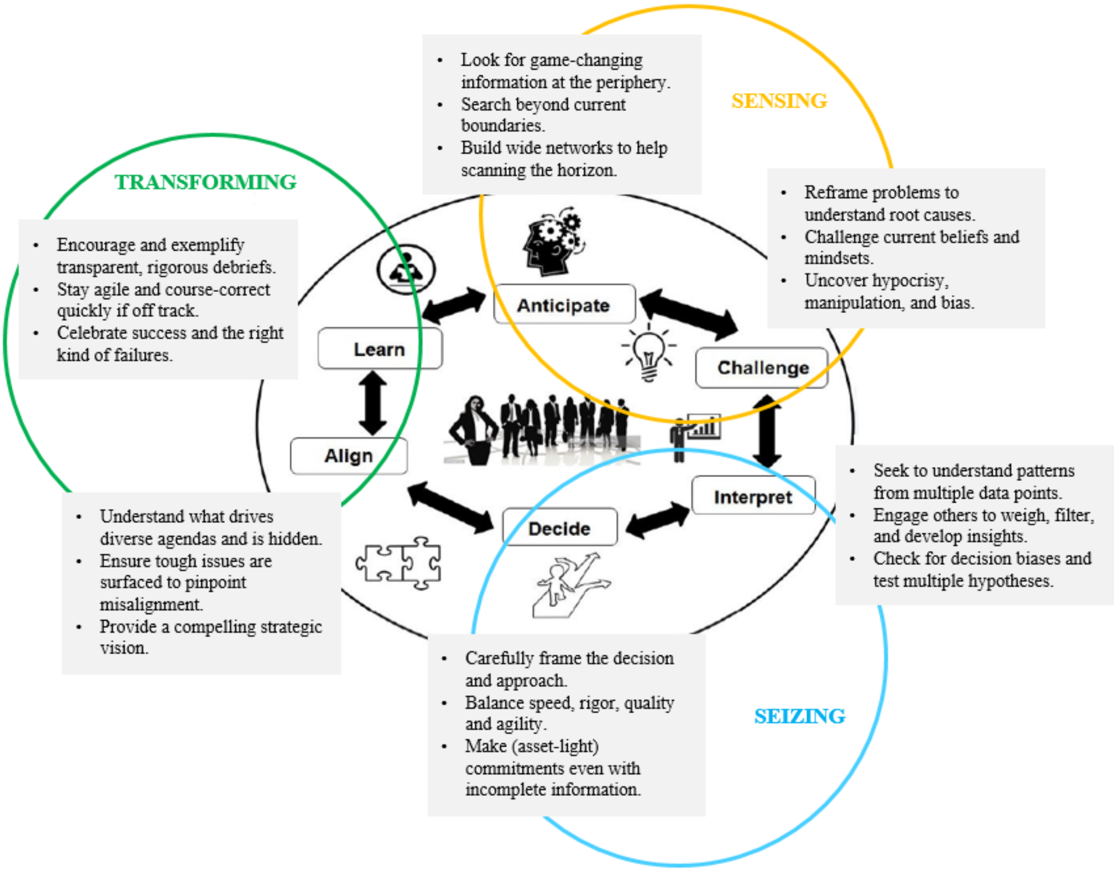
The fourth research objective (RO4) of this research is to investigate whether leadership affects the strengths of product development, diversification and market development for business growth. The fourth research question (RQ4) is to understand what is the relationship between leadership with product development, diversification and market development for business growth, and the fourth hypothesis (H4) is to test whether the stronger the leadership, the higher the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance. The collected primary explanatory quantitative data of online survey in Figure 5.2.1 are convergent and corroborative with the collected primary exploratory qualitative data of email interview, confirming leadership has moderating effect on the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of organisations. The data support that organisations with stronger leadership will have higher success rate in product development, diversification and market development, leading for higher business growth performance. This concludes that hypothesis H4 is accepted.

The collected secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2 show leadership plays important roles to drive organisations for successful product development (Calantone, 2003; Kach *et al.*, 2014; Karlsson & Ahlstrom, 1997; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Kiss & Barr, 2014; Revilla, 2010), diversification (Campillo & Gago, 2010; Gary, 2005) and market development (Millson *et al.*, 2011; Yin, 2016) for driving business growth. Leadership includes the practices of mobilizing talents, allocating resources and formulating strategies to drive new business development (Haddad & Kotnour, 2015). It has substantial effects on some organisational outcomes such as innovation process, opportunity identification and exploitation, and new business development for driving business growth (Bass & Bass, 2008; Kang *et al.*, 2015; Norbom & Lopez, 2016, Elenkov & Manev, 2005; Ensley *et al.*, 2006; Simsek *et al.*, 2015; Zhou, 2016; Lyons *et al.*, 2012; Leitch & Volery, 2017; Harrison *et al.*, 2016).

A leader's behaviour has extraordinary effects on team, units and organisations, and leadership styles contribute significantly to the success and failure of product development, diversification and market development strategies (Islam *et al.*, 2020). Ting *et al.* (2020) mentioned that effective leaders helped employees to develop their competency and productivity, and constructed frameworks to maximise high exchange relationships, resulting in high levels of productivity. Effective leaders will inspire their employees to reach the highest degree of achievement and outcomes, stimulating them to achieve goals beyond expectations, persuading them to pass self-interest for organisation's common utilities, encouraging them for new skill development to serve as the major force and increasingly searching for new opportunities for the organisation to develop (Son *et al.* 2020).

Referring to Figure 5.2.2, Schoemaker *et al.* (2018) shared the six critical characteristics (anticipate, challenge, interpret, decide, align and learn) found in strategic leaders to succeed in VUCA (volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity) and drive successful business development strategies of product development, diversification and market development for organisations to achieve business growth. Anticipate and challenges are leadership disciplines that undergrid the organisation's ability in sensing; interpret and decide are leadership disciplines that undergrid the organisation's ability in seizing; align and learn are leadership disciplines that undergrid the organisation's ability in transforming (Schoemaker *et al.*, 2018). Organisations with strong leadership to withstand the strong centripetal forces of the status quo will master these three dynamic capabilities (sensing, seizing and transforming), having the sufficient capacity to detect, interpret and act on ambiguous signals of fresh threats or new opportunities emerging at the periphery (Schoemaker *et al.,* 2018).

Figure 5.2.2: Six critical characteristics of strategic leaders to succeed in the product development, diversification and market development strategies for driving business growth performance.



Source: Schoemaker *et al.* (2018)

According to the collected secondary exploratory data in the literature review in Chapter 2, transformational leadership transforms and inspires team members for greater value to organisations (Ghadi et al., 2013), and bring about high levels of employee engagement, job satisfaction and organisational commitment to increase employee retention and loyalty, to minimize employee turnover and maximize their morale (Son *et al.*, 2020; Ting *et al.*, 2020; Islam *et al.* 2020; Bass, 1998; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Ghadi *et al.*, 2013; Men & Stacks, 2013; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2016; Saks, 2006; Bhatnagar, 2007; Tims *et al.*, 2011; Salanova *et al.*, 2011). High levels of employee engagement help to improve team members' performance and productivity to give competitive edge over others, and team members will work together as a team toward a common vision, common goals and shared values for leveraging, sustaining and transforming works into results (Densten, 2005; Xu & Thomas, 2011; Ghadi *et al.*, 2013; Rao, 2017). Engaged employees will feel involved, loyal, enthusiastic and empowered; have great energy and passion in work; bring new ideas to work; take initiative and seek to improve themselves, others and the business; consistently exceeded goals and expectations; be curious and interested; be creative and responsible; ask questions; encourage and support team; be optimistic, positive and persistent;

overcome obstacles and stay focused on tasks; commit to high-quality performance standards to their organisations (Mehrzi & Singh, 2016; Rao, 2017). This eventually leads organisations for successful product development, diversification and market development for driving business growth performance.

The collected secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2 share transactional leadership maintains status quo, where the leaders tend to be inflexible and opposed to change as they believe their followers will perform best with structured policies, procedures and rules, and when the chain of command is definite and clear (Farkas & Vera, 2014). Transactional leadership involves contingent reward and extrinsic motivation, the leaders utilize rewards in order to foster desired work behaviour and indicate which steps need to be taken by their followers (Farkas & Vera, 2014). This eventually can also lead organisations for successful new business development to drive business growth as well especially for the team with Theory X employees who dislike work and will avoid responsibility if possible, and they must be coerced, controlled, directed and threated with punishments to get them work (Aydin, 2012).

Besides both transformational leadership and transactional leadership, the collected secondary exploratory data in the literature review in Chapter 2 also explain and introduce the other seven types of leadership: authoritarian leadership, participative leadership, delegative leadership, affiliative leadership, coaching leadership, pacesetting leadership and shared leadership (Marnewick & Marnewick, 2019; Chapman *et al.*, 2014; Felix, 2019; House *et al.*, 2004). These seven types of leaderships are possible to lead organisations for successful new business development to drive business growth in different business situations and environments. The shared leadership involves the utilization and combination of different forms of leadership to obtain greater results (Drazin *et al.*, 1999; Mumford *et al.*, 2002). Organisations with multiple leaders with diverse skills and expertise to take on different elements of a leadership role will show better business performance (Hauschildt & Kirchmann, 2001; Howell & Boies, 2004; Friedrich *et al.*, 2009) and able to solve complex problems because of the existence of diversity in perceptions, skills and knowledge (Stassers *et al.*, 1995). However, the heterogeneous teams can also produce relationship conflicts among team members to cause poor performance, and collaborative style was negatively and not significantly related to innovativeness and business performance (Sapienze, 1997; Dunne *et al.*, 2016).

Leadership effectiveness is a major determinant of the success or failure of organisations in the business development strategies of product development, diversification and market development for business growth (Son *et al.* 2020; Dunne et al., 2016; Fiedler, 1996).

Organisations need leaders who are ready to take risks, create new paths, shape new approaches, have strong values that drive their actions and master the art of forming teams, and lead the teams with different leadership types for culture building and changing to drive organisations for successful new business development (Lindquist & Marcy, 2016; Quinn, 1988; Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Ulrich, 1996; Bass & Bass, 2008; Kang *et al.*, 2015; Norbom & Lopez, 2016; Elenkov & Manev, 2005; Ensley *et al.*, 2006; Simsek *et al.*, 2015; Zhou, 2016; Lyons *et al.*, 2012; Leitch & Volery, 2017; Harrison *et al.,* 2016).

The fifth research objective (RO5) of this research is to investigate whether innovation affects the strengths of product development, diversification and market development for business growth. The fifth research question (RQ5) is to understand what is the relationship between innovation with product development, diversification and market development for business growth, and the fifth hypothesis (H5) is to test whether the stronger the innovation, the higher the success rate of product development, diversification and market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance. The collected primary explanatory quantitative data of online survey in Figure 5.2.1 appear to contradict with the collected primary exploratory qualitative data of email interview, showing that innovation has no moderating effect on the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of organisations. The data do not support that organisations with stronger innovation will have higher success rate in product development, diversification and market development, leading for higher business growth performance. This concludes that hypothesis H5 is rejected.

According to the collected secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2, innovation generates knowledge or new ideas from external sources as well as internal sources, and this combination allows organisations to achieve better innovative performance to achieve stronger competitive advantages in the business development strategies of product development, diversification and market development for driving business growth (Collins, 2006; Hansen & Birkinshaw, 2007; Berchicci, 2013; Calabrese *et al.*, 2005; Leydesdorff & Etzkowitz, 1996; Gust-Bardon, 2014). However, new ideas in innovation are not based so much on the organisations' internal resources due to their limited capacity to detect valuable external knowledge and integrate it into the innovation process, therefore external sources play important roles to help organisations to integrate and adopt current and acquired external knowledge to achieve sustainable competitiveness (Segarra *et al.*, 2012; Henderson & Clark, 1990; Kogut & Zander, 1992). Supplier involvement in innovation actually increases the organisational complexity of coordinating design decisions, slow the pace of innovation, and lead to deterioration in innovation capabilities

(Eisenhardt & Tabrize, 1995; Like *et al.*, 1996; Corswant & Tunalv, 2002). Higher levels of customer integration in innovation are not strongly associated with higher levels of innovation quality (Eisenhardt & Tabrize, 1995). External integration makes innovation more costly, more complicated, less efficient, more time consuming, and more difficult to control and manage (Croswant & Tunaly, 2002; Littler *et al.,* 1995).

The collected secondary exploratory data from the literature review in Chapter 2 also highlight the importance for organisations to balance exploration and exploitation to achieve an ambidextrous approach for driving the success in the business development strategies of product development, diversification and market development, long-term survival and competitive advantages for driving business growth performance as both activities draw resources (Soursa *et al.* 2020; March, 1991; Gupta *et al.*, 2006; Levinthal & March, 1993; Tushman & O'Reilly 1996). Organisations overly focused on exploration may never gain from the knowledge they create, which eventually lead to a "failure trap" and no performance benefits (Levinthal & March, 1993). Organisations overly focused on exploitation lead to a "success trap" where the organisations can yield success in short-term, but would see a decrease in success over the long-term and eventually will fall from a leader in technology to obsolete organisations (Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004; March, 1991). Organisations invest heavily in exploitation of existing knowledge such as refining existing products and services will reduce their possibility to explore new knowledge development such as development of new expertise and technology (Leonard, 1995; Levinthal & March, 1981; Tushman & Anderson, 1986).

Sousa *et al.* (2020) warned a strategy of exploitation without exploration was a route to obsolescence, and a strategy of exploration without exploitation was a route to elimination, therefore greater performance could only be achieved by organisations that employ both exploitation and exploration. Belawati *et al.* (2019) shared the organisational knowledge played important role in the innovation process as a basic element, and the knowledge acquisition, generation and creation were essential for organisations to strengthen the knowledge resources and capabilities to improve their innovative performance. However, many organisations are weak in their knowledge resources and capabilities due to the shortage of skilled workers, the lack of employee creativity and innovation, which eventually cause those organisations continue having poor innovative performance, only imitate existing products in the markets rather than being novel and creative. (Ting *et al.*, 2020). Those challenges could be the reasons why innovation is not significant in driving stronger business development performance of product development, diversification and market development to lead organisations for stronger business growth performance.

5.3 RESEARCH MODEL OF BUSINESS GROWTH PERFORMANCE

Table 5.3.1 shows the links between the research problem statements (PS1 and PS2), research objectives (RO1 to RO5), research questions (RQ1 to QQ5), research hypotheses (H1 to H5) and research results. Hypotheses H1, H3 and H5 are rejected due to their p-values in the Multiple Linear Regression Analysis are more than 0.05. Hypotheses H2 and H4 are accepted with their p-values in the Multiple Linear Regression Analysis are less than 0.05. The lower the p-value, the more significant the correlation, therefore the result of Hypothesis H4 with p-value of 0.000 ($p < 0.01$) is more significant than the result of Hypothesis H2 with p-value of 0.015 ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4.2.9 shows the multiple linear regression re-test analysis result that exclude the insignificant independent variables of product development ($p = 0.216$) and market development ($p = 0.729$) that has exceeded the p-value of 0.05. In comparison with the multiple linear regression analysis in Table 4.2.7 with R^2 value of 0.178 and adjusted R^2 value of 0.144, the insignificant independent variables of product development and market development can be eliminated as it does not indicate too much difference in the R^2 and adjusted R^2 values. This elimination improves the standardised β-value of diversification (from 0.314 to 0.407) and the p-value of diversification (from 0.015 to 0.000), which eventually will improve the research validity.

Table 4.2.10 shows the multiple linear regression re-test analysis result that exclude the insignificant moderating variable of innovation ($p = 0.117$) that has exceeded the p-value of 0.05. This multiple linear regression re-test used data of the significant independent variable of diversification ($p = 0.015$) only for quantitative analysis instead of using data of the independent variable of business development performance, which is actually the average number of the three independent variables: product development ($p = 0.216$), diversification ($p = 0.015$) and market development ($p = 0.729$). This eventually will improve the research validity.

The hypothesized research framework of business growth performance in Figure 2.9.1 has been tested, where hypotheses H1, H3 and H5 are rejected, and hypotheses H2 and H4 are accepted. After all the hypotheses have been examined, tested and validated, the research model of business growth performance in Figure 5.3.1 is generated for this research. The model shows diversification is the independent variable that drives organisations for business growth, and leadership is the moderating variable that will affect the diversification performance for driving the business growth performance. The stronger the leadership, the higher the diversification performance, which eventually will drive higher business growth performance for organisations.

GFM will be able to use the research model of business growth performance in Figure 5.3.1 to design their organisational transformation plan to show how a successful business development strategy of diversification with a strong leadership should be implemented and executed to drive their business resilience and further continuous business growth, in order to overcome their crisis for their survival and future success.

Table 5.3.1: The links between the research problem statements, objectives, questions, hypotheses and results.

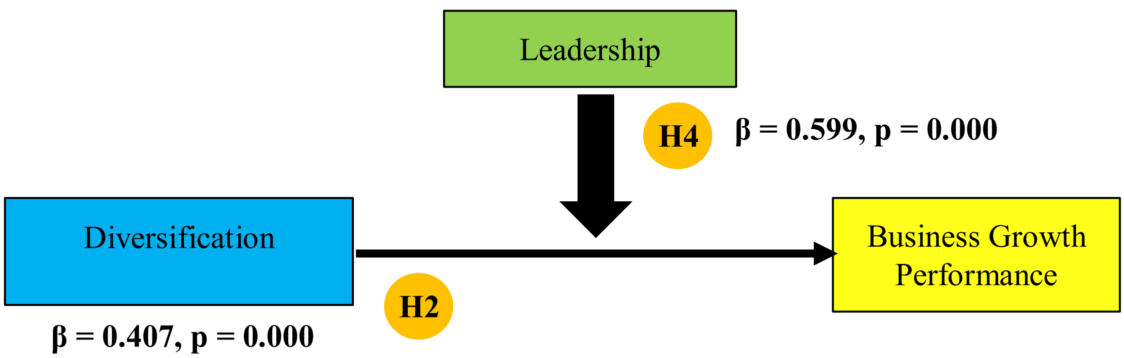
PROBLEM STATEMENT (PS):

PS1: What are the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations?
PS2: What is the moderating effect of leadership and innovation on the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth of mature organisations?

NO.	RESEARCH OBJECTIVE (RO)	RESEARCH QUESTION (RQ)	RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS (H)	MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION (p-value)	RESEARCH RESULT	MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION RE-TEST (p-value)
1	To study whether PD drives BG.	What is the relationship between PD and BG performance?	PD leads to BG.	0.216	Hypothesis is **REJECTED** ($p > 0.05$)	-
2	To study whether D drives BG.	What is the relationship between D and BG performance?	D leads to BG.	0.015	Hypothesis is **ACCEPTED** ($p < 0.05$)	0.000
3	To study whether MD drives BG.	What is the relationship between market development and BG performance?	MD leads to BG.	0.729	Hypothesis is **REJECTED** ($p > 0.05$)	-
4	To investigate whether leadership affects the strengths of PD, D and MD for BG.	What is the relationship between leadership with PD, D and MD for BG?	The stronger the leadership, the higher success rate of PD, D and MD, leading for the stronger BG performance.	0.000	Hypothesis is **ACCEPTED** ($p < 0.01$)	0.000
5	To investigate whether innovation affects the strengths of PD, D and MD for BG.	What is the relationship between innovation with PD, D and MD for BG?	The stronger the innovation, the higher success rate of PD, D and MD, leading for the stronger BG performance.	0.117	Hypothesis is **REJECTED** ($p > 0.05$)	-

a. Dependent Variable: Business Growth (BG) Performance.
b. Independent Variables: Product Development (PD), Diversification (D) and Market Development (MD).
c. Moderating Variables: Leadership and Innovation.

Figure 5.3.1: Research model of business growth performance.



CHAPTER 6: LIMITATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.0 LIMITATIONS

This research had numerous limitations in spite of the insightful implications. The first limitation was related to the collected primary explanatory data from the online survey did not show the impacts of leadership and innovation on the relationship of each business development strategies of product development, diversification and market development individually with the business growth performance. This research straight away studied the impacts of leadership and innovation on the relationship strength between the average reaction of product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance. This was the reason why there were three hypotheses H4 and H5 in Figure 2.9.1. Time constraint was the second limitation causing deeper studies to find the impacts of leadership and innovation on the relationship of each business development strategies of product development, diversification and market development individually with the business growth performance was not possible.

Referring to Figure 2.6.1, the top ten business development drivers could be divided into three levels: high, medium and low based on their percentage gaps. Both leadership and innovation with the percentages of 19-22% were classified as high level. Both organisational culture and human capital development with the percentages of 9-11% were classified as medium level. The remaining six drivers with the percentages of 2-5% were classified as low level. Both organisational culture and human capital development at the medium level were significant and could be studied further in this research as well to verify whether they were also the main drivers affecting the strengths of product development, diversification and market development for business growth. However, this research focused studies of both leadership and innovation only, and this was the third limitation.

The initial plan for this research, it should have four Parts, where Part I was the literature review, Part II was the email interview with 20 experts having more than 10 years of flavour business experience in the food industry of Malaysia and Singapore, Part III was the online survey with 100 employees with minimum 5 years of working experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore, and Part IV was the focus-group interview with 20 senior employees having minimum 10 years of working experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore. The 20 senior employees in the focus-group interview would be split into four focus-groups, where each focus-group would have five participants. The collected secondary exploratory data from literature review, the primary exploratory qualitative data from email interview and the primary explanatory quantitative data from online survey would be shared with those participants in all the four focus-groups, and a same interview questionnaire with 10 open-ended questions would be used for the group discussion. The reason why four times (with five participants) instead of one time (with 20 participants) of focus group interview was suggested because the result comparison among the four focus-group interviews would help to minimize the problem of subjectivity and potential bias in the research through complementarity. The collected data from the focus-group interview would be analysed with NVivo 12 to generate the primary explanatory qualitative data that were strong to further improve the research validity. Unfortunately, the initial planned focus-group interview in Part IV had been deleted from this research due to the pandemic of Covid-19 where face-to-face discussion was restricted, and this was the fourth limitation.

6.1 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, four limitations were highlighted in this research on determinants of the independent variables of product development, diversification and market development that influence the dependent variable of business growth performance, and the moderating variables of leadership and innovation that influence the three independent variables. For the first limitation, it is recommended for future researchers to study further the impacts of leadership and innovation on the relationship strength for each of the product development, diversification and market development individually with the business growth performance. Figure 6.1.1 indicates the recommended hypothesized theoretical framework for future researchers and they can consider to test the below four hypothesis H1 to H6.

H1 The stronger the leadership, the higher the performance of product development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

H2 The stronger the leadership, the higher the performance of diversification, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

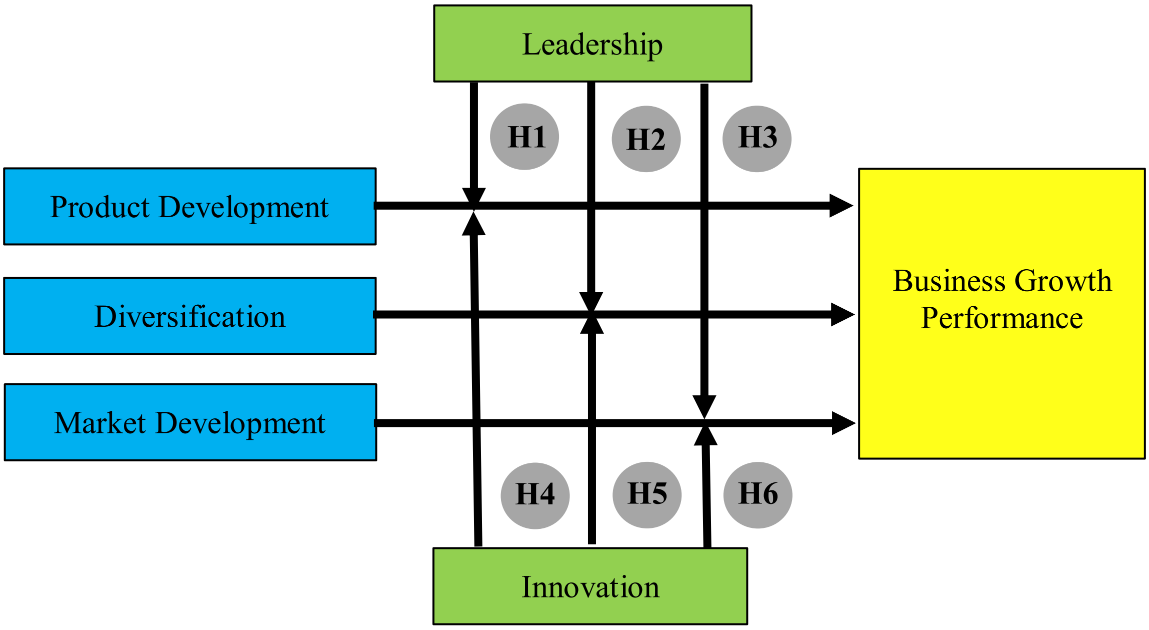
H3 The stronger the leadership, the higher the performance of market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

H4 The stronger the innovation, the higher the performance of product development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

H5 The stronger the innovation, the higher the performance of diversification, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

H6 The stronger the innovation, the higher the performance of market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

Figure 6.1.1: Recommended hypothesized theoretical framework for future researchers to test the impacts of leadership and innovations on the relationship strength between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance.



For the second limitation, future researchers shall consider both organisational culture and human capital development as the next two moderating variables, and study their impacts on the relationship strength for each of the product development, diversification and market development individually with the business growth performance. Figure 6.1.2 indicates the recommended conceptual framework with both new moderator variables of organisational culture and human capital development for future researchers and they can consider to test the below four hypothesis H1 to H6.

H1 The stronger the organisational culture, the higher the performance of product development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

H2 The stronger the organisational culture, the higher the performance of diversification, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

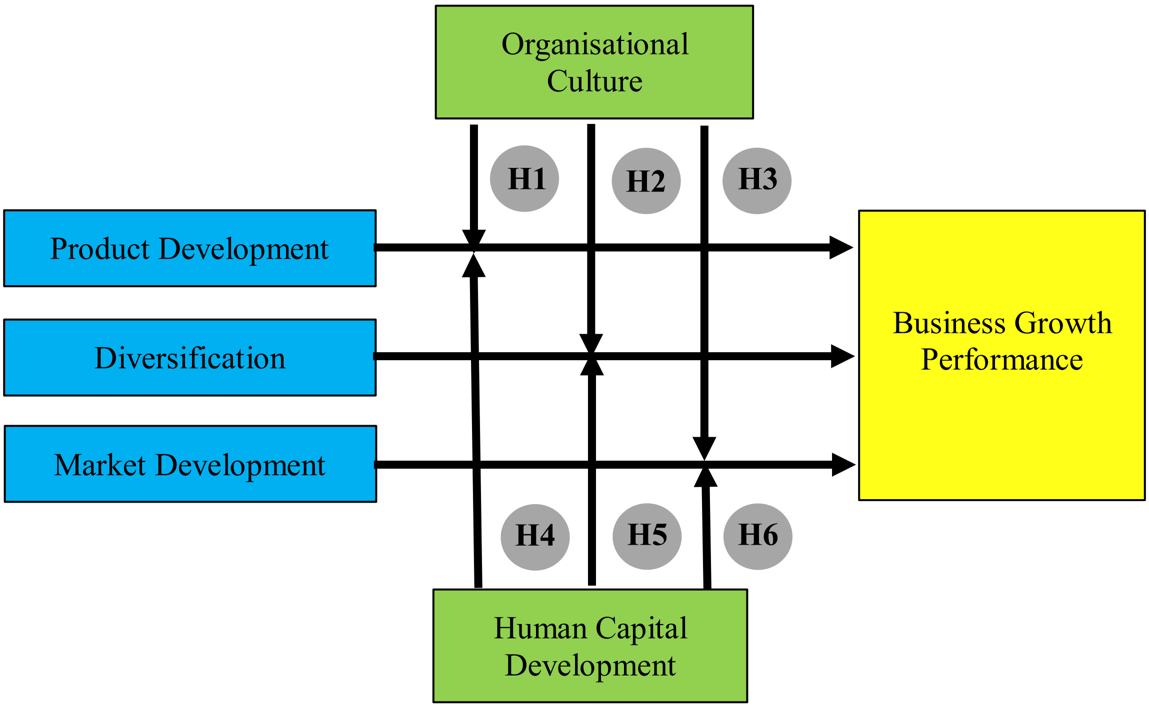
H3 The stronger the organizational culture, the higher the performance of market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

H4 The stronger the human capital development, the higher the performance of product development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

H5 The stronger the human capital development, the higher the performance of diversification, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

H6 The stronger the human capital development, the higher the performance of market development, leading for the stronger business growth performance.

Figure 6.1.2: Recommended hypothesized theoretical framework with the new moderating variables of organisational culture and human capital development for the future research.



For the third limitation, it is recommended for future researchers to include the focus group interview to collect related data for qualitative analysis with NVivo 12 to generate primary explanatory qualitative data to further strengthen the validity and reliability of the research. Besides that, future researchers can consider to run an action research to study further whether the generated research model of business growth performance from this research is reliable in the real business environment, and can be used by GFM to design a strong organiational transformation plan for successful implementation and execution, leading them for business resilience and further business growth. In order to manage the first, third and fourth limitations, more time is required by future researchers for sufficient data collection and analysis. Therefore, for the second limitation, it is recommended for future researchers to ensure sufficient or longer time frame for data collection to ensure consistency and accuracy of the research results.

6.2 CONCLUSION

Business growth is important for the survival and future success of organisations. This research had succeeded in achieving its objectives to study the relationship between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance, and the moderating effect of leadership and innovation to affect the relationship strength between product development, diversification and market development with business growth performance.

Findings from this research supported hypotheses H2, and confirmed diversification lead organisations for business growth. However, the research findings contradicted with hypotheses H1 and H3, and confirmed both product development and market development had no significant relationship with business growth performance, and it did not lead organisations for business growth. The research findings supported hypothesis H4, but not hypothesis H5. The research findings confirmed leadership had the significant moderating effect to drive successful diversification for organisations to achieve business growth, but innovation had no significant moderating effect in driving higher performance of diversification for higher business growth performance. The stronger the leadership, the higher success rate of diversification, which then led organisations for the stronger business growth performance.

The new research model of business growth performance in Figure 5.3.1 together with the collected data from this research are valid and reliable to be applied by GFM to design a strong organisational transformation plan to show the business development strategy of diversification with the driver of strong leadership will help to overcome their seven competitive drivers in Figure 1.0.9 for their business resilience and further business growth. This will lead GFM to achieve their 5-year sales target of USD25.9 million in 2020, and eventually overcoming their crisis of being asked to close down for survival and future success. The new research model of business growth performance and the real case study of GFM are significant and beneficial to other mature organisations from different industries as they will be able to learn and apply them in the real-life business challenges for their business plan design, implementation and execution, leading them for successful diversification for their business resilience and further business growth for survival and future success. Future researches can consider further studies on the impacts of leadership and innovation for each of the product development, diversification and market development individually with the business growth performance, and also consider studies on the empirical link of organisational culture and human capital development to affect the relationship strength between product development, diversification and market development with the business growth performance.

CHAPTER 7: REFERENCES AND BIBLIOGRAPY

7.0 REFERENCES

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CHAPTER 8: APPENDIX
APPENDIX I
PART II: EMAIL INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE (VERSION 1.0)

Many mature organisations today are unable to meet the external demands of a former stage and experience erosion of competitive advantages resulting in decreasing sales and profits (Hanks, 1990; Hanks *et al.,* 1994), and loss of market share and market position (Lester *et al.*, 2003; Miller & Friesen, 1984). This decline stage may end up either negatively for the future organisational existence when it leads to the demise or the loss of independence or it may turn into successful revival. It is important for mature organisations to achieve continuous business growth toward success in the current turbulent, hyper-competitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis (Bergmiller & McCright, 2009). Business growth is important for the survival and future success of mature organisations.

However, most mature organisations today are already in comfort zone to enjoy their past successes, they become less flexible, inactive and not serious in their strategy implementation and execution to drive further business growth (Russo, 2010; Laszlo & Zhexembayeva, 2011; Accenture, 2013; Garza, 2015; McCarly *et al.*, 2011; Wong & Wong, 2014). Mature organisations are facing challenges to maintain business growth, and they need to maintain their competitiveness and viability through continuously initiating and implementing fundamental large-scale changes in the way they operate and do business to adapt the rapid changing of business environment, otherwise they will run the risk going out of business (Buller & Mcevoy, 2016; Bharijoo, 2005; By, 2005; Sachkmann *et al.*, 2009; Biedenbach & Soderholm, 2008).

Today, there are less than 20% of organisations in worldwide are successful in new venture development for long-term business growth (Berry, 2017). Most of them have very good business strategy design and planning, but they are weak in implementation and execution, which eventually cause failures in the new venture development for driving business growth. There is high failure rate reaching over 70% of organisations in worldwide achieving successful new venture development for business growth (Arthur & Hisrich, 2011), over 50% of new ventures in worldwide will fail within five years (Aldrich, 1999).

My name is Siew Kok Chung and I am currently studying for a course Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) in Swansea Business School at University of Wales Trinity Saint David in United Kingdom. I am conducting a research to study the concept of new venture development for business growth with case study of a flavour business in Malaysian food industry. The findings from this research will contribute to organisations mainly in the food industry of Malaysia for learning and application into their business strategy design, implementation and execution to win new venture development to drive business sustainability.

In this email interview, 20 experts with minimum 10 years of flavour business experience in Malaysian food industr are selected and invited for the participation to respond to an interview questionnaire with 10 open-ended questions, and it will take 45 to 60 minutes to complete. All responses will be kept anonymous and no one will be identifiable in the research. Your participation is entirely voluntary and all information will be kept in the strictest confidentially. Your responses are very useful for the research and your participation is highly appreciated.

PARTICIPANT CONSENT:

Participant to complete this section: Please initial each box.

1.	I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.	
2.	I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.	
3.	I agree to take part in the above study.	

QUESTIONS:

1. What do you think about the flavour business in the food industry in Malaysia?

2. In today competitive flavour business in the food industry in Malaysia, many organisations are facing challenges to maintain their continuous sales growth for long-term, what do you think?

3. Is business growth a big topic for today flavour business in the food industry in Malaysia? Why?

4. Why many mature organisations are still not serious with their strategy implementation and execution for further business growth even though they know it is critical and important for their future success?

5. Do you agree that organisations that fail to maintain business growth eventually will run the risk going out of business? Why?

6. New business development will drive business growth, do you agree? Why?

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7. Refer to the below four different types of business development strategy, please number the top three business development strategies in order of importance to you in the choice driving business growth. Number the most important 1, the next 2 and the last one 3. If a business development strategy is out of the top three, please leave blank.

New Business Development Strategy	**Importance**
Market Penetration To sell more of same products or services to same market.	( )
Market Development To identify and develop new market segments, in order to sell more of same products or services to new market.	( )
Product Development To create and sell new products or services that offer new or additional benefits to same market.	( )
Diversification To create and sell new products or services that offer new or additional benefits to new market.	( )

8. Kindly describe how the selected top three new business development strategies will help organisations to drive business growth.

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9. Refer to the below 10 different drivers for business development, please number the top three drivers in order of importance to you in the choice driving in business development for business growth. Number the most important 1, the next 2 and the last one 3. If a driver is out of the top three, please leave blank.

Driver for Business Development	**Importance**	**Drivers for Business Development**	**Importance**
Business Model	( )	Innovation	( )
Business Strategy	( )	Leadership	( )
Crisis	( )	Market Knowledge	( )
Customer	( )	Organisational Culture	( )
Human Capital Development	( )	Technology	( )

10. Kindly describe how the selected top three drivers will help organisations to drive for successful new business development for business growth.

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11. Demographic questionnaire, tick one block only for every question:

Gender	Male	( )
	Female	( )
Age	25 – 39 years old	( )
	40 – 54 years old	( )
	55 – 75 years old	( )
Years of experience in food industry	5 – 10 years	( )
	10 – 15 years	( )
	More than 15 years	( )
Department	Sales & Marketing	( )
	Finance & Accounting	( )
	HR & Administrative	( )
	Technical	( )
	Production	( )
	Procurement	( )
Job Level	Senior Management	( )
	Manager	( )
	Executive	( )
	Non-Executive	( )

ONLINE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (VERSION 1.0)

Many mature organisations today are unable to meet the external demands of a former stage and experience erosion of competitive advantages resulting in decreasing sales and profits (Hanks, 1990; Hanks *et al.,* 1994), and loss of market share and market position (Lester *et al.*, 2003; Miller & Friesen, 1984). This decline stage may end up either negatively for the future organisational existence when it leads to the demise or the loss of independence or it may turn into successful revival. It is important for mature organisations to achieve continuous business growth toward success in the current turbulent, hyper-competitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis (Bergmiller & McCright, 2009). Business growth is important for the survival and future success of mature organisations.

However, most mature organisations today are already in comfort zone to enjoy their past successes, they become less flexible, inactive and not serious in their strategy implementation and execution to drive further business growth (Russo, 2010; Laszlo & Zhexembayeva, 2011; Accenture, 2013; Garza, 2015; McCarly *et al.*, 2011; Wong & Wong, 2014). Mature organisations are facing challenges to maintain business growth, and they need to maintain their competitiveness and viability through continuously initiating and implementing fundamental large-scale changes in the way they operate and do business to adapt the rapid changing of business environment, otherwise they will run the risk going out of business (Buller & Mcevoy, 2016; Bharijoo, 2005; By, 2005; Sachkmann *et al.*, 2009; Biedenbach & Soderholm, 2008).

Today, there are less than 20% of organisations in worldwide are successful in new venture development for long-term business growth (Berry, 2017). Most of them have very good business strategy design and planning, but they are weak in implementation and execution, which eventually cause failures in the new venture development for driving business growth. There is high failure rate reaching over 70% of organisations in worldwide achieving successful new venture development for business growth (Arthur & Hisrich, 2011), over 50% of new ventures in worldwide will fail within five years (Aldrich, 1999).

My name is Siew Kok Chung and I am currently studying for a course Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) in Swansea Business School at University of Wales Trinity Saint David in United Kingdom. I am conducting a research to study the concept of new venture development for business growth with case study of a flavour business in Malaysian food industry. The findings from this research will contribute to organisations mainly in the food industry of Malaysia for learning and application into their business strategy design, implementation and execution to win new venture development to drive business sustainability.

In this online survey, 100 employees with minimum five years of working experience in Malaysian food industry are selected and invited for the participation to respond to an online survey questionnaire with two open-ended questions and 36 closed Likert 1-4 scale questions, and it will take 20 to 30 minutes to complete. All responses will be kept anonymous and no one will be identifiable in the research. Your participation is entirely voluntary and all information will be kept in the strictest confidentially. Your responses are very useful for the research and your participation is highly appreciated.

PARTICIPANT CONSENT:

Participant to complete this section: Please initial each box.

1.	I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.	
2.	I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.	
3.	I agree to take part in the above study.	

QUESTIONS:

SECTION (1):

1. Business growth is critical and important for the future success of an organisation, do you agree? Why?

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2. New business development will drive business growth, do you agree? Why?

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SECTION (2):

For each statement, please read carefully and tick the box which best describes how strongly you agree and disagree with each statement.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**

No.	Questions	1	2	3	4
1	Business growth is important for the survival and future success of mature organisations.				
2	Organisations achieve business growth when they achieve growth, stability, profitability and efficiency.				
3	Business growth involves the expansion of a business, its markets, products, services and size.				
4	Organisations with a healthy core business will have available financial resources, capable and competent management team, and motivated employees for the reorganisation process.				
5	New product launching will trigger sales growth.				

6	Consumers are looking for products with new or additional benefits to satisfy their needs.				
7	Every product has its own product life cycle in market and can be replaced anytime by new product.				
8	Consumers will not stay loyal for a same product forever, they will try new products.				
9	The bigger the market size, the higher the sales growth.				
10	It is easier to find business opportunities in a bigger market.				
11	Consumers having higher earning power and purchasing power will buy more products.				
12	Market environment will influence a business performance. It is important for organisations to study the market environment first before they design any go-to-market strategy.				
13	Organisations shall not focus only on existing business for too long time. They need to continue looking for new business opportunities for further business growth.				
14	A business in maturity stage business life cycle will struggle for further growth and will face high risk of sales erosion.				
15	Blue ocean strategy (market-creating moves) is more impactful than red ocean strategy (market-competing move) for long-term business growth.				
16	Organisations focusing on creating and capturing new demand, and not fighting over existing customers will have competitive advantage in business development.				
17	Employees working in an organisation with clear stated vision, mission, objectives, core values, business strategy plan and key performance indicators (KPIs) are more motivated and have higher productivity and performance than the employees working in an organisation with nothings.				
18	Limitation in job enlargement and empowerment for employees will cause the loss of motivation and confidence in employees.				

19	Employees' psychological growth is related with the further growth of employees' productivity and performance.				
20	Leaders play important roles for the success in business development.				
21	Research and development play important roles for continuous business development.				
22	Organisations with higher investment in innovation will get higher chance in seeking for potential new business opportunities.				
23	Continuously create new processes for manufacturing products or delivering services is important for continuous business development.				
24	Innovative companies will attract better workforce and more customers.				

SECTION (3):

For each statement, please read carefully and tick the box which best describes how strongly you agree and disagree with each statement.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**

No.	Questions	1	2	3	4
1	Mature organisations in Malaysia are facing decreasing of sales and profits, and loss of market share and position because they are unable to meet the external demands of a former stage and experience erosion of competitive advantages.				
2	Most mature organisations in Malaysia are already in comfort zone to enjoy their past successes, they become less flexible, inactive and not serious in their strategy implementation and execution to drive further business growth.				

3	Majority of organisations in Malaysia today are not capable and active in new product launching to compete for continuous business growth.				
4	Most organisations in Malaysia are failed in new product creation and launching for higher sales growth.				
5	Many organisations in Malaysia are failed in strategic identification and development of new market segments for higher sales growth.				
6	Organisations in Malaysia have limited knowledge and experience in market development strategy for continuous business growth.				
7	Creating a new product for a new market is a very risky business plan for the organisations in Malaysia.				
8	Organisations in Malaysia are not ready yet to diversify their business for further business growth.				
9	Organisations in Malaysia have been managed using the same leadership styles without changing for many years.				
10	Employees today reluctant to accept challenging jobs, they are scare to make decision and bear responsibility on their jobs.				
11	Employees who have been working on the same repeated job roles for very long time will not accept the change of their job roles.				
12	Organisations in Malaysia do not believe that innovation will bring new business potential for them, and they are not ready yet to invest big money for research and development.				

SECTION (4):

Demographic questionnaire, tick one block only for every question:

Gender	Male	( )
	Female	( )
Age	25 – 39 years old	( )
	40 – 54 years old	( )
	55 – 75 years old	( )
Years of experience in food industry	5 – 10 years	( )
	10 – 15 years	( )
	More than 15 years	( )
Department	Sales & Marketing	( )
	Finance & Accounting	( )
	HR & Administrative	( )
	Technical	( )
	Production	( )
	Procurement	( )
Job Level	Senior Management	( )
	Manager	( )
	Executive	( )
	Non-Executive	( )

APPENDIX II
EMAIL INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE (VERSION 2.0)

Many mature organisations today are unable to meet the external demands of a former stage and experience erosion of competitive advantages, resulting in decreasing sales and profits (Hanks, 1990; Hanks *et al.,* 1994), loss of market share and market position (Lester *et al.*, 2003; Miller & Friesen, 1984). Those mature organisations are already in comfort zone to enjoy their past successes, they become less flexible and inactive in the business development for driving further business growth (Russo, 2010; Laszlo & Zhexembayeva, 2011; Accenture, 2013; Garza, 2015; McCarly *et al.*, 2011; Wong & Wong, 2014).

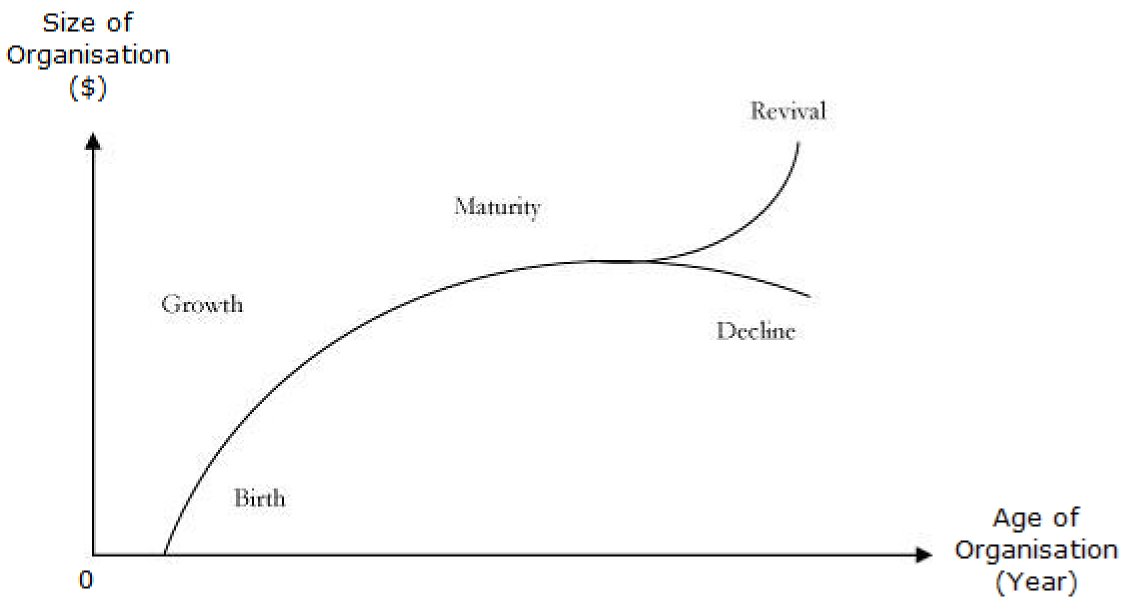
Mature organisations need to maintain their competitiveness and viability through continuously initiating and implementing fundamental large-scale changes in the way they operate and do business to adapt the rapid changing of business environment, otherwise they will run the risk going out of business (Buller & Mcevoy, 2016; Bharijoo, 2005; By, 2005; Sachkmann *et al.*, 2009; Biedenbach & Soderholm, 2008). It is important for mature organisations to achieve continuous business growth toward success in the current turbulent, hyper-competitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis (Bergmiller & McCright, 2009). Business growth is important for the survival and future success of mature organisations.

Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory in Figure 2.0.1 indicates the five stages: birth, growth, maturity, revival and decline of a business life cycle. Mature organisations are defined as organisations at the maturity stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory, ordering from an ending growth to start of a decline due to decreasing innovativeness (ability to renew) and increasing formalisation turning them into the bureaucracy full of political struggles (Mintzberg, 1984). At this stage, the formalisation and control through bureaucracy are the norm for mature organisations (Quinn & Cameron, 1983) and their top management team will focus on planning and strategy, leaving daily operations to middle managers (Daft & Weick, 1984). The competitive advantages of mature organisations will start to slowly erode and they will enter either the revival stage to reinvent their business or the decline stage to struggle with the need of a change for business resilience and growth (Mintzberg, 1984).

Mature organisations live on past successes, they have passed survival test at birth stage and growth stage, growing to a point that they may seek to protect what they have gained instead of targeting new territory (Dufour *et al.,* 2018). At the decline stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory, organisational members become more concerned with their personal goals than they are with organisational goals (Mintzberg, 1984). This decline stage may end up either negatively for the future organisational existence when it leads to the demise or the loss of independence or it may turn into successful revival.

At the revival stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory, mature organisations will present a renewed focus on exploration of new possibilities to return to a leaner time with collaboration and teamwork to foster innovation and creativity through the use of a matrix structure and decision-making which is very much decentralised (Miller & Friesen, 1984). At this stage, mature organisations may adapt M-form structure to keep both their old and new business lines separated from each other, and new resources such as new people skilled in R&D, engineering, planning or performance analysis are also brought in to help the revival to happen for business resilience and further growth (Miller & Friesen, 1984; Hanks, 1990; Hanks *et al.*, 1994).

<u>Figure 1.0: Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory.</u>



Source: Miller & Friesen (1984)

Today, there are less than 20% of mature organisations in worldwide are successful in the business development for continuous business growth and survival (Berry, 2017). Most of them have very good business strategy design and planning. There are over 50% of new business fail within five years and about one-third of all new organisations fail within the first few years of operation in the business development, while another significant percentage fail within four years (Barringer & Gresock, 2008). There are high failure rate reaching over 70% for the new business development (Arthur & Hisrich, 2011).

My name is Siew Kok Chung and I am currently studying for a course Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) in Swansea Business School at University of Wales Trinity Saint David in United Kingdom. I am conducting a research to study the moderating effect of leadership and innovation on the relationship between product development, diversification, market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations. This research will involve a critical instance case study of a flavour business of food industry in Malaysia. Findings from this research will be useful for mature organisations to design their business strategy in order to achieve successful product development, diversification and market development for continuous business growth for their survival and future success.

In this email interview, 20 experts with minimum 10 years of flavour business experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore are selected and invited for the participation. The participants are requested to answer an interview questionnaire with 10 open-ended questions, and it will take 45 to 60 minutes to complete. All responses will be kept anonymous and no one will be identifiable in the research. Your participation is entirely voluntary and all information will be kept in the strictest confidentially. Your responses are very useful for the research and your participation is highly appreciated.

PARTICIPANT CONSENT:

Participant to complete this section: Please initial each box.

1.	I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.	
2.	I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.	
3.	I agree to take part in the above study.	

QUESTIONS:

1. What do you think about the flavour business in the food industry of Malaysia?

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2. In today competitive flavour business in the food industry of Malaysia, many mature organisations are facing challenges to maintain their continuous sales growth for long-term, what do you think?

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3. Is business growth a big topic for today flavour business in the food industry of Malaysia? Why?

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4. Why many mature organisations are still not serious with their strategy implementation and execution for further business growth even though they know it is critical and important for their future success?

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5. Do you agree that organisations that fail to maintain business growth eventually will run the risk going out of business? Why?

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6. New business development will drive business growth, do you agree? Why?

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7. Referring to the below four different types of business development strategy, please number the top three business development strategies in order of importance to you in the choice driving business growth. Number the most important as 1, the next 2 and the last one 3. If the business development strategy is out of the top three, please leave blank.

Business Development Strategy	**Importance**
Market Penetration To sell more of same products or services to same market.	( )
Market Development To identify and develop new market segments, in order to sell more of same products or services to new market.	( )
Product Development To create and sell new products or services that offer new or additional benefits to same market.	( )
Diversification To create and sell new products or services that offer new or additional benefits to new market.	( )

8. Kindly describe how the selected top three business development strategies will help organisations to drive business growth.

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9. Referring to the below 10 different drivers for business development, please number the top three drivers in order of importance to you in the choice driving business development for business growth. Number the most important 1, the next 2 and the last one 3. If a driver is out of the top three, please leave blank.

Driver for New Business Development	**Importance**	**Drivers for New Business Development**	**Importance**
Business Model	( )	Innovation	( )
Business Strategy	( )	Leadership	( )
Crisis	( )	Market Knowledge	( )
Customer	( )	Organisational Culture	( )
Human Capital Development	( )	Technology	( )

10. Kindly describe how the selected top three drivers will help organisations to drive for successful business development for business growth.

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11. Demographic questionnaire, tick one block only for every question:

Gender	Male	( )
	Female	( )
Age	25 – 39 years old	( )
	40 – 54 years old	( )
	55 – 75 years old	( )
Years of experience in food industry	5 – 10 years	( )
	10 – 15 years	( )
	More than 15 years	( )
Department	Sales & Marketing	( )
	Finance & Accounting	( )
	HR & Administrative	( )
	Technical	( )
	Production	( )
	Procurement	( )
Job Level	Senior Management	( )
	Manager	( )
	Executive	( )
	Non-Executive	( )

APPENDIX III

ONLINE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (VERSION 3.0)

Many mature organisations today are unable to meet the external demands of a former stage and experience erosion of competitive advantages, resulting in decreasing sales and profits (Hanks, 1990; Hanks *et al.,* 1994), loss of market share and market position (Lester *et al.*, 2003; Miller & Friesen, 1984). Those mature organisations are already in comfort zone to enjoy their past successes, they become less flexible and inactive in the business development for driving further business growth (Russo, 2010; Laszlo & Zhexembayeva, 2011; Accenture, 2013; Garza, 2015; McCarly *et al.*, 2011; Wong & Wong, 2014).

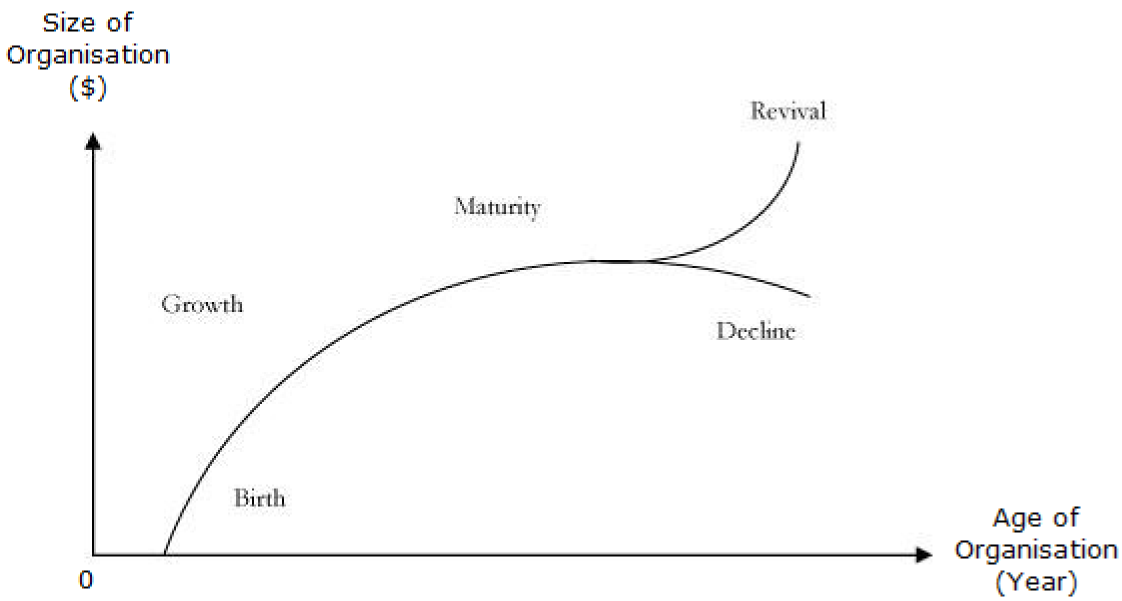
Mature organisations need to maintain their competitiveness and viability through continuously initiating and implementing fundamental large-scale changes in the way they operate and do business to adapt the rapid changing of business environment, otherwise they will run the risk going out of business (Buller & Mcevoy, 2016; Bharijoo, 2005; By, 2005; Sachkmann *et al.*, 2009; Biedenbach & Soderholm, 2008). It is important for mature organisations to achieve continuous business growth toward success in the current turbulent, hyper-competitive and complex business environment especially when facing a catastrophic business crisis (Bergmiller & McCright, 2009). Business growth is important for the survival and future success of mature organisations.

Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory in Figure 2.0.1 indicates the five stages: birth, growth, maturity, revival and decline of a business life cycle. Mature organisations are defined as organisations at the maturity stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory, ordering from an ending growth to start of a decline due to decreasing innovativeness (ability to renew) and increasing formalisation turning them into the bureaucracy full of political struggles (Mintzberg, 1984). At this stage, the formalisation and control through bureaucracy are the norm for mature organisations (Quinn & Cameron, 1983) and their top management team will focus on planning and strategy, leaving daily operations to middle managers (Daft & Weick, 1984). The competitive advantages of mature organisations will start to slowly erode and they will enter either the revival stage to reinvent their business or the decline stage to struggle with the need of a change for business resilience and growth (Mintzberg, 1984).

Mature organisations live on past successes, they have passed survival test at birth stage and growth stage, growing to a point that they may seek to protect what they have gained instead of targeting new territory (Dufour *et al.,* 2018). At the decline stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory, organisational members become more concerned with their personal goals than they are with organisational goals (Mintzberg, 1984). This decline stage may end up either negatively for the future organisational existence when it leads to the demise or the loss of independence or it may turn into successful revival.

At the revival stage in Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory, mature organisations will present a renewed focus on exploration of new possibilities to return to a leaner time with collaboration and teamwork to foster innovation and creativity through the use of a matrix structure and decision-making which is very much decentralised (Miller & Friesen, 1984). At this stage, mature organisations may adapt M-form structure to keep both their old and new business lines separated from each other, and new resources such as new people skilled in R&D, engineering, planning or performance analysis are also brought in to help the revival to happen for business resilience and further growth (Miller & Friesen, 1984; Hanks, 1990; Hanks *et al.*, 1994).

Figure 1.0: Miller & Friesen's Organisational Life Cycle Theory.



Source: Miller & Friesen (1984)

Today, there are less than 20% of mature organisations in worldwide are successful in the business development for continuous business growth and survival (Berry, 2017). Most of them have very good business strategy design and planning. There are over 50% of new business fail within five years and about one-third of all new organisations fail within the first few years of operation in the business development, while another significant percentage fail within four years (Barringer & Gresock, 2008). There are high failure rate reaching over 70% for the new business development (Arthur & Hisrich, 2011).

My name is Siew Kok Chung and I am currently studying for a course Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) in Swansea Business School at University of Wales Trinity Saint David in United Kingdom. I am conducting a research to study the moderating effect of leadership and innovation on the relationship between product development, diversification, market development with the business growth performance of mature organisations. This research will involve a critical instance case study of a flavour business of food industry in Malaysia. Findings from this research will be useful for mature organisations to design their business strategy in order to achieve successful product development, diversification and market development for continuous business growth for their survival and future success.

In this online survey, 100 employees with minimum five years of working experience in the food industry of Malaysia or Singapore are selected and invited for the participation. The participants are requested to answer an online survey questionnaire with two open-ended questions and 12 closed Likert 1-4 scale questions, and it will take 20 to 30 minutes to complete. All responses will be kept anonymous and no one will be identifiable in the research. Your participation is entirely voluntary and all information will be kept in the strictest confidentially. Your responses are very useful for the research and your participation is highly appreciated.

PARTICIPANT CONSENT:

Participant to complete this section: Please initial each box.

1.	I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.	
2.	I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.	
3.	I agree to take part in the above study.	

QUESTIONS:

SECTION (1):

1. Business growth is critical and important for the future success of organisations, do you agree? Why?

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2. New business development will drive business growth, do you agree? Why?

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SECTION (2):

For each statement, please read carefully and tick the box which best describes how strongly you agree and disagree with each statement.

Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**

No.	**Questions**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1	A mature business will struggle for further growth and will face high risk of sales erosion.				
2	Business growth performance is linked to the survival and future success of mature organisations.				
3	New product launching will trigger sales growth.				
4	Every product has its own product life cycle in market and possible be replaced by new products.				
5	The bigger the market size, the higher the sales growth.				

6	It is easier to find business opportunities in a bigger market.				
7	Blue ocean strategy (market-creating moves) is more impactful than red ocean strategy (market-competing move) for the long-term business growth.				
8	Business diversification to create new demands and capture new customers will drive sales growth.				
9	Most mature organisations have been managed using the same leadership styles without changing for many years.				
10	Limitation in job enlargement and empowerment for employees will cause the loss of motivation and confidence in employees.				
11	Organisations with higher investment in innovation will get higher chance in seeking for potential new business opportunities.				
12	Research and development play important roles in the business development.				

SECTION (3):

Demographic questionnaire, tick one block only for every question:

Gender	Male	( )
	Female	( )
Age	25 – 39 years old	( )
	40 – 54 years old	( )
	55 – 75 years old	( )
Years of experience in food industry	5 – 10 years	( )
	10 – 15 years	( )
	More than 15 years	( )
Department	Sales & Marketing	( )
	Finance & Accounting	( )
	HR & Administrative	( )
	Technical	( )
	Production	( )
	Procurement	( )
Job Level	Senior Management	( )
	Manager	( )
	Executive	( )
	Non-Executive	( )