

1
3 AN ASCENDANT VIEW OF HUMAN
5 RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AS A
7 CRITICAL CONTENT DIMENSION
9 IN NEW VENTURE STRATEGY
11

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15

17 **ABSTRACT**

19 *Research on strategy in new ventures has increasingly drawn upon*
21 *resource-based theory, and thus has emphasized intangible factors that*
23 *confer sustainable competitive advantage. These include dynamic and*
25 *combinative capabilities, networks, routines, and knowledge as resources*
27 *of new ventures. Yet antecedent to every one of these intangible resources*
29 *is the management of the venture. But research has seldom considered*
management and the human resources of new ventures as a critical
dimension of strategy content. This paper develops such an argument, and
explores the performance contribution of human resources as strategy
content in a longitudinal study of technology new ventures.

31 Research on strategy content in new ventures has historically emphasized
33 competitive strategy concepts originating from industrial economics. These
35 include industry conditions that encourage or forestall new entry such as
barriers to entry and industry rivalry dynamics (Bain, 1968; Caves & Porter,

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1 1977; Dean, Meyer, & DeCastro, 1993), type of generic strategy such
as pursuing a low-cost or differentiated approach (Ireland & Hitt, 1997;
3 Porter, 1985; Sandberg & Hofer, 1987; Shepherd & Shanley, 1999), speed of
strategy such as first mover or rapid follower approach (Goodman &
5 Lawless, 1994; Kim, 1999), and scope of strategy such as whether a new
venture should be broad or narrow (Jelinek & Schoonhoven, 1990).

7 However, the nature of competitive environments today means that
strategy for new ventures is now significantly more complex than this
9 customary array of competitive strategy dimensions might suggest. This is
true for two reasons in particular. First, technological revolution and
11 increasing globalization present constantly evolving sets of conditions that
organizations confront, including blurring of industry boundaries, rapidly
13 escalating competition and strategic maneuvering, heightened innovation,
and an inexorable march toward the frontier of price/quality combinations
15 increasingly expected by customers (D'Aveni, 1994). New competitive
dynamics such as these will lead to the more rapid obsolescence of existing
17 products and services and to the faster erosion of competitive position based
upon existing strategy and existing models of business (Goodman &
19 Lawless, 1994; Jelinek & Schoonhoven, 1990). Second, the progression
through organizational life cycle stages ensures that new technology
21 ventures continually confront new strategic challenges (Kazanjian, 1988;
West & Meyer, 1997).

23 Consequently, more recent research on strategy in new ventures has
focused on internal dimensions that leverage the resource-based view
25 (Barney, 1991). These studies highlight the importance of identifying and
building resource positions for effective strategy (Brush, Greene, & Hart,
27 2001; Lichtenstein & Brush, 2001), especially knowledge resources (West &
Noel, Forthcoming; Wiklund & Shepherd, 2003), the beneficial role of
29 information processing (Simon, Houghton, & Lumpkin, 2007) and
networking (West & Meyer, 1997), the capabilities for combining resources
31 (Alvarez & Busenitz, 2001), and dynamically developing new resources
(Gilbert, McDougall, & Audretsch, 2006).

33 Together, these more recent perspectives suggest that performance of new
ventures depends critically on dimensions of strategy that are related to
35 managers and management. Management must not only organize and act
based upon the existing stage of firm development, but must also identify
37 and navigate through dynamic changes occurring both internally and
externally. Firms must attract and retain managers who are capable of
39 handling these kinds of complex undertakings, and must engage in a set of
human resource practices that align with and support the increasingly

1 complex nature of the organizational tasks. Where new ventures
lack accumulated physical and financial slack (Cyert & March, 1992;
3 Stinchcombe, 1965), they must draw upon a well of human resource
potential to maximize long-term potential and performance.

5 Thus an area of new venture strategy that demands top management's
attention is that of human resource management as a critical strategic
7 dimension affecting firm performance (Welbourne & Andrews, 1996). The
relationship of strategic human resource management (SHRM) to the overall
9 organizational outcomes of interest to strategy researchers and practitioners,
such as firm performance or survival (Lundy, 1994; Welbourne & Andrews,
11 1996), should be particularly strong for new ventures.

Unfortunately, little serious research has been conducted which examines
13 the importance of human resource factors in smaller firms (Katz, Aldrich,
Welbourne, & Williams, 2000), and there has been "even less research
15 focusing on the relationship between strategy, human resource practices,
and small firm performance" (Chandler & McEvoy, 2000, p. 44). This is
17 especially surprising for new ventures in light of the theoretical weight
explicitly and implicitly placed on this domain within various models of new
19 venture development. Academics often use the Timmons (1994) model in
their entrepreneurship classes, a model which in fact places "management"
21 at the top of the triangle. This is an emphasis that is also prominent
in venture capitalists' assessments of a new venture's potential (Cyr,
23 Johnson, & Welbourne, 2000; Zacharakis & Meyer, 1998). Furthermore,
theoretical models that form the basis of research studies both generally
25 and specifically highlight complexity and the human side of organizing
as a dimension of strategic importance for new ventures as they start-up
27 (Welbourne & Cyr, 1999; West, 2007) and as they develop (Barney &
Wright, 1998; Milliman, Von Glinow, & Nathan, 1991).

29 This paper, therefore, investigates the human resource management
factor as a critical *strategic* dimension of new venture development. The
31 paper first draws upon the resource-based view to illustrate the theoretical
connections that exist between human resources and strategy in new
33 ventures. Next we provide a brief review of research on human resource
management as a strategic dimension, and highlight how the concepts
35 of SHRM fit and flexibility (Milliman et al., 1991; Wright & Snell, 1998)
apply to new ventures. Hypotheses are offered on the importance of human
37 resource management as a key strategic dimension, and on the effects on
performance of the interaction of SHRM with both strategy and organiza-
39 tional development stage. Longitudinal data is collected from 120 top
managers in technology-based firms over a 2-year period. We find evidence

1 that: (1) strategy is a multi-dimensional concept going well beyond
2 traditional competitive strategy concepts; (2) human resource management
3 is a dimension that grows in strategic importance as firms develop; and
4 (3) fit between human resource management and both strategy and stage
5 of firm development is positively related to firm performance. A concluding
6 section discusses implications of the study for strategic management of new
7 ventures.

9

11 **THE IMPORTANCE OF HUMAN RESOURCES** 12 **IN NEW VENTURES**

13

14 Resource-based theory is a valuable perspective for understanding new
15 venture strategy, because the perspective provides a strong foundation for
16 how initial organizing activities impact the long-term success of new
17 ventures. There are two facets of the theory that support this argument and
18 are particularly appropriate for its application to new ventures in this
19 discussion. First is its focus on generating sustainable competitive advantage,
20 and second is its recent focus on the management-related and -generated
21 resources in entrepreneurial situations.

22 Attention to sustainability is the fundamental reason for invoking resource-
23 based theory as an explanatory mechanism in new venture development.
24 Successful new ventures are those which are able to create value while at the
25 same time insulating themselves from competition. Without the benefits that
26 accrue from valuable assets that are rare, inimitable, non-tradable, and non-
27 substitutable, anything that a new venture might do could be competed away
28 by competitors both large and small. Thus, if sustainability of its competitive
29 position is of concern to the entrepreneur and the new venture investors,
30 it must prompt the new venture to focus on resources at its very inception
31 (West & Bamford, 2005).

32 A dimension of resource-based theory receiving considerable attention
33 is the dynamic development of resource positions over time. As competition
34 and contexts evolve, firms must consider the development of new or
35 enhanced resource positions. This has led to the development of the
36 dynamic capabilities argument (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997), and to the
37 exploration of investments in either complementary or secondary resource
38 positions by firms (Peteraf, 1993). For new ventures, the issue is different.
39 New ventures by definition come into being at first as only an idea about a
potential market opportunity and possess no resources of the type described

1 in the literature (Greene, Brush, & Brown, 1997). Thus a key challenge for
2 a new venture is the development of an initial resource position. Then, as it
3 grows, the challenge is the development of a broader set of resources. Since
4 new ventures confront a continuously shifting landscape of life cycle
5 problems (Kazanjian, 1988) as well as evolving competition and strategy
6 (Dess, Lumpkin, & Covin, 1997), they need to continuously adapt their
7 resource positions in order to meet the evolving strategic challenges
8 (Greene & Brown, 1997). This suggests that sustainable new ventures are
9 likely to follow a path of resource development, starting with nothing and
10 somehow progressing over time to a broad set that relates to new challenges
11 they confront.

12 The new venture's need for initial resources, as well as evolving sets of
13 resources over time, prompts basic questions about where such resources
14 come from and how are they developed. Previous research highlights the
15 critical role that human resources play in this resource acquisition and
16 development process. Penrose (1959) explicitly mentions entrepreneurial
17 capabilities of management as key to understanding how the firm attains
18 growth and competitive position. Management's key role is to identify and
19 evaluate resources (Barney, 1991), and then decide which resources to invest
20 in and how to utilize them (Castanias & Helfat, 1991). Then, to the extent
21 that managers are more adept in organizing and integrating underlying
22 resources, new ventures will be able to compete more effectively (Kogut &
23 Zander, 1992).

24 The types of resources that are important in new ventures also point to
25 the critical instrumental role that human resources plays. These types
26 include intangible categories of knowledge, networks, and combinatorial
27 capabilities. A new venture's strategy – and thus its performance – depends
28 upon the knowledge the firm has about its market, its opportunity, and
29 appropriate conduct to take advantage of that opportunity. Building on the
30 Cooper, Gimeno-Gascon and Woo (1994) finding that links relevant
31 knowledge to new venture survival, three types of procedural knowledge
32 (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2003) are believed to be especially important:
33 knowledge about operating in a specific industry, knowledge about starting
34 up a new venture, and knowledge about managing a particular type of
35 strategic approach (West & Noel, Forthcoming). West and Bamford (2005)
36 find that two types of procedural knowledge – about starting up, and
37 about managing growth – are the most important resources present in new
38 technology ventures. The presence and importance of managerial knowledge
39 resources in new ventures helps to answer two questions about the new
40 venture process. Since as mentioned above new ventures by definition begin

1 with no resources, it provides perspective on how such ventures move from
2 nothing to something: the first resources developed by a new venture are
3 knowledge resources brought into the venture by the founder and
4 management team. It also provides perspective on the evolution of resource
5 positions, supporting the model suggested by Brush et al. (2001) who show
6 how knowledge resources can then be used instrumentally to acquire and
7 develop additional resources.

8 Managerial knowledge is also central in how new ventures address the
9 dynamic capabilities criteria that is so important to sustaining competitive
10 advantage once the new venture has been launched and begins to grow.
11 Resource-based theory also holds that competitive advantage arises from an
12 aggregation of resources (Grant, 1991; Prahalad & Hamel, 1990). Penrose
13 (1959), in fact, views the firm as a collection of resources with each resource
14 representing a bundle of potential services to be offered by the firm. Because
15 Penrose (1959) discusses the capabilities of management to coordinate the
16 development and use of different resources as key to understanding how
17 the firm attains growth, it further implies the interdependence of resources
18 and supports her contention that resource bundles are important. As the
19 venture grows and encounters more complex problems, both internally and
20 externally, competitive advantage arises to the extent that managers create
21 higher order organizing principles (Kogut & Zander, 1992) for the assembly
22 and integration of underlying resources. One manifestation of this is the
23 development of value-creating routines and procedures, which essentially
24 represent the articulation of previously tacit operating knowledge (Grant,
25 1996; Winter, 1987). For these reasons, Alvarez and Busenitz (2001) hold
26 that the process of combining resources is itself an important resource for
27 entrepreneurial firms.

28 Another intangible resource that has been the subject of significant new
29 venture research is that of networks and the social or information capital
30 that networking produces (e.g., Aldrich & Zimmer, 1986; Birley, 1985;
31 Dubini & Aldrich, 1991; Johannisson, 2000). The information benefits to
32 new venture managers who bridge “structural holes” between different
33 network clusters are especially valuable (Burt, 1997; Rogers & Kincaid,
34 1981), enabling access to relevant knowledge that they cannot gain through
35 their own experience or regular contacts. This information may assist them
36 in their efforts to start and grow the company, as well as in the extent to
37 which they are able to identify new opportunities.

38 The various terms used to describe this constellation of resources –
39 dynamic capabilities, combinative capabilities, organizing principles, knowl-
edge, networking, and routines – all fundamentally refer to what it is that

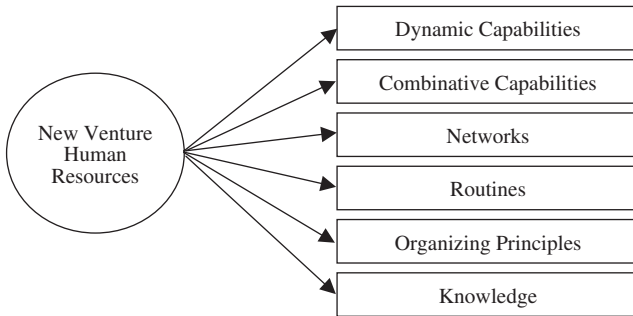


Fig. 1. Human Resources as Antecedent to Critical Strategic Resources.

human resources bring to the new venture to develop its strategic position (Fig. 1). Though previous research elevates these types of resources as the foundation for a new venture’s strategy leading to sustainable competitive advantage, they are all processes and activities that spring from the human resources component. The strategic foundation of the new venture, therefore, depends on a strong human resources component.

HYPOTHESES ABOUT HUMAN RESOURCES

SHRM and Strategy

SHRM is a concept that integrates traditional human resource management within a firm’s overall strategic planning and implementation, by fundamentally incorporating human resources with other physical, financial, and technological resources in the setting of goals and solving complex organizational problems (Legnick-Hall & Legnick-Hall, 1988). SHRM also emphasizes the implementation of a set of policies and practices that will build employee pool of skills, knowledge, and abilities (Jackson & Schuler, 1995) which are relevant to strategic goals. Thus a larger variety and more complete set of solutions for solving organizational problems are provided (Legnick-Hall & Legnick-Hall, 1988), and the likelihood that business goals of the organization will be attained is increased (Mechelin, 1996).

In order for SHRM to be effective, human resource dimensions must be effectively integrated with all phases of the strategic planning process in order to maximize benefit to the organization (Swiercz, 1995). SHRM

1 includes both higher-level organizational dimensions as well as operational-
2 level action dimensions. Organizational dimensions of SHRM include
3 such items as reflection in the mission statement, appointment of an officer
4 responsible for the function, a commitment to full-time employees, and
5 corporate support for training programs (Welbourne, 1997). SHRM
6 operational activities that collectively contribute to the achievement of
7 the strategic objectives include team-based job designs, creating a flexible
8 workforce, and implementing employee empowerment processes (Huselid,
9 Jackson, & Schulman, 1997). Through these practices, it can be noted that –
10 unlike traditional HRM – the SHRM perspective values employees as
11 strategic assets (Bennett, Ketchen, & Schultz, 1998; Welbourne, 1997) that
12 directly impact strategic effectiveness and performance, rather than as only
13 factors with remote mediated effects.

14 Aside from actively incorporating human resource considerations within
15 overall business strategy, Tokesky and Kornides (1994) propose other
16 responsibilities of SHRM practice that are related to strategic management.
17 Implementing SHRM activity involves careful analysis for the business
18 of the socio-political environment. For the human resource function, this
19 entails environmental scanning and watching trends (organizational,
20 government regulations, demographic, social, and cultural) within the
21 environment that can have an impact on the new venture. These might
22 include, for example, health insurance legislation affecting small business or
23 restrictions on the employment of foreign technology workers. SHRM also
24 involves analyzing internal human resource practices for strategic contribu-
25 tions, such as effectiveness of innovation efforts or ability to lower costs.
26 Human resource managers whose perspectives have been incorporated into
27 strategic planning can more successfully attend to the strategic goals of the
28 organization. In other words, strategic human resource managers can more
29 carefully attune employee governance, incentives, and contributions to fit
30 the business strategy. Another important function of SHRM is organiza-
31 tional analysis and design, where strategic human resource managers are
32 depended upon to work out important organizational-design recommenda-
33 tions that will support the company's direction. Finally, due to increasing
34 market competition and hostility, SHRM focuses on international human
35 resource understanding as well as domestic comprehension (Milliman et al.,
36 1991; Tokesky & Kornides, 1994). These practices assist SHRM teams
37 in creating human resource practices and policies which are not easily
38 replicated and consequently may lead to competitive advantage (Barney &
39 Wright, 1998; Huselid et al., 1997).

1 Research has found evidence to support a link between SHRM and
2 competitive advantage. For example, firms that offer domestic partner
3 benefits increase the likelihood of being able to attract and retain the most
4 qualified individuals for key positions (Wells, 1999). Studies have also
5 shown that if an organization links human resource organization and
6 practices to the strategic decision-making process of the firm, the organization
7 will develop excellence in cost-oriented manufacturing strategies (MacDuffie,
8 1995; Snell & Dean, 1992) or innovation strategies (Bennett et al., 1998) and
9 achieve greater economic success (Cook & Ferris, 1986; Huselid, 1995).
10 Simerly and Tomkiewicz (1997) found that firms with proactive programs
11 relating to human resource dimensions and firms that emphasize solutions
12 to workplace issues experience higher return on investments. Another study
13 demonstrates that when high-performance work practices are implemented,
14 turnover rates decrease, productivity increases, and corporate financial
15 performance improves (Huselid, 1995). Evidence has also been found that
16 SHRM effectiveness (including human resource practices such as implement-
17 ing effective communication systems) was positively associated with measures
18 of employee productivity, profitability/cash flow, and firm market value
19 (Huselid et al., 1997).

20 This background on the relationship of SHRM to strategy and firm
21 performance finds some support in the research on new ventures, although
22 as mentioned at the outset “there is an acute shortage of research . . . on the
23 relationship between strategy, human resource practices and small firm
24 performance” (Chandler & McEvoy, 2000, p. 44). The literature on life cycle
25 stage development, in contrast, offers some of the best insight on the nature
26 of the human resource challenges, needs, and strategic contributions in new
27 ventures. Virtually all of these studies discuss different aspects of human
28 resource factors over different stages of organizational development, and
29 the evolution that ventures must go through in this domain in order to be
30 successful (e.g. Greiner, 1972; Kazanjian, 1988; Miller & Friesen, 1984;
31 Quinn & Cameron, 1983). Kazanjian (1988) found that the “people” factor
32 was consistently one of the strongest “dominant problems” confronted by
33 new technology ventures across virtually every stage of the organizational
34 life cycle. This factor included finding talent, attracting capable people,
35 achieving management depth, developing networks, and defining roles and
36 responsibilities. However, earlier studies tend to show that the human
37 resource challenge changes in complexity and scope as organizations move
38 from birth through growth stages. In the birth phase, the effectiveness of
39 the venture predominantly depends on the founder(s) and recruited top

1 management team, who work together without formal policies or structure,
2 but whose individual experiences and expertise are relied upon for getting
3 important foundational work accomplished. As new ventures move into the
4 growth phase, however, the challenges of the business require the hiring of
5 workers, more formal definitions of roles, organizational structure, better
6 coordination, and more involved decision making (Miller & Friesen, 1984;
7 Quinn & Cameron, 1983). This is because ventures at this stage must deal
8 with scaling up operations, coping with the chaos of growth, developing a
9 more sophisticated market interface, and learning how to execute and
10 implement strategy consistently across a larger organization of people. The
11 new venture's success at this stage depends upon "criteria such as human
12 resource development, morale, cohesion, and human need satisfaction"
13 (Quinn & Cameron, 1983, p. 44) in order for an expanded workforce to
14 perform these functions effectively.

15 This background on SHRM in new ventures and its relationship to firm
16 performance is also observed in practice. Following the data collection
17 effort for this research, we conducted qualitative open-ended interviews with
18 CEOs of technology-based companies to learn more about the challenges
19 and issues they dealt with in starting up and growing their businesses. One
20 CEO's reflections illustrates the strategic importance of the human resource
21 dimension and its shifting nature as his firm developed:

23 When we started up five years ago, it was just me and my two partners. I knew this
24 industry and had contacts with people who might fund us. So I divided my time between
25 strategy planning meetings where we would discuss design decisions for our system, and
26 lots of outside work drumming up interest in the financial community. One of the
27 partners took the lead on systems design, and the other was focused on developing
28 customer relationships. We all three worked pretty independent at first, and it was crazy.
29 But then it got even crazier once we started up, started selling, and started growing. We
30 had all been functionally oriented, doing what we knew best based on our experiences.
31 But suddenly we found ourselves in production mode for our hardware components,
32 bringing on new sales people, having to hire customer support staff, collaborating with
33 applications specialists for unique customer-demanded apps. I would come back from a
34 trip to the west coast and wonder where all these people working for us had come from.
35 Left hand, right hand: some people didn't understand what others were doing. Lots of
36 people going in different directions. And though we had a strategic direction we'd all
37 agreed on, we didn't have a way to integrate what all these new people were doing to
38 make sure it was all happening the way we wanted. We recognized that we would only be
39 successful if we started to pay considerable attention to how people were working, how
40 we could make sure they were working together, and how we could align their own
41 efforts and personal goals with those of the company. I felt it wasn't sufficient to have a
42 'personnel' manager; we needed to elevate human resource planning into every aspect of
43 our strategy and planning discussions.

1 Brush et al. (2001, p. 66) also observed the critical importance of the human
 3 resources factor in the start-up of Handspring by two founders, Jeff
 Hawkins and Donna Dubinsky:

5 Hawkins and Dubinsky were able to bring along an experienced management team
 7 While each team member was individually strong, their working together in a very
 9 similar setting meant they had significant tacit knowledge, not only about the product
 11 line and technology, but also about each other's personal strengths, weaknesses, and
 working styles The shared experiences of the team members became the basis of
 more complex resources, or firm capabilities, founded in learned understandings
 Both the transferred knowledge [of the founders and team] and the accumulated social
 capital that moved from Palm to Handspring were significant starting resources.

13 The above discussion suggests that human resource management is or
 15 should be an important strategic dimension that is considered by top
 17 management of new ventures. Table 1 illustrates how SHRM dimensions **AU :4**
 19 map onto critical issues in stages of a new venture's development, as
 described above, such that human resources are a strategic asset. SHRM
 policies and practices can significantly aid in the development of competitive
 advantage where such advantage relies on the development of intangible
 business practices and knowledge resources.

21 **Hypothesis 1.** Human resource management is a significant dimension in
 23 the strategic considerations of new venture top managers.

25 **Table 1.** Mapping SHRM onto New Ventures.

Life Cycle Stage of Development	Dominant Problems in New Ventures	SHRM Dimensions
Birth, or conception Commercialization	Innovation Hiring management team Raising capital Starting up	Attracting top management with appropriate experience and contacts Achieving management depth Developing networks HRM officer on management team Integration of HRM with strategy planning
Growth	Scaling up Marketing Managing chaos of growth Organization and culture	Organizational design Corporate support for training Empowered workforce Position descriptions Team-based job designs Incentive and reward system design

1 *SHRM and Flexibility*

3 A crucial aspect concerning SHRM are the concepts of flexibility and fit
4 (Milliman et al., 1991; Wright & Snell, 1998). The degree of fit determines
5 the human resource system's integration with organization strategy.
6 Flexibility describes the ability of a firm's SHRM to change by adding
7 new human resource practices as other key aspects of firm strategy change.
8 Firms must be able to detect environmental change, either within or outside
9 of the organization, and then modify activities in order to maintain
10 advantage and performance. Such a demand requires a flexible SHRM
11 system. Qualities of behavioral flexibility, quick adaptation capability, and
12 a broad source of human knowledge and skills characterize such a system
13 (Wright & Snell, 1998). Flexibility is essential for organizational success
14 since the goal of SHRM is to imbue an organization with the ability to
15 adapt with facility in order to maximize fit (Wright & Snell, 1998). Fit and
16 flexibility are thus often at odds with each other. Though it may enjoy a high
17 degree of fit at a particular moment, a new venture operating in a dynamic
18 and changing competitive environment needs to be flexible to modify
19 SHRM as its competitive situation changes.

20 Integral to the success of new ventures are adjustments to strategy
21 initiated progressively throughout stages of their life cycle development.
22 Following Kazanjian's (1988) model, many of the problems faced by
23 technology firms change significantly from one life cycle stage to the next.
24 Thus a number of studies have concluded that both organizationally and
25 strategically, new ventures must often change in order to achieve continued
26 growth and success (Jelinek & Schoonhoven, 1990; Moore, 1995). Dess et al.
27 (1997) find that entrepreneurial strategic behavior serves a firm well only
28 so long as the firm's strategy is coaligned with demands on the firm from the
29 competitive environment. As the interface between the firm and the market
30 changes, so too must the firm's strategy adapt (West & Meyer, 1997). Those
31 firms which are more entrepreneurial – recognizing and pursuing strategic
32 change proactively – will flourish.

33 A limited amount of research has studied the impact of SHRM in
34 different developmental stages of the organizational life cycle. Jackson and
35 Schuler (1995) examine human resource management in terms of different
36 internal and external contextual factors. Of particular interest to this paper
37 is the consideration of life cycle induced changes in the internal context that
38 impacts human resource management. In one study Milliman et al. (1991)
39 theorize about different SHRM practices of MNCs as they progress through
organizational life cycle stages. They are particularly interested how the

1 degree of fit between international human resource activity and each stage of
2 organizational development will affect strategic performance in foreign
3 entry. In the earliest stage of international development line managers
4 are held responsible for most human resource practices. International
5 operations tend to be smaller and strategy is thus easily communicated
6 and understood. The dominant international human resource practice at
7 this stage is to recruit employees and deal with salary concerns (Baird &
8 Meshoulam, 1988). Since the firm is just beginning, entrepreneurial
9 endeavors and immediate survival concerns are prominent at this stage
10 and little attention is given to support services that involve human resource
11 activity.

12 New ventures experience a similar dynamic. Organizations are small and
13 founding strategy is both easily communicated and well understood by the
14 members of the top management team. The focus of efforts tends to be
15 single-mindedly on technical aspects of creating the new service or product,
16 while industry value chain and industry competitive issues are less
17 prominent in day-to-day activities. At this early stage, new ventures need
18 not have developed sophisticated SHRM systems and practices.

19 In contrast, during the growth stage of organizational development
20 MNCs begin to emphasize more sophisticated production and market
21 orientations. As a result, these organizations generally develop formal
22 personnel practices and policies during this stage of life (Baird & Meshoulam,
23 1988). Unlike the initial stage of the life cycle, the growth stage begins to show
24 dependence upon supportive human resources services. Milliman et al. (1991)
25 propose that in this stage successful MNCs will have flexibility exhibited by
26 significant increases in the importance of and kinds of human resource
27 practices. Consequently, maximum organizational effectiveness during the
28 growth stage of development will depend upon flexibility to adapt human
29 resource policies and practices to the changing needs of the business.

30 Similarly, Kotter and Sathe (1978) outline the common human resource
31 management problems among rapidly growing firms. They argue that these
32 problems arise as a result of the need for rapid decision making, growing job
33 demands, increased amount of recruiting and training, and constant changes
34 within the organization and its environment. All of these problems strain an
35 organization's resources, particularly human resources, and thus require
36 increased attention to human resource management issues.

37 Thus there appears to be an interaction between attention to SHRM and
38 organizational life cycle. In the early stage of its development, sophisticated
39 human resource practices are unnecessary and would have no discernible
40 effect on the activities among managers or the firm's performance.

1 However, these considerations become much more important during later
2 stages of development when the firm confronts a significantly more complex
3 array of internal and external factors. SHRM flexibility is, therefore,
4 important for new ventures progressing through life cycle stages.

5 **Hypothesis 2.** Human resource management will increase in salience to
6 management as a strategic dimension over time in new ventures.

7
8 **Hypothesis 3.** Change in new venture performance is positively associated
9 with the interaction between change in importance of the human resource
10 management strategic dimension and life cycle stage.

11
12 **Hypothesis 4.** Human resource practices associated with later life cycle
13 stage issues will increase in importance over time.

14 15 16 17 *SHRM and Fit*

18
19 Fit is also a crucial aspect of SHRM (Milliman et al., 1991; Wright & Snell,
20 1998). This construct is further broken down into internal and external
21 components. Internal fit (or horizontal fit) measures the degree of
22 congruence between each of the human resource practices (Baird &
23 Meshoulam, 1988). This paper is concerned with external fit (or vertical
24 fit), on the other hand, which measures the degree of alignment between the
25 overall business strategy and human resource practices as a collective whole
26 (Schuler & Jackson, 1987). For example, a firm with a low-cost strategy
27 can implement human resource practices such as a wage system based on
28 minimizing defects and waste that is designed to complement a price
29 sensitive production system (Swiercz, 1995). If a firm's strategy is to increase
30 growth through innovation, on the other hand, stock options based on new
31 business development would align behavior with the strategy.

32 These ideas, together with the previous hypotheses, suggest that it is not
33 just competitive strategy dimensions that help determine the success or failure
34 of organizations. Human resource management, as a critical dimension of
35 strategy, must also play a role. Attention to competitive strategy is important,
36 and attention to SHRM is also important. Either one, without the other being
37 present, is insufficient to generate strong firm performance.

38
39 **Hypothesis 5.** New venture performance is positively associated with fit
40 between SHRM and competitive strategy.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

Surveys and interviews were conducted among CEOs and top managers of technology-based firms or operating divisions of technology-based firms in three related SIC codes in one US region across a 2-year period. CEOs who agreed to participate in a study about strategy designated the names of managers in their companies who were involved in discussions and decisions on strategy and strategy-related issues as those who should be surveyed. The universe of firms in this geographic region with greater than 15 employees was 173; 51 CEOs agree to participate, and in the first year of the study 36 usable sets of surveys (including both CEO and all designated top managers) were returned. The second wave of the study was conducted 2 years later. After 2 years, 24 usable sets of surveys from intact teams (including the same CEOs and top managers) were available for longitudinal analysis.

At the beginning of the study, the average age of the participating firms was 4.1 years, and the average life cycle stage of development was at the beginning of the growth stage (Kazanjian, 1988). The average number of respondents per firm in both years of the study was 4.9 managers, inclusive of the CEO. The average self-reported size of participating firms during the final year was 168 employees and \$41.5 million sales. Through Dun & Bradstreet and local chambers of commerce, data was collected for all 173 firms on age, employment size, changes in employment over previous years, and legal form. χ^2 and *t*-tests were conducted to compare responding to non-responding firms, and no significant differences were observed.

Variables

Strategy dimensions are developed from the structure of top management thinking about strategy. Managers' perceptions about strategy represent an important mediating construct between environmental causes of change and change actions subsequently taken (West, 2007). The structure of top management strategic thinking is inductively identified using factor analysis of managers' ratings of a series of strategic goals and means gathered across the 2 years of the study. Respondents in each survey were presented with a list of 20 possible strategic goals and 21 possible means. The list contains items originally used by Bourgeois (1980), and was supplemented with items

1 based on a review of recent work on strategic goals and means. Table 2
2 presents a list of the goals and means items.

3 For each item respondents were asked to rate its importance on a “scale
4 of importance” ranging from 0 to 100, where 100 represented “critically
5 important” and 0 represented “not at all important.” Factor analyses were
6 performed separately on the study’s initial year and final year goals and
7 means ratings data. The factors in each year were named after reviewing
8 and interpreting orthogonally rotated factor matrices. Six key strategic
9 dimensions were identified from the initial year factor analysis; six nearly
10 identical strategic dimensions were also identified from the final year factor
11 analysis (see Table 6 below). Factor scores for the key strategic dimensions
12 were calculated for every respondent in each year. Consistent with the
13 approach used in prior strategy research on top management consensus to
14 aggregate individual perspectives to the company level unit of analysis (e.g.,
15 Bourgeois, 1980; Dess, 1987), company level factor scores for each year were
16 then calculated as the average of the factor scores of all the respondents
17 (CEO and top managers) within each company. Changes in strategy
18 dimensions are calculated as differences in company level factor scores on
19 key strategic dimensions between years of the analysis.

20 *Performance* is measured by the subjective assessment of top managers
21 about their firm’s performance. Reflecting the concern that absolute
22 measures of performance (such as sales or net income) do not appropriately
23 capture the strategy and resource-based view focusing on competitive
24 advantage (Gilbert et al., 2006), this study used a dependent variable that
25 focused on performance relative to competition. Wiklund and Shepherd
26 (2003) previously employed a similar approach to assess performance
27 relative to competitors, reflecting the theoretical focus of the resource-based
28 view. The participating companies were privately held; therefore detailed
29 financial information was not available. Firm performance was measured
30 by the subjective assessment of the respondent, using the ratings of three
31 performance-related question items. One item, based on Dess and Robinson
32 (1984), asked for an assessment of the percent of ideal performance being
33 achieved, where ideal performance equated to 100%. Two other items build
34 on the tradition of strategy as competitive advantage leading to enhanced
35 performance. These items assessed growth and overall performance
36 “relative to other companies facing similar business development challenges
37 or who are in the same business.” Each of these relative assessments used
38 a seven-point agreement scale, and the score on each was then interpolated
39 into a 0-to-100-range equivalent. The overall measure of performance used
40 for the firm is the average of the three items described here, expressed as a

Table 2. Strategic Goals and Means Rated by Top Managers.

1	
3	Possible strategic goals
	Net profit over 5 years
	Rate of sales growth
5	Recognition as an innovative or creative firm
	Creation of an effective organizational structure
7	Employee satisfaction/morale
	Development of new products/services
	Net profit over 1 year
9	Management excellence
	Firm prestige/reputation
11	Market share and penetration
	Development of a management information system
13	Management development and retention
	Lowest cost relative to competitors
	Employee compensation and benefits
15	Growth in assets and reserves
	Dividends distributed
17	Community service/ethical and environmentally sound activities
	Customer/client support
	Development of reliable vendors and customers
19	Uniqueness of products/services
21	Possible means to achieve goals
	New product/service development
	Customer/client service
23	Operating efficiency
	Quality of products/services
25	Experienced/trained personnel
	Maintain high inventory levels
	Competitive pricing
27	Broad range of products/services
	Refining and improving existing products/services
29	Brand identification and image
	Innovation/creativity in marketing techniques and methods
31	Control of channels of distribution
	Procurement of raw materials
	Uniqueness of product/service
33	Minimizing the use of outside financing
	Serving special markets or customer needs
35	Products in high-price market segments
	Advertising
	Reputation within industry
37	Forecasting market growth and competitive activities
	Innovation
39	

1 percent. A substantially similar scale has been reliably used in other research
on private new ventures, and represents an effective proxy for objective
3 measures of performance (Lumpkin & Dess, 1995). The composite measure
at the firm level has a Cronbach's α coefficient of 0.87 in the first year of
5 the study and 0.78 in the second year. *Change in performance* measures
relative change, and is captured by dividing the change in performance
7 between years of the study by performance in the initial year.

Because of concerns of possible common method bias due to self-report
9 data from a single source, data collected in the surveys was compared to
identical data collected independently on the responding companies from
11 Dun and Bradstreet and the local chambers of commerce. Correlations
between these different sources included 0.95 for company age, 0.94 for
13 employment size, and 0.84 for changes in employment (all $p < 0.001$),
indicating that common method bias is not an issue.

15 *Life cycle stage* is measured by the average rating of all managers in
each company, using Kazanjian's (1988) descriptions of five stages that
17 firms experience: (1) conception and development; (2) commercialization;
(3) growth; (4) stability; and (5) decline. The mean for all companies in the
19 survey was 3.0 in the first survey and 3.4 in the second survey. A within-
group interrater reliability statistic r_{wg} (James, Demarree, & Wolf, 1993)
21 was calculated for each company; the average r_{wg} across all companies
responding to the first survey is 0.91.

23 Reflecting the earlier discussion above, *SHRM flexibility* is operationa-
lized as the interaction between organizational life cycle stage and changing
25 attention to the human resource factor. *SHRM fit* is operationalized as the
interaction between competitive strategy factors and the human resource
27 factor.

29

31 RESULTS

33

Hypothesis 1 predicted that human resource management would be an
important strategic dimension considered by top managers. Table 3 presents
35 the results of the factor analyses. In both years that surveys were conducted,
the human resource management factor explained the greatest variance
among the surveyed managers' responses. The eigenvalues for this factor
37 were 10.2 and 13.7 in the 2 years, explaining 27 and 34% of the variance,
respectively. Hypothesis 1 is strongly supported.

39 Hypothesis 2 predicted that the human resource management dimension
would increase in importance over time. Table 4 presents a summary of the

Table 3. Results of Factor Analyses.

Factor	Factor Name	Initial Year		Final Year	
		Eigenvalue	Variance explained	Eigenvalue	Variance explained
1	Human resource management	10.245	27.0	13.747	34.4
2	Relationship with customer	2.610	6.9	2.983	7.5
3	Differentiation	1.964	5.2	1.495	3.7
4	New products/growth	1.625	4.3	1.024	2.6
5	Low-cost leadership	1.383	3.6	1.065	2.7
6	Marketing/image	1.033	2.7	2.165	5.4

Table 4. Average Company Factor Scores and Changes.

Factor Name	Initial Year	Final Year	Factor Score
	Factor scores	Factor scores	Change
Human resource management	-0.0633	0.0458	0.1091
Relationship with customer	0.0633	0.0317	-0.0316
Differentiation	0.0124	-0.0086	-0.0210
New products/growth	0.1226	0.0107	-0.1119
Low-cost leadership	0.0063	-0.0865	-0.0928
Marketing/image	0.0243	-0.0902	-0.1145

average company factor ratings and changes in factor ratings over the time of the study.¹ The human resource management dimension is the only factor that increased in importance over the period of the study. Of all six explanatory factors it is also the most important in the final year of the study, as evidenced by its positive factor score (Tabachnik & Fidell, 1989). Hypothesis 2 is strongly supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that change in firm performance would be positively associated with the interaction between change in the human resource management strategic dimension and life cycle stage. Table 5 shows the results of an OLS regression of change in performance on the interaction of change in the SHRM dimension and life cycle stage. The main effect of change in human resource management dimension is not significant in the overall equation, but the interaction of SHRM change with life cycle stage is a significant positive predictor of change in firm performance ($p < 0.10$). The regression equation in total is significant ($F = 2.43, p < 0.10$). Hypothesis 3 is supported.

1 **Table 5.** Regression of Performance Change on SHRM Flexibility.

3 Dependent Variable	Change in Firm Performance
Independent Variables	
5 SHRM Change	-0.512 (-1.550)
Life Cycle Stage	-0.103 (-2.337)**
7 Flexibility (change in SHRM \times Life Cycle)	0.163 (1.744)*
R^2	0.258
9 Adjusted R^2	0.152
$F(3, 21)$	2.43*

11 *t*-values in parentheses.

* $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

13

15 Hypothesis 4 predicted that human resource practices associated with
 16 later life cycle stage issues will increase in importance over time. Table 6
 17 presents complete factor loading matrices for both the initial and final
 18 survey analyses, and Table 7 summarizes the factor loadings for the human
 19 resources management factor across both years. Referring to Table 7,
 20 several survey item loadings increased between the initial and final surveys:
 21 employee compensation and benefits, experienced and trained personnel,
 22 creating an effective organizational structure, and community services and
 23 ethical approaches. Each of these items reflects the increasing importance
 24 of structuring and managing a larger organization in a growth stage of
 25 development, and dealing more explicitly with the interface with the market.
 26 At the same time, the results show declines in item loadings that are
 27 presumably of paramount importance in the birth stage of a new venture
 28 (management development, management excellence). These results provide
 29 support for Hypothesis 4.

30 Hypothesis 5 predicted that firm performance would be positively
 31 associated with fit between SHRM and competitive strategy. Table 8 shows
 32 the results of separate OLS regressions of performance in the final year of
 33 the study on three strategy dimensions (low-cost leadership, differentiation,
 34 and human resource management) and their interactions. The interaction
 35 between the SHRM and differentiation factors is positively related to
 36 performance ($p < 0.05$), and the regression equation in total is significant
 37 ($F = 4.42$, $p < 0.05$). The interaction between the SHRM and low-cost
 38 leadership factors is not significantly related to performance, and this
 39 regression equation in total is not significant. Thus Hypothesis 5 finds
 qualified support.

Table 6. Rotated Factor Loading Matrices.

	Human Resource Management	Relationship with Customer	Differentiation	New Products/ Growth	Low-cost Leadership	Marketing/ Image
Initial year						
Management development an retention	0.818	0.101	0.081	0.068	0.141	0.147
Employee satisfaction/morale	0.697	0.226	0.065	0.163	0.002	0.028
Management excellence	0.689	0.268	0.090	0.037	-0.053	0.154
Employee compensation and benefits	0.640	0.105	0.224	0.047	0.260	-0.071
Experienced/trained personnel	0.470	0.359	0.086	0.154	0.193	0.091
Effective organizational structure	0.479	0.090	0.110	0.112	-0.063	0.062
Customer/client service	0.241	0.732	-0.022	0.046	0.118	0.176
Customer/client support	0.392	0.679	0.067	0.006	0.144	0.171
Quality of products/services	0.200	0.620	0.189	0.086	0.092	0.056
Reliable vendors and customers	0.433	0.566	0.142	0.001	0.301	0.053
Reputation within industry	0.190	0.475	-0.015	0.014	0.060	0.122
Operating efficiency	0.231	0.348	0.166	-0.100	0.346	-0.006
Uniqueness of product/service	0.092	0.006	0.820	0.159	0.213	0.161
Uniqueness of products/services	0.203	0.087	0.750	0.210	0.123	0.096
Innovation	0.089	0.179	0.580	0.320	-0.021	0.174
Development of new products/services	0.183	-0.048	0.196	0.762	0.147	0.087
New product/service development	0.042	0.002	0.240	0.716	0.052	0.198
Rate of sales growth	-0.051	0.118	0.028	0.455	0.107	0.116
Market share and penetration	0.108	0.120	0.099	0.446	0.137	0.422
Lowest cost relative to competitors	0.161	0.070	0.072	0.148	0.794	0.065
Competitive pricing	-0.028	0.164	0.159	0.229	0.671	0.005
Procurement of raw materials	0.178	0.205	0.081	-0.002	0.508	0.255
Brand identification and image	0.103	0.065	0.116	0.094	0.002	0.697
Creativity in marketing techniques	0.114	0.251	0.203	0.151	0.139	0.632
Control of channels of distribution	0.168	0.066	0.069	0.270	0.059	0.562

Table 6. (Continued)

	Human Resource Management	Relationship with Customer	Differentiation	New Products/ Growth	Low-cost Leadership	Marketing/ Image
Final year						
Employee compensation and benefits	0.783	0.157	0.128	0.134	0.203	0.013
Employee satisfaction/morale	0.672	0.169	0.069	0.236	0.052	0.149
Experienced/trained personnel	0.561	0.353	0.031	0.173	0.025	-0.032
Management development and retention	0.706	0.176	0.145	0.041	0.041	0.129
Effective organizational structure	0.540	0.212	-0.023	0.098	0.182	0.039
Management excellence	0.445	0.415	0.091	0.209	0.030	0.052
Community service/ethical approaches	0.521	0.202	0.038	0.095	0.292	-0.053
Customer/client service	0.165	0.775	0.152	-0.031	0.095	0.285
Customer/client support	0.161	0.743	0.054	0.099	0.091	0.024
Quality of products/services	0.259	0.600	0.157	0.208	0.169	0.071
Firm prestige/reputation	0.474	0.586	0.230	0.113	-0.082	-0.064
Reputation within industry	0.388	0.494	0.282	0.007	0.046	-0.028
Reliable vendors and customers	0.402	0.416	0.016	0.192	0.208	-0.041
Advertising	0.144	0.084	0.708	0.045	0.052	0.197

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Creativity in marketing techniques	0.114	0.139	0.173	0.696	0.114	0.139	0.173	0.696	0.049
Brand identification and image	0.099	-0.069	-0.027	0.658	0.350	-0.069	-0.027	0.658	-0.048
Control of channels of distribution	0.008	0.109	0.070	0.568	-0.009	0.109	0.070	0.568	0.133
Rate of sales growth	-0.058	0.379	0.311	0.554	0.009	0.379	0.311	0.554	0.049
Net profit over 5 years	0.031	0.011	-0.064	0.439	0.136	0.011	-0.064	0.439	0.089
Market share and penetration	-0.104	0.311	0.290	0.430	0.399	0.311	0.290	0.430	0.181
Refining/improving existing products	0.278	0.178	0.230	0.333	0.270	0.178	0.230	0.333	0.016
Uniqueness of products/services	0.177	-0.038	0.754	0.052	0.137	-0.038	0.754	0.052	0.077
Innovation	0.272	-0.007	0.645	0.063	0.145	-0.007	0.645	0.063	0.276
Uniqueness of product/service	0.149	0.108	0.595	0.195	0.004	0.108	0.595	0.195	0.053
Recognition as an innovative firm	0.540	-0.028	0.549	0.051	0.247	-0.028	0.549	0.051	0.177
Competitive pricing	0.146	0.749	-0.036	0.349	0.178	0.749	-0.036	0.349	0.254
Lowest cost relative to competitors	0.164	0.702	-0.014	-0.013	0.093	0.702	-0.014	-0.013	0.034
Procurement of raw materials	0.230	0.423	0.215	0.252	0.142	0.423	0.215	0.252	-0.124
Development of new products/services	0.117	0.043	0.143	0.041	0.062	0.043	0.143	0.041	0.933
New product/service development	-0.055	0.140	0.159	0.227	0.114	0.140	0.159	0.227	0.758

Table 7. Factor Loadings for Human Resource Management Dimension.

Survey Items	Initial Year	Final Year	Change in Factor Loadings
	Factor loadings	Factor loadings	
Management development and retention	0.818	0.706	-0.112
Employee satisfaction and morale	0.697	0.672	-0.025
Management excellence	0.689	0.445	-0.244
Employee compensation and benefits	0.640	0.783	+0.143
Creating effective organizational structure	0.479	0.540	+0.061
Experienced and trained personnel	0.470	0.561	+0.091
Community service and ethical approaches		0.521	+

AU :2

Table 8. Regression of Performance on SHRM Fit.

AU :3

Dependent Variable	Firm Performance	Firm Performance
Independent variables		
Differentiation strategy factor	-0.075 (-2.266)**	
Low-cost leadership strategy factor		-0.027 (-0.995)
SHRM strategy factor	-0.084 (-2.465)**	-0.024 (-1.114)
SHRM × differentiation	0.116 (2.368)**	
SHRM × low-cost leadership		0.033 (0.970)
R^2	0.376	0.148
Adjusted R^2	0.287	0.026
$F(3, 21)$	4.21**	1.21

t -values in parentheses.

* $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

DISCUSSION

This study proposes that SHRM is a critical factor in the strategy of developing new ventures. The empirical tests investigating the presence and explanatory power of SHRM provide strong support for this general proposition. SHRM is important in the strategic deliberations of top managers, in fact it is the most salient strategic dimension among the companies in both surveys administered 2 years apart. SHRM flexibility is also critically important, as evidenced by its increasing prominence as a strategic dimension over these 2 years. The importance of flexibility is also supported by the apparent shift within the SHRM dimension to

1 sub-dimensions that are increasingly salient for these firms, given their stage
of development. Furthermore, SHRM fit with a generic differentiation
3 strategy positively impacts firm performance.

5 This fit relationship between SHRM and the differentiation generic
strategy (Table 8) bears further scrutiny. The main effects of the differentia-
7 tion and SHRM strategy factors each bear a negative relation to firm
performance. This is counterintuitive and not what we expected, until we
9 recall that a main effect in a regression with an interaction term is conditional
on the other interacting variable. The appropriate interpretation for each
11 variable is that this is its effect on performance when the other interacting
variable has a value of zero (Jaccard, Turrisi, & Wan, 1990). Thus we can
13 conclude that a differentiation strategy with no SHRM has a negative
relationship with performance, just as SHRM without a differentiation
strategy is also not effective. This surely speaks to fit as being important.

15 But we can go further still, by examining the interaction itself. Fig. 2 plots
the interaction of two levels of SHRM (plus and minus one standard
17 deviation from the sample mean) across five levels of differentiation.
Here it can be observed that performance is enhanced when high levels of
19 SHRM are present at the same time the company is aggressively pursuing

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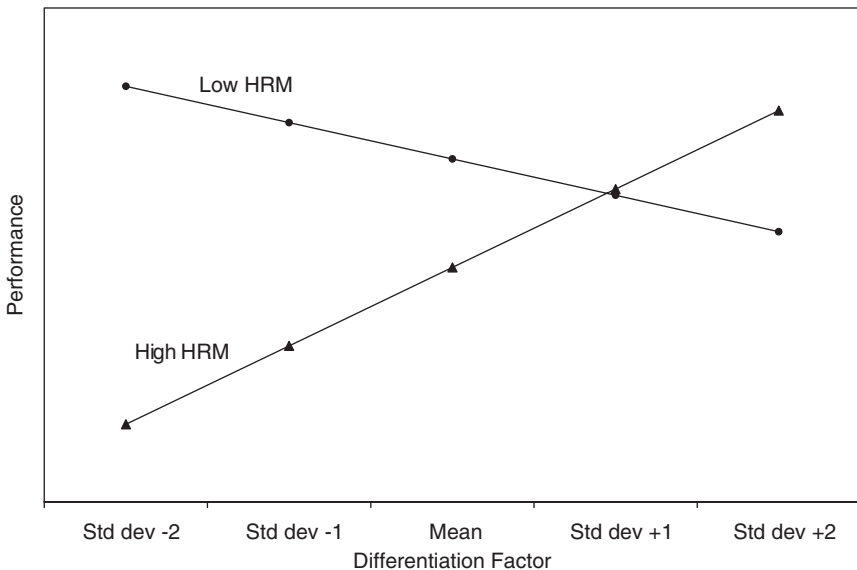


Fig. 2. Interaction between SHRM and Differentiation.

1 a differentiation strategic approach; the two work in synch together,
2 suggested by the upward sloping “High HRM” line. In contrast, where a new
3 venture increasingly pursues a differentiation approach but has low levels of
SHRM, performance will suffer since low levels of SHRM apparently do not
5 provide the kind of support that makes this generic strategic approach
successful. It is again apparent that fit is critically important.

7 The results of this study should be treated with appropriate caution. The
8 small sample size limits the number of variables that can be simultaneously
9 examined in regression analyses; there may be interactions between variables,
such as between generic competitive strategy factors, that have not been
11 explored here. However, where significant results are reported in the analyses,
the effect is quite likely strong in actual practice. Still, the results of the
13 research do offer face validity in that differentiation as a strategic factor is
significantly related to performance, while low cost as a strategic factor does
15 not. This seems to make sense, since the population of firms we are investigating
are young technology-based firms, which generally do not enter
17 turbulent and competitive markets seeking low-cost positions of advantage.

This study examined growth-oriented technology ventures in one geographic
19 region. The results may be generalizable primarily to technology
ventures. And yet it is not a big stretch to see how what we observe here can
21 also apply to other types of new ventures. One of the co-authors of this study,
for example, has spent years working in the retail sector and has observed
23 very similar dynamics. When new retail ventures start-up, they are usually not
pursuing low-cost strategies or seeking to join battle with the big box stores
25 that now dominate the landscape in the United States. Instead, the success of
new retail ventures initially depends upon the execution of a unique concept
27 that achieves effective differentiation in the market. Founders and a small
number of experienced partners are heavily involved in raising capital, setting
29 up supply relationships, and jiggering executional details in (generally)
one shop. With validation of the business model, founders seek to grow by
31 adding additional stores. Just like technology businesses or other ventures
that scale up, the same human resource issues come in to play, for example,
33 hiring a workforce, training, organizational design, creating incentive, and
reward structures. These must coalesce well with the validated differentiation
35 approach in the first store in order for the growth model to succeed.

The most striking finding in these factor analyses is the strong emphasis
37 placed on human resource management facets as a critical explanatory
strategic dimension. This parallels qualitative comments heard in interviews
39 following the administration of the survey. One interviewed CEO mentioned
that of four factors he believes are essential for success, one is to “hire well.”

1 Virtually all managers interviewed stressed the importance of management
2 excellence and experienced management as key success factors for starting
3 up. The team relationship was often mentioned as a key component in
4 sustainable success, and was tied in with other human resource dimensions
5 such as satisfaction, commitment, and personal performance. Another CEO
6 strives for “unity development” in the management team as well as across
7 the business, a concept she thought that stresses the dual importance of
8 excellent performance and strong, fulfilling working relationships unified
9 by common vision. Most managers, in fact, discussed sharing vision as
10 a function of having a unified workforce and involvement by all levels,
11 leading to the unfettered sharing of ideas and empowerment as important
12 components of strategy.

13 What is surprising about these ideas is that managers associate them
14 easily and clearly with the pursuit of effective strategy in their firms. That
15 respondents rate the human resource dimension so highly is borne out by
16 the final year factor analysis, wherein this factor received the highest factor
17 rating overall, while other factors received negative ratings and are all
18 perceived as less important. This is surprising because literature on strategy
19 (Porter, 1980, 1985) or technology strategy (Goodman & Lawless, 1994) tends
20 to emphasize the strength of industrial organization economics arguments,
21 such as barriers to entry, economies of scale and scope, or the economics-
22 based generic strategies that arise from them. The findings in the factor
23 analyses provide quantitative support for ideas offered recently regarding the
24 substantive importance of the management dimension in competitive strategy
25 (Castanias & Helfat, 1991; Hambrick, 1989; Jackson, 1992). With regard to
26 new ventures these results focus attention on the balance between content and
27 process (e.g., Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; West & Meyer, 1997) and on human
28 resource management systems and policies (Welbourne, 1997; Welbourne &
29 Andrews, 1996) as a central part of effective strategic planning.

30 The findings here challenge traditional ideas about strategy in new
31 ventures. Ireland and Hitt (1997) extend our understanding of the importance
32 of strategy by empirically examining types of strategies and implementation
33 of strategies in fast growth entrepreneurial firms. They find that high-quality
34 and low-cost strategies are both effective generic strategic approaches when
35 implemented correctly, and that fast growth firms tend to rely more on a
36 differentiated high-quality approach than the low-cost approach (Ireland &
37 Hitt, 1997). The current study qualifies this finding. The current study
38 suggests that these generic strategic approaches may only be effective so long
39 as they are coupled with top management attention on supportive human
40 resource practices.

1 The findings here also modify recently advanced ideas about SHRM fit
and flexibility. Milliman et al. (1991) argue that firms must cycle between fit
3 and flexibility as they progress from one life cycle stage to the next. Both the
theory about new venture dynamics and the results of the present study
5 imply that flexibility is a characteristic of SHRM that new ventures should
strive for continuously. Fit, on the other hand, is context-dependent. For the
7 technology-based new ventures participating in this study, an interaction
between SHRM and low-cost leadership strategy had no relationship with
9 performance. It may be that these firms and the industries in which they
compete are still in the innovation-driven stages of development (Moore,
11 1995), but that in years to come maturation and saturation of the industries
will heighten the importance of cost-oriented strategies (Hill, 1988).

13 The apparent conflict between fit and flexibility is especially important in
managing strategy content. Even within an overall domain of an innovative
15 strategy approach, increased attention to human resource management prac-
tices can have positive effects on firm performance. The positive relationship of
17 performance to the interaction of innovation and SHRM implies this is the
case. The challenge for all top managers is to attend to developing human
19 resource needs, in much the same way as they attend to developing competitive
strategy needs. Like competitive strategy, anticipatory changes in SHRM may
21 actually facilitate enhanced firm performance.

Finally, this study is suggestive of three areas for additional research in
23 the future. First, despite the longitudinal nature of this study, it is unclear
how causality works in the results reported. Do new venture managers think
25 long and hard about SHRM because they consider it an important strategic
dimension, and then spend time on related human resource issues? Or do
27 human resources issues swamp the management team as the new venture
grows, forcing them to finally think about this dimension? Future research
29 might investigate whether anticipation of human resource issues leads
to enhanced performance, as opposed to only addressing these issues when
31 they arise and begin to compromise strategic effectiveness.

Second, the items used to explore strategic dimensions in this study were
33 derived from previous research on strategy and consensus where much of
the productive activity of the firm was done internally. Yet new ventures
35 today – especially technology-based new ventures – are often characterized
by joint ventures and cooperative relationships with other companies, as
37 well as outsourced design, software development and manufacturing. For
these reasons, SHRM for new ventures – and its interaction with strategy –
39 may be different than in larger established firms. The challenges of creating
SHRM flexibility and fit under these circumstances are enormous, since

1 direct contact with and control of people who do much of the work of the
2 venture is not always possible. Increasingly, new ventures which operate
3 more virtually have substituted an external for an internal “agency”
4 problem, yet the nature of agency relationships and contracts likely limits
5 the degrees of freedom that new venture managers have in structuring
6 relationships with “employees” that coalesce with the type of generic
7 strategic approach taken. Exploring how to structure these complex joint
8 venture, cooperative, and outsourced relationships will be especially useful.

9 The last suggestion for future research actually returns to where this
10 paper began – to resources. This study has examined the relationship
11 between SHRM and generic strategies. Yet strategy discussions are
12 increasingly grounded in the resource-based view, especially where the issue
13 of sustainable competitive advantage is paramount. As we stated at the very
14 beginning of this paper, entrepreneurs are not only interested in the success
15 of the start-up but also in the sustainability of their efforts. This is why
16 we invoke the resource-based view. But there are many types of resources
17 that have been identified, and these often involve significantly more
18 complex content and process than the simple differentiation – low-cost
19 generic strategy dichotomy. How does SHRM interact with these other
20 types of resources, and which resources combinations produce the strongest
21 performance effects? Future research into these questions would provide
22 great value to researchers and practitioners.

NOTE

25
26
27 1. The sum of factor scores is zero across all subjects (Tabachnik & Fidell, 1989).
28 Company level factor scores are averages of subjects within companies, the
29 mathematical artifact of which can be non-zero factor scores at the aggregated level
30 across all companies.

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