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The motivational factors behind Norwegian seafood exporters' choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders

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Sammendrag

Det eksisterer vidstrakt tidligere forskning om motiver bak internasjonalisering, og noe angående internasjonalisering gjennom utenlandske uoppfordrede ordrer. Det er derimot et forsknings-gap om motivene for internasjonalisering gjennom uoppfordrede ordrer, noe denne studien ønsker å undersøke. Oppgaven ser på fleksibilitet og oppdagelse av muligheter som motiverende faktorer i norske sjømatseksportørers valg om å følge uoppfordrede ordrer, og tilfører en ny foreslått forskningsmodell.

Denne tversnittstudien har et kvantitativt forskningsdesign, og brukte systematisk tilfeldig utvelgelse av utvalg, gjennom sjømatsrådets eksportørregister. En spørreundersøkelse ble sendt til alle enheter i utvalget, og oppnådde en svarprosent tilsvarende 13,2%. All samlet data ble analysert i SPSS.

Oppgavens hovedfunn utpeker fleksibilitet som den mest framtredende nøkkelmotivasjon (b=0891, p=0,019) og at forskningsmodellen er anvendelig. Størrelse-relaterte forskjeller mellom bedrifter ble også oppdaget, der oppdagelse av muligheter var den mest prominente forskjellen (t=2,275, p=0,029).

Denne studien har medvirket til internasjonaliseringslitteraturen ved å forske på utenlandske uoppfordrede ordrer som en vei til internasjonalisering og motivene bak, basert på litteraturen av Tracey et al. (1999), Shane (2000), and Grègoire & Shepherd (2010). Funnene kan benyttes av bedriftsledere i industrien til å oppnå konkurransefortrinn, i tillegg til staten som kan ha nytte av funnene i kontekst med internasjonal handel.

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This master thesis is the concluding part of the Master in Science of Business at Nord University. The thesis accounts for 30 ECTS, and is written as a part of the international business and marketing specialisation.

Writing this thesis has been a challenging, instructing and purposeful adventure. I am proud to have accomplished a master's degree and contributed to the literature through this study, as the Norwegian primary industry is of great interest and importance to me. But this milestone was not accomplished by my own.

I would like to direct my sincerest gratitude to my supervisor Frode Nilssen for guiding me in the right direction and motivating me throughout the entire process. This thesis would not have been what it is without your influence, and your interest in my paper. Also, I want to thank Espen John Isaksen for his counselling on the methodological and analytical part of this study. Thank you for showing me the potential in my study when I did not see it myself. Thank you, Frode and Epsen for your time, expertise and belief in me. Your support has been invaluable.

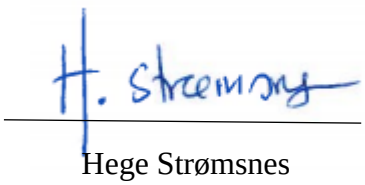
Furthermore, I would like to thank my brother Steffen Strømsnes for motivating me to pursue a master's degree. The past two years have been the most enrichening in my life! I would not have been here today if not for you, and for that I am forever grateful.

Lastly, a tribute to all my fellow students at the master student office for making this an incredible and memorable time. You are the reason this adventure became so dear and important to me.

I take the entire responsibility for the content of this thesis, and potential mistakes and shortcomings are ascribed to the author of this study.

Nord University

Bodø, May 21st, 2017.



Hege Strømsnes

Abstract

There exists extensive previous research on motives of internationalisation, and some concerning internationalisation through foreign unsolicited orders (FUOs). However, there is a literature gap on the motives behind internationalisation through FUOs which this study seeks to examine. The study looked at flexibility and opportunity discovery (OD) as motivational factors for Norwegian seafood exporters' choice to follow FUOs, applying a new proposed research model.

This cross-sectional study has a quantitative research design and used systematic random sampling to create a sample, by using the Norwegian seafood council's exporters' register. A questionnaire was sent to all units in the sample, and received a 13,2% response rate. All collected data was analysed in SPSS.

The study's main finding determined flexibility as a key motivational factor (b=0891, p=0,019) and that the new research model as applicable. Size-related significant difference between firms were also found, where OD was the most prominent (t=2,275, p=0,029).

This study has contributed to internationalisation literature by investigating FUOs as a pathway to internationalisation and what motivates this, based on the literature by Tracey et al. (1999), Shane (2000), and Grègoire & Shepherd (2010). These findings have practical, managerial and potentially governmental implications, in the context of regulating international trade.

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Abbreviations

FUOs	Foreign unsolicited orders
SME	Small to medium-sized enterprises
LSE	Large sized enterprises
LOP	Level of performance
CPV	Customer perceived value
CRR	Customer retention rate
GNB	Generating new business through customer referrals
SG	Sales growth
MG	Market share growth
FD	Flexibility of delivery
PMK	Prior market knowledge
IA	Information asymmetry
CSDC	Certainty in supply and demand change
DV	Dependent variable
IV	Independent variable

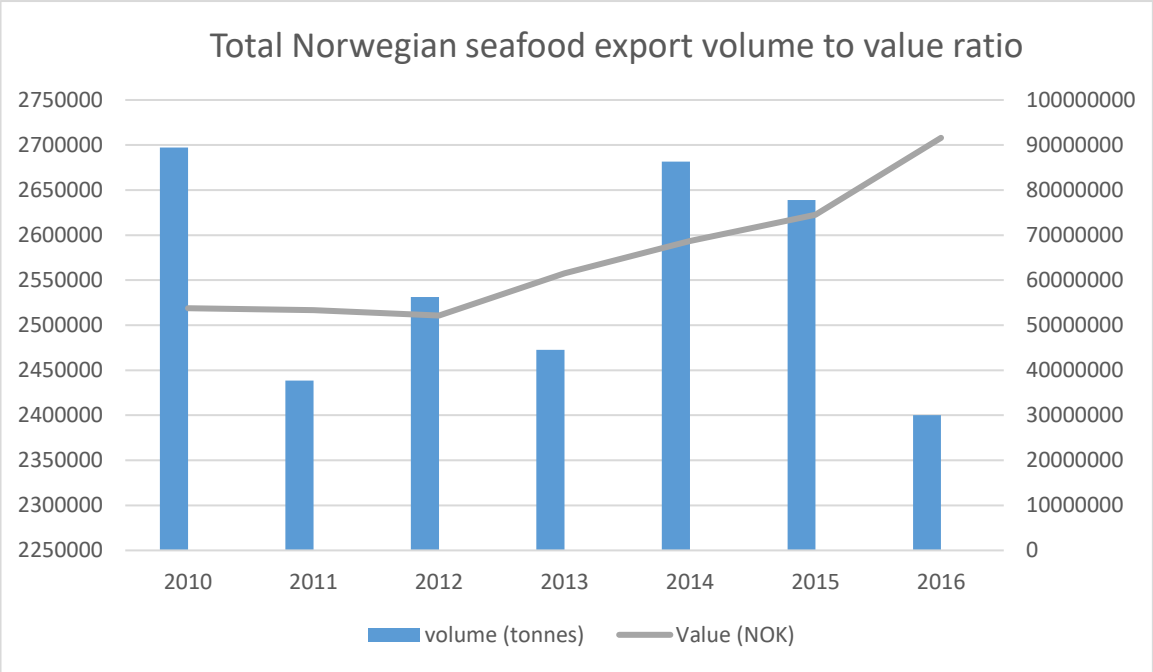
1.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the actualisation of this thesis, and the literature gap which it will seek to contribute to. The research question of this study and its sub-questions will be defined, followed by the presentation of this study's contributions and limitations. Lastly, an overview and explanation of this papers outline will conclude this chapter.

1.1 Actualisation and Research Gap

One of the biggest exporting industries in Norway is the seafood industry, which have contributed to international trade in many decades (Norwegian Seafood Council, 2016). The pure volume and value involved in the Norwegian seafood export makes it an important industry for the country. In 2016, Norway exported 2,4 million tonnes seafood to the value of 91,6 billion Norwegian kroner to all parts of the globe, with the biggest importers consisting of Poland, France and Denmark (Norwegian Seafood Council, 2016; Norwegian Seafood Council, 2017). An illustration of the market trends in Norwegian seafood export is provided below in figure 1, where volume in tonnes are numbered on the left-hand side. Figure 1 also show the 7% decrease in tonnes of seafood exported in 2016, but also the 23% increase in export revenues, which resulted in the industry's third record year (Norwegian Seafood Council, 2017). This indicates that as the value for Norwegian seafood has increased the total volume sold has decreased, meaning the industry are earning more by selling less than previously.

Figure 1: Total Norwegian seafood export in volume and value



Nevertheless, in the history of Norwegian seafood export, not every year have been as successful as the previous. This is due to non-tariff trade barriers such as Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures (SPS) and technical barriers to trade (TBT). Restrictions like these are held by e.g. Nigeria, Egypt and China which resulted in an export ban on for example the Atlantic salmon (Mattilsynet, 2015). Additionally, Russia and Norway's previous trade war through sanctions and counter-sanctions brought seafood export from Norway to a halt in 1994 (World Trade Organization, 1996). Eventually, trade was restored between the two countries, and Russia became the largest importing market for Norwegian seafood in 2013. Nevertheless, Russia raised another import ban again in 2015 (Regjeringen.no, 2015). This ban included the most important export product from Norway, namely seafood. It left exporters pessimistic to the future of Russia as a market for Norwegian seafood (Nissen-Meyer, 2016; Helljesen, 2015). Nevertheless, as shown in Figure 1, market growth continued and in 2015 Norway set their second seafood export record (Nissen-Meyer, 2016). Some claim this was due to the weakened Norwegian currency (Helljesen, 2015), others that the industry became more solution orientated after the ban (Nissen-Meyer, 2016). Today, Norway exports seafood to 143 countries which shows that Norwegian seafood have a highly diversified portfolio, and are therefore not dependent on a few and large markets to prosper (Norwegian Seafood Council, 2016).

The Russian import ban upon the Norwegian seafood industry gave Iceland the opportunity to prosper. Iceland were not affected by the 2015 ban, and had now the opportunity to fill Norway's role as seafood exporter to Russia. This change left Iceland unable to serve their former markets, as a result of Russia's high demand for their seafood (Nissen-Meyer, 2016). This market change led to a noticeable difference in the trade flow of seafood. Some seafood markets were now left unsupplied, others wanted more or needed less than previously provided compared to Russia. It is hard to say if the Norwegian seafood industry were aware of this as it happened, but they did sense change. It is also broadly acknowledged that Norwegian seafood is associated with quality, and is a sought-after product around the world. This is especially the case for Norwegian, or arctic, salmon (Nissen-Meyer, 2016). Was Norway's trademark alone enough to recover the industry, or was it the sales managers and analysts that discovered new markets? Suppose that new markets were found through market analysis, only searching for what the seafood industry perceived as potential new market opportunities; who found Ethiopia and Nigeria to be attractive markets? (Norwegian Seafood Council, 2016). Actors within the seafood industry had not expected or perceived Africa as an emerging market for Norwegian

seafood exports, but in 2015 Norway exported seafood to 14 African countries after they familiarised their demand (Norway Seafood, 2016; Norwegian Seafood Council, 2016).

Considering the possible opportunities presented by shifts and changes in the flow of goods on the international seafood market, it seems plausible that unsolicited orders like the ones from the African countries, could stimulate trade. Unsolicited orders are orders put in by new and unfamiliar customers that were not expected by the firm (MSRB, 2017). According to Bilkey (1978), unsolicited order can be considered an initiative to exports, and are often affirmed by the majority of firms receiving them. However, Norwegian seafood exports do not operate without a hitch. Scam and fraud directed to the exporters are occurring, often by professional swindlers claiming to be serious and established buyers in forms of companies or organisations, setting Norwegian seafood exporters back by billions of NOK (Tomassen J. H., 2016; Fiskeribladet, 2016; Kystmagasinet, 2011). Naturally, this could foster an environment suspicious and cautious towards unsolicited orders.

As mentioned, unsolicited orders can initiate trade through e.g. exports. International trade contributes not only to the world economy, but also to the exporting countries by enabling growth and creating jobs, in addition to stimulating productivity and innovation through competition (Jackson, 2015). Growth and prosperity in markets can motivate to exports, and for small to medium sized enterprises (SMEs), internationalisation through foreign unsolicited orders have become more frequent (Bilkey, 1978; Graves & Thomas, 2008). Considering both the risk and potential gains associated with international trade - what motivates the Norwegian seafood exporters to follow foreign unsolicited orders?

A few studies have researched patterns observed on affirmed unsolicited orders and their function as initiatives to internationalisation (Bilkey, 1978; Andersson, Gabrielsen & Wictor, 2004; Hutchinson, Alexander, Quinn & Doherty, 2007; Graves & Thomas, 2008). Nevertheless, literature depicting the motives behind internationalising through unsolicited orders seem very rare. There exists extensive literature on motives to internationalise, such as push and pull factors, seeking-motives and what motivations consists of (Behrman, 1972; Porter, 1986; Dunning, 1992; Rice, 1993; Cuervo-Cazurra, Narula & Un, 2015). However, the perception of unsolicited orders as an instrument to internationalise seem to be less prioritised in the internationalisation literature. Even so for the potential motives which can influence the choice of following foreign unsolicited orders. Therefore, it appears to be a gap in the internationalisation literature which this study seeks to explore. To illuminate and contribute to

the internationalisation literature, this study will research motives behind the choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders in the context of internationalisation.

1.2 Research Question

Norwegian seafood is one of Norway's most exported goods, and the successful industry set their third sales record in a row in 2016 (Norwegian Seafood Council, 2017). By researching what motivates the actors of this industry and *how* they are motivated could increase the understanding about one of Norway's biggest industries, and its role in international trade. This study wishes to contribute to the literature in internationalisation on this specific area, by researching foreign unsolicited orders role in internationalisation, and the motivational factors behind. To operationalise this research initiative, the following research question was developed:

To what extent have foreign unsolicited orders motivated Norwegian seafood exports to enter new markets?

With the following sub-questions:

1. *What motivational factors influence the exporters' choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders?*
2. *What are the main drivers behind the key motivational factors?*
3. *Are there any significant differences between SMEs and LSEs concerning the key motivational factors to follow foreign unsolicited orders?*

Sub question one addresses the factors motivating the exporters to pursue foreign unsolicited orders, while sub-question two aims to investigate what the main drivers behind these motivational factors are. The third sub-question seeks to explore if the motivational factors differ between smaller and larger firms. Only the motivational factors that show a relationship to the choice of following foreign unsolicited orders of statistical significance, will have their drivers analysed.

To develop the hypotheses for this study's research question, literature by Tracey, Vonderembse and Lim (1999), Shane (2000) and Grègoire & Shepherd (2010) was applied. These studies pertain to entrepreneurial and manufacturing literature, but assess the terms and variables for this study in a fitting manner, and will contribute to the research on the motivational factors behind the choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders.

1.5 Contributions to the Literature

This study seeks to contribute to the research and development of the internationalisation literature in five ways. First, a new research model will be developed and applied in this study to better investigate the research question. Second, this study will apply manufacturing literature in the context of internationalisation research to explain motivational factors in the new research model. As a third contribution, the thesis will contribute to the internationalisation literature by examining unsolicited orders as a tool of internationalisation and the key motivational factors behind it. Fourth, this study will explore the drivers behind the significant motivational factors, to better understand the exporters' motivations. Fifth, and lastly, this study will also contribute to the literature by researching size-related trends between firms and what motivates them to follow foreign unsolicited orders.

1.6 Limitations of the Research

This research paper is focusing on Norwegian seafood exporters only as they appear in the Norwegian seafood council's exporters register, and their motivations behind the choice of following foreign unsolicited orders. The motivations in this research was limited to flexibility and opportunity discovery, and the research do therefore not contain nor apply any other motivational factors.

1.7 The Thesis Structure

The thesis consists of five chapters describing this research background and process. This introduction is the study's first chapter, which aim is to present the thesis actualisation and research question. Additional, this chapter assesses a research gap in the internationalisation literature, of which this study seeks to contribute to. The chapter have also provided the overall contributions and limitations of this study, as well as this outline.

Chapter two contains the theoretical framework on which this research will base itself upon. It will define internationalisation in terms of this study, and explain its context with foreign unsolicited orders and motivations of internationalisation in the light of SMEs. The chapter will be rounded up by introducing the hypotheses of this study and the attaining research model, which have been especially created for the purpose of this study.

The methodological design of this study will be presented and elaborated in chapter three. The chapter will explain the choice of research design and proceedings. The research credibility in terms of measuring of concepts, validity, reliability, in addition to the methods of analysis will also be presented. Lastly, the methods of hypotheses-testing, which will be applied in the analysis chapter, is explained.

The fourth chapter contains the analysis of the data gathered for this study. The findings will be discussed in the context of the theoretical framework. The analysis will apply correlation analysis, regression analyses and t-test in order to examine the data. The hypotheses developed in chapter two, will be tested on the basis of a multiple regression analysis and summarised in the proposed research model. At the chapters end, additional analyses will be performed in order to fully utilise and understand the gathered data.

Chapter five entail the conclusion, implications and limitations of this study. At the end, propositions to further research will be presented.

2.0 Theory

This chapter will present the theoretical framework for this thesis. It will start by introducing internationalisation and its context of this study. This will be followed by a review of relevant literature on motivation for internationalisation in SMEs.

2.1 Internationalisation – A Theoretical Introduction

There are several reasons for why firms choose to engage in cross-border activities. Additional to the indisputable ambition of increased revenues, some firms could under various circumstances become motivated to internationalise due to a hostile or exhausted domestic market. Typically, small to medium sized enterprises (SMEs) could be more vulnerable to the latter circumstances than large sized enterprises (LSEs) (Daszkiewicz & Wach, 2014; Wright, Ucbasaran, & Weasthead, 2001). This is often as smaller enterprises can be less resourceful than their larger and more established competitors. When it comes to internationalisation, several scholars have found that the majority of SMEs enter new foreign markets based on foreign unsolicited orders (FUOs) (Bilkey, 1978; Andersson et al., 2004; Andersen & Buvik, 2002; Graves & Thomas, 2008).

In this study, internationalisation will be defined by whether a firm choose to export or not, based on foreign unsolicited orders. Internationalisation in this context pertains to firms already involved in cross-border activities, seeking to further internationalise by exporting to new foreign markets. This means that a firm is involved in international trade when it initiates exporting of goods and/or services across the company's national border.

The decision or propensity to follow FUOs may be seen as a strategic choice to potentially develop the orders from foreign markets into new business opportunities. As the orders are unsolicited, it may be challenging to predict the next strategic move. This approach to internationalisation challenges more conventional perspectives that argue for a stepwise and structured approach towards internationalisation, where a firm increase their international engagement on increased experiential knowledge about their market (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977). Scholars of this "classical" approach to the internationalisation process also argue for deliberate strategies, or a prescriptive take on strategy development (Ansoff, 1991; Mintzberg & Waters, 1985). By internationalising incrementally, a firm would start as a non-exporter, and gradually internationalise through irregular or passive exports. Incrementally, the exporter would become an active exporter before internationalising through equity or non-equity modes (Hollensen, 2014). A deliberate, or prescriptive strategy, is characterised by a planned strategy, which seek to achieve goals as precisely as possible (Mintzberg & Waters, 1985). The opposite

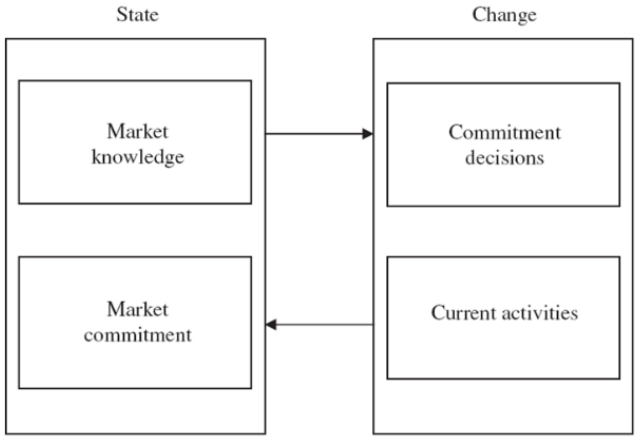
of deliberate strategies, are emergent strategies, which was defined by Idenburg as a "flexible, opportunistic and accidental manner to new, unpredictable developments…" (1993, p. 136). A pursuit of an unexpected FUO can be considered an emergent trait in a strategy. Therefore, this study focuses on the emergent traits in internationalisation strategies, by investigating the pursuit of FUOs (Mintzberg & Waters, 1985; Idenburg, 1993).

2.2 Internationalisation of SMEs

Many SMEs choose to internationalise, and the majority of them are successful in terms of sales and export intensity (Moen, 1999; Andersson et al., 2004). SMEs tend to use the export modes when internationalising, as it provides flexibility and less risk compared to other entry modes (Andersson, Gabrielsson, & Wictor, 2004; Wolff & Pett, 2000; Hollensen, 2014). According to Moen (1999), small firms that have internationalised through export, are often successful because they are the most competitive firms in their respective domestic markets. It has also been proven that smaller firms perform as effectively as larger ones (Wolff & Pett, 2000), even though not all SMEs has the resources to exploit the foreign markets fully if the domestic market is being prioritized (Boter & Holmquist, 1996). This occurs for example when a small firm do not have enough products to supply the foreign market, after prioritising the domestic market. (Calof & Beamish, 1995)

The way firms internationalise has developed over time. So has also internationalisation research and literature, and it seems that challenges of internationalisation were different in 1977. That year, the model which would be known as the Uppsala model (UM) was developed, and was highly innovative and accurate for its time. The original UM is presented below in figure 2. (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977).

Figure 2: The 1977 Uppsala model



Back in 1977 physical distances, such as kilometres and miles between markets and countries, were perceived as significant impediments. Psychological distance such as differences in language and culture was also portrayed as major concerns (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977; Sousa & Bradley, 2006). This leads us to the UM by Johanson and Vahlne, and its relationship between the state- and change aspects (1977), shown in their original model presented above.

The state aspect represents the business today, with its current commitments to a market, and knowledge of and about this specific market. The change aspect represents the process of business activities, and decisions of further commitment based upon experiences and knowledge gained by these processes, or activities. Both aspects have effects that synergize their development. In other words; The model suggests that the current state can be influenced by the activities in the market. This is because these activities help the business accumulate experience and knowledges about the market. Synergies and changes of states, like these in the UM, can also be found in present theories, such as for example consumer behaviour (Puto, 1987). As market knowledge increases, the model predicts that the motivation for further commitment increases. With more knowledge, commitment becomes less risky. Increased commitment means the business' state within that market has strengthened, and from this point the process will continue. Due to the fact that knowledge takes time to develop and accumulate, steps must be incremental to reduce risk and uncertainty related to further commitment.

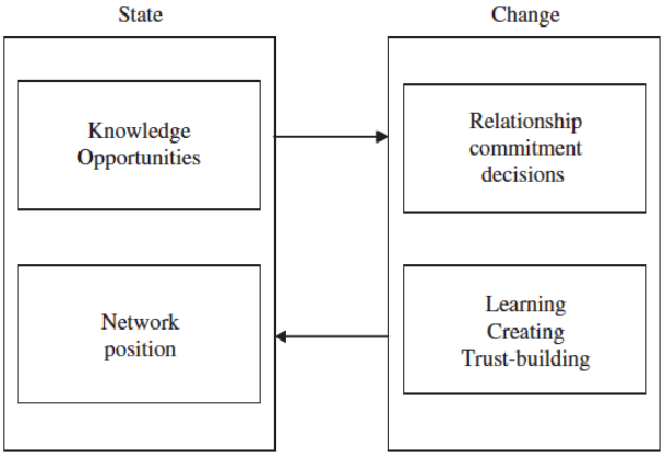
As mentioned, this model was quite ingenious for its time but has later been criticised by other scholars. One key criticism is related to the exaggeration of the Uppsala model's incrementalism of internationalisation through a sequential stepwise development (Forsgren, 2002). Just as Webster and Winds (1972) original model on organisational buying behaviour, the original Uppsala model laid the groundwork for other researchers to further examine the internationalisation processes of firms. This lead to contributions on the field of internationalisation processes and its literature. Some of these contributions that came after the original UM was literature on physical and psychic distance concerning how individuals perceive distances and barriers for trade based on cultural differences (Andersson et al., 2004; Sousa & Bradley, 2006). Additionally, the theory of born globals was introduced which argued that some firms could be considered international from the moment of their establishments, such as IT or software companies (Knight & Cavusgil, 2004). Some of the new literature applied to the field argued that emergent and unstructured traits in strategies made firms flexible, and enabled them to react to sudden market changes (Idenburg, 1993). This stands in contrast to the more conventional perception of the internationalisation process, which favoured

deliberate and descriptive strategies (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977; Idenburg, 1993; Souchon et al., 2016; Mintzberg & Waters, 1985).

Furthermore, experiential knowledge is not the only way to accumulate market specific information. In fact, non-experiential learning, through for example acquisitions, could help speed up the internationalisation process (Johanson & Vahlne, 2009; Forsgren, 2002). This occurs by acquiring and exploiting the bought firms existing knowledge and resources such as the employees, capital, networks etc. in addition to tacit knowledge (Hollensen, 2014). This enabled firms to internationalise faster by leap-frogging steps in the UM internationalisation process (Oviatt & McDougall, 2005; Andersson et al., 2004).

The new studies and contributions to the field indicated a requirement of nuances in the literature, which Johanson and Vahlne acknowledged and responded to by revisiting the 1977 Uppsala model (Johanson & Vahlne, 2009). The revised Uppsala model is shown below in figure 3. What has changed from 1977, was that firms did no longer take as incremental and risk-reducing considerations as implied by Johanson and Vahlne in their first model.

Figure 3: The 2009 Uppsala model



The 2009 model has incorporated many of the newer perspectives such as the influence of relationships and networks in the internationalisation process (Bonaccorsi, 1992; Erramilli & Rao, 1990; Kirzner, 1973; Majkgård & Sharma, 1998; Sharma & Johanson, 1987). The modified model suggests that relationships between firms helps to recognize opportunities and problems as knowledge accumulates through this committed relationship (Johanson & Vahlne, J. E., 2009). Furthermore, relationships can help the focal firm internationalize as a second party can either invite them to follow abroad, or help find market opportunities together. The

motivation for the focal firm, is that the company on the other side of the relationship, has additional existing networks and relationships to other firms. In other words, it is easier for the second firm in the relationship to internationalise due to these existing networks, making it more lucrative for the focal firm to commit to a relationship (Johanson & Vahlne, J. E., 2009).

Based on the 2009 model (figure 3), we find that the network position becomes augmented through the process of the learning, creating and trust-building aspect. This is because the latter aspect enhances the business relationship. With a strengthened network position, firms gain more knowledge and market insight, and can therefore make informed decisions. These decisions can in turn affect the last aspect, the relationship commitment decision. This entails the decision to increase or decrease the commitment to a relationship, where either choice will affect the focal firms' internationalisation and success in some way.

Both the 1977 and 2009 Uppsala model have the same synergy effects, where the state aspects influence the change aspects and vice versa. In addition, it appears knowledge and learning are the driving forces behind this synergy, whether its learning through independent incremental steps or through relationships with other firms and their networks. Despite the modification of the Uppsala model and its elaboration on processes of internationalisation, the role of foreign unsolicited orders does not seem to have been addressed in the internationalisation literature so far.

Graves and Thomas (2008) in addition to Bilkey (1978) have argued that small firms often initiate exports as a reaction to other events, meaning unsolicited orders. Furthermore, Bilkey (1978) found that in five U.S studies on SMEs, FUOs was the motive to internationalise on an average of 67% among the cases. Additionally, Graves and Thomas (2008) found that approximately 50% of the family firms they studied, started their exports due to FUOs. In the same study, Graves and Thomas emphasised that there was little knowledge about what influenced the pathways of internationalisation among small firms. This indicates that there is a need to further investigate FUOs as a means to internationalise, and understanding the motivations behind the choice to follow FUOs.

2.3 Motives Behind Internationalisation Based on Foreign Unsolicited Orders

Motivation can be a very broad term, as it often has specific meanings for different individuals. This study follows Rice's definition of motivation, which states that; "Motivation is the mixture of wants, needs and drives within the individual which seek gratification through the acquisition of some experience or object." (1993, s. 148). This means that firms could be motivated to follow FUOs based on what they can acquire from it. In other words, opportunities or occurrences which can put someone in a better position than their current one, do have a tendency to motivate action (Kahneman, 2003).

To operationalise motivation, the term can be explained by differentiating between primary and secondary motivation (Rice, 1993). Primary motivations are motivation we are all born with, which is not taught but rather function as an instinct of survival such as thirst and hunger (Rice, 1993). The secondary motivation is the focus of this study, and are the motives we learn during our upbringing. Secondary, or learned motives, are a range of various individual motives. It is usually motivation used to for example gain accept among different social groups such as families, friends, colleagues, etc. (Rice, 1993). When considering potential gains related to following FUOs, secondary motivations would be the decision makers guiding motivation. This could also be associated with positive motivation and negative motivation. The former describes a motivation where we want to satisfy a need (achieve good grades), and the latter something we seek to avoid (speeding tickets) (Rice, 1993).

There may be several motives for why firms internationalise (Hutchinson et al., 2007). SMEs do however have the disadvantage of being less resourceful than larger firms, often in terms of financial assets (Kubíčková, Votoupalová, & Toulová, 2014). Nevertheless, the positive effects found on the internationalisation of SMEs could outweigh the negatives. Kubíčková et al. (2014), states that SMEs operating abroad tend to have high growth and employment rates in addition to higher innovative activities. This is also supported by the European Commisons report on internationalisation of european SMEs (European Commission, 2010). Internationalised SMEs are in fact also obtaining increased capacity and revenues in addition to improved financial resilience (Kubíčková et al., 2014).

The abovementioned motives state why internationalisation can be attractive to SMEs. However, the motivation behind the choice to internationalise could vary, and depend on individual motivations for each firm and their current market environment (Rice, 1993). For some, the situation in the domestic market could motivate businesses to initiate cross-border activities. These are often called push and pull factors (Cuero-Cazurra et al., 2015; Kacker,

1985; Porter, 1986). Push factors could be determinants in the existing industry, such as competition and saturation, while pull factors are attractive aspects of the foreign market, such as economic stability and growth (Bilkey, 1978; Hutchinson et al., 2007). Another highly encouraged motivational theory, is the "seeking" motives (Behrman, 1972; Dunning, 1993), which base itself on the company's motivation to internationalise based on the pursuit of resources, market aspects, efficiency and/or assets (Cuervo-Cazurra et al., 2015).

Other scholars propose that a company's motive to internationalise often lies within the manager, or entrepreneur (Bilkey, 1978). Bilkey (1978) propose that the manager's previous international experience and exposure to foreign culture and language could ultimately lead to a latent urge to bring the firm abroad. This relates to a manager's psychic distance, as mentioned earlier (Sousa & Bradley, 2006). Another motivation to internationalise, could be the potential developing of new business networks (Rundh, 2003). These networks could encourage collaboration, and help tapping into important resources as mentioned with the 2009 Uppsala model (Hutchinson et al., 2007; Johanson & Vahlne, J. E., 2009). Networks could in that sense function as safety nets, allowing firms to internationalise while sharing resources and risk (Johanson & Vahlne, 2009). Resources and risk are important factors, as they often hinder SMEs to internationalise, especially if firms go abroad by themselves (Graves & Thomas, 2008).

For this study, it is important to accentuate Kubíčková et al.'s finding on how reasons behind the choice of internationalising can be studied through motives (Kubíčková et al., 2014), and that opportunities and occurrences are considerable parts of these motivations (Boter & Holmquist, 1996). In addition to the find that SMEs often internationalise in random patterns (Boter & Holmquist, 1996), these studies emphasise the current trends and pattern of SMEs internationalising through FUOs (Bilkey, 1978). Furthermore, Calof and Beamish (1995) found that firms have been known to be so attracted to opportunities, that they have gone directly from exporting to a country to producing in it, just to take advantage of an opportunity. On the other hand, seizing opportunities could be just a first step in a long process, and not all markets offer possibilities of the scale explained by Calof and Beamish. Looking to the EU and their current financial downturn (von Hagen, Schunecht, & Wolswijk, 2011), some SMEs need to internationalise in order to survive and maintain flexibility (Kubíčková et al., 2014). The need to diversify risk into diverse markets, and simultaneously gain profits from these markets could help a firm become more flexible and withstand market changes, such as the financial crisis in the EU (Kubíčková et al., 2014; Bordoloi, Cooper & Matsuo, 1999). Kubíčková et al. (2014)

also mentions that foreign demand can initiate exports, which can help achieve flexibility through e.g. increased sales and revenues.

The literature on motivations behind internationalisation are many and varying, and yet none have included the situation of internationalisation through foreign unsolicited orders (Hutchinson et al., 2007; Cuervo-Cazurra et al., 2015; Kacker, 1985; Porter, 1986; Andersson et al., 2004). To research this topic, it is important to consider the emergent traits characterising FUOs (Mintzberg & Waters, 1985). Therefore, the definition on emergent strategies by Idenburg will be governing to refine the research agenda in this paper. Idenburg's definition were presented in the introduction, and stated that; "…it is necessary to react in a flexible, opportunistic and accidental manner to new unpredictable developments and muddle through" (1993, p. 136). Considering the findings by Kubíčková et al. (1995), Calof & Beamish (1996) and Boter & Holmquist (2014) presented previously, flexibility and opportunism were significant factors that both fit and emphasize the governing definition. Additionally, both flexibility and opportunities are considered significant motivating factors for SMEs wanting to internationalise (Bilkey, 1978; Boter & Holmquist, 1996; Calof & Beamish, 1995; Kubíčková et al., 2014).

Motivation could probably never be generalised as it is complex and varying between individuals, but for this study "flexibility" and "opportunity discovery" have been chosen as variables representing the key motivational factors to pursue FUOs. Considering the data gathering, the term "opportunism" from Idenburg's definition, was altered to "opportunity discovery" in order to avoid negatively charged associations. It is not believed that this change will cause biases in terms of understanding and results, as the variable's purpose is to reveal to what degree a possible market opportunity motivates a firm to pursue FUOs. Opportunity discovery and flexibility are therefore chosen as this study's independent variables and will be elaborated in the following.

2.3.1 Flexibility as a Motivation to Pursue Foreign Unsolicited Orders

Some could perceive FUOs as a possible stepping stone into the international market, but also as a generator of flexibility (Bilkey, 1978; Tracey et al., 1999). Is it possible that firms could perceive that following FUOs can generate flexibility through increased market shares, revenues and customer portfolios? And could this lead to competitive advantages in terms of more efficient solutions, better capabilities and improved customer satisfaction? If so, flexibility could be a key motivational factor in the choice to follow FUOs.

The study of Tracey et al. 1999, emphasise that the ways to practice flexibility have changed over the years, going from being financially oriented (economies of scale) to becoming more customer oriented (economies of scope) (Tracey et al., 1999; Kubíčková et al, 2014). They continue by arguing that quality, timely delivery, enhanced customer service and flexible systems are the "new way" of achieving competitive advantage (Tracey et al., 1999).

To measure flexibility, Tracey et al. (1999) used indicators which they called "Level of Performance" (LOP) indicators in their literature on manufacturing flexibility. According to their study, the LOP indicators function as triggers, or drivers, of flexibility. The indicators used in their research had been tested on a large sample, and showed satisfactory values on validity measures (Tracey et al., 1999). On this basis, it was evident that the LOP indicators fit this study's perception of flexibility, and the intention behind the term as a measure. These indicators were therefore adopted to this research and consisted of; Customer perceived value (CPV), customer retention rate (CRR), generating new business through customer referrals (GNB), sales growth (SG), market share growth (MG) and flexibility of delivery (FD) (Tracey et al., 1999).

The customer perceived value (CPV) measure to what degree customers perceive that they get their moneys' worth, which means that the quality, or anticipated benefit of the product correspond with the price customers pay for it (Tracey et al., 1999). This is important for the customer portfolio, as satisfied customers can generate positive ripple effects, such as the two following indicators; customer retention rate (CRR) and the generating of new business through customer referrals (GNB). CRR measure to what extent a company manage to retain, or hold on to, their customers. GNB pertains to the rate existing customers recommends the firms' products and services to other potential buyers, which in turn can generate new businesses for the firm. This way, a firm can achieve competitive advantage through flexibility through diversified customer portfolios and competitive advantage through positive word of mouth, among others (Hollensen, 2014; Tracey et al., 1999). The sales growth (SG) and market growth (MG) seeks to investigate to what extent increased revenues (SG) and/or increased market shares (MG) influence flexibility. SG and MG holds the assumption that an increase for these indicators would have a positive effect on flexibility as an overall measure (Tracey et al., 1999). Finally, flexibility of delivery (FD) pertains to the firms' terms and conditions of shipments and delivery of products, and to what extent the firms adapt these terms to the customers' demands (Tracey et al., 1999).

It is likely that firms could perceive that following FUOs could provide access to new customers and markets. This access could potentially generate flexibility based on the indicators elaborated above, and ultimately function as a motivational factor. Based on this presumption, and the literature by Tracey et al. (2010) on flexibility and its measures, the following hypothesis was developed:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between Norwegian seafood exporters' choice to follow FUOs and the key motivational factor flexibility.

2.3.2 Opportunity Discovery as a Motivation to Pursue Foreign Unsolicited Orders

Some firms could be motivated by the access to new market opportunities that FUOs could potentially envision. By accepting unsolicited foreign orders, it is possible that some firms can hope for a snowball-effect, contributing to increased international connections and business? However, the discovery of opportunities does rely on certain indicators that can make it seem both more or less motivational for different firms, depending on their resources. This is according to Shane and his study from 2000. Furthermore, Grègoire and Shepherd (2010) emphasises that the potential reward, or change in supply and demand for the focal firm, is essential in the recognition of an opportunity actually *being* an opportunity, in terms of yielding returns.

To measure opportunity discovery as a key motivational factor in the choice of following FUOs, this study will use the tested indicators from the in-depth studies of Shane and Grègoire & Shepherd (2000; 2010). The measure will therefore consist of the three measures prior market knowledge (PMK), information asymmetry (IA) and certainty in supply and demand change (CSDC).

Individuals' prior market knowledge (PMK) and experiences dictate the way they interpret and put new information to use (Shane, 2000). This preposition, assumes that PMK influences the extent to which individuals are able to recognise or discover opportunities in their surroundings. In other contexts, opportunities can be discovered when information asymmetry (IA) exist in the market. IA occurs when one actor has more or different information than the others (about prices, suppliers etc.), and uses this information to gain competitive advantages (Shane, 2000). Finally, one of the most important motivations to search for and discover opportunities, might be the potential yields they offer. Implicitly, it is important that one is certain of a reward before seizing an opportunity. Or in the words of Grègoire and Shepherd (2010); the firm is certain of the change in supply and demand, meaning any change as a consequence of following the

opportunity, will leave the firm better off. This study has limited gains in the context of opportunity discovery to entail financial gains.

It might be plausible that the more prior market knowledge, information asymmetry (in the focal firms favour) and certainty in supply and demand change a firm withholds, the more motivated it might be to follow FUOs. Nevertheless, being able to tap into new and possibly unexploited market opportunities could be an incentive to initiate new foreign business activities. If this could be possible by following foreign unsolicited orders, it might be plausible that opportunity discovery could act as a key motivational factor in the choice to follow FUOs. Based on the discussion above, and as the indicators by Shane, Grègoire & Shepherd fits this study's perception of opportunity discovery as a measure, the following hypothesis was constructed:

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between Norwegian seafood exporters' choice to follow FUOs and the key motivational factor opportunity discovery.

2.4 Proposed Research Model

As this study's objective is to research to what extent flexibility and opportunity discovery function as key motivational factors in the choice to follow FUOs, the research model in figure 4 was developed to examine the research question:

Figure 4: Proposed research model

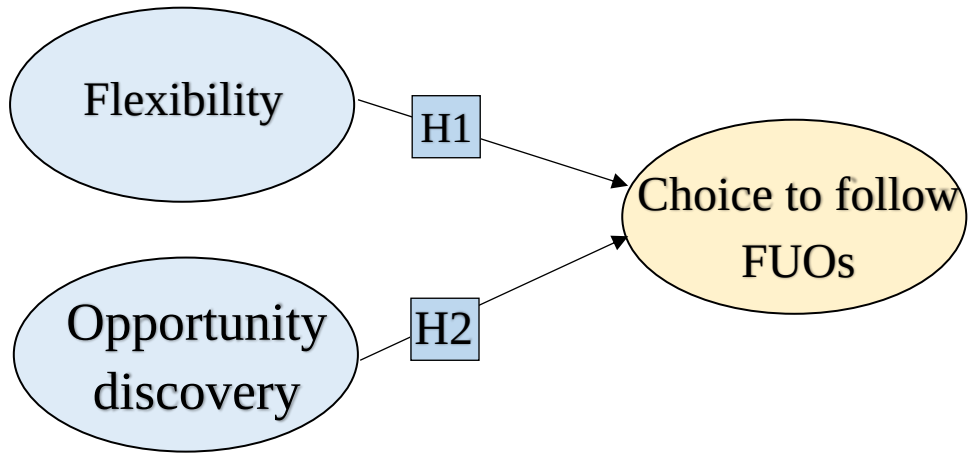


Figure 4 shows the proposed research model, which have been developed with the specific purpose of this study, as there are no previous models or literature on the area. The research model shows that the dependent variable, which is the choice to follow FUOs, can be predicted by the motivational factors flexibility and opportunity discovery, which are the independent

variables. If the research model shows favourable outcomes, there would be a positive relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable, meaning that the choice to follow FUOs (dependent variable) can be motivated by flexibility and opportunity discovery (independent variables).

3.0 Research Methodology

This chapter will present the methodological approach of this study, and will start by introducing the choice of research method and design, before explaining the process of data gathering and the questionnaire's sample. This will be followed by a measurement of the study's concepts and the research's credibility, before introducing the various methods of analysis which will be used.

3.1 Research Method

Using a research method means finding an approach to gather information about reality, and how to analyse the data and ultimately what the findings tells us about a relationship or process (Johannessen, Christoffersen, & Tufte, 2011). In this context one can distinguish between qualitative and quantitative methods to test associations between variables. Quantitative methods operate with hard data through numbers and answers that can be quantified, which makes comparison and the development of statistics possible (Jacobsen, 2015). This stands in contrast to qualitative methods where data is collected through words, and is useful when various nuances and understanding related to a phenomenon are important (Johannessen et al., 2011).

In this research, the goal is to investigate to what extent Norwegian seafood exporters follows FUOs motivated by 1) increased and/or improved flexibility and 2) gaining access to discover new market opportunities. This will be studied by researching if there is a statistical significant relationship between the independent variables (1 and 2) and the dependent variable (choice to follow FUOs). On this basis, this study has chosen a quantitative research method. This is because when studying the extent of a phenomenon to gain an overview, or to generalize it, a quantitative method is best suited (Jacobsen, 2015). Furthermore, this study aims to make an inference of the population, which are Norwegian seafood exporters, based on a sample, which makes quantitative methods the natural research method (Jacobsen, 2015). Therefore, this study has chosen to use a cross-sectional study and collecting data systematically through questionnaires. This way, data could be quantified and compared in order to make statistics with the help of SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). SPSS is a computer software allowing researchers to perform statistical analyses of quantitative data (Johannessen, 2009). The research process will be elaborated in sub-chapter 3.3.

3.2 Choice of Research Design

A research design's purpose is to form the study by detecting what data you want to gather and how to collect them, in order to achieve the research aims (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Jackson, 2012). This is usually done by assessing the research question to uncover what design would best fit, in terms of the study's form and time aspect (Jacobsen, 2015).

A research design can be either intensive or extensive (Johannessen et al., 2011). An intensive study implies an in-depth approach to the studied phenomenon, whilst an extensive study has more range and is more far-reaching (Jacobsen, 2015). As this study uses a quantitative research method, and seeks to generalise a phenomenon and make an inference, this research has an extensive research design. Furthermore, this study explains something that have occurred at a given point in time, which makes the study descriptive. This is also known as a cross-sectional study, which means that the data is collected in a specific point of time (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012).

3.3 Data Collection and the Questionnaire's Sample

The goal of quantitative research is often to achieve generalizable findings (Johannessen et al., 2011). To do this, it is not always necessary or possible to study the entire population. Therefore, one can select a sample of the population to study in hopes of being able to make an inference about the population (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). In this case, one can distinguish between probability and non-probability samples (Jacobsen, 2015).

A non-probability sample cannot ensure a researcher from a biased sample, and can therefore act as an element of uncertainty throughout the research. Meanwhile, probability samples have the strongest credibility as the samples are based on random picks of units from the chosen population. This also contributes to making the samples representable for the entire population (Johannessen et al., 2011). As the Norwegian seafood council has a register of all exporters of seafood (Norwegian Seafood Council, 2017) it was possible to use a probability sample through the method of systematic random sampling (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). This was done by systematically picking every fifth exporter in the register. Systematic random sampling does rely on a list, and impedes biases as the respondents are selected systematically (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012).

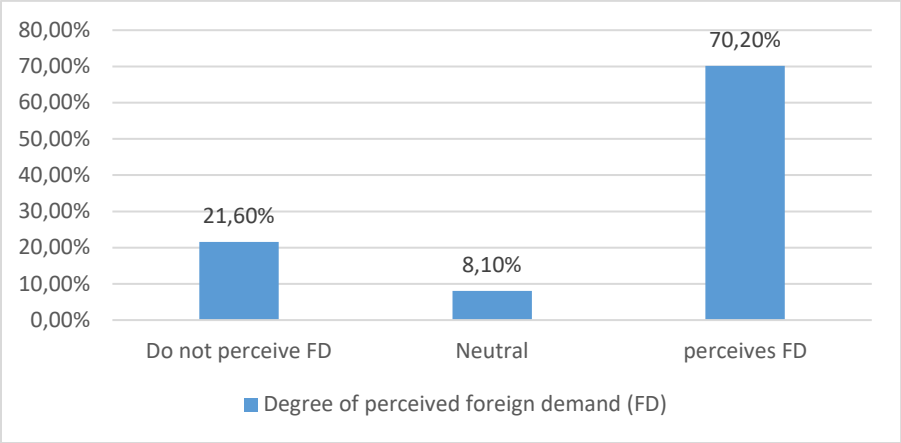
This study used a web-based cross-sectional study to gather data from the sample of Norwegian seafood exporters. After being pre-tested, the survey was distributed to email addresses acquired by calling every fifth exporter from the seafood council's register. The questionnaire-email contained thanks directed to the respondent for contributing to the study, information

about the researcher, what the study and questionnaire was about, and a description of what was meant by a foreign unsolicited order (FUO). Then the link to the survey followed, with contact information at the end in case any respondents had questions or other concerns they wanted to direct to the researcher.

The survey informed that the questionnaire was anonymous and would generate aggregated results which would only be used in the purpose of this study. Furthermore, to give respondents incentives to complete the survey, everyone that had participated could choose to receive a summary of the findings and results of the study. One and two weeks after sending out the survey, all recipients received a reminder to answer the questionnaire. To easily recognise which responses that were relevant when analysing, the respondents were asked if foreign demand motivated to follow unsolicited orders. The questionnaire is attached in appendix 1.

Unfortunately, the initial population of 350 were abbreviated to approximately 280 due to dereliction. Nevertheless, the questionnaire achieved a 13,2% response rate, which is higher than the expected 5-10% response rate for web-based surveys according to Jacobsen (2015). This means that the sample is relatively small, containing only 37 answered questionnaires, or observations, which could cause challenges with this study's ability to generalise findings (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Concerning generalisability and the determining of statistical power, this study satisfies the minimum requirement of 5:1. This implies that there should be a minimum of 5 observations for each independent variable (Hair et al., 2010) Regardless, as a consequence of the sample's size, one cannot generalise this study's findings with a high degree of certainty, unless the prospective relationships are very strong (Hair et al., 2010). This means that any inferences about the sample must be made cautiously. The construct of the sample have been illustrated on the next page, providing some descriptive statistics.

Figure 5: Respondent's degree of perceived foreign demand for their products.



An overview of the degree respondents' experience foreign demand (FD) for their products is shown in figure 5. To better illustrate the perceptions the alternatives "some degree", "high degree" and "very high degree" on the 7-point Likert scale have been summarized, as well as the alternatives for "no degree", "low degree" and "very low degree". It appears that the majority of the sample (70,2%) do seem to perceive a foreign demand for their products.

Figure 6: Distribution of positions within the sample in percent.

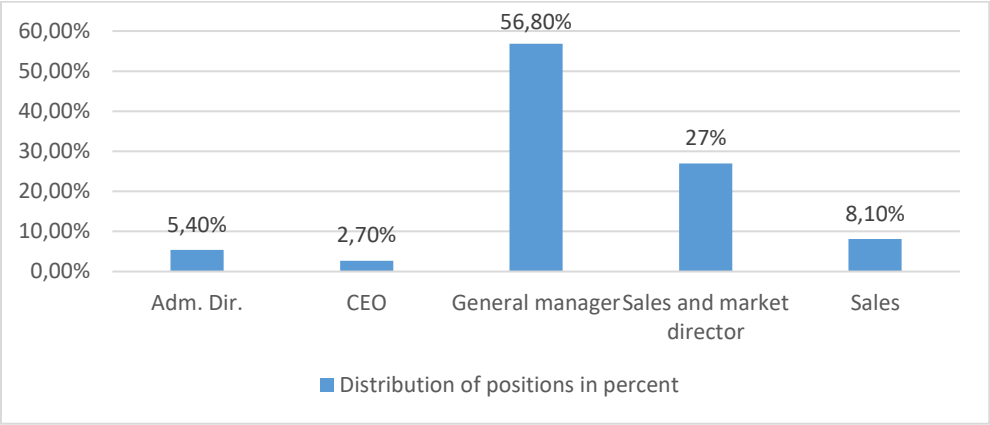
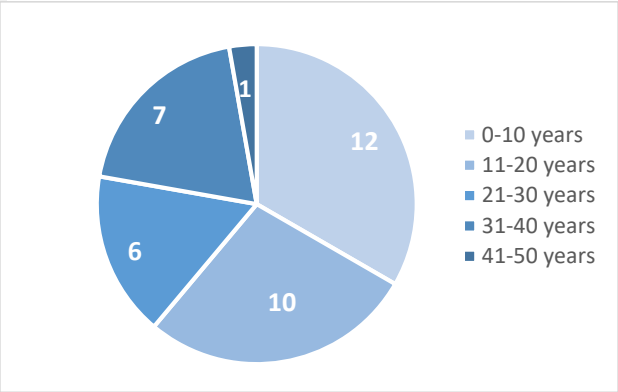


Figure 6 provides an overview of the most frequent work positions in the observations. There were 5 different positions among the respondents, with a majority of general managers (56,8%), followed by leaders from the companies' sales and market sections (27%).

Figure 7: The respondent's market experience in years.



The market experience among the respondents is displayed in figure 7, and varied from 0 – 45 years, where the majority of the units had a market experience ranging from 0-10 years and 11-20 years. In the context of this study, the respondents market experience was based on how many years they had worked within the seafood export industry.

3.4 Operationalisation and Measuring of Concepts

To research an independent variable's relationship to dependent variable, it is necessary to find indicators for the variables in order to measure them (Hair et al., 2010). The nature of a concept, is often found in previous literature and research, where it has already been operationalised to better investigate a phenomenon (Johannessen et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2010).

For the purpose of this study, there were no previous research which had made a theoretical foundation or research model with tested hypotheses and/or questions for indicators. Nevertheless, as explained in the literature, the independent variables flexibility and opportunity discovery are based on the theory presented by Idenburg (1993). Furthermore, all indicators used for these variables are rooted in previous literature and have been marginally adapted to fit this study (Tracey et al., 1999; Shane, 2000; Grègoire & Shepherd, 2010). This is to ensure the credibility of the indicators and their measures.

The original and pre-tested questions in the survey were in Norwegian to avoid misunderstanding among the respondents, but have been translated to maintain the linguistic flow of this paper.

3.4.1 Choice to Follow FUOs

The dependent variable of this research is *the choice to follow FUOs*. This study therefore aims to investigate if there is a significant relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables, flexibility and opportunity discovery. The dependent variable was measured by the respondent's motivation to follow FUOs based on foreign demand. The validity of this measure was ensured, and is elaborated further down in sub-chapter 3.5.1. The question used to measure this variable, asked to what degree the respondents' respective firms followed the FUOs they received. The answered was measured by a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = "no degree" to 7 = "very high degree".

Based on the lack of literature, the question primarily sought to confirm that there in fact was any motivation among Norwegian seafood exporters to follow FUOs, and was especially influenced by the studies of Bilkey (1978), Andersson et al., (2004), Hutchinson et al., (2007) and Graves & Thomas (2008) to ensure the measure's face validity.

3.4.2 Flexibility Indicators

The following indicators in table 1 measures a firm's flexibility, and are based on the previous research of Tracey et al. (1999). In their research, the indicators are referred to as performance measures which enhances flexibility in firms, and fits this study's perception of flexibility as a motivational factor to follow FUOs (Tracey et al., 1999). The following questions was used to measure the six indicators, and are inspired by Tracey et al.'s definition and tested questions from their study (1999).

All concepts were measured by a seven-point Likert scale with alternatives varying for the questions measuring importance, degree and the open answers. The Likert scale answers ranged from 1 = "not important" to 7 = "very important" and 1= "no degree" to 7 = "very high degree", depending on the nature of the question. In questions on percentages the answers were open, so the respondent was encouraged to answer in numbers only. The questions with open answers are marked with an asterisk, as shown in table 1 on the next page.

Table 1: Flexibility indicators

	Flexibility indicators	Mean	Std. D.
Customer perceived value (CPV)			
1	In your opinion, to what extent do your customers experience they get their money's worth?	5,65	,889
2	How important are your customers perceived value of your products for your company's flexibility?	5,62	,982
Customer retention rate (CRR)			
3	To what degree do your company experience that foreign unsolicited orders develops into regular customers?	3,89	1,612
4	How important is it for your company's flexibility to turn foreign unsolicited orders into regular customers?	4,30	1,730
Generating new business through customer referrals (GNB)			
5	To what degree does your company experience that customer referrals from regular customers generate foreign unsolicited orders?	4,03	1,590
6	How important are customer referrals for your company's flexibility?	4,51	1,521
Sales growth (SG)			
7	How much have your market shares grown the past three years in percent? *	*	*
8	To what degree have sales growth the past three years influenced your company's present flexibility?	4,30	1,579
9	How important have sales growth the past three years been for the company's flexibility?	4,68	1,651
Market growth (MG)			
10	How much have your market shares grown the past three years in percent? *	*	*
11	To what degree have market share growth the past three years influenced your company's flexibility?	3,76	1,739
12	How important have market share growth the past three years been for the company's present flexibility?	4,16	1,537
Flexibility in delivery (FD)			
13	In what degree are your company flexible in developing delivery schedules?	5,27	1,283
14	In what degree do your company alter the delivery schedules per each customer's requirements?	5,24	1,442
15	How important have your delivery schedules been for your company's flexibility?	4,95	1,373

The two right-hand columns in table 1 show the means and standard deviation of the answers for each question. The mean values show the average answer alternative among the respondents. The standard deviation shows how concentrated the data is, by showing us how much the data deviate from the mean (Easterby-Smith et al.,2012). Table 1 shows that the questions 3, 4, 9 and 11 have the highest deviations, varying from 1,612 to 1,739. This means

that these questions had answers that deviated further from the mean compared to the other questions. Furthermore, the deviation for e.g. question 11 (1,739) means that the answers varied between 2 to 5,5. Ultimately, some respondents thought that market share growth had not been very important (alternative 2 on Likert scale) for their company's flexibility, whilst others meant that the same indicator had been highly important (somewhere along 5 or 6 on Likert scale). As for the other questions in approximate values, question 3 had a variance ranging from 2,3 to 5,5, question 4 had a deviation from 2,6 to 6, while question 9 standard deviation varied between 3 to 6. There could be several reasons for the variance in the answers. Plausibly, the broad representations of firms, from very small to well established and large firms, could be an explanatory factor.

3.4.3 Opportunity Discovery Indicators

The following indicators in table 2 (p. 27) measures the firms desire of opportunity discovery in the market as a motivation to follow FUOs, and are based on the previous studies of Shane and Grègoire & Shepherd (2000; 2010). The questions for prior market knowledge (PMK) and Information Asymmetry (IA) are developed by slightly rewriting and operationalising the tested hypothesises in Shane's study (2000), whilst the questions for the certainty of supply and demand change (CSDC) are built and inspired by the questions and definitions used in Grègoire & Shepherd's study (2010).

For the opportunity discovery measure, all concepts have also been measured by a seven-point Likert scale with alternatives varying for the questions measuring importance and degree. The answers ranged from 1= "not important" to 7= "very important" and 1= "no degree" to 7= "very high degree", depending on the nature of the question.

The questions for the measure is presented in table 2, and show the answers' means and standard deviation in the two columns to the right. It appears that the answers for the questions measuring opportunity discovery deviate less compared to the flexibility measure, as no deviation exceed 1,3. This means that the respondents answers converged better than in table 1.

Table 2: Opportunity discovery indicators

	Opportunity discovery indicators	Mean	Std. D.
	Prior market knowledge (PMK)		
1	To what degree do your company experience an independence on prior market knowledge to discover new market opportunities?	5,51	1,170
2	How important is prior market knowledge for your company in the discovery of new market opportunity?	5,54	1,169
	Information asymmetry (IA)		
3	To what degree does your company experience that the different actors in the market has different market information?	4,92	1,211
4	How important is it for your company to have information no other actors have, in order to discover new market opportunities?	5,24	1,164
	Certainty in supply and demand change (CSDC)		
5	To what degree do your company experience that newly discovered market opportunities offers financial gains?	5,00	,943
6	How important is the certainty that newly discovered market opportunities offer financial gains for your company	6,00	,913

Finally, it was also decided to use the companies' sizes in terms of average revenue as a control measure. This way t-tests could be applied to find any noticeable differences in some variables between the smaller and larger firms. The control measure was measured by asking the respondents how much they have earned in average per year the last three years.

Additionally, some demographic variables were added to the questionnaire in terms of work position, years in said position, market experience as well as size in terms of revenues, number of employees, regular orders per month, and FUOs per month. These had open answers where the respondent was encouraged to answer in whole numbers or name of position only.

3.5 Research Credibility

A research's credibility pertains to the validity and reliability of the study (Jacobsen, 2015). Validity is a measure of the relevance of the data used to represent a phenomenon, and how good they are (Johannessen et al., 2011). Reliability on the other hand, looks at the accuracy of the study's data in terms of how they were gathered and processed (Johannessen et al., 2011). To ensure the credibility of this research, validity and reliability was considered throughout the entire process, from deciding how to gather data to the analysis of them. How validity and reliability were maintained during this study and the elaboration of the terms follows beneath.

3.5.1 Validity

Validity is a "quality check" on how accurate one's data measure and represent the phenomenon that is being researched (Easterby-Smith, 2012). A study's validity can be further categorised as external and internal validity (Jacobsen, 2015)

External validity pertains to what extent one can generalise one's findings from the sample to be valid for the entire population (Jacobsen, 2015). This study used a probability sample when gathering data, which contributes to avoiding systematic biases regarding the sample, and ensure that potential findings are representable for the population (Jacobsen, 2015). Nevertheless, there will always be uncertainties related to response biases and the generalisability of findings for a whole population, especially when the sample is small (Johannessen et al., 2011).

Internal validity refers to how credible the findings of the study are, and to what extent the research data supports any causalities (Jacobsen, 2015). To ensure internal validity, conscious choices regarding using relevant, proved and current theory was made, as well as undertaking a pre-test of the questionnaire. The pre-test consisted of sending the survey to an initial 10 individuals to erase any ambiguities and to make sure the questionnaire was short and easy to complete. The pre-test resulted in a few minor adaptations before it was declared completed. Additionally, measurements of concepts were important to make sure the concepts were relevant and well known among the units in the sample to avoid biases (Johannessen et al., 2011). These concepts were rooted in theory to further ensure the validity of this study's measures (Tracey et al., 1999; Shane et al., 2000; Grègoire et al., 2010).

In research, one can also look at validity in terms of convergent validity, discriminant validity and face validity. Convergent validity refers to how well the measures of a concept describe the phenomenon the concept is assigned to (Jacobsen, 2015). Convergent validity can be sustained through for example factor analysis. Factor analysis is used to detect any correlations or patterns between variables (Johannessen, 2009). The analysis helps see if answers group together and load on the same factors (Hair et al., 2010). This is useful, as it helps the researcher to detect if the questions from a survey measures the right phenomenon, and if not, provides the opportunity to extract them from the measure they were meant for, in order to increase validity. Usually, a measure with high validity will show that answers supposed to measure the same phenomenon cluster together, and have high loadings on the same factor. (Hair et al., 2010). A factor analysis should preferably have factor loading values between 0,5 to 0,7 (Hair et al., 2010).

However, there are some preconditions to perform factor analyses. There are various opinions on how big a sample size should be in order to use factor analysis, ranging from 300 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) to 50 observations at a bare minimum if the correlations are good (Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al., (2010) continues by explaining that there should preferably be 100 or more observations to perform a factor analysis, in addition to a minimum of 20 observations per variable. Therefore, due to only 37 observations, this study does not have the acquired amount of observations to ensure convergent validity through factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, it was decided not to perform factor analyses as it potentially could distort any measures and/or findings.

Nevertheless, convergent validity is defined as an "assessment of the consistency in measurements across multiple ways of measuring the same variable" by Barringer & Bluedorn (1999, p. 430). This supports Hair et al. (2010) which argues that convergent validity can be proved through high covariances between indicators or items measuring the same specific construct. Furthermore, reliability coefficient alphas are also measurements for convergent validity, seemingly independent of which reliability coefficient is used (Hair et al., 2010).

The convergent validity of the dependent variable was ensured through correlations with comparable items, per Barringer and Bluedorns' definition (1999). Table 3 shows a correlation matrix with the correlations between the dependent variable "choice to follow FUOs" and other questions intended to measure the same. Therefore, a high correlation between the dependent variable and other variables which are intended to measure the same, indicates convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 3: Correlation matrix measuring convergent validity

	Choice to Follow FUOs	
Comparable items to dependent variable	***r***	***p***
Follow FUOs based on foreign demand	0,538**	0,001
Follow FUOs motivated by flexibility	0,505**	0,001
Follow FUOs motivated by opportunity discovery	0,457**	0,004

**Significant at the 0,01 level (1%), two tailed. N = 37.

Table 3 shows the comparable items on the left-hand side, which are questions meant to measure the same as the dependent variable. It appears that all the comparable items have very strong and positive correlations to the dependent variable. Correlations (*r*) are significant at

values above 0,30, which will be elaborated in the sub-chapter 3.6. The correlations in table 3 have values of 0,457 and higher, which indicates strong correlations between the variables. Furthermore, all correlations are statistical significant (*p*) at the 1% level (*p*= 0,001, 0,001 and 0,004). This mean that the comparable items have very strong and significant correlations with the dependent variable. Ultimately, this indicates that the variables converge as they seem to be similar due to the strong relationships. It can therefore be concluded that the dependent variable is a valid measure. The original correlation matrix which table 3 is based on, can be found in appendix 2.

Discriminant validity measures if the different concepts are independent of each other, and that they represent different phenomenon (Hair et al., 2010). To discover to what extent the concepts are independent, correlation analyses can be used. This means that for a concept to be considered independent, the correlation coefficient should be 0,8 or lower (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 4: Correlation matrix of the independent variables

	Opportunity Discovery	**Flexibility**
Opportunity Discovery	*r*: 1	
Flexibility	*r*: - ,175 *p*: ,300	*r*: 1

N = 37

Table 4 contains a correlation matrix with the independent variables, and shows no positive relationship between them. On the contrary, the relationship is negative on an insignificant level (r = -0,175, p = 0,300) and the value for the correlation is well below 0,8. This means that there are no significant or positive relationship between flexibility and opportunity discovery. Hence, the discriminant validity has been tested and ensured for this study. The original correlation matrix is provided in appendix 5.

Face validity, which is also known as content validity (Hair et al., 2010), can in some degree be considered as using common sense when considering whether or not there is a correspondence between an item and the conceptual definition used to measure it (Johannessen et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al. (2010) describes that face validity is to «ensure that the selection of scale items extend past just empirical issues to also include theoretical and practical considerations» (p. 125). This study has used research and articles by recognised scholars and relevant literature to ensure the content validity. All measures for every variable

is also based on said literature. Furthermore, the pre-tests of the questionnaire contributed to the face validity by ensuring that all respondents would comprehend the survey.

3.5.2 Reliability

Reliability pertains to the collected data from the study and is essential for the quality of the data (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). For findings to be reliable, it is important that they are accurate and reliable (Johannessen et al., 2011). Reliability can be confirmed through methods such as "test-retest" methods or by finding "inter-reliability" (Johannessen et al., 2011). The "test-retest" method involve doing the same study twice with some time passing in between, while "inter-reliability" is found if two researchers do the same study simultaneously, but individually, and achieve the same results. The objective of these methods is to ensure reliability by proving that by following the same steps as in the initial study thoroughly, results will not vary independently of who is researching (Johannessen et al., 2011). In other words, the findings are reliable.

Nevertheless, one cannot fully exclude the risk of biases (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). In an attempt to reduce biases and enhance the data reliability, measures for flexibility and opportunity discovery that had been used in previous studies were applied to this study (Tracey et. al., 1999; Shane, 2000; Grègoire & Shepherd, 2010).

To measure the internal reliability of the study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was applied. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient measures how closely related a set of indicators are (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Cronbach's alpha varies from 0 to 1, and all values above 0,7 indicates that the study's reliability is at acceptable levels (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). The original reliability analyses of Cronbach's alphas for this study can be found in appendix 3.

The measure for flexibility consisted of 13 indicators, and had a cronbachs alpha equal to 0,845 which is well above the required levels. The measure was constructed by using all indicators except the indicators measuring sales and market share growth in percent, as they were on an ordinal scale. In other words, the measure for the independent variable flexibility could contain all indicators except those on an ordinal scale, and remain reliable.

The opportunity discovery measure did eventually contain only 3 indicators, and attained an acceptable Cronbach's alpha of 0,710. In the attempt to include all items in one united measure of opportunity discovery, the required levels for Cronbach's alpha was not satisfied. Therefore, an empirical approach was applied by choosing "scale item if deleted" in SPSS when developing the measure by testing the Cronbach's alpha. This way SPSS showed which items

should be extracted from the measure, in order to improve the value of the Cronbach's alpha. Ultimately, the most reliable measure contained only the two questions for previous market knowledge, and the question 3, about information asymmetry. This means that the indicator for certainty in supply and demand change was excluded in its entirety, as well as the question 4 about information asymmetry.

3.5.3 Possible Sources of Bias

When collecting data through questionnaires, there are some biases which is important to be aware of. First, the risk of discrepancy is valid and has proved to be a challenge for this study (Johannessen et al., 2011). Jacobsen (2015) mentions three reasons for why respondents do not complete surveys. These are 1) the respondent cannot be reached, 2) the respondent receives the survey but is not bothered with answering it, and 3) the respondent receives the survey, but refuse to answer.

Reason one was very appropriate for this study's discrepancy, as many companies had changed names, or did no longer exist or had dissolved their exporting activities. It is also possible that reason two and three became triggered by the number of meetings, travels and other work related activities many sales directors in the seafood export industry might do. This assumption is based on the automatic email replies received right after sending out surveys, saying that the individual was out of office, traveling or in meetings throughout the week. Nevertheless, all three reasons for discrepancy seem plausible for this study.

Due to this discrepancy, the generalisability of the study diminishes and is important to remember for every possible finding in the analysis. This is due to how the non-respondents could have answered differently than the actual respondents, and thus influenced the final result (Johannessen et al., 2011). Although, the sample is as mentioned appropriate for analysis (Hair et al., 2010).

A second bias is misunderstood or misinterpreted questions in the survey (Johannessen et al., 2011). This could result in respondents giving answers that do not reflect their true opinion. To avoid this, the email containing a link to the survey included a definition of "foreign unsolicited orders" in the context to this research. This was done in addition to the pre-test to be sure that the respondents understood what they were asked in the questionnaire.

The third, and last bias, is response bias. Response biases pertains to respondents who answers incorrect either deliberately or unconsciously (Johannessen et al., 2011). This means that some respondents can choose to deliberately give incorrect answers, to avoid putting themselves or

others in a bad light. Respondents that answer the survey while under time pressure and/or become annoyed with the length of the survey, can contribute to unconscious response biases (Johannessen et al., 2011).

3.6 Methods of Analysis

In the following sub-chapter the methods used for analysing the study's data will be presented, followed by an elaboration on how the different methods were applied. As previously mentioned, this study has a small sample with only 37 observations. According to Hair et al. (2010) a small sample, meaning less than 30 observations, are still appropriate for analytical methods such as correlations and simple regressions. Furthermore, as elaborated in sub-chapter 3.3, despite that generalisability should be done with caution, the sample do satisfy the minimum requirement of observations per independent variable (Hair et al., 2010).

3.6.1 Frequency Analysis

According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) a frequency analysis can be defined as a "summery representation of a sample of data containing the number of responses obtained for each alternative on the measurement scale" (p.341). This summary makes it possible to calculate shares in terms of percentages. As percentages are relative it gives a better impression of the distribution of the sample among the different indicators (Johannessen et al., 2011). In the context of indicators containing many and various answers, frequency distribution can contribute to categorise these values in intervals (Johannessen et al., 2011). In this study frequency analysis was used to gain an overview of the questionnaire's sample, the company sizes in terms of sales, work positions, years of market experience, customer portfolio, number of FUOs, as well as years of market experience.

3.6.2 Correlation Analysis

A correlation analysis measures the relationship between to variables, and this is commonly measured by the correlation coefficient Pearson's *r* (Johannessen et al., 2011).

Pearson's *r* measures whether the relationship, or covariance, between two variables are positive or negative, and how strong either relationship might be (Johannessen et al., 2011). The scale which the Pearson's *r* follows, goes from -1 to 1, meaning that values close to -1 means a strong negative relationship, and values close to 1 indicates a strong positive relationship. A value equal to 0 means that there is no linear correlation between the two variables (Johannessen et al., 2011).

Johannessen et al. (2011) emphasise that there is no set answer to what can be interpreted as a high correlation, but argues that a correlation between 0,30 and 0,40 can be considered fairly

strong, whilst values above 0,50 is considered a very strong correlation. In this study, a correlation analysis in terms of Pearson's *r* was used to measure the strength of the relationship between the independent variables, evaluate the discriminant and convergent validity, and the additional analysis of drivers of flexibility.

3.6.3 Regression Analysis

A regression analysis shows how the average value of a dependent variable varies with one or more independent variables (Johannessen et al., 2011). Whilst Pearson's *r* determines the strength of a relationship between variables, a linear regression analysis finds to what extent the variance in the dependent variable is due to the independent variable.

The variance between two variables is called R square (R^2). R^2 varies between a scale from 0 to 1, where 1 is perfect linear regression and 0 indicates that the independent variable does not explain any variances in the dependent variable (Johannessen et al., 2011). This means that a R^2 equal to 0,15 means that 15% of the dependent variable can be explained by an independent variable. Ultimately, the closer the value of R^2 approaches 1 (100%), the better the independent variable explain the variation for the dependent variable.

On the other hand, as one adds variables to a regression analysis, R^2 has a tendency to increase for each added variable. This happens even though it does not contribute to any further explanation of variances in the dependent variable (Johannessen et al., 2011). To counter this, one can look at the adjusted R^2 in multiple regression analyses. Both R^2's interpret the same values, except the adjusted R^2 corrects for each added variable. In a multiple regression analyses, one can also look to the F-test value which is used to control if all or one of the regression coefficients are different to zero (Johannessen et al., 2011). This means that a low F value indicates a higher probability of H^0 being supported.

3.7 Hypothesis-testing

Hypothesis-testing is used to confirm or reject the relationships of the dependent and independent variable (Johannessen et al., 2011). In this study regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses developed in the chapter 2, and *t* tests was used to test differences between small and larger firms.

To control that findings in the regression analysis and *t* test are significant, one has to look at the *p* and *t* the value. The *p* value is an indicator for significance, and varies between 0 – 1. The level of significance is often at 5%, implying a *p* value equal or less than 0,05. This means that there is only a 5% possibility that any results, in terms of relationships, are due to coincidences

(Johannessen et al., 2011). Therefore, If the *p* value is less than the chosen level of significance (e.g. 0,05), the relationship is of statistical significance (Johannessen et al., 2011). This study presumes to also comment findings significant at a 10% level ($p = 0,1$).

The regression analysis also examines relationships by looking at the unstandardized regression coefficient *b,* in addition to the *p* and t values. The beta (*b*) indicates the extent of which the independent variable predicts the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2010). This means that a positive beta indicates a positive relationship, and a negative beta indicates a negative relationship between two variables, such as the dependent and independent variable.

A t test is often used to find a difference between two sample means, with an aim to reject H^0 which states that there is no significant difference between the groups (Hair et al., 2010). The *t* value measures how statistical significant a difference between two groups within the same sample is (Hair et al., 2010). A difference is significant with *t* values equal or higher than 2,0 (Johannessen, 2009). This means that the higher the *t* value, the greater the probability that there is a significant difference between the groups (Minitab Blog, 2016).

The t test was used to see if there were any significant differences related to the firms' sizes in terms of average revenue. This was to detect any trends connected to a firm's size and other variables such as the dependent variable, independent variables, average of FUOs received per month, degree of perceived foreign demand and years of market experience among respondents. A t-test can be used as a hypothesis-test when comparing groups, such as small and large firms, as it investigates how probable the null-hypothesis (H^0) is.

However, it is advantageous to be aware of type 1 and type 2 errors in the context of disregarding hypotheses. A type 1 error explain the probability of rejecting the H^0, when it should have been accepted (Hair et al., 2010). Meaning that there in fact is a significant difference between the groups. On the other hand, a type 2 error occurs when a hypothesis stating a difference between the groups, say H^1, is rejected when it should have been discarded. Or implicitly put, rejecting H^0 when it should not have been rejected (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, in the addition to 0.1 significance levels, two-tailed test was applied for all correlations and regressions (Isaksen, 2006).

4.0 Analysis

In this chapter, the analysis of the study's data and its findings will be presented. This study wants to emphasise that all findings and their significance should be interpreted carefully as the size of the sample from which the data has been extracted, is smaller than what would have been preferred.

However, the chapter will be introduced by presenting a correlation analysis to detect any relationships, followed by a simple and multiple regression analyses to better understand the potential findings. The multiple regression analysis will be used to test the hypotheses presented in the theory chapter. To finish this chapter, some additional analyses will be conducted purely for the sake of interest and potential to increase understanding of the data gathered for this study.

4.1 Frequency of Foreign Unsolicited Orders

In order to investigate Norwegian seafood exporters motivations behind the choice to follow FUOs, it was important to ensure that they in fact received any. Therefore, this will be ensured before conducting any further analyses. For the additional analyses it is relevant to gain an overview of the sample and the sizes of the respondents' firms.

Table 5: Distribution of small and larger firms within the sample

Size	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Small firms ≤ 135 MNOK	19	51,4
Larger firms ≥ 135 MNOK	18	48,6
Total	**37**	**100**

Table 5 shows that the sample consisted of 37 observations, where 51,4% represented the smaller firms in the sample (average annual revenue less than MNOK 135). This revenue criteria for small firms coincides with the EU's distinction of SMEs (European Comission, 2017). The remaining 48.6% consisted of larger firms with an average annual revenue above MNOK 135. The firms were grouped in this manner as an enablement to perform T-tests which require equal sized groups. This way differences in motivations and other variables between smaller and larger firms could be explored.

Table 6: Sample distribution of FUOs per month and customer portfolio

	FUOs / month	Customer count
Mean	22,21	131,23
Std. Deviation	67,35	351,78
Median	5	40
Minimum	1	0
Maximum	400	2000

N = 37.

Table 6 shows descriptive statistics of the respondent's customer portfolio, and how many FUOs they receive in average per month. There seems to be a rather wide gap between the number of FUOs received by the respondents, ranging from the minimum of 1 to the maximum of 400 FUOs per month. Furthermore, the standard deviation for the sample is 67,35 with a mean of 22,21. This variance could be related to the different sizes in the sample. Nevertheless, table 6 confirms that all firms do receive FUOs, which makes it reasonable to conduct further analyses.

Table 6 also shows that there is a significant gap between the smaller and larger firms concerning the customer count, ranging from 0-2000 customers. It therefore seems important to emphasise that only 18,9% of the sample is represented by firms with customer portfolios exceeding 100 customers. See appendix 4 for the original SPSS frequency analysis which table 6 is based on.

4.1 The Correlation of the Variables

This study sought to investigate if there was a relationship between the choice to follow FUOs (dependent variable) and the motivational factors flexibility and opportunity discovery (independent variables). To discover any relationship, a correlation matrix was developed to find correlations between the variables, which are shown in table7 on the next page. The complete matrix can be found in appendix 5.

Table 7: Correlation matrix

	VIF	Choice to Follow FUOs (DV)	Flexibility	Opportunity Discovery	Average Revenue
Choice to Follow FUOs (DV)		1			
Flexibility	1,033	r = 0,361* p = 0,028	1		
Opportunity Discovery	1,149	r = 0,026 p = 0,879	r = -0,175 p = 0,300	1	
Average Revenue	1,149	r = 0,260 p = 0,121	r = -0,094 p = 0,582	r = 0,359* p = 0,029	1

*significant at the 5% level (p = 0,05), two-tailed. N = 37.

Table 7 shows that both flexibility and opportunity discovery have a positive relationship with the dependent variable. Nevertheless, only the relationship between flexibility and the choice to follow FUOs is of statistical significance at the 5% level (r = 0,361, p = 0,028). This indicates that the relationship is positive and considerably strong. Table 7 also shows that there is a weak positive correlation between the choice to follow FUOs and opportunity discovery (r = 0,026, p = 0,879) and shows no characteristics of being a statistical significant relationship. This means that even though the relationship between the dependent variable and opportunity discovery is positive, the correlation is too weak to be considered a significant finding.

The control variable size in terms of average revenues is also included in table 7. It does not show any statistical relationships with neither the dependent variable (r = 0,260, p = 0,121) or flexibility (r = -0,094, p = 0,582). This is as the relationships are too weak, both positively and negatively, in addition to high p values, which makes the findings insignificant. On the other hand, the positive relationship between the control variable and opportunity discovery is positive, and statistical significant at the 5% level (r = 0,359, p = 0,029). This indicates a strong and positive relationship between firm size in terms of average revenue and opportunity discovery.

However, we do recognise the negative correlation between the two independent variables from the methodology chapter, and perceive it as an evidence of the discriminant validity of the independent variables. This dismisses any problems concerning multicollinearity between the variables, considering that all r values are less than 0,70. Multicollinearity occur when the

independent variables are strongly correlated, which can distort the results of regression analyses and contribute to suspiciously high R^2 values (Johannessen, 2009). Multicollinearity can be further dismissed by low VIF (variance inflation factor) values, which are represented in the second column from the right in table 7. Pallant (2013) argues that values exceeding 10,0 can cause multicollinearity. As no VIF values in table 7 surpass values of 1,5, it can be concluded that the independent variables are far from being subject to multicollinearity.

4.2 Relationships Between Variables

To ensure the resilience of the data and to strengthen the foundation on which the hypotheses-testing will be based on, regression analyses was carried out. Both a simple and multiple regression analyses were conducted.

The output of the simple regression analysis is shown in table 8, with the purpose to ensure that both independent variables have an explanatory power of any variance in the dependent variable.

Table 8: Simple regression analysis

	R2	**Adjusted R2**	**F**	***b***	***t***	***p***
Flexibility	0,130	0,105	5,228	0,832	2,287	0,028
Opportunity discovery	0,001	-0,028	0,023	0,052	0,153	0,879

N = 37.

Table 8 further confirms the relationships in the correlation matrix in table 7. It seems like the independent variable, flexibility, explain 13% of the variances in the dependent variable. It also shows a relatively high F value (5,228), which indicates that flexibility do function as a motivation to follow FUOs. As the t value also holds acceptable levels (2,287) and the statistical significance is at the 5% level (p = 0,028), it becomes apparent that flexibility do have an explanatory power on the variance in the dependent variable. This means that variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the dependent variable, flexibility (b = 0,832).

The second independent variable, opportunity discovery, has a R^2 less than 1% which reveals a marginal explanatory power. It also has a weak, although positive relationship to the dependent variable (b =0,052). Nevertheless, the F and t values are significantly lower than their preferred levels (F = 0,023, t = 0,153). It seems that the variable opportunity discovery does not have any statistically significant explanatory power on the dependent variable (p =

0,897). In other words, opportunity discovery does not seem applicable to explain the variance in the dependent variable.

Next, the multiple regression analysis will follow to further investigate the relationships between the variables and their potential statistical significance.

Table 9: Multiple regression analysis

R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	*p*
0,217	0,146	3,048	0,042

	b	*t*	*p*
Flexibility	0,891	2,467	0,019
Opportunity Discovery	-0,029	-0,087	0,931
Average Revenue	1,129	1,823	0,077

N = 37

In table 9, which shows the output of the multiple regression analysis, we will look to the adjusted R^2 as it adjusts its value for each added variable as explained in the methodology chapter (Johannessen et al., 2011). The adjusted R^2 shows the explanatory power of the research model developed for this study, which is 14,6%. The model is significant at the 5% level (p = 0,042) with satisfactory F values (3,048). This means that the model is applicable for this study as the values from the regression analysis shows that it has explanatory power and significance.

Flexibility have obtained better values in the multiple regression analysis (b = 0,891, t = 2,467). Most importantly we see that the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable flexibility is not only positive and maintain explanatory power, it is also statistical significant at the 5% level (p = 0,019). This means that flexibility act as a predictor in the choice to follow FUOs. The multiple regression analysis further affirms the strong and positive relationships found in the correlation matrix and the simple regression analysis.

On the other hand, values for the explanatory power of opportunity discovery on the dependent variable, have weakened further (b = -0,029, t = -0,087) and the high p values reveals that the measure is insignificant (p = 0,931). The b, t and p values indicates a weak and negative relationship between opportunity discovery and the choice to follow FUOs. These weak values ultimately signify that opportunity discovery does not function as a predictor of the dependent variable.

As first indicated in the correlation matrix, the regression analysis also show that the control variable has a positive relationship with the dependent variable (b = 1,129, t = 1,823). The control variable can be considered significant on the 10% level with a p value of 0,077, which is an improvement from the correlation matrix (p = 0,121). Except from the t value showing suboptimal values, this mean that the control variable seems to have a positive relationship to the dependent variable.

These findings have confirmed the resilience of the data, as the relationships' characteristics maintain the same through the correlation analysis and regression analyses. This contributes to the credibility of this study, which is ensuring throughout the hypotheses-testing in the following. All SPSS analyses used to develop table 8 and table 9 can be found appendix 6.

4.3 Hypothesis-testing

This sub section contains the hypothesis-test of the hypotheses developed in chapter 2. The hypotheses-tests are based on the findings from the multiple regression analysis in table 9.

Hypothesis 1 stated that "There is a positive relationship between Norwegian seafood exporters' choice to follow FUOs and the key motivational factor flexibility". The hypothesis was developed to investigate if flexibility, and a potential improvement of flexibility, was a key motivational factor in Norwegian seafood exporters' choice to follow FUOs.

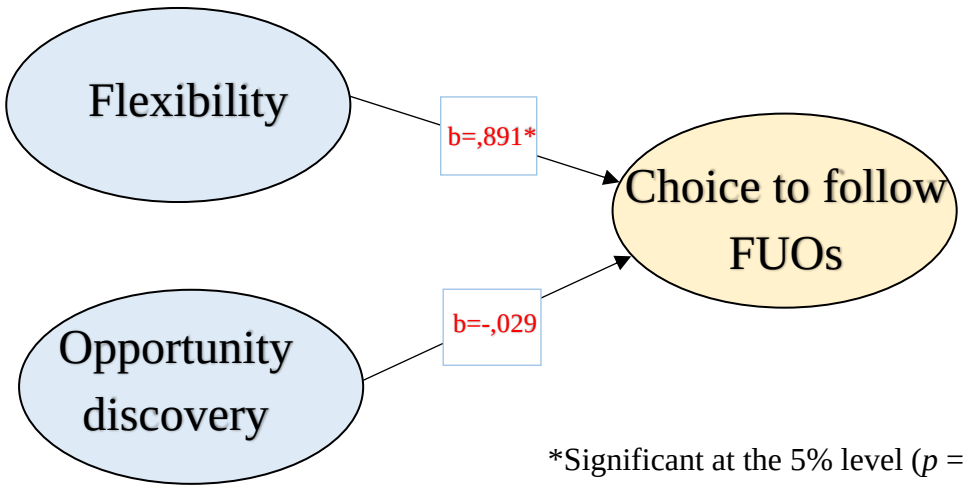
Findings from the multiple regression analysis shows that flexibility has a positive relationship (b = 0,891, t = 2,467) with the dependent variable which is significant at the 5% level (p = 0,019). This means that flexibility can be considered a key motivational factor of Norwegian seafood exporters' choice to follow FUOs. Based on this, it is concluded that hypothesis 1 is supported. Tracey et al. (1999) stated that flexibility, as measured by the six LOP indicators, was important to create competitive advantage. It seems that the Norwegian seafood exporters perceive flexibility the same way, which motivates to internationalisation. Additionally, this indicates that the literature on manufacturing flexibility was applicable to the context of internationalisation.

Hypothesis 2 stated that "There is a positive relationship between Norwegian seafood exporters' choice to follow FUOs and the key motivational factor opportunity discovery". The hypothesis was developed to investigate if Norwegian seafood exporters perceived that following FUOs could open for the possibility to discover new market opportunities, and ultimately find opportunity discovery as a key motivational factor in the choice of following FUOs.

The findings revealed that there was a negative relationship (b = -0,029, t = - 0,087) between opportunity discovery and the dependent variable, which was insignificant (p = 0,931). These values indicate that opportunity discovery does not act as a predictor in the choice to follow FUOs. Based on this, hypothesis 2 was not supported. However, the literature did mention that the indicators for opportunity discovery could be both more or less motivating, depending on the firm (Shane, 2000). This could mean that firms that already possessed the "asset-indicators" such as market knowledge, would be more motivated by new opportunities. Considering that PMK, IA and CSDC dictates how individuals interpret opportunities, then individuals lacking these assets would not know how to identify various opportunities (Shane, 2000). This way, it does not seem likely that somebody would be motivated by something they know little about. On this basis, it is possible there was no relationship between opportunity discovery and the dependent variable, because the respondents had little previous market knowledge, information and/or certainty of financial gain. On the other hand, it is also possible that the discovery of new market opportunities simply was not one of Norwegians seafood exporters key motivational factors to follow FUOs. Nevertheless, lack of assets or not, there was no positive relationship between opportunity discovery and the dependent variable.

The main finding from the multiple regression analysis (table 9) was the revealing of flexibility as a key motivational factor in Norwegian seafood exporters' choice to follow FUOs. The same analysis illustrated that opportunity discovery did not seem to have any correlation with the choice to follow FUOs. Furthermore, table 9 also showed that 14.6% of the variance in the dependent variable, can be explained by the independent variables flexibility and opportunity discovery. This means that the research model developed for this study, has an explanatory power. Figure 8 presents the study's research model, with the results of the hypotheses-testing.

Figure 8: Proposed research model with results.



*Significant at the 5% level (p = 0,05), two tailed.

4.4 Additional Analyses

As the hypothesis-test have been carried out, this sub-chapter wants to look closer at a few phenomena to improve the understanding of the data collected for this research. This allows the study to look further into the findings revealed in the previous analyses, and explore what lies behind some of these results.

The sub chapter will start by further investigating the indicators and drivers behind the independent variable flexibility, before looking closer at size-related trends among the firms in the sample.

4.4.1 Drivers of Flexibility

As the hypotheses-testing found that hypothesis 1 was supported, it was considered interesting to find what indicators of flexibility was the strongest drivers, to better understand flexibility as a motivational factor. This was done by correlating each flexibility indicator with the dependent variable to see which indicators functioned as triggers, by showing high correlations.

Table 10: Drivers of flexibility

	Choice to Follow FUOs (DV)
CPV	r = 0,318, *p* = 0,055
CRR	r = 0,609**, *p* = 0,000
GNB	r = 0,305, *p* = 0,067
SG	r = 0,206, *p* = 0,222
MG	r = 0,270, *p* = 0,106
FD	r = 0,083, *p* = 0,624

**Significant at the 1% level (*p* = 0,01), two tailed. N = 37

Table 10 shows the covariance of each indicator used to measure flexibility in this study, based on the research of Tracey et al., (1999). The indicator for flexibility in delivery (FD) do not seem to correlate well with the dependent variable (*r* = 0,083, *p* = 0,624). This is as *r* is very close to zero, which means that the indicator is close to having no relationship to the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, the *p* value is close to 1 indicating that H^0 is more likely to be supported. This means that there is no relationship between FD and the dependent variable. This display flexibility in delivery as a less suitable indicator compared to the others, due to it suboptimal values.

Sales growth (r = 0,206, p = 0,222) and market share growth (r = 0,270, p = 0,106) did not show any remarkable values. This is as the correlations have too low values to be considered significant. The same accounts for the statistical significance, where the p values are too high. It is plausible that a larger sample could have contributed to more explicit findings. Nevertheless, SG and MG are not considered significant findings as the drivers do not have a strong enough or significant relationship to the dependent variable.

However, it becomes evident that customer retention rate (CRR) is the most prominent driver of all the indicators, being significant at the 1% level (r = 0,609, p = 0,000). This as the indicators shows satisfactory values as r is close to 1 and p is significantly low, which indicate a very strong positive relationship. Furthermore, customer perceived value (CPV) (r = 0,318, p = 0,055) and generating new business through customer referrals (GNB) (r = 0,305, p = 0,067) seems to also be of statistical significant at the 10% level. This means that CPV and GNB also seem to be important drivers in the flexibility measure, due to their relationship to the dependent value. However, due to the sample size and the brittle values it is important to be cautious when insinuating these indicators as drivers.

Based on table 10, it seems that CRR, CPV and GNB are the most prominent drivers in the measure of flexibility. This means that the customer perspective of flexibility (in terms of service, customer satisfaction and the maintenance of customer relationships) seems to be more important among the respondents than the financial and logistics aspects of flexibility. This coincides with the literature by Tracey et al. (1999), which emphasise the customer oriented aspects of flexibility. All correlations used to develop table 10 can be found in appendix 7.

4.4.2 Size-Related Trends Among Respondents

To compare differences between smaller and larger firms (SMEs and LSEs), a t-test grouped by average revenue was conducted. This was done as an explorative exercise with the intent to dig deeper into the gathered data, and see if there were any apparent differences between a firms size and other variables, such as the motivation to follow FUOs.

Besides the finding for the dependent and independent variables, table 11 on page 45 shows the most interesting findings in terms of t and p values. The complete analyses can be found in appendix 8. Smaller firms were defined by having an average revenue less or equal to NOK 135 000 000, while larger firms had an average revenue higher than NOK 135 000 001, as presented in the methodology chapter. The grouping of smaller firms coincides with the definition by the European Commission (European Commission, 2017).

Table 11: Size-related trends among the respondents

	Firm size	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	***t***	***p***
Choice to Follow FUOs	Small	3,53	2,010	1,591	0,121
	Large	4,50	1,689		
Flexibility	Small	4,417	1,008	0,556	0,582
	Large	4,265	0,5877		
Opportunity Discovery	Small	5	1,018	2,275	0,029**
	Large	5,67	0,732		
Number of FUOs	Small	4,39	4,245	1,651	0,108
	Large	41,08	94,254		
Degree of perceived foreign demand	Small	4,68	1,887	1,816	0,078*
	Large	5,72	1,565		
Years of market experience	Small	15,47	12,267	1,889	0,067*
	Large	23,29	12,544		

**Significant at the 5% level (p = 0,05), two tailed.

*Significant at the 10% level (p = 0,10), two tailed.

N = 37.

Table 11 presents the dependent and independent variables and some demographic questions on the left-hand side. Each of these have been segmented into the two groups small and large firms, as by the definition in the methodology chapter. The firm size is followed by the mean and standard deviation for each variable, ensued by their *t* value and statistical significance.

Besides the dependent and independent variable, the table was developed by using an empirical approach where all questions were t-tested based on the firm size. The findings presented in table 11 are the most relevant regarding *t* values and significance, and the t-tests' for these findings are presented in appendix 8, including the findings for the dependent and independent variables. For these findings, it is also plausible that a wider range of observations could have contributed to an increase in significant findings.

As mentioned in the methodology chapter, a t-test can be used as a hypothesis-test with the assumption that H^0 will not be supported. H^0 in the context of t-tests is often that there are no

significant differences between the groups that are being compared (Johannessen et al., 2011). Consequently, if there are no difference between the groups and H^0 is supported, this will show through a high and insignificant *p* value (above the 5% level) and a low *t* value (less than 2,0) (Johannessen et al., 2011).

Starting at the top of the table with the dependent variable, it seems that smaller firms is less motivated to follow FUOs than larger firms. This was opposite than expected. It was assumed that smaller firms might be more recently established than the larger firms, and hence more motivated to follow FUOs in order to generate income (Kubíčková et al., 2014). In the meantime, larger firms were assumed to show a lower interest in following FUOs than smaller firms, as they presumably would be more motivated to tend existing and vital customer relationships. Table 11 shows that even though small and larger firms answered relatively similar, it is the smaller firms that seems less motivated to follow FUOs. Nevertheless, the *t* and *p* values for the dependent variable, are of such characteristics that it seems to be no significant difference between the two firm sizes (t = 1,591, p = 0,121). This means that there is not a significant difference between SMEs and LSEs regarding the choice of following FUOs. Other than that, is appears that LSEs answered more concurrently and therefore had a lower standard deviation than SMEs for the dependent variable.

Concerning the two independent variables, there seems to be little difference between the two firm sizes when looking to the means and standard deviations for each of them. When looking to the *t* and *p* values, something else becomes apparent. Flexibility do not show any significance in the difference of the firm sizes (t = 0,556, p = 0,582), and is one of the variables closest to support H^0. Ultimately, this indicates that there seem to be no difference between SMEs and LSEs involving flexibility as a motivational factor to follow FUOs. On the other hand, it appears that opportunity discovery is the only statistical significant variable (t = 2,275, p = 0,029). This applies both for the two independent variables, and for the entire table. This means that opportunity discovery is the only variable in the table where the difference between small and larger firms are statistically significant.

When continuing to the number of FUOs the firms receive, there seem to be a big difference between small firms who receive 4,39 FUOs per month on an average, compared to larger firms whose equivalent average is about 41. Furthermore, the LSEs has the highest standard deviation for the entire table of 94,25. This means that the response from LSEs was far less convergent than from the SMEs. Nevertheless, looking to the *t* and *p* values (t = 1,651, p = 0,108) the difference seems to be insignificant, despite the gap in received FUOs between small and larger

firms. In other words, the number of FUOs received on average per month, did not seem to be influenced by firm size.

Independent of size, both groups seem to perceive a foreign demand for their products. This might reflect reality for both groups, but it could be possible that response bias exist for this question. This is as both firm sizes could have incentives to appear in greater international demand than they are, to seem better off. However, the difference in perceived foreign demand is one of the questions in table 11 which is close to being statistical significance with *t* values close to acceptable (t = 1,816) and *p* values at the 5% level of significance (p = 0,078). This means that foreign demand for the respondents' products, can be related to the firm's size in terms of average revenue.

As anticipated, the respondents from the smaller firms seemed to have less years of market experience than larger firms. This is as smaller firms were assumed to be more recently established, than larger firms (Kubíčková et al., 2014). Hence having shorter time to accumulate experience than the more established firms. The mean for the smaller firms were approximately 15 years, while the larger firms' mean was close to 23. But looking to the standard deviation, it is visible that there is a wide spread of approximately 12 years for both groups. This means that the market experience of the respondents in smaller firms have ranged between 3 to 27 years, and 11 to 35 years among the respondents in larger firms. Despite the range of the standard deviation, the difference in years of market experience between firms are very close to being statistical significant with a *t* value of 1,889 and a *p* value significant at the 5% of 0,067. This means that there is a significant difference between SMEs and LSEs regarding the market experience the firms withholds.

5.0 Conclusion, Implications and Further Research

This chapter contains the conclusion of this study and discusses the findings and implications of this research. The chapter will be completed by presenting the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

5.1 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to understand how companies' flexibility and access to opportunity discovery act as motivational factors in the choice of following foreign unsolicited orders. On this basis, the following research problem was developed:

To what extent have foreign unsolicited orders motivated Norwegian seafood exports to enter new markets?

With the following sub-questions:

1. *What motivational factors influence the exporters' choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders?*
2. *What are the main drivers behind the key motivational factors?*
3. *Are there any significant differences between SMEs and LSEs concerning the key motivational factors to follow foreign unsolicited orders?*

The research question indicated that this research studies a phenomenon within a sample which preferably could make an inference of the population. Therefore, a quantitative research design was applied. Following, two hypotheses with their basis in literature were developed to test the relationship between the dependent and the two independent variables variable (Tracey et al., 1999; Shane, 2000; Grègoire & Shepherd, 2010). The findings of the hypotheses-testing, additional analyses and other findings will be presented beneath.

The sample consisted of 37 observations, whereof 51.4% was considered smaller firms by the regulations of the European Commission, with an average yearly income less or equal to MNOK 135. 48,6% were larger firms with an annual average revenue exceeding MNOK 135. The mean of received foreign unsolicited orders among the sample was approximately 22 orders, and the majority of the sample (70,2%) seemed to perceive a foreign demand for their products. The sample consisted of the five different work positions administrative director, CEO, general manager, sales and market directors, and sales personnel. General managers and sales and market directors constituted the majority of the sample with 56,80% and 27%,

respectively. The years of market experience among the respondents ranged from 0-45 years, with a concentration around 0-20 years consisting of 22 observations.

The multiple regression analysis performed in the analysis chapter, found that the research model of this study had an explanatory power of 14,6% and was significant at the 5% level (F = 3,048, p = 0,042). This means that there is a positive relationship between the variables, and that 14,6% of the variations in the choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders can be explained by the independent variables. In other words, these findings indicated that the model was applicable for this research.

The hypotheses were developed to investigate the research question, and each independent variable was developed by using previous literature. Both hypotheses were tested based on this study's multiple regression analysis. The first hypothesis was developed to measure to what extent flexibility, based on the six indicators by Tracey et al. (1999), motivated the exporters to follow foreign unsolicited orders. This main finding showed that there was a positive relationship between flexibility and the Norwegian seafood exporters' choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders. This indicates that when exporters decided whether or not to follow foreign unsolicited orders, the potential to achieve or improve their flexibility as measured in this study, represent a motivational factor. This study has therefore found that the key motivational factor flexibility does to some extent influence the Norwegian seafood exporters' choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders. Additionally, this finding mean that the manufacturing literature by Tracey et al. (1999) have been applicable in internationalisation research.

The second hypothesis was developed to investigate if the potential access to discovering new market opportunities functioned as a motivational factor in exporters' choice to pursue foreign unsolicited orders. The multiple regression analysis found a negative and insignificant relationship between the dependent variable and opportunity discovery. This means that opportunity discovery does not seem to represent a motivational factor in the Norwegian seafood exporters' choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders.

To further investigate the findings from the hypotheses-testing, the drivers behind flexibility and size-related trends in the sample were analysed. These analyses would also contribute to answering the second and third sub research questions. As mentioned in the introduction, only the drivers of independent variables with a significant relationship to the dependent variable would be assessed. The following flexibility indicators; customer perceived value, customer retention rate and generating new business through customer referrals, were found to be the

most prominent drivers of flexibility. This was concluded as the said indicators had the highest correlations to the dependent variable. That means that these indicators had a strong relationship with the choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders.

The t-testing of size-related trends revealed that some differences between the firms' sizes were more prominent than others. The finding on opportunity discovery was the only t-test result that was statistical significant at the 5% level. This means that the difference between smaller and larger firms, concerning opportunity discovery as a motivational factor, was significant. The differences between smaller and larger firms in their perceived foreign demand and years of market experience was close to being significant at the 10% level, with *t* values close to 2,0. Meaning that with significant values, they too could have constituted significant differences between small and larger companies. Furthermore, there could be some size-related tendencies in table 6, which illustrated the average amount of perceived foreign unsolicited orders per month. Table 6 showed a large variance in the number of perceived foreign unsolicited orders ranging from 1 to 400. Assuming that larger firms could be more accessible in terms of recognition of brand and quality, they might me more exposed to receiving foreign unsolicited orders than smaller firms. This would apply for both deceitful and serious inquiries.

This study has contributed to the research and development of the internationalisation literature in five ways. First, the new research model has shown to be applicable for this study. Nevertheless, there are room for improvements which will be elaborated in the sub-chapter limitations and further research. Second, it has been shown that literature on manufacturing flexibility have been applicable in internationalisation research. Furthermore, as a third contribution, this study has contributed to the internationalisation literature by illuminating unsolicited orders as a tool of internationalisation in the light of flexibility and opportunity discovery as key motivational factors. Fourth, the findings have shown that the customer aspects of flexibility are the most prominent drivers behind flexibility, which is a contribution to managerial literature and its perception of flexibility. Fifth and lastly, this study has also shown that there appear to be differences in firms' motives to follow foreign unsolicited orders, depending on firm size.

5.2 Implications

Understanding how Norwegian seafood exporters think when approached with foreign unsolicited orders, could be valuable in the future. Knowing what and how to motivate firms of various sizes can become useful both in terms of internationalisation research literature, but also in practice in the context of world trade and economy.

The main finding of this study showed that flexibility proved to be motivating in the choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders. Additionally, the three indicators customer perceived value, customer retention rate and generating new business through customer referrals, proved to be the most prominent drivers of flexibility. This coincides with the literature by Tracey et al. (1999), which stated that a customer oriented take on flexibility was the "new" way to achieve competitive advantages. According to literature, there seem to be a shift in the perception of flexibility in practice, moving from a financial-oriented approach to a more customer oriented approach to flexibility (Tracey et al., 1999). The findings from this study supported this assumption. This could therefore be a practical implication and an important piece of evidence for managers wanting to stay ahead and achieve or maintain their competitive advantage on the international market. Furthermore, it might also be applicable to other industries as well.

Implicitly from the paragraph above, the finding found no proof of opportunity discovery acting as a motivational factor in the choice of following foreign unsolicited orders. However, an interesting finding from the t-test is how opportunity discovery was the only variable with a statistical significant difference between small and larger firms. As mentioned in the theory chapter, it might be plausible that the indicators chosen to measure opportunity discovery is resource-related as previous market knowledge, information asymmetry and certainty of gains can be perceived as assets (Shane, 2000). At least knowledge and experience was confirmed by Johanson and Vahlne as an asset in both Uppsala models (1977; 2009). The t-test result could therefore be a theoretical implication, as opportunity discovery was found to possibly be more motivating for larger firms, as they presumably could have better access to the "asset-indicators". This also coincides with the literature by Kubíčková et al. (2014), which antithetically argues that larger firms has more resources than smaller firms.

Being aware that larger firms may be motivated to export or trade by other things than smaller firms can have significant impacts in practice. Not only in terms of actors in the international market, but also in the context of governmental incentive programs or regulations. Naturally,

knowing what motivates exporters to trade, could help international trade actors to better target their resources, orders and marketing. On the behalf of the government, knowing how to motivate smaller Norwegian seafood exporters, could be highly important if developing trade incentives and/or regulations. Just envision a scenario where the state of Norway might consider stimulating the Norwegian seafood export by assisting the industry's small and medium-sized enterprises through favourable regulations. It will then be of the essence to understand what motivates them to initiate international trade. Nevertheless, independent of firm size, understanding what motivates and what is important to the actors within Norway second largest export industry, could be considered useful.

5.3 Limitations and Further Research

The biggest challenge for this study was the sample size. Due to the relatively small population of Norwegian seafood exporters in addition to some abbreviation, the sample (after using systematic random sampling) consisted of 37 observations. This gave the study complications with generalisability, unless any correlations were statistical significant at a very high level. Furthermore, a bigger sample could have given different results than was obtained in this study. To counter this in future research, it could have been interesting to let the population consist of Scandinavian and/or European seafood exporters in order to ensure larger samples which could allow generalisability. This could open for research on trends between exporters in different countries and comparing these to Norwegian exporters, for example. This could be useful to understand patterns and strategies among seafood exporters, what factor makes some exporters superior to others, and Norwegian seafood exporters role in the international picture.

The explanatory power of the new research model shows room for improvements. 14,6% is no remarkable strength of a research model. This is not surprising as the second of the two independent variables did not have a positive relationship to the dependent variable. It becomes apparent that more research is needed in this field, and that new variables should be applied to the model in order to better explain what motivates Norwegian seafood exporters to follow foreign unsolicited orders. The variable opportunity discovery was limited to only consider financial gains. Maybe by broadening the variables domain, or changing it completely could give different results in future studies. Furthermore, the measure for flexibility had one indicator, flexibility in delivery, which did not seem to correlate well with the dependent variable. This might insinuate that the indicator should be reassessed, and maybe the measure in its entirety could be further improved. Furthermore, it would have been interesting to examine if small and medium-sized enterprises perceived flexibility to be more important to

achieve than larger firms, in terms of succeeding on the international market. Concerning variables, the credibility of a foreign unsolicited order originator, could be an interesting independent variable to add to the research model. This was one could potentially confirm whether or not the exporters perception of the originator influence the choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders, in terms of motivation. Especially when considering the frauds occurring in the industry. Additionally, it is not unreasonable that the new research model should be revised and adapted further to better fit future research on this topic. This is proposed as future research could explore whether opportunity discovery could potentially function as an intermediate variable of flexibility and the choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders, or if the variable as a whole do not contribute to the research model.

The control variable size in terms of average revenue did have a positive relationship with the choice to follow foreign unsolicited orders. This relationship should be further investigated, to better understand the causality of this relationship and how firm sizes influence what acts as motivational factors. Additionally, the control variable also correlated with the independent variable, opportunity discovery. This correlation indicated a relationship of statistical significance, and could therefore be interesting to research further.

In order to contribute to the area of internationalisation though foreign unsolicited orders and the motives behind it, this study's main finding was the support of flexibility as a key motivational factor. If there had been more existing literature on this topic, there is a chance the variables used in the research model could have been chosen more carefully to better examine the motivational factor behind following foreign unsolicited orders. Furthermore, following foreign unsolicited orders as a strategy to internationalise could potentially have been another research paper by itself, and is another suggestion for further research. It could also have been interesting to conduct a similar study with a longer time perspective, to explore if for example motivations to internationalise and the perception of different terms, such as flexibility, develops over time. Nevertheless, this study has provided an insight to internationalisation through the choice of following foreign unsolicited orders, and how flexibility and opportunity discovery have influenced this decision as motivational factors.

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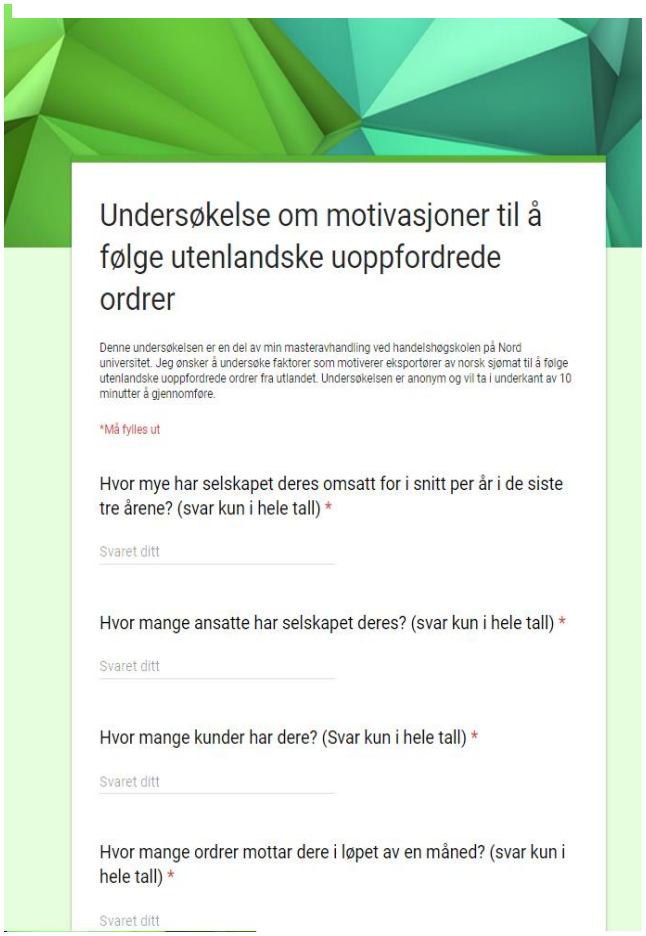
Appendix 1: Questionnaire



Undersøkelse om motivasjoner til å følge utenlandske uoppfordrede ordrer

Denne undersøkelsen er en del av min masteravhandling ved handelshøgskolen på Nord universitet. Jeg ønsker å undersøke faktorer som motiverer eksportører av norsk sjømat til å følge utenlandske uoppfordrede ordrer fra utlandet. Undersøkelsen er anonym og vil ta i underkant av 10 minutter å gjennomføre.

*Må fylles ut

Hvor mye har selskapet deres omsatt for i snitt per år i de siste tre årene? (svar kun i hele tall) *

Svaret ditt

Hvor mange ansatte har selskapet deres? (svar kun i hele tall) *

Svaret ditt

Hvor mange kunder har dere? (Svar kun i hele tall) *

Svaret ditt

Hvor mange ordrer mottar dere i løpet av en måned? (svar kun i hele tall) *

Svaret ditt

Fleksibilitet som motivasjon til eksport

I denne undersøkelsen antas det at fleksibiliteten til et selskap kan for eksempel bli påvirket av kundetilfredshet, konkurransedyktighet, økonomiske aspekter og/eller tilpasningsevne ovenfor leveransevilkår.

Dersom dere ønsker å følge en utenlandsk uoppfordret ordre, hvor viktig er det at den kan bidra til å gjøre selskapet mer fleksibelt? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

Hvor enig er du i følgende påstand: "Vi følger utenlandske uoppfordrede ordre fordi den kan bidra til å forbedre fleksibiliteten i selskapet" *
Der 1= svært uenig i påstanden og 7= svært enig i påstanden

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Svært uenig	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Svært enig

Etter deres oppfatning, i hvilken grad opplever kundene deres at det de betaler for er verdt pengene? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

Hvor viktig er kundens opplevde verdi av deres produkter for fleksibiliteten til selskapet? *
Der 1= ikke viktig og 7= svært viktig

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ikke viktig	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Svært viktig

Utenlandsk etterspørsel og ordrer

En utenlandsk uoppfordret ordre er et ønske fra en ny (ikke tidligere kjent) utenlandsk kunde om å kjøpe ett eller flere av deres produkt.

Hvor mange utenlandske uoppfordrede ordrer mottar dere i snitt i løpet av en måned?(svar kun i hele tall) *

Svaret ditt

I hvilken grad opplever dere en utenlandsk etterspørsel for deres produkter? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

I hvilken grad motiverer utenlandsk etterspørsel dere til å følge utenlandske uoppfordrede ordrer? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

TILBAKE NESTE Side 2 av 5

Send aldri passord via Google Skjemaer.

I hvilken grad opplever dere at utenlandske uoppfordrede ordrer utvikler seg til å bli faste kunder hos dere? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

Hvor viktig er det at deres selskap klarer å gjøre en utenlandsk uoppfordret ordre til en fast kunde for fleksibiliteten til selskapet? *
Der 1= ikke viktig og 7= svært viktig

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ikke viktig	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Svært viktig

I hvilken grad opplever dere at anbefalinger fra eksisterende kunder gjør at dere mottar nye utenlandske uoppfordrede ordrer? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

Hvor viktig er kundehenvisninger for fleksibiliteten til selskapet? *
Der 1= ikke viktig og 7= svært viktig

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ikke viktig	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Svært viktig

Hvor mye har salget deres økt i prosent de tre siste årene? (svar kun i hele tall) *

Svaret ditt

I hvilken grad har økningen i salg de siste tre årene påvirket fleksibiliteten har i selskapet idag? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

Hvor viktig er en økning i salg for fleksibiliteten til selskapet? *
Der 1= ikke viktig og 7= svært viktig

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ikke viktig	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Svært viktig

Hvor mye har deres markedsandeler økt i prosent de siste tre årene? (svar kun i hele tall) *

Svaret ditt

I hvilken grad har økningen i markedsandeler de siste tre årene påvirket fleksibiliteten selskapet har idag? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

Hvor viktig er en vekst i markedsandeler for fleksibiliteten til selskapet? *
Der 1= ikke viktig og 7= svært viktig

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ikke viktig	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Svært viktig

Muligheter som motivasjon til eksport

I denne undersøkelsen er en mulighet definert som funnet av en ny kilde til inntekter gjennom nye kunder og/eller markeder.

Dersom dere ønsker å følge en utenlandsk uoppfordret ordre, hvor viktig er det for dere at den kan åpne for muligheter i form av nye inntektskilder? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

Hvor enig er du i følgende påstand: "Vi følger utenlandske uoppfordrede ordrer fordi det kan åpne for at vi finner nye muligheter" *
Der 1= svært uenig i påstanden og 7= svært enig i påstanden

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Svært uenig	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Svært enig

I hvilken grad oppfatter dere at man er avhengig av tidligere erfaring eller kunnskaper fra bransjen for å finne muligheter i markedet? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

Hvor viktig er eksisterende erfaring og kunnskaper fra bransjen for dere når det kommer til å finne muligheter i markedet? *
Der 1= ikke viktig og 7= svært viktig

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ikke viktig	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Svært viktig

I hvilken grad er dere fleksible ovenfor tilpasning av leveringsvilkår ovenfor kundene? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

I hvilken grad utvikler dere individuelle leveransevilkår sammen med kunden for å finne den beste løsningen? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

Hvor viktig er leveransevilkårene deres for fleksibiliteten i selskapet? *
Der 1= ikke viktig og 7= svært viktig

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ikke viktig	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Svært viktig

I hvilken grad oppfatter dere at aktørene i bransjen deres kan ha ulik informasjon om markedet? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

Hvor viktig er det for dere å ha informasjon som ingen andre aktører har for å finne nye muligheter? *
Der 1= ikke viktig og 7= svært viktig

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ikke viktig	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Svært viktig

I hvilken grad opplever dere at muligheter som dukker opp på markedet gir selskapet en økonomisk gevinst? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	I svært høy grad

Hvor viktig er sikkerheten for en økonomisk gevinst for dere når man finner en mulighet? *
Der 1= ikke viktig og 7= svært viktig

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ikke viktig	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Svært viktig

I hvilken grad oppfatter dere at aktørene i bransjen deres kan ha ulik informasjon om markedet? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	I svært høy grad

Hvor viktig er det for dere å ha informasjon som ingen andre aktører har for å finne nye muligheter? *
Der 1= ikke viktig og 7= svært viktig

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ikke viktig	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Svært viktig

I hvilken grad opplever dere at muligheter som dukker opp på markedet gir selskapet en økonomisk gevinst? *
Der 1= i ingen grad og 7= i svært høy grad

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I ingen grad	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	I svært høy grad

Hvor viktig er sikkerheten for en økonomisk gevinst for dere når man finner en mulighet? *
Der 1= ikke viktig og 7= svært viktig

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ikke viktig	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Svært viktig

Avsluttende spørsmål

Hvor ofte opplever dere å selge varer til markedspris når dere fyller utenlandske uoppfordrede ordrer? *

- ◯ Alltid
- ◯ Svært ofte
- ◯ Ofte
- ◯ Nøytral
- ◯ Sjeldent
- ◯ Svært sjeldent
- ◯ Aldri

Hvor ofte opplever dere å selge varer over markedspris når dere fyller utenlandske uoppfordrede ordrer? *

- ◯ Alltid
- ◯ Svært ofte
- ◯ Ofte
- ◯ Nøytral
- ◯ Sjeldent
- ◯ Svært sjeldent
- ◯ Aldri

Hva er din stilling i selskapet? (skriv kun stillingstittel) *

Svaret ditt

Hvor mange år har du hatt denne stillingen? (svar kun i hele tall) *

Svaret ditt

Hvor mange års erfaring har du innen bransjen for eksport av norsk sjømat/fisk? (svar kun i hele tall) *

Svaret ditt

Appendix 2: Frequency of respondents' customer portfolio

Statistics

		antall_kunder	antall_vanligeordrer_mnd	antall_FUOs_mnd
N	Valid	35	35	35
	Missing	2	2	2
Mean		131,23	605,11	22,21
Median		40,00	50,00	5,00
Std. Deviation		351,777	2290,326	67,348
Minimum		0	1	0
Maximum		2000	13500	400

antall_kunder

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	1	2,7	2,9	2,9
	1	1	2,7	2,9	5,7
	2	1	2,7	2,9	8,6
	9	1	2,7	2,9	11,4
	10	3	8,1	8,6	20,0
	15	1	2,7	2,9	22,9
	20	5	13,5	14,3	37,1
	21	1	2,7	2,9	40,0
	25	1	2,7	2,9	42,9
	35	2	5,4	5,7	48,6
	40	1	2,7	2,9	51,4
	50	4	10,8	11,4	62,9
	60	3	8,1	8,6	71,4
	70	1	2,7	2,9	74,3
	80	2	5,4	5,7	80,0
	100	2	5,4	5,7	85,7
	170	1	2,7	2,9	88,6
	250	1	2,7	2,9	91,4
	300	1	2,7	2,9	94,3
	750	1	2,7	2,9	97,1
	2000	1	2,7	2,9	100,0
	Total	35	94,6	100,0	
Missing	System	2	5,4		
Total		37	100,0		

antall_vanligeordrer_mnd

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	1	2,7	2,9	2,9
	2	1	2,7	2,9	5,7
	4	1	2,7	2,9	8,6
	5	1	2,7	2,9	11,4
	6	1	2,7	2,9	14,3
	8	1	2,7	2,9	17,1
	12	1	2,7	2,9	20,0
	15	2	5,4	5,7	25,7
	18	2	5,4	5,7	31,4
	30	2	5,4	5,7	37,1
	35	1	2,7	2,9	40,0
	40	2	5,4	5,7	45,7
	50	4	10,8	11,4	57,1
	60	1	2,7	2,9	60,0
	100	3	8,1	8,6	68,6
	140	1	2,7	2,9	71,4
	150	1	2,7	2,9	74,3
	200	2	5,4	5,7	80,0
	350	1	2,7	2,9	82,9
	400	1	2,7	2,9	85,7
	600	1	2,7	2,9	88,6
	1200	1	2,7	2,9	91,4
	1500	1	2,7	2,9	94,3
	2100	1	2,7	2,9	97,1
	13500	1	2,7	2,9	100,0
	Total	35	94,6	100,0	
Missing	System	2	5,4		
Total		37	100,0		

antall_FUOs_mnd

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	3	8,1	8,6	8,6
	0	1	2,7	2,9	11,4
	1	2	5,4	5,7	17,1
	2	7	18,9	20,0	37,1
	3	1	2,7	2,9	40,0
	4	2	5,4	5,7	45,7
	5	5	13,5	14,3	60,0
	8	1	2,7	2,9	62,9
	10	2	5,4	5,7	68,6
	12	1	2,7	2,9	71,4
	15	2	5,4	5,7	77,1
	20	2	5,4	5,7	82,9
	30	1	2,7	2,9	85,7
	35	1	2,7	2,9	88,6
	50	3	8,1	8,6	97,1
	400	1	2,7	2,9	100,0
	Total	35	94,6	100,0	
Missing	System	2	5,4		
Total		37	100,0		

Appendix 3: Reliability analyses of concepts with Cronbach's alpha

Cronbach’s alpha for flexibility measure:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,842	13

Cronbach’s alpha for opportunity discovery measure:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,710	3

Appendix 4: Convergent validity of dependent variable

Correlations

		grad_FD	grad_motivates_FD	FollowFUOs_motivatedbyFlex	FollowFUO_becauseof_Flex	FollowFUO_becauseof_OD	grad_dependentonPMK_forOD
grad_motivates_FD	Pearson Correlation	,538**	1	,327*	,505**	,457**	-,037
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,001		,048	,001	,004	,826
	N	37	37	37	37	37	37

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

Appendix 5: Correlation matrix of variables

Correlations

		Measure1_OD	Measure_Flexibility	grad_motivates_FD
Measure1_OD	Pearson Correlation	1	-,175	,026
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,300	,879
	N	37	37	37
Measure_Flexibility	Pearson Correlation	-,175	1	,361*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,300		,028
	N	37	37	37
grad_motivates_FD	Pearson Correlation	,026	,361*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,879	,028	
	N	37	37	37

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

Appendix 6: Simple and multiple regression analyses

Simple regression analysis of flexibility:

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,026[a]	,001	-,028	1,927

a. Predictors: (Constant), Measure1_OD

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	,087	1	,087	,023	,879[b]
	Residual	129,913	35	3,712		
	Total	130,000	36			

a. Dependent Variable: grad_motivates_FD

b. Predictors: (Constant), Measure1_OD

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3,722	1,844		2,018	,051		
	Measure1_OD	,052	,341	,026	,153	,879	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: grad_motivates_FD

Simple regression analysis of opportunity discovery:

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,361[a]	,130	,105	1,798

a. Predictors: (Constant), Measure_Flexibility

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	16,895	1	16,895	5,228	,028[b]
	Residual	113,105	35	3,232		
	Total	130,000	36			

a. Dependent Variable: grad_motivates_FD

b. Predictors: (Constant), Measure_Flexibility

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,387	1,608		,241	,811		
	Measure_Flexibility	,832	,364	,361	2,287	,028	1,000	1,000

Multiple Regression Analyses of Independent Variables

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,466[a]	,217	,146	1,756

a. Predictors: (Constant), TheRecodedRevenue, Measure_Flexibility, Measure1_OD

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	28,205	3	9,402	3,048	,042[b]
	Residual	101,795	33	3,085		
	Total	130,000	36			

a. Dependent Variable: grad_motivates_FD

b. Predictors: (Constant), TheRecodedRevenue, Measure_Flexibility, Measure1_OD

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-,263	2,524		-,104	,918		
	Measure_Flexibility	,891	,361	,386	2,467	,019	,968	1,033
	Measure1_OD	-,029	,337	-,015	-,087	,931	,851	1,175
	TheRecodedRevenue	1,129	,619	,301	1,823	,077	,870	1,149

a. Dependent Variable: grad_motivates_FD

Appendix 7: Correlation matrix of flexibility drivers

CPV – Customer perceived value

Correlations

		grad_motivates_FD	Measure_CPV
grad_motivates_FD	Pearson Correlation	1	,318
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,055
	N	37	37
Measure_CPV	Pearson Correlation	,318	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,055	
	N	37	37

SG – Sales growth

Correlations

		grad_motivates_FD	Measure_SG
grad_motivates_FD	Pearson Correlation	1	,206
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,222
	N	37	37
Measure_SG	Pearson Correlation	,206	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,222	
	N	37	37

CRR – Customer retention rate

Correlations

		grad_motivates_FD	Measure_CRR
grad_motivates_FD	Pearson Correlation	1	,609**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	37	37
Measure_CRR	Pearson Correlation	,609**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	37	37

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

MG – Market growth

Correlations

		grad_motivates_FD	Measure_MG
grad_motivates_FD	Pearson Correlation	1	,270
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,106
	N	37	37
Measure_MG	Pearson Correlation	,270	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,106	
	N	37	37

GNB – Generating new business through customer referrals

Correlations

		grad_motivates_FD	Measure_GNB
grad_motivates_FD	Pearson Correlation	1	,305
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,067
	N	37	37
Measure_GNB	Pearson Correlation	,305	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,067	
	N	37	37

FD – Flexibility of delivery

Correlations

		grad_motivates_FD	Measure_FD
grad_motivates_FD	Pearson Correlation	1	,083
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,624
	N	37	37
Measure_FD	Pearson Correlation	,083	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,624	
	N	37	37

Appendix 8: T-tests of firm size-related differences

Group Statistics

	TheRecodedRevenue	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Measure1_OD	,00	19	5,0000	1,01835	,23363
	1,00	18	5,6667	,73208	,17255

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Measure1_OD	Equal variances assumed	,893	,351	-2,275	35	,029	-,66667	,29302	-1,26154	-,07180
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,295	32,694	,028	-,66667	,29044	-1,25778	-,07555

Group Statistics

	TheRecodedRevenue	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Measure_Flexibility	,00	19	4,4170	1,00894	,23147
	1,00	18	4,2650	,58774	,13853

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Measure_Flexibility	Equal variances assumed	2,146	,152	,556	35	,582	,15205	,27348	-,40314	,70724
	Equal variances not assumed			,564	29,233	,577	,15205	,26976	-,39947	,70357

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
antall_FUOs_mnd	Equal variances assumed	4,773	,036	-1,651	33	,108	-36,688	22,220	-81,895	8,520
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,603	16,061	,128	-36,688	22,882	-85,180	11,805
grad_motivates_FD	Equal variances assumed	1,095	,303	-1,591	35	,121	-,974	,612	-2,216	,269
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,598	34,524	,119	-,974	,609	-2,211	,264
grad_FD	Equal variances assumed	1,049	,313	-1,816	35	,078	-1,038	,572	-2,199	,122
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,825	34,413	,077	-1,038	,569	-2,193	,117
years_marketexperience	Equal variances assumed	,225	,639	-1,889	34	,067	-7,820	4,139	-16,232	,591
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,887	33,375	,068	-7,820	4,144	-16,249	,608

Group Statistics

	TheRecodedRevenue	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
antall_FUOs_mnd	,00	18	4,39	4,245	1,000
	1,00	17	41,08	94,254	22,860
grad_motivates_FD	,00	19	3,53	2,010	,461
	1,00	18	4,50	1,689	,398
grad_FD	,00	19	4,68	1,887	,433
	1,00	18	5,72	1,565	,369
years_marketexperience	,00	19	15,47	12,267	2,814
	1,00	17	23,29	12,544	3,042