Revisiting Strategy and Performance Concepts in the Strategy Tripod Framework

Elnivan Souza [1][*], Sergio Forte [2], Sara Teixeira [3], Zaila Maria Oliveira [4], Sandrina Teixeira [3]

[1] Christus University Center-UNICHRISTUS, Brazil

[2] University of Fortaleza – UNIFOR, Brazil

[3] CEOS.PP, Polytechnic Institute of Porto, Portugal

[4] University of Maia-ISMAI, CEOS.PP, Aveiro University, Christus University Center, Portugal

[*] **Corresponding Author:** elnivan@hotmail.com

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
	The association between Strategy and Financial Performance is commonly used in scientific research. However, the dichotomy between deliberate and emergent strategies, although already discussed by several researchers, does not have a consensus in the literature. Also, the predominant practice in the academy investigates the financial perspective of performance and usually does not consider its plural aspects. Based on this reflection, this theoretical study discusses gaps in Peng's et al. (2009) strategy framework focusing on Strategy and Performance. As a result, we propose a review of the strategy framework, incorporating four strategic stages (deliberate, delibergent, emergent, and emergerate) and plural performance. We also propose methodological research that can be performed in business strategy.

INTRODUCTION

Since the beginning of the work of pioneers such as Chandler (1962), Sloan (1963), and Ansoff (1965), and then, from the work of Porter (1985) on the strategic positioning of Barney (1991) about the Resource-Based View, of Peng et al. (2009) about the Institution-Based View, the so-called Strategy Tripod and more recently from Oliveira and Forte (2014) about the Corporate Governance-Based View and Scenario-Based View, originating the Strategy Pentagon, the emphasis has been on the rational planned action, usually reserved for the upper levels of the organization – and generally sustained by an increasingly sophisticated analysis of the environment and their resources or capabilities (Hart, 1995; Wernerfelt, 1984). These themes have generated a limited number of settings that offer options to achieve any competitive advantage over rivals in a modern expression of the Cartesian thought in which the action is structured by prior or prescriptive intellectual effort (Chandler, 1962; Ansoff, 1965; Porter, 1980, 1985).

The research on strategy generally contemplates country, industry, group, organization, and individual and also implicitly brings a vision of human action that is typically rational or normative (MacLean and MacIntosh, 2015). But, on the other hand, other perspectives emerge, directing attention to the realization of the strategy in its emergent processes (Mintzberg, 1978; Osborn, 1998; Mirabeu and Maguire, 2014), such as the Strategy as Practice (Whittington, 1996, 2002;

Tovstiga, 2013) and the Think-Based View (MacIntosh and MacLean, 2015; MacLean and MacIntosh, 2012).

However, what is observed in terms of research is that researchers' interest in understanding the integrated functioning of these two processes (Bodwell and Chemark, 2010; Franken and Thomsett, 2013; Galeazzo, Klassen, 2015; Leitner, 2014; 2016; Mariotto, 2003), therefore, the deliberate strategy approaches (Ansoff, 1965; Chandler, 1962; Porter, 1980, 1985) would not be enough to supplant the need of enterprises, since the plans are rarely implemented as planned (Freedman, 2013). The implementation of the strategy, even formulated as a robust and comprehensive plan, should be relatively not complex in the context of a well-disciplined organization. However, both the practical experience and the more extensive literature suggest high implementation failure rates in the strategy field (Sminia and Rond, 2012).

Other issues that come close to this paper's theme are some works on strategy formulation and formation. The first is associated with deliberate processes, and the second is emergent processes. In this sense, the challenge is to understand how the strategies are formulated and formed simultaneously (Thomas and Ambrosini, 2015). For example, Randall (1984) showed that only 10% of formulated strategies come to be implemented, i.e., 90% of strategic acts are incorporated into emergent processes, directly responsible for their formation, which induces that prescriptive and descriptive processes, formulated and formed or deliberate and emergent strategies coexist. Still, they need to be better understood and managed. More recent studies (Hickson, Miller, and Wilson, 2003; Raes, Heijltjes, Glunk, and Roe, 2011) corroborate the findings of Randall (1984) because they have concluded that although well formulated, many strategies fail by problems of implementation.

Regarding the performance in strategy research, it has been measured from accounting and financial indicators (Chi, 2015; Parnell, 2011). However, since the 1990s, the discussions about the social responsibility of business have intensified (Turker, 2010; Wood, 2010), and consequently, the development of non-financial (plural) indicators to evaluate the performance of the organizations before society (Whittington, 2002). In this sense, one of the most relevant contributions to assess and measure the performance in this perspective is the Creating Shared Value (CSV), which consists in strategic business actions that seek satisfactory growth for the company and the society in which it is inserted (Porter and Kramer, 2006, 2011).

Considering the discussions about the deliberate and emergent processes and the main analysis perspectives: Industry-Based View (Porter, 1980, 1985); Resources-Based View (Barney, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1984); Institution-Based View (Peng et al., 2009) and in addition to the restricted use of plural performance criteria (non-financial) (Whittington, 2002; Porter and Kramer, 2006, 2011; Porter et al., 2011) and from the literature review about the integrated use of deliberate and emergent strategies(Andersen, 2004; 2013; Egels-Zadén and Rosén, 2015; Franken and Thomset, 2013; Knights and Mueller, 2004; Leitner, 2014; 2016; Mariotto, 2003; Thomas and Ambrosini, 2015) it is questioned: how to incorporate the concepts of deliberate and emergent strategy and the prospect of plural performance to the Strategy Tripod Framework?

This way, we propose a revision in the theoretical framework of Peng et al. (2009), then we(i) incorporate four strategic stages: deliberate, delibergent, emergent, and emergerate (ii) and the concept of plural performance (Porter and Kramer, 2006, 2011; Porter et al. 2011; Whittington, 2002), contributed, this way, to the tripod theoretical framework of the Strategy (Pent et al., 2009), increasing the possibilities of research and understanding of organizational strategies.

The paper is relevant in theoretical and methodological terms. Theoretical because it brings to light the discussion about the combined use of deliberate and emergent strategies and plural performance, being used as a resource for thinking and experiencing reality (Harbermas, 2001) since the most elementary feature of the essay is the originality (Meneghetti, 2011) and methodological, by proposing a contribution to the strategy tripod framework established in the recent literature and that can support empirical research that approaches the reallocation of organizations.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Deliberate Strategy

The simplest way of thinking about a company's strategy is presuming that companies choose and implement their strategies as described by the process of strategic administration. They begin with well-defined missions and goals, lead internal and external analysis, make strategic choices, and implement those (Barney and Hersterly, 2015). This is the standard process for the strategic management of a typical company.

The transformation of the concept of deliberate strategy into a broader concept of strategic planning is presented by Michael Porter through the idea of competitive advantage, which creates an imbalance in the market and which would be the ultimate goal of the whole company (Porter, 1985). This idea of strategy incorporates qualitative components, away from the initial concept of something static and rigid, and approaching a deep knowledge about the organization's relationship and its environment.

This whole load of rigidity and static analysis of the environment that used to be conceived in this typology eventually incorporated the stereotype of the strategy adopted by many managers. MacLean and MacIntosh (2015), from the study and development of a large number of strategy statements, identified a set of twelve of these structuring devices which form the basis of a comprehensive strategy statement: (i) diagnosis, (ii) intention, (iii) deadline, (iv) capacity, (v) opportunities, (vi) objective, (vii) tactic, (viii) method, (ix) competitive location, (x) strategic group, (xi) offer, and (xii) audience. All these declarations keep strict relations with the basis of deliberate processes.

Still in the area of deliberate processes, but with a stronger focus on internal processes, some theorists (Barney, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1984), in opposition to the precepts of Industry-Based View (IBV) (Peng et al., 2009), initiated the strategic line that would be recognized by the title of Resource-Based View (RBV). One of the main tools for diagnosing and knowing internal processes is the VRIO model, from the acronym Value, Rarity, Imitability, and Organization (Barney and Hesterly, 2015). In general, while the IBV had its focus directed to the external environment analysis, RBV had its focus directed to the internal environment of the company. Nevertheless, they have standard methods and tools that enable the implementation of deliberate processes. Despite the criticisms directed at these two perspectives, other theoretical currents are emergent, such as the Institution-Based View (InBV) (Peng et al., 2009), advocated as the strategy tripod. However, emergent strategy processes are not covered in these analysis proposals, which allowed the development of other approaches closer to emergent processes (Jarzabkowski, 2004; Whittington, 1996; Mintzberg and Waters, 1985).

Emergent Strategy

The strategies designed by companies are not always planned. Instead, they arise in the course of what had been imposed as emergent situations that require strategies that had not been previously idealized. These strategies that unfold throughout the implementation of what had not been proposed are called emergent strategies. The term was introduced in the 1970s. It means an unplanned strategy, i.e., when an action is only observed as strategic for the organization while it is happening or even when it is completed in absentia of what has been previously planned (Mintzberg,1978).

The emergent strategy is born of the difficulty of accurately predicting organizations' behavior and interrelations with the environment and the consequent response to this change. From this phenomenon, the emergent strategy will correct the organization's route, recognizing the circumstances and not remaining bound to a plan that presented itself as inadequate in the course of events. However, it becomes clear that strategies emerge almost daily in companies that originated from an organizational culture and the concept of learning organization (Slater and Narver, 1995). To respond to these concerns, differences in the styles or guidelines of the individual strategist were identified. As a result, progress has been made in thinking about the question of emergent strategy, which suggests that the emergency is liable to certain forms of influence. The net result is an attempt to move the strategist from a position at the margin of strategic thinking to his place in the center of the strategy as an object of academic research (MacLean and MacIntosh, 2015).

In the emergent strategy, the goal is to show that the strategy is presented artistically, in opposition to the rational scientific terms. By doing it, some suggestions are offered for developing and deploying the Strategy (MacLean and MacIntosh, 2015). However, emergent strategies are theories that relate to how to gain a competitive advantage in a given sector that appears over time or has been modified after implementation (Barney and Hesterly, 2015).

Mirabeu and Maguire (2014) developed a model for forming an emergent strategy. In this study, the authors integrate prominent traditions in the research process in strategy – from standardized actions, followed by allocation and interaction of resources in a practical way – showing the origin of the emergent strategy as a project through strategic behavior alone. Furthermore, the study theorizes the role of "articulation of strategic practices" in forming emergent strategies. Finally, it explains why some autonomous strategic behavior becomes ephemeral and disappears rather than extending as emergent strategies (Mirabeu and Maguire, 2014). This occurs through standardized interactions between individuals and organizations involved in many small acts and events influenced by localized changes without a plan or overview (MacLean and MacIntosh, 2015).

In terms of emergent strategies, the goals for administrative control are less and less labor power and behavior and increase the minds and the subjectivity of the employees (Alvesson and Deetz, 2010), which permeate the emergent

strategies. These new social conditions provide new urgency and application areas in the field of strategy under the focus of post-modernism and critical theory. So Aggregated, the people, the realities, and the social relations become less essential dimensions, formed under particular conditions of power and contestation, and filled with opacities, contradictions, and abolition of conflicts (Alvesson and Deetz, 2010). This way, in the practice and research on strategy, rationality traditionally overrides the innovative and creative thinking of the emergent strategist.

Deliberate and Emergent Strategies and Plural Performance

Whittington (2002) starts his book by questioning some studies on strategy. In that period, the search for Corporate Strategy on the Amazon.com website returned 47 books at an average cost of US$ 50.00. His main criticism is that if the business strategies could be acquired for US$ 50.00, there would be no need to pay very dearly for managers. But, unfortunately, they decided to do the same after 16 years, and the new search returned 43.212 books, reflecting the increase in the amount of information and the level of complexity to which we are exposed.

However, business strategies are complex and cannot be understood only by simple acquisition of a book. It was perceived that each year the offer of literature expands. However, doubts and difficulties of understanding and application of the concept remain the same. A relevant contribution of Whittington (2002) refers to four generic approaches (**Figure 1**). The classical approach approximates to the formal planning methods; the evolutionary, which originates in the theory of the biological development; the processual, which emphasizes the imperfect nature of human life; and the systemic, which relativizes the relationship between ends and means.
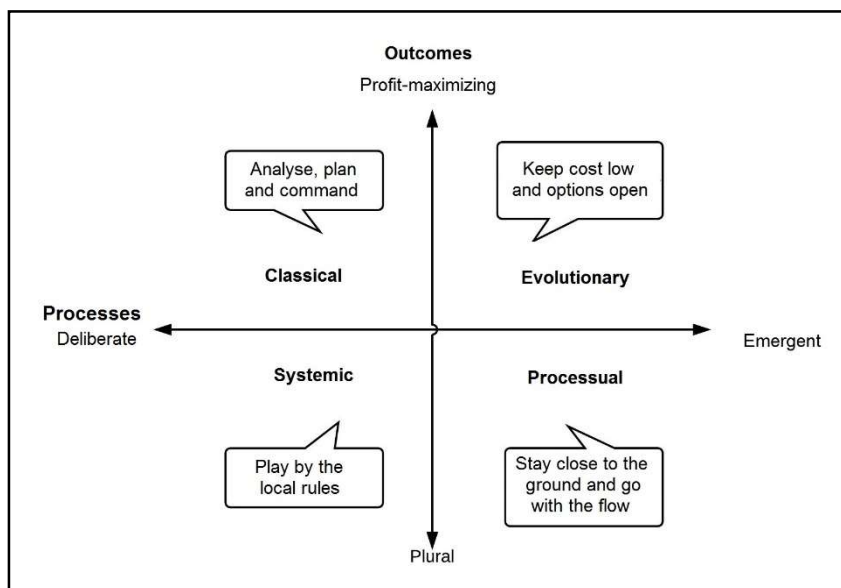

Figure 1. Generic strategy approaches. Source: Whittington (2002, p.12).

These approaches allow the intersection between the results - financial and plural - and between the processes - deliberate and emergent. Mintzberg et al. (2009) also allude to deliberate and emergent processes when describing the ten schools of strategy. According to these authors, the first three schools – Design, Planning, and Positioning – are focused on deliberate processes. In the Learning School, the strategy forms itself from emergent processes. The researchers that support the school of learning discovered that when there was an essential strategic resizing, it rarely originated from a formal planning effort. Instead, the strategies came from a variety of small actions and decisions taken by all kinds of different people. Despite this approach between emergent processes and learning, the authors acknowledge that they do not yet have a full strategy learning model.

As Whittington (2002), Mintzberg et al. (2009) also proposed to intersect deliberate and emergent strategy plans with the strategy as a set of positions and as a unified perspective (**Table 1**).

Table 1. Strategy processes by strategies. Source: Mintzberg et al. (2009).

		Strategy as	
		Set of positions	Unified perspective
Strategy as	Deliberate Plan	Planning	Vision
	Emergent Plan	Enterprise	Learning

Hart (1992) also proposes an integrative model of five species of strategy: (i) command, (ii) symbolic, (iii) rational, (iv) transactional, and (v) generative. The author characterizes these typologies from the more deliberate (command) to the more emergent (generative), adding that a company can simultaneously have two or more of these typologies.

Despite these examples and the questions submitted by Minzberg et al. (2009), just a few authors are trying to draw up a taxonomy that allows the convergence between Deliberate and Emergent typologies, the theme of this article (Franken and Thomsett, 2013; Hart, 1992; Knights and Mueller, 2004; Mariotto, 2003; Mintzberg and Waters, 1985).

The study of Strategy addresses in a traditional way its relationship with the performance, measured, in a general way, through the use of financial indicators (Chi, 2015; Parnell, 2011; Ramanujan and Venkatraman, 1987). However, since the 1950s, Bowen (1953), in his seminal book Social Responsibility of the Businessman, already alerted to social business concerns beyond profit generation. From then on, the development of this extended responsibility of companies is observed, demanding internal and external controls which extrapolate the financial performance (Carrol, 1999; Turker, 2008; Wood, 2010).

Several socioeconomic actors require an increasingly transparent attitude of the companies concerning their economic and legal practices. Therefore, knowing the stakeholders and understanding their views and demands is important, especially concerning integrity, respect, transparency, and accountability (Abreu et al., 2013; Pitts, 2014). Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) associates broader organizational purposes, such as reputation and stakeholder engagement (Lee, 2008).

Porter and Kramer (2011) developed the Creating Shared Value (CSV) model to face the trend of uniting business competitiveness and social welfare. It proposes a change of paradigm on the company priorities (profit and growth) and society priorities (development and new opportunities) to the extent that corporate strategic actions seek satisfactory growth for both parties (financial and social performance) (Porter and Kramer, 2006, 2011; Porter et al., 2011).

The CSV (Porter and Kramer, 2011) is an advanced CSR model (Porter and Kramer, 2006). Creating value can be considered a strategic alternative, one of the possible competitive advantages. It involves creating economic value in a way that allows for creating value for society, always seeing both parties' needs.

Integrating Deliberate and Emergent Strategies

Creating strategies must be a continuous process in which emergent strategies associated with deliberate strategies may have an essential role. But, to be well-used, administrators must master the use of structures, processes, and techniques that transform emergent strategies into effective strategic behavior (Mariotto, 2003).

Knights and Mueller (2004) discuss the strategy through dualism: objectivity (e.g., structural determinism) versus subjectivity (e.g., the reification of personality). The concept of strategy as an unfinished project allows it to be seen in a continuous process of formation and reconstruction (Knights and Mueller, 2004).

MacLean and MacIntosh (2015) introduced the idea of "emergent strategy" considering what they essentially are, poetic faculties, focusing on something surprisingly absent in most major studies on the strategy – i.e., the situated strategist, resplendent in its myriad interpretations. For those authors, the strategist's vision establishes a rich ecology of strategy styles and approaches that shift between contexts and cultures.

When the basis of the competition changes from one perspective based on products to another based on experience, approaches based on command and control are not successful over the same effect (Franken and Thomsett, 2013). The networks of market relations are increasingly interdependent, immersed, and complex. Thus, a reason-based strategy alone is insufficient to inspire other organization members.

In this vision of the world, managers accept that a good strategy is not the result of hours of painstaking research and modeling that lead to an inevitable and almost perfect conclusion. On the contrary, it results from a simple process and rather harsh of thinking through what it would take to get what you want and then assessing whether it is realistic to try. If executives adopt this definition, they may maintain the strategy where it must be: outside the comfort zone (Martin, 2014).

There are not many studies that propose a way to operationalize the strategy research in the design of emergent processes (Andersen, 2000; 2004; 2013; Bodwell and Chemark, 2010; Lavarda, Canet-Ginet and Peris-Bonet, 2010; 2011; Leitner, 2014; 2016; Mintzbergand Waters, 1985). Mariotto (2003) critically examines the idea of emergent strategy in organizations, as presented in the literature on business strategy, and proposes a conceptual framework for the practical use of this idea. The model presented by the author describes a process that combines intention with emersion, which "means the appearance of a pattern of behavior of the system as a whole, which cannot be inferred from the knowledge of the behavior rules of individual agents, but results spontaneously from the interaction between these rules." (Mariotto, 2003, p. 83). This process is formed by two sub-processes evolving in parallel in the organization: simple-loop learning.

Exceptionally, the results can be so amazing that they can cause a change in the intended strategy, perhaps even in general goals and vision. This constitutes double-loop learning. In the second sub-process, called continuous strategy formation, organization members interact in the day-to-day with customers and other market agents and, from the general orientation provided by general objectives and vision established by top management, detect new opportunities and risks, as well as act on their initiative (Mariotto, 2003).

These actions and their results can be monitored interactively, engaging managers from different parts of the organization, including the top management. Mariotto's model incorporates the ideas of Osborn (1998) and Simons (1991) to use diagnostic controls to implement deliberate strategy and interactive controls to perform emergent strategies. The model explains that the diagnostic controls come after the formulation of the strategy (intentional), while the interactive controls come before the formation of the strategy (emergent). The model also incorporates the emergence of objectives (detailed), the retrospective creation of meaning in the second sub-process, and strategic learning (double-loop learning) in both sub-processes.

According to Mintzberg, Lampel, Quinn, and Ghoshal (2006), the purely deliberate strategy prevents learning because it is formulated; on the other hand, the emergent strategy promotes learning. However, this occurs because people perform the actions and respond to them in a way that the standards end up being formed. In practice, every elaboration of strategy has two paths: a deliberate one and an emergent one. As well as the elaboration of purely deliberate strategy prevents learning, the elaboration of purely emergent strategy prevents control.

Mintzberg et al. (2006) affirm that no purely deliberate or emergent strategy exists. No organization knows enough to preview everything, and the organization can't be flexible enough to leave everything to chance without control. Creating requires control, as well as it requires receptivity of the material that is at hand. Accordingly, deliberate and emergent strategies form the ends of a continuous line along which the strategies implemented in the real world can be found. Some strategies can approach one end or another, but the majority is in intermediary points.

Some organizations may, culturally or as the sector to which they belong (Mintzberg, Ahlstrand, and Lampel, 2009), have greater prominence in the deliberate processes. When this happens, according to the proposed neologism, there is a Delibergent Strategy; in contrast, when the organization has in its values and its culture or due to the unpredictability imposed by extraneous events to the control of management, the major use of the emerging processes, the taxonomy proposed would be Emergerate Strategy, keeping it clear that both co-occur with the largest relative participation of one or another (see **Figure 2**).

The subjects advocated in this essay suggest that despite all the advantages and disadvantages broadly presented in the literature by supporters and critics of both sides, the day-to-day management of companies is permeated by the combined use of the two typologies, even unintentionally. For example, in a survey conducted at Honda, Nonaka (1988) pointed out the existence of an integrative strategy that recognizes the simultaneous existence of deliberate and emergent strategies from the middle manager's role liaising between the top and bottom of the organization.

Hart (1992) presents an integrative model that typifies the strategy in five modes (command, symbolic, rational, transactional, and generative). For this author, top management acts directly in developing Deliberate Strategies while the other organization members watch over Emergent Strategies, which may exist simultaneously. What is still not achieved is to precisely define the participation of one or the other and its level of influence on organizational performance.
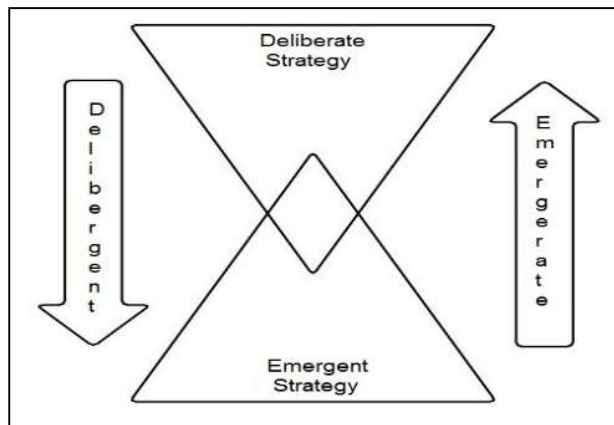
Figure 2. Association between Deliberate and Emergent Strategies

According to Mintzberg and Waters (1985), for a strategy to be purely deliberate - the strategy to be carried out as intended - at least three conditions must be verified. First, there must be precise intentions in the organization, articulated at a relatively concrete level of detail, so there is no doubt about what was desired before any action was taken. Second, to dispel any possible doubt about whether or not the intentions are organizational, they need to be common to virtually all actors: either shared with their own or accepted by the leaders, probably in response to any control. Third, these collective intentions must have been carried out precisely as intended, meaning no external force (market, technology, politics, etc.) could have interfered with them. The environment, in other words, must have been perfectly predictable, totally benign, or under total control of the organization. These three conditions are a rare situation, so it is unlikely that there are purely deliberate strategies in organizations. However, some strategies are pretty close in some, if not all, dimensions.

For a strategy to be purely emergent, there must be coherence in the action process over time - in the absence of intention. It is difficult to imagine an action in the total absence of intention - in some part of the organization, if not of the leadership itself - in such a way that the exclusively emergent action is as rare as the exclusively deliberate one (Mintzberg and Waters, 1985).

From this observation, it is suggested, as shown in **Figure 2**, that the organizational strategies are formulated and formed by the combined and aware use of the two typologies; the deliberate strategies should remain formulated by high management but should also be allowed to combine with the emergent strategies. The novelty presented in this paper is the possibility of the strategy classification as delibergent or emergerate, from the predominance of one or the other.

The great challenge of the proposed reflection consists in presenting ways that promote assertive use of deliberate and emergent processes and methods that simultaneously allow the use of rationality and intuition (Simons, 1991). This way, aiming to fill this gap, a framework suggestion is presented in the next section.

It should be noted, however, that the degree of deliberation is not a measure of the potential success of a strategy. For example, Mintzberg and Waters (1985) found both quite emergent strategies - Consensus Strategy and School of Entrepreneurship - and quite deliberate strategies - School of Planning and Ideological School - that were highly successful, as well as strategies that were more in the center - Umbrella and Disconnected. These examples were delineated from empirical results demonstrated by Mintzberg and Waters (1985). Still, the authors are emphatic in explaining the need to improve the management process's understanding of formulation and strategy formation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This article was structured by Whetten (1989) on the basic precepts of the constitutive elements of a theory. The search for articles was carried out in databases such as Ebsco, Proquest, Scopus, and Scielo, using the terms Deliberate Strategy, Emergent Strategy, Performance, and Generic Strategy Frameworks, in an attempt to find research that used the two concepts in an integrated or separate way, in theoretical or empirical studies, in addition to classic and seminal authors in the field of Strategy (Barney, 1991, Chandler 1962, Jarzabkowski, 2004, 2013, Mintzberg 1978, Mintzberg and Waters, 1985; Porter, 1980; 1985; Porter and Kramer, 2011; Whittington, 1996, 2002).

The theoretical arguments of this study were elaborated under the lens of reflexive methodology. The reflection should be understood as the author's interpretations, the ability to observe their perspectives from the perspectives of others and the capacity for self-criticism about his authority as an interpreter and author. These interpretations are obtained by the constant induction, deduction, and abduction processes developed throughout the research process (Alvesson and Skolberg, 2000). Enthusiasts of this methodology argue that knowledge cannot be separated from the knower. Reflexive methodology presupposes a metatheory understanding, the researcher's involvement with potential lines of thought, rather than a definitive theoretical formulation (Alvesson, 2002).

The conduction of research with a reflexive approach needs four steps: (i) the first level interpretation is performed on the empirical data, in this case, the researched papers; (ii) the second level, that is, the theoretical interpretation of the previous interpretation, because at this moment several theories can be used; (iii) at the third level is performed the critical interpretation of the assumptions of the theories used in the second level; In the fourth and last level, (iv) is performed critical and reflexive interpretation on all levels (Alvesson and Skolberg, 2000).

Research assumptions

Under the pressure of increasingly fierce competition, companies today have increasingly sought flexibility and constant innovation. The traditional way of creating strategies through a formal and regular strategic planning process is no longer sufficient to deal with this new situation. In these conditions, creating strategies must be an ongoing process or promote disruptions through dynamic strategic interactions (D'Aveni, 1995), in which deliberate and emergent strategies, used simultaneously, can have a crucial role. However, to take advantage of them, managers must master structures, processes, and techniques to transform emergent strategies into effective strategic behavior.

The great challenge addressed in this work is to set how to operationalize the research and how to guide the management of both typologies. In terms of research, traditionally deliberate strategies are discussed in qualitative work, mainly through case studies of single or multiple cases, and in quantitative work, when analyzing entire sectors and conglomerates. Concerning the emergent strategies, the main theoretical representatives of this typology are the Learning and Cognitive Schools, mentioned by Mintzberg et al. (2009), and the Strategy as Practice (Jarzabkowski, 2004; Whittington, 1996). The strategies emerge when people, acting individually or as a group, learn about a situation.

The conjugation of the theoretical discussion undertaken in this article brought a framework (**Figure 3**) to support empirical research. The theoretical contribution includes Deliberate, Delibergent, Emergent, and Emergerate prospects and Plural Performance, which is non-existent in the models of Peng et al. (2009). It has as a presupposition that the strategies are conceived and formulated, in general, despite the various existing proposals, based on the Strategy Tripod–Institution-Based View, Industry-Based View, and Resources-Based View –that rather than antagonizing, from the univocal perspective of their main creators, they may be complementary, as well as the deliberate and emergent processes. These three views support the formulation and formation of the strategy, respectively, resulting in a performance that may be financial or plural (Whittington, 2002).

It should be highlighted, in addition to the incorporation of the five views, whose framework already contemplated a financial perspective (Chi, 2015; Parnell, 2011; Ramanujan and Venkatraman, 1987), that it should be included the non-financial or plural performance (Porter and Kramer, 2006, 2011; Porter et al., 2011), the latter based on the Creation Shared Value (CSV) model of Porter and Kramer (2011).

It is suggested, initially for application in research, the use of the Institution-Based View (InstBV), considering formal and informal aspects that can influence organizational strategies (Peng et al., 2009). In general, the institutional aspects, under the mimetic, normative, and coercive isomorphism (Dimaggio and Powell, 2005), treating as variables of political, economic, social, technological, environmental, and legal aspects. For the Industry-Based View (IndBV), the analysis can consider the five forces of Porter (1985): industry rivalry; the bargaining power of buyers; the bargaining power of suppliers; the threat of substitutes, and the threat of new entrants. Finally, regarding the Resources-Based View (RBV), the VRIO model of Barney (1991) is suggested because it affirms that the organization's resources must be valuable, rare, inimitable, and organizable. The combination of these three views will be responsible for influencing emergent and deliberate strategy procedures; the VBIn and VBI are closer to the deliberate processes, while the VBR approaches emergent processes. In this way, the first assumption is presented:

A1: IntBV, IndBV, and RBV are theoretical conceptions that precede and influence the formulation and formation of organizational strategies.

The combination of these three views will be responsible for influencing the strategy's emergent and deliberate processes, with InstBV and IndBV being closer to deliberate processes, while RBV approaches emergent processes, albeit in an uncontrollable, unpredictable and complex environment, which the result of a behavior can be deliberate in one

aspect and emergent in another (Mintzberg and Waters, 1985), which brings to the second presupposition:

A2: The strategy process occurs through the interaction of the deliberate and emergent processes simultaneously, with a predominance of the first (delibergent), the second (emergerate), or Equanimeous distribution between the two (exclusively emergent or deliberate).

In the central element of the model, referring to the strategic typologies, results of background views, and as presented in the previous section (**Figure 3**), the Deliberate, Delibergent Emergent, and Emergerate processes can be identified and classified according to the theoretical concepts already presented (Andersen, 2000; 2004; 2013; Bowen and Chemark, 2010; Hart, 1992; Lavarda, Canet-Ginet and Peris-Bonet, 2010; 2011; Leitner, 2014; 2016; Mintzberg and Water, 1985; Nonaka, 1988) and by aid methods and research techniques presented in the following paragraphs.

Another aspect that deserves to be highlighted in this analysis is the understanding of performance, which traditionally, at least in the strategy research, is more directed to accounting and financial indicators, leaving the plural aspects (beyond the profit) of performance forgotten or undersized. In this way, measuring aspects beyond the profit from the CSV model of Porter and Kramer (2011) is suggested. One of the advantages of this model is in the solution through shared value because it involves a double creation of economic value for the company and society, contemplating the needs of both parties, i.e., the company as a market subsystem has its economic prosperity aligned to the advancement of society in a simultaneous and complementary way (Porter et al., 2011), leading to the third assumption:

A3: The three visions (InsBV, IndBV, and RBV) precede the strategy process, which is constituted by the interaction of deliberate and emergent processes, resulting in a performance that needs to be evaluated by the financial/economic aspect from the corporate and social perspective by the value it shares with society.
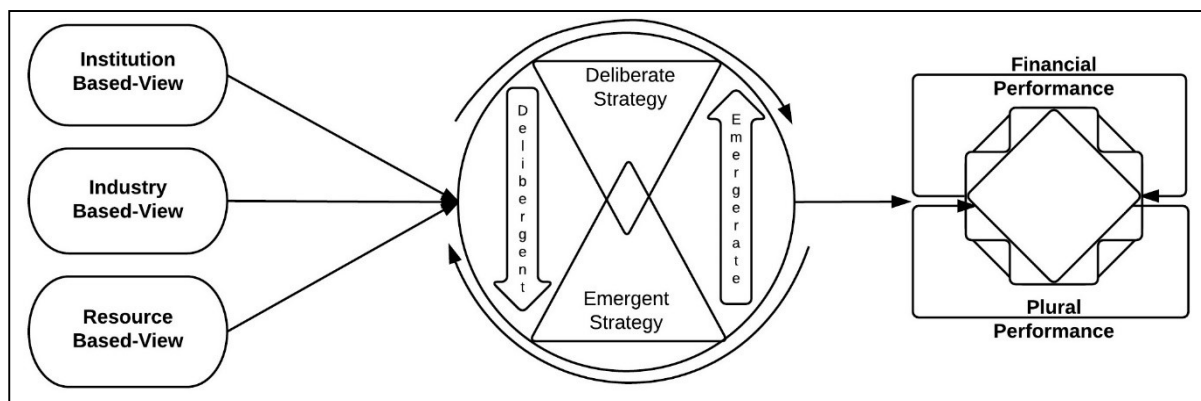

Figure 3. Research Framework of Deliberate and Emergent Strategies.

It is understood that there may be an epistemological distance between the proposed approaches. However, it is not the intention of the authors at this moment to discuss it. Still, it should be emphasized that approaches of mixed methods can also be used, even in the case of distinct epistemological conceptions, since the most important is the search for knowledge (Creswel and Clark, 2013).

The limitations that may arise are related to the difficulty of materializing social sciences concepts and theories. The proposed framework simplifies reality, constituted from the mainstream of strategy theories. Still, it is a unified representation of the proposals of consecrated authors in strategy. It brings the possibility of perpetrating research, having as inspiration the "paradigm of the middle way," relating to deliberate and emergent strategy processes.

FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

Given the complexity that permeates the Organizational Strategy, to propose a framework only under the prospects of deliberate and emergent processes would be an excess of reductionism. Thus, it was suggested that the strategy tripod model incorporate the deliberate and emergent processes, taking as outputs organizational performance in financial and plural terms, encompassing profit and non-profit organizations.

Methodologically, qualitative and quantitative studies can be undertaken. As the proposed framework suggests a

more holistic and complex approach, in qualitative terms, it is believed that the Case Study, Ethnography, and Grounded Theory are powerful research strategies to deepen the understanding and allow the generation of theories about the phenomenon. Thus, to ensure relevance and representativeness of the findings, as empirical field, it is suggested that large businesses be recognized by the use of strategies that promote their competitive advantage; small and medium-sized businesses which make part of clusters or Local Production Arrangements, as long as they're investigated together. The common aspect between these empirical field examples is the evidence of the economic and social impact in the sector or the region where they operate.

Concerning quantitative studies, as long as they seek generalization and confirmation of the theory, they can use primary and secondary data. For the variables concerning the three views and performance, it is recommended, exemplarily, experimental research through structural equations to enable the same variable to be dependent and independent simultaneously (Byrne, 2010); computational simulation with the use of genetic algorithms (Holland, 1975), since using this method in business and economic contexts, the operators of the algorithm are interpreted as steps of an adaptive learning process (Dawid, 1999) or evolutionary learning (Arifovic and Maschek, 2006); another suggestion of method to be applied are Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) because they are characterized by advanced technology to decision support. Based on mathematical simulations that are similar to the logic of human reasoning, the ANN is obtained by the correlation of relevant variables in a given analysis (Bialoskorski, Nagano, and Moraes, 2006), allowing verification of evolution and learning through the dynamic interactions between the variables.

Concerning quantitative procedures of manipulation of variables that form the emergent and deliberate strategies, it is recommended the implementation of fuzzy logic, to the extent that it incorporates a form of reasoning similar to the human one (Corrar et al., 2007), instead of exact reasoning, limited to binary structures. The proposal of fuzzy logic, based on the Fuzzy Sets theory, assumes a premise that varies in degrees of relevance, which leads the fuzzy set element to be in the range between 0 and 1, including its extremes (Corrar et al., 2007). Therefore, the logic can be understood as a superset of traditional Boolean logic by extending its restricted set, composed by the "deliberate" or "emergent" duality, represented by 0 or 1, respectively, adding the concept of partially deliberate (delibergent), when closer to 1, and partially emergent (emergerate) when closer to 0, or perfectly deliberate and emergent when finding value equal to 0 and 1, respectively.

The proposals for future studies direct the authors of this research and other interested parties to widen and deepen the discussions still developing concerning the unified use of deliberate and emergent strategies, also to improve and enhance the proposed framework, to seek mechanisms capable of unifying disparate epistemological approaches, beyond the empirical field incursions to test, understand, deepen and generalize the proposed relations.

REFERENCES

Abreu, M. C. S., Lima, B. C. C., Silva, V. M. M., and Cunha, L. T. (2013). O exercício da cidadania corporativa contribuindo para a transformação da realidade social da comunidade Serviluz. Revista Brasileira de Estratégia, 6(2): 165-177.

Alvesson, M. (2003). Beyond neopositivists, romantics, and localists: a reflective approach to interviews in organizational research. Academy of Management Review, 28(1): 13-33.

Alvesson, M., and Deetz, S. (2010). Teoria Crítica e Abordagens Pós-Modernas para Estudos Organizacionais. In. Clegg, S., Hardy, C. and Nord, W. R. Handbook de Estudos Organizacionais: Modelos de Análise e Novas Questões em Estudos Organizacionais. São Paulo: Atlas.

Alvesson, M., Skölberg, K. (2000) Reflexive methodology: new vistas for qualitative research. London, Sage.

Andersen, T. J. (2004). Integrating the Strategy Formation Process: An International Perspective. European Management Journal, 22(3): 263-272.

Andersen, T. J. (2013). Short introduction do strategic management. Cambridge: University Printing House.

Ansoff, I. (1965). Corporate Strategy: An Analytical Approach to Business Policy for Growth and Expansion. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Arifovic, J., and Maschek, M. K. (2006). Revisiting individual evolutionary learning in the cobweb model–an illustration of the virtual spite-effect. Computational Economics, 28(4): 333-354.

Barney, J. B. (1991). Firm Sustained Competitive Advantage. Journal of Management, 17(1): 99-120.

Barney, J. B., and Hesterly, W. S. (2015). Administração Estratégica e Vantagem Competitiva. São Paulo: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Bialoskorski Neto, S., Nagano, M. S., and Moraes, M. B. C. (2006). Utilização de Redes Neurais Artificiais para avaliação sócio econômica: uma aplicação em cooperativas. Revista de Administração da USP, São Paulo, 41(1): 58-68.

Bodwell, W. and Chermack, T. J. (2010). Organizational ambidexterity: Integrating deliberate and emergent strategy with scenario planning. Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 77(2): 193-202.

Bowen, H. R. (1953). Social Responsibilities of the Businessman. Harper and Row, New York.

Byrne, B. M. (2010). Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS: basic concepts, applications and programming. 2nd ed. New York: Taylor and Francis Group.

Carrol, A. (1999) Corporate Social Responsibility: Evolution of a Definitional Construct. Business and society, 38(3): p. 268-295.

Creswell, J. W. and Clark, V. L. P. (2013) Pesquisa de métodos mistos. 2. ed. Porto Alegre: Penso.

Chi, T. (2015). Business Contingency, Strategy Formation, and Firm Performance: An Empirical Study of Chinese Apparel SMEs. Adm. Sci. 5(2): p 27-45.

Chandler, A. (1962). Strategy and Structure: Chapters in the History of American Industrial Enterprise. MIT Press, Cambridge: MA.

Corrar, L. J., Paulo, E., and Dias Filho, J. M. (2007). Análise multivariada: para cursos de administração, ciências contábeis e economia. São Paulo: Atlas.

D'aveni, R. A.(1995). Hipercompetição: Estratégias para dominar a dinâmica do mercado. Campus: Rio de Janeiro.

Dawid, H., 1999. On the Convergence of Genetic Learning in a Double Auction Market, Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control, 23 (9-10): 1545 - 1567.

DiMaggio, P.J., and Powell, W.W. (2005). A gaiola de ferro revisitada: isomorfismo institucional e racionalidade coletiva nos campos organizacionais. Revista de Administração de Empresas, São Paulo, 45 (2): 74-79.

Egels-Zandén, N., and Rosén, M. (2015). Sustainable strategy formation at a Swedish industrial company: bridging the strategy-as-practice and sustainability gap. Journal of Cleaner Production, 96: 139-147.

Franken; A., and Thomsett, H. (2013). When It Takes a Network: Creating Strategy and Agility Trough Wargaming. California Management Review, Berkeley, 55(3): 107-133.

Freedman, L. (2013). Strategy: A history. New York: Oxford University Press.

Galeazzo, A., and Klassen, R. D. (2015). Organizational context and the implementation of environmental and social practices: what are the linkages to manufacturing strategy? Journal of Cleaner Production, 108: 158-168.

Glass, G. (1976). Primary, secondary and meta-analysis of research. Educational Research, Washington, 5(10): 3–8.

Habermas, J. (2001). A constelação pós-nacional: ensaios políticos. São Paulo: Littera Mundi.

Hart, S. L. (1992). An integrative framework for strategy-making processes. Academy of Management Review, 17(2): 327-351.

Hart, S. L. (1995). A Natural-Resource-Based View of the Firm, Academy of Management Review, 20(4): 986–1012.

Hickson, D., S. Miller and D. Wilson (2003). Planned or prioritized? Two options for managing the implementation of strategic decisions, Journal of Management Studies, 40(7): 1803–1836.

Holland, J. H. (1975). Adaptation in natural and artificial systems: An introductory analysis with applications to biology, control, and artificial intelligence. MIT Press.

Jarzabkowski, P. (2004). Strategy as practice: Recursiveness, adaptation and practices-in-use. Organization Studies, 24(3): 489–520.

Jarzabkowski, P. and Fenton, E. (2006). Strategizing and Organizing in Pluralistic Contexts. Long Range Planning, 39(1): 631-48.

Jarzabkowski, P., Spee, A. P., and Smets, M. (2013). Material artifacts: Practices for doing strategy with 'stuff'. European Management Journal, 31(1): 41-54.

Meneghetti, F. K. (2011). O que é um ensaio teórico. Revista de Administração Contemporânea, 15(2): 320-332.

Knights, D., and Mueller, F. (2004). Strategy as a 'Project': overcoming dualisms in the strategy debate. European

Management Review. Malden, (1)1: 55-61.

Lavarda, R. A. B., Canet-Giner, M. T., and Peris-Bonet, F. J. (2010).How middle managers contribute to strategy formation process: connection of strategy processes and strategy practices. Revista de Administração de Empresas, 50(4): 358-370.

Lavarda, R.A. B., Canet Giner, M. T., and Juan Peris-Bonet, F. (2011). Understanding how the strategy formation process interacts with the management of complex work. European Business Review, 23(1): 71-86.

Lee, M. D. P. (2008). A review of the theories of corporate social responsibility: Its evolutionary path and the road ahead. International journal of management reviews, 10(1): 53-73.

Leitner, K. H. (2014). Strategy formation in the innovation and market domain: emergent or deliberate? Journal of Strategy and Management, 7(4): 354-375.

Leitner, K. H. (2016). Emerging and deliberate product innovation strategies in SMEs: results from a longitudinal study. International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation Management, 20 (1-2): 80-98.

MacIntosh, R., and MacLean, D. (2015). Strategic management: strategists at work. London: Palgrave.

MacLean, D., and MacIntosh, R. (2015). Planning Reconsidered: Paradox, poetry and people at the edge of strategy. European Management Journal, Glasgow (33)2: 72-78.

MacLean, D., and MacIntosh, R. (2012) Strategic change as creative action. International Journal of Strategic Change Management, 4(1): 80–97.

Mariotto, F. L. (2003). Mobilizando Estratégias Emergentes. Revista de Administração de Empresas, (43)2: 78-93.

Martin, R. L. (2014). The Big Lie of Strategic Planning. A detailed plan maybe comforting but it's not a strategy. Havard Business Review. Jan-Feb: 78-84.

Mintzberg, H. (1978). Patterns in Strategy Formation. Management Science, Catonsville, (29)9: 934-948.

Mintzberg, H., and Waters, J. A. (1985). Of strategies, deliberate and emergent. Strategic Management Journal, 6(3): 257-272.

Mintzberg, H. (1987). The strategy concept I: five Ps for Strategy. California Management Review, Berkeley, 30(1): 11-24.

Mintzberg, H., Ahlstrand, B. and Lampel, J. (2009). Safári de Estratégia: um roteiro pela selva do planejamento estratégico. Porto Alegre: Bookman.

Mintzberg, H., Lampel, J., Quinn, J. B., and Ghoshal, S. 2006. O processo da estratégia: conceitos, contextos e casos selecionados. 4.ed. Porto Alegre: Bookman.

Mirabeu, L., and Maguire, S. (2014). From Autonomous Strategic Behavior to Emergent Strategy. Strategic Management Journal, 35(8): 1202-1229.

Nonaka, I. (1988). Toward middle-up-down management: accelerating information creation. Sloan Management Review, 29 (3): 9-18.

Oliveira, O. V., and Forte, S. H. A. C. (2014). Business Strategy Pentagon: five visions framework for the Strategy of stock Exchange listed companies. Business and Management Review, 4(3): 205-215.

Osborn, C. S.(1998). Systems for sustainable organizations: emergent strategies, interactive controls and semi-formal information. Journal of Management Studies, 35(4), 481-509.

Parnel, J. A. A. (2011) Strategic capabilities, competitive strategy, and performance among retailers in Argentina, Peru and the United States. Management Decision, 49(1), p.139-155.

Penrose, E.T.(1959). The Theory of the Growth of the Firm, New York: Wiley.

Peng, M. W., Sun, S. L., Pinklam, B. and Chen, H. (2009). The Institution-Based View as a Third Leg for a Strategy Tripod. Academy of Management Perspective, 23(3): 63-81.

Pitts, A. (2014, December). Private sector relationships to ODA: measuring shared values. In KAPA Winter Conference–National Competitiveness: diagnosis and policy prescriptions.

Porter, M. E. (1980). Competitive Strategy. New York: Free Press.

Porter, M. E. (1985). Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance. New York: Free Press.

Porter, M. E., and Kramer, M. R. (2006). Strategy and society: the link between competitive advantage and corporate

social responsibility. Harvard Business Review, 84(12): 78-92.

Porter, M. E., and Kramer, M. R. (2011). The big idea: creating shared value. Harvard Business Review, 84(12): 78-92.

Porter, M., Hills, G., Pfitzer, M., Patscheke, Sonja and Hawkins, E. (2011). Measuring Shared Value: How to Unlock Value by Linking Social and Business Results. Retrieved April 28, 2016 from https://sharedvalue.org/sites/default/files/resource-files/Measuring_Shared_Value.pdf.

Randall, R. M.(1984). Sniping at Strategic Planning. Planning Review, 3(2): 8-11.

Raes, A. M. L., Heijltjes, M. U., Glunk and Roe, R. (2011). The interface of the top management team and middle managers: a process model, Academy of Management Review, 36(1): 102–126.

Ramanujan, V., and Venkatraman, N. (1987). Planning system characteristics and planning effectiveness. Strategic Management Journal, 8(5): 453-68.

Sminia, H. and Rond, M. (2012). Context and action in the transformation of strategy scholarships, Journal of Management Studies, 49(7): 1329–1349.

Simons, R. (1991). Strategic orientation and top management attention to control systems. Strategic Management Journal, Maden, 12(1): 49-62.

Slater, S. F. and Narver, J.C. (1995). Market Orientation and the Learning Organization. Journal of Marketing, Chicago, 59(3): 63-74.

Sloan, A. (1963). My Years with General Motors. New York: Double Day.

Thomas, L. and Ambrosini, V. (2015), Materializing Strategy: The Role of Comprehensiveness and Management Controls in Strategy Formation in Volatile Environments. British Journal of Management, 26 (Special Issue): S105–S124.

Tovstiga, G. (2013). Strategy in Practice. 2nd ed. West Sussex: Wiley.

Turkey, D. (2009) Measuring Corporate Social Responsibility: a scale development study. Journal of Business Ethics, 85(4): 411-427.

Wernelfelt, B. (1984). A Resource Based View of the Firm, Strategic Management Review, (5) 2: 171–180.

Whetten, D. A. (1989). What constitutes a theoretical contribution? Academy of Management Review, 14(4): 490-495.

Whittington, R. (1996). Strategy as practice. Long Range Planning, 29(5): 731-735.

Whittington, R. (2002). O que é Estratégia? Pioneira Thompson Learning, São Paulo.

Wood, D. J. (2010). Measuring Corporate Social Performance: a review. International Journal of Management Reviews, 12 (1): 50-84.