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Getting business-to-business salespeople to implement strategies associated with introducing new products and services[☆]

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ABSTRACT

Strategy implementation remains a perennial challenge for firms. While several studies have examined implementation phenomena at the firm level, we know little about what firms can do to get their salespeople to implement strategies for new products and services. Understanding salespeople's individual-level implementation is of particular importance as salespeople are the frontline employees of the firm responsible for implementing strategies with customers. Drawing from motivation, opportunity, and ability (MOA) theory, this examination investigates factors impacting the implementation of strategies associated with introducing new products and services by the salesperson. We use a sample of 277 business-to-business salespeople to test our hypothesized relationships. The findings show both positive and negative moderation among the implementation MOA variables and also provide broad support for their proposed drivers. Additionally, the identified implementation facets of responsiveness and effort are found to positively impact implementation success.

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1. Introduction

To achieve their goals, it is not only important for firms to develop good strategies, but also to implement them successfully. There are several incidences however, of companies formulating supposedly excellent strategies but running into problems with implementation (Bossidy, Charan, & Burck, 2002; Lorge, 1999; Slater, Hult, & Olson, 2010; Slater, Olson, & Hult, 2010). Salespeople can play an important role in implementing a firm's strategies as they occupy a frontline position within the company. Additionally, organizational initiative success can be predicated on the level of salespeople's acceptance or resistance (Zablah, Chonko, Bettencourt, Allen, & Haas, 2012). While some firms are very effective at getting their salespeople to implement strategies, others are not as successful.

Strategy implementation can be conceptualized as how a strategy is operationalized and enacted by the organization (Varadarajan &

Jayachandran, 1999). The existing management literature has examined implementation at a firm level and advanced factors for improving organizational implementation, such as good communication, clear strategies, strategic focus, cross-functional integration, support from senior management, and strategic consensus amongst members (Beer, 1997; Crittenden & Crittenden, 2008; Dobni & Luffman, 2003; Rapert, Velliquette, & Garretson, 2002).

Despite its importance to the firm, strategy implementation remains an under-researched topic in the domain of marketing (Noble & Mokwa, 1999; Sarin, Challagalla, & Kohli, 2012). Scholars note that while the focus has been placed in many other areas germane to strategy in marketing, there has been "relatively little consideration of actual implementation" (Möller & Parvinen, 2015, p. 4). Recently, firm-level implementation inquiries in marketing have provided insight into such contexts as new product development (Matikainen, Terho, Matikainen, Parvinen, & Juppoo, 2015) and key account management (Guenzi & Storbacka, 2015; Tzempelikos & Gounaris, 2015). However, scholars note that while these inquiries have added significant insight to implementation on a firm level, "the role of salespeople and their behaviors in the implementation of a firm's sales strategy have remained almost unstudied" (Terho, Eggert, Haas, & Ulaga, 2015, p. 12–13).

Salespeople are an important part of the implementation process as they often represent the primary interface between the selling firm and the customer (Johnson, Barksdale, & Boles, 2001). This boundary-spanning role places them at the frontline of the implementation process and makes their enactment of strategy critical to the organization. However, salespeople do not automatically enact strategies simply

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because they are instructed to do so. Partly this is because they see their role as strategy makers and implementers, rather than strictly implementers (Malshe, 2009). Additionally, they have to buy-in to a strategy and believe that the proposed strategy is appropriate and has merit (Malshe & Sohi, 2009b).

Some recent studies have examined the role of salespeople in strategy formation (e.g. Malshe & Sohi, 2009a) and implementation (e.g. Sarin et al., 2012). While this research has provided important insights into the salesperson's role in strategy development and execution processes, additional empirical work is needed to understand what drives salespeople to implement strategies. The purpose of this paper therefore, is to provide an understanding of the components of the implementation of strategies by salespeople, the factors leading to implementation, and the effects of salespeople's implementation behaviors on implementation success.

Consistent with both recent and seminal work conducted in the implementation domain, implementation models are tested in specific contexts. For example, Noble and Mokwa (1999) tested their model in the contexts of marketing information systems and sales promotions, while Sarin et al. (2012) used channel changes as the context of their study. For this study, we examine the implementation of strategies in the context of new product/service introductions. This is an ideal context for examining strategy implementation by salespeople, due to the pervasiveness of new product/service introductions, their impact on firm performance, and the important role that salespeople play in their introduction (Atuahene-Gima, 1997; Hultink & Atuahene-Gima, 2000; Wieseke, Homburg, & Lee, 2008). Considering new products are more likely to fail than to succeed (Ogawa & Piller, 2006), the salesperson's role in implementing the associated strategies is vital to success.

This study addresses several gaps in the literature. First, despite the importance of strategy implementation, the predominant focus of the literature has been on strategy creation rather than implementation (Lane, 2005; Noble & Mokwa, 1999). Our paper extends knowledge in this key area by examining salespeople's implementation of strategies associated with introducing new products and services. Implementing strategies associated with new products and services also helps capture a wider breadth of behaviors enacted by salespeople than the traditional conceptualization of new product selling. While the outcome of new product selling is certainly important, implementation of strategies requires salespeople to engage in behaviors that go beyond sales. As front-line personnel, they have to engage in intra-organizational interactions to coordinate activities necessary for implementation; they have to expeditiously respond to requests from multiple organizational units driving the strategies, and they have to allocate additional effort for performing activities necessary to implement the strategies. These implementation behaviors that go beyond selling are important to investigate because of their implications for strategy implementation and sales force management. We are able to provide layers of understanding between what is known on relationships between antecedents (e.g. training) and dependent variables (e.g. new product performance) by showing how antecedents affect implementation MOAs, which contingently impact implementation behaviors, which in turn affect implementation success. Second, the current literature has limited examinations of the individual salesperson's role in implementing strategies (Terho et al., 2015). Though the salesperson can be a critical component of the implementation process, little is known about their implementation behaviors. Pertaining to this research, we investigate three types of salesperson behaviors necessary for implementing strategies (responsiveness, effort, coordination), and show how they affect strategy implementation success. Third, this paper extends motivation, opportunity, and ability (MOA) theory to the strategy implementation literature, advancing understanding of the necessary components needed to facilitate implementation by the company's sales force. In this study, we examine the differential and interactive effects of the three implementation MOA components on

salespeople's implementation behaviors. Fourth, from a theoretical and managerial perspective, it is important to understand what drives salespeople's motivation, opportunity and ability to implement strategies. In this regard, we examine the effects of several managerially-controllable variables that impact these three implementation MOA components. Specifically, we show that involvement in strategy development, role autonomy, and training are key drivers of salespeople's implementation MOAs. Finally, researchers note the absence of multi-company and multi-industry studies in related domains and call for research that is generalizable across contexts (e.g. Fu, Richards, Hughes, & Jones, 2010). This research transcends companies and industries to help generalize findings and also provides variance on organizational-level variables tested in the model.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. First, we discuss the theoretical foundations for our conceptual framework and develop the hypothesized relationships. Next, we discuss the methodology used in conducting the study including detail on the sample and measurement constructs. Subsequently we report the results of the analysis and tests of the hypotheses. We conclude by discussing the findings, implications, limitations, and avenues for future research.

2. Theory and hypotheses

2.1. Salespeople's implementation behaviors

Behaviors performed in implementation are contingent on the function of an employee in an organization and the implementation activity. Since salespeople act as organizational boundary spanners between the selling firm and the customer, a multifaceted conceptualization of strategy implementation behaviors by the salesperson is needed to capture relevant considerations. In our context, we examine salespeople's implementation behaviors when introducing new products and services. To identify these behaviors, we draw from sales management and organizational implementation literatures (e.g., Chonko & Jones, 2005; Fu et al., 2010; Hultink & Atuahene-Gima, 2000; Speier & Venkatesh, 2002; Steward, Walker, Hutt, & Kumar, 2010; Wooldridge & Floyd, 1990). To effectively implement strategies, three necessary factors consistently emerge from the literature: speed (Lamont, Williams, & Hoffman, 1994; Speier & Venkatesh, 2002), energy (Ahearne, Rapp, Hughes, & Jindal, 2010; Wooldridge & Floyd, 1990), and interaction (Ahearne et al., 2010; Lamont et al., 1994; Lim & Reid, 1992; Möller & Parvinen, 2015; Speier & Venkatesh, 2002; Wooldridge & Floyd, 1990). Accordingly, we examine these elements, namely salesperson responsiveness, effort and coordination in implementing strategies associated with introducing new products and services.

2.1.1. Implementation responsiveness

Responsiveness is a well-established construct in the marketing strategy literature and represents the quickness of reaction to a given situation (Homburg, Grozdanovic, & Klarmann, 2007; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). In our context of implementation, responsiveness reflects the extent to which the salesperson responds quickly when asked to implement strategies associated with introducing new products and services. As salespeople represent the front line of implementation and are the face of the organization to the customer, their responsiveness to strategies is of paramount importance and has been noted as an important driver of customer and organizational outcomes (Chonko & Jones, 2005). Conversely, when salespeople drag their feet and hesitate to perform important organizational strategies and initiatives as expected, the organization may experience adverse outcomes (Speier & Venkatesh, 2002).

2.1.2. Implementation effort

The allocation of selling effort at an organizational level has been examined extensively in the sales literature. How the sales force is deployed has significant ramifications on the performance of

organizations (e.g. Zoltners & Lorimer, 2000). Effort also applies to implementation by individual salespeople, as the salesperson's role as an organizational boundary spanner comes with a host of demands requiring them to allocate time and energy across a wide variety of activities. Additionally, implementing strategies requires the salesperson to put forth effort in a manner conducive to the realization of the strategies. Consistent with individual-level (e.g. Hultink & Atuahene-Gima, 2000) and organizational-level (e.g. Wooldridge & Floyd, 1990) notions of effort in implementation, in the context of our study, implementation effort refers to the extent to which a salesperson directs his/her energy to the implementation of strategies associated with introducing new products and services (Fu et al., 2010).

2.1.3. Implementation coordination

The final facet of implementation by the salesperson concerns the coordination of internal resources. In line with the systems view, individuals within the organization are unable to achieve their objectives independently; rather they are interdependent on other individuals and groups within the organization (Lim & Reid, 1992). This is especially relevant in the context of business-to-business sales. Researchers have noted the salesperson's critical role as an internal communicator and coordinator of the organization's efforts in serving the customer (Ustuner & Godes, 2006; van den Berg et al., 2014). Additionally, Steward et al. (2010) discuss the salesperson's role in acquiring and coordinating the necessary expertise in complex business-to-business selling situations. When salespeople implement strategies with their customers, they must manage their organization to assure the necessary resources are provided as promised. The salesperson serves as a conductor of organizational members and a spanner of organizational silos, interacting with various intra-organizational departments (Möller & Parvinen, 2015). As such, coordination focuses on internal parties being shepherded by the salesperson to implement strategies. Accordingly, we define implementation coordination as the extent to which the salesperson organizes the efforts of other members of their organization to implement strategies associated with introducing new products and services.

2.2. MOA theory

Since at its most basic level, implementation involves behaviors enacted by individuals within the firm, we use a theory designed to predict behavior, MOA theory (MacInnis, Moorman, & Jaworski, 1991), to provide the theoretical foundation for our conceptual model. While MOA theory was originally proposed in the context of brand information processing, it has been used to explicate the multi-faceted determination of behaviors by individuals in many consumer and strategy

contexts including, product launch (Wu, Balasubramanian, & Mahajan, 2004), participation in electronic business-to-business markets (Grewal, Comer, & Mehta, 2001), adoption of innovations (Sääksjärvi & Samiee, 2011), and cross-selling (Schmitz, 2013). Drawing on MOA theory, we propose that salespeople's implementation motivation, opportunity, and ability will impact their implementation behaviors, which in turn will determine implementation success.

In MOA theory, *motivation* refers to the desire and willingness to engage in a behavior (MacInnis et al., 1991; Siemsen, Roth, & Balasubramanian, 2008). Motivation is well-espoused as a predictor of behavior and performance in the sales domain (Ingram, Lee, & Skinner, 1989). *Opportunity* refers to the extent to which individuals perceive they are facilitated in their implementation (Sääksjärvi & Samiee, 2011). The concept of opportunity is particularly relevant in strategy implementation as a myriad of factors about organizations and industries are proposed to impact the implementation of strategy. *Ability* refers to the knowledge and skills possessed by individuals needed to perform certain tasks (MacInnis et al., 1991; Sääksjärvi & Samiee, 2011; Siemsen et al., 2008). Ability is enhanced by providing relevant training to the individuals.

Empirical findings have demonstrated the predictive validity of MOA theory. However, while MOA theory has been instructive on what variables lead to action in various contexts, it has been less clear on how these variables interrelate. Early conception of the theory recognized that these three classes of variables are not entirely independent, but rather may interact with each other (Rothschild, 1999). The components of MOA theory have been conceptualized and empirically tested in different ways in marketing applications. Some studies have examined the linear effects of motivation, opportunity, and ability and shown all three types of variables to significantly impact behavior (e.g. Wu et al., 2004). Others however, noting the inherent interdependencies of these components, have explored interaction-based frameworks with mixed results. For example, Grewal et al. (2001) employ an MOA-based model in the electronic B2B market context and find significant interactions between motivation and ability elements, however, they do not include an opportunity variable. Gruen, Osmonbekov, and Czaplewski (2007) find a positive interaction between motivation and opportunity, but a non-significant opportunity-ability interaction in their exploration of customer-to-customer exchange. However, Siemsen et al. (2008) find none of the MOA interactions to be significant in their investigation of knowledge sharing. Given the theoretical rationale for exploring MOA interactions (Rothschild, 1999) as well as the equivocality of findings evidenced in the extant literature, we employ a contingent framework in our examination. Fig. 1 shows the MOA theory-based conceptual model.

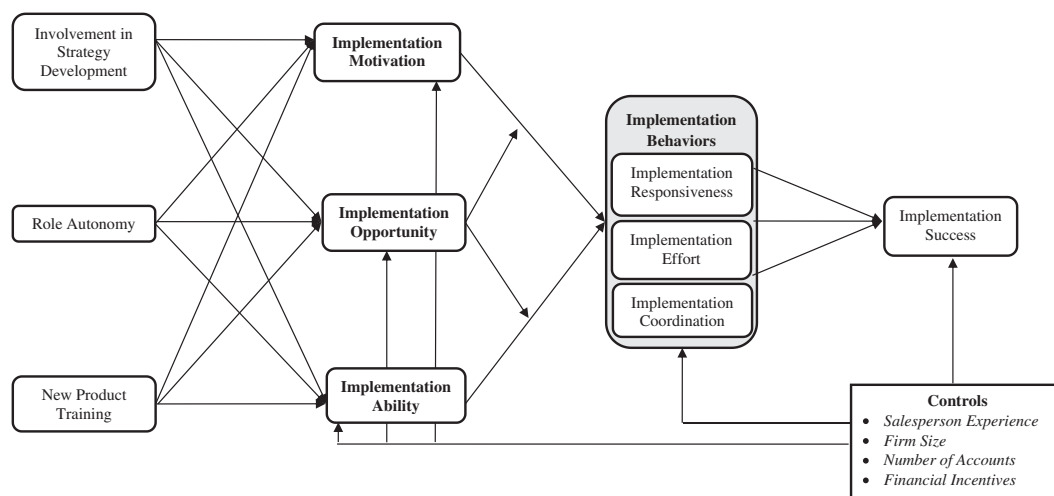


Fig. 1. Conceptual model.

2.3. Interactive effects of implementation MOA on implementation behaviors

Consistent with the premise that MOA variables impact outcomes contingent on the values of the other MOA variables, we hypothesize interactive effects of these variables on salespeople's behaviors for implementing strategies associated with introducing new products and services. Contrary to models advocating a positive interaction amongst the MOA variables (e.g. Gruen et al., 2007), we hypothesize both positive and negative interactions based on the differential role of a key MOA variable: opportunity. While grouped with motivation and ability in the MOA framework, opportunity possesses a highly-relevant distinction from these elements. Motivation and ability pertain to the salesperson's perception of *internal* elements that result in the performance of behaviors. Opportunity, however, pertains to the salesperson's perception of an *external* element. Accordingly, it is important to know how this external element facilitates or retards the effects of these internal elements on the performance of implementation behaviors. The salesperson's perception of opportunity in the implementation of strategies associated with introducing new products and services is likely to interact with motivation and ability in very different ways.

We propose that implementation opportunity will positively moderate implementation motivation's effect on implementation behaviors. A relationship exists between salesperson motivation and organizational policies/practices that are either facilitating or inhibiting (Miao, Evans, & Shaoming, 2007). When highly-motivated salespeople are enabled and facilitated by their organization to perform an action, superior results ensue. The combination of desire to act and enablement by the organization results in increased implementation behaviors by the salesperson. Whereas motivated salespeople may not engage in implementation behaviors in a non-conductive organizational environment, they are more likely to do so when organizations facilitate the behaviors.

H1. Implementation opportunity positively moderates implementation motivation's effect on the salesperson's implementation (a) responsiveness, (b) effort, and (c) coordination.

Unlike the positive moderation advanced in the previous hypothesis, we propose that implementation opportunity negatively moderates implementation ability's effect on implementation behaviors. Salespeople's perceived ability to perform a given task has been shown to be a strong predictor of behavior and performance in a variety of sales contexts (Fu et al., 2010; Wang & Netemeyer, 2002). One of the mechanisms with which perceived ability can affect the salesperson's propensity to act may manifest through a reduction in the salesperson's anxiety about the performance/potential failure of a task. Accordingly, if the salesperson is low in ability, increasing opportunity can provide a sense of security and will lead to greater responsiveness, effort, and coordination by the salesperson. However, researchers have noted that high levels of organizational facilitation are not always a benefit to salespeople (Stan, Evans, Arnold, & McAmis, 2012). For salespeople with high perceptions of ability, this security is already possessed, and high levels of support are redundant. As Johlke and Duhan (2001) note, there may be a cost to support and facilitation in that it may be time-consuming or irrelevant to salespeople. As such, the impact of increasing support on highly-able salespeople is muted as their high ability is all the assurance they need to act. Therefore, the costs of increased implementation opportunity outweigh its benefits.

H2. Implementation opportunity negatively moderates implementation ability's effect on the salesperson's implementation (a) responsiveness, (b) effort, and (c) coordination.

2.4. Implementation MOA antecedents

To identify antecedents of salespeople's implementation MOAs, we examined the literature for guidance in variable selection. While many

examinations use MOA theory to predict behavior, few advance insight as to what predicts the MOAs. A notable exception is Gruen, Osmonbekov, and Czapslewski's (2005) framework. In their framework, these authors advance several proposed drivers of MOAs such as personal relevance, situational impediments, and knowledge. Accordingly, we selected variables in the sales literature fitting all three of these elements: involvement in strategy development, role autonomy, and training. Specifically, personal relevance of strategies is directly germane to a salesperson's involvement in their development given the increased buy-in that ensues as well as the ability of the salesperson to shape the strategies to suit their purposes (Malshe & Sohi, 2009b). Additionally, a common impediment to action experienced by salespeople is the lack of autonomy in their role (Wang & Netemeyer, 2002). Lastly, scholars note the direct relationship of training increasing salesperson knowledge (Christiansen, Evans, Schlacter, & Wolfe, 1996) and, as such, new product training is also included as an antecedent.

2.4.1. Involvement in strategy development

Involvement in strategy development refers to the extent to which the salesperson participates in the formation of strategies (Woodbridge & Floyd, 1990). Research has shown that involving salespeople in strategy development plays an important role in facilitating internalization and getting their buy-in of the strategy (Malshe & Sohi, 2009b). Rather than developing strategies in a marketing vacuum devoid of salesperson input, firms can utilize the sales force at the developmental phase to increase their motivation to implement strategies (Malshe & Sohi, 2009b). The benefits of involving salespeople in the formation of strategy have been widely espoused in qualitative inquiry (Malshe & Sohi, 2009a; Malshe & Sohi, 2009b; Rouzies et al., 2005) and are directly germane to the context of new product introduction (Geoffrey, Denise, Peter, & Kimberly, 1997; Judson, Schoenbachler, Gordon, Ridnour, & Weilbaker, 2006). When salespeople are involved in the development of strategies, their motivation is likely to increase as it causes them to be more intimately tied to the success of the strategy (Malshe & Sohi, 2009b). Further, involving salespeople in strategy development should increase the applicability and efficacy of strategies thus facilitating the salespeople and increasing their perception of opportunity. Last, involvement should increase the salespeople's sense of ability as involvement increases their knowledge of strategies and also can help to assure strategies are in-line with their skills and competencies. As such, we hypothesize involvement in strategy development will increase the salesperson's implementation MOAs.

H3. Salesperson involvement in strategy development is positively associated with their (a) motivation, (b) opportunity, and (c) ability to implement strategies associated with introducing new products and services.

2.4.2. Role autonomy

Role autonomy refers to the extent to which a salesperson "has freedom to make meaningful decisions and independently adjust behaviors in performing a role" (Noble and Mokwa, p. 64). The choice of role autonomy is based on self-determination theory which indicates that autonomy is a key determinant of motivation and action by individuals (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Role autonomy is an important consideration in examinations involving salespeople (Ramaswami, 1996; Wang & Netemeyer, 2002). We postulate that role autonomy affects a salesperson's MOAs to implement strategies associated with introducing new products and services. First, self-determination theory explicates that conditions undermining the autonomy of employees adversely affect their motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Additionally, lower levels of autonomy (e.g. behavioral control systems) have been shown to retard the implementation effort (Ahearne et al., 2010), and thus higher levels of role autonomy should increase perceptions of opportunity. Lastly, autonomy should allow the salesperson the flexibility

they require in acquiring the knowledge and skills to implement strategies. Accordingly, we predict role autonomy to increase the salesperson's implementation MOAs.

H4. Role autonomy is positively associated with the salesperson's (a) motivation, (b) opportunity, and (c) ability to implement strategies associated with introducing new products and services.

2.4.3. New product training

A primary driver of salesperson skill is the amount of training they receive (Christiansen et al., 1996; Cron, Marshall, Singh, Spiro, & Sujan, 2005). Training refers to a planned program enacted by the organization with the intent of promoting changes in the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviors of employees (Wexley & Latham, 1981) and specific to our context the amount of product-specific training salespeople receive in conjunction with new firm offerings. Training can allow for salespeople to accelerate their learning curve that develops through the enactment of certain behaviors (Leigh, 1987). In most contexts, training is found to be beneficial to one's development and positively affect performance (Ahearne, Jelinek, & Rapp, 2005; Babakus, Cravens, Grant, Ingram, & LaForge, 1996; Christiansen et al., 1996). However, in the domain of introductions of new products and services, varying results between training and new product performance have been obtained (e.g. Hultink & Atuahene-Gima, 2000). We posit positive effects between new product training and implementation MOA for the follow reasons. First, training has been noted as increasing motivation in other areas of inquiry (e.g. De Preter, Van Looy, Mortelmans, & Denaeghel, 2013) and authors note that "training is proved to be a tool to motivat(e) employees" (Sharma & Shirsath, 2014, p. 27). Training can also elucidate to the salesperson the avenues in which to enact the strategies. As such, training makes implementing strategies more conducive for the salesperson and ups their perceived opportunity. Finally, training is by its very nature a mechanism through which firms seek to build the knowledge and skills of their salespeople (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2008; Christiansen et al., 1996; Cron et al., 2005). Accordingly, training should result in an increase in the salesperson's perception of ability. In sum, we hypothesize that new product training will increase the salesperson's implementation MOAs.

H5. There is a positive association between new product training and the salesperson's (a) motivation, (b) opportunity, and (c) ability to implement strategies associated with introducing new products and services.

2.5. Relationship between implementation behaviors and implementation success

The predominant firm-level focus in strategy implementation research has extensively explored the impact of strategic implementation on organizational performance (Cravens, 1998; Crittenden & Crittenden, 2008; Noble & Mokwa, 1999; Slater & Olson, 2001). While much can be gained from this knowledge, the question of how salespeople's implementation behaviors affect the strategy's implementation success requires further inquiry. Based on Noble and Mokwa (1999), we define implementation success as the extent to which plans were effectively implemented amongst the salesperson's customers.

We propose that the three implementation behaviors – responsiveness, effort, coordination – will have a positive effect on implementation success. Given the increasingly dynamic environment in which salespeople operate (Jones, Brown, Zoltners, & Weitz, 2005), responsiveness to strategies is of paramount importance. By quickly implementing strategies, salespeople can maximize the market relevance of their offerings and potentially gain a first-mover advantage against competitors. Additionally, the expectations of customers continue to ratchet upwards requiring more and more from salespeople to satisfy customer

requirements (Jaramillo, Mulki, & Marshall, 2005). Accordingly, the effort expended by the salesperson in implementation should be a key driver of implementation success (Ahearne et al., 2010; Fu et al., 2010). Finally, consistent with systems theory and the understanding that many parties within an organization must act to carry out strategies (Lim & Reid, 1992), we expect implementation coordination to increase implementation success.

H6. There is a positive association between (a) implementation responsiveness, (b) implementation effort, and (c) implementation coordination and implementation success.

3. Method and analysis

3.1. Sample and data collection

Data were collected through an online survey of B2B salespeople by the professional data collection firm MarketTools. Online data collection is common in salesperson-related examinations (e.g., Darrat, Amyx, & Bennett, 2010; Friend, Johnson, Rutherford, & Hamwi, 2013; Jackson, Schlacter, Bridges, & Gallan, 2010) and MarketTools is the most commonly-used firm for these studies (Johnson, 2015). MarketTools generates a sample from a nationwide pool of salespeople. An invitation requesting participation in the survey along with some prescreening questions were sent to salespeople working in the United States. Potential participants were offered points towards prizes or charitable donations for their participation in the survey. To maintain observational independence for data analysis, the collecting company was only allowed to solicit one respondent from each organization. The survey was accessed by 1513 potential participants. To assure the survey was completed by salespeople pertinent to this examination, those with B2C positions were filtered out as were those that had not implemented a new product-related strategy in the last year. Completed surveys were obtained from 300 respondents. Of these 300 responses, 23 were deleted for missing data leaving a useable sample size of 277 and response rate of 18.3%. The sample is a relatively gender-balanced (40.1% female), middle-aged (mean 44.7 years old), experienced (mean sales experience 15.1 years), educated (majority possessing a 4-year college degree or higher), and well-compensated (mean salary \$69,100) sample of business-to-business salespeople from multiple industries (medical/pharmaceutical 8.3%, technology/communications 17.0%, transportation/logistics 4.7%, financial services/consulting 10.5%, consumer goods sold to wholesalers and retailers 33.2%, other 26.4%).

3.2. Measure development

Several of the scales used to measure the constructs in the model are adapted from existing measures. Other constructs, however, have no existing measures in the literature and thus new measures were created utilizing procedures common to marketing scale development (Churchill, 1979). The first step in the creation of a new measure for a construct is specifying the construct definition. Churchill (1979) notes the importance of precise construct definitions and indicates "the researcher must be exacting in delineating what is included in the definition and what is excluded" (p. 67). After providing clear definitions for the new constructs, lists of items were generated by utilizing pertinent literature streams (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). These items were carefully edited to maximize their clarity and were reviewed by academic experts to assess the face validity and assure all facets of the constructs have been captured (Churchill, 1979). Additionally, the measures were discussed with several salespeople to obtain their input on item clarity and applicability. After incorporating the recommendations from the experts and salespeople, the new scales were distributed to a small sample of B2B salespeople. In total, 28 B2B salespeople in the financial services, consumer durables, and consumer nondurables sectors took the

initial survey and provided feedback on the items. In addition to answering the questions, these salespeople provided detailed feedback on their perception of item efficacy and clarity for all scales included in the instrument. Their quantitative and qualitative information was analyzed and incorporated into the main collection.

3.3. Measures

3.3.1. Implementation behaviors

Implementation responsiveness is the extent to which the salesperson responds quickly to strategies associated with the introduction of new products and services. The four Likert-type items for this construct are adapted from the [Homburg et al. \(2007\)](#) scale for responsiveness. *Implementation effort* assesses the extent to which the salesperson directs his or her energy to the implementation of strategies associated with the introduction of new products and services. Four Likert-type items are adapted from [Fu et al.'s \(2010\)](#) salesperson selling intention scale. *Implementation coordination*, the extent to which the salesperson organizes the efforts of other members to implement strategies associated with the introduction of new products and services, has been operationalized by a seven-item reflective Likert scale developed for this study.

3.3.2. Implementation MOAs

Implementation motivation refers to the extent to which a salesperson has the desire or willingness to act on strategies associated with the introduction of new products and services. The four items for this Likert scale are drawn from [Sääksjärvi and Samiee \(2011\)](#) and [Schmitz \(2013\)](#). *Implementation opportunity* is the extent to which the salesperson perceives he/she receives the necessary support to carry out strategies associated with the introduction of new products and services. This is a new reflective scale comprised of four Likert-type items. *Implementation ability* is the knowledge and skill possessed by the salesperson in implementing strategies associated with the introduction of new products and services. The six, Likert-type items for this scale are adapted from [Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar \(1994\)](#).

3.3.3. Antecedents

Amongst the antecedents, *involvement in strategy development* describes the extent to which the salesperson is incorporated in the creation of strategies associated with the introduction of new products and services. The six items for this scale are adapted from [Wooldridge and Floyd \(1990\)](#). *Role autonomy* is the extent to which the salesperson has discretion in his/her implementation of strategies associated with

the introduction of new products and services. Four, Likert-type items adapted from [Noble and Mokwa \(1999\)](#) are used to capture this construct. *New product training* is the extent to which the salesperson receives training on new products and services. This is a new reflective scale comprised of four, Likert-type items.

3.3.4. Outcome

Implementation success refers to the extent to which strategies associated with introducing new products and services were effectively implemented amongst the salesperson's customers. The four items for this Likert scale are adapted from [Noble and Mokwa \(1999\)](#).

3.3.5. Control variables

We included several control variables in the analysis to assuage concern of competing explanations for the findings. More experienced salespeople may be more efficacious in performing implementation behaviors. Also, experience may affect their levels of implementation MOA. As such, *salesperson experience* is included as a direct, single-item measure. Additionally, the *number of accounts handled* by the salesperson may also be impactful and a direct, single-item measure. *Firm size* could also affect several of the relationships in the model and is captured by using the commonly-used measure of number of employees in the firm. Finally, *financial rewards* refer to the extent to which the firm provides financial inducements for new strategy implementation by the salesperson. Financial rewards could be impactful on determinants and outcomes in the model and a new, reflective, three-item Likert scale is used to assess this construct. The items for all constructs are included in [Appendix A](#) and descriptive statistics and correlations are shown in [Table 1](#).

3.4. Analysis

After the data collection, we conducted several analyses to establish the reliability and validity of the measures. This section details these analyses and the procedures used to test the hypotheses advanced in the conceptual model.

3.4.1. Reliability

We assessed the reliabilities of the various scales by computing their coefficient alphas. In addition to calculating the alphas, we computed their composite reliabilities ([Fornell & Larcker, 1981](#)). Composite reliabilities refute the assumption in calculating coefficient alphas that the indicators have equal factor loadings and error variances ([Styles,](#)

Table 1
Correlations and descriptive statistics.^a

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Imp. responsiveness	(0.93) ^a													
2 Imp. effort	0.55 ^b	(0.93)												
3 Imp. coordination	0.47	0.49	(0.93)											
4 Imp. motivation	0.62	0.69	0.51	(0.93)										
5 Imp. opportunity	0.42	0.48	0.45	0.60	(0.92)									
6 Imp. ability	0.63	0.68	0.55	0.72	0.47	(0.92)								
7 Involvement	0.29	0.39	0.46	0.46	0.59	0.39	(0.94)							
8 Role autonomy	0.19	0.26	0.31	0.38	0.57	0.27	0.57	(0.94)						
9 NP training	0.34	0.41	0.40	0.47	0.71	0.43	0.58	0.37	(0.96)					
10 Imp. success	0.39	0.41	0.38	0.46	0.60	0.46	0.53	0.56	0.55	(0.93)				
11 Experience	0.17	0.04	0.01	0.12	0.04	0.11	−0.05	0.10	−0.02	0.04	(−)			
12 Number of accounts	0.03	0.02	−0.02	0.01	−0.06	0.01	0.02	−0.02	−0.09	−0.01	−0.02	(−)		
13 Firm size	−0.03	−0.03	−0.14	−0.08	−0.12	−0.01	−0.18	−0.30	−0.05	0.01	−0.07	0.12	(−)	
14 Financial rewards	0.15	0.25	0.25	0.24	0.39	0.21	0.43	0.35	0.48	0.38	−0.05	−0.13	−0.01	(0.94)
Mean	5.64	5.52	5.16	5.69	5.38	5.60	4.83	5.15	5.22	5.08	15.11	107.45	3.02	4.49
Standard deviation	1.10	1.05	1.18	1.04	1.24	0.96	1.52	1.31	1.38	1.22	11.72	182.38	1.47	1.76
AVE	0.77	0.77	0.64	0.78	0.76	0.66	0.73	0.80	0.86	0.77	−	−	−	0.84
AVE square root ^c	0.88	0.88	0.80	0.88	0.87	0.81	0.85	0.89	0.93	0.88	−	−	−	0.92

^a Coefficient alphas provided in parentheses along the diagonal.

^b Correlations > 0.13 are significant at $p < 0.05$; correlations > 0.17 are significant at $p < 0.01$.

^c The AVE square roots are included for comparison to the construct intercorrelations per [Fornell and Larcker \(1981\)](#).

1998). The coefficient alphas are shown in Table 1, and composite reliabilities are reported in Appendix A. All constructs included in this examination show good reliability.

3.4.2. Validity

We conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the measurement model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). While the chi-square of the model is significant, and this is expected given the number of parameters being estimated, the other fit statistics indicate the model fits the data well ($\chi^2 (1072) = 1771.40$, $p < 0.0001$, CFI = 0.98, IFI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.05, SRMR = 0.05).

To establish convergent validity, we first examined the loadings of the items on their proposed factors. All items had highly significant loadings on their respective constructs, and the standardized loadings were more than the 0.50 recommended level and over two times the standard error for the item. Second, we computed the average variance extracted (AVE) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results showed that all of the constructs were well above the recommended value of 0.50 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). To assess discriminant validity, we compared the AVEs to the square of the factor intercorrelations (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In all cases, the AVE exceeded the squared inter-correlation by a wide margin providing strong evidence of discriminant validity.

3.4.3. Accounting for common method variance

A substantial bias concern for researchers using a survey approach is common method variance (CMV). This refers to “variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent” (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003, p. 879) and represents one of the major sources of measurement error. We followed best practices in reducing CMV by assuring respondent anonymity and indicating there are no right or wrong answers to prevent evaluation apprehension (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and varying scale anchors (Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan, & Moorman, 2008). We also tested for CMV by performing the CFA version of Harman’s single factor test. In this analysis, the measurement model is compared to an alternative model allowing all items to load on a single construct. If the alternative model can explain a majority of the covariance, there is a high probability of CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This would be evidenced by a non-significant chi-square change between the measurement model and CMV model. The results, however, assuage the concern of CMV, as the chi-square change between models is extremely large ($\chi^2 (55) = 10,378.79$) and highly significant ($p < 0.0001$).

Further, to partial out the effects of CMV in our analysis, we used the Unmeasured Latent Method Factor (ULMF) technique suggested by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff (2012). As per this technique, we incorporated a common method factor into the CFA model, such that all items loaded on their respective constructs as well as the common method factor. In addition to extracting common method variance, this controls for all systematic sources of bias that influence relationships amongst constructs (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Based on this CFA model for which the common method variance extracted, we estimated latent variable scores, which were then used to test our structural model as described next.

3.4.4. Model estimation

To test the hypothesized relationships, we used the Latent Variable Scores Approach (LVSA) proposed by Joreskog (2000) and utilized in several recent marketing studies (Fang, Palmatier, & Evans, 2008; Grewal, Chandrashekar, Johnson, & Mallapragada, 2013; Krush, Sohi, & Saini, 2015; Ye, Marinova, & Singh, 2012). In this approach, latent variable scores (factor scores) are first extracted from the CFA model that incorporates an unmeasured latent method factor to partial out the effects of common method variance. Next, these scores are used to estimate a structural model of the hypothesized paths. This method offers the advantage of not only controlling for the effects of common method variance, but also allowing for the modeling of complex

variable interactions, since the interaction terms can be computed as the product terms of the latent variable scores and provide path estimates that are similar to when the measurement and structural models are run simultaneously and the indicant terms of the interaction variables are computed by multiplying pairs of observed variables (Schumacker, 2002).

3.5. Accounting for misspecification error and unhypothesized paths

To rule out Type II errors that may occur when the model is misspecified and potentially significant paths are not hypothesized (Ganzach, 1998), we used the Lagrange Multiplier (LM) test computed by EQS to identify additional significant paths that were not included in the model. In a single run, this test provides information that would have been obtained through a comparison of several alternate models using sequential chi-square difference tests (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The LM test indicated the presence of three significant paths that we had not hypothesized: (a) from involvement in strategy development to implementation coordination ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.001$), (b) from role autonomy to implementation success ($\beta = 0.26$, $p < 0.001$), and (c) from new product training to implementation success ($\beta = 0.30$, $p < 0.001$). We reran the hypothesized model after incorporating these paths to control for their effects upon the endogenous and dependent variable. The fit indices of the final model ($\chi^2 (34) = 87.61$, $p < 0.01$, CFI = 0.98, IFI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.08, SRMR = 0.07), indicate that the estimated model has a good fit with the data (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Browne & Cudeck, 1993). In addition to the hypothesized effects, we also estimated the indirect effects of the antecedent and the MOA variables on implementation behaviors and implementation success in EQS. Tables 2a and 2b summarize the results of our analyses.

4. Results

The control variables were largely unimpactful on endogenous and dependent variables with only two significant associations: financial rewards – implementation effort ($\beta = 0.12$, $p < 0.05$) and firm size – implementation success ($\beta = 0.13$, $p < 0.05$). The main effects of the implementation MOAs on implementation behaviors were consistent across behaviors with positive effects from implementation motivation ($\beta = 0.30$, $p < 0.001$ on implementation responsiveness; $\beta = 0.43$, $p < 0.001$ on implementation effort; and $\beta = 0.17$, $p < 0.05$ on implementation coordination) and implementation ability ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.001$ on implementation responsiveness; $\beta = 0.24$, $p < 0.001$ on implementation effort; and $\beta = 0.25$, $p < 0.001$ on implementation coordination), and non-significant effects from implementation opportunity ($\beta = 0.10$, $p > 0.05$ on implementation responsiveness; $\beta = 0.09$, $p > 0.05$ on implementation effort; and $\beta = 0.10$, $p > 0.05$ on implementation coordination).

Regarding the hypothesized associations, hypotheses 1a–c and 2a–c predicted a differential interactive effect between implementation motivation–opportunity and implementation ability–opportunity on the implementation behaviors. We find full support for both hypotheses. The implementation motivation–opportunity interaction is significant and positive on (a) implementation responsiveness ($\beta = 0.12$, $p < 0.05$), (b) implementation effort ($\beta = 0.20$, $p < 0.001$), and (c) implementation coordination ($\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.05$). Conversely, the implementation ability–opportunity interaction is significant and negative for all behaviors with (a) $\beta = -0.14$, $p < 0.05$, (b) $\beta = -0.15$, $p < 0.001$, and (c) $\beta = -0.14$, $p < 0.05$ respectively. Fig. 2a–f show the interactive effects of variables on the implementation behaviors.

Involvement in strategy development increases implementation motivation, opportunity, and ability as predicted in H3a–c with (a) $\beta = 0.32$, $p < 0.001$, (b) $\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.001$, and (c) $\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.001$. Role autonomy also proved impactful on salespeople’s implementation MOAs in support of H4a–b with (a) $\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.05$ and (b) $\beta = 0.32$, $p < 0.05$. H4c, however, was not supported as the

Table 2a
Structural model standardized path coefficients.

	Motivation	Opportunity	Ability	Imp. resp.	Imp. effort	Imp. coord.	Imp. success
Independent variables							
Involvement in strategy development	0.32*** (H3a)	0.14*** (H3b)	0.28*** (H3c)			0.21***a	
Role autonomy	0.14* (H4a)	0.32* (H4b)	0.04 (H4c)				0.26***a
New product training	0.22*** (H5a)	0.51 (H5b)	0.25*** (H5c)				0.30***a
Endogenous variables							
Implementation motivation (M)				0.30***	0.43***	0.17*	
Implementation opportunity (O)				0.10	0.09	0.10	
Implementation ability (A)				0.28***	0.24***	0.25***	
Implementation responsiveness							0.17** (H6a)
Implementation effort							0.12* (H6b)
Implementation coordination							0.03 (H6c)
Interactions							
M × O				0.12* (H1a)	0.20*** (H1b)	0.14* (H1c)	
A × O				-0.14* (H2a)	-0.15*** (H2b)	-0.14* (H2c)	
Controls							
Salesperson experience	-0.06	-0.06	-0.01	-0.05	-0.07	-0.03	-0.01
Number of accounts	0.02	-0.04	0.06	0.08	0.05	0.01	0.03
Firm size	-0.06	-0.01	-0.02	-0.03	-0.01	-0.06	0.13*
Financial rewards	0.05	-0.03	0.04	0.01	0.12*	0.03	0.08
R-squared	0.37	0.61	0.27	0.40	0.57	0.41	0.45

Significant at.

- * p < 0.05.
- ** p < 0.01.
- *** p < 0.001 (One-tailed tests).

^a The three unhypothesized, direct paths identified as significant in the Lagrange Multiplier test were included to control for their effects on endogenous variables (involvement in strategy development → implementation coordination β = 0.21, p < 0.001) and dependent (role autonomy → implementation success β = 0.26, p < 0.001; and new product training → implementation success; β = 0.30, p < 0.001).

coefficient on ability was non-significant (β = 0.04, p > 0.05). H5a–c receive full support with new product training positively affecting the salesperson’s motivation (β = 0.22, p < 0.001), opportunity (β = 0.51, p < 0.001), and ability (β = 0.25, p < 0.001). H6a–b are supported with implementation responsiveness (β = 0.17, p < 0.001) and implementation effort (β = 0.12, p < 0.05) increasing implementation success. However, H6c is not supported as implementation coordination’s effect on implementation success was non-significant (β = 0.03, p > 0.05).

Regarding the indirect effects, the three antecedent variables (involvement in strategy development, role autonomy, and new product training) have significant positive indirect effects on the implementation behaviors through the intervening MOA variables. Specifically, the indirect effect of involvement in strategy development on implementation responsiveness is 0.19 (p < 0.001), on implementation effort is 0.22 (p < 0.001), and on implementation coordination is 0.14 (p < 0.001). Similarly, the indirect effect of role autonomy on implementation responsiveness is 0.09 (p < 0.05), on implementation effort is 0.10 (p < 0.05), and on implementation coordination is 0.07 (p < 0.05). Additionally, new product training also has a significant indirect effect on all three implementation behaviors (0.19 (p < 0.001) on implementation responsiveness, 0.20 (p < 0.001) on implementation effort, and 0.15 (p < 0.001), on implementation coordination). The three antecedent

variables also have significant indirect effects on implementation success – the effect of involvement in strategy development is 0.07 (p < 0.01), the effect of role autonomy is 0.03 (p < 0.05), and the effect of new product training is 0.06 (p < 0.001). Motivation and ability also have highly significant indirect effects on implementation success through the intervening implementation behaviors. The indirect effect of motivation on implementation success is 0.11 (p < 0.001), and the indirect effect of ability on implementation success is 0.08 (p < 0.001). However, the indirect effect of opportunity is nonsignificant.

5. Discussion

In this study, we examined several research questions pertaining to the implementation of strategies associated with introducing new products and services by salespeople including, the kinds of behaviors salespeople need to engage in to implement the strategies, how these behaviors impact the success of implementation, how salespeople’s motivation, opportunity, and ability work to impact their implementation behaviors, and what organizations can do to motivate salespeople and facilitate them in implementing strategies. Overall, the findings of our study tell a nuanced story, extending theory and providing recommendations for practitioners.

Table 2b
Indirect effects – standardized path coefficients.

	Implementation responsiveness	Implementation effort	Implementation coordination	Implementation success
Independent variables				
Involvement in strategy development	0.19***	0.22***	0.14***	0.12**
Role autonomy	0.09*	0.10*	0.07*	0.05*
New product training	0.19***	0.20***	0.15***	0.10***
Endogenous variables				
Implementation Motivation (M)				0.17***
Implementation Opportunity (O)				0.05
Implementation Ability (A)				0.14***

Significant at.

- * p < 0.05.
- ** p < 0.01.
- *** p < 0.001 (One-tailed tests).

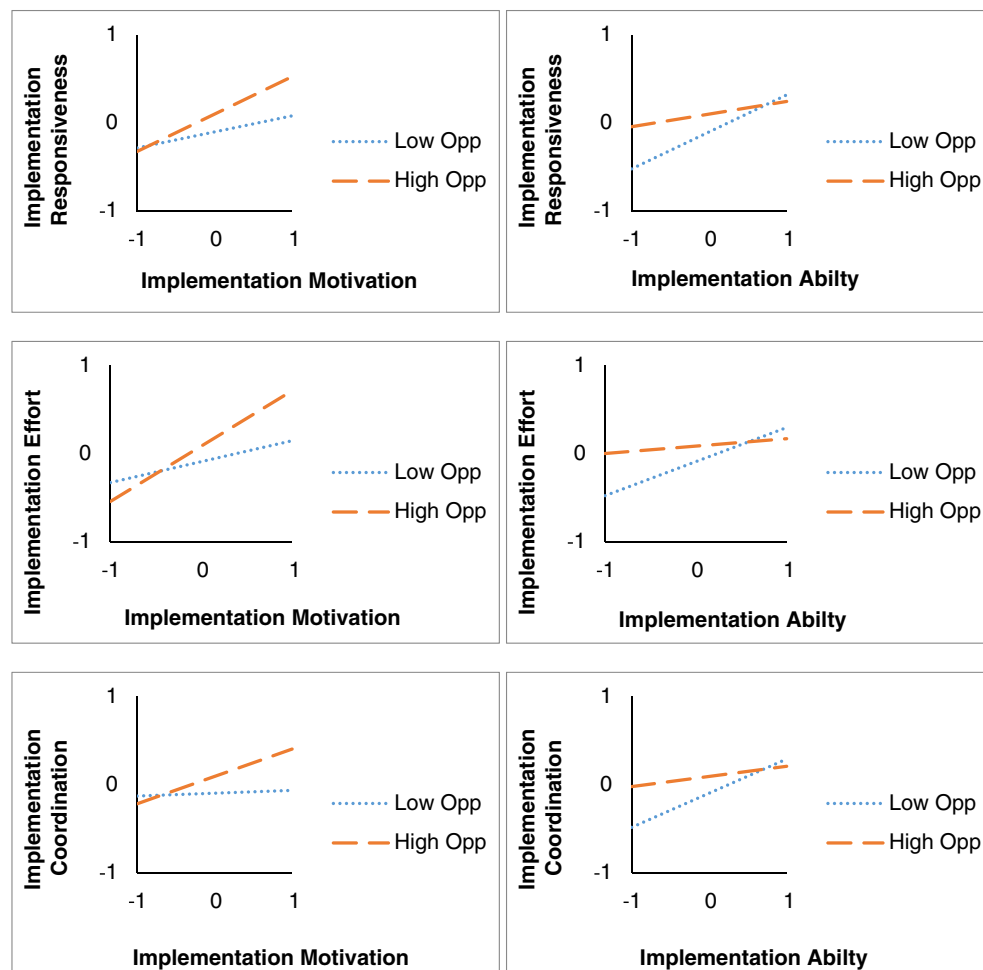


Fig. 2. a–f. Moderating effect of implementation opportunity and implementation motivation/ability on implementation behaviors.

5.1. Theoretical contribution

Literature has acknowledged that salespeople play an important role in implementing strategies by virtue of their boundary-spanning position in the organization (Malshe & Sohi, 2009a). However, little is known about what this implementation entails (Möller & Parvinen, 2015; Terho et al., 2015). In this study, we show the role played by three types of behaviors that salespeople engage in (responsiveness, effort, and coordination) to implement strategies associated with introducing new products and services. Our results indicate that these behaviors affect the success of the strategy's implementation differentially. As expected from the extant literature (e.g. Fu et al., 2010), implementation effort had a positive effect on implementation success; however, implementation responsiveness also proved to impact implementation success. Accordingly, implementation responsiveness should be included in the discussion of improving implementation success, especially since markets and products continue to evolve at increasingly rapid rates (Jones et al., 2005), necessitating responsiveness by salespeople. Contrary to what we expected, implementation coordination did not significantly affect implementation success. This finding is surprising given the espoused importance of coordination in strategy implementation (e.g. Lim & Reid, 1992), as well as in the sales role (e.g. Möller & Parvinen, 2015). This non-significant finding may be a function of the fact that there is significant heterogeneity in what is required for implementation. While the implementation of some strategies may necessitate implementation coordination, for others it may be unnecessary. As such, while implementation responsiveness and effort are

more global in nature, implementation coordination is more specific to the case at hand.

To determine what might drive salespeople's implementation behaviors, we drew on MOA theory and examined the roles of implementation motivation, opportunity, and ability in influencing these behaviors. Our findings reveal some interesting results (shown as plots in Fig. 2a–f) about the interactive effects of these variables on implementation behaviors. Specifically, significant heterogeneity has been evidenced in opportunity's role in predicting behaviors (e.g. Sääksjärvi & Samiee, 2011; Siemsen et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2004). Furthermore, opportunity has divergent interactive effects evidenced in the literature. Siemsen et al. (2008) find none of the MOA interactions to be significant, whereas Gruen et al. (2007) find a positive interaction between motivation and opportunity, however, a non-significant opportunity-ability interaction. Our results align with those of Gruen et al. (2007) with respect to the positive interactive effects of implementation motivation and opportunity on the implementation behaviors. However, they also diverge as they show that implementation opportunity and ability have negative interactive effects on the implementation behaviors. These findings are consistent with the notion that high amounts of organizational facilitation are not intrinsically beneficial to salespeople (Stan et al., 2012). Rather, support and facilitation may possess a dark side in that they may be costly regarding salesperson time and also may not be needed or applicable to the salesperson (Johlke & Duhan, 2001). Our findings suggest that organizational facilitation is unnecessary and redundant to salespeople possessing high levels of ability. This finding points to the need for researchers to change their

conceptualization of MOA variables as possessing positive interactions and recognize that some relationships may, in fact, interact negatively.

To address the research question of what can organizations do to impact salespeople's motivation, opportunity, and ability in implementing strategies, we examined the effects of involvement in strategy development, role autonomy, and new product training. The findings show that all three of these antecedents that are directly controllable by organizations affect salespeople's implementation MOAs. In fact, out of the nine hypothesized relationships, only the effect of role autonomy on implementation ability proved non-significant. These results provide a valuable contrast to previous research incorporating these variables in a different fashion. Noble and Mokwa (1999) found both involvement and role autonomy to be non-significant in predicting implementation success. However, our results show that these variables can play a significant role in determining implementation success, but the way they do so may be different. We find that the effect of role autonomy on implementation success is partially mediated. While it does have a significant direct effect on implementation success (as revealed by the LM test), it also impacts implementation success indirectly through its effect on implementation motivation and opportunity, and consequently their effect on implementation behaviors. With respect to involvement, its effect on implementation success is indirect, primarily through the MOA and implementation behavior variables. Additionally, we also find that involvement can impact salespeople's implementation coordination behavior directly. This has important implications and suggests that if salespeople are called upon to engage in coordination activities, it is crucial to involve them in the strategies that would govern those activities. Our findings also show the importance of new product training. While previous inquiries have questioned the impact of training (e.g. Hultink & Atuahene-Gima, 2000), our results do not support this perspective, but rather align with the understanding that training is generally beneficial in affecting performance (e.g. Ahearne et al., 2005; Babakus et al., 1996; Christiansen et al., 1996). In addition to an indirect effect, we find that new product training also impacts implementation success directly. This underscores its importance as a variable for successfully implementing new product and service strategies.

5.2. Managerial implications

The findings of this study are particularly instructive to marketing and sales managers. Despite the stated importance of strategic implementation, managers have a relatively poor grasp of what leads to effective implementation as evidenced by low success rates (Lane, 2005). This may be explained in part by the lack of focus on the individual salesperson. Especially in the business-to-business context in which this examination is conducted, salespeople may represent the primary bridge between organizations and can be critical to the firm (Johnson et al., 2001). This study both identifies relevant salesperson implementation behaviors and provides managers several means of affecting and improving their salespeople's implementation of strategies.

First, this research provides managers with guidance in managing salespeople's motivation, opportunity, and ability to implement strategies associated with introducing new products and services. Specifically, the results show managers should involve salespeople in the development of strategies, make efforts to increase perceived role autonomy (i.e. give salespeople more degrees of freedom in their implementation of strategies), and provide training germane to the strategies they seek to implement. Involvement and new product training increase each of the implementation MOAs and role autonomy both implementation motivation and opportunity. Accordingly, sales managers seeking to achieve improved implementation can do so using controllable factors in their organization.

Second, as noted in the literature, managers can succumb to the "sales force incentive addiction" (Zoltners, Prabhakant, & Lorimer, 2012, p. 171) and assume that the key to eliciting action by the salesperson is in increasing their motivation. Notably, however, other factors

also impact the salesperson's performance of desired behaviors. The MOA framework utilized should be of interest to managers showing different determinants and interrelationships. A key finding relevant to managers is to be cognizant of salespeople's motivation and ability when considering efforts to increase their perceived opportunity as it interacts with these variables in a highly divergent fashion. For sales teams with highly-experienced and able salespeople, managers may wish to take a more hands-off approach as increases in perceived opportunity do not positively affect highly-able salespeople. Rather, highly-able salespeople may be inhibited by high levels of implementation opportunity given its potential redundancy and time drain. Accordingly, managers' efforts may be better spent elsewhere. On the other hand, managers of sales teams with inexperienced, lower-ability salespeople, should focus on providing organizational facilitation as it can defray the negative impact of this lack of ability, resulting in increased levels of implementation.

Finally, in addition to understanding what leads to implementation by the salesperson, this study also provides managers insight on the impact of implementation behaviors on implementation success. As the salesperson's implementation success can be a critical factor in the success of strategies, this provides much-needed understanding. Of the implementation behaviors identified, managers should recognize that implementation responsiveness and implantation effort drive implementation success. Therefore, they should invest their resources for enabling salespeople to become more responsive as well as assuring they can expend the necessary effort if they want to see the new product and service strategies implemented successfully. Conversely, since salespeople's implementation coordination behaviors do not significantly impact strategy implementation success, they can require the salespeople to invest less in coordination activities or do so only on a case-by-case basis.

5.3. Limitations and future research

The findings of this study must be interpreted in light of their limitations. First, while we employ MOA theory to hypothesize the connections between implementation motivation, opportunity, and ability and the implementation behaviors, this theory does not extend to defining the antecedents of the MOAs, or the implementation behaviors. Similar to other research seeking to understand multiple layers of relationships to provide comprehensive understand of a phenomenon of interest, we have drawn from the literature to explicate the rationale for the inclusion of these antecedents and behaviors.

Additionally, the intent of this research was to investigate salesperson implementation in a wide variety of organizations and industries. Researchers have discussed the lack of multi-company and multi-industry examinations in this area and called for studies with generalizable findings across industries (e.g. Fu et al., 2010). A drawback of this approach, however, is a reliance on single-source data. However, the constructs included in this examination are largely perceptual measures, and we obtained organizational and industrial variance on our measures. Additionally, we partialled out potential common method variance due to single source data, while estimating the model. Finally, our use of the single-source approach is similar to that used in other seminal studies on implementation (see Noble & Mokwa, 1999).

Future collections could extend multilevel-multisource (MLMS) research conducted in this domain (e.g. Ahearne et al., 2010) by incorporating different organizational actors. For example, strategy implementation does not occur in a vacuum for the salesperson. Rather, it often entails significant interaction with their marketing counterparts. Scholars note the importance of the marketing-sales interface in the marketing strategy process and salesperson performance (Malshe & Sohi, 2009a). A multilevel collection incorporating higher-order marketing variables and lower-order salesperson variables in predicting the salesperson's implementation may prove illuminating. The

salesperson's implementation behaviors may be predicted or moderated by attitudes and behaviors of their marketing counterparts.

Another potential avenue that would benefit this line of research would be to expand insight from dependent variables captured at the salesperson level to the level of the individual customer. Another MLMS study could examine how the salesperson's actions are moderated by individual customer characteristics to predict customer-level implementation outcomes. For example, it would be illuminating to discover the conditions under which implementation responsiveness, effort, and coordination have linear or nonlinear impacts on customer-reported variables. Can implementation responsiveness adversely affect the customer's perception of the company and salesperson? Similarly, can too much implementation effort hurt the customer relationship? Additionally, examination of contingencies could show counterintuitive conditions under which these behaviors further reduce or potentially enhance customer outcomes.

Appendix A. Multi-item scales

Implementation responsiveness (strongly disagree/strongly agree) Adapted from Homburg et al. (2007) CR = 0.929	When asked to implement plans associated with introducing new products/services, I... 1. respond rapidly. 2. quickly engage in the necessary activities. 3. swiftly react to the request. 4. start doing so as soon as possible.
Implementation effort (strongly disagree/strongly agree) Adapted from Fu et al. (2010) CR = 0.931	When asked to implement plans associated with introducing new products/services, I... 1. put a lot of effort into doing so. 2. work intensely to carry them out. 3. spend a lot of time on them. 4. direct much energy to doing so.
Implementation coordination (strongly disagree/strongly agree) New Scale CR = 0.926	When asked to implement plans associated with introducing new products/services, I... 1. coordinate with other members of my company to carry them out. 2. provide leadership within my organization to assure they are implemented. 3. orchestrate the process internally. 4. work with coworkers in my company to enact them. 5. organize the efforts of members of my company to do so. 6. direct the actions of members of my organization to carry them out. 7. verify involved coworkers do what they are supposed to do to implement them.
Implementation motivation (strongly disagree/strongly agree) Adapted from Sääksjärvi and Samiee (2011) CR = 0.932	In regard to plans associated with introducing new products/services,.... 1. I am motivated to carry them out. 2. Enacting them is important to me. 3. I am driven to execute them. 4. I have a strong desire to carry them out.
Implementation Opportunity (strongly disagree/strongly agree) New Scale CR = 0.927	In regard to plans associated with introducing new products/services,.... 1. I have ample opportunity to act. 2. I am enabled for success. 3. I receive help when needed. 4. I am supported.
Implementation ability (strongly disagree/strongly agree) Adapted from Sujan et al. (1994) CR = 0.920	In regard to plans associated with introducing new products/services,.... 1. I am good at carrying them out. 2. I am skillful in performing them. 3. I know the right things to do to carry them out.

Involvement in strategy Development (very low extent/very high extent) Adapted from Wooldridge and Floyd (1990) CR = 0.942	4. I have a knack for executing them. 5. I know a great deal about them. 6. I have sufficient knowledge about them. Please indicate the extent to which you are involved in the following: 1. Identifying problems with current products/services 2. Proposing objectives for new products/services 3. Generating options for new products/services 4. Evaluating new product/service options 5. Providing input on which new products/services would work best in the field 6. Choosing new products/services
Role autonomy (strongly disagree/strongly agree) Adapted from Noble and Mokwa (1999) CR = 0.940	In carrying out plans associated with introducing new products/services... 1. I am allowed to do as I please. 2. I have a great deal of autonomy. 3. I feel like I am my own boss. 4. I make my own decisions.
New product training (very low extent/very high extent) New Scale CR = 0.960	Please indicate the extent to which you receive training on the following: 1. New product/service specifications 2. New product/service features 3. New product/service designs 4. How new products/services work
Financial rewards (strongly disagree/strongly agree) New Scale CR = 0.941	1. I am offered financial incentives to introduce new products/services. 2. Part of my compensation is tied to my performance in introducing new products/services. 3. I am provided with financial rewards to introduce new products/services.
Implementation Success (strongly disagree/strongly agree) Adapted from Noble and Mokwa (1999) CR = 0.931	Amongst my customers, over the past 12 months... 1. New products/services were effectively introduced. 2. Introductions of new products/services were generally considered a great success. 3. I personally think introductions of new products/services were successful. 4. Introductions of new products/services turned out well.

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