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THE IMPLEMENTATION OF NEW MARKETING STRATEGIES BY THE SALESPERSON:
THE CONSTRAINING FACTOR MODEL

By Jeffrey S. Johnson

A DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of
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Under the Supervision of Professor Ravipreet S. Sohi

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THE IMPLEMENTATION OF NEW MARKETING STRATEGIES BY THE SALESPERSON: THE CONSTRAINING FACTOR MODEL

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University of Nebraska, 2013

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The implementation of marketing strategies has long been espoused as a key concern of academics and practitioners due to its importance to firm performance. Despite this fact, strategic implementation remains a perennial challenge for firms. This may be in part due to the focus placed on strategic formation rather than strategic implementation. Additionally, as the preponderance of empirical explorations into the implementation phenomenon have been conducted at the firm level, significant opportunity remains to understand implementation on an individual level. Of the organization roles germane to strategic implementation, that of the salesperson is arguably one of the most important. The salesperson's role as an organizational boundary-spanner places them at the front line of implementation with the customer.

The goal of this dissertation is to advance understanding on this important topic by examining the factors impacting the implementation of marketing strategies by the salesperson. In this pursuit, I draw from motivation, opportunity, and ability (MOA) theory to investigate the drivers of the implementation of new marketing strategies by the salesperson. I empirically test hypothesized relationships by conducting a large-scale survey of business-to-business salespeople. My analysis utilizes a constraining factor model, a new-to-marketing approach derived from operations management. I also examine multiple theoretically-supported drivers of

the salesperson's motivation, opportunity, and ability and resolve unanswered questions in the literature. Finally, I test the contingent impact of salesperson implementation.

The findings provide substantive insight regarding what impacts the business-to-business salesperson's motivation, opportunity, and ability to implement new marketing strategies with support for many of the hypothesized relationships. The constraining factor hypotheses receive mixed support from the data; however, a post hoc analysis examining the MOA interrelationships in a different manner uncovers divergent findings of interest to theory and practice. Finally, the contingent effects hypotheses on implementation success are not supported suggesting the role of environmental conditions on salesperson implementation is less impactful than previously thought.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter 1: Introduction	
Introduction	1
Research Objectives	3
Conceptual Model	6
Overview of Research	9
Chapter 2: Literature Review	
Objectives of the Chapter	10
Strategic Implementation	10
Objectives, Strategies, and Implementation	15
Chapter 3: Hypothesis Development	
Objectives of the Chapter	25
Salesperson Implementation of New Marketing Strategies	25
The Contingent Nature of MOAs on the on the Implementation of Marketing Strategies by the Salesperson	30
Drivers of Salespeople's MOAs to Implement New Marketing Strategies	39
Outcome of Salesperson Strategic Implementation of New Marketing Strategies	48
Chapter 4: Research Methodology	
Objectives of the Chapter	53
Data Collection and Sample Characteristics	53
Measure Development	57
Constructs Measured	59
Chapter 5: Data Analysis	63
Reliability and Validity	63
Path Model Estimation	101
Hypothesis Testing	111
Chapter 6: Discussion	119
References	143
Appendix	
Main Survey Document	163

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction, Research Objectives, Conceptual Model, and Overview of Research

INTRODUCTION

“In business, everybody always thinks it is about finding the ‘right’ idea, or the ‘right’ plan. The truth is that there are five ‘right’ ideas or plans. The real issue is getting oneself and others to be able to execute it...” Dr. Henry Cloud, Co-host of *New Life Live*

Strategic implementation, though vitally important to the success of the firm, remains an under-researched topic in the domains of management and marketing (Noble and Mokwa 1999; Crittenden and Crittenden 2008; Sarin, Challagalla, and Kohli 2012). Part of this issue stems from the fact the early research in the strategy domain (e.g. Wind and Robertson 1983; Arnould and Wallendorf 1994) employed a predominant focus on strategy formation rather than implementation. A dire need exists to focus attention on implementation due to the abysmal efficacy of strategy implementation; up to 90% of strategies are not successfully implemented by organizations (Raps 2004). Not surprisingly, many recommendations for firms to improve their strategic implementation have been espoused (Noble and Mokwa 1999; Slater and Olson 2001; Dobni 2003; Crittenden and Crittenden 2008).

While these inquiries have added significant insight to the implementation of marketing strategies on a firm level, strategic implementation has received scant attention on an individual level (Sarin, Challagalla, and Kohli 2012). Specifically, a central part of the marketing strategy implementation equation is the salesperson. The salesperson’s role as an organizational boundary-spanner places them at the front line of implementation with the customer (Singh, Verbeke, and Rhoads 1996; Cravens 1998; Ferguson, Paulin, and Bergeron 2005; Mattsson, Ramaseshan, and Carson 2006) and makes their enactment of strategy critical to the firm. The salesperson may be provided with excellent strategies; however, if they do not enact them effectively, efforts in strategic planning and formulation may not translate into superior

performance for the organization. Recently, the vital role of the salesperson has become a focus in examinations of marketing strategy formation (e.g. Malshe and Sohi 2009) and implementation (e.g. Sarin, Challagalla, and Kohli 2012). This work has provided an important base of research on the salesperson's role in the marketing strategy process; however, further theoretical work is needed on an individual-salesperson level to explore their implementation of new marketing strategies.

The salesperson's implementation of new marketing strategies refers to the behaviors performed by the salesperson to enact new strategies they are provided (fully espoused in Chapter 3). Understanding what leads to the implementation of marketing strategies by the salesperson is of significant importance to academics and practitioners. Salespeople do not automatically enact organizational changes simply because they are instructed to. For example, a multitude of examinations have explored the resistance of the salesperson to changes in areas such as technology adoption (Speier and Venkatesh 2002; Bush, Moore, and Rocco 2005; Honeycutt et al. 2005; Schillewaert et al. 2005). The traditional role of salespeople as "doers" rather than also "planners" does not reflect reality (Malshe, Krush, and Sohi 2013). Salespeople will not blindly implement new marketing strategies as they perceive their roles as central strategy makers and implementers rather than strictly implementers (Malshe 2009).

In addition to understanding implementation behaviors by the salesperson and what predicts their enactment, understanding how and under what conditions these behaviors translate to successful implementation by the salesperson is needed. The salesperson's enactment of implementation behaviors should translate to increased implementation success; however, the criticality of these behaviors is likely contingent on environmental factors. A need exists to explore and empirically test these factors.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The marketing strategy literature notes the importance and need for complex models necessary to understand the multifaceted nature of strategic issues (Varadarajan and Jayachandran 1999). The purpose of this research is to provide an understanding of the complex components of the implementation of new marketing strategies by the salesperson, the factors leading to implementation, and the conditional effects of implementation behaviors by the salesperson on implementation success. I seek to contribute to the literature pertinent to the salesperson and strategic implementation by adding insight to several unexplored areas.

First, this research focuses on the topic of the implementation of new marketing strategies. The predominant focus on strategic formation and fit in the literature has left issues in the performance of strategic implementation behaviors underexplored (Noble and Mokwa 1999; Lane 2005). Coupled with the espoused importance of strategic implementation, this presents a prime research area to glean insight and extend knowledge.

Second, the individual salesperson has been largely ignored in examinations of strategic implementation. Though the salesperson is a critical component of the process, little is known about their implementation of new marketing strategies. By analyzing the extant literature and examining the critical implementation context of new products and services, I seek to identify how the salesperson implements new marketing strategies and define the key facets of salesperson implementation.

Third, quantitative, empirical research is needed to further understand what leads to a salesperson implementing new marketing strategies. This represents an opportunity to add an important piece of knowledge to the marketing strategy literature. While salespeople engage in a multitude of tasks in their boundary-spanning roles (Moncrief 1986), the nature of their actions

in implementing marketing strategies needs to be espoused. Many factors have been proposed in conceptual and qualitative examinations; however, this study empirically tests these relationships and examines differential impacting factors. This study extends MOA theory to the strategic implementation literature. MOA theory has been used in various marketing strategy contexts such as delaying the launch of a preannounced product (Wu, Balasubramanian, and Mahajan 2004), participating in electronic, business-to-business markets (Grewal, Comer, and Mehta 2001), adopting innovation (Sääksjärvi and Samiee 2011), cross-selling (Schmitz 2012), and measuring marketing performance (Clark, Abela, and Ambler 2005). MOA theory has not, however, been used to explain strategic implementation. Understanding how this theory applies to this domain of inquiry will advance understanding on the necessary components to elicit action in the company's sales force and will provide generalizable results.

Fourth, the interaction of different facilitators in strategic implementation is poorly understood. A need exists to utilize a more advanced examination to show the contingent and interrelated impacts of the factors leading to implementation. Specifically, can strategic implementation by the salesperson be predicted by an operations management-based model? This research will employ a method of analysis not yet utilized in marketing research and extremely relevant to MOA theory. Constraining factor modeling illustrates the complex and contingent relationships of motivations, opportunities, and abilities beyond linear or interactive models (Siemens, Roth, and Balasubramanian 2008). Constraining factor modeling is a useful approach in identifying operational bottlenecks in the management literature; however, has promise as a means of predicting behavior in the contexts of marketing and marketing strategy. This study introduces this method of analysis to the marketing literature and is likely to have wide-ranging utility in both consumer and marketing strategy applications.

Fifth, I seek to show how the motivation, opportunity, and ability of the salesperson is affected by organizational actions and characteristics. Motivation is a topic that has received extensive attention in examinations involving the salesperson (Weitz, Sujaan, and Sujaan 1986; Ingram, Lee, and Skinner 1989; Miao, Evans, and Shaoming 2007). This research seeks to expand insight into this domain by illustrating direct relationships to the salesperson's motivation to implement new marketing strategies. Further, all these variables are organizationally-controllable, non-financial proposed drivers of motivation. For opportunity, there are many contextual factors that have been proposed and empirically tested to impact the successfulness of strategic implementation by firms (Beer and Eisenstat 2000; Dobni 2003; Crittenden and Crittenden 2008). This examination illustrates the effect of three variables spanning the strategy, structure, and culture of the firm that affect the salesperson's perception of the opportunity to enact new marketing strategies. In regard to ability, this research extends knowledge on the types of training that can be provided to increase the salesperson's ability to implement new marketing strategies. As training can be conducted in many ways and across multiple levels of abstraction (Cron et al. 2005), researchers need to know the types of training relevant to strategic implementation ability. Previous research on training in this context has yielded equivocal results this dissertation seeks to resolve.

Finally, the current understanding of the impact of strategic implementation on an organizational level has expanded insight into the marketing strategy domain. The omission of how strategic implementation behaviors translate to implementation success on a salesperson's level represents a significant gap in sales and marketing strategy knowledge. Additionally, the environmental, contextual factors affecting these relationships need to be advanced.

As the subsequent literature review will show, there are several gaps in the literature related to how implementation is conceptualized and what this means for various parties within the organization (e.g., the implementation of strategy relative to the individual salesperson). Additionally, direct linkages to what drives the motivation, opportunity, and ability for salespeople to implement new marketing strategies is also needed to augment the extant literature. In summary, this dissertation seeks to contribute to academic insight by empirically answering these primary questions:

- a. What are the pertinent salesperson implementation behaviors?
- b. How do a salesperson's motivation, opportunity, and ability interrelate to predict the enactment of salespeople's implementation behaviors?
- c. What motivates a salesperson to engage in new strategy implementation?
- d. What firm-level variables lead to the salesperson's perception of facilitation in new strategy implementation?
- e. What actions can be taken to increase the ability of salespeople to implement new strategies?
- f. How and under what conditions do implementation behaviors lead to implementation success by the salesperson?

CONCEPTUAL MODEL

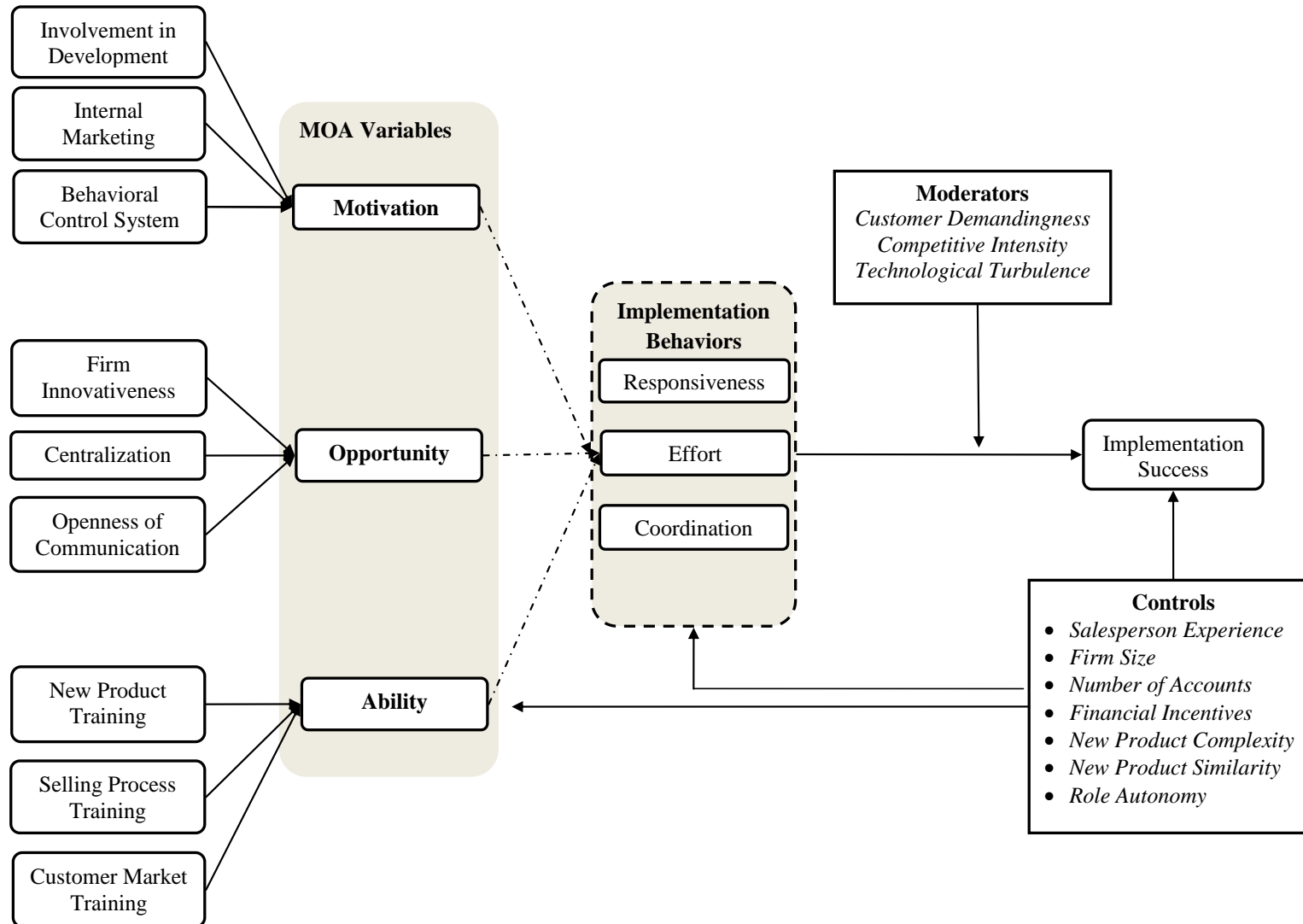
The salesperson's implementation of marketing strategies refers to the manner in which the salesperson responds, allocates effort, and coordinates internal resources to carry out new marketing strategies in their boundary-spanning role. As such, the focal concern is what causes a salesperson to enact behavior. Accordingly, the conceptual model (Figure 1) is comprised of

theoretically-based factors that impact behavior. Specifically, motivation, opportunity, and ability (MOA) theory is used to identify three primary determinants of behavior (MacInnis and Jaworski 1989; MacInnis, Moorman, and Jaworski 1991). MOA theory was originally advanced to elucidate what drives consumers to process brand information (MacInnis, Moorman, and Jaworski 1991). MOA has been extended to other behavioral applications such as knowledge sharing (Gruen, Osmonbekov, and Czaplewski 2005; Gruen, Osmonbekov, and Czaplewski 2006; Gruen, Osmonbekov, and Czaplewski 2007; Siemsen, Roth, and Balasubramanian 2008), and customer segmentation (Binney, Hall, and Shaw 2003). An ideal additional extension of MOA theory is to salesperson strategic implementation.

The model also looks to elucidate the antecedents affecting the salesperson's implementation motivations, opportunities, and abilities. MOA theory has provided instructive guidance in the selection of these variables in different contexts (e.g. Grewal, Comer, and Mehta 2001). The variables included all draw conceptual support from the sales and strategic implementation literature streams. As this dissertation seeks to identify actionable ways firms can increase strategic implementation by the salesperson, all these antecedents are firm-level variables within the control of the organization. The multi-company data collection approach this dissertation utilizes allows for the impact of these higher-level impacting factors to be assessed on the salesperson.

The outcome variable is the salesperson's implementation success (Noble and Mokwa 1999). In addition to assessing the impact of the implementation behaviors on this dependent variable, environmental factors are hypothesized to moderate this relationship. The theoretical rationale for the relationships in the model is advanced in Chapter 3.

Figure 1
Conceptual Model for the Implementation of New Marketing Strategies by the Salesperson



OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH

The remainder of this dissertation is structured as follows. In Chapter 2, I review the literature pertaining strategic implementation. I also examine the type of strategies implemented by salespeople and identify issues that have been identified in various forms of marketing strategy implementation by the salesperson. In Chapter 3, I draw upon the extant MOA, strategic management, and sales management literature to support the proposed relationships advanced in the conceptual model. I also provide the rationale behind using a constraining factor approach in this MOA context. In Chapter 4, I discuss the methodology used in conducting the study including detail on the sample and measurement constructs. In Chapter 5, I report the results of the analysis and tests of the constraining factor, contingent, and main effects hypotheses. Finally, in Chapter 6, I conclude the dissertation by discussing the findings, implications, limitations, and avenues for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

The purpose of this chapter is to review the extant literature related to the implementation of new marketing strategies by the salesperson. In this pursuit, I review and integrate research conducted on strategic implementation, discuss an objectives-strategies-implementation framework, and provide pertinent examples involving the salesperson. The first section defines and elucidates the research pertaining to strategic implementation. As multiple definitions of strategic implementation exist, I discuss the conceptualizations and applications in the extant literature. The second section helps to delineate between objectives, strategies, and implementation and also discusses strategies that are implemented by the salesperson along with issues that may affect salesperson implementation. This chapter is comprised of the qualitative and quantitative work conducted in this domain and provides an overview of relationships proposed and tested in the literature. This review is employed to identify gaps in the literature this research aims to fill.

STRATEGIC IMPLEMENTATION

Strategy is formulated and implemented by firms and can be conceptualized as “the decisions and activities that enable a business in a firm’s portfolio to achieve and sustain a competitive advantage and to maintain or improve its performance” (Varadarajan and Jayachandran 1999, p. 120). The extant literature is replete with examinations of how strategy is formulated and the various factors impacting the process. The essence of strategy formation entails creating fit between the external opportunities and threats confronting a firm and the firm’s internal abilities (Mintzberg 1990). The schools of thought pertaining to strategy formation vary dramatically from discrete, planned actions to more iterative, learning processes

(Mintzberg and Lampel 1999). Strategies can be formulated deliberately, however, strategy formation is also an iterative phenomenon as firms must continually adapt to changing market conditions (Mintzberg and Waters 1985). Understanding how strategies are chosen and developed is of key concern as strategic fit has repeatedly been shown to positively impact firm performance (Hitt and Ireland 1985; Slater and Olson 2000; Voss and Voss 2000; DeSarbo et al. 2005; Olson, Slater, and Hult 2005).

The implementation of strategy is an equally important, yet far less researched, counterpart to strategy formation. A contributing factor to this paucity of research can be attributed at least in part to the difficulty in what is actually entailed in implementing strategy. As Noble (1999) notes, there are a host of disparate conceptualizations of strategic implementation with differing implications to comprehension and measurement of the phenomenon. These conceptualizations of implementation range in their brevity or specificity and carry unique implications for strategy researchers.

On a broad level, strategic implementation can be conceptualized as how a strategy is operationalized and enacted by the organization (Varadarajan and Jayachandran 1999) or how the strategic alternatives are converted into an operating plan (Aaker 1988). Implementation can also be viewed as interventions made by organizational structures, personnel actions, and control systems with the intent of aligning action, controlling performance and achieving a desired goal (Hrebiniak and Joyce 1984; Noble 1999). Implementation consists of turning plan into action, the execution of developed marketing programs in the field (Cespedes 1991). Noble (1999) defines strategic implementation as the communication, interpretation, adoption, and enactment of strategic plans.

More recent conceptualizations of strategic implementation have focused on the fit between the strategy, organization, and environment (Olson, Slater, and Hult 2005; Olson, Slater, and Hult 2005). This focus has advanced knowledge of how strategic fit interacts with the context of the firm in its pursuit for enhanced performance. Additionally, marketing implementation has been identified as a key marketing capability and has been measured as the allocation of resources, organization to deliver marketing programs effectively, translating marketing strategies into action, and executing marketing strategies quickly (Vorhies and Morgan 2005).

While these conceptualizations of strategic implementation have advanced clarity on this topic, none address what specific behaviors are enacted to implement strategy. This is reflected in how implementation is measured, generally at a higher level of abstraction like firm performance (Cravens 1998; Noble and Mokwa 1999; Slater and Olson 2001; Lane 2005; Olson, Slater, and Hult 2005; Crittenden and Crittenden 2008). Implementation has been measured directly in certain situations; however, these measures have assessed the efficacy of implementation rather than actual implementation itself (Noble 1999; Thorpe and Morgan 2007). Strategic implementation by the individual has been seen largely as a function of the absence of resisting or the acceptance of strategies (Macmillan and Guth 1985; Guth and Macmillan 1986). Accordingly, little is known on the behaviors enacted in the implementation of strategy.

Early research into the implementation of strategy viewed implementation behaviors as rather irrelevant as strategic implementation was thought to be an inevitable result of sound strategic planning (Day and Wensley 1983; Wind and Robertson 1983). If firms spent sufficient time and energy into formulating perfect strategies, implementation would occur through its own volition. In actuality, implementation is a far more complex phenomenon and firms are

extremely heterogeneous in their styles and levels of strategic implementation. Firms adopting a change model focus on firm structure, incentives, and control systems, those with a collaborative model focus more on the communication between planners and implementers, and those with a cultural model focus on the lower-level employees (Thorpe and Morgan 2007). Further, strategic implementation varies considerably within the firm. Strategic implementation in firms is inconsistent with firms “zig-zagging” in their implementation approach over time (Brauer and Schmidt 2006).

Strategic implementation is fraught with challenges as evidenced by the low percentage of strategies that are effectively implemented (Lane 2005). As such, several propositions, as well as some empirical tests, have been advanced to ascertain the drivers of effective implementation in the organization. Overall, the proposed enablers of strategic implementation are fairly consistent across examinations. Clear strategies and strategic focus, cross-functional integration, support from senior management, good communication, and strategic consensus among members are all discussed as positive contributors to implementation efforts (Floyd and Wooldridge 1992; Beer and Eisenstat 2000; Rapert, Velliquette, and Garretson 2002; Dobni 2003; Crittenden and Crittenden 2008). Not all factors, however, have been found to have a homogeneous impact on implementation. Dissention exists within the literature on the efficacy of top-down or bottom-up strategic influence. A bottom-up approach refers to a strategic approach where strategies are largely driven by the input and participation by lower-level employees whereas a top-down approach employs a more command-and-control mentality where strategies are made in the C-suite rather than the front line (Thorpe and Morgan 2007). A bottom-up approach to strategic planning has been well-espoused in its positive impact on implementation (Beer and Eisenstat 2000; Kumar and Petersen 2005; Mattsson, Ramaseshan,

and Carson 2006). Recent research, however, has presented contradictory findings indicating the primacy of top-down influences (Thorpe and Morgan 2007; Thorpe and Morgan 2007). The equivocality of these findings prompts questions as to the conditions under which these relationships hold. Adopting this contingency viewpoint may help elucidate why these drivers do not have a homogeneous impact on implementation (Govindarajan 1988). Firms have a myriad of internal and external factors affecting the nature of their implementation activities on outcomes.

In addition to the relative paucity of research on strategic implementation, quantitative empirical research on the topic is particularly sparse. Some quantitative examinations have demonstrated the role of strategic fit and implementation (Govindarajan 1988; Slater and Olson 2000; Slater and Olson 2001; Dobni 2003; Dobni and Luffman 2003). Other research has examined factors purported to increase the implementation of strategies and finds that firms utilizing the change model of implementation (high structure, top-down influence, visible control systems) outperform their decentralized, informal, lower-level counterparts (Thorpe and Morgan 2007). This finding is particularly interesting in the context of previous research conducted in the marketing domain. Noble and Mokwa (1999) used a mixed-methods approach to identify and test the indirect impacting factors of fit with vision, importance, scope, championing, senior management support, and organizational buy-in on implementation through strategy commitment. Of these variables, fit with vision, importance, and buy-in are significant (notably senior management support is non-significant). Strategy commitment along with role commitment then positively impact implementation.

The outcomes of implementation are contingent on the strategy's success or failure. The organizational climate and support for future strategies will either increase or decrease

contingent on the outcome of the strategy (Klein and Sorra 1996). Enhanced firm performance is also an implicit outcome for implementation (Cravens 1998; Noble and Mokwa 1999; Slater and Olson 2001; Lane 2005; Crittenden and Crittenden 2008). While the notion that individuals are impacted by the success or failure of strategic implementation has been espoused (Klein and Sorra 1996; Noble and Mokwa 1999), few studies actually measure this impact.

OBJECTIVES, STRATEGIES, AND IMPLEMENTATION

There are many different types of marketing strategies encompassing a marketing department's actions pertaining to the marketing mix; product, price, place, and promotion (Hunt and Morgan 1995; Slater and Olson 2001). To understand the implementation of new marketing strategies by the salesperson, it is requisite to first understand what marketing strategy is and what this means for marketing and the salesperson. Marketing strategy is "the set of integrated decisions and actions by which a business expects to meet its marketing objectives and meet the value requirements of its customers" (Slater and Olson 2001, p.1056). Comprehending the implementation of marketing strategy requires knowledge of the various components and nature of the meaning of objectives, strategies, and implementation. The order of these three concepts does not imply a ubiquitous top-down strategy creation process; firm-level objectives can be determined and shaped by marketing objectives. Rather, it is provided to illustrate the framework of what drives the strategy process.

On the highest level, firm-level objectives provide the foundational guidance shaping the strategy process. Contingent on many factors, firms can have a variety of objectives consistent with their overall positioning in the market all relating to their achievement of a desired end state (Latham and Stewart 1981). Growth, cost reduction, and margin enhancement are all strategies firms may wish to pursue consistent with their place in the market and applicable environmental

conditions (Ye, Marinova, and Singh 2007). To achieve these firm-level objectives, marketing-level objectives must facilitate two things: consistency with the firm-level objectives and an actionable level of specificity. Continuing with this strategic funnel, marketing-level objectives should provide the paths of least resistance to achieving the firm-level goals. If the firm objective is to grow revenue, marketing objectives can focus on the acquiring of new customer segments, penetration within existing customer segments, or reduction of defection of existing customers (Srivastava, Shervani, and Fahey 1999). Similar to firm objectives, market conditions will dictate the optimal marketing objective or set of objectives. Once the marketing-level objectives have been established, marketing strategies must be developed in a manner consistent with the achievement of the objectives. To meet the marketing objective of acquiring customers from new segments for example, a multitude of marketing strategies can be developed including introducing new products and services, adjusting product line length, tailoring the promotional message, and utilizing different channel members. The implementation of these marketing strategies at its most basic level involves operationalizing these strategies into action (Cespedes 1991; Varadarajan and Jayachandran 1999). What it means to enact strategies, however, is ambiguous and results in an ever-elusive grasp of the concept.

I propose that a systems-concept approach is necessary to understand the implementation of marketing strategies. The systems concept involves “considering the elements of related business activities as a coordinated whole instead of a group of independent and unrelated elements” (Parker 1962, p. 19). Implementation requires the complex coordination of many disparate, moving parts of individuals, functions, and multiple different strategies (Cravens 1998). Accordingly, I advance an expanded definition of marketing strategy implementation as the concurrent enactment of interrelated marketing plans by all appropriate members of the

organization. To implement plans associated with new product/service introduction, for example, it may be necessary to make changes in channel members, promotional campaigns, sales force structures, etc. Consistent with the systems view, if one aspect of this interconnected whole is absent, implementation will fail. This connected nature of implementation may help explain the abysmally low success rates in implementation reported by organizations (Raps 2004).

From this conceptualization of implementation, it can be seen that the behaviors enacted to implement strategy are contingent on the function performed by an employee in an organization. The implementation of marketing strategies has a very different meaning and associated behaviors for engineers than it does for advertising executives. As such, the implementation of strategy is contingent on one's role within the organization. The literature clearly explicates the role of the salesperson as an organizational boundary-spanner serving as the connection between the organization and the customer (Singh, Verbeke, and Rhoads 1996; Cravens 1998; Ferguson, Paulin, and Bergeron 2005; Mattsson, Ramaseshan, and Carson 2006). Accordingly, their role in the implementation process is to quickly respond to new strategies, allocate their effort to enact them, and coordinate internal members of the organization in the implementation effort. This is a daunting task considering the vastly heterogeneous needs, wants, and resources possessed by different customers. It is essential to understand what strategies a salesperson implements and what issues are encountered in salesperson implementation.

Types of Strategies Implemented by the Salesperson

The sales force shares responsibility within the organization for the implementation of marketing strategies related to product, price, place, and promotion. Slater and Olson (2001) provide an instructive taxonomy of firms based on their performance of 11 strategic marketing

activities including market research, segmentation, product line breadth, product innovation, product quality, customer service, premium pricing, selective distribution, advertising, internal sale force, and support to promotion process. These classifying elements provide key insight to the activities on the marketing department level; however, the role of the salesperson in these activities remains unclear. Specifically, what strategies does the salesperson implement?

In order to answer this question, behaviors performed by the salesperson as a part of their role directly germane to the implementation of strategy are espoused. In a comprehensive review of salesperson activities, Moncrief (1986) identifies several relevant activities such as presenting new products to customers and administering price increases. Table 1 provides exemplars of the various activities and types of behaviors performed by salespeople in the implementation of various marketing strategies. The following section then discusses the nature of implementation behaviors across the 4 Ps.

Table 1
Salesperson Enactment of Marketing Strategies

Type of Marketing Strategy	Actions required by the salesperson	Category of behavior	Exemplars
New Product/Service Introduction	The salesperson informs and sells the customer on the firm's new product and service offerings	Product	(Ahearne et al. 2010)
Strategic Pricing Initiatives	The salesperson must convey to the customer price increases and decreases consist with marketing directives.	Price	(Moncrief 1986)
New Promotional Offerings	The salesperson provides the customer information on new appeals and programs marketing wishes to advance.	Promotion	(Murry and Heide 1998)
Relationship Management Strategies	Though CRM, the salesperson applies differential time and treatment to different customers	Place	(Payne and Frow 2005)

The salesperson often represents the primary, and occasionally only, interface between the selling firm and the customer (Johnson, Barksdale, and Boles 2001). Accordingly, many of marketing's strategies are implemented with customers through the conduit of the salesperson. The salesperson implements marketing strategies related to product, price, and promotion by responding to the new strategy, applying effort to enacting associated plans, and coordinating necessary internal resources. The salesperson must implement strategies across all elements of the 4 Ps. While the focus of this examination explores product-related strategies, the sections below are intended to provide an understanding of the various types of marketing strategies salespeople implement.

Product. The salesperson implements product strategy by informing customers about changes to existing products, new product offerings, and discontinuation of previous offerings. The salesperson plays an important role in determining the fate of new product offerings by the organization (Atuahene-Gima 1997; Parthasarathy and Sohi 1997; Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000; Wieseke, Homburg, and Lee 2008) and in cross-selling these additional products to customers (Schmitz 2012). Considering new products are more likely to fail than to succeed (Ogawa and Piller 2006), the salesperson's role in selling product strategy is essential to new product success. When a salesperson adopts a new product, new product selling performance is increased (Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000). Accordingly, a multitude of factors have been proposed and empirically shown to increase new product adoption and selling performance by the salesperson. The innovativeness of the product, experience of the salesperson, type of control system, firm commitment to innovation, expected customer demand, complexity of the product, and market volatility all impact the salesperson's adoption and efficacy in selling new products (Atuahene-Gima 1997; Hultink, Atuahene-Gima, and Lebbink 2000; Micheal,

Rochford, and Wotruba 2003; Wieseke, Homburg, and Lee 2008; Ahearne et al. 2010). By understanding and influencing many of these variables, firms seek to maximize new product performance by enabling and influencing the salesperson.

Price. In their interactions with customers, salespeople obtain and interpret information regarding the customer's sensitivity to pricing changes (Lambert, Marmorstein, and Sharma 1990). Though some scholars have called for pricing to be a sales-controlled rather than marketing-controlled strategy, empirical findings show that overall, high levels of pricing delegation to salespeople erode profitability and overall sales revenue (Stephenson, Cron, and Frazier 1979; Joseph 2001). The different focus and perspective of marketing (Homburg and Jensen 2007) provides an essential check-and-balance on pricing. Implementing pricing adjustments with customers is a perilous task. Regardless of the type of pricing strategy employed, issues for the salesperson abound (Vaccaro and Coward 1993). Under-aggressive strategies leave potential gains unrealized, while overly aggressive strategies attempting to "separate customers from that last \$100" alienate customers and erodes market share (Dolan 1995, p. 4). To reach marketing objectives relating to margin enhancement, salespeople must implement pricing strategies that are consistent with this goal.

Promotion. Marketing managers have been facing increasing pressure within organizations to improve the efficacy of promotion (Weber 2002). In many cases, the salesperson is responsible for delivering primary or supplementary promotional messages and programs developed by marketing to the customer and as such, the salesperson plays an important role in the firm's promotional strategy. Congruency from all communication channels to the customer in the messages about the firm and its offerings is important in maintaining a consistent, positive image of the company (Duncan and Moriarty 1998). Salespeople recognize

the direct and indirect effects of promotion on industrial customers and note they have a key role in the success of various promotions (Park, Roth, and Jacques 1988).

Place. The place of marketing strategy implementation can be conceptualized as the determination of which current and prospective customers the salesperson spends their time on, or customer relationship management (CRM). CRM has often been examined as the application of an information technology system, however, the literature also recognizes the more holistic conceptualization of CRM as a “strategic approach that is concerned with creating improved shareholder value through the development of appropriate relationships with key customers and customer segments” (Payne and Frow 2005, p. 168). Technology plays an important facilitating role in the application of CRM, however, is not synonymous with CRM (Tanner Jr et al. 2005). A multitude of studies have examined CRM information technology tools like sales force automation (SFA) systems to apply information technology to support the sales function (Buttle, Ang, and Iriana 2006). SFAs can provide a bevy of benefits to an organization (Buttle, Ang, and Iriana 2006; Barker et al. 2009), however, have failure rates in excess of 50% and take substantial time to implement (Taylor 1994; Schillewaert et al. 2005). A factor identified as contributing to these high failure rates is the resistance of adoption by the salesperson.

Though performance benefits to the adoption of SFAs has been espoused in the literature, (Jelinek et al. 2006; Ahearne, Hughes, and Schillewaert 2007), salespeople often focus on the negative aspects and resist SFA adoption (Speier and Venkatesh 2002; Honeycutt et al. 2005; Barker et al. 2009). Several factors have been proposed to increase SFA adoption by the salesperson such as providing high-quality technology, training, supportive leadership, commitment to the strategy, and extensive communication about the system as well as securing the buy-in of salespeople (Morgan and Inks 2001; Pullig, Maxham, and Hair 2002; Bush, Moore,

and Rocco 2005). While this research on what leads to the adoption of this component of CRM strategy has provided extensive insight, less is known about what leads the salesperson to adhere to marketing strategies requiring changes on how the salesperson spends their time.

Table 2 provides a summary and illustration of the challenges pertinent to the salesperson in the implementation of strategies across the four facets of the marketing mix. These examples highlight the issues that may arise in salesperson implementation of marketing strategies and the need for incorporating their perspective. Following this table in the subsequent chapter, I hypothesize factors to affect the motivation, opportunity, and ability of salespeople to implement strategy from theory in the sales and strategic implementation domains.

Table 2
Issues in Salesperson Implementation across the Four Ps

Author	Marketing Mix Element	Marketing Strategy Implementation Topic	Key Contribution to Understanding Salesperson Implementation
(Atuahene-Gima 1997)	Product	The adoption of new products by the salesperson	Salespeople will not thoughtlessly adopt new products innovated by the firm. To ensure successful implementation of new product strategies, organizations must take a holistic view of the impact of the new product on the salesperson in the context of their environment. Failure to consider the salesperson can result in unsuccessful product launches due to a suboptimal selling effort.
(Zbaracki et al. 2004)	Price	The formulation and delivery of price adjustments to customers	There are significant internal and customer costs involved in implementing price increases with customers. Price increase implementation is an extremely time-intensive process that can have a negative impact on the salesperson. Salespeople note that the execution of price changes with the customer can open up a “Pandora’s Box” that they must deal with.
(Duncan and Moriarty 1998)	Promotion	The need for maintaining a consistent message with customers	Sending customers a consistent message about a company is crucial to maintaining a positive brand image. When salespeople send conflicting information, the customer receives a negative brand message. Accordingly, the salesperson’s inability or unwillingness to implement promotional strategies can adversely impact the firm’s performance.
(Kothandaraman, Agnihotri, and Anderson 2011)	Place	The selection of which customers to allocate time and effort	The salesperson is an underutilized asset in the CRM process of targeting the most valuable current and potential customers. Incorporating more knowledge derived from salespeople can convey significant benefits to the organization.

CHAPTER THREE

Hypothesis Development

The purpose of this chapter is to advance the facets of salesperson implementation of new marketing strategies and provide the theoretical rationale to support the conceptual model. In this pursuit, I draw upon the strategic implementation and sales literature to delineate the nature of the relationships at all three levels of the model. Consistent both recent and seminal work conducted in the implementation of marketing strategies domain, implementation models must be tested in specific context. For example, Noble and Mokwa (1999) examine the contexts of marketing information systems and sales promotions while Sarin, Challagalla, and Kohli (2012) focus on the context of channel changes. For my examination, I use the context of implementation associated with new products and services. Due to the pervasiveness of new product/service introductions, their impact on firm performance, and the important role the salesperson plays in their introduction (Ogawa and Piller 2006), this is an ideal context in which to assess new strategy implementation by the salesperson. The first section identifies and defines the facets of salesperson implementation by examining the organizational strategic implementation literature and extending its espoused implementation facets to the salesperson. The second section explores the theoretical application of MOA theory in marketing-related applications and advances a series of constraining factor hypotheses. The third section provides hypotheses based on the extant literature to predict organizational drivers of the MOA variables. Finally, the fourth section hypothesizes the effects of strategic implementation by the salesperson on the outcome variable of implementation success in a contingent manner.

SALESPERSON IMPLEMENTATION OF NEW MARKETING STRATEGIES

The salesperson's implementation of new marketing strategies refers to the manner in which the salesperson enacts new marketing strategies in their boundary-spanning role.

Behaviors enacted to implement strategy are contingent on the function performed by an employee in an organization. As noted, the salesperson's role in the implementation process is to act as the organizational boundary spanner between the organization and the customer. The elements of the implementation of new strategies for salespeople are drawn from the sales and strategic implementation literature and a multifaceted conceptualization of implementation by the salesperson is needed to capture the relevant considerations. I identify key implementation facets as identified in the organizational implementation literature that reflect the component parts of salesperson implementation of marketing strategies. In the subsequent sections, I will support the use of these facets through the sales and strategic implementation literature and illustrate the pertinent activities throughout the implementation process of how quickly the salesperson responds to new strategies, how they allocate their effort, and how well they coordinate internal resources in their organization. As such, I propose salesperson implementation of marketing strategies is a function of their responsiveness, effort, and coordination. In the remainder of this section, I explicate and support these components of salesperson implementation of marketing strategies.

Implementation Responsiveness

The speed at which strategies are enacted by organizational members is an important factor in strategic implementation. Organizational-level implementation speed refers to “the pace of activities between the time project members formulate marketing strategy and the time they fully deploy it in the marketplace” (Atuahene-Gima and Murray 2004, p. 36).

Implementation speed measures how quickly strategies are enacted from the time they are formulated and has been examined extensively in many organizational contexts. A myriad of factors have been proposed to affect implementation speed such as the level of strategic

consensus (Dooley, Fryxell, and Judge 2000), organizational reorganization (Lamont, Williams, and Hoffman 1994), organizational hierarchy (Floyd and Wooldridge 1994), and marketing capability dispersion (Krush, Sohi, and Saini 2012).

Rather than the gap between formulation and enactment as espoused on an organizational level, however, individual-level implementation responsiveness pertains to the gap between dissemination to the individual salesperson and their enactment of the strategy. As such, implementation responsiveness is the extent to which the salesperson responds quickly to new marketing strategies. Salesperson responsiveness in customer-facing situations has been espoused as an important driver of customer and organizational outcomes (Darian, Tucci, and Wiman 2001; Chonko and Jones 2005). As the salesperson represents the front line of implementation and is the face of the organization to the customer, their responsiveness to marketing strategies is of paramount importance. When salespeople drag their feet and hesitate to perform important organizational strategies and initiatives as expected, the organization may experience adverse outcomes (Speier and Venkatesh 2002; Honeycutt et al. 2005; Kaplan and Henderson 2005). Salespeople at times can be resistant to new strategies as they are uncertain of their effects on customers. I propose responsiveness to be the first facet of strategic implementation of marketing strategies by the salesperson.

Implementation Effort

The allocation of selling effort on 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 (Zoltners and Sinha 1980; LaForge, Cravens, and Young 1986; Cravens et al. 1990; Zoltners and Lorimer 2000). A multitude of models have been advanced in

attempts to optimize the selling effort within the organization and achieve marketing objectives (Davis and Farley 1971; Montgomery, Silk, and Zaragoza 1971; Lodish 1980).

Effort also applies to the individual salesperson and is relevant in the implementation of marketing strategies. To implement marketing strategies, the salesperson must put forth the necessary energy to see them through. New marketing strategies often require salespeople to focus their efforts in a different manner than previously applied. Consistent with the dimension of new product adoption by the salesperson (e.g. Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000) and organizational-level focus and effort on implementation (e.g. Floyd and Wooldridge 1992), implementation effort refers to the salesperson's "force, energy, persistence, and intensity of his or her activities to achieve desired results" (Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000, p. 437); the extent to which the salesperson directs their energy to the implementation of new strategies (Fu et al. 2010). As noted in the literature, 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 (Beehr, Walsh, and Taber 1977). Salespeople may face many competing demands across their breadth of clients (Montgomery, Blodgett, and Barnes 1996) and can find it difficult to meet their multitude of professional and personal requirements (Bolino and Turnley 2005; Duxbury and Higgins 2005). The salesperson spends a high proportion of their time calling on existing customers and prospecting for new customers (Weeks and Kahle 1990). Both of these activities are noted as being onerous and time consuming activities for the salesperson (Jolson 1988; Moncrief and Marshall 2005).

Carrying out marketing strategies requires the salesperson to put forth effort in a manner conducive of the realization of new marketing strategies. The salesperson can focus their efforts by allocating time amongst existing customers (Payne and Frow 2005), prospecting new

customers (Deutscher, Marshall, and Burgoyne 1982), and performing other various activities consistent with the implementation of new marketing strategies. The salesperson's effort is a key component of the implementation of marketing strategies.

Implementation Coordination

The final dimension of implementation by the salesperson concerns the coordination of internal resources to enact strategies. Consistent 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 and Reid 1992; Thamhain 2003). This is especially relevant in the context of business-to-business sales. The salesperson plays a unique role in the organization to assure strategies are implemented consistent with marketing and customer expectations. The relationship marketing paradigm has amended the conceptualization of the role of the salesperson from a transactional seller to the director of a firm's resources to meet customer needs; an organizational coordinator (Weitz and Bradford 1999). Researchers have noted the salesperson's critical role as a coordinator of the organization's efforts in serving the customer (Ustuner and Godes 2006). Steward et al. (2010) advance the salesperson's role in acquiring and coordinating the necessary expertise in complex business-to-business selling situations and define the coordination of expertise as "the process that the salesperson follows in diagnosing the customer organization's requirements and subsequently identifying, assembling, and managing an ad hoc team of organizational members who possess the knowledge and skills to deliver a superior customer solution" p. 551. Strategic implementation requires continuous management of internal parties. When salespeople implement strategies with their customers, they must manage their organization to assure the necessary resources are provided to deliver on the strategies. The salesperson serves as a

conductor of organizational members and a spanner of organizational silos. As such, coordination focuses on the internal parties shepherded by the salesperson to implement strategies. Implementation coordination is the extent to which the salesperson organizes the efforts of other members within their organization to enact new marketing strategies.

THE CONTINGENT NATURE OF MOTIVATIONS, OPPORTUNITY, AND ABILITIES ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF NEW MARKETING STRATEGIES BY THE SALESPERSON

At its most basic level, strategic implementation involves behaviors enacted by individuals within the firm. For this reason, I adopt a theory used to explicate the multi-faceted determination of actions by individuals applied to many consumer and strategy contexts; Motivation, Opportunity, and Ability (MOA) Theory. MacInnis, Moorman, and Jaworski (1991) were among the first scholars to present an articulated conception of MOA theory in their conceptual work. They proposed that the level of brand information processing consumers undertake in their viewing of advertisements is a direct function of their motivation, opportunity, and ability to process the information. Their definitions of these three factors are specific to consumers and ad processing, however, have been generalized to several other applications and actions.

Motivation refers to the desire and willingness to engage in a behavior (MacInnis, Moorman, and Jaworski 1991; Siemsen, Roth, and Balasubramanian 2008). Motivation is well-espoused as a predictor of behavior and performance in the sales domain (Weitz, Sujaan, and Sujaan 1986; Ingram, Lee, and Skinner 1989; Miao, Evans, and Shaoming 2007). Opportunity refers to the extent to which the salesperson perceives they are facilitated in their implementing of new marketing strategies (Sääksjärvi and Samiee 2011). The concept of opportunity is

particularly relevant in strategic implementation as a myriad of factors about organizations and industries are proposed to impact the implementation of strategy. These are the facilitating and inhibiting factors explicated in the Strategic Implementation section advanced in qualitative and quantitative empirical work. Ability refers to the knowledge and skill possessed relevant to the behavior (MacInnis, Moorman, and Jaworski 1991; Siemsen, Roth, and Balasubramanian 2008; Sääksjärvi and Samiee 2011). The ability of the salesperson to implement marketing strategies is impacted by both their experience as well as training received.

Empirical findings have demonstrated the predictive validity of MOA theory. While MOA theory has been instructive on what variables lead to action in various contexts and populations, 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 strategy applications. Some studies have examined the linear effects of motivations, opportunities, and abilities and shown all three types of variables to significantly impact behavior (e.g. Wu, Balasubramanian, and Mahajan 2004). Others, however, noting the inherent interdependencies of these components, have explored interaction-based frameworks (Grewal, Comer, and Mehta 2001; Gruen, Osmonbekov, and Czaplewski 2007; Sääksjärvi and Samiee 2011). These examinations have shown that the impact of the various MOA components is contingent on the levels of the other MOA variables. Path models have also been utilized to examine the causal relationships between MOA variables and resulting impact on behavior (e.g. Clark, Abela, and Ambler 2005).

Recently, a newly proposed relationship between MOA variables has been advanced to examine MOAs on a contingency basis. The constraining factor model posits that the

incremental impact of increasing any of the MOA variables is contingent which of the three is the factor constraining the behavior (Siemens, Roth, and Balasubramanian 2008). This constraining factor model has been empirically tested against both linear and multiplicative models and has been shown to outperform both. Additionally, inclusion of the interaction terms of the multiplicative model to the constraining factor model does not significantly improve the variance explained. The constraining factor model also provides more robust information on the impact of increasing any one of the MOA variables depending on its level. Table 3 is included below to show exemplars of the different ways MOA variables have been operationalized and tested as well as the contexts and populations it has been applied to in marketing strategy.

Table 3
Marketing Strategy Motivation, Opportunity, and Ability Examinations

Authors	Context	Sample	Operationalization of MOAs	Type of Analysis	Key Findings
(Wu, Balasubramanian, and Mahajan 2004)	Delaying the launch of a preannounced product	113 computer and telecom marketing managers	M – Controlling cannibalization of products, competitive objectives O – Market dominance, partner power A-Product innovativeness, inter-functional coordination, top management emphasis	Linear	This examination found all MOA variables to be significantly impactful on the delaying of launching of preannounced products (though one motivation facet was in the opposite direction). Overall, the ability variables were the most impactful and resulted in the greatest extent of preannounced product launches. The motivational components of controlling cannibalization of products and competitive objectives had the smallest effects.
(Sääksjärvi and Samiee 2011)	High tech innovation adoption	250 consumer panel members	M-Feeling toward technology, enjoyment from technology O-Difficult product processing A-Expertise, familiarity, need for cognition, and product involvement	Interaction	The authors propose motivation is key to adoption due to its moderating role. High motivation resulted in a crossover interaction with very new and complex product adoption. Knowledge (ability) had the highest beta at .449, however, complexity (opportunity) was greater in magnitude, but negative (-.512). Several of the interactions such as the opportunity-ability interaction were also significant. The findings support the notion of the interrelatedness of the MOA variables.

Table 3 (Continued)
Marketing Strategy Motivation, Opportunity, and Ability Examinations

Authors	Context	Sample	Operationalization of MOAs	Type of Analysis	Key Findings
(Clark, Abela, and Ambler 2005)	Measuring marketing performance	66 Marketing Leadership Council members	M- Single item regarding the importance of measurement O-Obstacles and facilitators were checked by participants and used as formative measures of opportunity A-Directly asked “how good is your ability” and “how much of the marketing budget could be measured with ROI”	Path Model	The authors posit motivation drives opportunity, which drives ability, which leads to information processing and thus satisfaction. Satisfaction then loops back to motivation. The model shows significant paths from opportunity to both motivation and ability and also between ability and motivation. Finally, motivation was found to moderate the relationships between ability and spending plans for measurement.
(Siemsen, Roth, and Balasubramanian 2008)	Knowledge sharing amongst employees	191 line workers, IT techs, and web-services workers	M-Direct questions on motivation to share information O-Extra free time at work A-Direct questions on ability to share	Constraining Factor Model	The authors show the robustness of the constraining factor model in explaining MOA. The betas of the MOAs are contingent on which is the constraining variable. The value of this study is it also ran linear and interactive models to which their model outperforms. This is also one of the few studies that directly measured motivation and ability.

This review of the extant literature shows the complex nature of how motivation, opportunity, and ability lead to behavior. Due to the interdependencies of the MOA elements, motivation, opportunity, and ability have been shown to interact in their impact on outcomes (Grewal, Comer, and Mehta 2001; Gruen, Osmonbekov, and Czaplewski 2007; Sääksjärvi and Samiee 2011). Consistent with the premise that the MOA variables impact outcomes contingent on the values of the other variables, the effects of the MOA variables on salesperson implementation of marketing strategies are hypothesized on a contingency basis by examining the constraining factor of the variables.

The premise for constraining factor analysis can be traced to operations management and specifically, lean management (Shah and Ward 2003; Hines, Holweg, and Rich 2004; Siemsen, Roth, and Balasubramanian 2008). A focal point for lean management is the identification and removal of bottlenecks in the production process to improve productivity. Instead of allocating resources evenly amongst the production steps, resources are concentrated on the step constraining the production process (Lawrence and Buss 1994). Increasing the throughput on all of the various functions involved in the production process would be extremely inefficient as overall production is a function of the lowest performing part of the process (Goldratt and Cox 1992). Accordingly, production will receive the maximal amount of benefit when these factors that are constraining the production processes are increased.

The logic of constraining factors can be applied to motivation, opportunity, and ability leading to salesperson implementation behavior in a similar fashion. The salesperson's levels of motivation, opportunity, and ability can be conceptualized as parts of the process leading to the production of a certain outcome (e.g. strategic implementation). Consistent with constraining factor analysis, the impact on increasing any one of a salesperson's MOAs to implement strategy

will be contingent on whether that factor is the one with the lowest value (Siemsen, Roth, and Balasubramanian 2008). For example, a salesperson that is highly motivated to implement marketing strategies in an environment that facilitates the implementation of strategy (opportunity) but has very low ability in strategy implementation is unlikely to perform the implementation behaviors. The production bottleneck for this individual is their ability to implement strategy and as such, ability is the factor constraining the individual from implementing strategy. In this instance, increasing the levels of motivation and opportunity for this salesperson are unlikely to have a substantive impact on implementation. Increasing ability, on the other hand, is likely to have a substantial impact on implementation by the salesperson as this is the factor constraining the behavior. Accordingly, the hypotheses predicting the effects of the MOA variables on salesperson implementation reflect the notion that the change in implementation behavior is contingent on the variable with the lowest level. The following section provides explicit definitions of the MOAs of strategic implementation and advances constraining factor hypotheses.

Constraining Factor Hypotheses

Motivation refers to the extent to which a salesperson has the desire to carry out marketing strategies. Motivation has been identified as a key driver of strategic implementation amongst middle management. Guth and Macmillan (1986) examine the propensity to implement as an expectancy function consisting of the probability of success and extent to which the strategy meets the individual needs of the manager. Marketing and sales managers frequently seek to increase the motivation of their sales force by using various techniques involving financial (Kalra and Shi 2001; Lim, Ahearne, and Ham 2009) and non-financial techniques (Joseph and Kalwani 1992). The estimated cost of these activities is staggering; over \$100

billion spent per year (Incentive Performance Center 2008). Notably, however, the efficacy of motivating the sales force is less than absolute (Kohn 1993) and in fact, efforts quite often do not translate into results. This may be due to the fact motivation often is not the factor constraining the salesperson's behavior. If motivation is higher than the salesperson's opportunity or ability, increasing their motivation is unlikely to result in an increase in implementation. If, however, motivation is lower than the salesperson's opportunity and ability, increasing motivation will have a positive impact on implementation by the salesperson.

Opportunity refers to the extent to which the salesperson perceives they are supported and facilitated their implementing new marketing strategies. There are many organizational factors that facilitate or inhibit strategic implementation by the salesperson. The preponderance of strategic implementation literature looks at organizational factors that provide this enablement for the implementation of strategy (Slater and Olson 2001; Dobni 2003; Barki and Pinsonneault 2005; Olson, Slater, and Hult 2005). When organizational barriers are deemed by the salesperson to be the factor constraining their implementation of strategy, efforts by management to remove organizational implementation inhibitors and/or add organizational facilitators will be efficient and result in an increase of implementation. If, however, the salesperson's motivation or ability is in fact lower than their perception of the organizational opportunity environment, these efforts will have a negligible impact on implementation by the salesperson.

Ability refers to the salesperson's knowledge and skill in carrying out new marketing strategies. Organizations view their human capital as an asset that can lead to competitive advantage, and thus are willing to make significant investments to increase the knowledge and skills of their employees (Luthans and Youssef 2004). In the United States alone, over \$130 billion annually is spent on employee training (Baun and Scott 2010). Training can have a

positive effect on the salesperson by increasing their knowledge and skills and consequently their performance (Christiansen et al. 1996). Notably, however, attempts to increase the salesperson's knowledge and skill do not automatically result in increased performance (Attia, Jr, and Leach 2005). If the salesperson's abilities to implement strategies are already high, investments made by the organization to increase ability will have a limited impact. If, however, ability is the lowest of the three behavior-driving factors, firms will see a return from ability-enhancing activities. In summary, the logic of the constraining factor model leads to hypotheses of the impact of the salesperson's motivation, opportunity, and ability on strategic implementation that is contingent on their status as a constraining or non-constraining variable (Siemsen, Roth, and Balasubramanian 2008).

H1: When motivation is the factor constraining the implementation of new marketing strategies by the salesperson, increasing (a) motivation will result in a significant increase in implementation¹ while increasing (b) opportunity or (c) ability will result in a non-significant effect.

H2: When opportunity is the factor constraining the implementation of new marketing strategies by the salesperson, increasing (a) opportunity will result in a significant increase in implementation while increasing (b) motivation or (c) ability will result in a non-significant effect.

H3: When ability is the factor constraining the implementation of new marketing strategies by the salesperson, increasing (a) ability will result in a significant increase in implementation while increasing (b) motivation or (c) opportunity will result in a non-significant effect on implementation.

¹ For brevity in H1 – H3, “implementation” is used to refer to the three facets of responsiveness, effort, and coordination. The constraining factor model will be assessed on each independently.

DRIVERS OF SALESPEOPLE'S MOTIVATION, OPPORTUNITY, AND ABILITY TO IMPLEMENT NEW MARKETING STRATEGIES

This section elucidates what factors influence the motivations, opportunities, and abilities of salespeople to implement marketing strategy. In this pursuit, I utilize the extant research from sales management theory as well as research from the strategic implementation domain. The variables included are those that are within the control of the organization and are supported by unifying frameworks for drivers of motivation, opportunity, and ability.

Motivation

Three antecedents are subsequently advanced to affect the salesperson's motivation. These antecedents were selected consistent with research in the motivation domain establishing motivation as a function of internalization and autonomy (Ryan and Deci 2000). To explore internalization by the salesperson, I examine organizational practices that promote salesperson buy-in towards new strategies. Specifically, I recognize that salesperson buy-in can be created through involvement in the creative process and rational persuasion (Malshe and Sohi 2009). Accordingly, I first include the salesperson's involvement in new strategy development. To assess rational persuasion, I include the extent to which the sales manager practices internal marketing with their salespeople. Divergent from the extant literature, however, I recognize that salespeople can be persuaded to action for many different reasons and examine the role of different dimensions of internal marketing on salesperson motivation. As salespeople can be motivated to act by the prospect of providing benefit to their organization {e.g. Podsakoff, 2007 #507}, their customers {e.g. Harris, 2005 #334}, and themselves {e.g. Lewin, 2007 #808}. The model therefore recognizes there are several paths to internalization and includes variables to assess these factors. Regarding autonomy, self-determination theory suggests humans have a

fundamental need for free will and control of their existence (Ryan and Deci 2000). The concept of autonomy has been well-established as an important consideration in examinations involving salespeople (Bartkus, Peterson, and Bellenger 1989; Ramaswami 1996; Wang and Netemeyer 2002). I include a critical factor related to the autonomy of the salesperson; the type of managerial mechanism used to control their behavior. All the variables including also are organizational-level predictors that have not been directly examined in the context of marketing strategy motivation and new product/service introduction. They are all focused on ways to affect the salesperson's motivation to implement new strategies in a non-financial manner due to the predominant focus on financial incentives².

Involvement in New Strategy Development. The involvement of sales in new strategy development refers to the extent to which the salesperson is incorporated in the formation of new marketing strategies (Wooldridge and Floyd 1990). Rather than developing strategies in a marketing and R&D vacuum devoid of salesperson input, firms can utilize the sales force at the developmental phase to increase their motivation to implement strategies (Malshe and Sohi 2009). Contrary to empirical findings indicating involvement does not have an indirect effect on the implementation of marketing strategies by marketing managers (Noble and Mokwa 1999), the benefits of involving salespeople in the formation of strategy have been widely espoused in qualitative inquiry (Rouzies et al. 2005; Malshe and Sohi 2009; Malshe and Sohi 2009). The rationale behind this disparity may be due to the fact the empirically-tested involvement measured involvement in strategy *implementation* decisions rather than involvement in strategy *formation* decisions. When salespeople are involved in development of marketing strategies, their motivation is likely to increase. Involving salespeople in strategy development will

² Financial incentives are included in the model to prevent concern this is the dominant motivational driver, however, as a control rather than a hypothesized variable.

motivate salespeople to implement the strategy as it causes them to be more intimately tied to the success or failure of the strategy. Involving salespeople in the formation of strategy can increase their perception that the strategy will be effectively implemented (Malshe and Sohi 2009) and thus their outcomes will be enhanced. Further, involving salespeople in strategy development makes them “stakeholders” in the strategy and accordingly their sense of accomplishment is higher when the strategy is in some part theirs (Malshe and Sohi 2009). In the context of new products, the involvement of the sales force in new product development has been shown to be extensive and impactful on performance (Judson et al. 2006; Pelham 2006), but not assessed on motivation.

H4: Salesperson involvement in new strategy development is positively associated with motivation to implement new strategies.

Internal Marketing. Internal marketing refers to the extent to which supervisors “sell” the strategy to salespeople by highlighting the benefits of implementing the new strategy (Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000). Internal marketing has been conceptualized in several manners and is widely recognized as an important consideration in the context of salespeople (Ahmed, Rafiq, and Saad 2003; Bell, Mengüç, and Stefani 2004; Wieseke et al. 2009). While notably internal marketing can occur from the salesperson to the organization (e.g. Jones et al. 2005), it is also necessary for the firm to “sell” to the salesperson regarding new strategies. Internal marketing can be used to increase the salesperson’s buy-in that “a proposed marketing strategy or initiative is appropriate and has merit” (Malshe and Sohi 2009, p. 207). Internal marketing has been espoused as an important consideration in the context of new product strategies (Atuahene-Gima 1997) and found to moderate the relationship between salesperson adoption and performance (Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000). I propose internal marketing to

be a key driver of the salesperson's motivation to implement new product strategies. In addition to making the benefits of implementation more salient, internal marketing also serves as a signal of organizational importance to the salesperson and should increase their desire to implement new strategies.

Divergent from the extant literature, however, I explore the impact of internal marketing on the salesperson's motivation to implement strategies by examining divergent foci of internal marketing. The present conceptualization focuses on internal marketing revolving on the explication of the rationale and background behind the new product strategy as it relates to the organization (Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000). While this is certainly an important facet of selling the strategy to the salesperson, the supervisor must sell the strategy far beyond its basic, organizational rationale. To effectively sell the salesperson on the merit of the new product strategy, managers must also discuss with the salesperson the benefits of the strategy to 1) their performance and 2) their customers. Internal marketing can focus on rewards salespeople will reap, both in short-run bonuses and long-run performance, by implementing the new strategies (Busch 1980). Translating this personal value to the salesperson should increase their motivation to implement new strategies. Additionally, salespeople have also been noted to be motivated to act in ways in an inherent desire to meet the needs of their customer (Saxe and Weitz 1982). As such, when supervisors are able to sell the salesperson on the value of implementing new strategies for their customers, their motivation to implement should also increase. By capturing these different foci, a more articulated conceptualization of internal marketing can be advanced.

H5: Internal marketing regarding the (a) organization, (b) individual, and (c) customer benefits of new strategies is positively associated with the salesperson's motivation to implement new strategies.

Behavioral Controls. Sales force control systems pertain to a firm's processes for monitoring, directing, evaluating, and compensating employees (Anderson and Oliver 1987). While at times more than two types are empirically tested (e.g. Evans et al. 2007), the preponderance of research focuses on behavioral versus outcome controls (Anderson and Oliver 1987; Cravens et al. 1993; Oliver and Anderson 1994). Outcome control systems minimize the role of the sales manager in controlling the salesperson and instead rely on objective, measureable results to evaluate and compensate salespeople, while behavioral control systems are indicative of high management involvement and monitoring along with more subjective, opaque means of evaluation (Oliver and Anderson 1994).

The debate between behavioral and outcome control systems is extensive and both methods have merit. The impact of control system type on performance is inconsistent. As Fang, Evans, and Landry (2005) note, outcome control systems have been shown to both positively (Jaworski, Stathakopoulos, and Krishnan 1993) and negatively (Oliver and Anderson 1994) affect performance, or in other cases have no effect (Lusch and Jaworski 1991; Challagalla and Shervani 1996). In the context of strategic implementation, I hypothesize that behavioral-based control systems will decrease the implementation motivation of the salesperson. Behavioral control systems have been shown to retard the implementation effort (Ahearne et al. 2010), and I propose the reason for this adverse impact is its manifestation through the decrease in the salesperson's motivation. Specifically, self-determination theory explicates that conditions undermining the autonomy of employees adversely affect their motivation (Ryan and Deci 2000). Behavioral-based control systems restrict the actions of salesperson and abdicate a portion of their autonomy to their supervisors (Oliver and Anderson 1994; Hartline, Maxham III,

and McKee 2000). Accordingly, the use of behavioral (vs. outcome) control systems will decrease the salesperson's motivation to implement new strategies.

H6: Behavioral controls are negatively associated with the salesperson's motivation to implement new strategies.

Opportunity

I draw upon the strategic implementation literature as well as literature from the sales domain to identify factors likely to impact the salesperson's perception of facilitation in their pursuit of strategic implementation. The extant literature shows how several factors may make implementation more or less conducive, however, no direct connections have been made between proposed organizational facilitators and individual perceptions of opportunity. To provide knowledge on this important issue, I selected variables consistent with previous research employing a strategy/structure/culture approach to identify variables pertinent to the organizational environment (e.g. Pelham and Wilson 1995).

Strategy. For strategy, I assess the effect of the firm's innovativeness on the salesperson's opportunity to implement new strategies. Innovativeness refers to "the firm's capacity to engage in innovation; ... the introduction of new processes, products, or ideas in the organization" (Hult, Hurley, and Knight 2004, p. 429) and is an important factor in firm and new product performance. Firms may take different strategic approaches to how they participate in the market choosing to take a conservative, incremental approach to innovation or a more risky, radical innovation strategy (Kyriakopoulos and Moorman 2004; Atuahene-Gima 2005). In the context of new product and services, the firm's innovativeness is likely to have a positive effect on the

salesperson's perception of opportunity. While there aspects to being on the cutting-edge that may be perceived as inhibitive to introducing new products and services, firm innovativeness should remove barriers to new product performance like oversaturation of the market and as such, facilitate the salesperson. Additionally, firms pursuing this strategy are likely to invest more in new product strategies and be more supportive of salespeople's efforts (Atuahene-Gima 1997). Lastly, and arguably most importantly, innovative firms often possess a higher tolerance for risk and are more adept at reducing barriers (King, Covin, and Hegarty 2003). Stated formally:

H7: Firm innovativeness is positively associated with the salesperson's opportunity to implement new strategies.

Structure. For structure, I examine the impact of centralization on the salesperson's perceived opportunity to implement new strategies. Centralization refers to the extent to which decision-making is concentrated in the organization (Olson, Slater, and Hult 2005). In a highly centralized company, decision making is channeled up and down the pyramid which can be an onerous process. There exists an abundance of support in the extant literature extolling the benefits of flexibility in the strategic process (Aaker and Mascarenhas 1984; Shimizu and Hitt 2004; Fredericks 2005). Centralization can reduce the flow of ideas in an organization and create a time lag due to the distance of decision-making from those enacting new strategies for the organization (Olson, Slater, and Hult 2005). As new strategies may require derivations from a standard approach and some creativity by the salesperson (Atuahene-Gima 1997), centralization will increase the salesperson's perception of barriers to implement new strategies and thus will decrease their perceived opportunity.

H8: Centralization is negatively associated with the salesperson's opportunity to implement new strategies.

Culture. For culture, I examine the impact of the openness of internal communication in the organization. The openness of internal communication reflects the extent to which open communication is valued in the organization (Homburg, Grozdanovic, and Klarmann 2007). Open communication is of paramount importance in the implementation of new strategies as communication and collaboration between different groups, such as marketing and sales, facilitates the implementation process (Rouzies et al. 2005; Guenzi and Troilo 2006; Le Meunier-FitzHugh and Lane 2009). Communication has been discussed as a mechanism with which barriers in strategic implementation can be identified and addressed (Beer 1997). In the context of new strategy implementation, open communication can allow the salesperson to obtain information necessary to remove impediments. As previously espoused, communication is an important factor in the enactment of strategy due to the dynamic environment in which strategic implementation occurs. Strategic implementation is an iterative process with many moving parts (Cravens 1998). To effectively implement new marketing strategies, it is likely salespeople will need to communicate with multiple entities within their organization. If the culture of the company is such that open communication is valued and supported, this should facilitate the salesperson in their implementation effort. As such, openness of internal communication is hypothesized to positively affect the salesperson's perception of opportunity.

H9: Openness of internal communication is positively associated with the salesperson's opportunity to implement new strategies.

Ability

Two primary drivers of salesperson skill are the experiences they possess and the amount of training they receive (Gengler, Howard, and Zolner 1995; Christiansen et al. 1996; Cron et al. 2005; Johlke 2006). These two drivers are comprised of separate components that can in part be directly impacted by the firm. Given the levels of sales participation in the strategy formation process can be relatively low (Malshe and Sohi 2009; Malshe and Sohi 2009), training salespeople on new strategies is of paramount importance. 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 and Latham 1981). Training can allow for the salesperson 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 (Babakus et al. 1996; Christiansen et al. 1996; Ahearne, Jelinek, and Rapp 2005). Training in the domain of introductions of new products and services, however, has yielded some very counterintuitive results. Hultink and Atuahene-Gima (2000) found that not only did training not have a significant impact on the salesperson's new product performance; it actually *decreased* the association between new product adoption and new product performance. The authors speculate this could be due to salespeople viewing training as a form of micromanaging and a waste of time or possibly an underspecified view of new product training. It is the latter of these two suppositions I seek to explore. To my knowledge, no studies have been conducted to address the issue of *type* of training on the implementation of new marketing strategies. This is surprising considering the array of options available such as product, selling process, and customer-focused training (Wotruba and Rochford 1995). Of these options, product

training is used the most frequently to train salespeople on new products. This is unfortunate as this is the training facet that is surmised to have a negative effect on the salesperson (Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000). To increase the salesperson's ability implement new product strategies, I propose that salespeople require multiple forms of training. Divergent from the proposed relationship in the extant literature, I hypothesize new product (strategy-specific), selling process (general skills), and customer market training will increase the salesperson's ability to implement new strategies. Selling process training focuses on developing the broad set of sales skills pertinent to customer interactions such as opening, probing, closing, etc. Customer market training is a type of training provided by organizations to increase the understanding of the salesperson regarding the factors impacting their customers. Both of these training dimensions should positively impact the salesperson's ability to implement new strategies. Further, while new product training may not be as impactful, it does not stand to reason it would have an adverse impact on the salesperson's *ability* to implement new product strategies.

H10: There is a positive association between (a) new product, (b) selling process, and (c) customer market training and the salesperson's ability to implement new strategies.

OUTCOME OF SALESPERSON STRATEGIC IMPLEMENTATION OF NEW MARKETING STRATEGIES

The predominant firm-level focus in strategic implementation research has extensively explored the impact of strategic implementation on organizational performance (Cravens 1998; Noble and Mokwa 1999; Slater and Olson 2001; Lane 2005; Crittenden and Crittenden 2008). While much can be gained from this knowledge, the question of how the implementation of strategy affects the individual remains unanswered. This section seeks to elucidate the

implementation behaviors impact on the success of implementation for the salesperson.

Additionally, this section hypothesizes environmental factors that are proposed to attenuate the relationships between these behaviors and implementation success.

Implementation Behaviors and Implementation Success

To establish nomological validity, it is important to show that the identified behaviors actually lead to successful implementation. Implementation success is defined as the extent to which marketing strategies were effectively implemented amongst the salesperson's customers. As the connection between effort and performance has been established in the literature and responsiveness and coordination should have a positive association with performance, these relationships will be tested, however, no main effects hypotheses are advanced. I instead advance a series of conditional hypotheses explicating the conditions under which the main effects are likely to be attenuated. In this pursuit, I use customer demandingness, competitive intensity, and technological change as moderators as they "represent the three fundamental forces in markets: customer, competitor, and technology" (Li and Calantone 1998, p. 18). These variables have been used in various combinations in a multitude of marketing strategy contexts (Li and Calantone 1998; Wang and Netemeyer 2002; Zhou et al. 2007; Spillecke and Brettel 2012).

Customer Demandingness. Customer demandingness refers to the level and sophistication of buyers' requirements (Li and Calantone 1998; Wang and Netemeyer 2002). While the literature clearly states that customer expectations continue to increase overall (Jaramillo, Mulki, and Marshall 2005), different salespeople have customer bases with varying levels of demandingness. Customer demandingness can vary as a function of the salespersons industry (some industries have more demanding customers in general) or their specific position

within their organization (some accounts are more demanding than others within the firm's portfolio of customers) (Li and Calantone 1998).

Customer demandingness is expected to moderate all three implementation behaviors' effects on implementation success. More demanding customers are more likely than less demanding ones to have an expectation of introduction to the latest product innovations thus making responsiveness an expectation rather than a value-added activity. Additionally, when customers are highly demanding, the salesperson must expend more effort to yield successful implementation than when customers are less demanding. Salespeople must work hard on implementing plans associated with introducing new products/services with customers possessing higher levels of expectations. Finally, demanding customers by definition have the expectation that their complex and sophisticated requirements are met requiring greater implementation coordination for the same amount of implementation success. In sum, when customer are highly demanding, the positive relationships between implementation responsiveness, effort, and coordination and implementation success are reduced requiring higher input levels to yield the same level of outcome. Stated formally:

H11: Customer demandingness attenuates the positive association between (a) implementation responsiveness, (b) implementation effort, (c) implementation coordination, and implementation success by the salesperson.

Competitive Intensity. Competitive intensity refers to the degree of competition in an industry (Slater and Narver 1994). The competitive landscape the firm operates in has a substantial impact on the translation of their actions to performance. Competitive intensity has been shown to moderate the effects of a vast number of organizational orientations and actions on firm performance outcomes (Ramaswamy 2001; Tsai, Chou, and Kuo 2008; Brown et al.

2011). Perceived competitive intensity also has a significant impact on the salesperson affecting their attitudes, behaviors, and performance (Schwepker and Ingram 1994; Dubinsky 1999; Schwepker 1999; Jaramillo and Mulki 2008)

As it pertains to the implementation of new marketing strategies, when markets are not very competitive, the salesperson's responsiveness, effort, and coordination (much like the firm's) (Houston 1986; Jaworski and Kohli 1993), are more easily converted to implementation success as customers have less alternatives. In highly competitive markets, however, higher levels of salesperson responsiveness, effort, and coordination are necessary to yield the same level of implementation success. Salespeople need not be extra responsive or expend tremendous effort if they have the advantageous position of being in an industry with very little competitive pressure and thus these behaviors will have a stronger impact on implementation success under this condition. Additionally, well-conceived and organizationally-coordinated implementation is a necessity when the customer has many options to choose from. If salespeople operate in an environment in which competition is less fierce, however, these activities translate more easily to success.

H12: Competitive intensity attenuates the positive association between (a) implementation responsiveness, (b) implementation effort, (c) implementation coordination, and implementation success by the salesperson.

Technological Turbulence. Technological turbulence refers to the rate of technological change in an industry (Jaworski and Kohli 1993). Similarly to competitive intensity, technological turbulence can have a pronounced impact on the firm and its performance. Also similar, technological turbulence has been empirically shown to affect the relationships of a wide array of organizational actions and orientations and firm performance (Calantone, Garcia, and

Dröge 2003; Hanvanich, Sivakumar, and Hult 2006; Grewal et al. 2011). Technological turbulence has also been espoused in the extant literature to impact the salesperson by requiring greater learning and effort in instances of high technological turbulence (Chonko et al. 2002; Chonko et al. 2003; Jones, Chonko, and Roberts 2004).

In examining the implementation of new marketing strategies in the context of new products/services, technological turbulence should impact the conversion of implementation behaviors to implementation success. When technology is highly turbulent, new products can become old technology very quickly and as such, quick response by the salesperson is necessary to prevent obsolescence. Accordingly, when technological turbulence is high, higher levels of implementation responsiveness are needed to result in the same level of implementation successful attained when technological turbulence is low. Additionally, rapidly changing technology requires greater effort from the salesperson to understand changes to customer needs and ways of meeting said needs. As such, more implementation effort is likely to be necessary to achieve the same level of implementation success when technology is highly turbulent. Finally, high levels of technological change may also necessitate more coordination and adaptation with customers to yield implementation success. Higher levels of technological change can require increase quarterbacking of the organization's members to assure strategies are implemented in a timely and relevant manner. Stated formally:

H13: Technological turbulence attenuates the positive association between (a) implementation responsiveness, (b) implementation effort, (c) implementation coordination, and implementation success by the salesperson.

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to delineate the research methodology used to test the relationships hypothesized in the previous chapter. I first discuss the data collection process and resulting sample characteristics. Next, I provide detail on the measurement development process and provide definitions for the constructs and proposed measurement scales.

DATA COLLECTION AND SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

To promote generalizability to the population of salespeople implementing strategies in a variety of organizational and industrial contexts, it is necessary to select a sampling frame that provides a heterogeneous sample of salespeople. Though single-firm sampling frames are used in sales research and do have the advantage of higher response rates (e.g. Dixon and Schertzer 2005; Mulki et al. 2008), they do not allow for inter-organizational variance. As such, I am making a trade-off sacrificing response rate for representativeness.

Examination of recent survey research conducted in the sales domain reveals relatively low response rates associated with multiple-organization survey research. Table 4 shows some of the most current sales survey research articles, the source of the sample, number of respondents, and response rate.

Table 4: Recent Response Rates in Sales Research

Authors	Sample Source	Respondents	Response Rate
(Miao and Evans 2007)	Commercial Mailing List	106	17.6%
(Darrat, Amyx, and Bennett 2010)	Zoomerang Panel	557	19.41%
(Chakrabarty, Brown, and Widing 2010)	Commercial Mailing List	241	10.39%
(Friend et al. 2013)	Salesperson Online Panel	829	34%
(Amyx et al. 2008)	Commercial Mailing List	132	8.81%
(Ross and Robertson 2003)	Commercial Mailing List	389	17%

Due to these low response rates and the need for a relatively large sample to conduct the constraining factor analysis, data collection was conducted through a panel data collection organization (SurveyMonkey). SurveyMonkey (and formerly Zoomerang) maintains a nationally-representative panel of business-to-business salespeople and data from this source in examinations involving the salesperson has appeared in multiple academic journal articles (e.g. Darrat, Amyx, and Bennett 2010; Friend et al. 2013) . As Darrat et al. (2010) note, recently high-quality business journals have been publishing online panel data extensively and many of these studies involve salespeople (Grisaffe and Jaramillo 2007; Gonzalez et al. 2010; Rutherford et al. 2011). An invitation requesting participation in the survey was sent to all panel members employed in the US in sales-related positions (6,596 panel members in total). Participants were offered 50 Zoompoints redeemable for merchandise for their completion of the survey. In total, the survey was accessed by 1,513 panel members. The vast majority of these potential participants indicated they were primarily involved in business-to-consumer rather than business-to-business sales. As the intent of this dissertation is to examine strategic implementation by business-to-business salespeople, they were not deemed acceptable to take survey. After attaining 300 acceptable responses, the survey was closed yielding a 19.8% response rate. Of these 300 responses, 23 were deleted for missing or inaccurate data leaving a total of 277 respondents (18.3%)

The resulting sample is comprised of a gender balanced (40.1% female), experienced (mean sales experience 15.1 years), educated (majority possessing a 4-year college degree or higher), well-compensated (mean salary \$69,100) sample of business-to-business salespeople from multiple industries calling on many different types of customers as shown in Table 5.

Table 5
Respondent Profile

	Frequency	Percent of Total
Gender		
Male	166	59.9%
Female	111	40.1%
Age		
20 - 29 years	43	15.5%
30 - 39 years	67	24.2%
40 - 49 years	61	22.0%
50 - 59 years	61	22.1%
60 plus years	45	16.2%
Highest Level of Education Achieved		
Middle School	2	.7%
High School	60	21.7%
2-Year College Degree	58	20.9%
4-Year College Degree	118	42.6%
Masters Degree	34	12.3%
Terminal Degree (Ph.D, J.D., etc.)	5	1.8%
Sales Experience		
1 - 5 years	72	26.0%
6 - 10 years	53	19.2%
11 - 20 years	72	26.0%
Greater than 20 years	80	28.8%
Industry		
Medical/Pharmaceutical	23	8.3%
Technology/Communications	47	17%
Transportation/Logistics	13	4.7%
Financial Services/Consulting	29	10.5%
Consumer Goods	92	33.2%
Other	73	26.4%
Type of Party Selling To		
Industrial suppliers	17	6.1%
Industrial manufacturers	37	13.4%
Wholesalers	45	16.2%
Retailers	119	43.0%
Other (please specify)	59	21.3%

MEASURE DEVELOPMENT

Several of the scales used to measure the constructs in the model are adopted or modified from existing measures. Other constructs, however, have no existing measures in the extant literature and thus new measures were created. New scales were developed utilizing procedures common to marketing scale development. The first step in the creation of a new measure for a construct is specifying the construct definition (Churchill 1979; Rossiter 2002). 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 and Bernstein 1994). These items were carefully edited to maximize their clarity and were reviewed by experts to assess the face validity and assure all facets of the constructs have been captured (Churchill 1979).

After incorporating the recommendations from the experts, the new scales were distributed to a small convenience sample of salespeople. The use of convenience samples in the initial purification of scales is common practice in marketing examinations (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer, and Burton 1990; Lichtenstein, Ridgway, and Netemeyer 1993; Pritchard, Havitz, and Howard 1999). In total, 28 business-to-business salespeople in the financial services, consumer durables, and consumer nondurables sectors took the initial survey and provided feedback on the items. These salespeople provided detailed feedback on their perception of item efficacy and clarity for all scales included in the instrument. I used multiple modes of collection to maximize the amount of feedback generated from this pretest sample for incorporation into the survey instrument. I used a common pretesting approach of talking with participants after they took the pretest and discussing areas of concern. I also included a text box after every set of

questions so that the salespeople could write down their comments and concerns immediately rather than having to recall them at a later time. By using both of these approaches, rich information was gleaned and scale content and format was altered consistent with salesperson feedback to optimize the items for the main data collection.

As part of the development and purification process, care was taken to reduce biases both a priori and statistically (see Chapter 5). When using a single form of self-report data, as is often done in survey research, concerns about biases affecting the veracity of the data abound. Careful planning can reduce these biases and post hoc analyses can estimate and partial out their impact. A substantial bias concern for researchers using a survey approach is common method variance (CMV). CMV refers to “variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent” (Podsakoff et al. 2003, p. 879) and represents one of the primary sources of measurement error. I sought to reduce CMV by careful planning and survey design. First, anonymity was clearly stated and respondents were assured there are no right or wrong answers to prevent evaluation apprehension (Podsakoff et al. 2003). Additionally, different question formats inserted into the survey can help reduce method bias (Rindfleisch et al. 2008). Accordingly, in addition to the primary Likert-type scales, I used a semantic differential format. Last, the scale anchors were varied throughout the survey.

CONSTRUCTS MEASURED

As noted in order to operationalize the hypothesized constructs, explicit construct definitions are requisite (Churchill 1979; Rossiter 2002). The following section explicates the definitions of the variables utilized in this examination and citations where applicable.

Focal Construct – Salesperson Implementation of Marketing Strategies

Implementation responsiveness refers to the extent to which the salesperson responds quickly to new marketing strategies. The items for this construct are adapted from the Homburg, Grozdanovic, and Klarmann (2007) responsiveness scale. This is a four-item, Likert scale.

Implementation effort refers to the extent to which the salesperson directs their energy to the implementation of new marketing strategies. Items are adapted Fu et al.'s (2010) salesperson selling intention scale. This is a four-item, Likert scale.

Implementation coordination refers to the extent to which the salesperson organizes the efforts of other members within their organization to enact new marketing strategies. This is a new, reflective, Likert scale with seven items.

MOA Variables

Motivation refers to the extent to which the salesperson has the desire or willingness to act on new marketing strategies. The four items for this Likert scale are drawn from Sääksjärvi and Samiee (2011) and Schmitz (2012).

Opportunity pertains to the extent to which the salesperson perceives they receive the necessary support to carrying out new marketing strategies. This is a new reflective scale comprised of four Likert-type items.

Ability is defined as the knowledge and skill possessed by the salesperson in implementing new marketing strategies. The six, Likert-type items for this scale were adapted from the extant salesperson self-efficacy scale (Sujan et al. 1994).

MOA Antecedents

Involvement in new strategy development describes the extent to which the salesperson is incorporated in the formation of new marketing strategies. The items for this scale are adapted from Wooldridge and Floyd (1990). This is a six-item, Likert scale.

Internal marketing refers to the extent to which supervisors “sell” the strategy to salespeople by highlighting the benefits of implementing the new strategy (Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000). To extend insight on this construct, internal marketing is separated into organizational (how the strategy benefits the organization, adapted from Hultink and Atuahene-Gima (2000)), individual (how the strategy benefits the salesperson personally, new), and customer (how the strategy benefits the salesperson’s customers, new) facets. These constructs are measured by four, three, and three-item Likert scales respectively.

Behavioral controls refer to the extent to which salespeople are evaluated by their actions instead of their outcomes. Oliver and Anderson’s (1994) scale is adapted as a five-item, semantic differential scale for this measure (high behavioral, low outcome).

Firm innovativeness refers to a business unit's overall strategy of innovation in introducing new products and creating change in the market. These measures are adapted from Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster (1993). This is a six-item, Likert scale.

Centralization pertains to the extent to which decision-making is concentrated. I use the five-time, Likert scale developed by Jaworski and Kohli (1993) to capture this construct.

Openness of communication refers to the extent to which open communication is valued in the organization. The four-item, Likert scale developed by Homburg and Pflesser (2000) is used to measure this construct.

Training – new product pertains to 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.

Training - selling process refers to the extent to which the salesperson receives training on the key parts of the selling process. This is a new, reflective, Likert scale, but its five items are based on selling components as identified by Cron et al. (2005).

Training – customer market refers to the extent to which the salesperson receives training pertinent to better understanding their customers' business environments. This is a new reflective scale with four Likert-type items.

Moderators

Customer demandingness refers to the level and sophistication of buyers' requirements. These items are adapted from Wang and Netemeyer (2002). This is a four-item, Likert scale.

Competitive intensity refers to the degree of competition in an industry. The five-item Likert scale developed by Slater and Narver (1994) is used to capture this construct.

Technological turbulence refers to the rate of technological change. Items adapted from Sethi and Iqbal (2007) and Jaworski and Kohli (1993) are used to measure this construct. This is a three-item, Likert scale.

Outcome Variable

Implementation success refers to the extent to which implementation efforts are considered a success by the salesperson. The four items for this Likert scale are adapted from Noble and Mokwa (1999).

Control Variables

Financial rewards refer to the extent to which the firm provides financial inducements for new strategy implementation by the salesperson. This is a new, reflective, four-item Likert scale.

New product complexity refers to the degree to which new products/services are perceived as being complicated. This measure is adapted from (Sohi 1991) and contains four, Likert-type items.

New product innovativeness refers to the degree to which products introduced by a company are perceived as new and unique relative to the other products the firm sells. This measure is adapted from Wu, Balasubramanian, and Mahajan (2004) and is comprised of four, Likert-type items.

Role autonomy refers to the extent to which the salesperson has discretion in their implementation of marketing strategies. The four, Likert-type items from the work of Noble and Mokwa (1999) are used to capture this construct.

Salesperson experience is measured as a single-item measure of a salesperson's sales experience. The *number of accounts handled* by the salesperson is also captured by a single-item measure of accounts handled. Finally, *firm size* is captured by using the commonly-used measure of number of employees in the firm.

CHAPTER FIVE

Data Analysis

Subsequent to the data collection, several analyses were conducted to establish the reliability and validity of the measures. The remainder of this section details these analyses and the procedures used to test the hypotheses advanced in the conceptual model.

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Reliability

To provide an initial examination of the underlying structure of the items in this examination, a principal components exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed using principal components Varimax rotation. Examination of the EFA revealed a systemic issue with the reverse-coded items in the survey. As recent research has shown, reverse-coded items are consistently problematic with low loadings and reliabilities on their proposed constructs (Weijters and Baumgartner 2012). Further, reverse-coded item may distort the factor structure causing misspecification of the latent factors (Marsh 1996; Weijters and Baumgartner 2012). Accordingly, the reverse coded items were eliminated from their respective constructs.

Subsequent to this process, the reliabilities of the various scales were assessed by computing the coefficient alpha for each scale. To indicate a reliably measured construct, the alpha coefficients for each scale should be in excess of .7 (Nunnally 1978). The individual items of any scales failing to meet this threshold were assessed and items with low item-to-total correlations were eliminated from their respective scales. Only one item was dropped from all the scales in the examination as a result of this process. This item was a semantic differential question capturing behavioral control with a item-to-total correlation of .32. In addition to computing the alphas, I ran the composite reliabilities for all included constructs (Fornell and

Larcker 1981). Composite reliabilities are inherently superior to coefficient alphas in assessing reliability as they refute the assumption in calculating alphas that the indicators have equal factor loadings and error variances (Styles 1998). Both the alphas and composite reliabilities are reported in Tables 6 – 30. As the tables show, the constructs included in this examination show good reliability with the lowest composite reliability for any construct at .81 and the average composite reliability at .92.

Table 6
Implementation Responsiveness

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Implementation Responsiveness	Source (Homburg, Grozdanovic, and Klarmann 2007)		
The extent to which the salesperson responds quickly to new marketing strategies. When asked to implement plans associated with introducing new products/services, I...	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Ind. Std. Loading
1. respond rapidly	.84	.90	.89
2. quickly engage in the necessary activities	.86	.90	.92
3. swiftly react to the request	.85	.90	.89
4. start doing so as soon as possible	.77	.93	.80
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.93		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 2.47, p > .05$$

$$NFI = .99$$

$$CFI = .99$$

$$IFI = .99$$

$$RMSEA = .03$$

$$SRMR = .01$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .01$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .93$$

$$AVE = .77$$

Table 7
Implementation Effort

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Implementation Effort	Source (Fu et al. 2010)		
The extent to which the salesperson directs their energy to the implementation of new marketing strategies.	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
When asked to implement plans associated with introducing new products/services, I...			
1. put a lot of effort into doing so	.82	.91	.86
2. work intensely to carry them out	.85	.90	.89
3. spend a lot of time on them	.84	.91	.88
4. direct much energy to doing so	.83	.91	.88
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.93		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 18.89, p < .001$$

$$NFI = .96$$

$$CFI = .97$$

$$IFI = .97$$

$$RMSEA = .18$$

$$SRMR = .03$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .03$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .93$$

$$AVE = .77$$

Table 8
Implementation Coordination

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Implementation Coordination	Source New		
	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
The extent to which the salesperson organizes the efforts of other members within their organization to enact new marketing strategies.			
When asked to implement plans associated with introducing new products/services, I...			
1. coordinate with other members of my company to carry them out	.66	.93	.65
2. provide leadership within my organization to assure they are implemented	.80	.91	.82
3. orchestrate the process internally	.76	.92	.78
4. work with coworkers in my company to enact them	.73	.92	.72
5. organize the efforts of members of my company to do so	.84	.91	.89
6. direct the actions of members of my organization to carry them out	.81	.91	.88
7. verify involved coworkers do what they are supposed to do to implement them	.79	.91	.85
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.93		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$\chi^2 (14) = 97.70, p < .001$

NFI = .93

CFI = .94

IFI = .94

RMSEA = .15

SRMR = .06

Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual = .05

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

CR = .93

AVE = .65

Table 9
Motivation

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Motivation	Source (Sääksjärvi and Samiee 2011)		
The extent to which the salesperson has the desire or willingness to act on new marketing strategies. In regard to plans associated with introducing new products/services,...	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
1. I am motivated to carry them out	.84	.91	.88
2. Enacting them is important to me	.85	.91	.89
3. I am driven to execute them	.80	.93	.83
4. I have a strong desire to carry them out	.88	.90	.92
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.93		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 1.19, p > .05$$

$$NFI = 1.00$$

$$CFI = 1.00$$

$$IFI = 1.00$$

$$RMSEA = .00$$

$$SRMR = .01$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .0$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .93$$

$$AVE = .78$$

Table 10
Opportunity

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Opportunity	Source New		
The extent to which the salesperson perceives their organizational environment as conducive of carrying out new marketing strategies. In regard to carrying out plans associated with introducing new products/services,...	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
1. I have ample opportunity to act	.76	.93	.77
2. I am enabled for success	.83	.91	.85
3. I receive help when needed	.87	.89	.93
4. I am supported	.87	.89	.93
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.92		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 11.61, p < .01$$

$$NFI = .98$$

$$CFI = .98$$

$$IFI = .98$$

$$RMSEA = .13$$

$$SRMR = .03$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .02$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .93$$

$$AVE = .77$$

Table 11
Ability

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Ability	Source (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994)		
The extent to which the salesperson has the desire or willingness to act on new marketing strategies. In regard to plans associated with introducing new products/services,...	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
1. I am good at carrying them out	.71	.91	.76
2. I am skillful in performing them	.83	.90	.88
3. I know the right things to do to carry them out	.78	.90	.83
4. I have a knack for executing them	.77	.90	.81
5. I know a great deal about them	.80	.90	.82
6. I have sufficient knowledge about them	.73	.91	.76
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.92		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (9) = 25.19, p < .01$$

$$NFI = .98$$

$$CFI = .98$$

$$IFI = .98$$

$$RMSEA = .08$$

$$SRMR = .03$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .03$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .92$$

$$AVE = .66$$

Table 12
Involvement in Development

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Involvement in New Strategy	Source (Wooldridge and Floyd 1990)		
Development	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
The extent to which the salesperson is incorporated in the development of new marketing strategies. Please indicate the extent to which you are involved in the following:			
1. Identifying problems with current products/services	.74	.94	.77
2. Proposing objectives for new products/services	.86	.93	.90
3. Generating options for new products/services	.86	.92	.90
4. Evaluating new product/service options	.87	.92	.90
5. Providing input on which new products/services would work best in the field	.80	.93	.82
6. Choosing new products/services	.80	.93	.83
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.94		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$\chi^2 (9) = 32.49, p < .001$

NFI = .97

CFI = .98

IFI = .98

RMSEA = .10

SRMR = .03

Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual = .03

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

CR = .94

AVE = .73

Table 13
Internal Marketing – Organizational

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Very Low Extent to Very High Extent

Scale for Internal Marketing - Organizational	Source (Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000)		
The extent to which supervisors “sell” the strategy to salespeople by highlighting the benefits of implementing the new strategy for the organization. Please indicate the extent to which your supervisor explains the following to you regarding new products/services:	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
1. the rationale for their introduction	.78	.86	.79
2. the research behind their development	.71	.89	.72
3. how they fit in the company’s strategic objectives	.81	.85	.91
4. how they benefit the organization	.78	.86	.88
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.89		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 24.44, p < .001$$

NFI = .95

CFI = .95

IFI = .95

RMSEA = .20

SRMR = .05

Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual = .04

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

CR = .90

AVE = .69

Table 14
Internal Marketing – Individual

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Very Low Extent to Very High Extent

Scale for Internal Marketing - Individual	Source New		
The extent to which supervisors “sell” the strategy to salespeople by highlighting the benefits of implementing the new strategy to them personally. Please indicate the extent to which your supervisor explains the following to you regarding new products/services:	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
1. the incentives for introducing them	.82	.87	.88
2. how they will affect your performance	.82	.86	.89
3. the personal benefits you will receive by introducing them	.81	.87	.86
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.91		

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

CR = .91

AVE = .77

Table 15
Internal Marketing – Customer

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Very Low Extent to Very High Extent

Scale for Internal Marketing - Customer	Source New		
<p>The extent to which supervisors “sell” the strategy to salespeople by highlighting the benefits of implementing the new strategy to their customers.</p> <p>Please indicate the extent to which your supervisor explains the following to you regarding new products/services:</p>	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
1. how they meet your customers’ needs	.90	.93	.94
2. the manner in which they provide your customers with the best possible solutions	.91	.93	.94
3. how they help your customers	.90	.93	.93
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.95		

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

CR = .96

AVE = .88

Table 16
Behavioral Controls

Scale Type: Seven-point Semantic Differential Scale

Scale for Behavioral Controls	Source (Oliver and Anderson 1994)		
The extent to which salespeople are evaluated by actions instead of outcomes. Please indicate how salespeople in your sales unit are evaluated (closer to either side means to a higher extent this way):	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
1. By the only the bottom line/By many different factors**	.32	.85	N/A
2. By tangible results/By intangible factors	.70	.74	.79
3. By their outcomes/By their inputs	.69	.74	.78
4. By quantitative measures/By qualitative assessment	.70	.74	.78
5. By objective performance/By subjective performance	.59	.77	.72
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.85		

** = item deleted

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 9.32, p < .01$$

NFI = .98

CFI = .98

IFI = .98

RMSEA = .12

SRMR = .03

Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual = .03

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

CR = .85

AVE = .59

Table 17
Firm Innovativeness

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Firm Innovativeness	Source (Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster 1993)		
	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
Firm strategy of innovation in introducing new products and creating change in the market.			
Where I work...			
1. we are first-to-market with new products and services.	.78	.94	.79
2. we are at the cutting edge of technological innovation.	.81	.94	.82
3. we are a market leaders.	.79	.94	.81
4. we change the nature of the competition.	.87	.93	.91
5. we innovate revolutionary change.	.88	.93	.92
6. we initiate change in market conditions.	.87	.93	.91
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.95		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$\chi^2 (9) = 39.41$, $p < .001$

NFI = .97

CFI = .98

IFI = .98

RMSEA = .11

SRMR = .03

Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual = .03

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

CR = .95

AVE = .74

Table 18
Centralization

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Centralization	Source (Jaworski and Kohli 1993)		
	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
The extent to which decision-making is concentrated.			
Where I work...			
1. there can be little action taken until a supervisor approves a decision.	.70	.93	.71
2. a person who wants to make his own decision would be quickly discouraged.	.79	.91	.80
3. even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.	.85	.90	.89
4. I have to ask my boss before I do almost anything.	.86	.89	.92
5. any decision I make has to have my boss' approval.	.81	.90	.87
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.92		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (5) = 17.27, p < .01$$

$$NFI = .98$$

$$CFI = .99$$

$$IFI = .99$$

$$RMSEA = .09$$

$$SRMR = .03$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .03$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .92$$

$$AVE = .71$$

Table 19
Openness of Communication

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Openness of Communication	Source (Homburg and Pflesser 2000)		
	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
The extent to which open communication is valued in the organization.			
Where I work...			
1. open communication is regarded highly.	.83	.93	.86
2. we aspire to a high degree of interfunctional information exchange.	.87	.92	.90
3. we value information flow.	.87	.92	.90
4. we aspire to proactive communication	.88	.92	.92
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.94		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 3.41, p > .05$$

$$NFI = .99$$

$$CFI = .99$$

$$IFI = .99$$

$$RMSEA = .05$$

$$SRMR = .01$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .01$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .94$$

$$AVE = .80$$

Table 20
Training – New Products

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Very Low Extent to Very High Extent

Scale for Training – New Products	Source New		
The extent to which a company has instructed the salesperson on the specifics about new products/services Please indicate the extent to which you receive training on the following:	Item-to- Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
1. New product/service specifications	.88	.95	.90
2. New product/service features	.90	.95	.92
3. New product/service designs	.92	.94	.95
4. How new products/services work	.90	.95	.93
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.96		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 2.04, p > .05$$

$$NFI = 1.00$$

$$CFI = 1.00$$

$$IFI = 1.00$$

$$RMSEA = .01$$

$$SRMR = .01$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .01$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .96$$

$$AVE = .86$$

Table 21
Training – Selling Process

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Very Low Extent to Very High Extent

Scale for Training – Selling Process	Source New		
The extent to which a company has instructed the salesperson on general selling skills	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
Please indicate the extent to which you receive training on the following:			
1. Opening sales calls	.81	.94	.83
2. Listening effectively to customers	.87	.93	.90
3. Conducting a sales pitch	.85	.93	.87
4. Handling customer objections	.90	.92	.94
5. Meeting customer needs	.83	.94	.87
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.95		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (5) = 8.24, p > .05$$

$$NFI = .99$$

$$CFI = .99$$

$$IFI = .99$$

$$RMSEA = .05$$

$$SRMR = .02$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .01$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .95$$

$$AVE = .78$$

Table 22
Training – Customer Market

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Very Low Extent to Very High Extent

Scale for Training – Customer Market	Source New		
The extent to which the salesperson receives training pertinent to better understanding their customers' business environments Please indicate the extent to which you receive training on the following:	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
1. Your customers' markets	.83	.88	.90
2. Factors impacting how your customers do business	.84	.88	.90
3. Your customers' customers	.84	.88	.88
4. Offerings from competitors	.72	.92	.75
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.92		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 6.87, p < .05$$

$$NFI = .99$$

$$CFI = .99$$

$$IFI = .99$$

$$RMSEA = .09$$

$$SRMR = .02$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .02$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .92$$

$$AVE = .74$$

Table 23
Implementation Success

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Implementation Success	Source (Noble and Mokwa 1999)		
	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
The extent to which the implementation effort is considered a success by the salesperson Amongst my customers, over the past 12 months...			
1. New products/services were effectively introduced	.76	.93	.79
2. Introductions of new products/services were generally considered a great success	.82	.91	.86
3. I personally think introductions of new products/services were successful	.88	.89	.93
4. Introductions of new products/services turned out well	.88	.89	.93
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.93		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = .03, p > .05$$

$$NFI = 1.00$$

$$CFI = 1.00$$

$$IFI = 1.00$$

$$RMSEA = .00$$

$$SRMR = .00$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .00$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .93$$

$$AVE = .78$$

Table 24
Customer Demandingness

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Customer Demandingness	Source (Wang and Netemeyer 2002)		
	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
The level and sophistication of buyers' requirements			
My customers...			
1. are demanding in regard to product/service quality and reliability	.77	.87	.83
2. have high expectations for service and support	.81	.85	.88
3. require a perfect fit between their needs and our product/service offerings	.74	.88	.78
4. expect me to deliver the highest levels of product and service quality	.78	.87	.83
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.90		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 13.32, p < .01$$

$$NFI = .97$$

$$CFI = .98$$

$$IFI = .98$$

$$RMSEA = .14$$

$$SRMR = .03$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .03$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .90$$

$$AVE = .69$$

Table 25
Competitive Intensity

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Competitive Intensity	Source (Slater and Narver 1994)		
	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
The degree of competition in an industry			
1. Competition in our industry is cutthroat	.56	.78	.65
2. There are many "promotion wars" in our industry	.65	.75	.74
3. Anything that one competitor can offer, others can match readily	.58	.77	.65
4. Price competition is a hallmark of our industry	.61	.76	.68
5. One hears of a new competitive move almost every day	.56	.78	.65
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.81		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (5) = 16.50, p < .01$$

$$NFI = .96$$

$$CFI = .97$$

$$IFI = .97$$

$$RMSEA = .09$$

$$SRMR = .04$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .04$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .81$$

$$AVE = .46$$

Table 26
Technological Turbulence

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Technological Turbulence	Source (Sethi and Iqbal 2007)		
	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
The rate of technological change.			
1. The technology in our industry is changing rapidly	.75	.85	.82
2. Technological changes provide big opportunities in our industry	.81	.80	.90
3. A large number of new product ideas have been made possible through technological breakthroughs in our industry	.75	.85	.81
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.88		

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

CR = .88
AVE = .71

Table 27
Financial Rewards

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Financial Rewards	Source New		
	Item-to- Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
The extent to which the firm provides financial inducements for new strategy implementation by the salesperson.			
1. I am offered financial incentives to introduce new products/services	.87	.92	.82
2. Part of my compensation is tied to my performance in introducing new products/services	.86	.93	.90
3. I am provided with financial rewards to introduce new products/services	.90	.90	.81
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.94		

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

CR = .94
AVE = .84

Table 28
New Product Complexity

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for New Product Complexity	Source (Sohi 1991)		
	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
The degree to which new products/services are perceived as being complicated.			
The new products/services I introduce...			
1. are complex	.76	.92	.80
2. are difficult to explain to customers	.79	.91	.83
3. require a lot of technical knowledge to understand	.86	.88	.91
4. are complicated	.87	.88	.92
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.92		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 9.76, p < .01$$

$$NFI = .98$$

$$CFI = .99$$

$$IFI = .99$$

$$RMSEA = .12$$

$$SRMR = .02$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .02$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .92$$

$$AVE = .75$$

Table 29
New Product Innovativeness

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for New Product Innovativeness	Source (Wu, Balasubramanian, and Mahajan 2004)		
	Item-to- Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
The degree to which products introduced by a company are perceived as new and unique relative to the other products the firm sells.			
The new products/services I introduce...			
1. have innovative product features	.71	.75	.87
2. have unique features/attributes/benefits to customers	.72	.76	.87
3. are substantially more innovative compared to other products in the market	.69	.76	.71
4. are very different from what we currently sell	.52	.85	.52
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.83		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 15.94, p < .001$$

$$NFI = .96$$

$$CFI = .97$$

$$IFI = .97$$

$$RMSEA = .16$$

$$SRMR = .05$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .04$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .84$$

$$AVE = .57$$

Table 30
Role Autonomy

Scale Type: Seven-point Likert Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree

Scale for Role Autonomy	Source (Noble and Mokwa 1999)		
The extent to which the salesperson has discretion in their implementation of marketing strategies. In carrying out plans associated with introducing new products/services...	Item-to-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted	Individual Std. Loading
1. I am allowed to do as I please	.81	.93	.84
2. I have a great deal of autonomy	.87	.91	.91
3. I feel like I am my own boss	.84	.92	.89
4. I make my own decisions	.89	.91	.93
FINAL COEFFICIENT ALPHA	.94		

Fit Indices For the Scale

$$\chi^2 (2) = 9.18, p < .05$$

$$NFI = .99$$

$$CFI = .99$$

$$IFI = .99$$

$$RMSEA = .11$$

$$SRMR = .02$$

$$\text{Average Off-Diagonal Absolute Standardized Residual} = .02$$

Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
(Fornell and Larcker 1981)

$$CR = .94$$

$$AVE = .80$$

Validity

To test for convergent and discriminant validity, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess the measurement model (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). The chi-square of the model is highly significant indicating an inadequate representation of the variance-covariance matrix; however, the other fit statistics indicate the model fits the data reasonably well ($\chi^2 (5,370) = 8,346.71$, $p < .0001$, CFI .98, IFI .98, RMSEA .05, SRMR .05). The CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR all exceed the recommended values (CFI > .95, RMSEA < .06, and SRMR < .08) for a good-fitting model (Hu and Bentler 1999).

To establish convergent validity, I examined the loadings of the items on their proposed factors. I assessed convergent validity by looking at three pieces of information regarding the loadings. First, all items had highly significant loadings on their respective constructs. Second, all of the items have standardized loadings in excess of the .50 recommended level. Finally, the loadings all drastically exceeded two times the standard error for the item. Table 31 shows the standardized loadings and significance for all items included in the study.

Table 31
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Item Loadings

Constructs and Items	Standardized Loading	t-value	SE	p-value
Implementation Responsiveness				
ImpRes1	0.89	17.35	0.07	<.05
ImpRes2	0.92	18.28	0.06	<.05
ImpRes3	0.89	17.59	0.06	<.05
ImpRes4	0.80	14.83	0.07	<.05
Implementation Effort				
ImpEff1	0.87	16.86	0.06	<.05
ImpEff2	0.90	17.59	0.06	<.05
ImpEff3	0.86	16.61	0.06	<.05
ImpEff4	0.87	16.82	0.06	<.05
Implementation Coordination				
ImpCoor1	0.67	11.69	0.08	<.05
ImpCoor2	0.83	15.64	0.07	<.05
ImpCoor3	0.79	14.42	0.08	<.05
ImpCoor4	0.75	13.38	0.07	<.05
ImpCoor5	0.88	17.16	0.08	<.05
ImpCoor6	0.86	16.57	0.08	<.05
ImpCoor7	0.84	15.96	0.08	<.05
Motivation				
Motiv1	0.88	17.32	0.05	<.05
Motiv2	0.89	17.60	0.06	<.05
Motiv3	0.84	15.82	0.06	<.05
Motiv4	0.91	18.26	0.06	<.05
Opportunity				
Oppor1	0.78	14.34	0.07	<.05
Oppor2	0.86	16.63	0.07	<.05
Oppor3	0.92	18.53	0.07	<.05
Oppor4	0.93	18.74	0.07	<.05

Table 31 (cont.)
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Item Loadings

Constructs and Items	Standardized Loading	t-value	SE	p-value
Ability				
Able1	0.77	14.04	0.05	<.05
Able2	0.87	16.91	0.05	<.05
Able3	0.83	15.69	0.06	<.05
Able4	0.80	14.85	0.06	<.05
Able5	0.81	15.19	0.06	<.05
Able6	0.77	13.91	0.06	<.05
Involvement in New Strategy Development				
Involve1	0.77	14.08	0.09	<.05
Involve2	0.90	17.76	0.09	<.05
Involve3	0.90	17.72	0.09	<.05
Involve4	0.90	17.72	0.09	<.05
Involve5	0.82	15.45	0.09	<.05
Involve6	0.83	15.78	0.1	<.05
Internal Marketing - Organization				
IMOrg1	0.81	14.92	0.08	<.05
IMOrg2	0.74	13.19	0.09	<.05
IMOrg3	0.89	17.41	0.07	<.05
IMOrg4	0.88	16.97	0.07	<.05
Internal Marketing - Individual				
IMPerf1	0.89	17.29	0.09	<.05
IMPerf2	0.87	16.77	0.08	<.05
IMPerf3	0.86	16.53	0.09	<.05
Internal Marketing - Customer				
IMCus1	0.94	19.11	0.07	<.05
IMCus2	0.94	19.15	0.07	<.05
IMCus3	0.93	18.85	0.07	<.05

Table 31 (cont.)
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Item Loadings

Constructs and Items	Standardized Loading	t-value	SE	p-value
Behavioral Controls				
Behav2	0.79	14.01	0.1	<.05
Behav3	0.78	13.69	0.1	<.05
Behav4	0.78	13.70	0.1	<.05
Behav5	0.72	12.16	0.1	<.05
Firm Innovativeness				
FInn1	0.79	14.65	0.08	<.05
FInn2	0.82	15.45	0.09	<.05
FInn3	0.81	15.20	0.09	<.05
FInn4	0.91	18.14	0.08	<.05
FInn5	0.92	18.46	0.08	<.05
FInn6	0.91	18.27	0.07	<.05
Centralization				
Central1	0.71	12.51	0.1	<.05
Central2	0.81	15.00	0.09	<.05
Central3	0.88	17.22	0.09	<.05
Central4	0.93	18.66	0.09	<.05
Central5	0.87	16.71	0.09	<.05
Openness of Communication				
OpComm1	0.87	16.79	0.08	<.05
OpComm2	0.90	17.98	0.08	<.05
OpComm3	0.90	17.82	0.07	<.05
OpComm4	0.92	18.55	0.08	<.05
Training - New Product				
TrNp1	0.91	18.14	0.07	<.05
TrNp2	0.92	18.75	0.07	<.05
TrNp3	0.94	19.43	0.07	<.05
TrNp4	0.93	18.87	0.07	<.05

Table 31 (cont.)
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Item Loadings

Constructs and Items	Standardized Loading	t-value	SE	p-value
Training - Selling Process				
TrSls1	0.83	15.77	0.09	<.05
TrSls2	0.90	17.98	0.08	<.05
TrSls3	0.87	16.87	0.09	<.05
TrSls4	0.94	19.12	0.08	<.05
TrSls5	0.87	17.06	0.08	<.05
Training – Customer Market				
TrCus1	0.90	17.62	0.08	<.05
TrCus2	0.90	17.89	0.08	<.05
TrCus3	0.88	17.01	0.08	<.05
TrCus4	0.75	13.60	0.09	<.05
Customer Demandingness				
CusDem1	0.82	15.14	0.07	<.05
CusDem2	0.87	16.61	0.07	<.05
CusDem3	0.78	14.19	0.07	<.05
CusDem4	0.85	15.98	0.07	<.05
Competitive Intensity				
CompInt1	0.65	10.42	0.09	<.05
CompInt2	0.72	11.85	0.1	<.05
CompInt3	0.67	10.74	0.09	<.05
CompInt4	0.69	11.26	0.09	<.05
CompInt5	0.65	10.43	0.09	<.05
Technological Turbulence				
TTurb1	0.82	15.07	0.08	<.05
TTurb2	0.90	17.38	0.07	<.05
TTurb3	0.81	14.80	0.08	<.05
Financial Incentives				
NpRew1	0.91	18.12	0.09	<.05
NpRew2	0.89	17.40	0.09	<.05
NpRew3	0.95	19.60	0.09	<.05

Table 31 (cont.)
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Item Loadings

Constructs and Items	Standardized Loading	t-value	SE	p-value
New Product Complexity				
NpCmpx1	0.81	14.90	0.09	<.05
NpCmpx2	0.84	15.85	0.09	<.05
NpCmpx3	0.91	18.01	0.09	<.05
NpCmpx4	0.91	17.93	0.09	<.05
New Product Innovativeness				
ProdInn1	0.86	16.31	0.07	<.05
ProdInn2	0.85	16.00	0.06	<.05
ProdInn3	0.74	13.15	0.08	<.05
ProdInn4	0.53	8.60	0.09	<.05
Role Autonomy				
Auton1	0.84	15.99	0.09	<.05
Auton2	0.91	18.09	0.08	<.05
Auton3	0.89	17.41	0.09	<.05
Auton4	0.93	18.79	0.08	<.05
			.	
Implementation Success				
ImpSuc1	0.80	14.83	0.07	<.05
ImpSuc2	0.87	16.74	0.07	<.05
ImpSuc3	0.93	18.73	0.07	<.05
ImpSuc4	0.92	18.51	0.07	<.05
Summary of Fit Statistics: $\chi^2 (5,370) = 8,346.71, p < .0001$ CFI = .98 IFI = .98 RMSEA = .05 SRMR = .05				

To further indicate convergent validity, I computed the average variance extracted (AVE) (Fornell and Larcker 1981). The results showed that most of the constructs were well above the recommended value of .50 (Bagozzi and Yi 1988) with a high average AVE of .73. Only competitive intensity was slightly below the .50 value (.46). These high AVE values further support the case for convergent validity.

The AVEs were also used to assess discriminant validity. The AVE values were compared to the square of the factor inter-correlations (Fornell and Larcker 1981). In all cases the AVE exceeded the squared inter-correlation by wide margin providing strong evidence of discriminant validity. Discriminant validity was further established by the nested model approach advanced by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). In this approach, each item was first set to load on its prescribed construct and the constructs were allowed covary freely. Next, each pair of factors that have potential discriminability concerns was constrained by fixing their covariance to one (implying they are the same construct). In all cases the chi-square values of the constrained-construct models were all significantly higher than their corresponding free-covarying-construct models (chi-square of 3.84 or higher at one degree of freedom). As such, discriminability between the constructs is unlikely to be an issue.

Table 32 shows a summary of the constructs' AVEs and composite reliabilities and Table 33 the construct correlations and descriptive statistics.

Table 32
Average Variance Extracted and Composite Reliabilities Summary

Construct	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Implementation Responsiveness	0.93	0.77
Implementation Effort	0.93	0.77
Implementation Coordination	0.93	0.64
Motivation	0.93	0.78
Opportunity	0.93	0.76
Ability	0.92	0.66
Involvement	0.94	0.73
Internal Marketing - Organization	0.90	0.69
Internal Marketing - Individual	0.91	0.76
Internal Marketing - Customer	0.96	0.88
Behavioral Controls	0.85	0.59
Firm Innovativeness	0.95	0.74
Centralization	0.92	0.71
Openness of Communication	0.94	0.80
Training - New Product	0.96	0.86
Training - Selling Process	0.95	0.78
Training - Customer Market	0.92	0.74
Customer Demandingness	0.90	0.69
Competitive Intensity	0.81	0.46
Technological Turbulence	0.88	0.71
Financial Incentives	0.94	0.84
New Product Complexity	0.92	0.75
New Product Innovativeness	0.84	0.57
Role Autonomy	0.94	0.80
Implementation Success	0.93	0.78

**Table 33:
Correlations and Descriptive Statistics**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Imp. Responsive													
2 Imp. Effort	.55												
3 Imp. Coordination	.47	.49											
4 Motivation	.62	.69	.51										
5 Opportunity	.42	.48	.45	.60									
6 Ability	.63	.68	.55	.72	.47								
7 Involvement	.29	.39	.46	.46	.59	.39							
8 IM – Organization	.47	.45	.48	.40	.49	.41	.41						
9 IM – Individual	.36	.41	.40	.45	.58	.42	.44	.68					
10 IM – Customer	.40	.47	.35	.43	.56	.40	.43	.66	.70				
11 Behavioral Control	-.24	-.05 ²	.06 ²	-.08 ²	.04 ¹	-.19	.16	-.01 ²	.00 ²	-.04 ¹			
12 Firm Innovate	.34	.34	.41	.34	.44	.37	.36	.49	.42	.42	.15 ¹		
13 Centralization	-.07 ²	.17	.18	-.01 ²	-.10 ²	.03 ²	.04 ²	.05 ²	.08 ²	.03 ²	.25	-.01 ²	
14 Open Comm.	.40	.44	.53	.59	.77	.43	.54	.53	.62	.61	.12	.53	-.13 ¹
15 Training – NP	.34	.41	.40	.47	.71	.43	.58	.55	.61	.63	.02 ²	.43	-.03 ²
16 Training – SP	.27	.32	.34	.34	.52	.40	.52	.50	.57	.56	.03 ²	.36	.02 ²
17 Training - CUS	.27	.35	.42	.38	.54	.39	.53	.48	.60	.61	.15	.39	.09 ²
18 Cust. Demanding	.45	.51	.42	.51	.50	.52	.32	.34	.29	.32	-.12	.28	.01 ²
19 Comp. Intensity	.28	.31	.32	.32	.23	.34	.16 ¹	.13 ¹	.09	.12 ¹	-.01 ²	.16	.28
20 Tech Turbulence	.31	.36	.35	.41	.42	.41	.38	.36	.34	.38	-.07 ²	.32	.14 ¹
21 Financial Rewards	.14 ¹	.29	.27	.26	.38	.22	.46	.32	.40	.23	.10 ²	.40	.12 ²
22 Prod. Complexity	-.02 ²	.08 ²	.20	.02 ²	.05 ²	.01 ²	.21	.18	.17	.05 ²	.13 ¹	.14 ¹	.37
23 Prod. Innovative	.34	.51	.41	.51	.49	.46	.54	.41	.43	.41	.10 ²	.46	.18
24 Role Autonomy	.19	.26	.31	.38	.57	.27	.57	.20	.32	.30	.20	.33	-.14 ¹
25 Imp. Success	.39	.41	.38	.46	.60	.46	.53	.39	.43	.49	.04 ²	.43	.05 ²
Mean	5.64	5.52	5.16	5.69	5.38	5.60	4.83	5.15	4.91	5.24	3.87	4.78	3.84
Standard Deviation	1.10	1.05	1.18	1.04	1.24	0.96	1.52	1.31	1.51	1.43	1.32	1.42	1.58
Minimum	1	1.75	1	1	1	2.83	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7

¹Non-significant at .01; ²Non-significant at .05; all unmarked correlations are significant at .01

Table 33 (cont):

Correlations and Descriptive Statistics

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
14 Open Comm.												
15 Training – NP	.65											
16 Training – SP	.56	.71										
17 Training - CUS	.63	.62	.68									
18 Cust. Demanding	.38	.33	.18	.16								
19 Comp. Intensity	.17	.15 ¹	.14 ¹	.15 ¹	.30							
20 Tech Turbulence	.39	.47	.31	.28	.52	.24						
21 Financial Rewards	.37	.47	.42	.39	.20	.14 ¹	.29					
22 Prod. Complexity	.04 ²	.11 ²	.10 ²	.08 ²	.19	.18	.32	.19				
23 Prod. Innovative	.45	.51	.35	.37	.49	.28	.64	.37	.35			
24 Role Autonomy	.55	.37	.23	.32	.36	.14 ¹	.24	.37	.12 ¹	.36		
25 Imp. Success	.57	.55	.42	.42	.42	.25	.47	.39	.03 ²	.56	.45	
Mean	5.20	5.22	5.09	4.96	5.56	4.99	5.18	4.49	4.14	4.90	4.95	5.08
Standard Deviation	1.42	1.38	1.55	1.44	1.15	1.14	1.31	1.76	1.58	1.11	1.54	1.22
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7

¹Non-significant at .01; ²Non-significant at .05; all unmarked correlations are significant at .01

Assessing Common Method Variance in the Measurement Model

In addition to the a priori actions taken to reduce CMV amongst respondents (discussed previously) as well as the partialling out of CMV in the computation of the factor scores (discussed subsequently), I performed the CFA version of Harman's single factor test to test for CMV in the data. 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, further assuage concern of CMV as the chi-square change between models is extremely large ($\chi^2 (300) = 30,981.89$) and highly significant ($p < .0001$).

PATH MODEL ESTIMATION

To test the relationships advanced in the conceptual model, I ran a path model to assess the various hypotheses. Prior to running the path model, I extracted factor scores from the measurement model to use in the analysis. The factor scores were extracted using EQS 6.1 structural equations modeling software and generalized least squares estimation. Factor scores are superior to additive construct composites as they account for item-level measurement error. Further, the computation of factor scores standardizes the variables, which along with the fact the model has sufficient power and the measures used in the analysis are highly reliable, minimizes concern of model perturbation due to non-essential multicollinearity (Cohen et al. 2003; Grewal, Cote, and Baumgartner 2004). This is of importance to the analysis due to testing of the constraining factor model interactions and the multiple interactions included in the structural model.

In estimating the factor scores, I also included common methods factor to extract methods variance from the individual factors. In this approach, I loaded all items onto their proposed factors as well as to a single (common) factor (Bagozzi 2011). This factor represents the variance ascribed to the method as it captures the variance that would be common to all measures in the study. The inclusion of this variable partials out the common methods variance from the individual factors and results in an analysis with reduced concern of methods perturbation. Concern of CMV impact on the results is thus assuaged.

In addition to testing standard main and contingent effects hypotheses, I tested the effects of the MOA variables on the implementation behaviors as series of constraining factors. Constraining factor analysis recognizes the interrelationships between the MOA variables and takes an analytical approach derived from operations management (Siemens, Roth, and

Balasubramanian 2008). The constraining factor approach tests whether increasing the constraining factor (the factor of which the salespeople scores lowest on) results in an increase in behavior. Concurrently, the constraining factor model assesses the impact of increasing non-constraining factors on the behaviors.

To test the constraining factor hypotheses, I followed the approach outlined by Siemsen, Roth, and Balasubramanian (2008). I first examined each respondent's score on the MOA variables. The constraining factor for each individual salesperson was identified and the dummy codes for min-opportunity and min-ability were created with 1 meaning it is the constraining factor, 0 it is not. Interaction terms were then created by multiplying the dummy-coded categories by all of the MOA variables. The formula below specifies the constraining factor model (CFM):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Implementation (R,E,C)} = & \beta_1 M + \beta_2 O + \beta_3 A \\ & + \theta_O + \theta_O (\beta_4 M + \beta_5 O + \beta_6 A) \\ & + \theta_A + \theta_A (\beta_7 M + \beta_8 O + \beta_9 A) \\ & + \beta_{10\text{exper}} + \beta_{11\text{cmsize}} + \beta_{12\text{numact}} \\ & + \beta_{13\text{fininc}} + \beta_{14\text{npcmpx}} + \beta_{15\text{npinn}} \\ & + \beta_{16\text{auton}} + \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

In this model, the variables θ_O and θ_A are the dummy variables that are coded as 1 if its respective opportunity or ability component is the constraining factor, 0 if it is not. $\beta_{10} - \beta_{16}$ are the controls used in this examination discussed in the measures section. As can be seen by the formula, if motivation is the constraining factor, the beta for motivation is simply β_1 . If however, it is opportunity or ability, it is $\beta_1 + \beta_4$ or $\beta_1 + \beta_7$ respectively. Accordingly, to test the significance of these the combined effects, their standard errors need to be recalculated. To do

so, the individual standard errors are converted to a standard error for the sum of the betas by using the following formula:

$$SEb1b4 = \sqrt{SEb1^2 + SEb4^2}$$

I tested the path model using EQS 6.1 structural equations modeling software. Overall, the hypothesized path model fits the data relatively well ($\chi^2 (179) = 664.97$, $p < .0001$, CFI .96, IFI .96, RMSEA .10, SRMR .06). In addition to fitting the data well, this model is sufficiently powered as the MacCallum et al. (1996) calculation estimates model power in excess of 0.96 based on the size of my sample and degrees of freedom in excess of 100. As such, it is unlikely non-significant relationships are due to low statistical power.

Figure 2 shows the empirical model and Tables 34 - 38 summarize the results of the path model that are subsequently discussed.

Figure 2
Empirical Model Depicting Structural Paths

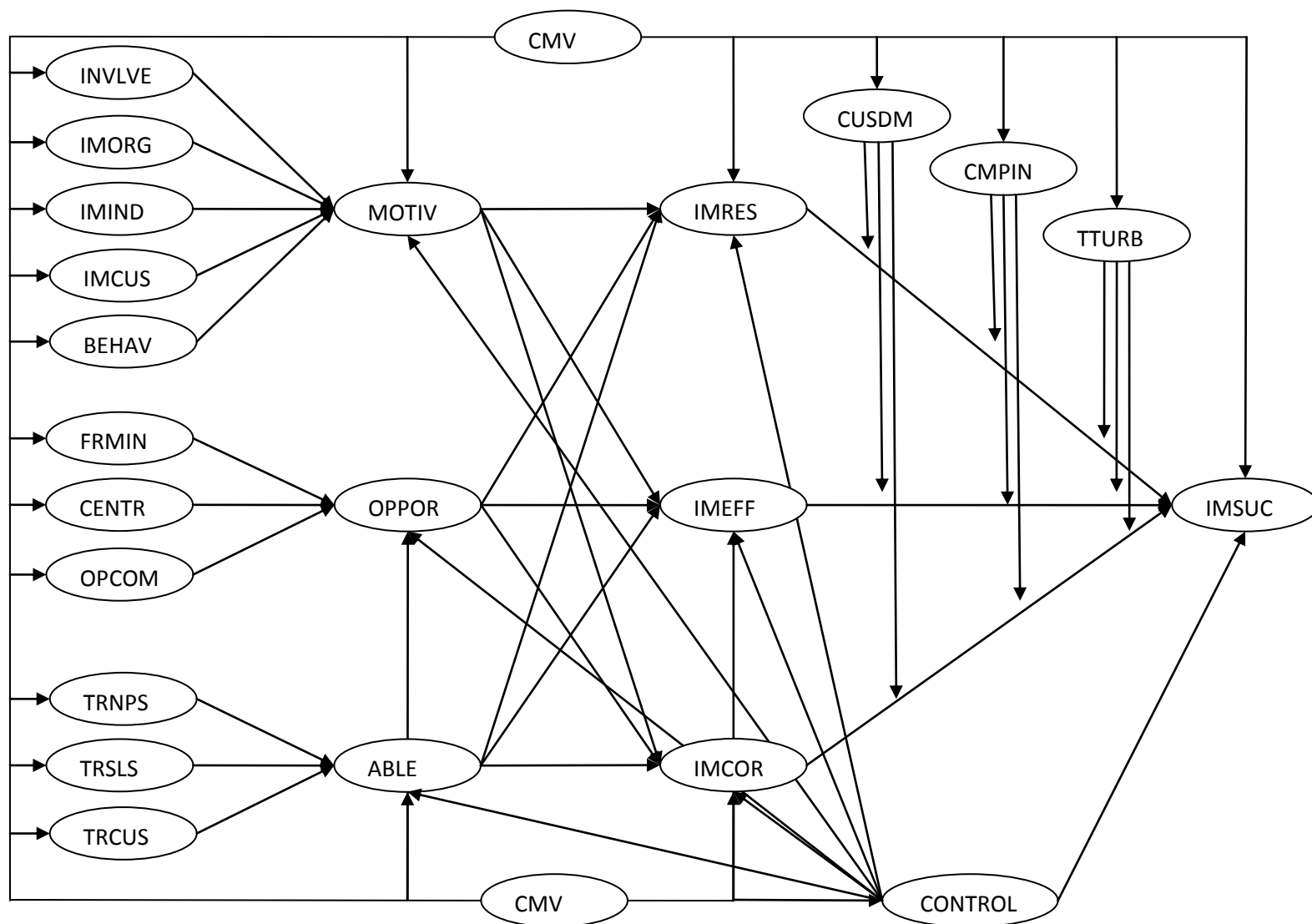


Figure 2 (cont.)
Empirical Model Depicting Structural Paths

INVLV – Involvement in New Strategy Development	OPPOR – Opportunity
IMORG – Internal Marketing – Organizational	ABLE – Ability
IMIND – Internal Marketing – Individual	IMRES – Implementation Responsiveness
IMCUS – Internal Marketing – Customer	IMEFF – Implementation Effort
BEHAV – Behavioral Controls	IMCOR – Implementation Coordination
FRMIN – Firm Innovativeness	CUSDM – Customer Demandingness
CENTR – Centralization	CMPIN – Competitive Intensity
OPCOM – Openness of Communication	TTURB – Technological Turbulence
TRNPS – Training – New Products	CMV – Common Method Factor
TRSLS – Training – Selling Process	CONTROL – Salesperson Experience, Firm Size, Number of Accounts,
TRCUS – Training – Customer Markets	Financial Incentives, New Product Complexity, New Product
MOTIV – Motivation	Innovativeness, Role Autonomy

Table 34
Path Model Results MOA Predictors

Dependent Variables & Paths	Unstd. Coeff	S.E.	t-value	Std. Coeff	R-square
Motivation					0.42
Salesperson Experience	-0.03	0.05	-0.52	-0.03	
Firm Size	0.02	0.05	0.31	0.02	
Number of Accounts	-0.05	0.05	-1.03	-0.06	
Financial Incentives	0.01	0.03	0.07	0.01	
New Product Complexity	-0.08	0.04	-2.10	-0.12	
New Product Innovativeness	0.25	0.05	4.61	0.32	
Role Autonomy	0.07	0.04	1.51	0.07	
Involvement	0.15	0.05	2.83	0.22	
Internal Marketing - Organization	0.01	0.06	0.26	0.02	
Internal Marketing - Individual	0.14	0.05	2.72	0.24	
Internal Marketing - Customer	-0.04	0.05	-0.84	-0.07	
Behavioral Control	-0.02	0.04	-0.69	-0.04	
Opportunity					0.64
Salesperson Experience	-0.01	0.05	-0.03	-0.01	
Firm Size	-0.03	0.04	-0.79	-0.03	
Number of Accounts	-0.04	0.05	-0.75	-0.04	
Financial Incentives	0.04	0.03	1.30	0.07	
New Product Complexity	-0.04	0.04	-1.23	-0.06	
New Product Innovativeness	0.15	0.05	3.20	0.17	
Role Autonomy	0.11	0.04	2.85	0.17	
Firm Innovativeness	-0.01	0.05	-0.04	-0.01	
Centralization	-0.01	0.36	-0.12	-0.01	
Openness of Communication	0.41	0.04	9.57	0.57	
Ability					0.34
Salesperson Experience	0.04	0.04	0.94	0.06	
Firm Size	0.04	0.04	0.92	0.05	
Number of Accounts	-0.03	0.04	-0.85	-0.05	
Financial Incentives	0.01	0.03	0.13	0.01	
New Product Complexity	-0.04	0.03	-1.44	-0.09	
New Product Innovativeness	0.20	0.04	4.97	0.36	
Role Autonomy	0.02	0.03	0.53	0.04	
Training - New Product	-0.01	0.05	-0.21	-0.02	
Training - Selling Process	0.09	0.04	2.11	0.20	
Training - Customer Markets	0.08	0.04	2.13	0.18	

Table 35
Path Model Results Implementation Responsiveness

Dependent Variables & Paths	Unstd. Coeff	S.E.	t-value	Std. Coeff	R-square
Implementation Responsiveness					0.34
Salesperson Experience	-0.04	0.06	-0.71	-0.04	
Firm Size	0.08	0.06	1.27	0.08	
Number of Accounts	-0.05	0.06	-0.84	-0.05	
Financial Incentives	0.01	0.04	0.21	0.02	
New Product Complexity	-0.02	0.05	-0.33	-0.02	
New Product Innovativeness	0.05	0.07	0.71	0.06	
Role Autonomy	-0.05	0.05	-0.98	-0.08	
Motivation	0.22	0.08	2.66	0.19	
Opportunity	0.19	0.08	2.37	0.19	
Ability	0.56	0.10	5.43	0.37	
θ_o	-0.01	0.20	-0.05	-0.01	
$\theta_o \times$ Motivation	0.07	0.24	0.27	0.03	
$\theta_o \times$ Opportunity	-0.14	0.13	-1.09	-0.10	
$\theta_o \times$ Ability	0.26	0.30	0.86	0.08	
θ_a	0.14	0.19	0.70	0.06	
$\theta_a \times$ Motivation	-0.06	0.22	-0.27	-0.03	
$\theta_a \times$ Opportunity	-0.02	0.21	-0.10	-0.01	
$\theta_a \times$ Ability	-0.05	0.28	-0.17	-0.02	

Table 36
Path Model Results Implementation Effort

Dependent Variables & Paths	Unstd. Coeff	S.E.	t-value	Std. Coeff	R-square
Implementation Effort					0.5
Salesperson Experience	-0.04	0.05	-0.85	-0.05	
Firm Size	0.04	0.05	0.96	0.05	
Number of Accounts	-0.01	0.05	-0.30	-0.02	
Financial Incentives	0.06	0.03	1.89	0.11	
New Product Complexity	0.02	0.04	0.55	0.03	
New Product Innovativeness	0.11	0.06	1.90	0.14	
Role Autonomy	-0.05	0.04	-1.14	-0.08	
Motivation	0.26	0.06	4.22	0.27	
Opportunity	0.09	0.06	1.41	0.10	
Ability	0.43	0.08	5.41	0.37	
θ_o	-0.13	0.15	-0.85	-0.06	
θ_o x Motivation	0.21	0.19	1.12	0.10	
θ_o x Opportunity	-0.14	0.10	-1.38	-0.11	
θ_o x Ability	0.03	0.23	0.11	0.01	
θ_a	-0.26	0.15	-1.75	-0.14	
θ_a x Motivation	0.21	0.17	1.29	0.10	
θ_a x Opportunity	0.16	0.16	0.99	-0.11	
θ_a x Ability	-0.36	0.22	-1.65	-0.16	

Table 37
Path Model Results Implementation Coordination

Dependent Variables & Paths	Unstd. Coeff	S.E.	t-value	Std. Coeff	R-square
Implementation Coordination					0.35
Salesperson Experience	-0.02	0.05	-0.31	-0.02	
Firm Size	0.01	0.05	0.28	0.02	
Number of Accounts	-0.08	0.05	-1.59	-0.10	
Financial Incentives	0.02	0.03	0.67	0.05	
New Product Complexity	0.10	0.04	2.56	0.16	
New Product Innovativeness	0.03	0.06	0.53	0.04	
Role Autonomy	0.01	0.05	0.27	0.02	
Motivation	0.10	0.07	1.48	0.11	
Opportunity	0.10	0.07	1.43	0.12	
Ability	0.37	0.09	4.33	0.29	
θ_o	-0.02	0.17	-0.11	-0.01	
θ_o x Motivation	0.04	0.20	0.21	0.02	
θ_o x Opportunity	0.07	0.11	0.66	0.06	
θ_o x Ability	0.13	0.25	0.54	0.05	
θ_a	-0.10	0.16	-0.60	-0.05	
θ_a x Motivation	0.22	0.18	1.20	0.12	
θ_a x Opportunity	-0.12	0.18	-0.68	-0.06	
θ_a x Ability	-0.05	0.23	-0.21	-0.02	

Table 38
Path Model Results Implementation Success

Dependent Variables & Paths	Unstd. Coeff	S.E.	t-value	Std. Coeff	R-square
Implementation Success					0.47
Salesperson Experience	-0.02	0.06	-0.35	-0.02	
Firm Size	-0.01	0.06	-0.10	-0.01	
Number of Accounts	0.10	0.06	1.66	0.09	
Financial Incentives	0.08	0.04	1.99	0.13	
New Product Complexity	-0.16	0.05	-3.62	-0.21	
New Product Innovativeness	0.29	0.08	3.68	0.31	
Role Autonomy	0.19	0.05	3.95	0.26	
Implementation Responsiveness (IR)	0.12	0.06	1.97	0.11	
Implementation Effort (IE)	0.04	0.08	0.44	0.03	
Implementation Coordination (IC)	0.05	0.08	0.60	0.37	
Customer Demandingness	0.02	0.08	0.26	0.02	
Competitive Intensity	0.08	0.06	1.30	0.07	
Technological Turbulence	0.11	0.07	1.59	0.12	
IR x Customer Demandingness	-0.01	0.08	-0.18	-0.02	
IR x Competitive Intensity	-0.03	0.06	-0.47	-0.03	
IR x Technological Turbulence	0.03	0.08	0.39	0.04	
IE x Customer Demandingness	0.10	0.08	1.21	0.11	
IE x Competitive Intensity	-0.04	0.07	-0.60	0.04	
IE x Technological Turbulence	-0.02	0.08	-0.24	-0.02	
IC x Customer Demandingness	-0.01	0.09	-0.09	-0.01	
IC x Competitive Intensity	0.12	0.07	1.74	0.11	
IC x Technological Turbulence	-0.01	0.07	-0.17	-0.01	

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Constraining Factor Hypotheses

The constraining factor hypotheses predict that the effect of the salesperson's implementation MOAs is contingent upon which of these factors is the one constraining the salesperson. The hypotheses for the relationships are as follows:

H1: When motivation is the factor constraining the implementation of new marketing strategies by the salesperson, increasing (a) motivation will result in a significant increase in implementation while increasing (b) opportunity or (c) ability will result in a non-significant effect.

H2: When opportunity is the factor constraining the implementation of new marketing strategies by the salesperson, increasing (a) opportunity will result in a significant increase in implementation while increasing (b) motivation or (c) ability will result in a non-significant effect.

H3: When ability is the factor constraining the implementation of new marketing strategies by the salesperson, increasing (a) ability will result in a significant increase in implementation while increasing (b) motivation or (c) opportunity will result in a non-significant effect on implementation.

Tables 39 - 41 show the results for the hypothesized relationships. The results show mixed support of the constraining factor model. When motivation is the factor constraining the salesperson's implementation responsiveness or implementation effort, increasing motivation results in an increase of these behaviors ($\beta = .22, p < .05$ and $\beta = .26, p < .05$ respectively) supporting H1a and H1a₂. However, increasing motivation does not impact implementation coordination when motivation is the constraining factor ($\beta = .11, p > .05$), failing to support H1a₃. Further, increasing opportunity when motivation is the constraining factor results in an increase in implementation responsiveness ($\beta = .19, p < .05$), thus not supporting H1b, however, has no effect on implementation effort ($\beta = .10, p > .05$) or implementation coordination ($\beta = .10, p > .05$) in support of H1b₂ and H1b₃. Finally, none of the hypotheses involving ability under a

motivation constraining factor were supported as ability had a significant effect on implementation responsiveness ($\beta = .37, p < .05$), implementation effort ($\beta = .37, p < .05$), and implementation coordination ($\beta = .29, p < .05$) thus refuting hypotheses H1c, H1c₂, and H1c₃.

When opportunity was the constraining factor, increasing opportunity had no significant impact on implementation responsiveness ($\beta = .09, p > .05$), implementation effort ($\beta = -.01, p > .05$), or implementation coordination ($\beta = .18, p > .05$) thus failing to support H2a, H2a₂, and H2a₃. Increasing motivation when opportunity was the constraining factor had a significant effect on implementation effort ($\beta = .37, p < .05$) contrary to H2b₂, however, not on implementation responsiveness ($\beta = .22, p > .05$) or implementation coordination ($\beta = .13, p > .05$) in support of H2b and H2b₃. Finally, increasing ability when opportunity is the constraining factor increases implementation responsiveness ($\beta = .45, p < .05$) failing to support H2c, however, has no effect on implementation effort ($\beta = .38, p > .05$) or implementation coordination ($\beta = .34, p > .05$) in support of H2c₂, and H2c₃.

Lastly, when ability is the constraining factor, ability did not have a significant effect on implementation responsiveness ($\beta = .35, p > .05$), implementation effort ($\beta = .21, p > .05$), or implementation coordination ($\beta = .27, p > .05$) thus refuting hypotheses H3a, H3a₂, and H3a₃. Increasing motivation when ability was the constraining factor had a significant effect on implementation effort ($\beta = .37, p < .05$) contrary to H3b₂, however, not on implementation responsiveness ($\beta = .16, p > .05$) or implementation coordination ($\beta = .23, p > .05$) in support of H3b and H3b₃. Finally, increasing opportunity under an ability constraining factor does not affect implementation responsiveness ($\beta = .18, p > .05$), implementation effort ($\beta = .21, p > .05$), or implementation coordination ($\beta = .06, p > .05$) supporting hypotheses H3c, H3c₂, and H3c₃.

Table 39
Motivation Constraining Factor Hypotheses

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	SE	p-value	Result
Implementation Responsiveness	Motivation	.19	.08	<.05	H1a: Supported
	Opportunity	.19	.08	<.05	H1b: Not Supported
	Ability	.37	.10	<.05	H1c: Not Supported
Implementation Effort	Motivation	.27	.06	<.05	H1a ₂ : Supported
	Opportunity	.10	.06	>.05	H1b ₂ : Supported
	Ability	.37	.08	<.05	H1c ₂ : Not Supported
Implementation Coordination	Motivation	.11	.11	>.05	H1a ₃ : Not Supported
	Opportunity	.12	.07	>.05	H1b ₃ : Supported
	Ability	.29	.09	<.05	H1c ₃ : Not Supported

Table 40
Opportunity Constraining Factor Hypotheses

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	SE	p-value	Result
Implementation Responsiveness	Opportunity	.09	.15	>.05	H2a: Not Supported
	Motivation	.22	.25	>.05	H2b: Supported
	Ability	.45	.32	>.05	H2c: Supported
Implementation Effort	Opportunity	-.01	.12	>.05	H2a ₂ : Not Supported
	Motivation	.37	.20	<.05	H2b ₂ : Not Supported
	Ability	.38	.24	<.05	H2c ₂ : Supported
Implementation Coordination	Opportunity	.18	.13	>.05	H2a ₃ : Not Supported
	Motivation	.13	.21	>.05	H2b ₃ : Supported
	Ability	.34	.27	>.05	H2c ₃ : Supported

Table 41
Ability Constraining Factor Hypotheses

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	SE	p-value	Result
Implementation Responsiveness	Ability	.35	.30	>.05	H3a: Not Supported
	Motivation	.16	.23	>.05	H3b: Supported
	Opportunity	.18	.22	>.05	H3c: Supported
Implementation Effort	Ability	.21	.23	>.05	H3a ₂ : Not Supported
	Motivation	.37	.18	<.05	H3b ₂ : Not Supported
	Opportunity	.21	.17	>.05	H3c ₂ : Supported
Implementation Coordination	Ability	.27	.25	>.05	H2a ₃ : Not Supported
	Motivation	.23	.19	>.05	H2b ₃ : Supported
	Opportunity	.06	.19	>.05	H2c ₃ : Supported

MOA Antecedents

In addition to assessing the contingent impact of the MOA variables on the various implementation behaviors, the model also hypothesizes a multitude of variables predicted to enhance, or in some cases inhibit, the salesperson's MOA to implement new strategies. These hypotheses are as follows:

H4: Salesperson involvement in new strategy development is positively associated with motivation to implement new strategies.

H5: Internal marketing regarding the (a) organization, (b) individual, and (c) customer benefits of new strategies is positively associated with the salesperson's motivation to implement new strategies.

H6: Behavioral controls are negatively associated with the salesperson's motivation to implement new strategies.

H7: Firm innovativeness is positively associated with the salesperson's opportunity to implement new strategies.

H8: Centralization is negatively associated with the salesperson's opportunity to implement new strategies.

H9: Openness of internal communication is positively associated with the salesperson's opportunity to implement new strategies.

H10: There is a positive association between (a) new product, (b) selling process, and (c) customer market training and the salesperson's ability to implement new strategies.

Table 42 shows the results for the hypothesized relationships. In predicting motivation, involvement in strategy development ($\beta = .22, p < .05$) and internal marketing-individual ($\beta = .24, p < .05$) have significant, positive coefficients in support of H4 and H5b. Internal marketing-organizational ($\beta = .02, p > .05$), internal marketing-customer benefits ($\beta = -.07, p > .05$), and behavioral controls ($\beta = -.04, p > .05$), however, have no effect thus refuting hypotheses H5a, H5c, and H6. Openness of communication proved a key driver of opportunity with a large, positive, significant coefficient ($\beta = .57, p < .05$) supporting H9, however, firm innovativeness (β

= -.01, $p > .05$) and centralization ($\beta = -.01$, $p > .05$) proved inconsequential refuting hypotheses H7 and H8. Finally, consistent with hypotheses H10b and H10c, training-selling process ($\beta = .20$, $p < .05$) and training-customer market ($\beta = .18$, $p < .05$) significantly increased the salesperson's ability. Contrary to H10a, however, training-new products had no effect on the salesperson's perceived ability ($\beta = -.02$, $p > .05$).

Table 42
MOA Antecedents

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	p-value	Result
Motivation	Involvement	.22	<.05	H4: Supported
	Internal Marketing - Organizational	.02	>.05	H5a: Not Supported
	Internal Marketing - Individual	.24	<.05	H5b: Supported
	Internal Marketing – Customer Benefits	-.07	>.05	H5c: Not Supported
	Behavioral Controls	-.04	>.05	H6: Not Supported
Opportunity	Firm Innovativeness	-.01	>.05	H7: Not Supported
	Centralization	-.01	>.05	H8: Not Supported
	Openness of Internal Communication	.57	<.05	H9: Supported
Ability	Training – New Product	-.02	>.05	H10a: Not Supported
	Training – Selling Process	.20	<.05	H10b: Supported
	Training – Customer Market	.18	<.05	H10c: Supported

Contingent Implementation Outcomes

Finally, the effects of the implementation behaviors on implementation success were hypothesized in a contingent manner. Specifically, environmental conditions were predicted to attenuate the relationships between the implementation behaviors and implementation success due to their role in increasing the difficulty in implementation. These hypotheses are as follows:

H11: Customer demandingness attenuates the positive association between (a) implementation responsiveness, (b) implementation effort, (c) implementation coordination and implementation success by the salesperson.

H12: Competitive intensity attenuates the positive association between (a) implementation responsiveness, (b) implementation effort, (c) implementation coordination and implementation success by the salesperson.

H13: Technological turbulence attenuates the positive association between (a) implementation responsiveness, (b) implementation effort, (c) implementation coordination and implementation success by the salesperson.

Table 43 shows the results for the hypothesized relationships. The results show the lack of environmental impact on the implementation behaviors-success relationships. Customer demandingness did not moderate the relationship between implementation responsiveness ($\beta = -.02, p > .05$), implementation effort ($\beta = .11, p > .05$), or implementation coordination ($\beta = -.01, p > .05$) and implementation success failing to support H11a – H11c. Similarly, competitive intensity had no effect on these three relationships ($\beta = -.03, p > .05$; $\beta = .04, p > .05$; and $\beta = .11, p > .05$ respectively) in contrast to H12a – H12c. Lastly, H13a – H13c concerning the impact of technological turbulence on these relationships are not supported as all coefficients are non-significant ($\beta = .04, p > .05$; $\beta = -.02, p > .05$; and $\beta = -.01, p > .05$ respectively).

Table 43
Moderated Effects on Implementation Success

Moderator	Independent Variable	β	p-value	Result
Customer Demandingness	Implementation Responsiveness	-.02	>.05	H11a: Not Supported
	Implementation Effort	.11	>.05	H11b: Not Supported
	Implementation Coordination	-.01	>.05	H11c: Not Supported
Competitive Intensity	Implementation Responsiveness	-.03	>.05	H12a: Not Supported
	Implementation Effort	.04	>.05	H12b: Not Supported
	Implementation Coordination	.11	>.05	H12c: Not Supported
Technological Turbulence	Implementation Responsiveness	.04	>.05	H13a: Not Supported
	Implementation Effort	-.02	>.05	H13b: Not Supported
	Implementation Coordination	-.01	>.05	H13c: Not Supported

CHAPTER SIX

Discussion

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the results of the analyses performed in Chapter Five in testing the hypotheses advanced in the conceptual model. I first discuss the results of the constraining factor tests, MOA antecedents, and contingent implementation outcomes. Further, as the intent of this study is to provide contributions to theory, methodology, and management, I discuss the implications of the findings pertinent to these areas. I conclude this dissertation with some limitations for the study and explicate some potential avenues for future research.

Overview

The intent of this dissertation was to answer a myriad of questions pertaining to the implementation of new marketing strategies by the salesperson. Specifically, (1) What are the pertinent salesperson implementation behaviors?, (2) How do a salesperson's motivation, opportunity, and ability interrelate to predict the enactment of salespeople's implementation behaviors?, (3) What motivates a salesperson to engage in new strategy implementation?, (4) What organizational-level variables lead to the salesperson's perception of facilitation in new strategy implementation?, (5) What actions can be taken to increase the ability of salespeople to implement new strategies?, and (6) How and under what conditions do implementation behaviors lead to implementation success by the salesperson?. Overall, the findings tell a very nuanced story with differential prediction of the salesperson's implementation responsiveness, implementation effort, and implementation coordination.

The results also show the value of involving the salesperson in strategy development and "selling the benefits" of the strategy to increase their motivation to implement new strategies. Further, open communication is essential to salespeople's perception of opportunity to implement new strategies. Next, training the salesperson in the selling process and in better

understanding their customers increases their ability (in contrast to training on new products).

Finally, conditions regarding the customer, competition, and technological environments proved to have no impact on the relationship between salespeople's implementation behaviors and implementation success.

Constraining Factor Hypotheses

The center of the conceptual model involved examining the relationships between MOA variables and implementation behaviors by the salesperson in a factor-contingent manner.

Constraining factor tests were conducted to assess the impact of the MOA variables contingent on their status as constraining or non-constraining factors (Siemens, Roth, and Balasubramanian 2008). The results show this data and context are not overly amenable to a constraining factor approach. While increasing motivational constraining factors resulted in an increase in implementation responsiveness and implementation effort, the rest of the positive constraining factor hypotheses were not supported. A contributing factor to these results is the constraining factor for the salesperson's implementation is motivation in $\frac{1}{2}$ of the cases, leaving only fifty percent of the remaining cases to be split amongst opportunity and ability. This low n value for opportunity and ability inflates the standard error by decreasing the denominator in its calculation and thus increasing the resultant standard error. Further, examination of the standardized coefficients of the opportunity constraining factors are low and non-significant showing that even as a constraining factor, attempts to increase perceived opportunity may be a suboptimal strategy. As such, efforts may be better spent increasing motivation and ability. The results of the CFM also indicate increases in non-constraining factors resulted in increases in implementation in multiple instances. Increasing ability translated to increased implementation behaviors even as a non-constraining factor. Taken together, these results indicate the strategic

implementation by the salesperson is not affected like a managerial production process with bottleneck removal. Rather, consistent with research focusing on developing strengths rather than improving deficiencies (e.g. Avey, Luthans, and Jensen 2009), a bottleneck removal approach may not be an optimal strategy. To explore the possibility that the reverse is actually true and the highest-valued factors should be increased, I reversed the logic of the CFM from reducing bottlenecks to increasing strengths in a post-hoc examination. The results of this test show the model fits the data relatively well ($\chi^2 (179) = 723.74$, $p < .0001$, CFI .96, IFI .96, RMSEA .10, SRMR .06). The results, however, do not support this conceptualization either, as increasing optimized factors in many cases does not translate to implementation behaviors. Further, at times, non-optimized factors are significant predictors. Tables 44 – 46 show the results of the reversed CFM.

Table 44
Motivation Optimizing Factors

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	SE	p-value
Implementation Responsiveness	Motivation	.21	.08	<.05
	Opportunity	-.05	.08	>.05
	Ability	.55	.10	<.05
Implementation Effort	Motivation	.41	.06	<.05
	Opportunity	.02	.06	>.05
	Ability	.44	.08	<.05
Implementation Coordination	Motivation	.04	.07	>.05
	Opportunity	.26	.07	<.05
	Ability	.42	.09	<.05

Table 45
Opportunity Optimizing Factors

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	SE	p-value
Implementation Responsiveness	Opportunity	-.02	.21	>.05
	Motivation	.27	.20	>.05
	Ability	.35	.21	>.05
Implementation Effort	Opportunity	.12	.16	>.05
	Motivation	.44	.15	<.05
	Ability	.24	.17	>.05
Implementation Coordination	Opportunity	.14	.17	>.05
	Motivation	.10	.17	>.05
	Ability	.40	.18	<.05

Table 46
Ability Optimizing Factors

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	β	SE	p-value
Implementation Responsiveness	Ability	.59	.31	<.05
	Motivation	.19	.18	>.05
	Opportunity	.01	.15	>.05
Implementation Effort	Ability	.45	.23	<.05
	Motivation	.33	.13	<.05
	Opportunity	-.09	.11	>.05
Implementation Coordination	Ability	.38	.26	>.05
	Motivation	.16	.15	>.05
	Opportunity	.08	.12	>.05

To investigate the salesperson strategic implementation phenomenon further, I ran two alternative post-hoc models to provide an understanding of the impact of the MOA variables on implementation behaviors when different equations are used. First, I ran a simple linear effects model including direct paths from each of the MOA variables to each of the implementation behaviors. This model fits the data well ($\chi^2 (147) = 343.57$, $p < .0001$, CFI .98, IFI .98, RMSEA .07, SRMR .05). The models results show that just motivation and ability predict implementation responsiveness and implementation effort, while all three variables predict implementation coordination. The non-impactful nature of opportunity prompted further query due to its well espoused status as a behavior-affecting variable in MOA theory.

I next ran a fully interactive model including a three-way MOA interaction and 3 2-way interactions amongst the MOA variables in addition to the linear terms. The interactions were created in the same manner as the original model by multiplying the respective factor scores and thus assuaging concern of non-essential multicollinearity. This model also fit the data reasonably well ($\chi^2 (167) = 429.08$, $p < .0001$, CFI .98, IFI .98, RMSEA .06, SRMR .08). The results of the interactive model are counterintuitive and may yield substantive theoretical implications to MOA theory. None of the equations showed evidence of a three-way interaction, so the two-way interaction terms were assessed. In all three equations, at least one two-way interaction was present. MOA theory would suggest the MOA variables interact in a synergistic manner whereby in addition to directly affecting behavior, the levels of motivation, opportunity, and ability amplify each other and result in a larger impact when all variables are high (e.g. Gruen, Osmonbekov, and Czaplewski 2007). This synergistic effect is evidenced by a positive interaction between MOA variables. In assessing the interactive effects model, the interaction between motivation and opportunity is positive and significant on implementation

responsiveness, implementation effort, and implementation coordination ($\beta = .12, p < .05$; $\beta = .20, p < .05$; and $\beta = .13, p < .05$ respectively). This would support the notion that facilitating the salesperson's actions in implementing new strategies amplifies the effect of their motivation on implementation behaviors. A significant interaction was also found between opportunity and ability in predicting implementation responsiveness and implementation effort, however, the coefficients are *negative* ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$ and $\beta = -.19, p < .05$ respectively). Collectively, these findings indicate that opportunity has a drastically differential effect on the salesperson's motivation and ability to implement new strategies. Opportunity and motivation behave synergistically, but opportunity has an antagonistic relationship with ability.

Though seemingly counterintuitive, the negative opportunity-ability interaction may be a function of security and necessity. Salespeople's self-efficacy, or 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 (Guangping and Netemeyer 2002; Krishnan, Netemeyer, and Boles 2002; Dixon and Schertzer 2005; Fu et al. 2010). One of the mechanisms with which self-efficacy 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 facilitation and will lead to greater responsiveness or effort by the salesperson. On the other hand, for salespeople with high perceptions of ability, this security is already possessed and high levels of support are redundant. 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. This finding may have a significant impact on the conceptualization of motivation, opportunity, and ability and far-reaching implications to MOA theory. Table 47 shows the results of the linear and interactive effects models and Figures 3 and

4 illustrate the opportunity-ability effects on implementation responsiveness and implementation effort. High and low levels of the moderators are computed using values one standard deviation below and one standard deviation above the mean consistent with existing research (e.g. Fang 2008).

Table 47
Alternative Models

	Linear Models			Interactive Models		
Dependent Variable	Responsiveness	Effort	Coordination	Responsiveness	Effort	Coordination
<i>Control Variables</i>						
Salesperson Experience	-0.04	-0.05	-0.02	-0.04	-0.06	-0.02
Firm Size	0.07	0.04	0.01	0.08	0.05	0.01
Number of Accounts	-0.06	-0.03	-0.10	-0.06	-0.03	-0.09
Financial Incentives	0.01	0.11	0.05	0.01	0.11	0.04
New Product Complexity	-0.02	0.03	0.16	-0.03	0.02	0.16
New Product Innovativeness	0.05	0.14	0.04	0.04	0.14	0.04
Role Autonomy	-0.08	-0.07	0.02	-0.08	-0.07	0.01
<i>Main Effects</i>						
Motivation (M)	0.25	0.34	0.12	0.32	0.44	0.18
Opportunity (O)	0.11	0.04	0.14	0.11	0.07	0.12
Ability (A)	0.35	0.33	0.35	0.29	0.24	0.29
<i>Interaction Effects</i>						
M x O				0.12	0.20	0.13
M x A				0.04	0.01	-0.05
O x A				-0.16	-0.19	-0.07
M x O x A				0.06	0.02	0.10
<i>R-square</i>	.33	.49	.35	.34	.53	.37

Figure 3
Opportunity-Ability Interaction – Implementation Responsiveness

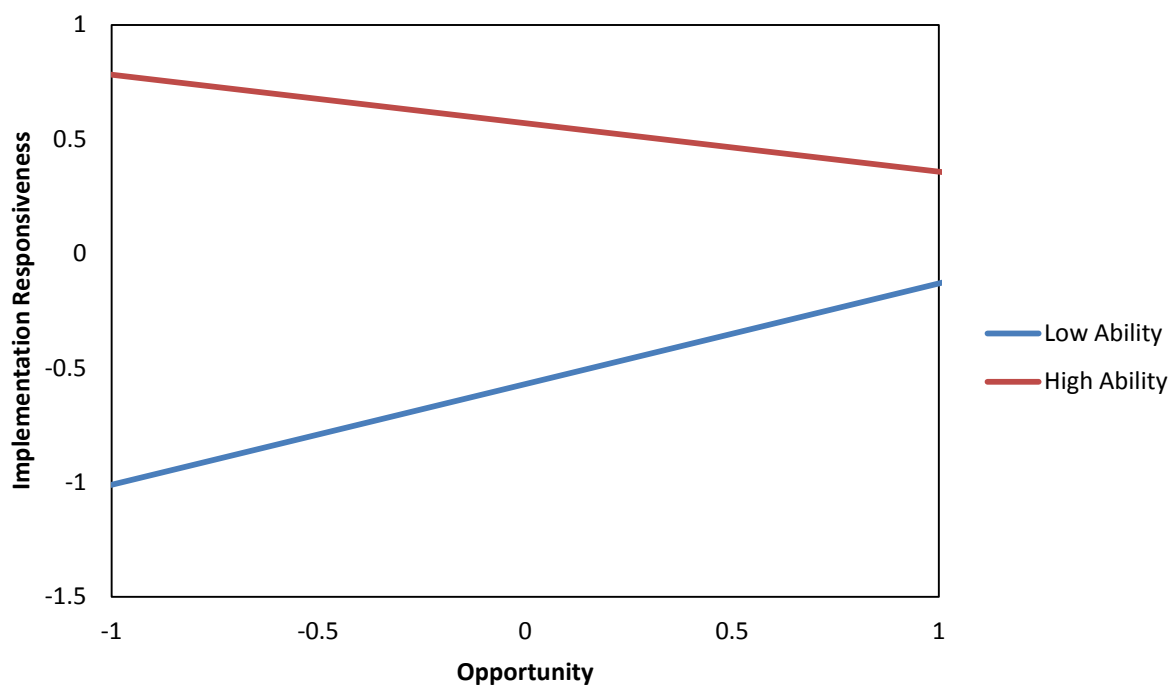
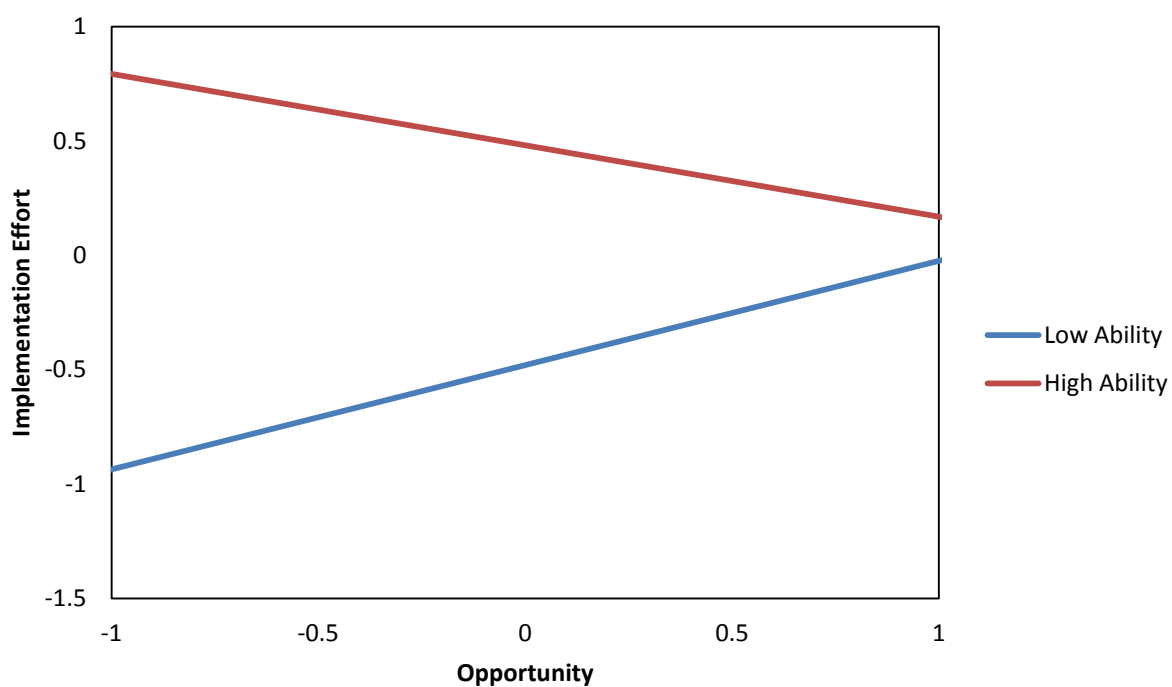


Figure 4
Opportunity-Ability Interaction – Implementation Effort



MOA Antecedents

In addition to delineating the impact of MOA constraining factors on salesperson implementation, I also sought to explore organizational factors that may drive or retard salespeople's MOAs related to implementation. In this pursuit, I tested the relationships between a multitude of theorized impacting factors. The results provide some interesting insights.

Motivation. The results of the motivation predictors help settle a disparity in the extant literature regarding the effect of involvement in the strategic process. Despite substantial research extolling the benefits of salesperson involvement in strategy formation, empirical findings have shown a non-significant effect in an implementation context (Noble and Mokwa 1999). The type of involvement that occurs appears to be a key determinant of its effect on the salesperson. Involving salespeople in decisions regarding the implementation of strategies is less efficacious than involving salespeople in the development of strategies to increase their motivation. To secure motivation through buy-in, involvement in the initial development stage is crucial. Further, there are several different approaches managers may take to convince salespeople to implement new strategies. The results show the extant conceptualization of internal marketing to salespeople which focuses on the benefits of the strategy for the organization (e.g. Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000) to be irrelevant to salesperson motivation to implement new strategies.

Internal marketing focusing on selling salespeople on the benefits new strategies have for customers also does not impact their new strategy implementation motivation. However, the newly conceptualized internal marketing facet of *individual* internal marketing by the sales manager increases implementation motivation. Financial rewards are a significant drivers of salesperson motivation (Ingram, Lee, and Skinner 1989; Miao and Evans 2007; Miao, Evans, and Shaoming 2007) and sales manager focus on this area in their discussions with salespeople is

the optimal approach. Finally, behavioral control systems were expected to decrease the salesperson's motivation due to the loss in agency and autonomy (e.g. Ryan and Deci 2000) to help explain the adverse effect of behavioral control systems on implementation effort (Ahearne et al. 2010). The results show this effect to be non-significant, however, suggesting an alternative explanation for this effect exists.

Opportunity. Factors associated with the strategy, structure, and culture (Pelham and Wilson 1995) of the salesperson's organization were tested on their perception of opportunity in the context of new strategy implementation. The results show that strategy and structure, as represented by firm innovativeness and centralization respectively, have a negligible effect on opportunity. However, the cultural element of openness of communication (Homburg, Grozdanovic, and Klarmann 2007) is highly impactful and in fact, had the highest standardized coefficient of all the relationships tested in this model. Implementing new strategies is a highly dynamic and iterative process and open communication helps overcome barriers that may be encountered (Beer 1997).

Ability. The salesperson's ability to implement new strategies was hypothesized to be affected by various forms of training they may receive. The findings add further support to the questionable value of new product training. Beyond the lack of a significant effect on new product performance (Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000), training related to new products does not even affect the salesperson's ability to implement new strategies. The two new, additional facets of training of selling process training and customer market training, however, do have a positive impact on the salesperson's ability to implement strategies. This finding has significant implications for sales managers as discussed in the subsequent Managerial Contribution section.

Contingent Implementation Outcomes

I also endeavored to assess the impact implementation behaviors have on implementation success when factoring in heterogeneous environmental conditions facing the salesperson. In this pursuit, I tested the moderating influence of three elements of environment highly relevant to the salesperson; customer, competition, and technology (Li and Calantone 1998). The results, however, summarily fail to support the notion that environmental factors affect the impact of the salesperson's implementation behaviors on implementation success. Further, the inclusion of these terms may have the adverse effect of accounting for variance in the model potentially masking the effect of implementation effort and implementation coordination on implementation success. To test this supposition, I ran additional post hoc models. Contrary to my assumption, the removal of the interactions and linear terms of the moderating variables had no effect on the significance of the main effects of implementation behaviors on implementation success. Further investigation, however, showed that rather than suppression due to the interaction terms, the suppression is due to the many controls included in the analysis. Specifically, when product innovativeness and role autonomy are removed as controls, both implementation effort and coordination become significant and positive on implementation success ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$ for both).

A final alternative model was run to assess if the variables used as controls in the analysis interact with the implementation behaviors to predict implementation success. To test this model, I created interaction terms between role autonomy, product innovativeness, and product complexity and the implementation behaviors. This model also fit the data reasonably well ($\chi^2(161) = 603.67$, $p < .0001$, CFI .96, IFI .96, RMSEA .10, SRMR .06). The results show the value of product innovativeness as it amplifies the associations of implementation responsiveness and

implementation effort on implementation success ($\beta = .16, p < .05$ and $\beta = .11, p < .05$ respectively). When salespeople are given innovative vs. incremental products to introduce, their responsiveness and effort in implementation is better converted to success. Table 48 provides the standardized effects and Figures 5 and 6 illustrate the effects of the significant moderating variables.

Table 48
Post-Hoc Moderators on Implementation Success

Dependent Variable	Implementation Success	p-value
<i>Control Variables</i>		
Salesperson Experience	-0.01	>.05
Firm Size	-0.01	>.05
Number of Accounts	0.09	>.05
Financial Incentives	0.13	<.05
<i>Main Effects</i>		
Implementation Responsiveness (IR)	0.12	<.05
Implementation Effort (IE)	0.03	>.05
Implementation Coordination (IC)	0.06	>.05
Role Autonomy	0.02	>.05
New Product Innovativeness	0.38	<.05
New Product Complexity	-0.14	<.05
<i>Interaction Effects</i>		
IR x Role Autonomy	-0.01	>.05
IR x New Product Innovativeness	0.16	<.05
IR x New Product Complexity	-0.08	>.05
IE x Role Autonomy	-0.07	>.05
IE x New Product Innovativeness	0.11	<.05
IE x New Product Complexity	0.01	>.05
IC x Role Autonomy	0.02	>.05
IC x New Product Innovativeness	-0.08	>.05
IC x New Product Complexity	0.03	>.05
<i>R-square</i>	.48	

Figure 5
Moderating Effect of Product Innovativeness on Implementation Responsiveness-Success

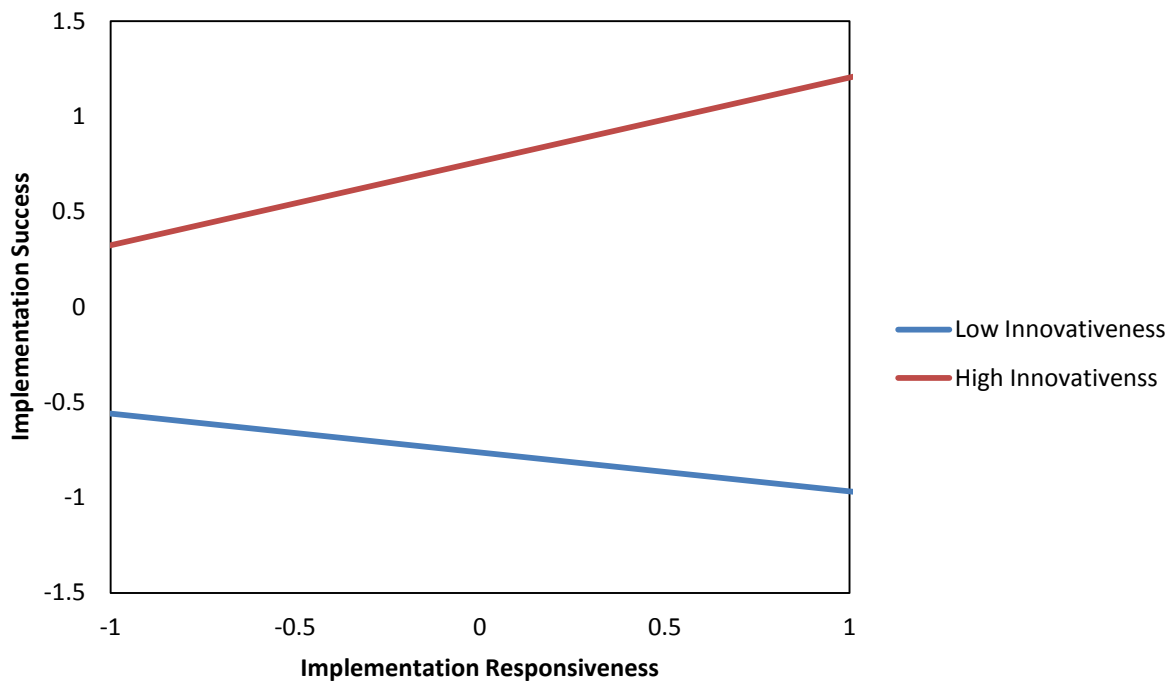
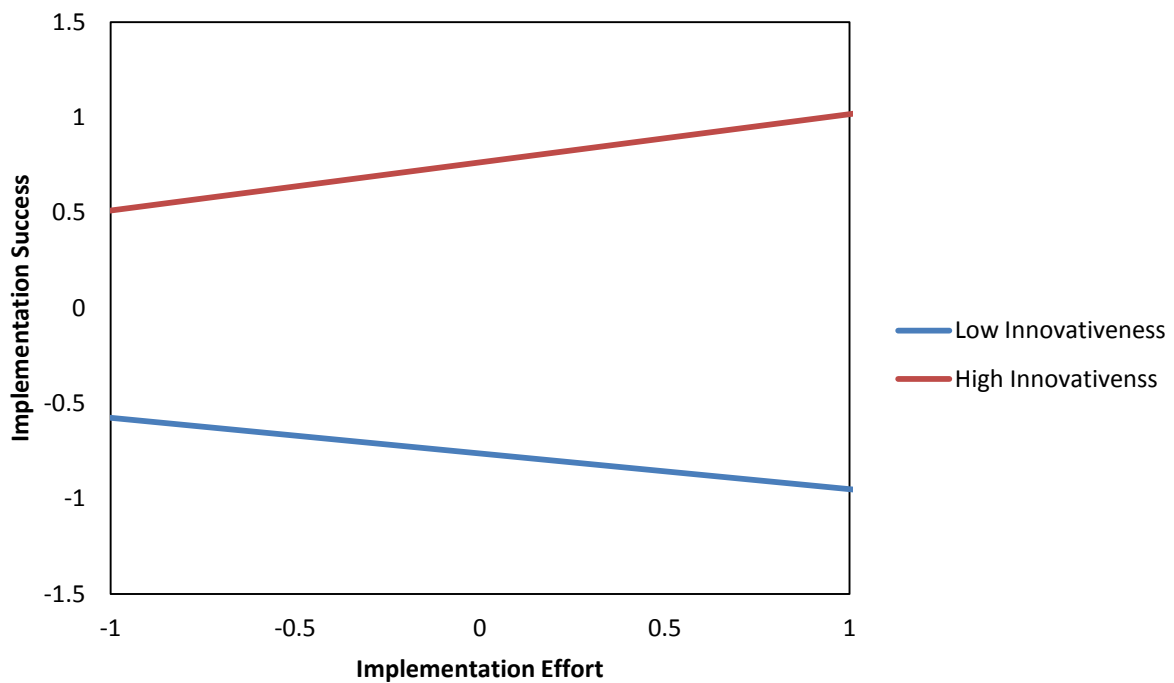


Figure 6
Moderating Effect of Product Innovativeness on Implementation Effort-Success



Theoretical Contribution

This research contributes to theory in five primary ways. First, this examination extends knowledge in the strategic implementation domain by examining the salesperson's implementation of new marketing strategies. The relative (in comparison to strategic formation) dearth of implementation research is especially concerning given the espoused importance of this topic (Lane 2005). This study provides much needed empirical understanding in this domain by providing a complex model pertaining to the causes and effects of implementation on an individual level. By explicating the actions taken by individuals in strategic implementation, researchers can better understand the implementation process and its important behavioral elements.

Second, this research adds empirical insight to a key, boundary-spanning piece of the implementation equation; the salesperson. Through the provision of a three-stage model, a holistic understanding of salesperson implementation is provided examining conditions, attitudes, behaviors, and outcomes relevant to their implementation of new marketing strategies. This study goes beyond research that uses a relatively narrow lens to examine implementation issues and answers the call for complex models to explore and contribute understanding to strategic issues (Varadarajan and Jayachandran 1999).

Third, this research extends a theory shown to be predictive of a myriad of behaviors to the strategic implementation body of knowledge. MOA theory (MacInnis, Moorman, and Jaworski 1991) is found to be an appropriate theoretical framework in implementation examinations as motivation, opportunity, and ability can be used to predict implementation enactment on an individual level. This provides researchers with insight into better predicting implementation behaviors. Additionally, the mixed support of the constraining factor model

lends insight into the workings of the salesperson in implementation situations. Consistent with literature indicating the premise of focusing on reducing deficiencies to increase behaviors may be a suboptimal strategy (Avey, Luthans, and Jensen 2009), the constraining factor model does not explain the interaction of the salesperson's MOAs in a very effective manner. Post hoc analysis into this issue shed light as to why this may be. The full, interactive model ran showed a positive interaction between motivation and opportunity and a negative interaction between opportunity and ability. Consistent with the findings from the linear model, this indicates opportunity should not be viewed as an equal contributor in MOA theory. Rather, increasing opportunity has a negligible effect, even as a constraining factor, and under some conditions can actually retard behavior at high levels. This should change researchers' conceptualization of MOAs as purely synergistic and recognize that, in fact, some of the relationships are synergistic, but some are antagonistic. Opportunity is redundant when the salesperson is highly able and in fact in some instance, can interfere with their efforts and actually decrease behavior. This calls for a much more highly-nuanced view of MOA theory.

Fourth, by examining the factors associated with the salesperson's MOAs in the implementation context in a more in-depth fashion, a more complete understanding is provided to sales and implementation scholars. For example, using aggregated notions of internal marketing or training (e.g. Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000) to predict attitudes and behaviors may lead to an underspecified understanding. In this model's test, using these existing scales in isolation would cause one to conclude that internal marketing and training do not impact the salesperson's motivation or ability to implement strategies. By delineating these variables by the disparate content they can convey, however, a richer understanding of their impact is provided

for researchers. The traditional measures of these variables proved unimportant in the model whereas the new measures were significant.

Finally, by taking a contingency perspective, this research shows the negligible impact of environmental factors on how implementation behaviors impact successful implementation by the salesperson. Environmental factors may prove an important factor in predicting the incidence of implementation behaviors by the salesperson (i.e. competition leads to greater implementation effort), however, the environmental variables tested do not attenuate the effect of the implementation behaviors on implementation success. Post-hoc analyses, however, show that internally-focused variables like product innovativeness moderate these relationships. As such, when assessing the efficacy, rather than incidence, of implementation behaviors on implementation success, researchers may wish to turn their focus to variables internal to the salesperson and the organization.

Methodological Contribution

This dissertation employed a method of analysis not yet utilized in marketing research and extremely relevant to MOA theory. Constraining factor modeling can illustrate the complex and contingent relationships of motivations, opportunities, and abilities beyond linear or interactive models (Siemens, Roth, and Balasubramanian 2008). Constraining factor modeling is a useful approach in identifying operational bottlenecks in the management literature; however, showed promise as a means of predicting behavior in the contexts of marketing and marketing strategy. The results of the constraining factor model in this context are mixed. While several of the hypotheses were supported, increasing the opportunity and ability constraining factors did not affect implementation. Additionally, reversing the logic to an optimizing factor model did not yield the expected results either. As such, in the context of salesperson strategic

implementation, a fully interactive framework incorporating a three-way interaction, three two-way interactions, and three main effects appears to be a superior approach.

Managerial Implications

In addition to the espoused theoretical and methodological contributions, this study is particularly instructive to marketing and sales managers. First, 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 only bridge between organizations and can be critical to the firm (Johnson, Barksdale, and Boles 2001). This study both identifies the relevant salesperson implementation behaviors and provides managers several means of affecting and improving their salespeople's implementation of marketing strategies.

Second, this research provides managers with guidance in managing salespeople's motivation, opportunity, and ability to implement new marketing strategies. All the variables included in the model are firm-controllable factors that can be affected by management. Managers seeking to improve implementation by their sales force can glean specific insight on what can be done to increase the salesperson's MOA leading to enhanced performance of implementation behaviors and ultimately, implementation success. Specifically, the results show managers should involve salespeople in the development of strategies (as opposed to only the implementation) and internally market the benefits of the strategies to the salesperson's performance to increase their motivation to implement new strategies. This is in contrast to the extant conceptualization of internal marketing focusing on the benefits of the new strategies to the organization. As salespeople can show a strong performance orientation (Kohli, Shervani,

and Challagalla 1998; Ahearne et al. 2010), sales managers can appeal to this to increase motivation. By controlling for financial incentives, these results illustrate how motivation can be increased in ways other than monetary inducements. As firms already spend billions annually financial rewards for salespeople, additional motivational elements in implementing new strategies are important. It should be noted, however, that despite the notion of autonomy and motivation, behavioral control systems have no effect on the salesperson's motivation to implement new strategies. Additionally, to increase the salesperson's perception of facilitation in the implementation process, sales executives should focus on creating an environment in which open communication is valued. Managers can encourage greater inter-functional dialogue, incorporate more informal social events in the workplace, establish open forums for communication, or cross-pollinate employees throughout the company to assure the culture of communication is fostered in their organization. Finally, consistent with findings questioning the value of new product training (Hultink and Atuahene-Gima 2000), the findings show that managers may be better served training their salespeople on a more general basis focusing on the selling process and understanding their customers rather than focusing their training on new products. This may be in part due to the transitory nature of new products. Training received specific to new products is specific to each new product advance and therefore less amenable to synergistic application by the salesperson. Providing more general skills in the selling process or enhanced understand of customer markets, however, is an efficient mechanism by which managers can not only increase the salesperson's ability to implement new marketing strategies, but their overall sales ability as well.

Third, this research utilized a constraining factor, bottleneck approach to understanding the drivers of strategic implementation by the salesperson and offers managers a means by which

to use customized approaches to improve salesperson implementation. As noted recently in the literature, managers can succumb to the “sales force incentive addiction” (Zoltners, Prabhakant, and Lorimer 2012, p. 171) and assume that the key to eliciting action by the salesperson is incentivizing their behavior. Notably, however, other factors also impact the salesperson's performance of desired behaviors. This dissertation contributes to work that goes beyond this presumptive focus on motivating the business-to-business salesperson to implement marketing strategies taking a contingency perspective towards strategic enactment. As the results of the constraining factor hypotheses show, there are many instances in which increases to the salesperson's motivation has no effect on their implementation behaviors. Additionally, a key finding relevant to managers generated by the post-hoc MOA analysis 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. Accordingly, managers' efforts may be better spent on increasing these salespeople's motivation or ability.

Finally, in addition to understanding what leads to implementation by the salesperson, this study also provides managers insight on the contingent impact of implementation behaviors on implementation success. As the salesperson's implementation success can be a critical factor in the success of new marketing strategies, this provides much needed understanding. This understanding is further augmented by assessing the conditional impact of these factors under the moderating conditions of the environment in which the salesperson operates. These factors proved irrelevant suggesting, along with the results of the post-hoc analyses; managers should

focus on internally-relevant factors when seeking to leverage their salespeople's implementation behaviors on implementation success.

Limitations and Future Research

This dissertation endeavors to provide substantial insight into this important domain of inquiry; however, I would be remiss to omit limitations to this research. The intent of this dissertation was to investigate salesperson implementation behaviors in a wide variety of organizations and industries. Researchers note the absence of multi-company and multi-industry studies in this domain and call for research seeking to generalize insight across contexts (e.g. Fu et al. 2010). A drawback of this approach, however, is a reliance on self-report data from the salesperson on their implementation behaviors and outcome. While objective data would be ideal, researchers are able to compare objective performance across companies in a meaningful manner and thus may rely on self-reports (Behrman and Perreault 1982; Homburg, Müller, and Klarmann 2011). Manager-reported performance was an option, however, the need for this a large sample ($n \approx 300$) precluded this approach due to the drop in sample size accompanying dyadic collections with performance data. This limitation is somewhat mitigated, however, as several studies have refuted the assumed primacy of managerial-reported performance data showing self-reports as or more accurate (Churchill et al. 1985; Levy and Sharma 1993; Scullen, Mount, and Goff 2000; Sharma, Rieh, and Levy 2004). Accordingly, self-report performance in the sales domain is an acceptable practice (Wang and Netemeyer 2002; Larson et al. 2008; Homburg, Müller, and Klarmann 2011; Shannahan, Bush, and Shannahan 2012).

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, strategic implementation does not occur in a vacuum for the salesperson, rather, often

entails significant interaction with their marketing counterparts. Scholars note the importance of the marketing-sales interface on the marketing strategy process and on salesperson performance (Malshe and Sohi 2009). 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 customer outcomes or potentially enhance them.

Future research could also be conducted using the expanded versions of training and internal marketing. Rather than assessing the impact on salespeople in an aggregated fashion, this perspective recognizes the nuanced nature of these actions. Future studies could explore how the importance of the different types of training and internal marketing is contingent on individual, organizational, and environmental factors.

Finally, an additional line of future research could focus on the new-to-marketing analysis used in this dissertation; the constraining factor model (Siemsen, Roth, and

Balasubramanian 2008) or possibly the new-to-the-world optimizing factor model. While neither the CFM nor OFM were optimal in this context, this method of examining interrelationships between predictor variables could be applied not only to other examinations involving MOA theory, but also to any theoretical context involving the prediction of an outcome with several potentially constraining or optimizing variables.

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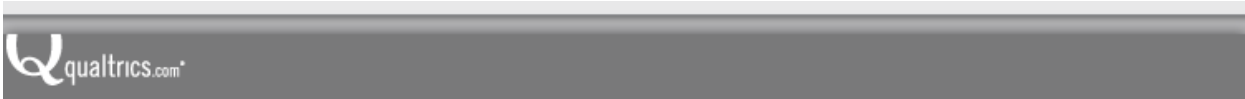
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Appendix: Survey



Salespeople's Implementation of Plans Associated with Introducing New Products/Services

You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of the study is to examine the implementation of plans associated with introducing new products/services by salespeople. You are invited to participate because of your experience in a sales-related position in a company. You must be at least 21 years old to participate in this study. Participation will require approximately 20 minutes of your time. If you decide to participate, you will complete the following online questionnaire. Please be assured that all information you provide is **ABSOLUTELY CONFIDENTIAL** and will be used only in summary form. In this study, you will not have any more risks than you would in a normal day of life.

This study will allow us to gain important information about salespeople. Participation in research is voluntary. You have the right not to be in this study. If you decide to be in the study and change your mind, you have the right to drop out at any time. You are free to decide not to participate in this study. You can also withdraw at any time without harming your relationship with the researchers or the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. Whatever you decide, you will not lose any benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. We will code all information. Your name will not be provided to the researchers. Hence your name will never be reported on study records. The findings will be summarized and reported only in group form. Please call or e-mail Jeff Johnson at 402-415-3639 or jjohns60@huskers.unl.edu or Dr. Ravipreet Sohi at 402-472-9500 or ravisohi@unl.edu if you have questions about this study. For Panelist support, please direct requests to survey@zoompanel.com. Sometimes study participants have questions or concerns about their rights. In this case, please contact UNL Research Compliance Services at 402-472-6965 or irb@unl.edu. By completing and submitting your survey responses, you have given your consent to participate in this research.

We are interested in your response to common salesperson perceptions. Take as much time as you need. We are interested only in your opinions. There are no right or wrong answers.

About how many new product/service offerings (ones that your firm did not previously sell) were made available to you in the last 12 months?

	New Products	New Services
.	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

In carrying out plans associated with introducing new products/services...

[illegible]

My customers...

[illegible]

Amongst my customers, over the past 12 months...

[illegible]

How many years have you been working...

	In sales/account management?	For your present company?	In your present position?
.	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

Approximately how many employees work for your company?

- ☐ 1-9
☐ 10-49
☐ 50-149
☐ 150-1000
☐ >1000

Approximately how much annual revenue does your company earn? (Please select the appropriate scaling and enter the number in the box below it. E.g. 50 in the millions box if revenue is \$50,000,000.)

- ☐ In Thousands

☐ In Millions

☐ In Billions

How many customers...

	are assigned to you?	do you call on in an average month?
.	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

How many products/services do you carry as a salesperson?

	Total Products	Total Services
.	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

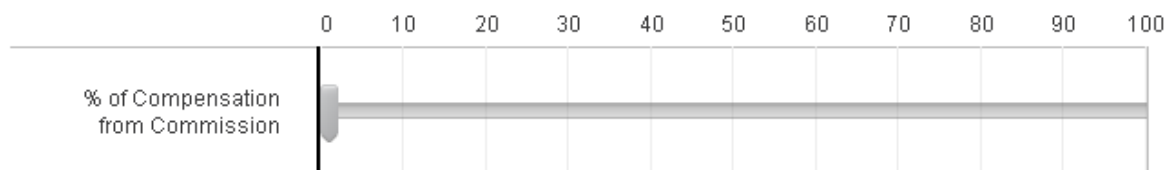
The customers you interact with primarily are (Please check only one):

- ☐ Industrial suppliers
- ☐ Industrial manufacturers
- ☐ Wholesalers
- ☐ Retailers
- ☐ Individual consumers
- ☐ Other (please specify)

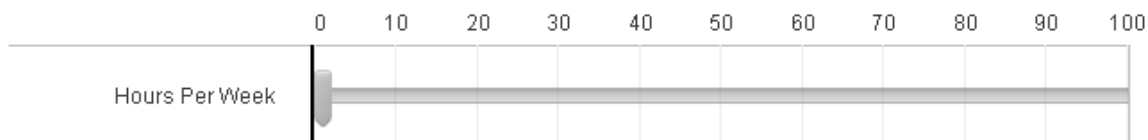
What industry would you classify the products and services you sell as belonging to? (Please check only one)

- ☐ Medical/Pharmaceutical
- ☐ Technology/Communications
- ☐ Transportation/Logistics
- ☐ Financial Services/Consulting
- ☐ Consumer Goods
- ☐ Other (please specify)

Please indicate the approximate percentage of your compensation that is earned by commission:



Please indicate the number of hours you work in an average week:



What is your approximate annual income (in thousands)?

Thousand Dollars

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- ☐ Middle School
- ☐ High School / GED
- ☐ 2-year College Degree
- ☐ 4-year College Degree
- ☐ Masters Degree
- ☐ Doctoral Degree

What is your gender?

- ☐ Female
- ☐ Male

What is your age?