Hindering and Challenging Aspects of Sales Control Systems: A Granular Approach to the Burnout Process in Japan

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The candidate confirms that the work submitted is her own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

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Dedication

To my family, Mitsuru, Michiyo, Moeka, Sho, Marika and Lila

Abstract

The present thesis attempts to extend the understanding of salespeople's burnout by taking a granular approach to the Job Demands-Resources framework. In particular, the study investigates the boundary conditions of salespeople's burnout in which customer orientation affects burnout, and, in turn, affects their service performance. Particular attention was given to the work environment unique to the sales occupations. As such, the study conceptualises the demanding aspects of sales control systems (i.e. activity control and outcome control) as organisational demands, and customer learning climate as an important organisational resource. These organisational demands and this resource are conceptualised as the boundary conditions of burnout among sales employees, and hypothesised to have moderating effects on the link between customer orientation and burnout. Further, the study tests the effect of burnout on the service performance of salespeople following an emerging discussion which highlights the importance of relational aspects of salespeople's performance.

Using a sample of 372 dyadic responses collected from frontline sales employees and their direct supervisors from a pharmaceutical company operating in Japan, the study tested two direct relationship hypotheses and three interaction hypotheses where customer orientation interacts with proposed demands and a resource to influence salespeople's burnout. The results suggest that customer orientation is an important personal resource that shapes perceptions of the work environment. Particularly, this study provides empirical evidence that: (1) customer orientation is directly and negatively related to burnout; (2) burnout is negatively related to service performance; (3) activity control is appraised as a challenge demand, and it interacts with customer orientation to further reduce burnout; (4) outcome control is appraised as hindering, and it interacts with customer orientation to form burnout; and (5) customer learning climate is a valuable resource for customer-oriented sales employees in alleviating burnout. These findings are discussed with relevance to the prevalent extant literature. In addition, important theoretical and managerial implications will be provided. Finally, the thesis further discusses the limitations of the study and provides directions for future research; this is followed by the concluding remarks.

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Study Constructs and Important Abbreviations

FSE	frontline sales employee
CLC	customer learning climate
CO	customer orientation
SCSs	sales control systems
JD-R	Job Demands-Resources
P-O fit theory	Person-Organisation fit theory

Analysis

AVE	average variance extracted
CFA	confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	comparative fit index
CMB	common method bias
CR	composite reliability
GFI	goodness of fit index
IFI	incremental fit index
RMSEA	root mean square error of approximation
SEM	structural equation modelling

Other

COR theory	conservation of resources theory
JPMA	Japan Pharmaceutical Manufacturers Association
MRs	medical representatives
PM	prime minister

CHAPTER 1 – Introduction

1.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a brief overview of the present research project. Firstly, the chapter provides the research background and focus by highlighting why the phenomenon under investigation is important to the current body of the relevant literature. Secondly, the chapter provides five research objectives and their connections to specific gaps in the literature. Subsequently, the chapter discusses the expected contribution of the study. This chapter also provides the structure of this thesis with a brief description of each chapter.

1.2. Research Background – Salespeople's Burnout

"Organisations are facing employee burnout crisis."

Wigert and Agrawal, 2018a, p.1.

Indeed, burnout is a severe consequence of our modern and fast-paced workplace (Babakus, et al., 1999; Wigert and Agrawal, 2018a). In 2016, the severity of burnout syndrome among full-time workers became a major public concern in Japan. Triggered by the suicide of a salesperson who died of burnout and overwork, the government of Japan and Prime Minister (PM) Abe launched a political campaign and legal reform "work-style reform" – to tackle this critical issue (Sankei, 2018).

Evidently, frontline sales employees (FSEs) are more susceptible to burnout due to their boundary-spanning role, being required to fulfil both customer and organisational needs (Boles et al., 1997). In fact, firms' sales forces are extremely important in terms of relationship marketing and marketing performances, because FSEs are the faces of the organisation, and they are deeply connected to client management and new product launches (Vargo and Lusch, 2004; Lusch et al., 2007; Palmatier, 2008; Arherne et al., 2016). However, unfortunately, burnout is often seen as a part of work life, and the cost of this psychological state is often neglected (Weigert and Agrawal, 2018b). In fact, Gallup reported that as many as 67% of full-time workers worldwide experience some level of burnout at work (Weigert and Agrawal, 2018a). The consequences of burnout are found to be dysfunctional, such as frequent sick leave, high turnover rate and less engagement at

work and inefficient performance, to mention just a few (e.g. Boles et al., 1997; Babakus et al., 1999; Singh, 2000; Low et al., 2001; Lewin and Sager, 2007; Lewin and Sager, 2008).

Furthermore, with the shift in buyer-seller relationships, which have become more relational than transactional, the role of the FSE has also become more complex in terms of meeting expectations for customer service quality and achieving sales targets (e.g. Hunter and Perreault, 2007). Thus, these salespeople now face the financial as well as relational or service aspect of organisational demands. Therefore, without any doubt, FSEs' burnout is a serious issue that affect organisations' both service and sales performances.

1.3. Research Focus

The present study focuses on Bakker and Demerouti's (2007) health impairment process of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) framework, which explains the process of FSE burnout. In investigating this phenomenon, special consideration was given to the boundary conditions or factors that could potentially increase or decrease salespeople's burnout. The early burnout studies focused on identifying general antecedents and outcomes of burnout such as job stress and dysfunctional organisational consequences such as turnover intentions and lowered performance (e.g. Boles et al., 1997; Babakus et al., 1999; Singh, 2000; Low et al., 2001). However, beyond general job stress, it is only recently that academic attention has turned to the specific job environment of the sales occupations that potentially leads to psychological strain (Miao and Evans, 2013; Schmitz and Ganesan, 2014; Auh et al., 2016; McFarland et al., 2016). Specifically, sparse attention has been given to the boundary conditions which increase or alleviate salespeople's burnout.

Many studies on burnout utilised Bakker and Demouti's (2007) JD-R framework in order to explain the process by which employees form a positive psychological state of work engagement and negative psychological state of burnout (e.g. Babakus et al., 2009; Demerouit and Bakker, 2011; Zablah et al., 2012; Miao and Evans, 2013). The JD-R framework broadly explains that every job occupation has unique job demands and job resources. Job demands are found to be the primary antecedents of burnout. On the other hand, job resources are argued to be

the primary antecedents of work engagement and buffer the positive effect of job demands on burnout. In addition, personal resources, such as job autonomy and self-efficacy, are important because such resources strengthen job resources (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2014). Due to its descriptive nature, which enables the application of the framework in various different contexts, the JD-R framework is widely accepted in the sales literature (e.g. Wang et al., 2012; Miao and Evans, 2013; Miao and Evans, 2014; McFarland et al., 2016) and marketing literature such as in frontline employee and customer services contexts (e.g. Zablah et al., 2012; Auh et al., 2016; Menguc et al., 2017). However, Menguc et al. (2017) pointed out that the original JD-R framework is overly simplistic because it does not explain the nuanced nature of how work engagement and burnout are formed. In fact, the JD-R framework provides what kinds of demands and resources lead to different processes of motivation and health impairment (i.e. work engagement and burnout); however, it does not explain why and how such demands and resources affect individuals' psychological states (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014).

There have been attempts to extend such limitations of the JD-R framework. For example, Crawford et al. (2010) and Van den Borek et al. (2010) proposed a differentiated JD-R framework extended by separating job demands into challenge and hindering demands. They argued that, when a person appraises a demand as challenging, it enhances and encourages personal learning and growth, which in turn positively affects that individual's motivation and work engagement. On the other hand, when one appraises a demand as hindering, it diminishes motivation and depletes energy, which in turn leads to burnout (Crawford et al., 2010; Van den Broek et al., 2010). Despite the various efforts to extend the explanatory power of the JD-R framework, further and closer investigations into each process are required in order to understand each psychological process because the universal JD-R framework does not explain the contingency factors that could potentially affect each psychological process.

These previous studies of burnout among salespeople and the JD-R framework have, in fact, provided ample evidence that job stress is the primary job demand that depletes salespeople's energy and leads them to be burnt-out (e.g. Boles et al., 1997; Babakus et al., 1999; Singh, 2000; Low et al., 2001; Miao and Evans, 2013). However, the current body of knowledge is limited in

the understanding of what alleviates burnout among salespeople and on what conditions burnout is formed or reduced. Therefore, the shortcoming in the sales and marketing literature on burnout is that it lacks an understanding of the sales occupations' unique boundary conditions of burnout. Specifically, the burnout literature still has a margin for development by paying closer attention to one process, such as the health impairment process of burnout, rather than the universal dual process of work engagement and burnout. Such a granular approach to the investigation of one process enables researchers to identify the factors and boundary conditions that are specific to a sales environment and which can potentially form or reduce burnout. Thus, the present research focuses on the health impairment process of burnout by investigating sales-specific factors and conditions in which burnout can be formed or alleviated.

1.4. Research Gaps and Objectives

As previously mentioned, the pertinent literature on sales and marketing has identified what generally causes burnout among frontline employees. That is, ample evidence shows that role stress, such as role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload, generally causes burnout among frontline employees (e.g. Singh et al., 1994; Boles et al., 1997; Babakus et al., 1999; Low et al., 2001; Lewin and Sager, 2007; Crosno et al., 2009; Hollet-Hauderbert et al., 2011). However, scant attention has been given to what alleviates burnout or under what conditions burnout is formed or alleviated, especially in a sales environment.

The primarily assumption of the JD-R framework is that every occupation has different and unique job demands and resources. However, only a limited number of studies have specifically investigated the factors in the sales occupations' unique environment that influence formation of burnout (e.g. Miao and Evans, 2013; Schmitz and Ganesan, 2014; McFarland et al., 2016). Therefore, the first objective of the present study is to extend our understanding of salespeople's burnout process. Specifically, the present study investigates the boundary conditions of salespeople's burnout by taking a granular approach to the JD-R framework, which focuses only on the health impairment process of burnout. This approach helps to uncover the boundary conditions of such a phenomenon among sales employees (Menguc et al., 2017). In

order to formulate and test a more nuanced model, the study identifies salespeople's personal resources and unique sales environments that contribute to or alleviate burnout. Thus, the first objective of the present study is:

Research Objective 1:

To identify the unique factors and boundary conditions of the sales occupations that can potentially form or alleviate burnout.

The JD-R literature argues that personal resources are the important factors that can influence employees' motivation (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; Bakker et al., 2014). However, the JD-R framework does not specify how such resources should be conceptualised in the framework, and thus, they have been studied as either moderators or mediators between environmental factors and outcomes, or the factors that can determine the way people perceive the environment (e.g. Van Yreren and Snijiders, 2000; Pierce and Gardner, 2004; Llorens et al., 2006; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2009). Hence, the extant literature conceptualised personal resources in different parts of the framework, which led to ambiguous conceptualisations of personal resources, and the role of such resources is undefined. Thus, the role of personal resources in the JD-R framework needs further investigation (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014).

Drawing from this, the present study proposes that customer orientation (CO) is an important personal resource that directly affects the FSE's burnout and shapes the perception of demands and resources to affect burnout differently. Despite the different perspectives on how CO should be conceptualised (i.e. behaviour, attitude and trait-level variables), CO is found to be an important resource which influences the FSE's behaviour and attitudes towards work (Zablah et al., 2012). Thus, the present study also conceptualises CO as a personal value (trait-level variable) that influences the FSE's perceptions of the work environment and guides behaviours towards customer workload (Brown et al., 2002; Mowen et al., 2004; Zablah et al., 2012). Therefore, by examining the role of CO as a personal resource, the present study aims to meet the following objective:

Research Objective 2:

To clarify the role of CO as a personal resource in the JD-R framework.

CO is an important personal resource and value that shapes the FSE's perception of the job environment (de Jonge and Dormann, 2006; Babakus et al., 2009; Zablah et al., 2012; Yoo and Arnold, 2014). In fact, the pertinent literature on sales and marketing argues that CO is one of the most important characteristics of FSEs (e.g. Zablah et al., 2012). However, studies that investigate how characteristics that are vital to FSEs can interact with the sales occupations' specific environment to affect their motivations are few and far between. Thus, it is promising to investigate how such a specific sales environment can affect the link between CO and burnout.

As this study takes a granular approach to the JD-R framework to explore the boundary conditions of salespeople's burnout, the interaction terms of a personal resource and different job demands and resources are investigated. Particularly, the interaction of CO and demanding aspects of sales control systems (SCSs) such as outcome control and activity control are investigated to see if they have different effects on the FSE's burnout. As such, the present study proposes that different pairs of interactions have positive or negative effects on burnout. Although the SCSs are a heavily studied concept in the sales literature, there is still no consensus on the most effective SCS design (Wan and Chan, 2012). Furthermore, even though SCS studies agree that such control systems are implemented simultaneously in an organisation (Miao and Evans et al., 2013; Miao and Evans, 2014), little attention has been given to how combinations of a FSE's personal characteristics and each control system can affect the FSE's psychological state. Therefore, based on the differentiated JD-R framework, which suggests that the appraisal of the demands (either challenging or hindering) depends upon the individual who perceives the particular demand (Crawford et al., 2010; Menguc et al., 2017), the present study examines the supposition that the same personal resource (CO) has different effects on burnout depending on the control system (i.e. activity control and outcome control) with which it interacts.

Research Objective 3:

To investigate the differential interaction effects of CO and SCSs on burnout.

Organisational climate is a proximal form of culture that influences the individual's psychological state and behaviours (Ashforth, 1985; Poole, 1985). Jaworksi (1988) contended that informal control, such as organisational climate, is concomitantly implemented in organisations to influence salespeople's behaviour and performance. However, Malek et al. (2018) identified that the role of informal control systems has not been well documented in the sales research. Thus, further investigation into the role of organisational climate in the sales environment in explaining the FSE motivational and health impairment process is required.

Thus, this study conceptualises customer learning climate (CLC) as an important and unique organisational resource that is relevant to the sales roles. While the JD-R framework suggests that personal and job resources foster each other to strengthen work engagement over time and buffer the effect of job demands on burnout (e.g. Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2009; Bakker et al., 2014), this study tries to extend the knowledge of personal and job resources in which the interaction of both resources facilitates the FSE to build strong resilience towards burnout when the value of person and organisation are in a complementary relationship. Drawing upon the person–organisation (P-O) fit theory, which suggests that the value congruence between personal and organisational values has a positive effect on psychological and work outcomes (e.g. Edwards and Cable, 2009), this research attempts to provide evidence that customer-oriented FSEs perceive CLC as a complementally climate which approves their customer-oriented values. As such, the CLC complements the FSEs' customer-oriented values, which gives them a sense of control during their customer encounters and, in turn, alleviates burnout.

Research Objective 4:

To demonstrate the complementary effects of CO and CLC in alleviating burnout.

1.5. Expected Contribution of the Study

The primary purpose of the present research is to extend the knowledge of salespeople's burnout by utilising the JD-R framework. As such, the present study investigates the job demands that are unique to the sales roles (i.e. activity control and outcome control), a job resource (CLC) and personal resource (CO) that can positively or negatively affect FSE burnout. Specifically, the present research takes a granular approach to the JD-R framework and investigates different interaction effects of CO, SCSs and CLC in influencing the formation of burnout. With the data collected from a Japanese pharmaceutical company, the present research expects to contribute to the literature on salespeople's burnout, especially the JD-R literature, in various ways.

Firstly, through the extensive literature review, the present study identifies antecedents of burnout that are specific to the sales occupations, considering FSEs' boundary-spanning and relationship-building roles. That is, this study investigates direct effects of CO on burnout, and burnout on service performance. CO is found to be one of the most important characteristics that is important to both sales and service occupations (i.e. Zablah et al., 2012). In addition, the role of sales employees has become relational rather than transactional as customers' needs and wants have become more unique and varied; salespeople are required to address different demands from different individual customers (i.e. Vargo and Lusch, 2004; Lusch et al., 2007). Thus, the service aspect of the sales employee's performance should not be overlooked (Miao and Evans, 2013). Therefore, this study contributes to expand the current body of salespeople's burnout literature showing that CO is an important stress-coping resource, and burnout thwarts the service aspect of FSEs' performance.

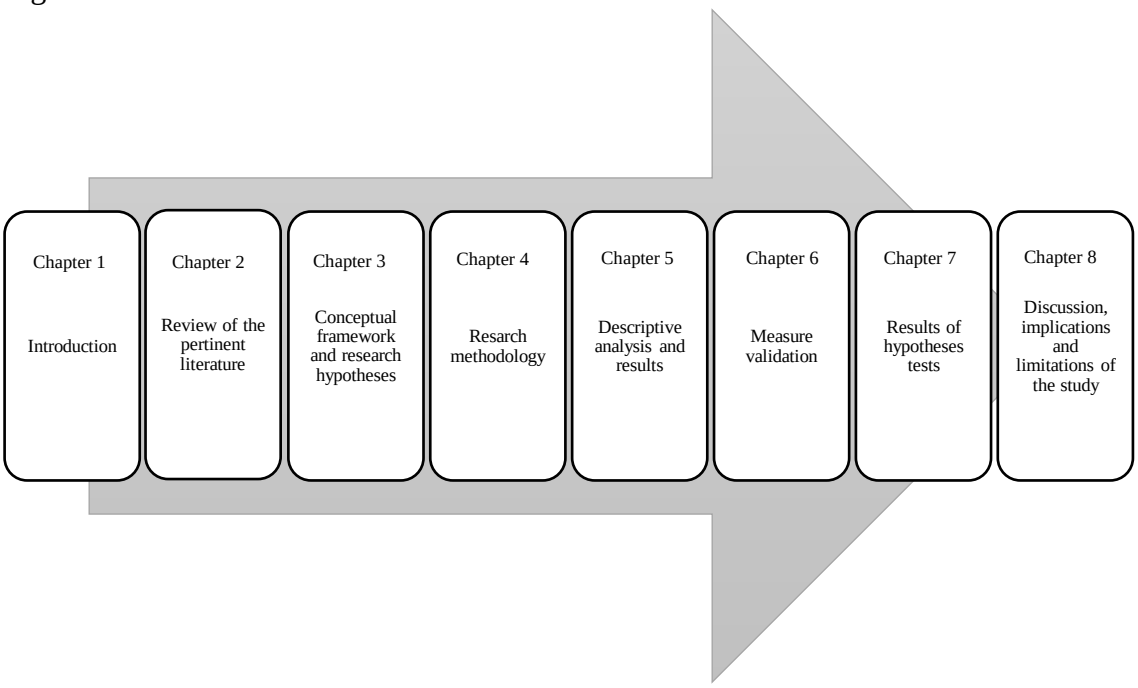
Secondly, by taking a granular approach to the JD-R framework, with special attention to the health impairment process, the present study tests a more nuanced research model than the prevailing JD-R literature. Specifically, the present research investigates the sales occupations' unique environment, such as activity control, outcome control and CLC, as the boundary conditions of the health impairment process, and deepens our knowledge about the boundary conditions in which the health impairment process is affected.

Thirdly, by conceptualising CO as a personal resource that shapes the perceptions of job demands and resources, the present research explores the role of CO in the JD-R framework. In other words, this study aims to provide the empirical evidence that CO is important personal resource in reducing burnout as well as in shaping the perception of the job demands and resources. Particularly, the present research investigates the moderating effect of the demand aspects of SCSs (i.e. activity and outcome controls) and CLC as a complemental organisational resource on the link between CO and burnout. The present study shows that the relationship between a personal resource of CO and burnout may be affected by different job demands and resources. That is, this study contributes to the understanding of personal resources within the JD-R framework that CO is an important personal resource that shapes the perception of different sales environments. As such, the present study tries to show that the interactions of CO and activity control and CO and CLC alleviate burnout among FSEs, and the influence of CO on burnout maybe affected by outcome control. Thus, the finding of the present research will contribute to build on the current understanding of the burnout process among sales employees. Additionally, it will provide a practical implication for sales managers in terms of the effective implementation of SCSs as well as the effort to reduce burnout at sales units in Japan.

1.6. Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is composed of eight chapters, and each chapter represents a different stage of this research project. Figure 1.1 provides the overview and flow of the thesis. This following text provides a brief overview of each chapter.

Figure 1.1. The Overview and Flow of the Thesis



This chapter (Chapter 1) has provided the research background and research focus, as well as the objectives of the present study. The chapter also discussed the expected theoretical contributions this study will make to the current body of the JD-R and burnout literature.

Chapter 2 provides an extensive review of the pertinent literature. This literature review focuses on the JD-R framework, which is the overarching theoretical framework that acts as a guide through the execution of the present study. Thus, in this chapter, each study construct utilised in the study will be extensively examined in associations with salespeople's burnout and the JD-R framework. Subsequently, limiting conceptual considerations with regard to the JD-R framework as well as gaps in the literature will be discussed.

Based on the JD-R framework, Chapter 3 provides the conceptual framework of the present study. Drawing from the conceptual framework, a series of hypotheses will be formulated based on psychological theories, such as the appraisal theory and P-O fit theory. Specifically, the chapter proposes direct relationships between CO and burnout, and burnout and the subsequent service performance. Subsequently, SCSs and CLC are introduced as boundary conditions (moderators) that influence the link between CO and burnout.

Chapter 4 presents the underlying philosophy as well as the methodological approach of the present study. In particular, the chapter provides the discussions pertaining to the research design and sampling method as well as the sample and context of this study. The operationalisation of the study constructs as well as the process of data collection are also presented in this chapter. Further, detailed explanations of the process of data analyses, especially structural equation modelling (SEM), are provided.

Chapter 5 presents the results of descriptive analysis of the empirical survey employed in this study. With a final sample of 372 FSEs from a Japanese pharmaceutical company, the chapter provides an overview of the data, such as percentages pertaining to each scale point, means and standard deviations, to discuss the response tendencies of the sample.

Chapter 6 presents the results of the analysis of the measurement model with a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) technique. The chapter discusses the various steps undertaken to examine the unidimensionality, reliability and discriminant validities of the measures utilised in the present study. In addition, concerns related to common method bias (CMB) are also addressed in this chapter.

Chapter 7 presents the results of hypotheses testing. Five hypotheses were tested by employing SEM and provide the empirical research findings. The results are presented in tables and graphs for smooth comprehensions.

Finally, Chapter 8 provides in-depth discussions of the research findings. The discussion section is divided into four subsections, each representing a key theoretical contribution and

implication of the study findings. This chapter also provides the managerial implications as well as a discussion on limitations and future research opportunities.

1.7. Summary

The present chapter provided an overview of the present research project by firstly highlighting the research background as well as the research focus. The chapter also presented the five research objectives by briefly highlighting the gaps in the current body of the burnout and the JD-R literatures. Subsequently, the chapter discussed the expected contributions of the study. Last but not least, the structure of the thesis has been presented in the last section of the chapter. The following chapter will provide the literature review and highlight gaps in the literature in order to emphasise the importance of the present study, as well as to form research hypotheses in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 2 – Review of the Pertinent Literature

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a systematic and extensive review of the relevant literature in the sales and marketing domain. Specifically, this literature review provides an overview of the current understanding of the JD-R framework, salespeople's burnout and other study constructs: CO, SCSs, CLC and service performance. Firstly, the chapter explores the prevalent literature on the JD-R framework, which is the overarching theoretical framework of the present study. Secondly, drawing from the JD-R framework, the chapter presents the study constructs which are investigated in the present study, namely, burnout, CO, SCSs, CLC and service performance. The literature review on each construct is presented in a different section, which provides definitions and the role of each construct in the JD-R framework with relevance to the sales and marketing literature. Finally, the selection and justification of the performance measure, service performance, will be discussed. Essentially, this extensive examination of extant and relevant literature facilitates the formation of hypotheses in the following chapter.

2.2. Theoretical Background

2.2.1. The Job Demands-Resources Framework

The JD-R framework explains that every job has a different set of demands and resources that are specific to occupation, and gives an overview of the process in which job demands and resources affect an employee's psychological and physiological states (e.g. employee well-being and ill-health) as well as behaviour (e.g. job performance and turnover) via the negative state of burnout and positive state of engagement (e.g. Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2014). In short, the application of the JD-R framework allows researchers to flexibly identify specific antecedents of employees' psychological and physical states that are tailored to the industry and company, as well as occupation, under investigation (Bakker et al., 2014).

The negative psychological process is known as the health impairment process, and burnout has been identified as the key indicator of this process (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Burnout refers to "a state of exhaustion, in which one is cynical about the value of one's occupation and doubtful of one's capacity to perform" (Maslach et al., 1996, p.20). Burnout is

conceptualised as a higher-order construct which consists of three sub-dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and diminished personal accomplishment (e.g. Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Bakker et al. 2014), and this conceptualisation is widely accepted in the extant literature. Bakker et al. (2004) defined the sub-dimensions of burnout, such that emotional exhaustion refers to "feelings of being emotionally drained by one's contact with other people" (p.390), and it is the central dimension of burnout. Depersonalisation is defined as "a negative or excessively detached response towards the people, who are the recipients of one's service or care" (p. 390). Lastly, reduced personal accomplishment refers to "a decline in one's feelings of competence and successful achievement at work" (p.390). Some scholars argue that burnout is a sequential phenomenon, and emotional exhaustion is the primary symptom of the burnout, and depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment occur subsequently to the emotional exhaustion (e.g. Lewin and Sager, 2007; Hollet-Haudebert et al., 2011). However, the predominant JD-R literature employs burnout as a higher-order construct that represents all three dimensions (e.g. Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2014).

The JD-R framework emphasises the strong associations between job demands and burnout in the health impairment process. The term job demands refers to "those physical, social, or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills" (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007, p.312). Employees experience energy depletion as a result of dealing with poorly designed jobs and job demands that are out of their ability to meet, because the efforts that they expend to meet such demands exhaust their physical and psychological resources (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) and Bakker et al. (2007) further explain that job demands that require a high level of effort to meet them often turn into role stress and job stress and, in turn, generate psychological and physiological costs. Thus, the extant literature identified the most critical job demands as role stress, such as role ambiguity, role conflict, stressful events, workload, emotional demands and work pressures (e.g. Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker et al. 2007; Schaufeli and Taris, 2014; Bakker et al., 2014; Edmondson et al., 2019). Essentially, job demands are identified as the primary

antecedents of burnout, rather than the lack of job resources (Lee and Ashforth, 1996; Bakker et al., 2014; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2014).

In contrast, the JD-R framework proposes that the positive psychological state is a product of motivational process, and such motivational process is represented by work engagement. Work engagement is defined as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p.74). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) defined the three sub-dimensions of engagement as follows: vigour refers to "high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence also in the face of difficulties" (p.295). Being high in vigour means that individuals can invest effort in their work and can deal with difficult situations when needed. Dedication refers to "a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge" (p.295). When employees are dedicated, they can appreciate challenges because they are enthusiastic and inspirational. Absorption is defined as "being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly, and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work" (p.295). Thus, when employees are absorbed at work, they experience feelings such that the time and days fly by and find it difficult to detach themselves from work.

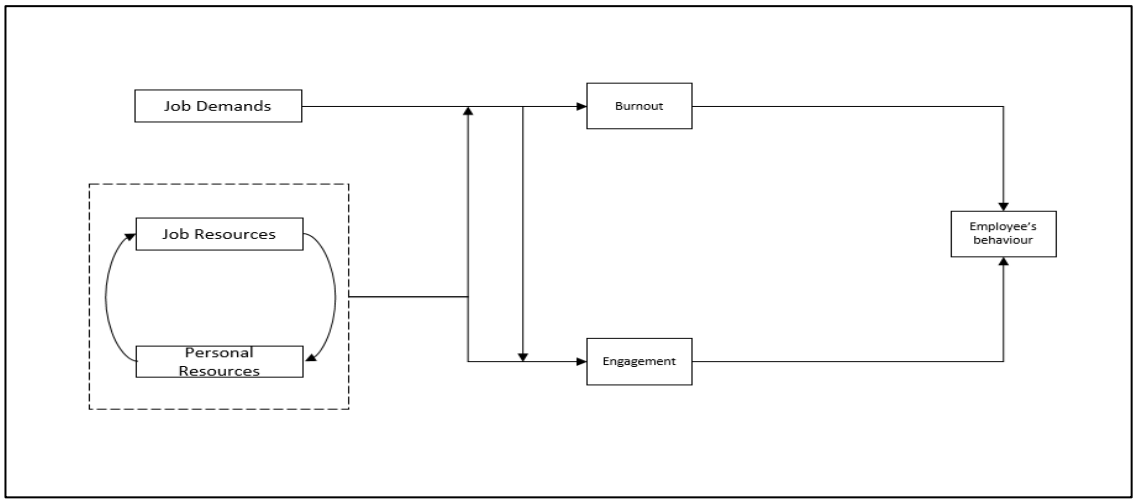
In the motivational process, great importance is given to job resources, which refers to "physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that are either functional in achieving goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, or stimulate person growth, learning and development" (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007, p.312). The motivational process assumes that job resources are motivational in nature and potentially lead to an individual's high engagement and buffer the negative effect of job demands (Bakker et al., 2014). In other words, not only do job resources reduce job demands, they also enhance work engagement. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) and Bakker et al. (2007) also contended that job resources are especially important, because they are not only necessary to deal with job demands and 'get things done', but also encourage individuals' development and task performance. Importantly, job resources can be found on a task level, interpersonal level and organisational level. Essentially, the most widely accepted constructs that represent job resources are positive

climate, supervisor support (Crawford et al. 2010), task variety, task significance, feedback and support from colleagues (Bakker et al., 2014).

Based on the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll et al. 2003), Xanthopoulou et al. (2007, 2009) further developed the JD-R framework by adding the notion of personal resources. The term personal resources refers to "individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact upon their environment successfully" (Hobfoll et al., 2003, p.124). The COR theory explains how people react to losses and gains of resources that give them happiness (e.g. money, jobs and houses), and proposes the following four propositions: 1) losing resources is more salient than gaining resources; 2) individuals have to invest their resources to gain other resources, recover from losing resources and prevent themselves from losing other resources; 3) when one feels salient resources loss, gaining resources becomes more important and the value of gaining resources increases; and 4) when people's resources are outstretched, they become defensive in order to preserve their remaining resources, such that they can act in a defensive, irrational or aggressive way (Hobfoll et al., 2003; Hobfoll et al., 2018). Xanthopoulou et al. (2007; 2009) emphasised the importance of personal resources (e.g. self-efficacy and optimism) in helping individuals take control of the surrounding environment. This is because, not only do personal resources themselves help individuals build resilience to stress (Chen et al., 2001), they also interact with job resources and strengthen each other, which, in turn, enhances work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009; Bakker et al., 2014). In addition, Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) argued that personal resources and job resources are in a reciprocal relationship. As such, job resources activate personal resources, and this results in positive psychological and organisational outcome. Thus, personal resources are critical in both motivational and health impairment processes, because personal resources further strengthen the motivational processes by enacting efficiency in task performance and prevent employees from falling into burnout. In addition, Alarcon et al. (2009) also argued that depletion of personal resources, such as lack of emotional stability, self-esteem and self-efficacy, is associated with burnout. Thus, the previous literature on the JD-R framework also proposes that the lack of personal resources leads to a negative psychological state.

In summary, the JD-R framework explains that difficult job demands as well as the depletion of job resources and personal resources are strongly associated with the health impairment process of burnout. On the other hand, job resources are primary antecedents of the motivational process of work engagement. In addition, job resources and personal resources have an important role in buffering the effect of job demands on burnout. Therefore, the JD-R framework suggests situational and individual factors are important in predicting burnout. Table 2.1 shows the development of the JD-R framework and Figure 2.1 shows the general conceptualisation of the JD-R framework adopted from Bakker and Costa (2014, p.113).

Figure 2.1. The General Conceptualisation of the JD-R Framework (Bakker and Costa, 2014, p.113)



2.2.2. The Differentiated JD-R

Previous studies of the JD-R framework found contradictory findings pertaining to the relationship between general job demands, especially work overload and cognitive demands, and positive outcomes such as work engagement. As such, even though the JD-R framework suggests that work overload and cognitive demands have a negative association with work engagement, Bakker et al. (2005) and Mauno et al. (2007) found a positive association between these job demands and work engagement. Subsequently, Crawford et al. (2010) and Van den Broeck et al. (2010) questioned the over-simplicity of the JD-R framework, arguing that the effects of a job demand on work engagement are dependent on how the employees perceive that particular demand.

Based on LePine et al. (2004, 2005) and Podsakoff et al. (2007), who contended that job stress can be categorised as either challenge stress or hindrance stress, Crawford et al. (2010) and Van den Broeck et al. (2010) conducted studies in order to differentiate job demands into two categories, namely, challenging and hindering job demands. Challenging job demands (challenge demand henceforward) are defined as work circumstances or job demands that may be stressful, yet produce positive feelings (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). On the other hand, hindering job demands (hindrance demands henceforward) are defined as work circumstances or job demands that involve undesirable or excessive constraints that hinder an employee's ability to perform tasks and achieve goals (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Based on the appraisal theory proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1987), these studies found that, regardless of the categorisation, job demands have a positive effect on burnout. However, challenge demands, such as job complexity, role demands, job responsibilities, pressure to complete tasks, time pressures and workload, had a stronger effect on work engagement. On the other hand, hindrance demands, such as situational constraints, organisational politics, resource inadequacy, role stress, role overload, 'hassles' and emotional demands had a significant and negative effect on work engagement. Importantly, job resources had a stronger effect on work engagement as compared to the challenge demands.

Essentially, both studies have shown that the differentiated JD-R framework has more explanatory powers than the original JD-R framework, as the former explained more variance (Crawford et al., 2010; Van den Broeck et al. 2010). Moreover, both studies suggested further investigations into situational factors, psychological factors or individual differences as moderating variables that affect the link between challenge demands and burnout, because conditions where challenge demands reduce exhaustion have not received enough empirical attention (Crawford et al., 2010; Van den Broeck et al., 2010). A summary of the differentiated JD-R framework is also provided in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. Development of the JD-R Framework

Authors (Year)	Job demands	Job resources	Personal resources	Propositions	Burnout	Engagement	Underlying theory
Demerouti et al. (2001)	Those physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs (e.g., exhaustion) (p.501).	Those physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: a) be functional in achieving work goals; b) reduce job demands at the associated physiological and psychological costs; c) stimulate personal growth and development			Syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal achievement • Exhaustion • Disengagement		
Schaufeli and Bakker (2004)	Same as Demerouti et al. (2001)	Same as Demerouti et al. (2001)		1. High job demands exhaust the employees' energy backup, which leads to burnout. 2. Job resources help employees to effectively deal with high job demands and foster engagement.	A state of mental weariness • Exhaustion • Cynicism • Professional Efficacy	A positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind (p.295) • Vigour • Dedication • Absorption	
Bakker and Demerouti (2007)	Same as Demerouti et al. (2001)	Same as Demerouti et al. (2001)		1. Health impairment process: poorly designed jobs or chronic job demands exhaust employees' mental and physical resources and therefore lead to the depletion of energy and to health problems. 2. Motivational process: job resources have motivational potential and lead to high work engagement, low cynicism and excellent performance. Job resources may foster employees' growth, learning and development, and goal achievement. 3. Job resources may buffer the impact of job demands on job strain, including burnout.	Definition is not provided	Definition is not provided	

Table 2.1. Development of the JD-R Framework (continued)

Authors (Year)	Job demands	Job resources	Personal resources	Propositions	Burnout	Engagement	Underlying theory
Xanthopoulou et al. (2007)	Same as Demerouti et al. (2001)	Same as Demerouti et al. (2001)	Individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact their environment successfully (Hobfoll, et al., 2003: p, 124).	Personal resources are not only related to stress resilience, but also have positive effects on physical and emotional well-being (Chen et al. 2001, p.124).	Definition is not provided • Exhaustion	Definition is not provided	COR theory (Hobfoll et al. 2004)
Xanthopoulou et al. (2009)	Not conceptualised in the model	Same as Demerouti et al. (2001)	Same as Xanthopoulou et al. 2009 (Hobfoll et al., 2004)	Resources and engagement may activate and conserve positive conditions, beliefs and affective states.	Not conceptualised in the model	Same as Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004).	COR theory (Hobfoll et al. 2004)
Demerouti and Bakker (2011)	Same as Demerouti et al. (2001)	Same as Demerouti et al. (2001)	Definition is not provided	1. Every occupation has its own specific risk factors associated with job-related stress, and these are categorised as job demands and resources. Job demands are not necessarily negative, they may turn into job stressors when meeting those demands requires high effort. 2. There are two different underlying psychological processes that play a role in the development of job-related strain and motivation: a) health impairment process; and b) motivational process. 3. The interaction between job demands and job resources is important for the development of job strain and motivation. 4. Job resources particularly influence work engagement when job demands are high.	Definitions is not provided	Definition is not provided	

Table 2.1. Development of the JD-R Framework (continued)

Authors (Year)	Job demands	Job resources	Personal resources	Propositions	Burnout	Engagement	Underlying theory
Bakker et al. (2014)	Same as Demerouti et al. (2001)	Those physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that help to either achieve work goals, reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, or stimulate personal growth, learning and development (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; p.392)	Individuals' sense of their ability to control and impact their environments successfully (p.401)	Flexibility • All job characteristics can be categorised as either job demands or job resources. • JD-R can be applied to all environments and can be tailored to the specific occupation under consideration. Two Process • Job demands and resources trigger two fairly independent processes, namely, a health impairment process and a motivational process. Job Demands x Resources Interaction • Job demands and resources initiate different processes, but they also have joint effects. • Job demands and resources interact in predicting occupational well-being. • Job resources and personal resources amplify work engagement. Personal Resources • The higher the individual's personal resources, the more positive the person's self-regard and self-concordance. • Job resources foster the development of personal resources.	• A syndrome characterised by emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and lack of personal accomplishment (p.390)	A positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli et al. 2002, p.74; p.391.	

Table 2.1. Development of the JD-R Framework (continued)

Authors (Year)	Job demands	Job resources	Personal resources	Propositions	Burnout	Engagement	Underlying theory
Crawford et al. (2010)	Challenge Demands: job demands or work circumstances that produce positive feelings, even though they may be stressful (Cavanaugh et al., 2000, p.67) Hindrance Demands: job demands or work circumstances that involve excessive or undesirable constraints that interfere with or hinder an individual's ability to achieve valued goals (Cavanaugh et al., 2000, p.66)	Those aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, stimulate personal growth and development, and reduce job demands and their associated physiological and psychological cots (p.835)		1. Job characteristics can be broadly categorised in terms of challenge demands and hindrance demands, and job resources. 2. Job demands, whether challenges or hindrances, activate an energy depletion process that builds up strain and results in increased burnout. 3. Job resources activate a motivational process that increases willingness to dedicate one's efforts and abilities to work tasks, resulting in increased engagement. 4. Job resources protect individuals from strains related to resource depletion accruing over time to result in burnout. 5. Challenge demands trigger positive emotions and cognitions that result in active, problem-focused coping styles reflected in increased engagement. 6. Hindrance demands trigger negative emotions and cognitions that result in passive, emotional-focused coping styles reflected in decreased engagement.	A syndrome of weariness with work characterised by exhaustion, cynicism and inefficiency (p.835; Maslach and Leiter, 1997, 2008). • Exhaustion • Depersonalisation • Diminished personal accomplishment	A positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption. (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p.74). • Vigour • Dedication • Absorption	Stress, appraisal and coping (Lazarus and Falkman, 1984).

2.2.3. Limiting Conceptual Considerations of the JD-R framework

Despite the popularity of its application in exploring the process mechanisms of burnout and engagement in different occupational and organisational contexts, there are three limitations in the conceptualisation of the JD-R framework. Firstly, the role of personal resources is not yet defined in the JD-R framework. Secondly, the application of the JD-R framework requires employment of psychological and behavioural theory to explain the relationship that the researcher aims to hypothesise. In other words, the JD-R framework does not have a theoretical ground to explain why demands and resources lead to different psychological states. Finally, the JD-R framework is overly simplistic in capturing the nuanced nature of the dual process of burnout and work engagement.

The integration of personal resources increased the explanatory power of the JD-R framework, and personal resources have been incorporated into many empirical studies (e.g. Van Yperen and Snijders, 2000; Pierce and Gardner, 2004; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2009; Llorens et al., 2006; Salanova et al., 2010). However, the role of personal resources is still ambiguous as the extant literature conceptualises them in different parts of the framework. For example, Van Yperen and Snijders (2000), Pierce and Gardner (2004), and Llorens et al. (2006) investigated the direct effect of personal resources (e.g. self-efficacy) on job demands. Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) tested the moderating effect of personal resources as well as the mediating effect on the links between job demands and exhaustion and job resources and work engagement. Thus, personal resources do not have a definitive position in the JD-R framework. In fact, Schaufeli and Taris (2014) provided a review of personal resources and proposed five ways that they have been integrated and studied in the JD-R framework. They found the following conceptualisations of personal resources: (1) the factors that directly impact employees' well-being; (2) the moderating factors that influence the link between job characteristics (i.e. job demands and job resources) and burnout and engagement; (3) the mediating factors between job characteristics and well-being; (4) the factors that influence the perception of job demands and job resources; and (5) the 'third variables' that could affect both the perception of job characteristics and well-being. These suggest that flexible applications of the JD-R framework in the past counterintuitively limit the

incorporation of personal resources. That is, even though the importance of personal resources in explaining the dual process of health impairment and motivation in the JD-R framework is often discussed in the pertinent literature, discussions concerning how personal resources should be conceptualised in the study have not been provided. In addition, the current JD-R framework is limited in the conceptualisation of personal resources that such resources are conceptualised as only positive resources. Thus, systematic studies that investigate the different combinations and conceptualisations of the relationships between personal resources, job demands and job resources are essential in order to incorporate and define personal resources in the framework adequately.

The JD-R framework is descriptive in nature, and this descriptive nature permits the application of the framework in various contexts. However, the JD-R framework does not provide reasons why and how different antecedents can influence work engagement and burnout. Rather, it provides what kind of job resources, demands and personal resources can lead to different psychological states (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). In other words, the JD-R framework requires the application of psychological and behavioural theories in order to formulate hypotheses (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). In fact, there are studies that do not have any theoretical background in hypotheses development (e.g. Zablah et al., 2012; Miao and Evans, 2013; Schmitz and Ganesa, 2014). However, it seems that scholars tend to utilise the following theories to give the theoretical underpinning. For example, Xanthopoulou et al. (2007, 2009) applied COR theory (Hobfoll et al. 2003), Crawford et al. (2010) and Van den Broeck (2010) applied appraisal theory (Lazarus and Falkman, 1987), and Crawford et al. (2010) also used self-determination theory (Deci et al., 2001). Importantly, the choice of theory is dependent on the scholars and phenomena under investigation. Hence, Demerouti and Bakker (2011) emphasised the importance of theory-guided empirical investigations when applying the JD-R framework.

Finally, Menguc et al. (2017) highlighted that the original JD-R framework is overly simplistic and does not capture the detailed mechanisms of how and why work engagement and burnout are formed and affect performance. In fact, the differentiated JD-R framework was developed to overcome this limitation, and extended the explanatory power of the framework by

explaining that different types of demands (i.e. hindrance and challenge) have different effects on the process of engagement and burnout (Menguc et al., 2017). Specifically, both demands positively affect burnout, yet hindrance demands have a stronger effect on burnout and challenge demands have a positive effect on work engagement (Crawford et al., 2010; Van den Broek et al., 2010). However, sparse attention was given to the investigation of the boundary conditions in which different types of demands affect burnout and work engagement. In order to uncover such mechanisms, Menguc et al. (2017) suggested taking a granular approach to the JD-R framework, and investigate a more detailed and nuanced process in which different demands and resources affect each process. Thus, the JD-R framework still has a margin for further development in terms of explaining each process in more detail. Such a limitation can be addressed by taking a more granular approach, which specifically investigates a particular process focused on either of the processes. Therefore, it is promising to investigate each process more closely to further advance the JD-R framework (e.g. Menguc et al., 2017).

2.3. Burnout in Marketing and Sales

Salespeople play vital roles in relationship marketing (Morgan and Hunt, 1994) because they are deeply involved in new product launches (Ahearne et al., 2016) and cross-functional development (Joshi, 2010). Additionally, they are the ones who directly and personally interact with customers; thus, they have first-hand knowledge about customers (Yeboah Banin et al., 2016). However, these frontline sales roles often put them in difficult positions where they are required to balance out expectations from the organisation and customers on a daily basis (Arnold et al., 2009). Subsequently, FSEs are agued to be most susceptible to experience burnout due to the nature of the job. Thus, the importance of studying burnout among FSEs has been heavily highlighted in the sales literature (e.g. Babakus et al., 1999). Low et al. (2001) emphasised that, "field salespeople, who communicate personally with customers as part of their demanding and less structured job responsibilities, are potentially more susceptible to the effects of burnout" (p.589). In fact, Vargo and Lusch (2004) contended that organisations should see sales employees as non-substitutable resources. That is, salespeople should be regarded as valuable resources,

rather than the mode of transactions. Thus, some sales and marketing scholars investigated the antecedents and outcome of burnout and related phenomena such as emotional exhaustion and role stress in order to understand what factors lead to burnout among frontline employees (e.g. Singh et al., 1994; Babakus et al., 1999; Sand and Miyazaki, 2000; Lewin and Sager, 2008; Crosno et al. 2009; Auh et al., 2016). This section summarises previous findings pertaining to burnout-related studies in the sales and marketing literature.

2.3.1. Drivers of Frontline Employees' Burnout

The primary focus of the previous burnout research in marketing and sales has been identifying what causes burnout among frontline employees. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) emphasised that investigators of burnout in industry settings should consider different job contexts, the nature of the employee-client relationship, and social support as well as personal characteristics. Within the sales and marketing literature, role stress has been the most investigated antecedent of frontline employees' burnout due to their boundary-spanning roles. According to Singh (1998), role stress is comprised of three components, namely role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload. Role ambiguity refers to the degree to which an FSE is uncertain about other parties' expectations with respect to their job. Role conflict refers to a degree of incompatibility or incongruity of expectations associated with the sales role. Role overload is defined as the extent to which an employee perceives various role demands are incompatible and difficult to meet within a short space of period (e.g. Jha et al., 2017; Singh et al., 1998). The prevalent literature emphasises that experiencing high levels of each stressor leads to negative attitudes and dysfunctional behaviours, such that high role ambiguity and conflict lead to lower organisational commitment (Singh, 1998; Singh et al., 2000; Low et al., 2001; Rutherford et al., 2009) and job satisfaction (Singh, 1998; Low et al., 2001; Crosno et al., 2009; Rutherford et al., 2009; Arnold et al., 2009; Ambrose et al., 2014) as well as higher turnover intention (e.g. Singh et al., 1994; Singh, 1998; Jaramillo et al., 2006; Babakus et al., 2009).

In fact, early studies of frontline employee burnout proposed that burnout has a mediating role between role stress and psychological states and performance, and provided more detailed

mechanisms of the burnout syndrome by showing role stress as the primary antecedent of the burnout (e.g. Singh et al., 1994). Consistently, the sales and marketing literature found that role stress is the primary antecedent of frontline employees' burnout (Singh et al., 1994; Low et al., 2001; Onyemah, 2008; Crosno et al., 2009; Babakus et al., 2009), Burnout-due-to-supervisor and Burnout-due-to-customer (Singh, 2000; Ambrose et al. 2014). Additionally, sequential burnout studies in the sales domain, which focus on identifying the different stages in the process of burnout, also found that role stress is a primary antecedent of emotional exhaustion (e.g. Boles et al., 1997; Lewin and Sager, 2007; Babakus, et al., 2009; McFarland et al., 2016) and other dimensions, such as reduced personal accomplishment (Lewin and Sager, 2007; Ambrose et al., 2014). Thus, these studies confirmed that a high stress sales environment can be detrimental to the FSE's mental health.

However, only a few studies have investigated antecedents that negatively affect burnout or contingency factors that can potentially reduce frontline employees' burnout in the marketing and sales literature. The primary focus of the exploration of the boundary conditions of burnout was general personal characteristics, which can be translated as personal resources. For example, task control, intrinsic motivation, optimism, perspective taking, self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, autonomy and trait-level customer orientation are found to have either a direct negative relationship or contingent effect that can alleviate burnout (e.g. Babakus et al., 1999; Bakakus et al., 2009; Low et al., 2001; Crosno et al., 2009; Chan and Wan, 2012; Schmitz and Ganesan, 2014; Mulki et al., 2015; McFarland et al., 2016; Matthews et al., 2016). In addition, Onyemah (2008) found that FSEs with shorter tenure are more prone to experience role stress. At the organisational-level, perceived organisational support (Rutherford et al., 2011b; Lages and Piercy, 2012), supervisor support (Babakus et al., 1999, 2009; Singh 2000; Chan and Wan, 2012; Schmitz and Ganesan, 2014), supervisors' feedback on customer service (Auh et al., 2016) and capability control (Miao and Evans, 2013) are found to be the boundary conditions which reduce the effect of stress, hence reduce burnout. Although their model did not integrate burnout, Menguc et al. (2017) found that performance-focused climate and service failure recovery climate have different interaction effects on work engagement depending on the personal and job resources

with which these climates interact. Although studies investigating the personal- and organisational-level resources are few and far between, this evidence provided the ideas that personal resources and organisational resources play crucial roles in influencing frontline employees' levels of burnout.

2.3.2. Outcomes of Frontline Employees' Burnout

The consequence of frontline employees' burnout is detrimental to organisations. Similar to role stress, burnout was found to have a negative effect on psychological states as well as behavioural outcomes. For example, the extant research found that burnout is negatively related to frontline employees' job satisfaction (e.g. Singh et al., 1994; Low et al., 2001; Crosno et al., 2009) and organisational commitment (Singh et al., 1994; Singh, 2000; Low et al., 2001) as well as turnover intention (Singh et al., 1994; Singh, 2000; Low et al., 2001; Babakus et al., 2009). In addition, the extant studies also found that burnout tarnishes frontline employees' general job performance (e.g. Singh et al., 1994; Crosno et al., 2009; Babakus et al., 2009), performance quality and productivity (Singh, 2000), and sales performance (Low et al., 2001). In line with these studies, Chan and Wan (2012) also found that fatigue, defined as feelings of mental tiredness, drowsiness or exhaustion, negatively affect service employees' customer complaints-handling performance as well as their customer-directed extra-role performance.

Furthermore, sales and marketing studies which focused on the effect of emotional exhaustion showed that it is positively related to turnover intention, and negatively related to job satisfaction, organisational commitment and performance (e.g. Boles et al., 1997; Babakus et al., 1999; Rutherford et al., 2009, 2011b; Suh et al., 2011). In sum, the previous relevant literatures in sales and marketing offer ample evidence that frontline employees' burnout affects their performances negatively.

2.3.3. Gaps in the Literature

The extant studies provide ample evidence that psychological strain, such as role stress and burnout, negatively affects the performance of FSEs. However, to the researcher's knowledge,

there are only a limited number of studies that have specifically investigated reduction of psychological strain. In particular, none of the studies explored the boundary conditions of salespeople's burnout. That is, there is a lack of knowledge on how sales-specific and relevant personal resources, job demands and job resources can interact to prevent FSEs from falling into burnout syndrome.

Based on the assumption that high role stress thwarts the FSE's performance, scholars investigated how different basic personality, supervisors' behaviour or climate can mitigate such stress (e.g. Jaramillo et al., 2006; Auh et al., 2016). These studies showed that an ethical climate gives FSEs a code of conduct in conflicting situations and guides them towards organisationally correct behaviour, and supervisors' feedback mitigates burnout towards supervisors. On a personal level, having an optimistic personality was found to minimise role stress. Additionally, Babakus et al. (2009) found that trait-level CO negatively moderated the negative effect of role stress on job performance. However, these studies did not investigate sales-specific demands, such as SCSs, customer complexity and so on.

In addition, these studies are limited in providing an adequate conceptualisation of the JD-R framework. As such, Jaramaillo et al. (2006) did not conceptualise personal resources and Crosno et al. (2009) did not integrate any job resources. Babakus et al. (2009) conceptualised role stress as a demand, thus did not investigate sales-specific demands. Although Miao and Evans (2013) did investigate sales-specific-type demands and a resource, such as activity control, outcome control and capability control, they did not integrate the individual difference in the conceptual model and operationalised burnout as role stress. In fact, to the researcher's knowledge, only Auh et al.'s (2016) study truly reflected the health impairment process of the JD-R framework including key demands, resources and personal factors. However, their study was focused on the frontline service employees, rather than sales employees.

To fill this void, the present research specifically investigates how trait-level CO interacts with different contingent factors to reduce or amplify FSE burnout. In particular, this research focuses on SCSs, namely activity control and outcome control, which are the supervisor's monitoring unique to the sales job, and conceptualises them as challenge and hindrance demands.

The present research also investigates the contingent effect of CLC as a relevant organisational resource that can further reduce burnout. The relevant literatures for each construct introduced here are further reviewed in the following sections of the chapter.

Table 2.2. Drivers of Burnout in Sales and Marketing

Study (year)	Sample	Focal Construct(s)	JD-R	Guiding Theory	Conceptualisation			Dependent Variable	Burnout Measure
					personal resources	Job resource(s)	Job demands		
Singh et al. (1994)	351 service reps (multiple industries)	Burnout	No	Role theory			• Role ambiguity • Role conflict	• Job performance • Job satisfaction • Organisational commitment • Job tension • Turnover intention	Modified MBI (management, customer, co-worker referent)
Boles et al. (1997)	104 sales reps (media)	Emotional exhaustion	No				• Role ambiguity Role conflict	• Turnover intention	Kreitner and Kinicki (1992): MBI
Singh (1998)	285 sales reps (Fortune 500)	Role Stress	No	Activation theory			• Role ambiguity • Role conflict • Role overload	• Job performance • Job satisfaction • Organisational commitment • Job tension • Turnover intention	N/A
Babakus et al. (1999)	203 sales reps (service organisation)	Emotional Exhaustion	No				• Role ambiguity • Role conflict	• Turnover intention	MBI
Singh (2000)	306 service reps (service organisation)	Burnout towards manager Burnout towards customer	Yes Yes	Role theory	Task Control	Supervisor Support	• Role ambiguity (customer) • Role ambiguity (company) • Role conflict (Intersender) • Role conflict (demand and resources)	• Performance (quality and productivity) • Organisational commitment • Turnover intention	Modified MBI (management and customer)
Low et al. (2001)	148 sales reps (multiple industries)	Burnout	No		Intrinsic motivation		• Role ambiguity • Role conflict	• Organisational commitment • Job satisfaction • Salesperson performance • Turnover intention	MBI
Jaramillo et al. (2006)	138 retail employees (retail)	Role Stress	No	Role theory		Ethical climate	• Role ambiguity • Role conflict	• Turnover intention • Job performance	N/A
Lewin & Sager (2007)	502 sales reps (manufacturing)	Sequential Burnout (DP, RPA →EE)	No		External attribution (of failure)		• Role ambiguity • Role conflict	• Emotional Exhaustion	MBI

Table 2.2. Drivers of Burnout in Sales and Marketing (continued)

Study (year)	Sample	Focal construct(s)	JD-R	Guiding theory	Conceptualisation			Dependent Variable	Burnout Measure
					personal resources	Job resource(s)	Job demands		
Onyemah (2008)	1290 sales reps (multiple industries, Asia, Australia, Europe Middle East, North America)	Role Stress	No	Activation theory	• Tenure • Tendency to confront situation head-on • Tendency to transform situations into opportunities		• Role ambiguity • Role conflict	• Sales performance	N/A
Lewin & Sager (2008)	484 sales reps (manufacturing)	Emotional Exhaustion	No	Appraisal theory		• Sales manager support		• Emotional Exhaustion	Modified MBI (customer)
Crosno et al. (2009)	209 service reps (service sector)	Burnout	No	Appraisal theory	Optimism		• Role ambiguity • Role conflict	• Job satisfaction • performance	MBI
Babakus et al. (2009)	724 frontline employees (financial, New Zealand)	Burnout	Yes	Self-regulation theory	Customer orientation	• Supervisor support • Rewards • Service technology support • Training	• Role ambiguity • Role conflict • Role overload	• Job performance • Turnover intention	MBI
Rutherford et al. (2009)	132 sales reps (regional promotion)	Emotional Exhaustion	No					• Organisational commitment • Job satisfaction • Turnover intention	Kreitner and Kinicki (1992) : MBI
Arnold et al. (2009)	262 retail employees (retail)	Role Stress	No				• Role ambiguity • Role conflict • Competitive climate	• Job satisfaction • Job efficacy • Self-rated performance • Supervisor-rated performance	N/A
Suh et al. (2011)	3999 service employees (healthcare)	Emotional Exhaustion	No	Social Identity theory				• Affective commitment • Turnover intention	Modified MBI (management)

Table 2.2. Drivers of Burnout in Sales and Marketing (continued)

Study (year)	Sample (industry, country)	Focal construct(s)	JD-R	Guiding theory	Conceptualisation personal resources	Job resource(s)	Job demands	Dependent Variable	Burnout Measure
Shepherd et al. (2011)	234 sales reps (multiple industries)	Sequential Burnout (EE→DP→RPA)	No				• Role ambiguity • Role conflict	• Job satisfaction	MBI
Rutherford et al. (2011[b])	213 sales reps (retail, South Korea)	Emotional Exhaustion	No			Perceived organisational support		• Job satisfaction • Organisational commitment • Job performance • Turnover intention	MBI
Hollet-Hauderbert et al. (2011)		Sequential Burnout (DP, RPA)	No				• Role ambiguity • Role conflict	• Organisational commitment	MBI (EE as control)
Lages & Piercy (2012)	740 service reps (service sector, UK)	Emotional Exhaustion	No			Perceived organisational support		• Generation of ideas for service improvement • Job satisfaction • Organisational commitment	MBI
Chan & Wan (2012)	227 service reps (finance, Hong Kong)	Fatigue	No	Regulatory depletion theory	Perspective taking	Supervisor support	Work stress	• Customer complaints handling • Customer-directed extra role behaviour	N/A
Zablah et al. (2012)	99,641 frontline employees (meta-analysis)	Role Stress	Yes		Customer orientation		• Customer workload • Persuasion use	• Turnover intention • Self-rated performance • Manager-rated performance • Job dissatisfaction • Organisational commitment	N/A
Miao & Evans (2013)	223 sales reps (multiple industry)	Role Stress (as burnout)	Yes			Capability control	• Activity control • Outcome control	• Salesperson performance	N/A

Table 2.2. Drivers of Burnout in Sales and Marketing (continued)

Study (year)	Sample (industry, country)	Focal construct(s)	JD-R	Guiding theory	Conceptualisation			Dependent Variable	Burnout Measure
					personal resources	Job resource(s)	Job demands		
Schmitz & Ganesan (2014)	221 sales reps (pharmaceutical)	Role Stress	Yes		Sales self-efficacy	Transactional leadership	• Customer complexity • Organisational complexity	• Customer directed effort • Job effort • Job satisfaction • Sales performance	N/A
Stock & Bednarek (2014)	150 frontline employee, 388 customer dyad	Emotional Exhaustion	Yes	Attitude-behaviour theory	Customer-oriented attitude	Customer emotional support	• Customer hostility • Customer complaints	• Customer oriented-behaviour • Customer satisfaction	MBI
Ambrose et al. (2014)	226 sales reps (multiple industry)	Burnout	No	Role theory			Role ambiguity (company, supervisor, customer)	• Job satisfaction • Performance	MBI
Yoo et al. (2014)	346 service reps (finance, South Korea)	Emotional Exhaustion	Yes			Person – organisation fit	Competitive intensity	Boundary-spanning behaviour	MBI
Mulki et al. (2015)	850 sales reps (multiple industries, Mexico)	Felt stress	No		Emotional intelligence			Job performance	N/A
McFarland et al. (2016)	148 sales reps (multiple industry)	Emotional Exhaustion	No	Appraisal theory	Emotional intelligence		• Role ambiguity • Role conflict	• Emotional exhaustion • Customer orientation • Sales performance	MBI
Auh et al. (2016)	485 service reps (financial, Taiwan)	Burnout	Yes	• COR theory • Social exchange theory • LMX	Power distance orientation	Supervisor customer service feedback	• Supervisor close monitoring	• Customer service performance	Modified MBI (management)
Jha et al. (2017)	530 service reps (financial, New Zealand)	Role stress	No	• Service profit chain • Emotional contagion theory • Appraisal theory	Customer orientation		• Role overload	• Interaction quality • Customer satisfaction • Sales performance	N/A

Table 2.2. Drivers of Burnout in Sales and Marketing (continued)

Study (year)	Sample (industry, country)	Focal construct(s)	JD-R	Guiding theory	Conceptualisation			Dependent Variable	Burnout Measure
					personal resources	Job resource(s)	Job demands		
Matthews et al. (2018)	235 sales reps (online panel)	Burnout	Yes	Appraisal theory	Customer orientation	• Autonomy to create value • Autonomy to appropriate value		• Burnout	MBI
This study	372 sales reps (pharmaceutical, Japan)	Burnout	Yes	Appraisal theory P-O fit theory	Customer orientation	Customer learning climate	• Activity control • Outcome control	• Service performance	MBI

This literature review is limited to frontline sales and service related to studies that have been published in 3, 4 and 4* journals on the ABS academic journal ranking as follows: *Journal of Marketing, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Journal of Service Research, Journal of Retailing, European Journal of Marketing Journal of Business Research, Industrial Marketing Management* and *Psychology and Marketing.* The *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management* was included for the relevance of the literature.

2.4. Personal Resource: Customer Orientation

To date, only three studies have investigated the role of trait-level CO in the process of burnout in the frontline employee context (e.g. Babakus et al., 2009; Stock and Bednarek, 2014; Matthews et al., 2018). Importantly, burnout research can benefit greatly by investigating the role of CO in the health impairment process and boundary conditions, such as challenge and hindrance demands as well as organisational climate. Thus, the present study suggests that further investigations into FSEs' trait-level CO and its interaction with other contextual factors will add value to the current understanding of the burnout process among sales employees. In order to investigate role of CO in the burnout process, this study conceptualises CO as a trait-level personal resource that directly influence burnout and shapes the perception of job demands and resources. Therefore, this section discusses the definitions of CO and relevant research into CO in the JD-R framework, and thereby addresses the importance and gaps in the literature.

2.4.1. Conceptualisation of Customer Orientation

Although the sales and marketing literature highlights the importance of organisational-level CO (e.g. Jaworski et al., 1993) because organisational-level CO is vital in exporting and importing contexts, innovation and product development (e.g. Lisboa et al., 2011), this literature review focuses on salesperson-level CO. On a personal level, in general, CO is studied from three different perspectives, namely behavioural (Saxe and Weitz, 1982), attitudinal (Stock and Hoyer, 2005) and personal characteristics or trait-level perspectives (Brown et al., 2002). Drawing from the importance of market orientation and the FSE's role in implementing the organisation's market orientation on a customer contact level, Saxe and Weitz (1982) established the behavioural perspective of CO. Focusing on the need of the customer and having a problem-solving approach in sales encounters, the behavioural perspective defined CO as the degree of practising the marketing concept by salespeople in trying to satisfy customer needs by helping their customers make purchase decisions (Saxe and Weitz, 1982).

The attitudinal perspective was developed by Stock and Hoyer (2005), who argued that CO is a two-dimensional construct which is comprised of attitudinal and behavioural aspects.

They explained that behavioural CO is superficial, and that distinguishing CO between attitudes and behaviour is critical because attitude is more stable than behaviours. Additionally, by distinguishing attitudes and behaviour, managers can influence and build stable CO among frontline employees. Thus, Stock and Hoyer (2005) defined attitudinal CO as "the amount of salesperson's affect or against customers…, such as affinity to be in contact with the customers and understanding of the importance of customer orientation on both individual and the company's performance" (p.538).

Finally, drawing from the hierarchical model of personality on behaviour (Mowen and Spears, 1999; Mowen, 2000; Mowen et al., 2007), which posits that personality or personal traits are arranged in four different levels: elemental traits, compound traits, situational traits and surface traits, Brown et al. (2002) and Donovan et al. (2004) contended that CO is a surface trait (trait-level) construct; that is, an enduring disposition to perform behaviours within a specific situational context (Lacita et al., 2003). Thus, Brown et al. (2002) defined CO as "an employee's tendency or predisposition to meet customer needs in an on-the-job context" (p.111). The hierarchical model of personality explains that a surface trait, such as CO, is a product of combinations of basic personalities (i.e. 'big five' personalities) and situational context, such as the role of sales (Mowen and Spears, 1999). They explained that the basic personality traits are those enduring dispositions to behave across various contexts. On the other hand, surface traits are those enduring dispositions to behave in a certain way in a specific context and situation (Brown et al., 2002). Additionally, conceptualising CO as a surface trait is important because trait-level CO is more related to behaviour and has a direct effect on actual behaviour in the specific context, while the basic personality traits may be too far removed from focal behaviours to be able to predict frontline employees' behaviour and performance (Brown et al., 2002; Licata et al., 2003; Donovan et al., 2004; Grizzle et al., 2009). Thus, a trait-level approach to CO can better predict sales- and service-related behaviours and performances.

Most of the studies in CO were based on either behavioural- or trait-level perspectives. However, these conceptual differences led to mixed findings with regard to the relationship with CO and salespeople's personal-level variables such as performance and job satisfaction. As such,

some found a positive relationship between CO and performance (e.g. Licata et al., 2003; Flaherty et al., 2009) and no effect of CO on the performance of customer-oriented behaviour (Grizzle et al., 2009). From these mixed findings, Zablah et al. (2012) took a psychological perspective of CO and conceptualised it as an individual's work value. Their meta-analysis of CO using the JD-R framework revealed that CO is an important job resource that can enhance job engagement and reduces role stress which, in turn, positively influences job satisfaction and negatively influences turnover intention. Thus, the present study also takes Brown et al. (2002) and Zablah et al.'s (2012) perspective, and conceptualises CO as a FSE's trait-level variable and defines CO as "work value that captures the extent to which employees' job perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours are guided by an enduring belief in the importance of customer satisfaction" (Zablah et al., 2012, p.24).

2.4.2. Customer Orientation in the JD-R Framework

Scholars of CO studies have called for further investigations into the role of CO in the JD-R framework in a sales and service environment in terms of how CO can be integrated in the model, as well as how CO interacts with job demands and resources (e.g. Yoo and Arnold, 2014; Walsh et al., 2015; Zablah, et al., 2012). Despite the conceptual differences of CO (i.e. behavioural, attitudinal and trait-level), the prevalent sales and marketing studies conceptualised CO as a moderator variable in explaining the personal differences in the possession of CO that can affect the perception of job demands and resources, or the variable that can affect both perceptions of job demands and resources and well-being. However, to date, studies integrating CO into the JD-R framework are few and far between. Thus, this section reviews the previous literature on the conceptualisation of CO within the JD-R framework and findings in the sales and service context. Table 2.3 provides the systematic review of the role of CO in the JD-R framework in the sales and marketing literature.

So far, studies which utilised the JD-R framework seem to agree that CO has positive relationships with job satisfaction and performances, and a negative relationship with strain. For example, studies that conceptualised CO as a behavioural construct found that customer-oriented

behaviour is positively related to work engagement (Anaza et al., 2016), reporting customer complaints to supervisors (Walsh et al., 2015) and customer satisfaction (Stock and Bednarek, 2014). In addition, attitudinal CO studies found that emotional exhaustion is negatively related to customer-oriented attitude (Stock and Bednarek, 2014). In addition, Yoo and Arnold (2016) found that customer-oriented attitude activates the service employee's deep acting in the context of emotional labour. That is, service employees who possess a high customer-oriented attitude are more likely to be able to change the perception of problems, and engage with service interaction in a more authentic way, rather than surface acting; which can be seen as fake smiles and acting in a friendly manner towards customers. Further, Jha et al. (2009) found that organisational resources, such as service leadership and service technology, enhance attitudinal CO of sales employees, and, in turn, affect customer word-of-mouth and satisfaction. Importantly, the JD-R studies which integrated trait-level CO definitively conceptualised CO as an important personal resource that influences the links between job demands, resources and psychological state and/or performance. As such, studies found that CO ameliorates job performance, job satisfaction and work engagement, mitigates role stress and burnout (e.g. Babakus et al., 2009; Zablah et al., 2012; Jah et al., 2017; Yoo and Arnold, 2014; Jha et al., 2019), and minimises turnover intentions (Babakus et al., 2009; Zablah et al., 2012). Therefore, sales and marketing scholars agree that CO is a vital personal resource for boundary-spanning employees, and it can affect both the perception of job demands and resources, and the work engagement and burnout.

2.4.3. Limited Understanding of Customer Orientation in the JD-R Framework

The relevant extant research revealed that CO is an important personal resource that shapes perception of job demands and resources, and affect the well-being of frontline employees. However, the understanding of its role in the JD-R framework can be further advanced, especially in the health impairment process by investigating the boundary conditions in which a sales-specific environment moderates the link between CO and burnout.

The previous studies which conceptualised CO as a trait-level construct integrated CO as either: (1) a moderating variable that affects the link between job demands and resources and the

employee's psychological state (Jha et al., 2017; Matthews et al., 2018); or (2) a factor that influences the psychological state and the perception of the job demands and resources (Babakus, et al., 2009; Zablah et al., 2012; Yoo and Arnold., 2014). Interestingly, the studies using the former conceptualisation did not provide underlying theoretical explanations. However, the latter conceptualisation utilised appraisal theory, COR theory and self-regulation theory to explain how CO affects work engagement and/or burnout. One concept revealed by these three studies is that CO can act as a stress-coping resource (de Jonge and Dormman, 2006). These studies showed that CO has a direct negative relationship with burnout (Babakus et al., 2009) and role stress (Zablah et al., 2012), and has a direct positive relationship with work engagement and job satisfaction (Zablah et al., 2012; Yoor and Arnold, 2014). Furthermore, the interaction of CO and role stress (i.e. role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload) has a negative effect on burnout (Babakus, et al., 2009).

However, the knowledge pertaining to the boundary conditions of salespeople's burnout is still limited. In fact, to the researcher's knowledge, within the studies that conceptualised CO as a trait-level variable, only Matthews et al. (2018) investigated the boundary conditions of salespeople's burnout. Their study investigated the interactive effect of CO and two different autonomies as organisational resources, namely the autonomy to create value (autonomy to select customers and customise solutions for them) and the autonomy to appropriate value (autonomy to terminate the customer relationship to allocate the resources to profitable clients), on depersonalisation towards the customer. Their result showed that FSEs with high CO have lower depersonalisation when they have high autonomy to create value with customers. In contrast, FSEs with low CO experience lower depersonalisation when autonomy to appropriate value is high. However, they did not test how these interactions of personal and organisational resources affect employees' burnout as a whole.

Although CO is argued to be one of the most important characteristics of FSE (e.g. Grizzel et al., 2009; Zablah et al., 2012), the research on salespeople's burnout lacks knowledge of how such an important characteristic can interact with the sales environment to form or alleviate burnout. Especially, it is unclear how CO affects frontline employees' burnout in a sales-

specific environment, such as SCSs and CLC. Therefore, the present research investigates the boundary conditions of the link between trait-level CO and burnout. Specifically, the study investigates how burnout is formed or reduced when different types of monitoring, such as activity control and outcome control, and the positive climate of CLC have interactions with trait-level CO.

Table 2.3. Review of the Role of Customer Orientation in the JD-R framework

Study (year)	Context	Health-impairment process	Customer Orientation	JD-R Conceptualisation				Dependent Variable	CO measure
			Conceptualisation	Personal resources	Job resources	Job demands			
Babakus et al. (2009)	Service (New Zealand)	Burnout (emotional exhaustion & depersonalisation)	Trait	Moderator	Customer orientation	• Supervisor support • Rewards • Service technology support • Training	• Role ambiguity • Role conflict • Role overload	• Job performance • Turnover intention	Donovan et al. (2004) (Need)
Zablah et al. (2012)	Sales & Service	Role stress	Trait	IV	Customer orientation		• Customer workload • Persuasion use	• Turnover intention • Self-rated performance • Manager-rated performance • Job dissatisfaction • Organisational commitment	N/A (meta-analysis)
Stock & Bednarek (2014)	Service	Emotional exhaustion	• Attitudinal • Behavioural	Mediators	Customer-oriented attitude	• Customer emotional support	• Customer hostility • Customer complaints	• Customer-oriented behaviour • Customer satisfaction	Stock & Hoyer (2005)
Yoo & Arnold (2014)	Service (South Korea)	(Work engagement)	Trait	IV	Customer orientation	• Behaviour-based control	• Outcome-based control	• Surface acting • Deep acting	Stock & Hoyer (2005)
Walsh et al. (2015)	Service		Behavioural	Mediator		• Supervisor support • Empowerment	• Perceived customer unfriendliness • Workload	• Willingness to report complaints	Homberg et al. (2009)
Yoo & Arnold (2016)	Service (South Korea)		Attitudinal	Mediator	Customer-oriented attitude	• Perceived organisational support • Perceived customer participation	• Perceived job insecurity • Perceived crowding	• Surface acting • Deep acting	Stock & Hoyer (2005)

Table 2.3. Review of the Role of Customer Orientation in the JD-R Framework (continued)

Study (year)	Context	Health-impairment process	Customer Orientation	JD-R Conceptualisation				Dependent Variable	CO measure
			Conceptualisation	Personal resources	Job resources	Job demands			
Anaza et al. (2016)	Service	(Work engagement)	Behavioural	Mediator	• Having a mentor Expressive emotional network resources			• Work engagement	Thomas et al. (2001)
Jha et al. (2017)	Service (New Zealand	Role stress	Trait	Moderator	• Customer orientation		• Role overload	• Interaction quality • Customer satisfaction • Sales performance	Donovan et al. (2004).
Matthews et al. (2018)	Sales	Burnout	Trait	Moderator	• Customer orientation	• Autonomy to create value • Autonomy to appropriate value		• Depersonalisation	Kennedy et al. (2002)
Jha et al. (2019)	Sales (India)		Trait	Mediator	• Customer orientation	• Service leadership • Service technology empowerment		• Job satisfaction • Interaction quality • Customer satisfaction • Word of mouth	Donovan et al. (2004)
This study	Sales	Burnout	Trait	IV	• Customer Orientation	• Customer Learning Climate	• Activity Control • Outcome Control	• Service Performance	Thomas et al. (2001) and Brown et al. (2002)

This literature review is limited to frontline employee (sales and service) -related studies that have been published in 3, 4 and 4* journals on the ABS academic journal ranking as follows: *Journal of Marketing, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Journal of Service Research, Journal of Retailing, European Journal of Marketing* and *Industrial Marketing Management.* The *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management* is included for the relevance of the literature.

IV = independent variable Work engagement is in parentheses as it does not belong to the health impairment process.

2.5. Job Demands: Sales Control Systems

As previously discussed, the number of studies that have investigated the boundary conditions of salespeople's burnout concerning the sales-specific environment is limited. Therefore, this study integrates sales control systems (SCSs), defined as "an organisation's set of procedures for monitoring, directing, evaluating and compensating its employees" (Anderson and Oliver, 1987, p. 75), as salespeople's specific demands, and investigates how the FSE's CO interacts with the SCSs to affect burnout. Thus, this section reviews the general conceptualisation and current understanding of SCSs. Subsequently, gaps in the literature are identified.

2.5.1. Understanding Sales Control Systems

SCSs are generally defined as attempts by management or other stakeholders within the organisation to monitor, direct, evaluate and reward the behaviour and activities of marketing personnel to achieve desired outcomes (Anderson and Oliver, 1987; Jaworski, 1988; Malek et al., 2018). Importantly, the key ideas of SCSs are based on two critical seminal works, namely, Anderson and Oliver's (1987) study on salesforce control systems and Jaworski's (1998) marketing control study. Predominantly, extant studies on SCSs published in the last three decades can be traced back to these two seminal works (Malek et al. 2018). Although these two concepts of control systems have many similarities, there are key differences in conceptualisation, especially in defining the types of controls (i.e. formal versus informal) as well as the way each control is measured (Baldauf et al., 2005; Malek et al., 2018).

Originally, the SCSs were developed by drawing on economics theories such as agency theory, organisation theory and cognitive theory. Primarily, Anderson and Oliver (1987) conceptualised the SCSs as the opposite side of a continuum, one extreme being outcome-based control and the other being behaviour-based control. Outcome-based control holds a market-based control mechanism, and, when an organisation implements a pure outcome-based control system, they use a straight commission system. Under outcome-based control, sales employees are held responsible for their sales performance. Hence, the organisation does not take any risks regarding the sales performance of its salespeople, and the organisation's responsibility is only to

provide product lines to sell. Therefore, this approach to sales control is short-term oriented, minimalistic and risk-free for an organisation. Contrarily, behaviour-based control holds an inter-firm control mechanism. When an organisation employs a behaviour-based control system, it uses a straight salary system. That is, the organisation takes responsibility for unfavourable sales performance, and salespeople are on a salary system no matter what their sales performances are. Under the behaviour-based control system, because the organisation provides necessary training to improve sales techniques, FSEs are more encouraged to learn about products and customers. Subsequently, behaviour-based control induces FSEs' intrinsic motivation (Mallin and Pullings, 2009). Thus, this approach to sales control is argued to be more long-term oriented, and engenders FSEs' organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Anderson and Oliver, 1984; Oliver and Anderson, 1994). Later, Oliver and Anderson (1995) also suggested that management can take hybrid control systems that have both behaviour-based control and outcome-based control concomitantly. Their research suggested that many high-performing organisations adopt hybrid control systems in which both control systems are implemented at high levels.

On the other hand, the studies of marketing controls raised a criticism: that the original SCSs heavily focused on the financial assessment of productivity, and it did not give environmental considerations, which can supplement the control systems (Jaworksi, 1988). Thus, Jaworski (1988) proposed that SCSs are a combination of different controls and should be classified into formal and informal mechanisms. Formal controls are defined as those documented policies and procedures initiated by management to align salespeople with stated marketing objectives (Anderson and Oliver, 1987; Jaworski, 1988). Formal controls are, then, disaggregated into three different concepts: (1) input controls; (2) behavioural controls; and (3) outcome controls. Input controls are measurable actions taken by the firm prior to sales activities (e.g. sales leads and recruitment). Behavioural controls are managerial efforts to notify salespeople to follow certain procedures in order to achieve an objective (e.g. sales calls and scripts) and outcome controls are the objective performances after the sales activities. On the other hand, informal controls refer to undocumented, typically worker-initiated, forms of control that influence the behaviour of individuals and groups in marketing units (Jaworski, 1988; Jaworksi and MacInnis,

1989). Informal control consists of three different levels, namely, self, social and cultural-control levels. Self-control refers to the personal work-related goal setting and management of those objectives. Social control refers to the work-group-level values, norms and objectives with collective monitoring. Finally, cultural control refers to the organisational-level values or norms that influence the individual's behaviour, decisions and actions (Jaworski, 1988; Malek et al., 2018). Importantly, Jaworski (1988) contended that, the better complementarity of the controls leads to the higher individuals' motivation, which in turn, leads to grater achievement of marketing objective. As such, Jaworski et al. (1993) proposed that different mixes of SCSs affect salespeople's psychological states and role stress. They further argued that the mix of controls can be classified in to 'High' (high in both formal and informal controls), 'Bureaucratic' (high formal and low informal controls), 'Clan' (low formal and high informal controls) and 'Low' (low in both formal and informal controls). They emphasised the importance of a 'High' control environment in that FSEs in such an environment are satisfied with the job the most and experience role conflict the least (Jaworski et al., 1993).

These two different perspectives of control systems were further advanced by disaggregating behaviour control into two dimensions. Challegalla and Shervani (1996) argued that behaviour-based control should be a combination of activity control and capability control. Activity control refers to "the specification of the activities a person is expected to perform on a regular basis, the monitoring of actual behaviour, and the administering of rewards and punishments on the basis of the performance of specified activities" (p.90). Capability control focuses on developing the FSE's skills and abilities, and it refers to "an attempt to influence performance by ensuring that employees possess the set of skills and abilities that enables good performance" (p.90). Importantly, Hwan Choi et al. (2004) clarified the difference in these two behaviour controls in that activity control answers the managerial question of, "[D]oes the sales person do the behaviour that they are expected to do?" (p.182) by specifying routine activity goals, such as call rate and visits, monitoring each salesperson and providing feedback on the specified activities. On the other hand, capability control answers the question of, "[D]oes the salesperson do the expected behaviour correctly?"(p.182) by specifying goals with regard to their

skills and abilities, monitoring the achievement of such goals, and providing guidance and feedback to each salesperson for a focus on improvement. This two-dimensional behaviour control has been widely accepted in the sales literature (e.g. Kohli et al., 1998; Onyemah and Anderson, 2009; Wang et al., 2012; Miao and Evans, 2013; Miao and Evans, 2014; Katsikeas et al., 2018). Consequently, theses conceptual studies showed that SCSs are combinations of formal and informal controls, and formal controls consist of outcome, activity and capability controls. In addition, these different formal controls are deployed simultaneously to influence salespeople to achieve the organisation's marketing objectives.

SCSs have been extensively studied in the sales and marketing literature, especially their effects on a salesperson's performance, because the primary goal of SCSs is to achieve the marketing goals which have been set by the organisation (i.e. Anderson and Oliver, 1987; Oliver and Anderson, 1994; Jaworski, 1988). The extant literature suggests that the effect of outcome control on performance is mixed. For example, some studies found positive relationships between outcome control and achievement of sales objectives (Cravens et al., 1993) and general performance (Atuahene-Gima and Li, 2002; Evans et al., 2007; Schepers et al., 2012). However, other studies found negative relationships between outcome control and sales volume (Menguc and Barker, 2003), general performance with a Chinese sample (Fang et al., 2005) or no effect with Chinese samples (Atuahene-Gima and Li, 2002) and US samples (Fang et al., 2005; Piercy et al., 2006; Miao and Evans, 2013). Further, Cravens et al. (1993) found that outcome control has no effect on customer satisfaction; however, Menguc and Barker (2003) found a positive relationship.

The empirical findings pertaining to the relationship between behaviour-based control or activity control and performance outcomes are also mixed. As such, Babakus et al. (1996) found a positive relationship between behaviour-based control and achievement of sales objectives. However, Menguc and Barker (2003) and Piercy et al. (2006) found no relationship. Atuahene-Gima and Li (2002) and Schepers et al. (2012) found a positive relationship with general performance; however, Fang et al. (2005) found a negative relationship with a Chinese sample. Further, Cravens et al. (1993) found a positive relationship between behaviour control and

customer satisfaction (Cravens et al., 1993), and yet Menguc and Barker (2003) found a negative relationship. Nonetheless, the extant literature generally supports that activity control and behaviour-based control have positive relationships with behaviour performance, such as selling support, team work, adaptive selling, technical knowledge, and sales presentation and planning, (e.g. Cravens et al., 1993; Anderson and Oliver, 1994; Babakus et al., 1996; Pirecy et al., 2006).

Drawing from these mixed findings germane to the direct effect of each control system on performance, many scholars, such as Challagalla and Shervani (1996), Joshi and Randal (2001) and Katsikeas et al. (2018), have pointed out that the relationship between SCSs and salesperson performance is equivocal. In fact, Joshi and Randal, (2001) argued that the effect of SCSs on performance maybe indirect, and, rather, SCSs have effects on the FSE's psychological state by influencing their cognition. Thus, SCSs are argued to be the antecedents of the FSE's psychological state such as burnout and work engagement. In line with this discussion of how SCSs affect cognition of work environment, the previous studies put forward conflicting ideas on how activity control is perceived by sales personnel in terms of learning behaviours. For example, Miao and Evans (2013, 2014) argued that activity control inhibits the FSE from learning because the focus of the activity control is to make sure the salesperson performs the required sales activities such as call rate and reports. On the other hand, Katsikeas et al. (2018) argued that activity control activates exploitative learning, which focuses on leveraging the existing knowledge, and induces salespeople to learn in a way in which they can take advantage of the situation. These different ideas on how SCSs influence FSEs' cognition suggest that further investigation into how SCSs are appraised in the sales environment is required. Consequently, investigation into the mechanisms in which SCSs affect performance via the FSEs' psychological state by utilising the differentiated JD-R framework is useful in understanding the appraisal process of each control system.

In fact, the recent SCSs studies proposed a research direction towards the investigation of a more nuanced model in which SCSs are conceptualised with other organisational- and personal-level variables, as the implementation of SCSs is more complex in a practical environment (e.g. Miao and Evans, 2013; Katsikeas et al., 2018). That is, scholars should consider

contingency effects of the third variable that can mediate or moderate the link between SCSs and salesperson's performance (e.g. Katsikeas et al. 2018; Malek et al., 2018). However, the studies that investigate the contingency factors are few and far between. For example, Miao and Evans (2013) found a positive relationship between the mix of outcome and capability control and adaptive selling and selling effort, which in turn positively affect the salesperson's performance. Katsikeas et al. (2018) found that exploratory and exploitative learning behaviours mediate the effect of SCSs on salesperson's performance. Thus, further investigation into how SCSs and other factors affect salesperson's performance is promising to understand the complex nature of SCSs implementation (Katsikeas et al., 2018; Malek et al., 2018).

2.5.2. Sales Control Systems and Customer Orientation

Most of the SCSs studies have focused on the behavioural aspects of CO, such as customer-oriented selling (Saxe and Weitz, 1982), and investigated how SCSs affect salespeople's customer-oriented selling of salespeople or how SCSs influence the firm-level CO. Table 2.4 provides a summary of the key studies that have investigated the relationship between SCSs and CO. Studies investigating the behavioural CO on a salesperson level provided mixed findings regarding the link between behaviour-based control and customer-oriented selling. Some found positive direct effects (e.g. Cravens et al., 1993; Baldauf et al., 2001) and others found negative direct effects (Guenzi et al., 2014). The extant research also shows inconsistent findings pertaining to the relationship between outcome control and customer-oriented selling. For example, Cravens et al. (1993), Guenzi et al. (2014) and Widmier (2002) found that outcome control positively and directly affects customer satisfaction and CO. However, some found a negative relationship (Widmier, 2002) or no relationship (Schwepker and Good, 2012). Others investigated the contingency mechanisms of how the SCSs affect CO, such that the SCSs have indirect positive relationships with CO through affective commitment (Joshi and Randall, 2001). Schwepker and Good (2004) argued that pressure of outcome control, such as difficulty to achieve sales quota, is positively related to the probability of sales managers letting their salespeople act unethically which, in turn, negatively affects customer-oriented selling. Their follow-up study

shows that the pressure of outcome control is negatively related to trust in the organisation, and trust in the organisation positively affects customer-oriented selling (Schwepker and Good, 2012). At the organisational level, the extant literature suggests that behaviour-based control is positively related to the formation of a customer-oriented climate (Evans et al., 2007), and the organisational-level customer orientation is positively related to managers' behaviour control on their salespeople (Piercy et al., 2009).

Surprisingly, despite the importance of FSE's trait-level CO highlighted in the prevailing sales and marketing literature (e.g. Brown et al., 2002; Zablah et al., 2012), scarce attention has been given to the interaction of trait-level CO and SCSs (Malek et al., 2018). In fact, there has only been one study which investigated the relationship between CO and SCSs on frontline employees' psychological state. Yoo and Arnold (2014) argued that trait-level CO has a positive effect on service employees' work engagement, and the level of such engagement is contingent upon the type of sales control in use. In fact, Malek et al. (2018) pointed out that the research question, "What are the key salesperson-level factors that should guide decisions about the use of specific control combinations?" (p.47) is still to be answered. Thus, further investigation into the relationship between SCSs and key salesperson-level factors, such as trait-level CO, will be fruitful and helpful for practitioners to determine the most effective combination of controls.

Table 2.4. Sales Control Systems and Customer Orientation

Study (year)	Sample	Types of sales control and its direct link to customer orientation			Mediating variable	Customer orientation	Summary
		Outcome	Activity	Capability			
Cravens et al. (1993)	144 chief sales executive	Outcome-based (+)	Behaviour-based (+)			Behaviour	Both controls have significant and positive relationship with CO. Output control has stronger effects on CO than behaviour control.
Joshi & Randall (2001)	152 sales reps	Output (na)	Process (na)		• Affective commitment • Task clarity	Behaviour	Controls in general are positively and significantly related to affective commitment and task clarity. Affective commitment, in turn, positively and significantly affects customer-oriented selling.
Baldauf et al. (2001)	142/159 sales managers (UK/Austria)		Behaviour-based UK(0) Austria (+)			Behavioural strategy	Behaviour-based control is positively correlated with behavioural strategy, such as CO of salespeople.
Widmier (2002)	746 sales reps	Sales-based incentive (-) Customer satisfaction incentive (+)				Behaviour	Sales volume incentive is negatively and significantly related to customer-oriented selling. Customer satisfaction incentive is positively related to customer oriented-selling.
Schwepker and Good (2004)	240 sales managers	Difficulty of quota (na)			Probability of sales manager letting salesperson act unethically	Behaviour	Difficulty of quota is positively related to the probability of sales managers letting salespeople act unethically which, in turn, negatively affects customer-oriented selling.
Evans et al. (2007)	293 sales reps	Output (0)	Process (+)	Capability (0)		Firm level	Process (activity control) is positively related to customer-oriented climate.
Piercy et al. (2009)	301 sales reps (UK)		Behaviour-based control			Firm level	Firm's CO is positively and significantly related to sales manager's behaviour control towards salespeople.
Mallin and Pullings (2009)	326 sales managers (Europe)		Behaviour (+)			Behaviour	The use of behaviour-based control is more likely when the firm uses direct sales force, hence it enhances salespeople's customer-oriented selling.
Schwepker & Good (2012)	345 sales reps	Difficulty of Quota (0)			Trust in organisation	Behaviour	Difficulty of quota is not related to customer-oriented selling. However, it is negatively and significantly related to trust in the organisation. Trust in the organisation, in turn, positively affects customer-oriented selling.
Yoo & Arnold (2014)	543 service reps (South Korea)	Moderator (-)	Moderator (+)		Engagement	Psychological	Customer orientation is significantly (+) related to engagement. CO x OUT has a significant interactive effect (-) on engagement. CO x Behaviour control has a significant interactive effect (+) on Engagement.

Table 2.4. Sales Control Systems and Customer Orientation (Continued)

Study (year)	Sample	Types of sales control and its direct link to customer orientation			Mediating variable	Customer orientation	Summary
		Outcome	Activity	Capability			
Mullins et al. (2014)	132 sales rep – customer dyad		Moderator		Perception of relationship quality (bias)	Psychological	Under the behaviour control, customer-oriented salesperson's accuracy about the perception of the relationship quality is less biased (negative bias becomes less negative).
Guenzi et al. (2014)	201 sales managers (Europe)	Output(+)	Process (0)			Behaviour	Output control has a direct significant effect on customer-oriented selling.
Mullins et al. (2014)	132 sales rep – customer dyad		Moderator		Perception of relationship quality (bias)	Psychological	Under the behaviour control, the customer-oriented salesperson's accuracy about the perception of the relationship quality is less biased (negative bias becomes less negative).
Guenzi et al. (2014)	201 sales managers (Europe)	Output(+)	Process (0)			Behaviour	Output control has a direct significant effect on customer-oriented selling.
This study	372 sales rep – direct supervisor dyad	Interacts to affect bunrout	Interacts to affect burnout		Burnout	Trait	CO shales the perception of the demanding aspects of sales control system and affect burnout differently. (CO x activity has negative significant effect on burnout, and CO x outcome has positive significant effect on burnout)

This literature review is limited to frontline employee (sales and service) -related studies that have been published in 3, 4 and 4* journals on the ABS academic journal ranking as follows: *Journal of Marketing, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Journal of Service Research, Journal of Retailing, European Journal of Marketing,* and *Industrial Marketing Management.* The *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management* is included for the relevance of the literature.

2.5.3. Sales Control Systems in the JD-R Framework

Drawing from the motivational aspect of SCSs (e.g. Joshi and Randal, 2001), the relevant extant literature suggests that different controls as well as the strength of each control play important roles in influencing the salesperson's intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. For example, Oliver and Anderson (1994) and Cravens et al. (1993) suggested that behaviour-based control has a positive relationship with intrinsic motivation. However, outcome control was found to have a stronger correlation with intrinsic motivation than behaviour-based control (Cravens et al., 1993). Miao and Evans (2014) found that a combination of outcome and capability controls has a positive effect on intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, a combination of outcome and activity controls has a negative effect on intrinsic motivation, yet has a positive effect on extrinsic motivation, such as compensation seeking. Additionally, the combination of activity and capability controls has a negative effect on extrinsic motivation in terms of recognition seeking.

However, the number of SCSs studies that have utilised the JD-R framework to investigate the motivational and health impairment processes is few and far between. To date, only two studies have utilised the JD-R framework to explore the psychological process in which the SCSs affect the FSE's psychological state. Drawing from Babakus et al.'s (1999) suggestion that "emotional exhaustion may be more relevant in sales management system employing behaviour-based control" (p.66), Miao and Evans (2013) investigated the interactive effects of each control system by conceptualising activity and outcome controls as job demands and capability control as a job resource. They showed that different combinations of controls have different effects on work engagement (operationalised by adaptive selling and selling effort) and roles stress, such that the combination of outcome and capability controls has a positive effect on work engagement and a significant negative effect on role stress. However, the combination of activity and capability controls has a significant negative effect on job stress. Importantly, the combination of outcome and activity control is negatively related to work engagement and positively related to job stress. Furthermore, Yoo and Arnold (2014) investigated how hotel workers' trait-level CO interacts with outcome-based control and behaviour-based control to affect work engagement, and in turn influence frontline hospitality employees' behaviour, such

as surface and deep acting. The study suggests that the combination of CO and outcome-based control is negatively and significantly related to work engagement, and the combination of CO and behaviour-based control is positively related to work engagement. These results showed that outcome-based control inhibits customer-oriented hotel service employees' work engagement, and behaviour-based control engenders their work engagement.

These studies suggested that different combinations of SCSs influence frontline employees' motivational process in terms of stress and work engagement. However, the role of SCSs and CO in the health impairment process of burnout among FSEs has not been investigated. In other words, despite the scholarly importance discussed in the prevalent literature, such as the susceptibility of salespeople falling into burnout (e.g. Babakus et al. 1999), and the importance of SCSs in shaping their motivation and behaviours (e.g. Challagalla and Shervani, 1996; Joshi and Randal, 2001), as well as the recommendations for recruiting customer-oriented personnel for sales positions (e.g. Zablah et al., 2012), it is not clear how demanding aspects of SCSs (i.e. outcome control and activity control) interact with CO to form or alleviate burnout. Thus, this line of research requires empirical investigation.

2.6. Job Resource: Customer Learning Climate

2.6.1. Organisational Climate

According to Bakker et al. (2007), organisational climate is a social-level job resource that is valued by individuals because it facilitates goal achievement and resource attainment and retaining. Additionally, organisational climate can also be seen as an informal control system that is socially constructed within the organisation (Jaworski, 1988). Importantly, Malek et al. (2018) suggested the need for further investigation into the role of informal control system on FSE's motivation. Therefore, the present research integrates an organisational climate, namely, perceived customer learning climate (CLC), as an organisational job resource.

First of all, organisational climate refers to the collective and shared meanings and values that employees derive from their work environment through social and group interactions

(Schenider and Reichers, 1983; Menguc et al., 2017). Importantly, the extant climate literature suggests that a climate approach to understand organisational phenomena facilitates researchers to comprehend the effects of work context on employees' behaviours and attitudes (Schneider and Reichers, 1983), and climate can explain "just about everything that happens to people at work" (p.20). Essentially, climate is a developed version of more basic value systems, such as organisational culture, which refers to the deep structure of an organisation that is formulated over time, and which resides in the core value system of an organisation (Ashforth, 1985; Poole, 1985). Organisational climate is temporal, subjective and is often manipulated by people with power and influence, and it can be a link between organisational situations or a particular feature of the organisational setting and its members' thoughts, feelings and behaviours (Schneider and Reichers, 1983; Gustafson et al., 2018). Predominantly, it is argued to be a more salient and immediate driver of individual motivation and behaviours than organisational culture (Gustafson et al., 2018). Thus, organisational climate is often used as operationalisation of organisational culture and is often investigated to see the impact of organisational systems on groups and individuals (Schneider and Reichers, 1983; Gustafson et al., 2018).

2.6.2. Customer Learning Climate

Despite the importance of climate in influencing sales employees' behaviours and attitudes, the use of climate variables in explaining organisational and salespeople's effectiveness has been given little attention so far (Gustafson et al., 2018). Therefore, the present research particularly focuses on the climate for learning about customers, namely, the perceived customer learning climate (CLC). CLC is defined as a salesperson's perceptions about the extent to which the sales unit underscores and expects FSEs to improve service quality by obtaining feedback, insights and ideas regarding the customer's service need (Wong 2004; Auh et al., 2014). CLC is particularly relevant in a sales context because customers are no longer seen as a mass of homogenous needs; rather they are unique individuals with heterogeneous needs (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). Hence, the accumulation of knowledge about customers becomes an important job resource (Wang, 2015). Thus, an organisational climate which enhances learning about their own

customers is vital in terms of organisational mobility. Further, a systematic literature review on organisational climate in sales research by Gustafson et al. (2018) reviled that structural climate that is related to sales and service can complement the salesperson's job performance. In addition, organisational climate that encourages learning can motivate FSEs to perform better (Gustafson et al., 2018).

However, scant attention has been given to the organisational climate, which particularly focuses on learning about customers, and it has only been studied by Auh et al. (2014). Their research found that CLC accentuates a positive effect of psychological empowerment on service-oriented extra-role behaviour among frontline service employees. This means that frontline employees working under a high CLC environment engage in better customer service. Subsequently, to understand the role of climate in the salespeople's motivation, the present study explores the role of CLC in the heath impairment process of the JD-R framework.

2.7. Service Performance

Katsikeas et al. (2016) emphasised the importance of the selection of theoretically relevant performance measures in marketing studies. Further, when a researcher incorporates performance measures, they must provide definitions and rationales for the performance measures selected for the study. Thus, although the present study is concerned with FSE-level performance, this section provides the definition and rationale for the selection of service performance as the performance measure.

As the extent literature highlighted the critical service role of FSEs in customer encounters, close attention should be paid to their performance pertaining to their relationship-building roles (e.g. Miao and Evans, 2013). That is, in parallel with the importance of sales employees in building a better customer interface, the role of sales jobs became more relational in nature than its previous transactional nature (i.e. Lusch et al., 2007; Miao and Evans, 2013). In fact, Gustafson et al. (2018) indicated that service performance is one of the important performance measures in sales research. However, the sales and marketing studies which employed the JD-R framework often conceptualised turnover intentions and job satisfaction as

the dependent variables (e.g. Sigh et al., 1994; Babakus et al., 1999; Low et al., 2001; Jaramillo et al., 2006; Crosno et al., 2009). In addition, many studies operationalised performance as global performance, such as job performance, which is specifically criticised by Katsikeas et al. (2016). Drawing upon the pertinent discussions, the present research incorporates the FSEs' service performance to reflect the relational aspects of salespeople's performance.

In order to capture the FSEs' service performance properly, Salanova et al. (2005) proposed utilising a composite scale which includes dimensions of service quality and excellence. Service quality derives from a comparison of the expectation and perception of performance, and refers to the supervisor's perceived overall excellence and/or the superiority of the service an FSE provides (Parasuraman et al., 1998; Salanova et al., 2005). Excellence refers to the supervisor's perception about the extent to which a salesperson's service is excellent and authentic and the extent to which a salesperson is willing to go the extra mile for the customer (Price et al., 1995; Salanova et al., 2005). Thus, in the present study, these concepts of service performance are used, and service performance is defined as the supervisor's perception about the overall quality, excellence and authenticity of the service which a salesperson provides and the extent to which the FSE is willing to provide extra service to their customers.

2.8 Summary

The present chapter presented a systematic and extensive review of the literature that is relevant to the concepts that will be investigated in the present study. Particularly, the JD-R framework, which is the theoretical background of this thesis, was extensively reviewed in the marketing and sales domain by giving an explanation of the theory and different ideas of the theory, and highlighting gaps in the literature. Subsequently, important constructs in the present study, such as burnout, CO, SCSs, and CLC, were systematically reviewed to provide the current understandings and gaps in the pertinent literature. Finally, the chapter provided the rationale and definition of the dependent variable, service performance. In the following chapter, the constructs discussed in the present chapter will be used to formulate the research framework and hypotheses.

CHAPTER 3 – Conceptual Framework and Research Hypotheses

3.1. Introduction

Based on the extensive review of the literature, this chapter proposes a conceptual framework for the present study. Drawing from the conceptual framework, this chapter also proposes five hypotheses, two explaining the direct relationships between CO, burnout and service performance, and three explaining how a personal resource (CO), different job demands (SCSs) and a resource (CLC) interact differently to affect burnout. Importantly, these hypotheses are formulated based on the JD-R framework guided by appraisal theory (Lazarus and Folkman, 1987) and person-organisation (P-O) fit theory (e.g. O'Reilly et al., 1991; Kristof, 1996) with the relevant previous empirical findings.

3.2. Conceptual Framework

Drawing on the discussions on each study construct provided in chapter two, the present study proposes the conceptual framework illustrated in Figure 3.1. This study takes a granular approach to the JD-R framework, and investigates the boundary conditions of salespeople's burnout rather than examining the dual psychological process of work engagement and burnout. This approach is recommended by Menguc et al. (2017), who emphasised the importance of a closer examination of each process due to over-simplicity of the original JD-R framework and limited explanation it can offer to explain such a complicated psychological phenomenon. Following their perspective, the conceptual framework illustrates burnout as the focal construct, and aims to explore the mechanisms of the health impairment process.

Specifically, the present research conceptualises CO as a key sales-related, trait-level personal resource, and illustrates that it has a direct effect on burnout which, in turn, affects service performance. Despite the different views and conceptualisation of the CO in previous JD-R investigations, this study conceptualises CO as an independent variable, this is because hierarchical model of CO (Brown et al., 2002) proposes that individual's dispositions interact with situations to influence behaviours (Bowers, 1973; Endler and Rosenstein, 1997; Brown et al., 2002). Therefore, by conceptualising CO as an independent variable, this research investigates

the boundary conditions (i.e. different sales situations) in which FSEs' burnout can be formed or alleviated.

The conceptual model proposes three moderators as on the link between CO and burnout that are specific to sales situations: activity control, outcome control and CLC. As previously discussed, testing a model that captures job demands that potentially influence salespeople's burnout is important. Thus, the present research specifically focuses on the demand aspects of SCSs, namely, activity control and outcome control. Activity control refers to the specification of the activities a salesperson is expected to perform on a daily basis (Challagala and Shervani, 1996); such control includes the monitoring, administrating and rewarding of the specified behaviours, as well as punishment when the performance of such behaviours does not meet expectations. Outcome control refers to the use of an incentive reward system to reward salespeople on the basis of their sales outcomes (Anderson and Oliver, 1987; Miao and Evans, 2014). Such control is seen as management-risk free and places the entire responsibility for the firm's sales performance onto the FSEs (Anderson and Oliver, 1987). In line with the JD-R framework, these definitions of activity control and outcome control suggest that both controls are job demands that are imposed on FSEs (Miao and Evans, 2013). That is, activity control is a type of job demand that puts pressures on FSEs to fulfil certain sales activities (e.g. visiting customers, sales reports, and call rates) in order to achieve the set sales goals. Similarly, outcome control is also a type of demand because such control also puts pressure on FSEs because they are responsible for the attainment of sales goals, which requires them to utilise their psychological and physical effort to the maximum in order to achieve these sales goals (Miao and Evans, 2013; Katsikeas et al., 2018).

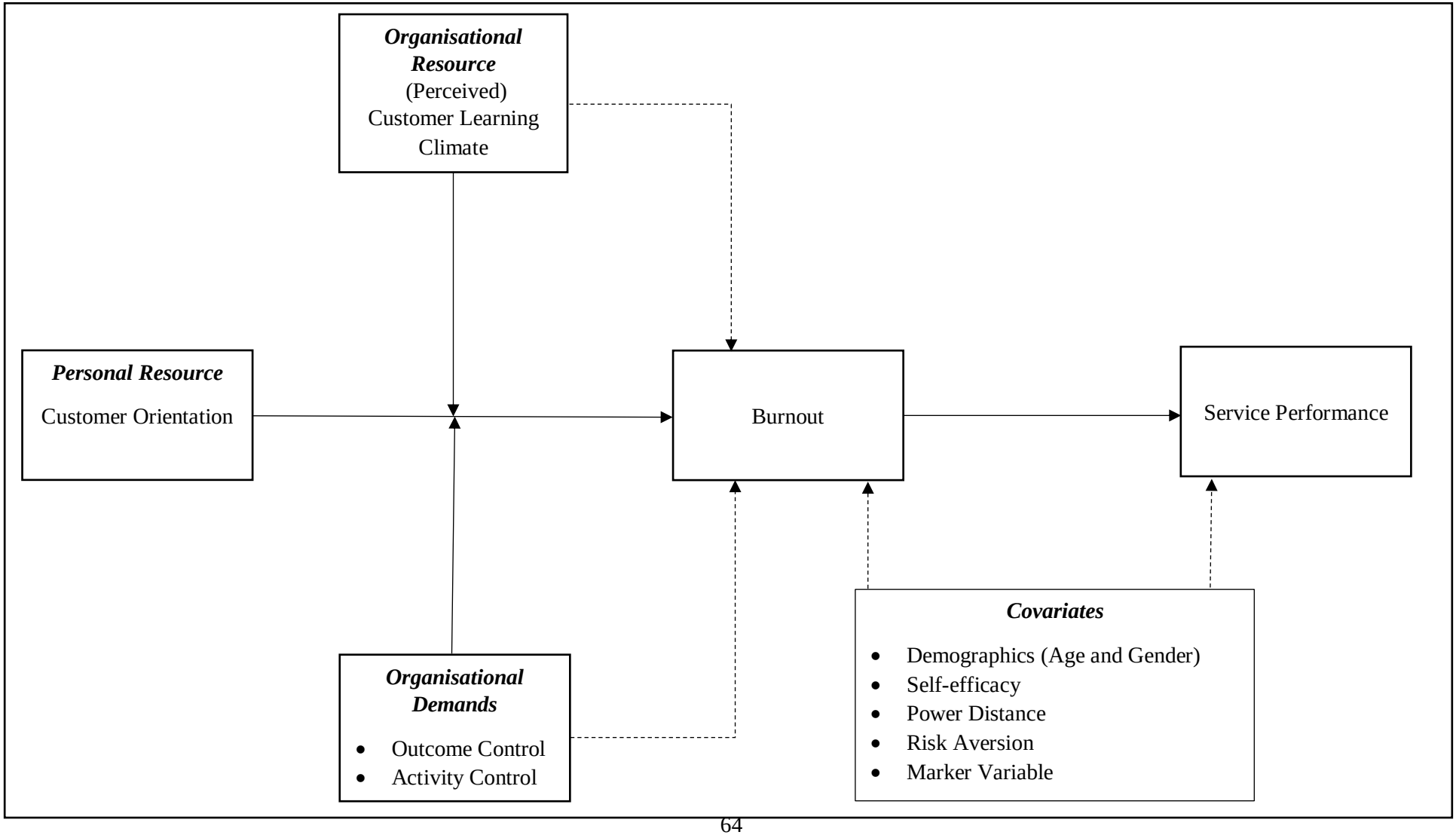
The extant empirical studies based on the JD-R framework suggest that the effects of job demands on work engagement and burnout are different depending on the types of job demands and resources that interact (e.g. Miao and Evans, 2013; Yoo and Arnold, 2014; Menguc et al., 2017). The appraisal theory (Lazarus and Folkman, 1987) explains that the environment and personal characteristics cannot stand alone to determine whether the situation is harmful or beneficial. Rather, the situation only becomes meaningful when these two interact. For instance,

a situation becomes harmful when an individual's personal characteristics and values are confronted by the environment, which can potentially be an obstacle or prevent the individual from achieving their goals. On the other hand, a situation becomes beneficial when an individual's personal characteristics and values are confirmed by the environment. Thus, the present study attempts to show that the interactions between CO and activity control and the interaction between CO and outcome control have different effects (positive and negative) on FSE burnout.

In order to capture an important organisational resource as well as informal control system, CLC is included in the conceptual framework because is an important climate that is relevant to sales roles. CLC refers to a salesperson's perception about the extent to which the group (i.e. sales unit) underscores and expects them to improve service quality, obtaining feedback, insights and ideas that are germane to the customer service. Such a climate is argued to engender learning within the organisation and improve their work (Gustafson et al., 2018). Thus, the interaction between personal resource (CO) and organisational resource (CLC) is also examined in the present study.

In sum, based on the JD-R framework, the conceptual framework illustrates CO as the FSE's personal resource, and draws special attention to the different interaction effects on burnout. Especially, the present study attempts to provide empirical evidence that CO has different effects (both positive and negative) depending on the organisational-level demands and resources with which it interacts. Furthermore, based on the pertinent literature, several control variables are included in the conceptual model.

Figure 3.1. Conceptual Framework



3.3. Research Hypotheses

3.3.1. Direct Effects

3.3.1.1. Customer Orientation and Burnout

According to the JD-R framework, personal resources play a critical role in the health impairment process of burnout because personal resources build resiliency to stressful events, enable employees to control stressful events and, in turn, prevent them from falling into burnout syndrome (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2009; Bakker et al., 2014). In addition, such resources are more related to motivation, rather than stress, and increase the individual's willingness to dedicate more efforts, energy and abilities to achieve goals (Crawford et al., 2010).

The present study conceptualised CO as an important personal resource that is relevant to the sales occupations. The importance of the trait-level CO is emphasised in the extant literature (e.g. Zablah et al., 2012; Menguc et al., 2016), especially since customer needs and wants have become more varied and unique and need to be addressed individually (Vargo and Lusch, 2004; Lusch et al., 2007). It is argued that CO is the most essential key value and resource for FSEs that is important to the customer interface in dealing with customer demands, because it shapes their perception and attitudes towards the job (Zablah et al., 2012).

In line with the JD-R framework, Lazarus and Folkman's (1987) appraisal theory posits that environmental conditions (e.g. sales roles) and a person's characteristics (e.g. values and beliefs) determine the way an individual appraises a situation either as harmful, challenging or beneficial relevant to their well-being. Thus, how FSEs perceive their daily customer encounters as harmful, challenging or beneficial germane to their psychological state is influenced by their values. The empirical evidence shows that a basic personality of agreeableness, denoted by kindness, cooperativeness, warmth and sympathy, is positively related to trait-level CO (Brown et al. 2002). In addition, customer-oriented people are less likely to be emotionally unstable or neurotic (Brown et al., 2002). Furthermore, individuals with an agreeable personality are less likely to cope with stressful situations emotionally (Bolger and Zuckerman, 1995; Bouchard et al., 2004). On the other hand, individuals with high neuroticism are more likely to cope with

stressful situations emotionally because they are more likely to perceive them as negative encounters (Bolger and Zuckerman, 1995; Bouchard et al., 2004). In addition, a meta-analysis shows that neurotic individuals are more susceptible to burnout (Swider and Zimmerman, 2010). This evidence shows that customer-oriented employees are less susceptible to burnout.

Additionally, previous empirical evidence suggests that customer-oriented FSEs are more likely to appraise customer encounters as a challenging situation rather than a harmful one because trait-level CO can help them realise the desired goals such as customer satisfaction (Stock and Bednarek, 2014; Jha et al., 2017) and solve customers' problems in a more authentic way (Yoo and Arnold, 2016). Further, the empirical evidence shows a positive association between CO and positive psychological states, such as work engagement and organisational commitment (e.g. Zablah et al., 2012; Yoo and Arnold, 2016; Matthews et al., 2016). Moreover, CO is found to be negatively associated with job dissatisfaction (Zablah et al., 2012). These evidence show that, CO is a great personal resource that is relevant and important to customer encounters, and helps FSEs reduce burnout by shaping the appraisal of the customer encounters as challenging. Subsequently, the present study hypothesises that:

H1: Customer orientation is negatively related to burnout.

3.3.1.2. Burnout and Service Performance

The JD-R framework posits that the health impairment process of burnout has a weakening effect on individual performance (e.g. Bakker et al., 2007; Bakker et al., 2014; Schaufeli, 2017), especially on in-role performances that are officially required and expected behaviours and outcomes that facilitate an organisation to achieve its goals (Bakker and Heuven, 2006; Motowildo and Van Scotter, 1994). This effect is particularly relevant to job occupations which potentially have a structural discrepancy between the job description and the emotional experience (Bakker and Heuven, 2006). That is, when an individual feels emotionally drained, yet the job requires them to show an opposite emotion, it further consumes energy resources which, in turn, negatively affects their behaviour (Bakker and Heuven, 2006). As the sales occupations become more service-oriented (Vargo and Lusch, 2004; Lusch et al., 2007), the

FSE's service aspects in relation to performance become more important along with sales output (e.g. Miao and Evans, 2013). Thus, salespeople are required to be empathic and authentic when dealing with customers, and to strive to achieve their sales quota concurrently. Consequently, FSEs may feel a great discrepancy between the job role and their emotional experiences, especially when they are already burnt-out, as they are required to expend more effort to act in an authentic and empathetic way towards their customers while trying to achieve their sales goals.

In addition, empirical evidence provides a negative link between emotional strain and service performance. As such, service employees who are suffering from emotional exhaustion are more likely to show negative moods and reactions during service delivery (Grandey, 2003) and work stress thwarts their customer complaint-handling performance and customer-directed extra-role behaviours (Chan and Wan, 2012) as well as the quality of their interactions with customers (Jha et al., 2017). Subsequently, the present study hypothesises that:

H2: Burnout is negatively related to service performance.

3.3.2. Moderating Effect of Sales Control System

3.3.2.1. Customer Orientation x Activity Control

Activity control is a type of demand that requires FSEs to exert effort in sales-related activities such as call rate, visiting customers and creating sales reports. The differentiated JD-R framework emphasises that the condition where job demands affect the link between personal characteristics and burnout is dependent upon how individuals appraise the demand (Crawford et al., 2010). When a demand is appraised as challenging, it can foster the learning and growth of an individual, and help them attain goals, even though meeting such demands requires effort and energy (LePine et al., 2005; Crawford et al., 2010; Van den Broeck et al., 2010; Tadic et al., 2015). Thus, challenging demands foster positive emotion rather than negative emotion (Crawford et al., 2010; Van den Broeck et al., 2010).

In line with the differentiated JD-R framework, the appraisal theory (Lazarus and Folkman, 1987) explains that, when individuals assess how different environments affect their

well-being, they process information about the environment and/or stressful events through the lens of appraisal by addressing "[W]hat does it meant to me personally?"(p.145). Individuals appraise each event in terms of harm, threat, benefit and challenge in response to their well-being. Importantly, when a situation is appraised as challenging, it activates problem-solving coping, which refers to the action taken by the individual to change the troubled person-environment relationship by acting on the stressful environment itself (Lazarus, 1993). A challenging situation activates an individual's problem-solving coping because it provides the purpose of overcoming the demand or threat to their well-being by focusing on the potential gain and positive outcomes in the future.

Indeed, activity control is a demand because FSEs are required to perform certain activities during the sales process. However, activity control is set by the organisation for the means to achieve the sales target and other goals that are related to sales roles such as standard service quality (Jaworski, 1993; Baldauf et al., 2005). That is, activity control gives FSEs a strict demand by requiring them to perform certain behaviours during sales procedures and guidance towards what they are expected to do in order to achieve the goals. When customer-orientated FSEs experience activity control, such control can be appraised as challenging, and activate problem solving-focused coping because dealing with tasks set by activity control gives them a positive outlook towards the organisationally set goals and potential satisfaction of the customer-oriented value such as satisfying customer needs. Therefore, customer-oriented FSEs will appraise activity control as a challenge demand, and act to solve the demand itself. That is, they dedicate more effort to overcome demands set by activity control and foresee a positive outcome in the near future. Effectively, the differentiated JD-R framework explains that personal resources and challenge demands are associated with motivation (e.g. Crawford et al., 2010; Van den Broeck et al., 2010). Thus, the interaction of CO and activity control further reduces the FSEs' burnout. Subsequently, the present study hypothesises that:

H3: The negative relationship of customer orientation on burnout is stronger when activity control is higher.

3.3.2.2. Customer Orientation x Outcome Control

According to the differentiated JD-R framework, job demands can be also classified as hindrance demand, and, when job demands are perceived as hindering, it creates undesirable and excessive constraints (Crawford et al., 2010). P-O fit theory (e.g. Nadler and Tushman, 1980; O'Reilly et al., 1995; Kristof, 1996) explains why some demands can be perceived as hindering. As such, P-O fit theory explains that the degree of congruence or fit between individual characteristics, such as individual values, and facets of organisational situations: incentive systems and cultures, affects an individual's attitudes and behaviours. Importantly, when an employee perceives the congruence between individual characteristics and facets of the organisation, it gives them a sense of control and belongingness (Edwards and Cable, 2009). Therefore, such congruence fosters effectiveness in task completion, and positive attitudes and psychological states (e.g. job satisfaction and normative commitment). On the other hand, when an employee perceives incongruence between individual characteristics and organisational facets, it leads to dysfunctional outcomes such as dissatisfaction and turnover intentions because they experience a violation of their values (Nadler and Tushman, 1980; O'Reilly et al., 1995; Edwards and Cable, 2009).

The extant research shows that the boundary conditions of the resource and motivation link determine whether an individual appraises a particular demand as hindering or challenging (Menguc et al., 2017). In fact, outcome control is a type of demand that directly puts pressure on the FSE to achieve the sales target, and it focuses on the short-term performance that is quantifiable (Anderson and Oliver, 1984). Under outcome control, managers clearly communicate their expectations about sales target and quota achievement, and strictly monitor each sales employee's sales achievement (Kohli et al., 1998). Thus, under outcome control, FSEs are not rewarded for identifying different customer needs or for the quality of their customer interactions (Katsikeas et al., 2018). Thus, salespeople's customer-oriented values are not supported under outcome control, which leads to value incongruence between the firm and the FSE. In fact, conflict between the organisation's strategic view and the salesperson's value can create role conflict (Siguaw et al., 1994). As such, a salesperson may experience an extreme level

of psychological constraints under a situation in which they value being highly customer-oriented, yet the firm highly values sales orientation. Subsequently, the customer-oriented FSE may appraise outcome control as hindering because it violates their customer-oriented values and forces them to pursue short-term output performance, which contradicts with their value. This, in turn, puts the FSE into an extremely stressful situation which outweighs the benefits of both customer orientation and outcome control. Therefore, this study asserts that such a situation is hindering and hypothesises that:

H4: The negative relationship of customer orientation on burnout is weaker when outcome control is higher.

3.3.2.3. Moderating Effect of Customer Learning Climate.

CLC is conceptualised as an organisational resource which encourages FSEs to learn about customers' service needs in order to improve the quality of their service (Auh et al., 2014). The JD-R framework explains the complementary power of personal resources and job resources that these two types of resources foster each other to positively affect work engagement (Bakker et al., 2014). In addition, P-O fit theory (e.g. Nadler and Tushman, 1980; O'Reilly et al., 1995; Kristof, 1996) suggests that the value congruence between a person and an organisation has a positive effect on the individual's work attitudes and a diminishing effect on work stress, because the person and environment supplement each other and embellish the environment and situation (Kristoff, 1996). The empirical finding on P-O fit and job stress revealed that an employee's judgement about the value congruence between the organisation and themselves gives them a sense of ability to better control their work situation which, in turn, minimises their emotional exhaustion (Singh and Greenhause, 2004; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). In fact, high P-O fit can foster customer-oriented behaviour and reduce emotional exhaustion (Grizzle et al., 2009; Yoo et al., 2014). Thus, the compatibility of personal values and organisational values is vital in mitigating the development of a negative psychological state at work.

Under the customer learning climate, FSEs are encouraged to proactively learn customers' service needs to improve their service quality. Thus, customer-oriented FSEs may feel

their values are compatible with, and supplement and embellish the organisational values. In addition, they gain a sense of their ability to control the customer interface even though meeting the demands of each individual customer is challenging. Consequently, customer learning climate is helpful in reducing burnout. Thus, the present study hypothesises that:

H5: The negative relationship of customer orientation on burnout is stronger when customer learning climate is higher.

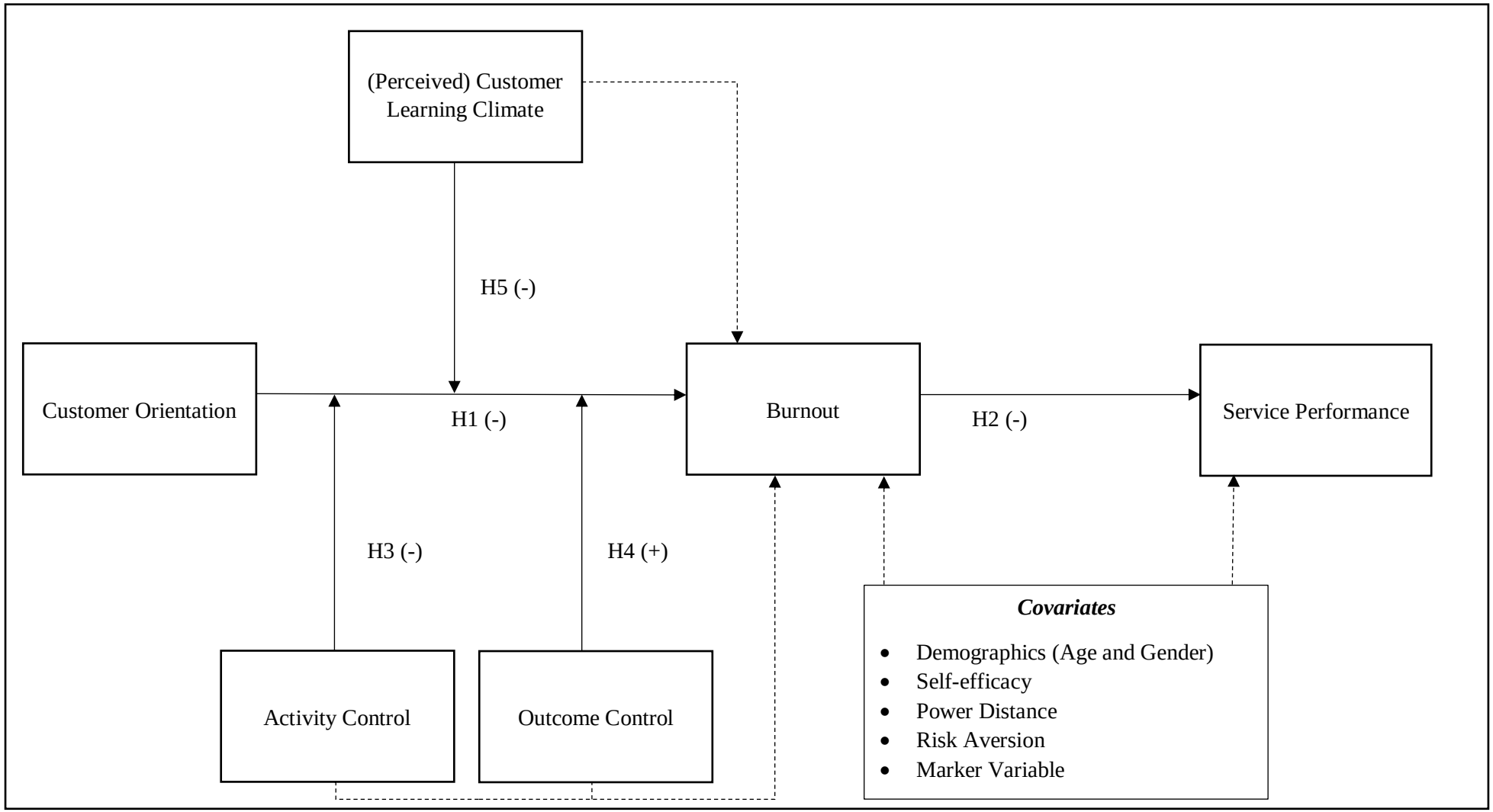
3.4. Summary

The present chapter has presented a conceptual framework and explained this framework, followed by the development of hypotheses. In order to provide a better picture of the study concept and hypotheses, Table 3.1 provides operational definitions of each construct. Additionally, Figure 3.1 provides a summary of the hypotheses and proposed directions of the relationships. The next chapter discusses the research methodology of the present study.

Table 3.1. Definitions of the Study Constructs

Construct	Definition
Burnout	A state of exhaustion, in which a salesperson is cynical about the value of their occupation and doubtful of their capacity to perform. (Maslach et al., 1996, p.20)
Customer orientation	A work value that captures the extent to which an employee's job perceptions, attitudes and behaviours are guided by an enduring belief in the importance of customer satisfaction. (Zablah et al., 2012, p.24)
Activity control	The specification of the activities a salesperson is expected to perform on a daily basis. (Challagala and Shervani, 1996)
Outcome control	The use of an incentive reward system to reward salespeople on the basis of their sales outcomes. (Anderson and Oliver 1987; Miao and Evans, 2014)
Customer learning climate	A salesperson's perceptions about the extent to which the sales unit underscores and expects each salesperson to improve service quality by obtaining feedback, insights and ideas regarding the customer's service needs. (Auh et al., 2014; Wong 2004)
Service performance	Supervisor's perception about the individual salesperson's overall quality and excellence, and the authenticity of the service they provide and extent to which they are willing to provide extra service for their customers. (Salanova et al., 2005; Price et al., 1995)

Figure 3.2. Hypothesised Research Model



CHAPTER 4 – Research Methodology

4.1. Introduction

This chapter provides the underlying philosophy and methodology of the present study. This study is particularly focused on investigating the boundary conditions of salespeople's burnout. Specifically, the interactive effects of trait-level CO, SCSs and CLC on burnout as well as the subsequent service performance are investigated. In order to operationalise the study, the present chapter first provides the philosophical approach to the study. Subsequently, this chapter evaluates different research designs and approaches, and discusses the best-suited research design for the study, followed by an explanation of research approaches such as study settings and sampling frame. The following sections also discuss the operationalisations of the study constructs as well as the data collection procedures. Finally, the chapter provides an evaluation and discussion of the analytical procedures which will be employed to test the hypotheses presented in the previous chapter.

4.2. Research Philosophy

One of many advantages of marketing research is that researchers have rich and various methodological approaches to investigate a chosen phenomenon. Thus, the research questions identified by the researcher and the phenomenon under investigation determine the methodology (Rod, 2009). Hunt (1992) contended that the critical realist approach is most appropriate in marketing studies, because the previously dominant positivist approach has limitations such that it only gives a superficial insight into a chosen phenomenon, when uncovering the underlying mechanisms which explain how and why the chosen phenomenon occurs is more important (Hunt, 1992). Carson et al. (2001) further contended that critical realism presupposes that economies, societies and cultures are observable realities, and these factors are intertwined with other factors to influence a phenomenon vertically and horizontally. Thus, the critical realist approach provides more fruitful insight into the phenomenon under investigation. Therefore, marketing researchers' focus should be kept on identifying causal relationships relating to the chosen phenomenon with an explanation of the mechanisms. Easton (2002) emphasised the critical realist approach to marketing studies because it focuses on identifying the key and predominant relationships that

are essential in understanding a marketing phenomenon, especially when the phenomenon under observation is a product of communications or occurs in a form of exchange.

Thus, a critical realist philosophical approach is best suited for the present study, because this study takes a granular approach to the JD-R framework, which particularly investigates the mechanisms of salespeople's burnout. More precisely, the present study looks into boundary conditions of salespeople's burnout where the FSE's trait-level CO has different effects on burnout depending upon the conditions, such as SCSs and CLC, with which it interacts. In addition, this study incorporates some level of inter-personal relationships between FSEs and their direct supervisors by looking into FSEs' perceptions of SCSs (inter-personal interactions) and service performance rated by supervisors (product of inter-personal interaction). This means that the study investigates different factors that are intertwined and affect both horizontally and vertically. Therefore, it is convincing to take a critical realist approach.

4.3. Research Design

The choice of research design is extremely important because it gives a skeleton structure to the research project and details and procedures necessary to gain information in order to solve research questions (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Thus, this section evaluates different approaches to research design such as exploratory versus conclusive research, and descriptive versus causal research designs. Subsequently, the most suitable research design for the present study will be discussed.

Exploratory research enables researchers to explore the chosen phenomenon and gain insight into managerial concerns. As such, exploratory research is qualitative in nature (Malhotra, 2009). The discovery of new ideas and insights is the primary goal of exploratory research, hence this research design is often employed when researchers do not have a concrete understanding of the phenomenon in question. In addition, the primary characteristics of exploratory research design are flexibility and versatility, which allow researchers to conduct in-depth interviews or pilot case study to define problems or gain deeper insight (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

Subsequently, exploratory research design rarely involves structured questionnaires with large samples.

Conclusive research, on the other hand, is characterised as formal, planned and structured. This research design enables researchers to identify relationships and make predictions about a market phenomenon (Malhotra and Birks, 2007; Malhotra, 2009). As such, conclusive research is quantitative in nature. Thus, it is suitable when researchers test specific hypotheses and examine relationships (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). In contrast to exploratory research, conclusive research requires a large sample size in order to represent the phenomenon. Importantly, conclusive research design is separated into two different types of research, namely causal and descriptive research.

Causal research is often employed in a research project in which the researcher aims to obtain evidence for cause-and-effect relationships (Malhotra, 2010). This type of research design is used particularly when researchers try to understand the causal effect of independent variables on dependent variables within the chosen phenomenon. Causal research also requires a large sample size with a structured and planned research design, as it is a type of conclusive research. The unique characteristic of causal research is that it requires relative manipulation of the environment in order to test how other variables affect the dependent variable. Therefore, the main method of causal research is experiment (Malhotra, 2010).

Descriptive research is also a type of conclusive research, but it aims to determine the association between variables, not the causal relationships. Descriptive research is defined as a "type of research that has its major objective the description of something, usually market characteristics or functions" (Malhotra and Birks, 2007, p.73). In order to conduct this type of research, it is necessary to formulate specific research questions and hypotheses. Therefore, information that needs to be attained to solve questions and test hypotheses is clearly defined. Descriptive research requires a large representative sample size with a formal and pre-planned structure. In addition, it requires specification in terms of why, what, when, where, who and ways in order to understand the context of the chosen phenomenon. This type of research requires secondary data with quantitative analysis, survey and panels (Malhotra, 2010).

Descriptive research is, then, separated into cross-sectional and longitudinal research. Cross-sectional research requires one-time-only data collection, which means that the information from the identified sample is collected at one time only (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Importantly, researchers can take single cross-sectional data in which the data are collected from one sample group for one time only, or multiple cross-sectional data, where the data are collected from multiple sample groups for one time only. In contrast, longitudinal research requires multiple collection of information from a fixed sample over time. Thus, a longitudinal study is useful in terms of observing a series of pictures and changes that are taking place in the same sample (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

The selection of the research design determines the quality and success of a study, yet the selection of the research design is pre-determined by the research questions, such as the context of the chosen phenomenon and research hypotheses (Malhotra, 2010). The present study proposed research questions by providing research objectives, and a conceptual framework as well as hypotheses in the previous chapters, and specifically investigates the association between attitudes, behaviours and the performance of FSEs. Although causal research design is the most ideal choice in terms of determining cause-and-effect relationships, descriptive research design is the most suitable for the present study due to difficulties concerning the nature of the constructs employed in the study, which are difficult to manipulate. This is because the present study looks into the differences in individuals' psychological states and perceptions towards work and work environment.

It is often argued that the longitudinal research design has various limitations such as requirements relating to time, effort and financial resources (Malhotra, 2009). Drawing from these limitations regarding the longitudinal research design, cross-sectional research design that involves data collection from two different types of groups (i.e. FSEs and their direct supervisors) at two points in time is most suitable for the present study. Especially, in order to distinguish antecedents and performance, the study employed a time lag of one month in between the FSEs' questionnaire (which looks into antecedents in the model) and the supervisors' questionnaire (which looks into FSE performance). To the researcher's knowledge, there are no logical

suggestions that determine the length of time lag to test the association between attitudes and performance in the relevant literature. Thus, the decision on the length of time interval is subjective. Therefore, it was concluded that one month is a reasonable time lag in between two sets of questionnaires due to limitations in time and resources.

4.4. Research Context and Setting

4.4.1. Japan

Japan was selected for the empirical setting of this study for two reasons. Firstly, Japan is going through societal changes in terms of people's work styles with a strong focus on extinguishing burnout and over-work death (Sankei, 2018). Secondly, Japan is a high-stress society in which nearly 60% of working people encounter some kind of stress at work (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, 2018). In addition, according to Gallup (2017), only 6% of the Japanese working population was engaged with their work between 2014 and 2016, which was the lowest in the global ranking of engagement.

It has been reported that Japan held the third-largest economy by GDP in 2018 (International Monetary Fund, 2018). Since the launch of its economic policy package "Abenomics" in early 2013, the country's economy has grown steadily from 4.95 thousand dollars to 5.32 thousand dollars (The Government of Japan, 2017). With an additional policy, "work-style reform", launched in 2016, the Japanese society is now facing an era of change in terms of the ways people work. As Japan is going through a major demographic change such as having an ageing society and a shift from an industrial to an information society, this work-style reform aims to increase the productivity of the working population by re-examining the way people work and providing with them various flexible work styles (The Government of Japan, 2017).

With the government's economic scheme and efforts for work-style reform, it seems contradictory that only 6% of the Japanese working population is engaged at work (Gallup, 2017). With the high stress and disengagement rates of the Japanese working population, Okada (2015) contended that organisations should re-examine the way they treat employees and help them

establish a healthy work-life balance as well as to provide a better health system such as the introduction of an employee compensation scheme that better supports employees' mental and physical health.

Taken together, Japan holds one of the strongest economies in the world, yet the country is undergoing major social changes with ageing and work-life style. In addition, despite the strong economy, the working population, who are the main pillar of economic growth, are suffering from stress at work. Therefore, the empirical setting of this study gives a unique background to the study by especially looking into the FSEs' environment as well as burnout.

4.4.2. Industry and Organisational Setting

In parallel with Japan's ageing society, demand for new, innovative medicines has increased, and Japan held the second-largest pharmaceutical market in the world (Harvard Business Review, 2018). The Japanese government responded to these increasing demands and initiated structural reform in the healthcare and life-science sectors as a part of Abenomics. For example, enactment of Pharmaceutical and Medical Devices law in 2014 enabled pharmaceutical and healthcare industries to enhance the research and development process, and speedy licensing, by shortening the drugs and devices approval process. This, in turn, enabled pharmaceutical companies to deliver the new, innovative medicines to the market faster (Harvard Business Review, 2018). Taken from this macro-environmental change, the speed of approval for drugs and devices in Japan is now faster than in the United States and European Union. In addition, as Katsikeas et al. (2018) emphasised, the sale of pharmaceutical products is extremely complex due to the "shift in the decision-making unit from doctor to a team of administrators and doctors" (p. 49). Therefore, conducing a research project with a pharmaceutical company in Japan gives a unique and advantageous research setting in testing the proposed conceptual model.

Thus, the data used to test the hypotheses formulated for this study were collected from a Japanese pharmaceutical company, which focuses on dermatological science. Currently, the company is one of the biggest players in the respective market, and it holds a third of the market

share for dermatological drugs in Japan. The sales operation of this company is nation-wide, and it operates with 55 sales units across Japan with a total of 421 salespeople.

4.4.3. Sampling Frame

Marketing researchers can choose either census or sampling in order to obtain data (Malhotra, 2010). Census requires a complete enumeration of the population, meaning data need to be collected from every single person that is involved in the elements of the population (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). On the other hand, sampling involves setting criteria for the selection of the population for the study under investigation (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Due to time and financial limitation, the researcher concluded that a sampling method was more appropriate for the present study.

Sampling frame is a researcher's operational definition pertaining to the population. Essentially, the generalisability of a study is pre-determined by the adequacy of the frame (Kalleberg et al., 1990). Importantly, constructs under examination can contribute to the choice of sampling frame (Royer and Zarlowski, 2001). In order to consider the generalisability of the present study, the researcher took a stratified sampling method in determining the sample. Stratified sampling involves the selection of a population based on one or more pre-established criteria, and is used when constructs under examination can contribute to the choice of sampling (Royer and Zarlowski, 2001). The sampling for this study is also pre-determined in terms of the constructs under investigation, namely, SCSs and service performance, which are unique to sales and boundary-spanning occupations. Hence, the researcher chose sales organisations with FSEs who also have responsibility for services to their customers for the target sampling frame. Importantly, the researcher specifically selected the pharmaceutical industry in Japan due to its unique economic, social and industry setting.

Further, this study employed single organisational data, as opposed to sampling sales employees in multiple organisations. Many scholars in burnout in sales research (e.g. Singh et al. 1994; Lewin and Sager, 2007) have argued that using a single organisational data gives an advantage over multiple organisational data because single organisational data minimise the

potential contingency effects and provide a better control for contextual effects. In addition, the researcher concluded that a single organisational data collection is the method best suited for the present research due to practicality of the data collection such as securing dyadic responses between FSEs and their supervisors, operationalising multiple-time data collections, and securing the maximum sample in the available population.

Based on these criteria, several pharmaceutical companies on the list of the Japan Pharmaceutical Manufacturers Association (JPMA) were contacted. One company with a total of 421 FSEs across Japan agreed to take part in the present study. Consequently, the data were collected the company's cooperation. The procedures pertaining to the operationalisation of the data collection are discussed in section 4.8.

4.5. Operationalisation of the Study Constructs

The operationalisation of study constructs is deeply connected to the theoretical framework and research model specified by the research questions as they determine how specific constructs are measured in a study (Malhotra, 2010). Measurement is often defined as "the assignment of numbers or other symbols to characteristics of objects according to set rules" (Malhotra, 2010. p.266). Importantly, what a researcher measures is characteristics of objects, such as perceptions and attitudes, but not the object itself (Malhotra, 2010; Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Generally, in theory construction in the domain of marketing, measurements are the empirical indicators and are used to represent abstract concepts of the relevant theories that researchers use (Baggozi, 1984). Therefore, the present study also utilised empirical indicators to represent the study constructs and observe the relationship between constructs.

There are many ways to operationalise study constructs, yet marketing researchers should consider measurement and scaling as a method of operationalisation (Malhtora and Birks, 2007). Scaling should be considered as an extension of measurement and it involves formulating a continuum upon which measured objects are placed (Malhotra, 2010). Scaling is useful in observing respondents' attitudes and perceptions towards the phenomenon in question because it

enables researches to assign meanings to each number representing the strength of and the attitude or perception (Malhotra and Binks, 2007).

Importantly, this research employed three criteria for the selection of scales in order to operationalise the study constructs. Firstly, all the scales used in this study are adopted from reputable and respected journal articles in the sales, marketing, management and psychology domains. Secondary, following Nunnally's (1978) recommendation, selection of scale was undertaken based on the Cronbach coefficient score of .70 or higher as an indication of the appropriate scale for this study. Finally, selection of scales is based on the number of items that represent each construct, such that each scale must have multiple items (more than three items) to represent a construct in order to obtain reliability and validity. Accordingly, all study constructs, namely, CO, SCS, CLC, burnout, service performance, self-efficacy, power distance, risk aversion and marker variable, were adopted from existing literature. The following sections are organised by FSE-rated measures, a supervisor-rated measure, and control variables.

4.5.1. Frontline Sales Employee-rated Measures

4.5.1.1. Customer Orientation

In order to measure FSE's trait-level CO, an 11-item scale from Menguc et al. (2016) is adopted. This scale represents two dimensions of CO, namely, need (Thomas et al., 2001) and enjoyment (Brown et al., 2002). In addition, this scale was measured by employing a seven-point Likert-scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). In the FSEs' questionnaire, the items are introduced after the opening sentence to the questions, "Please evaluate your behaviour and attitudes towards your customers at work". Table 4.1 exhibits the items adopted to measure customer orientation in the present study.

Table 4.1. Scale for Customer Orientation

Construct	Code	Items	Source
Customer Orientation: Need	co1	I try to figure out a customer's needs.	Thomas et al. (2001); Menguc et al. (2016)
	co2	I have the customer's best interests in mind.	
	co3	I take a problem-solving approach when selling products to customers.	
	co4	I recommend products that are best suited to solving customers' problems.	
	co5	I try to find out which kinds of products would be most helpful to customers (including products of competitors).	
Customer Orientation: Enjoyment	co6	I find it easy to smile at each of my customers.	Thomas et al. (2001); Menguc et al. (2016)
	co7	I enjoy remembering my customers' names.	
	co8	It comes naturally to have empathy for my customers.	
	co9	I get satisfaction from making my customers happy.	
	co10	I enjoy responding quickly to my customers' requests.	
	co11	I really enjoy serving my customers.	

*Added words/descriptions after discussions with the marketing managers are given in parentheses

4.5.1.2. Sales Control Systems

The present study focuses on the job-demand aspects of SCSs, namely activity control and outcome control. This study operationalised these two by using scales developed by Kohli et al. (1998), which consist of five items for activity control and five items for outcome control. The items pertaining to activity control are proposed after an introductory sentence of, "Please evaluate the following statements about medical representatives' (MR) activities including 'call' (hospital visitation and sales calls), and 'details' (sales pitches and advertisement of medicines)" in the questionnaire. Outcome control scales were introduced after the following sentence, "Please evaluate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statement about your branch manager". Importantly, each scale was on a different page of the questionnaire to avoid response bias. The FSEs were asked to evaluate their perception of their sales branch manager on a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Table 4.2 provides the items used to measure each sales control system.

Table 4.2. Scale for Sales Control Systems

Construct	Code	Items	Source
Activity Control	act1	My manager informs me about the sales activities (MR activities) I am expected to perform.	Kohli et al. (1998)
	act2	My manager monitors how I perform required sales activities (MR activities).	
	act3	My manager informs me on whether I meet his/her expectations on sales activities (MR activities such as calls and details).	
	act4	My manager readjusts my sales activities (MR activities) when necessary.	
	act5	I would be recognised by my manager if I perform sales activities (MR activities) well.	
Outcome Control	out1	My manager tells me about the expected level of achievement on sales volume or market share targets.	Kohli et al. (1998)
	out2	My manager monitors my performance on achieving sales volume or market share targets.	
	out3	I receive frequent feedback on whether I am meeting expected achievement on sales volume or market share targets.	
	out4	My manager ensures that I am aware of the extent to which I attain sales volume or market share targets.	
	out5	I would be recognised by my manager if I perform well on sales volume or market share targets.	

*Added words/descriptions after discussions with the marketing managers are given in parentheses

4.5.1.3 Customer Learning Climate

CLC is utilised by a four-item scale used in Auh et al.'s (2014) study, which was originally developed by Wong et al. (2004). In the questionnaire, the scale was proposed after the following sentence, "Please evaluate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statement. In the sales department…". FSEs were asked to complete a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The four-item scale representing CLC is shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Scale for Customer Learning Climate

Construct	Code	Items	Source
Customer Learning Climate	clc1	We seek ideas from customers on how to improve our service quality (i.e. contribution to dermatological science and medical services in Japan).	Wong et al. (2004); Auh et al. (2014)
	clc2	We review our service and products with customers to understand the level of service we provide (whether they are good or bad).	
	clc3	We obtain advice from customers to gain insight on how to improve our service.	
	clc4	We seek feedback from customers to understand how we can better meet their service needs.	

*Added words/descriptions after discussions with the marketing managers are given in parentheses

4.5.1.4. Burnout

Burnout is conceptualised as a three-dimensional construct, namely emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment. Burnout was operationalised by adopting a short version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach and Jackson, 1981) proposed by Rutherford et al. (2011a), which is specifically shortened for studies in a sales context. Rutherford et al.'s (2011a) version consists of four items for emotional exhaustion, three items for depersonalisation and three items for personal accomplishment (reserve coded). In the questionnaire, the FSEs were asked to evaluate their feelings and attitudes towards work on a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The items were provided after the introductory sentence of, "Please evaluate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your feelings at work". Importantly, these 10 items are randomly ordered in the questionnaire. The 10-item scale employed for burnout is provided in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Scale for Burnout

Construct	Code	Items	Source
Emotional Exhaustion	EE1	I feel used up at the end of the workday.	Maslach and Jackson (1981); Rutherford et al. (2011a)
	EE2	I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	
	EE3	I feel burned out from my work.	
	EE4	I feel frustrated by my job.	
Depersonalisation	DP1	I feel I treat some customers as if they were impersonal 'objects'.	
	DP2	I've become more callous toward customers since I took this job.	
	DP3	I don't really care what happens to some customers.	
Personal Accomplishment (reserve coded)	RPA1	I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	
	RPA2	I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my customers.	
	RPA3	I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.	

4.5.2. Supervisor-rated Measure

4.5.2.1. Service Performance

This study employed a six-item scale developed by Salanova et al. (2005) to measure FSE service performance. As previously mentioned, service performance was rated by the FSE's direct supervisor (sales branch manager) one month after the completion of the FSE's questionnaire in order to have a time lag between measurement of antecedents and performance. The six-item scale for service performance was proposed after the introductory sentence of, "Please evaluate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about the focal employee's customer service", and sales branch managers were asked evaluate each employee's service performance on a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The following table presents the six-item scale for service performance used in this study (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5. Scale for Service Performance

Construct	**Code**	**Items**	**Source**
Service Performance	sperf1	This MR understands specific needs of customers.	Salanova et al. (2005)
	sperf2	This MR is able to put himself/herself in the customers' place.	
	sperf3	This MR is able to tune in to each specific customer.	
	sperf4	This MR surprises customers with their excellent service.	
	sperf5	This MR does more than usual for customers.	
	sperf6	This MR delivers an excellent service quality that is difficult to find in other companies.	

*MR (medical representative) = Frontline sales employee

4.5.3. Control Variables

Control variables are utilised to rule out alternative explanations in hypothesised relationships and control for extraneous influence, to achieve the incremental contribution that one variable makes to the prediction of dependent variables by considering the effects of other variables on the dependent variable (Carlson and Wu, 2012). Importantly, the selection of control variables should be based on the theoretical relevance and/or significant zero-order correlation (Carlson and Wu, 2012). In line with this recommendation, the present study employed several control variables based on the JD-R framework, appraisal theory and P-O fit theory as well as the zero-order correlations with the dependent variables (i.e. burnout and service performance) and included in the measurement model (where applicable) and structural model.

The effect of emotional exhaustion is found to differ between different demographic groups (Wright and Bonett, 1997; Yoo et al., 2014). This indicates that different genders and ages may affect both burnout and service performance. In addition, the appraisal theory highlighted that females are more susceptible to psychological distress (e.g. Lazarus and Folkman, 1987; Folkman and Lazarus, 1988; Bouchard et al., 2004). Thus, age and gender were included as demographic control variables in the present study. Demographic questions were proposed in the last section of the questionnaire. Gender was measured with ‘male’ or ‘female’, and age was measured by utilising the natural algorithm.

In addition, according to the appraisal theory, people who have a positive and favourable sense of their ability to perform tasks are less likely to appraise stressful events as threatening (Lazarus and Folkman, 1987). The JD-R framework suggests that self-efficacy is one of the main personal resources, and it is a well-established construct in the extant studies in sales research (e.g. Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2009; Mullins et al., 2014). Thus, self-efficacy was also included as a control variable in the present study and employed a three-item scale used by Menguc et al. (2016). FSEs were asked to evaluate their self-efficacy on a Likert-scale of one to seven, 1 being strongly disagree and 7 being strongly agree. The scale was proposed after the introduction of, “Please evaluate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements”. Table 4.6 exhibits the three-item scale used to measure self-efficacy in this study.

As the data were collected from a Japanese company, the effects of culture were also considered as a control variable. Hofstede (2011) shows that Japanese people tend to have a higher power distance and uncertainty avoidance as compared to people from Western countries such as the United States and United Kingdom. Sharma (2010) argued that cultural orientations may differ between individuals in the same society. Thus, two variables from personal cultural orientation which reflect general Japanese culture in a business context, power distance and risk aversion, were employed to increase the generalisability of the present study. Power distance and risk aversion were operationalised by utilising four-item scales developed by Sharma (2010) as dimensions of personal cultural orientation. The two scales were introduced after the sentence, "Please evaluate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements", with a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The four-item scales used to measure power distance and risk aversion are provided in Table 4.7.

Table 4.6. Scale for Self-efficacy

Construct	Code	Items	Source
Self-efficacy	effi1	My job is well within my scope of my ability.	Menguc et al. (2016)
	effi2	I am confident about my abilities to do my job.	
	effi3	I have mastered the skills to do my job.	

Table 4.7. Scale for Power Distance and Risk Aversion (Personal Cultural Orientation)

Construct	Code	Items	Source
Power Distance	pdi1	I easily conform to the wishes of someone in a higher position than mine.	Sharma (2010)
	pdi2	It is difficult for me to refuse a request if someone senior asks me.	
	pdi3	I tend to follow orders without asking any questions.	
	pdi4	I find it hard to disagree with authority figures.	
Risk Aversion	risk1	I tend to avoid talking to (visiting) customers who I do not know of.	Sharma (2010)
	risk2	I prefer a routine way of work life to an unpredictable one full of changes.	
	risk3	I would not describe myself as a risk-taker.	
	risk4	I do not like taking too many chances to avoid making a mistake.	

4.5.4. Marker Variable

In order to address the concerns pertaining to common method bias, the present study included the attitude towards blue scale as a marker variable (Miller and Chiodo, 2008), which consists of four items. The selection of the marker variable is based on Simmering et al.'s (2015) recommendation that the marker variable should be theoretically irrelevant and have zero correlation with study constructs. FSEs were asked to evaluate each item on a seven-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) after the following introduction of, "Please evaluate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements". The following table (Table 4.8) presents the scale items used to measure the relevant attitude.

Table 4.8. Scale for Marker Variable (Attitude towards Blue Scale)

Construct	**Code**	**Items**	**Source**
Marker Variable	mrkr1	I prefer blue to other colours.	Millar and Chiodo (2008)
	mrkr2	I like the colour blue.	
	mrkr3	I like blue clothes.	
	mrkr4	I hope my next car is blue.	

4.6. Questionnaire Development

In general, questionnaires are the most popular methods for primary data collection, and there are some steps that are recommended to take in order to effectively develop a questionnaire (e.g. Malhotra and Birks, 2007; Malhotra, 2010), and such a procedure includes the following steps;

1. Specification of information needed
2. Specification of the type of data collection method
3. Determining of the content of individual questions
4. Overcoming the respondents' unwillingness or/and inability to answer
5. Deciding on the structure of the questionnaire
6. Wording of the questionnaire
7. Deciding on the sequence and flow of the questionnaire
8. Choosing the layout and format of the questionnaire
9. Reproduction of the questionnaire
10. Questionnaire pre-test

Taking these steps is necessary to minimise response errors as well as to motivate respondents to complete and submit the questionnaire (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Therefore, the present study also followed these steps to design the FSE and supervisors' questionnaires. The points pertaining to steps one and two (research design and study setting) and three (operationalisation of the questionnaires) were already discussed in the previous sections, hence this section focuses on the remaining steps, 4 to 10.

In order to deal with the respondents' unwillingness or inability to answer the questionnaire, the researcher took leverage of a single organisational sample. The data used in this study were collected with the cooperation of a pharmaceutical company; therefore, the researcher was able to promote the study throughout the company with support from the company's sales development division. In order to clarify the steps required to answer the questionnaires, two three-minute videos, one targeting FSEs and the other targeting their

supervisors, explaining the research purposes and how to complete the questionnaires were created and distributed by closed link on YouTube. Particular emphasis was given to the point that all questions must be answered in order to be used in the analysis in each video. Importantly, the same information was also given and emphasised on the information sheets provided as the cover pages of each questionnaire. In order to reduce the response fatigue, questionnaires for both FSEs and supervisors were of reasonable length, six pages and three pages respectively. It is important to note that, due to the dyadic response nature of this study, the researcher asked FSEs to provide their four-digit employee number and supervisors to provide the focal employee's four-digit employee number for data-matching purposes. The respondents were ensured that their responses would be kept anonymous and were provided with information protection stickers and instructed to seal off the employee number and demographic information after the completion of questionnaire.

The structure of the questionnaire should be thought through when designing the questionnaire in order to allow respondents to answer quick and accurately (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). In order to minimise response fatigue, all questions were structured by constructs, rather than random ordering. Open-ended questions were not employed in the questionnaires in order for respondents to complete them smoothly, as both FSEs and supervisors were asked to fill in the questionnaires during normal working hours. In addition, seven-point Likert-scales were utilised for all the scales proposed in the questionnaires to maintain consistency throughout.

Particular attention was paid to the wording, especially because all the measurements were translated from English to Japanese. In order to eliminate any ambiguity, ordinary words were used, and several conference calls were conducted with the company's marketing manager to see if any questions appeared to be difficult to understand. In addition, both questionnaires were proofread by several native Japanese speakers and bilinguals (Japanese and English) to eliminate any concerns regarding the wording. In addition, indicators for each seven-point Liker-scale were provided every time a different scale was introduced in the questionnaires to give respondents clear guidance.

In designing a questionnaire, the order of the questions is as important as the wording, because it influences the respondents' perceptions of each question (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). It is recommended to have opening questions in order to draw their attention (Malhotra, 2010). Therefore, opening statements were included every time a different scale was introduced in the questionnaires. In order to make the sequence more interesting, opening questions were written in bold. Importantly, items from different scales were not mixed; rather, items and scale were presented as a section.

Considerations pertaining to step eight were also addressed when designing the questionnaires. With regard to the format of the questionnaires, questions were grouped construct by construct and the questionnaire layouts were kept consistent, and the length of both questionnaires was kept as short as possible. As such, the questionnaire for the FSEs was six pages excluding the cover page and the supervisors' questionnaire was three pages excluding the cover page. The cover page for both questionnaires provided information about the present study, contact information for the researcher and how to fill the questionnaire. Many marketing research guidebooks highlighted the importance of pre-coding questionnaires (e.g. Malhotra and Birks, 2007). As the questionnaires were distributed by the sales branches, an identification number was allocated to each sales branch prior to distribution. In addition, four-digit numbers indicating sales branch and each employee were allocated to each FSE's response before the distribution of the supervisors' questionnaire.

Both questionnaires were conducted by pen-and-paper-style survey. Malhotra (2010) recommended that questionnaires must have a professional appearance in order to give respondents the impression that the study is important. Therefore, both questionnaires were printed using a professional printing service, and printed on quality A4 paper (portrait). Each questionnaire was stapled in two places on the long side so that each questionnaire appeared to be a booklet. In addition, reasonable blank spaces were inserted between each question to avoid overcrowding each page, and the questions were organised in tables in order for respondents to read and answer them easily.

It is important to highlight that the questionnaires used in the present study were pre-tested prior to the main launch of the study in order to eliminate any problems. The first drafts of both questionnaires were submitted to three academic researchers who supervised the researcher. This process improved the wording of the questionnaires and enabled the researcher to tailor them to the context of the present study, as some of the items were borrowed from general management and psychological studies. The Japanese versions of the questionnaires were handed over to two business experts in Japan. The researcher received some feedback and corrected wordings accordingly. Finally, both questionnaires were tested with 27 salespeople and matching supervisors who worked in the same branch of a life insurance company in Japan. In broad terms, the pre-test of the questionnaires did not identify any issues. Therefore, the researcher concluded that both questionnaires were ready to be distributed.

4.7. Translation of the Questionnaires

As the data for the present study were collected from Japanese sales employees and their supervisors, it was necessary to translate the questionnaires from the original English version to Japanese. Douglas and Craig (2007) emphasised the increasing concerns regarding international marketing research, such that it is questionable whether translated questionnaires properly capture the meanings (rather than the direct translations) intended in the original scale items, and whether these items are equally reproduced in the target languages. In order to address such concerns and translate the study constructs accurately, two types of translation techniques were employed, namely, collaborative translation with committee approach (Douglas and Craig, 2007) and back translation technique (Brislin, 1970; Brislin, 1980).

The collaborative approach to translation is highly recommended in social science because it eliminates subjective ideas on translations as well as linguistic limitations of translators (e.g. Harkness and Schoua-Glousberg, 1998). The committee approach is appropriate when a group of translators can work together to translate the same text (Douglas and Craig, 2007). Therefore, the committee approach was used for the initial translation of the questionnaires from English to Japanese. In this process, the researcher asked two other native Japanese university

students who had an International English Language Testing System score of more than 6.0 to translate the questionnaires. Firstly, they were asked to translate the questionnaires individually. Subsequently, two meetings were held a week after to go through the individual translations, and the three translators, including the researcher, conducted a discussion until all of the translators agreed on both meanings behind the translated language and wordings.

Douglas and Craig (2007) recommended using the committee approach in the revising process of the translation. However, due to time limitations, the back translation technique was used for revising purposes. A professional agency translator was employed for the back translation from Japanese to English. A careful examinations of the back translations did not reveal any major mistranslations or concerns. Subsequently, the questionnaires were submitted to two Japanese business experts and pre-tested.

4.8. Data Collection

The conceptual model of the present study proposed that interactions of FSEs' trait-level CO and perceptions of SCSs and CLC influence their burnout levels, and, in turn, affect their service performance. This section explains the procedures that were undertaken to collect the data for the study. As such, the section explains in detail the process of sample identification, distribution of the questionnaires and characteristics of the samples.

4.8.1 Informant Identification

The present study identified the FSEs of a Japanese pharmaceutical company as the main study subjects. In order to find participants for the study, some pharmaceutical companies on the JPMA list were contacted via telephone or email. A marketing manager from one private company agreed to meet with the researcher with an intention to participate in the study. Subsequently, the following steps were taken in order to realise the data collection. Firstly, a face-to-face meeting was held with the marketing manager of the company to provide a presentation and research proposal. The information sheet along with the letter from the University of Leeds stating that the study will be conducted anonymous were also provided to the company. After the internal

discussion, the researcher received authorisation from the company's chief executive officer, sales director and law department. Consequently, a data collection opportunity with the company with a total of 421 FSEs across Japan was secured.

4.8.2. Questionnaire Preparation

Prior to the main launch of the survey study, several telephone conferences with the marketing manager were conducted for the purpose of reviewing and editing the questionnaires in order for the FSEs and their supervisors to understand each question better. In this process, explanations and jargon they used in day-to-day sales operations were added in parentheses where necessary. Upon the request of the sales development division of the company, two three-minute videos, addressed to the FSEs and their supervisors, were created for the purpose of explaining how to fill in the questionnaire, information protection and anonymity of the study. Subsequently, paper-and-pen questionnaires were organised. After a discussion regarding the logistics of the questionnaire distribution with the marketing manager, the sales development division of the company agreed to promote and distribute both questionnaires to their 55 sales units across Japan using their internal mail system.

4.8.3. Questionnaire Distribution

The first set of questionnaires were addressed to FSEs of the company for the time 1 data collection, and 55 survey kits were prepared. Each survey kit contained a cover letter addressed to the sales unit manager, a brief manual explaining the procedures of the survey research, a traceable return envelope addressed to the researcher's home address in Japan, information protection stickers and paper-and-pen questionnaires relating to the number of FSEs at each sales branch. The information protection stickers were provided due to operationalisation of the questionnaires which required each FSE to provide their 4-digit employee number in order to match their supervisors' response in time 2 data collection. A total of 421 paper-and-pen FSE questionnaires were prepared and enclosed in 55 envelopes, each addressed to a sales unit name, and posted to the company's headquarters by using the Japan Post service. Subsequently, each

survey kit was distributed through the internal mailing system of the company and managed by the sales development division. The response period was set for one week commencing on Monday the 21nd May 2018 to Friday the 25th May 2018. The sales branch managers were instructed to post back the FSE questionnaires directly to the researcher with the valid Japan Post reception stamp dated by 1st June. Importantly, the researcher received all responses by 29th May 2018.

For the time 2 data collection, 55 sets of questionnaires were addressed to the sales unit managers who were the FSEs' direct supervisors. Fifty-five survey kits were prepared, and each kit included a list of employees (4-digit employee number) respective to each sales unit, a cover letter addressed to the unit manager, and a brief manual explaining the procedure of the survey study, along with paper-and-pen questionnaires and information protection stickers. The information protection stickers were provided to seal off the focal employees' 4-digit employee numbers. The questionnaire kits were posted to the company's headquarters by using the Japan Post service, then distributed through the company's internal mailing system. The response period was set for two weeks from 25th June 2018 to 6th July 2018 due to the number of surveys the sales unit managers were asked to complete (3 to 12 employees per unit). The sales unit manager were instructed to directly post back the questionnaires using the traceable envelope through the Japan Post service with the valid reception stamp dated by the 13th July 2018. Importantly, all 55 envelopes were returned by 16th July and with the valid reception stamp dated on 13th July 2018.

Consequently, a total of 421 FSE questionnaires were distributed for the time 1 collection. Each employee self-completed the questionnaire and sealed 4-digit employee number with the information protection sticker, then individually inserted it into the traceable return envelope. The researcher received 372 usable surveys, which is an overall response rate of 89.6%. With regard to the time 2 data collection with the FSEs' direct supervisors, 372 questionnaires were distributed, and the sales unit managers reported the performance of each employee. Three hundred and seventy-two usable questionnaires across the 55 sales units were received, and the overall response rate for the supervisors' survey was 100%.

4.8.4. Characteristics of the Sample

The characteristics of the FSE sample are reported in Table 4.9. Although the supervisors' questionnaire focused on the performance of their direct supervisees, the characteristics of the supervisors are also reported in Table 4.9. The company has a number of recruitment criteria and only recruits people with university degrees. Therefore, 100% of the FSEs had either an undergraduate and/or a master's degree. The majority of the sample was male (82.3%). In addition, there were fewer over 45s in the sample due to the career progression scheme employed by the company where FSEs can be promoted to branch managers around the age of 40. However, it is evident that the age of participants in the study ranges from 23 to over 60. As well, the tenure of the FSEs varied from one year to 42 years. Hence, different levels of sales experiences are observed. Taken from these, it is plausible that the findings of this study can be generalised across the sample.

Table 4.9. Characteristics of the Samples

FSEs' Characteristics	
Male	***82.3*** %
Female	***17.7*** %
Age	***36.3*** (mean)
Age 23 – 25	***15.3%***
26 – 30	***27.4%***
31 – 35	***18.5%***
36 – 40	***11.3%***
40 – 45	***4.0%***
46 – 50	***7.5%***
51 – 55	***4.6%***
56 – 60	***5.9%***
over 61	***5.4%***
Education: Undergraduate	***95.7*** %
Graduate	***4.3*** %
FSEs' tenure	***142.6*** (mean, months)
FSEs' tenure 12 - 36 months (under 3yr)	***19.9%***
37 - 96 months (under 8yr)	***29.3%***
97 - 156 months (under 13yr)	***18.5%***
157 - 216 months (under 18yr)	***10.85***
217- 276 months (under 23yr)	***3.5%***
277 - 366 months (under 28yr)	***5.4%***
377 - 396 months (under 33yr)	***3.5%***
397 - 456 months (under 38yr)	***5.1%***
457 - 506 months (over 38yr)	***4.0%***
Supervisors' Characteristics	
Length of supervising focal FSE	***22.1*** (mean months)
SV tenure	***288.1*** (months)
SV age	***47.2*** (mean)
Male	***100 %***

4.9. Analytical Procedures

This section explains the analytical steps that will be employed to empirically analyse the obtained data. Such steps include descriptive analysis, validity and reliability check, addressing concerns regarding common method bias, correlation analysis, and hypothesis testing using SEM. Importantly, the data analysis was conducted by using SPSS (version 24.0) and AMOS (version 26.0).

4.9.1. Descriptive Analysis

Prior to the assessment of the conceptual model, descriptive analysis will be conducted. Descriptive analysis is critical in identifying potential problems with the data. Thus, frequency (relative occurrence), mean (average/central tendency) and standard deviation (dispersion) were examined in order to gain insight into how specific constructs used in the study should be treated in the subsequent steps of the data analysis (Malhotra, 2010).

In order to understand the nature of the distribution, the shape of distribution such as skewness (deviation of the distribution from the mean) and kurtosis (relative peakedness/flatness of the curve defined by the frequency distribution) will also be scrutinised. The assessments pertaining to skewness and kurtosis will be conducted by employing Hair et al.'s (2010) suggestion. Score of skewness is recommended to be inside the range of -1 to +1, and appropriate kurtosis is recommended to be inside the range of -3 and +3. The detailed results of the descriptive analysis will be discussed in the subsequent chapter, Chapter 5.

4.9.2. Validity

Firstly, prior to the main validity tests, the inter-to-total item correlation analysis will be conducted in order to assess whether the scales used in the study establish unidimensionality (Churchill and Incaobuccci, 2005; Hair et al., 2010). The item-to-total item correlation provides the extent to which each individual item of the scale is correlated to the relative scale itself (Pallant, 2013). In addition, assessment of the inter-to-total item correlation provides a

straightforward measure in determining the internal consistency of the scale as well as an idea of which item needs to be eliminated from the item pool prior to the main analysis (e.g. Nunnally and Berstein, 1994; Clark and Watson, 1995). In the present study, the inter-to-total item correlations were calculated and examined based on the threshold of .05, which is commonly used in the marketing domain (Cronbach and Shavelson, 2004; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007), and items that score below the threshold will be eliminated.

Secondly, validity of the scales will be examined. According to Malhotra (2010), validity is "the extent to which differences in observed scale scores reflect true differences among object on the characteristic being measured, rather than systematic or random error" (p.288). In the present study, two types of validity, content validity (face validity) and construct validity, will be examined. Content validity provides an idea of whether the scale items properly represent the entire domain of the relevant variable being measured (Malhotra, 2010). In order to secure the construct validity, the present study adopted well-established measurement scales from the relevant extant literature. In addition, the questionnaires were assessed by three experienced academic researchers to see if the items in the scales were measuring what they were supposed to measure and belonged to the relevant constructs. Further, these items were also checked by the manager of the participant company. Accordingly, modifications were made based on their advice. However, content validity is not considered to be a sufficient measure of scale validity. Rather, it is merely an interpretation of scale sores with common sense and confirmation on conceptual definition. Hence, construct validity will be also scrutinised in the present study.

Construct validity is an assessment of "what construct or characteristic the scale is measuring" (Malhotra, 2010, p.288). Construct validity is assessed empirically by looking at correlations between theoretically defined sets of variables, and convergent and discriminant validities are the most accepted forms of construct validity (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, the present study also assesses these two validities. Convergent validity examines the correlation between the two items that tap into the same concept (Hair, et al., 2010). A high share of correlation indicates that the items are measuring the same scale. This validity can be assessed by conducting confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Hair et al. (2010) recommended three different ways to assess

convergent validity during CFA, namely, factor loadings, composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). The threshold regarding the factor loading score is particularly recommended as .50 (or higher). In addition, the t-values of factor loadings should be at least 1.96. AVE score is suggested to be higher than .50, which denotes adequate convergence. The score regarding CR is suggested to be higher than .70 (Hair et al., 2010).

According to Malhotra and Birks (2007), discriminant validity is the extent to which the construct does not correlate with other constructs that are supposed to be different. Following Fornell and Larcker (1981), the present study employs the AVE-squared correlation comparison test and involves three steps. Firstly, Carlson and Wu (2012) recommended that the correlation between any pair of constructs needs to be lower than .60. If any of the pairs of correlations exceed this threshold, squared correlations of the constructs should be calculated. The squared correlations of the identified constructs need to be lower than the relevant AVEs. This analysis is essential in explaining if each latent variable has more of a variance within its items rather than with any other variables. Thus, convergent and discriminant validities will be scrutinised, and the results of these tests will be discussed in Chapter 6.

4.9.3. Reliability

Reliability refers to the degree of consistency between items that tap into the same variable, and the most prevalent way to assess reliability is to test the internal consistency of the scale by calculating the reliability coefficient or Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al., 2010). The reliability scores provide an idea of how observed constructs are free from random errors (Malhotra, 2010). It is important to emphasise that the reliability and validity are different. Reliability measures how scales should be measured as opposed to validity, which assesses what particular scale should be measured (Hair et al., 2010).

Thus, the present study also examines the reliability by measuring Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha is "the average of all possible split-half coefficients resulting from different ways of splitting the scale items" (Malhotra and Birks, 2007, p.358). Although the Cronbach's alpha can range from 0 to 1, Nunnally (1987) recommended a threshold of .70. Thus, the present

research calculates Cronbach's alpha and assesses the reliability based on .70. The detailed analysis and results will be discussed in Chapter 6.

4.9.4. Common Method Bias

Common method bias (CMB) refers to the systematic measurement error, which potentially influences reliabilities, validities and covariation between latent constructs (MacKenzie and Podsakoff, 2012), hence the results of analysis may have misleading conclusions (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The most common condition where CMB influences validities and reliabilities of the measurement scale is when the data are collected from a single source and/or collected at one time (Straub et al., 2004). Thus, the present study took a systematic approach to minimise such biases, such as collecting the measures in the first part of the conceptual model from FSEs and performance measures from a different source (i.e. supervisors), ordering the scale randomly in the questionnaires, avoiding unclear and open-ended questions, and explaining to the informants that there are no right and wrong answers, via the use of introductory videos and information sheets.

Although the present study collected the performance data from the FSEs' supervisors, the data are still susceptible to such method bias as the data collected to test the first part of the conceptual model (i.e. CO, SCSs, CLC and burnout) were collected from FSEs. Thus, the present study employs two statistical analyses to further minimise CMB, namely, Harman's single-factor test and Lindell and Whitney's (2001) common-method-variance-adjusted (CMV-adjusted) partial correlation test. Harman's single-factor test is a widely used approach to assess common method variance (CMV) (Malhotra et al., 2006), and is conducted as an exploratory factor analysis by loading all the items remaining from CFA to one. The present research follows procedures suggested by Podsakoff and Organ (1986), that common method variance is detected if: (1) a single factor emerges from unrotated factor solutions, or (2) a first factor explains the majority of the variance in the variables (p.536).

Lindell and Whitney's (2001) CMV-adjusted partial correlation test addresses the limitation related to Harman's single-factor test, which lacks the sensitivity to detect small to

moderate levels of CMV (Malhotra et al., 2006). In order to conduct this test, it is recommended to implement a marker variable. Thus, the present study incorporated a marker variable, attitude towards blue scale (Miller and Chiodo, 2008), which is theoretically irrelevant to the present study. Lindell and Whitney's (2001) technique requires comparisons of raw correlations including the marker variable and partial correlations that are controlled for maker variables (CMV-adjusted correlation). The data are affected by CMB if statistical significances of any pairs of correlations are changed. The results of Harman's singe-factor test and Lindell and Whitney's (2001) CMV-adjusted partial correlation test are presented in Chapter 6.

4.9.5. Correlation Analysis

Correlation, particularly Pearson correlation coefficient, is one of the most prevalent statistics that assess the strength and direction of the association of two different metric variables (Malhotra, 2010). Since the present study measures variables using scales, Pearson correlation coefficient is the most suitable way to understand the association between the variables. Correlation coefficient ranges from -1.0 to + 1.0, and minus and plus indicate the direction of the relationship between two variables. As such, - 1.0 denotes a perfect negative correlation and +1.0 denotes a perfect positive correlation. Importantly, a correlation of 0 indicates that there is no association between two variables. Correlations are often presented in a matrix in order to exhibit each and every pair of correlation coefficients. Thus, correlations are analysed on a correlation matrix and presented in the subsequent chapter.

4.9.6. Hypotheses Testing

According to Malhotra (2010), SEM is "a procedure for estimating a series of dependence relationships among a set of concepts or constructs represented by multiple measured variables and incorporated into an integrated model" (p.691). There are some advantages of using SEM rather than other multivariate analytical procedures. Firstly, SEM takes a confirmatory approach to the data analysis. This indicates that the results of SEM analysis are suitable for inferential purposes (Byrne, 2009). Secondly, SEM explicitly estimates measurement errors, which is the

lack of explanation in the observed construct. Finally, SEM enables all the hypothesised relationships to be tested as an entire system concurrently. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) strongly recommended a two-step approach to SEM in which the process includes assessment of the measurement model and structural model. The measurement model assesses the extent to which the observed variables are linked to underlying latent factors (Byrne, 2009). On the other hand, the structural model assesses the degree of influence between independent and dependent variables (Byrne, 2009). Thus, considering the conceptual model of the present study which incorporates an antecedent, multiple moderators, a mediator and outcome variables, SEM is the best-suited analytical technique to test the hypotheses.

Measurement model with CFA technique is used when the researcher has prior knowledge of the structure of underlying latent variables, and such a technique allows researchers to assess the validity and reliability of the variables under observation. Importantly, any regression structure among latent factors is not considered in the measurement model (Byrne, 2009). The primary interest of assessing the measurement model with the CFA technique is to assess the model evaluation, which gives insight into the extent to which the hypothesised model appropriately describes, or 'fits', the sample data (Byrne, 2009). Such a technique helps in identifying inadequate goodness-of-fit, or misfit in the model, based on various criteria. According to Kline (2016), goodness-of-fit indices are separated into two groups, namely, absolute fit indices and incremental fit indices. Absolute fit indices assess the extent to which the proposed model explains the data. Such indices include goodness-of-fit index (GFI), chi-square (χ^2) statistic, normed chi-square (χ^2/df), and, lastly, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), which indicates badness-of-fit (Malhotra, 2010). Incremental fit indices assess the fit of the proposed model over a baseline model called the null model, which assumes all the observed variables in the proposed model are not related to each other (Kline, 2016). Incremental fit indices denotes goodness-of-fit, and such indices include comparative fit index (CFI) and incremental fit index (IFI) (Malhotra, 2010). Accordingly, the present research uses χ^2, χ^2/df, and RMSEA as absolute fit indices, and CFI and IFI as incremental fit indices in order to evaluate the model fit.

The criteria for absolute fit indices are discussed as follows. The χ^2 provides statistical evaluation of model fit (Hooper et al., 2008). Hu and Bentler (1999) contended that "χ^2 goodness-of-fit statistic assess the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices" (p.2). Indication of good fit is when the χ^2 statistic shows an insignificant result (Hooper et al., 2008). However, χ^2 is highly sensitive to large sample size, hence significant χ^2 statistics can be produced with data with a large sample size (Kline, 2016). In order to reduce such sensitivity, normed chi-square (χ^2/df) is often employed (Kline, 2016), and rule of thumb for χ^2/df is less than 3 (Hair et al., 2010). RMSEA "compensates for the effect of model complexity" (Hu and Bentler, 1999, p.3) and it indicates how well the model fits the population's covariance matrix with unknown but optimally chosen parameter estimates (Hooper et al., 2008; Byrne, 1998). It is one of the most used indices to evaluate model fit, and a score of lower than .08 indicates a good fit (MacCallum et al., 1996). Thus, these criteria will be employed to evaluate absolute fit indices in the present study.

In terms of the incremental fit indices, the present research uses the following criteria for evaluation. CFI compares the amount of departure from close fit for the proposed model against the null model (Kline, 2016), and IFI also takes sample size into account and measures complete covariation in the data (Byrne, 2009). Both CFI and IFI range from 0 to 1, and a value larger than .90 is considered to be an indicator of good fit. Hence, the incremental fit indices are evaluated based on these criteria.

The structural model assesses the relationships among the observed variables, which specifically examines the degree to which specific latent variables directly or indirectly influence the endogenous variables in the model (Byrne, 2009). The structural model assumes that all variables incorporated in the model are theoretically relevant; thus, it enables the researcher to assess whether the hypothesised relationships exist (Byrne, 2009). Subsequently, the present research tests the proposed hypotheses by utilising SEM. In order to evaluate the direction and strength of the relation, the present research uses parameters of the unstandardised coefficient. The parameters are evaluated by calculating its t-values with 95% confidence interval with a threshold of $t = \pm 1.64$, and $p \leq 0.05$. In addition, the present study employs a one-tailed test for all

the hypothesised relationships. Sawyer and Peter (1986) argued that any theory should be able to hypothesise the direction of relationship, and marketing researchers are able to reduce the risk of potentially misinterpreting p-values in doing so. Moreover, they further argued that a directional hypothesis, which explicitly hypothesises the direction (positive or negative) of the relationship, can legitimately be tested by employing a one-tailed test. In fact, unless the hypothesis is formulated in the context of discovery, rather than justification, a one-tailed test is legitimate (Pillemer, 1991; Cho and Abe, 2013). Furthermore, the present study employs a two-tailed test for control variables as they are tested in the context of discovery rather than justification. The detailed analyses and findings of the measurement model and structural model will be presented in chapters 6 and 7.

4.10. Summary

This chapter provided the methodology that will be employed for the present study. As such, the chapter provided discussions pertaining to the underlying research philosophy, research design, study setting and sampling frame. In addition, the chapter presented how the present research operationalises each construct used in the conceptual model, and explained how the questionnaires are developed. The chapter also presented the details of data collection and characteristics of the sample. Finally, the chapter also discussed the analytical procedures that will be employed in order to test the proposed hypotheses. The following chapter will discuss the descriptive findings of the present research in detail.

CHAPTER 5 – Descriptive Analysis and Results

5.1. Introduction

This chapter provides the descriptive properties of the data collected for the present study. Specifically, frequency in percentages, means and standard deviations (SD) will be scrutinised and reported. The results of descriptive analyses will be discussed and exhibited section by section in tables in the following order: CO, SCSs, CLC, burnout, service performance and control variables. Importantly, all the scale items were measured by seven-point Likert scale, 1 being strongly disagree and 7 being strongly agree. In addition, the normality of the data will be assessed by examining skewness and kurtosis of every construct used in the present study.

5.2. Customer Orientation

CO was measured as a two-dimensional construct which includes the need and enjoyment dimensions. Specifically, a total of 11 items, representing five items (co1 to co5) for the need dimension and six items (co6 to co11) for the enjoyment dimension, is used. CO was evaluated by each FSE, hence the scale is self-reported. The items were presented with the specific instruction to evaluate their own attitudes and behaviours towards customers at work. The detailed results of the descriptive analysis for this construct are presented in Table 5.1.

In terms of the need dimension, frequency, mean and SD show that there is a tendency for FSEs to rate their scores towards the upper end of the scale in all five items. The means of each item are higher than the midpoint of 4, and range from 5.20 (co2) to 5.77 (co1). Similarly, the mean enjoyment dimension ranged from 4.55 (co7) to 5.67 (co10). Importantly, all the means for each item scored higher than the midpoint of 4. Therefore, the evaluation of the scores for each dimension shows that the FSE sample in this study is highly customer-oriented.

Table 5.1. Descriptive Analysis of Customer Orientation

	Response Scale (%)								
	Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree		
Items/scale points	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	MEAN	SD
Need									
co1	0.0	0.0	0.5	2.4	33.1	47.0	16.9	5.77	0.77
co2	0.3	0.3	4.0	17.5	38.2	32.0	7.8	5.20	1.00
co3	0.0	0.0	2.2	8.3	35.8	41.7	12.1	5.53	0.89
co4	0.0	0.0	3.8	11.0	37.1	37.6	10.5	5.40	0.95
co5	0.0	1.9	5.6	12.9	34.7	34.4	10.5	5.26	1.11
Enjoyment									
co6	0.3	0.3	5.4	9.9	25.8	38.7	19.6	5.55	1.12
co7	2.2	3.0	15.1	28.2	28.0	16.1	7.5	4.55	1.33
co8	0.0	1.3	2.4	9.4	34.7	40.1	12.1	5.46	0.99
co9	0.3	0.8	1.3	6.2	30.4	39.0	22.0	5.71	1.00
co10	0.0	0.5	2.2	7.0	32.3	36.3	21.8	5.67	1.00
co11	1.6	4.0	7.5	24.2	34.7	21.8	6.2	4.76	1.26

5.3. Sales Control Systems

The present research employed activity control and outcome control in order to capture the demand aspects of SCSs, and each construct was measured by a 5-item scale. FSEs were instructed to evaluate the degree of each control their direct supervisors initiate in day-to-day operations. Table 5.2 exhibits the results of the descriptive analysis pertaining to SCSs.

Inspections into means, frequencies and SDs of activity control revealed that FSEs' responses had a tendency to fall into the upper end of the scale points. As such, the mean scores of the five items pertaining to activity control ranged from 4.95 (act3) to 5.42 (act5). In particular, these scores are higher than the midpoint of 4. In terms of outcome control, the analysis also provided evidence that FSEs have a tendency to answer towards the upper end of scale. Specifically, the mean scores of the five items ranged from 4.90 (out3) to 5.40 (out2 and out5). These results show that the FSE sample perceives relatively high activity and outcome controls. This indicates that the FSEs are working under rather high-demand sales conditions.

5.4. Customer Learning Climate

CLC was operationalised by using a four-item scale. In the questionnaire, FSEs were asked to provide their perception of the respective climate, particularly in the sales department. The results of the descriptive analysis for CLC are shown in Table 5.3.

The frequency, mean and SD scores pertaining to the four items of CLC revealed that there is a tendency for the FSEs' responses to cluster towards the upper end of the scale. Specifically, the mean scores of the four items ranged from 5.15 (clc2) to 5.21 (clc3). Importantly, all the means are higher than 5, which is higher than the midpoint of 4. This indicates that CLC is relatively high in the sales department of this company.

Table 5.2. Descriptive Analysis of Sales Control Systems

	Response Scale (%)								
	Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree		
Items/scale points	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	MEAN	SD
Activity Control									
act1	2.2	2.2	6.2	14.5	32.5	31.2	11.3	5.12	1.30
act2	0.8	1.9	7.5	15.3	34.4	31.5	8.6	5.09	1.19
act3	1.9	2.7	8.6	16.7	33.3	29.6	7.3	4.95	1.28
act4	2.4	4.3	7.5	12.6	30.6	28.5	14.0	5.06	1.43
act5	0.5	3.0	4.6	11.0	25.5	37.1	18.3	5.42	1.25
Outcome Control									
out1	0.5	1.3	7.3	11.3	31.7	37.1	10.8	5.27	1.16
out2	0.3	1.3	3.8	9.1	34.1	40.9	10.5	5.40	1.04
out3	1.6	1.9	10.2	19.1	32.8	26.9	7.5	4.90	1.26
out4	0.5	1.3	5.6	14.0	36.6	31.7	10.2	5.21	1.12
out5	0.5	1.6	5.4	9.1	31.2	37.1	15.1	5.40	1.16

Table 5.3. Descriptive Analysis of Customer Learning Climate

	Response Scale (%)								
	Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree		
Items/scale points	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	MEAN	SD
clc1	0.3	1.6	6.5	9.7	45.7	27.4	8.9	5.17	1.07
clc2	0.8	1.9	5.6	12.9	39.8	29.8	9.1	5.15	1.14
clc3	0.3	1.6	6.5	8.9	42.2	32.5	8.1	5.21	1.07
clc4	0.5	1.3	5.6	10.5	42.7	31.2	8.1	5.19	1.07

5.5. Burnout

The present research conceptualised burnout as a higher-order construct which is represented by three sub-dimensions, namely, emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment. Precisely, emotional exhaustion was measured by four items, whilst depersonalisation and personal accomplishment were measured by three items each. Subsequently, a total of 10 items are analysed in this section. It is important to note that the three items that tap into reduced personal accomplishment are reverse code items, hence these three items were reverse coded before the analysis.

In the questionnaire, the FSEs were asked to evaluate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the questions pertaining to burnout. Particularly, they were asked to evaluate their feelings and attitudes towards work. Table 5.4 exhibits the results of the descriptive analysis of burnout.

Emotional exhaustion was measured by a four-item scale, and careful examination of the frequency, mean and SD scores revealed that there was variation in the FSE's self-evaluation of emotional exhaustion. As such, the mean scores of emotional exhaustion ranged from 3.23 (EE3) to 4.40 (EE1), which spans the midpoint of 4. Predominantly, FSEs' responses fell into the lower-to-mid side of the scale. Consequently, it can be inferred that the FSE sample in the present study was experiencing a lower to moderate level of emotional exhaustion.

Depersonalisation was operationalised by employing three items, and analysis of frequency, mean and SD of each item shows that there was a tendency for FSEs to rate low in depersonalisation. Importantly, the means of the respective items varied and fell between 1.96 (DP1) and 3.08 (DP3). However, all the mean scores were lower than the midpoint of 4. Consequently, these results indicate that the FSE sample of this study was experiencing a lower level of depersonalisation.

The results of the descriptive analysis concerning reduced personal accomplishment show that scores for personal accomplishment leaned towards the lower end of the scale. Particularly, the means of the respective items ranged from 3.06 (RPA1) to 3.55 (RPA3). Essentially, all the

means of personal accomplishment scored below the scale midpoint of 4. As these scores are reversed from the original answers in order to measure 'reduced' personal accomplishment, these results indicate that the FSEs in the present study were experiencing a moderately high level of personal accomplishment or a moderately low level of reduced personal accomplishment.

In summary, descriptive analysis of the three sub-dimensions of burnout indicated that the FSE sample was experiencing a low-to-mid level of emotional exhaustion, lower level of depersonalisation and moderately low level of diminished personal accomplishment. In other words, the level of burnout experienced by the FSEs in the sample was moderately low.

Table 5.4. Descriptive Analysis of Burnout

	Response Scale (%)								
	Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree		
Items/scale points	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	MEAN	SD
Emotional Exhaustion									
EE1	5.6	5.6	16.9	19.1	27.2	18.3	7.3	4.40	1.55
EE2	6.2	15.6	25.0	18.3	23.1	7.8	4.0	3.76	1.51
EE3	11.8	15.3	34.4	19.9	14.0	3.8	0.8	3.23	1.34
EE4	4.0	16.1	19.9	19.6	30.4	7.3	2.7	3.89	1.43
Depersonalisation									
DP1	39.8	34.1	19.9	3.2	2.7	0.0	0.3	1.96	1.02
DP2	35.8	32.5	20.4	6.2	4.6	0.3	0.3	2.13	1.15
DP3	9.7	24.5	32.8	19.6	9.7	2.7	1.1	3.08	1.28
Reduced Personal Accomplishment									
RPA1	8.3	24.7	39.5	13.2	9.7	3.5	1.1	3.06	1.26
RPA2	5.6	14.2	37.9	25.8	12.6	3.2	0.5	3.37	1.17
RPA3	2.7	8.3	39.0	34.9	11.3	3.5	0.3	3.55	1.02

5.6. Service Performance

FSE service performance was measured by a six-item scale. Importantly, service performances were evaluated by each FSE's direct supervisor. The supervisors were asked to evaluate the service performance of each employee under their supervision. Table 5.5 shows the detailed results of the descriptive analysis.

The results of the descriptive analysis showed that FSEs' service performance tended to fall at the upper end of the seven-point Likert-scale. Explicitly, the mean values of the six items ranged from the lowest, 4.26 (sperf6), to the highest, 5.24 (sperf2). In other words, all the mean values of the six items scored higher than the scale midpoint of 4. Thus, supervisor-rated service performance of FSE is moderately high in the sample set.

Table 5.5. Descriptive Analysis of Service Performance

	Response Scale (%)								
	Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree		
Items/scale points	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	MEAN	SD
sperf1	0.0	2.7	11.3	6.7	32.5	40.6	6.2	5.16	1.18
sperf2	0.0	2.2	9.4	8.1	32.3	39.2	8.9	5.24	1.16
sperf3	0.3	1.6	9.1	12.6	29.3	38.2	8.9	5.19	1.18
sperf4	0.8	7.3	14.5	20.7	34.7	18.3	3.8	4.51	1.29
sperf5	1.1	4.6	12.9	20.2	30.4	25.5	5.4	4.72	1.30
sperf6	3.8	8.6	18.0	20.4	30.4	14.5	4.3	4.26	1.44

5.7. Control and Marker Variables

The present study employed three control variables and a marker variable that are measured by scale: self-efficacy, power distance, risk aversion and the attitude to blue scale. Self-efficacy was measured with three items, and power distance, risk aversion and the marker variable were measured by utilising a four-item scale. The data pertaining to control and marker variables were collected from the FSEs and they were asked to evaluate their confidence and ability towards the job, personality, and attitude towards blue by using a seven-point Likert-scale. The results of the detailed analyses are shown in Table 5.6.

The results of the descriptive analysis concerning self-efficacy provided a picture that SFEs' self-evaluation about their efficacy towards their job leaned towards the upper end of the scale. As such, the mean values for the items ranged from 4.82 (effi2) to 5.17 (effi1). This indicates that all the mean scores for the three items were higher than the scale midpoint of 4. Thus, it is plausible to conclude that the FSE sample in the present study has moderately high self-efficacy.

Power distance and risk aversion were measured as part of personal cultural orientation. The results of the descriptive analyses for the items representing these two constructs presented considerable variation. For example, mean scores of items tapping into power distance ranged from the lowest, 3.84 (pdi3), to highest, 5.09 (pdi2), which span the scale midpoint of 4. The mean values of the items tapping into risk aversion had a variation that included the scale midpoint of 4. As such, the mean values of the risk-aversion items ranged from the lowest of 2.94 (risk1) to 4.34 (risk2). These results show the existence of different magnitudes in personal cultural orientation among the FSE sample. Consequently, FSEs' power distance was at mid- to moderately high levels and their risk-aversion orientation was at moderately low to mid-levels.

Finally, the results of the descriptive analysis pertaining to the marker variable revealed that the FSEs' response on attitudes towards blue also had a considerable variance. The analysis of frequency shows similar percentages for the items named mrkr1, mrkr2 and mrkr3. The mean values ranged from 2.05 (mrkr4) to 4.59 (mrkr2), which also includes the scale midpoint of 4

between the lowest and highest mean values. However, it is important to note that the extant literature suggests using three items to measure the attitudes towards blue, because the item named mrkr4 usually does not have sufficient inter-to-total item correlation (Simmering et al., 2015). The frequency analysis also shows that mrkr4 does not have variance that is similar to the other three items. In fact, more than half of FSEs scored 1 (strongly disagree) for mrkr4. Therefore, mrkr4 will be subject to elimination after the item-to-total correlation analysis, which will be discussed in the following chapter.

Table 5.6. Descriptive Analysis of Control and Marker Variables

	Response Scale (%)								
	Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Somewhat agree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree		
Items/scale points	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	MEAN	SD
Self-efficacy									
effi1	1.3	2.2	8.9	11.8	25.8	41.9	8.1	5.17	1.26
effi2	2.2	4.6	11.3	15.1	29.0	33.9	4.0	4.82	1.35
effi3	1.9	3.5	9.9	11.8	40.3	29.8	2.7	4.85	1.23
Power Distance									
pdi1	1.3	1.6	9.7	17.7	34.9	28.5	6.2	4.95	1.21
pdi2	1.6	1.1	11.8	12.4	32.8	26.3	14.0	5.09	1.33
pdi3	3.8	12.1	30.9	19.6	19.6	11.3	2.7	3.84	1.41
pdi4	3.0	6.2	18.5	18.5	29.8	16.9	7.0	4.45	1.45
Risk Aversion									
risk1	17.3	19.6	32.8	12.9	15.1	1.3	0.5	2.94	1.36
risk2	10.5	12.1	30.9	25.3	14.0	5.1	2.2	3.44	1.40
risk3	2.4	9.1	17.2	24.7	22.6	17.2	6.7	4.34	1.47
risk4	2.7	9.1	21.2	16.4	27.4	19.9	3.2	4.29	1.45
Marker Variable									
mrkr1	12.1	8.3	21.0	15.1	21.2	13.2	9.1	4.01	1.79
mrkr2	6.7	5.1	11.6	18.3	27.7	18.5	12.1	4.59	1.64
mrkr3	9.4	9.1	19.4	20.2	22.6	12.1	7.3	4.03	1.67
mrkr4	51.3	16.4	15.1	12.6	3.0	1.1	0.5	2.05	1.32

5.8. Normality of the Data

The normality of all the constructs used in the present study was assessed by using skewness and kurtosis. According to Hair et al. (2010), the value of skewness must fall between -1 and +1 and the value of kurtosis must fall between -3 and +3. Therefore, the present study also used these criteria to evaluate the normality of the data.

Table 5.7 shows the skewness and kurtosis of the data used in the present study. The analysis shows that the values of skewness for each and every construct ranged between -1 and +1, and values for kurtosis were also within the recommended range. Therefore, it is concluded that the data collected for the present study are normally distributed, and ready to proceed with further analysis.

Table 5.7. Normality of the Data

	Skewness	kurtosis
Customer Orientation	-0.530	0.671
Customer Learning Climate	-0.622	0.872
Activity Control	-0.789	1.046
Outcome Control	-0.549	0.659
Burnout	0.035	0.039
Service Performance	-0.487	-0.235
Self-efficacy	-0.972	0.624
Power Distance	-0.349	0.153
Risk Aversion	-0.097	-0.186
Marker Variable	-0.245	-0.366
Age	0.938	0.252

5.9. Summary

The present chapter provided detailed results of the descriptive analysis of the study constructs. As such, the researcher assessed frequency, means and SD of each and every item used in the present study. Predominantly, the analyses did not find any issues regarding frequency, means and SD. In addition, normality of the data was examined by using skewness and kurtosis values, and established the evidence that the data collected for the present study are normally distributed. Subsequently, the researcher proceeded to the validation of measures in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 6 – Measure Validation

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the results of various statistical examinations conducted to test the validities of the scale constructs used in the study with the collected data set. Firstly, the inter-to-total item correlations were examined to ensure the unidimensionality of the scale. Subsequently, a measurement model with CFA technique was conducted to check the psychometric properties of the scales used in the study. The chapter also presents the results of analysis pertaining to construct validity, which was examined by looking into factor loadings, AVE and CR scores, and discriminant validity, which was assessed by squared correlations and AVE scores. In addition, measurement reliabilities are presented followed by the examination and results of analysis conducted to address CMB.

6.2. Item-to-total Correlations

A total of nine constructs were subjected to the item-to-total correlation analysis. The analysis revealed that four items that tap into four different constructs, co6 (CO), DP3 (Burnout: depersonalisation), pdi4 (power distance) and mrkr4 (marker variable), were below the cut-off point of .05 suggested by Hair et al. (2010). The deletion of all these four items from each construct either improved or did not affect the Cronbach's alpha of each construct (see Table 6.1.). Therefore, co6, DP3, dpi4 and mrkr4 were deleted from the analysis at this stage, and the researcher proceeded to CFA.

Table 6.1. Problematic Item-to-total Correlation and Reliability Scores

Construct	Item	Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha before deletion	Cronbach's Alpha after deletion
Customer Orientation	co6	.44	.88	.88
Depersonalisation	DP3	.35	.65.	.73
Power Distance	pdi4	.38	.74	.78
Marker Variable	mrkr4	.26	.78	.87

6.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The analysis of the measurement model with CFA technique was conducted to examine the psychometric properties of the following nine measures: CO, activity control, outcome control, CLC, burnout, service performance, self-efficacy, power distance and risk aversion. Consistent with the extant literature, burnout and CO were conceptualised as higher-order constructs comprising three dimensions (emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment) and two dimensions (need and enjoyment) respectively.

The estimation of the measurement model in CFA was conducted with AMOS 24.0 with the maximum likelihood estimation. In order to improve the model fit with the observed data, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) recommended the elimination of items that have low loading to the respective construct and/or large correlated errors. The analysis revealed that the following three items were problematic due to large correlated errors: act5 (activity control), sperf2 (service performance) and co7 (CO), and produced poor fit to the data. The elimination of these three items improved the model fit to the data and the revised measurement model is provided in Table 6.2. Predictably, chi-square statistic was significant ($\chi^2_{(934)} = 1610.503$, $p < .001$) as this test is highly sensitive to a large sample size (Baggozi and Yi, 2012). However, other goodness-of-fit statistics indicated good fit to the observed data ($\chi^2/df = 1.745$; CFI =.927; IFI = .928; TLI = .919; RMSEA =.045).

This research conceptualised CO and burnout as the second-order constructs. In line with Jarvis et al. (2003), these two constructs are categorised as Type I second-order constructs where reflected first-order dimensions load onto a reflective second-order construct. The second-order CFA of CO resulted in a good fit ($\chi^2/df = 2.849$; CFI =.969; IFI = .969; TLI = .955; RMSEA =.071) than 1-factor solution ($\chi^2/df = 6.996$; CFI =.896; IFI = .896; TLI = .856; RMSEA =.127). The chi-square comparison test also provides evidence that second-order model is better ($\Delta\chi2 = 110.67$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). The second-order CFA of burnout also resulted in a good fit ($\chi^2/df = 2.451$; CFI = .968; IFI = .968; TLI = .947; RMSEA =.061) than first-factor solution ($\chi^2/df = 12.135$; CFI =.720; IFI = .723; TLI = .597; RMSEA =.173). The chi-square comparison test also provided that second-order model is better ($\Delta\chi2 = 243.37$, $df = 3$, $p < .001$). These findings provide

the justification that CO and burnout are Type I second-order constructs. Due to significant correlations between the first-order dimensions at $p < .001$ level (CO: $r_{CO(need)\text{-}CO(enjoyment)} = .628$, burnout: $r_{EE\text{-}DP} = .320$; $r_{EE\text{-}RPA} = .352$; $r_{DP\text{-}RPA} = .415$), the first-order dimensions are averaged and multiplied to create the higher-order construct for the next steps of data analysis.

In order to assess convergent validity, the extent to which the measures used in this study are distinct from one another, AVE and CR of each construct were calculated by following the recommendation of Fornell and Larcker (1981). As mentioned in the previous section, a total of four items were dropped at the CFA procedures, hence the AVE and CR were calculated with the remaining items that tap into each construct and construct dimension. Table 6.2 shows the factor loadings and t-values of each factor loading and Table 6.3 shows the AVE and CR score of each construct.

AVE scores for most of the constructs (eight out of nine constructs) exceeded the threshold of .50, ranging from .51 to .80. However, the AVE score of risk aversion was .41. Fornell and Larcker (1981) argued that, even when the AVE score does not yield .50, the researcher could conclude that the convergent validity is reliable if the CR score is over .70 which is considered as the adequate level (p.45). Risk aversion, indeed exceed the CR score of .70. In addition, all of the t-values of the factor loadings were significant in measurement ($t > 2.0$). Therefore, the researcher found the presence of convergent validity in the measures that are used in this study.

Table 6.2.Measurement Model Results

Factors	Item	Stand. Loadings	t-values
Self-efficacy	effi1*	0.855	
	effi2	0.936	24.51
	effi3	0.886	22.66
Activity control	act1*	0.771	
	act2	0.753	14.94
	act3	0.879	17.75
	act4	0.797	15.94
Outcome control	out1*	0.772	
	out2	0.763	15.07
	out3	0.840	16.80
	out4	0.702	13.71
	out5	0.646	12.48
Customer orientation (need)	co1*	0.659	
	co2	0.704	11.74
	co3	0.822	13.27
	co4	0.813	13.16
	co5	0.610	10.39
Customer orientation (enjoyment)	co8*	0.709	
	co9	0.819	14.20
	co10	0.741	13.03
	co11	0.675	11.92
Burnout (emotional exhaustion)	EE1*	0.727	
	EE2	0.787	13.06
	EE3	0.632	10.88
	EE4	0.709	12.08
Burnout (depersonalisation)	DP1*	0.741	
	DP2	0.784	9.98
Burnout (diminished personal accomplishment)	RPA1*	0.723	
	RPA2	0.576	10.04
	RPA3	0.664	11.51
Risk aversion	risk1*	0.508	
	risk2	0.562	7.30
	risk4	0.755	8.27
	risk3	0.694	8.09
Power distance	pdi1*	0.770	
	pdi2	0.752	11.96
	pdi3	0.686	11.37
Customer learning climate	clc1*	0.723	
	clc2	0.810	15.23
	clc3	0.921	17.08
	clc4	0.849	15.96
Service performance	sperf1*	0.803	
	sperf3	0.741	15.92
	sperf4	0.925	21.79
	sperf5	0.892	20.65
	sperf6	0.914	21.41
$\chi^2 = 1610.503_{(923)}$, p = .000, CFI = .927, IFI = .928, RMSEA = .045			

* Item fixed to set the scale

6.4. Discriminant Validity and Measure Reliability

Discriminant validity was examined by looking at correlation between constructs (latent variables) following Carlson and Wu's (2012) recommendation. Table 6.3 shows the correlation matrix of the constructs that are used in the study with scores for AVE, CR and squared correlations.

The correlation between activity control and outcome control exceeded the cut-off point of .60. Although this high correlation between SCSs is often found in the previous literature (e.g. Miao and Evans, 2013; Wang and Miao, 2015; Katsikeas et al., 2018), the researcher examined the squared correlation of these two constructs. The results showed that the AVE scores of activity control and outcome control are higher than the squared correlation between activity control and outcome control. Notably, correlation between other constructs did not exceed the cut-off point, and squared correlations between other possible pairs of constructs were lower than AVEs of the pairs. Taken together, the researcher found the presence of discriminant validity in the measures that are used in this study.

In order to see if the constructs used in this study have internal consistency, the researcher examined the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the nine items with the remaining item from CFA and the marker variable. Cronbach's alpha coefficient can be seen at the bottom of the correlation matrix exhibited in Table 6.3. The alpha coefficient for each individual construct exceeded the threshold of .70. Therefore, the constructs used in this study are statistically reliable.

Table 6.3. Correlation Matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Customer orientation	1	0.03	0.12	0.19	0.14	0.09	0.23	0.05	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00
2. Activity control	.165**	1	0.47	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.08	0.00	0.03	0.00
3. Outcome control	.343**	.685**	1	0.10	0.05	0.02	0.04	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.01	0.00
4. Customer learning climate	.430**	.209**	.322**	1	0.07	0.05	0.04	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
5. Burnout	-.437**	-0.055	-.235**	-.274**	1	0.17	0.29	0.16	0.06	0.03	0.08	0.00
6. Service performance	.310**	-0.017	.130*	.215**	-.416**	1		0.06	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00
7. Self-efficacy	.475**	0.015	.207**	.211**	-.551**	.329**	1	0.05	0.01	0.05	0.09	0.01
8. Risk aversion	-.221**	-0.023	-0.060	-.142**	.399**	-.254**	-.233**	1	0.05	0.01	0.00	0.01
9. Power distance	0.079	.291**	.238**	0.015	.229**	-.157**	-0.098	.213**	1	0.00	0.05	0.00
10. Gender	0.026	-0.044	-0.046	-0.016	.143**	0.017	-.224**	.110*	-0.057	1	0.11	0.01
11. Age	-0.007	-.163**	-0.089	-0.058	-.265**	0.039	.300**	-0.021	-.230**	-.336**	1	0.01
12. Marker	0.024	-0.026	0.048	0.029	0.060	0.021	0.091	0.073	-0.024	-0.085	-0.025	1
MEAN	5.42	5.06	5.24	5.18	3.06	4.77	4.95	3.75	4.62	-	36.30	4.21
SD	0.72	1.11	0.92	0.95	0.76	1.14	1.19	1.05	1.10	-	11.60	2.282
CR	0.89	0.88	0.86	0.90	0.75	0.93	0.92	0.73	0.78	-	-	-
AVE	0.54	0.64	0.56	0.69	0.51	0.74	0.80	0.41	0.54	-	-	-
Cronbach's Alpha	0.84	0.88	0.86	0.90	0.75	0.93	0.92	0.73	0.78	-	-	.87

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

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

Upper diagonal = squared correlation

6.5. Common Method Bias

In order to minimise the potential effect of common method bias (CMB) and reverse causality, dyadic responses of FSEs and their immediate supervisors were collected. In addition, there was one month of time lag between the frontline employees' questionnaire and the performance review questionnaire which was collected from the supervisors. However, in order to eliminate any further concerns regarding CMB, two different statistical analyses, Harman's single factor test and Lindell and Whitney's (2001) marker variable technique, were conducted to address such concerns.

Firstly, Harman's single factor test was conducted by using the dimension reduction function on SPSS. All the remaining items from CFA which tap into each construct and construct dimension were selected, and dimension extraction was constrained to 1. The results revealed that 23.7% of variance is explained by a single factor, which is below the threshold of 50%.

Secondly, Lindell and Whitney's (2001) correlation comparison test with marker variable technique was employed to eliminate further concern for CMB. The attitude towards the blue scale (Millar and Chiodo, 2008) was employed as a marker variable. Table 6.4 shows the raw correlations and CMV-adjusted correlations. Firstly, raw correlations of eight variables, including all FSE-rated scales and the marker variables, were estimated. The examination of the raw correlations analysis show that six out of seven theoretically relevant variables have significant correlations with the criterion variable of burnout. Further, the marker variable did not show any statistically significant correlations with the other variables including burnout, which supports the discriminant validity of the marker variable (Lindell and Whitney, 2001). The raw correlations shows that $r_{\text{CO-Marker}} = .024$ is the second-smallest positive correlation. The partial correlations and their significance were estimated by using following equations suggested by Lindell and Whitney (2001, p. 116):

$$\text{Partial correlation } (r_{\text{yi·M}}) = \frac{r_{ys} - r_s}{1 - r_s}$$

Where r_{ys} indicates the correlation coefficient between the manifest variables, and r_s indicates the second smallest correlation coefficient.

$$\text{Significance (t)} = \frac{r_{yi \cdot M}}{\sqrt{(1-r^2{}_{yi \cdot M})/(N-3)}}$$

Where $r_{yi \cdot M}$ indicates the partial correlation of the manifest variables, $r^2{}_{yi \cdot M}$ indicates the squared-partial correlation, and N is number of the sample.

The comparisons of the raw and CMV-adjusted correlations reviled that out of 20 original significant correlations, none of the significance value changed after the CMV adjustment, and three pairs of originally insignificant correlations became significant. Overall, the results of the two different tests provided that there is no concern regarding CMB, and there is little chance that this study is affected by CMB. However, in order to partial out its unique variance, the marker variable was added to the structural model as a control variable (e.g. Ye et al., 2007; Auh et al., 2015).

Table 6.4.CMV-Adjusted Construct Inter-correlation

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Customer orientation		0.117**	0.295**	0.382**	0.427**	-0.269**	0.031	-0.024	-0.485**
2. Activity control	.165**		0.637**	0.161**	-0.033	-0.071	0.243**	-0.074	-0.103*
3. Outcome control	.343**	.685**		0.274**	0.159**	-0.108*	0.190**	0.000	-0.283**
4. Customer learning climate	.430**	.209**	.322**		0.163**	-0.190**	-0.033	-0.019	-0.322**
5. Self-efficacy	.475**	.015	.207**	.211**		-0.281**	-0.146**	0.043	-0.599**
6. Risk aversion	-.221**	-.023	-.060	-.142**	-.233**		0.165**	0.025	0.351**
7. Power distance	.079	.291**	.238**	.015	-.098	.213**		-0.072	0.181**
8. Marker	.024	-.026	.048	.029	.091	.073	-.024		0.012
9. Burnout	-.437**	-.055	-.235**	-.274**	-.551**	.399**	.229**	.060	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
Highlighted correlations = the significance of the correlations changed after adjusting for CMV
CMV-adjusted correlations upper diagonal; original correlations lower diagonal

6.6. Summary

This chapter presented the results of each procedure that was undertaken to examine the validity of the measures used in the study. Particularly, CFA provided evidence that the measures used in this study are valid and reliable. Moreover, CMB was examined by using two different techniques, namely Harman's single factor test and Lindell and Whitney's (2001) marker variable technique. Predominantly, both methods confirmed that the data used in this study are unlikely to be affected by common method bias. These results confirmed that the data are ready to be used for hypotheses testing, thus the next chapter provides the results of hypotheses testing.

CHAPTER 7 – Results of Hypotheses Tests

7.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the analysis of the five hypotheses formed in chapter three. All five hypotheses, including two direct and three interaction effects, were tested by using SEM with AMOS 26.0. The first section of this chapter explains the results of the analysis of variance to provide evidence that SEM is the better-suited analytical method to test the hypotheses. The second section explains the process that was undertaken to calculate the measurement errors for each construct and interaction terms, and presents an overall estimation of the structural model. The third section presents the results of hypotheses testing in the following order: 1) direct relationships (H1 and H2); 2) moderating effects of SCSs (H3, H4); and 3) the moderating effect of CLC (H5).

7.2. Analysis of Variance

As the FSE sample is nested in 55 sales units, the present study conducted analysis of variance to explore the heterogeneity of the mean scores at sales unit level to see if multi-level modelling is a better analytical method to test the proposed hypotheses. Table. 7.1 shows the results of the analysis of variance. The results revealed insignificant variance across sales units in CO ($F_{(54, 317)} = .864$, p =. 739), CLC ($F_{(54, 317)} =.695$, p = .947) and burnout ($F_{(54, 317)} = 1.120$, p =.274). Therefore, it is concluded that FSE responses are not heterogeneous across sales units; rather, the variation of mean score is heterogeneous across FSE levels. Hence, SEM is a better-suited analytical method for the hypotheses testing.

One explanation for this homogeneous mean score across unit levels is that Japanese people are known to be highly collectivistic; thus, employees place great importance on group harmony, and standing out in a crowd is neglected (Hofstede, 1981). Subsequently, these cultural values may have affected the variance in the mean values.

Table 7.1. Results of the Analysis of Variance

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
CO	Between Groups	24.397	54	.452	.864	.739
	Within Groups	165.766	317	.523		
	Total	190.163	371			
ACT	Between Groups	124.523	54	2.306	2.202	.000
	Within Groups	331.973	317	1.047		
	Total	456.495	371			
OUT	Between Groups	77.116	54	1.428	1.895	.000
	Within Groups	238.841	317	.753		
	Total	315.957	371			
CLC	Between Groups	35.238	54	.653	.695	.947
	Within Groups	297.570	317	.939		
	Total	332.808	371			
BURN	Between Groups	37.907	54	.702	1.120	.274
	Within Groups	198.612	317	.627		
	Total	236.519	371			
SPERF	Between Groups	96.645	54	1.790	1.483	.021
	Within Groups	382.488	317	1.207		
	Total	479.133	371			

CO= customer orientation, ACT= activity control, OUT= outcome control, CLC= customer learning climate, BURN= burnout, SPERF= supervisor-rated service performance.

7.3. Structural Model Testing

SEM with path analysis was employed to test the hypothesised relationships. There are numerous advantages in using this type of analysis, such that SEM takes a confirmatory approach to analysis which makes hypothesis testing easier than other multivariate procedures. In addition, the path analysis provides a solution to an unmet sample size-to-parameter ratio of 5:1 (Bentler, 1995). Moreover, while other multivariate procedures do not assess or cannot correct measurement errors, SEM provides estimation of error variances (Byrne, 2009). Following the procedures of Baggozi and Heatherton (1994), a single indicator for every latent variable was created by aggregating each scale item that is tapping into each construct. Further, variables that are conceptualised as antecedents and moderators in this study were mean-centred to enable interpretation of interactions and reduce multicollinearity. In order to calculate the measurement errors of each interaction term, the alpha coefficient (reliability) of each interaction term was calculated by employing Bohrnstedt and Marwell's (1978) formula:

$$r_{xy \cdot xy} = [(r_{xx} \times r_{yy}) + r^2_{xy}] / (1 + r^2_{xy})$$

Where:

$r_{xy \cdot xy}$ = alpha coefficient of the interaction term

r_{xx} and r_{yy} = alpha coefficients of the component of interaction terms

r^2_{xy} = squared correlation of interaction components

The measurement errors were then calculated by employing the formula of *(1 – reliability)* × *variance* with the interaction reliabilities.

The estimation of the structural model produced good fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 9.923_{(7)}$, p = 0.193, CFI =.998, TLI =.968, RMSEA =.034). The results of SEM, such as unstandardised loadings, t-values and p-values with significant levels, are shown in Table 7.2, and the table describes the results of all direct moderating effects as well as the effects of control variables. Following Bakan's (1966) suggestion, the present study utilised a one-tailed test with the criteria of 95% confidence interval ($t \geq 1.64$ and $p \geq 0.05$) to determine whether to accept or reject the hypotheses.

Table 7.2. Structural Model Results

From	To	Coefficient	t-value
Hypothesised direct path			
Customer orientation	Burnout	-0.246	-3.141**
Burnout	Service performance	-0.716	-4.627**
Direct effects of moderators			
Customer learning climate	Burnout	-0.042	-0.940
Outcome control	Burnout	-0.115	-1.241
Activity control	Burnout	0.016	0.226
Interaction effects			
Customer orientation x Activity Control	Burnout	-0.376	-2.182*
Customer orientation x Outcome control	Burnout	0.432	-1.1684*
Customer orientation x Customer learning climate	Burnout	-0.192	1.764*
Control Variables			
Self- efficacy	Burnout	-0.208	-5.205**
Gender	Burnout	0.070	0.721
Age	Burnout	-0.006	-1.716^{+}
Marker	Burnout	0.065	2.530*
Risk aversion	Burnout	0.244	4.596**
Power distance	Burnout	0.118	2.479*
Self-efficacy	Service performance	0.094	1.291
Age	Service performance	-0.01	-1.813^{+}
Gender	Service performance	0.241	1.549
Marker	Service performance	0.044	1.035
Power distance	Service performance	-0.056	-0.782
Risk aversion	Service performance	-0.056	-0.589
χ^2= 9.923$_{(7)}$, p = .193, CFI =.998, TLI =.968, RMSEA =.034			

*= p < .05, ** = p < .01.
Note: Unstandardised coefficients are reported.
One-tailed test was employed for all hypothesised variables.
Two-tailed test was employed for control variables.

7.3.1. Direct Effects

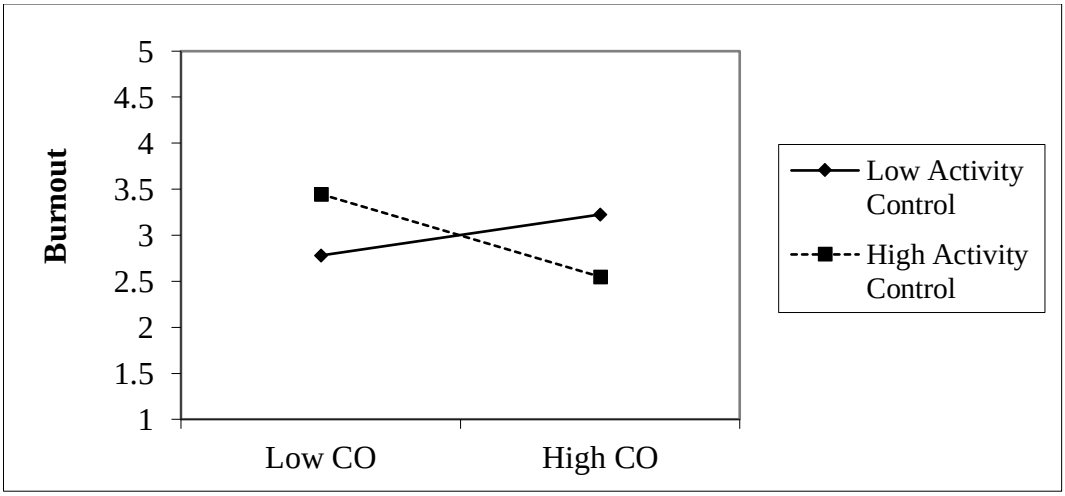
There are two hypothesised direct effects in the present study, namely, the direct effects of CO on burnout, and burnout on service performance. With regard to H1, which proposed that the FSE's CO is negatively related to burnout, the coefficient of CO on burnout is significant and negative (b = -.246, t = - 3.141, p < .002); thus, H1 is supported. H2 proposed that the FSE's burnout is negatively related to service performance. The analysis confirmed the negative and

significant effect of burnout on service performance (b = -.716, t = -4.627, p < 0.001); hence, H2 is also supported (see Table 7.2).

7.3.2. Moderating Effects of Sales Control Systems

Based on the differentiated JD-R framework, the present research hypothesised that CO and activity control and outcome control have different interaction effects on burnout. As such, H3 proposed that the negative relationship of CO on burnout is stronger when activity control is high. The analysis shows the support for this hypothesis (b = -.376, t = -2.182, p = .014). Figure 7.1 shows the interaction effects of CO and activity control on burnout, and illustrates that burnout is reduced further when the FSE's CO and perceived activity controls are both at the high levels.

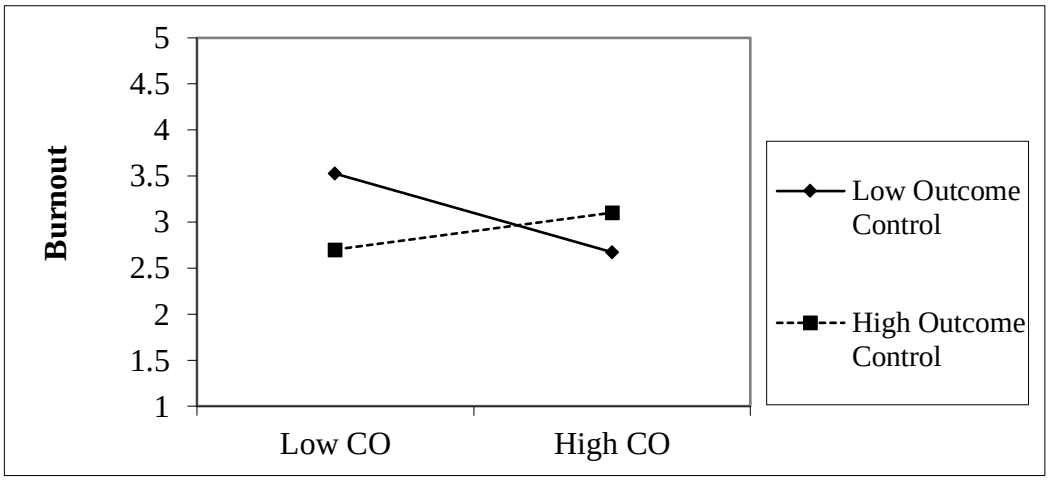
Figure 7.1. Interaction Effect of CO and Activity Control on Burnout



CO = Customer orientation

With regard to the interaction effect of CO and outcome control on burnout, H4 proposed negative relationship of CO on burnout is weaker when outcome control is higher. The analysis provided support for this hypothesis (b = .432, t = 1.68, p =.046). Figure 7.2 depicts the interaction of CO and outcome control on burnout and shows that burnout is high for FSEs with high CO who perceive high outcome control. Therefore, H5 is supported. Interestingly, the analysis shows that when both FSE's CO and perceived outcome control are high, it has a positive effect on burnout. This results will be further discussed in the subsequent section.

Figure 7.2. Interaction Effect of CO and Outcome Control on Burnout

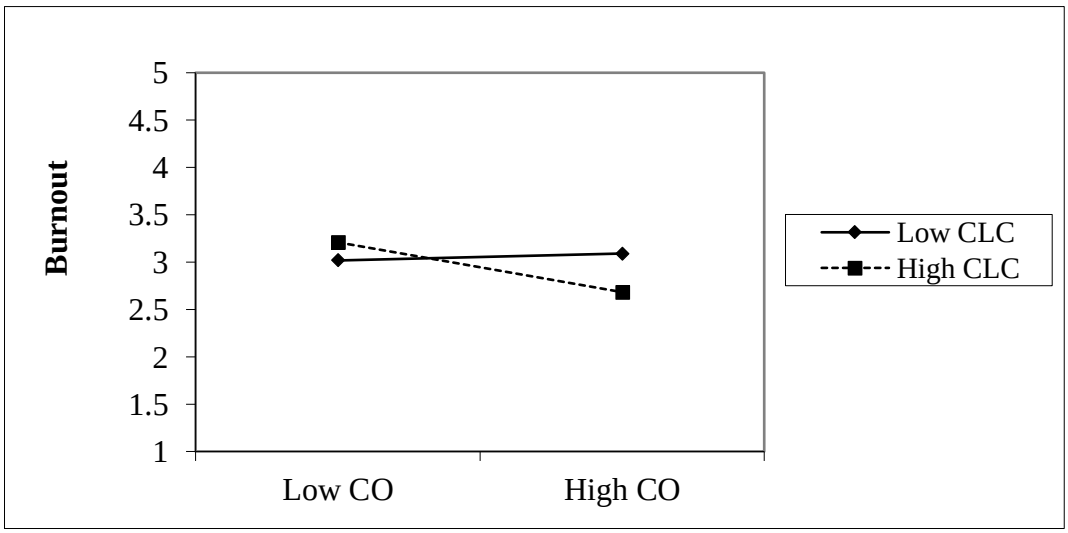


CO = Customer orientation

7.3.3. Moderating Effect of Climate

The present study proposed the negative relationship of CO on burnout is stronger when CLC is higher. The analysis confirmed the moderating effect of CLC in the hypothesised direction (b = -.192, t = -2.120, p =.017), and this significant moderating effect is depicted in Figure 7.3. Figure 7.3 clearly shows that the level of FSE burnout is reduced when both CO and CLC are at high levels. However, when the FSE's CO is low, the level of perceived CLC (high or low) does not affect the level of burnout. Therefore, H5 is supported.

Figure 7.3. Interaction Effect of CO and CLC on Burnout



CO = Customer orientation, CLC = Customer learning climate

7.3.4 Control Variables

This study employed several control variables considering the possible extraneous effects and alternative explanations of the hypothesised relationship between independent and dependent variables. As such, such respondents' demographics (age and gender), self-efficacy, inter-personal cultural orientation (power distance and risk aversion) and marker variable were controlled in the SEM. Table 7.1 shows the effects of the control variables on burnout and service performance in detail.

In terms of the effect of the control variables on burnout, self-efficacy ($b = -.208$, $t = -5.20$, $p < .01$), risk aversion ($b = .244$, $t = 4.59$, $p < .01$), power distance ($b = .118$. $t = 2.479$, $p < .05$) and marker variable ($b = .065$, $t = 2.53$, $p < .05$) had significant effects. Other control variables such as demographic of sales employees and power distance did not have any significant effects on burnout. The effect of burnout on service performance was also controlled with the same set of control variables. The analysis revealed sale employees' age ($b = -.01$, $t = -.1.81$, $p = .07$) affects service performance at $p < .10$.

7.4. Post-hoc Analysis (Mediation test)

Even though the mediating role of burnout was not formally hypothesised in the present study, mediating effect of burnout was explored by employing MacKinnon et al.'s (2004) bootstrapping test following Zhao et al.'s (2010) recommendations. Accordingly, the mediating role of burnout between CO and service performance was tested as a post-hoc analysis. Firstly, confidence interval (CI) for indirect effects of CO on service performance through burnout was computed, and results showed there is a significant indirect effect ($b = .1052$, $p < .01$, 95% bootstrap CI [.0532, .1803]). Secondly, a direct effect of CO on service performance was also tested ($b = .1052$, $p = .037$). These findings together provides statistical evidence that burnout has competitive mediation effect between CO and service performance, such that mediated path and direct path has opposite direction (Zhao et al., 2010). Overall, this study established the evidence that burnout partially mediates the relationship between CO and service performance.

7.5. Summary

This chapter presented the results of hypotheses tests conducted by SEM. Hypotheses and status with direction of the relationship are summarised in Table 7.2. All five hypotheses were supported in this study. Based on these findings, the researcher discusses theoretical and managerial implications and limitations as well as recommendation for future research in the following chapter.

Table 7.2. Summary of Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Status (direction of the relationship)
H1 Customer orientation → Burnout	Supported (-)
H2 Burnout → Service performance	Supported (-)
H3 Customer orientation × Activity control → Burnout	Supported (-)
H4 Customer orientation × Outcome control → Burnout	Supported (+)
H5 Customer orientation × Customer learning climate → Burnout	Supported (-)

All hypotheses were tested with a one-tailed test

CHAPTER 8 – Discussion, Implications and Limitations

8.1. Introduction

The present chapter discusses the results of the hypotheses tests in comparison to the prevailing literature by highlighting contributions that the present study makes to the current body of the literature. The chapter first highlights the theoretical contributions to the JD-R framework, and provides four detailed discussions and implications for the further advancement of the framework. Subsequently, the managerial implications as well as the limitations of the present study are discussed. Then, last but not least, the chapter highlights the directions for future research.

8.2. Discussion

8.2.1. Theoretical Contribution

The JD-R framework is prevalently used to describe how various different job demands and resources lead to burnout and work engagement. However, studies that focus on identifying the boundary conditions of each process of burnout and work engagement are few and far between. While previous sales research focused on what causes strain within sales occupations, such as interactions of each sales control system (Miao and Evans 2013), and customer and organisational complexity (Schmitz and Ganesan, 2014), the factors that reduce salespeople's burnout have received scant attention. This points to Menguc et al.'s (2017) alarming suggestion that exploring the boundary conditions of each process, in which burnout and/or work engagement are formed, and, in turn, affect subsequent behaviour and performance, is important. Thus, this line of research is most promising for the further advancement of the JD-R framework. In fact, the Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management called for papers which specifically looks in the boundary conditions by emphasising the importance of investigating the boundary conditions in sales theories because investigation of such conditions can provide a better and more nuanced understanding of the sales theories (Hughes, 2019).

Therefore, in order to advance our knowledge of salespeople's burnout, especially what forms and reduces burnout in the sales occupations, the present study took a granular approach to the JD-R framework. Specifically, by proposing and testing a more nuanced model which

incorporated CO as a personal resource, SCSs (i.e. activity control and outcome control) as organisational demands, and CLC as an organisational resource, the study aimed to deepen our knowledge of the boundary conditions of salespeople's burnout. The following sub-sections discuss important findings of the present research, which contribute to the further understanding of salespeople's burnout and development of the JD-R framework.

8.2.1.1. The Role of CO (Personal Resource) in the JD-R Framework

Scholars of JD-R studies have shown that personal resources can be conceptualised in various ways. However, this conceptual flexibility led to the mixed findings on personal resources in the extant literature (Shaufeli and Taris, 2014). In fact, this conceptual flexibility is also reflected in the previous studies which investigated the role of CO within the JD-R framework, such that CO has been integrated in the JD-R framework as an independent, moderating and mediating variable (see Table 2.3). Especially, the extant sales and marketing literature conceptualised the trait-level CO in two different ways: (1) a moderating variable that influences the link between job demands and resources and psychological states of employees (Jha et al. 2017; Matthews et al., 2018); or (2) a factor that can directly influence the psychological states of employee and shape the perception of job demands and resources (Babakus et al., 2009; Zablah et al., 2012; Yoo and Arnold, 2014) Studies which used the former conceptualisation did not have any theoretical explanation, and studies which used the latter conceptualisation used self-regulation theory, COR theory and appraisal theory to explain each hypothesised relationship. Based on the possible theoretical explanations provided by the latter conceptualisation, the present study attempted to clarify the role of CO in the burnout process of salespeople within the JD-R framework by utilising the appraisal theory (Lazarus and Folkman, 1987).

The result of the present study suggest that CO, as a personal resource, is important in its own right because it has a significant negative effect on burnout. In addition, the results of the effects of the interaction of CO and activity control, outcome control and CLC show that CO influences the perceptions of these different environments. Thus, these findings support the perspective of Babakus et al. (2009), Zablah et al. (2012) and Yoo and Arnold (2014), such that

CO is an important factor that directly affects the psychological states of frontline employees and influences FSEs' perceptions of the job environment. Especially, they argued that CO is an important resource that has a direct negative effect on burnout and job stress, and it has a direct positive effect on work engagement. Thus, the results of the present study provide further support for their argument that CO influences the interpretation of work experiences and gives FSEs strong guidance with regard to their purpose and objective during customer encounters.

Taken together, in support of the previous studies on trait-level CO, the present research suggests that CO can be conceptualised as a variable that directly influences psychological states, and it shapes the perceptions of job demands and resources by influencing the FSE's coping style towards various emotionally and physically demanding frontline jobs on a daily basis (Mowen 2000; Brown et al., 2002; de Jonge and Dormann, 2006; Babakus et al., 2009; Zablah, et al., 2012; Yoo and Arnold, 2014).

8.2.1.2. Hindering and Challenging Aspects of Sales Control Systems

Scholars of SCSs agree that control systems are simultaneously implemented in sales organisations (e.g. Jaworski, 1988, Oliver and Anderson, 1994). While some scholars have investigated the interactions between each control system on sales employees' coping style, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and role stress (e.g. Wang et al., 2012; Miao and Evans, 2013; Miao and Evans, 2014; Yoo and Arnold, 2014), the understanding of how different control systems interact with FSEs' personal resources to influence the different psychological states is still limited (Yoo and Arnold, 2014). Thus, the effective design of SCSs implementation concerning FSEs' personal characteristics in sales organisations is still to be clarified (Chan and Wan, 2012). In order to address these concerns, the present research tested the interaction effects of CO and SCSs on burnout, particularly focusing on the demanding aspects of SCSs (i.e. activity control and outcome control).

The present study demonstrated that the effects of CO on burnout are positive or negative depending on the control system with which it interacts. In line with the view that CO is a stress-coping resource (e.g. Brown et al. 2002; de Jonge and Dormann, 2006; Zablah et al., 2012;

Matthew et al., 2018), the results of the present study show that CO's effect on burnout is stronger and more negative under activity control. On the other hand, CO's effect on burnout is positive under strong outcome control. These results support the view of Menguc et al. (2017) that employees evaluate work experiences through the lens of personal resources, and the evaluation can be negative or positive depending on the focal environment that interacts with the personal resource. As such, customer-oriented FSEs perceive activity control as a challenge demand and outcome control as a hindrance demand. In fact, these findings are in line with Yoo and Arnold's (2014) study, which found a positive interaction effect of CO and behavioural control on engagement, and a negative interaction effect of CO and output control on work engagement.

Further, the extant studies of SCSs constantly found negative direct effects of activity control on job stress, such as role ambiguity, because activity control gives sales employees strict rules on sales procedures by specifying to act on particular behaviours during sales process (Challagalla and Shervani, 1996; Jaworski and Kolhi, 1993; Miao and Evans, 2012). However, this study did not find a direct effect of activity control on burnout. Rather, this study showed that CO activates the problem-solving coping when it interacts with activity control, and negatively affects burnout. This effect is explained by the differentiated JD-R framework, which suggests that when a demand is appraised as challenging it has a negative effect on burnout.

In addition, this finding adds to the on-going discussion of whether activity control is good or bad, as Miao and Evans (2013) argued that strict rules initiated by activity control can be hindering to sales employees because they prohibit salespeople's learning, especially about their customers. However, Katsikeas et al. (2018) contended that activity control enhances exploitative learning where FSEs adopt advantage-seeking learning that enhances productivity and efficiency. The findings of the present study lean towards the view of Katsikeas et al. (2018). That is, activity control gives FSEs a sense of control over customer interactions by enhancing advantage-seeking learning because such control can give FSEs reasons for achieving tasks set by activity control (Jaworski, 1993; Baldauf et al., 2005). This is because CO is a value to meet customers' needs. FSEs perceive activity control as challenging, not hindering, because such control works as a means to meet their customer-oriented goals such as customer satisfaction (Jaworski, 1993) and

encourages customer-oriented FSEs to satisfy customer needs effectively and efficiently, and thus reduce burnout.

The extant SCSs literature suggests that outcome control has a negative effect on job stress, because, similar to activity control, outcome control gives FSEs clear direction and communication of expected sales outcomes, and, in turn, reduces job ambiguity (e.g. Challagalla and Shervani, 1996; Miao and Evans, 2013). However, the results of the present study demonstrated that such effect of reducing role ambiguity can be compromised when the outcome control is perceived as hindering. P-O fit theory suggests that value congruence between person and organisation gives FSEs a sense of control over job tasks and value incongruence leads to dysfunctional outcomes (e.g. Kristof, 1996; Edwards and Cable, 2012). This study is a particular example that shows the deteriorating outcome of value incongruence. Importantly, Miao and Evans (2013) argued that simultaneous requirements of conflicting demands can create job ambiguity. The present study showed the potential danger of conflicting values leading to burnout, such that value incongruence – a personal value (CO) focusing on satisfying customer needs versus an organisational value of achieving quantifiable outcome – may exhausts an FSE's resources and, in turn, exhaust their energy. Thus, customer-oriented FSEs may be more prone to burnout under strong outcome control.

8.2.1.3. Extending the Burnout Literature: Importance of Complementary Climate

The present study demonstrated that the interaction of CO and CLC is negatively and significantly related to burnout. This indicates the complementary effect of CO and CLC. While the JD-R framework explains that personal resources are important predictors of work engagement, and job resources are effective in both reducing job demands and increasing work engagement (e.g. Bakker et al., 2014), it does not explicitly explain how job resources and personal resources can interact to reduce burnout. In addition, Menguc et al. (2017) contended that some climates work as compensatory or complementary depending on the personal resources with which they interact. The results of this study demonstrated that the interaction of a personal resource (CO) and organisational resource (CLC) significantly reduces FSEs' burnout. In other

words, the present study showed the complemental nature of CO and CLC. Edwards and Cable (2009) strongly emphasised the value of the value congruence between employees and the organisation in that it promotes communication between employees and employees' trust in the organisation. When the value is congruent between the organisation and the FSEs, it fosters interpersonal communication, especially when stressful events occur. Additionally, because FSEs have confidence in how the organisation expects them to act in certain customer encounters, it gives them a sense of trust and autonomy in their behaviour.

Although this interaction term is intuitively negative on burnout since personal resources and job resources are found to strengthen each other (Xanthopoulou, et al., 2009; Bakker and Demerouti, 2001), the present study provided empirical support for the value congruence between a personal resource and a climate in reducing burnout when these two complement each other. In fact, Grizzle et al. (2009) emphasised that a climate that confirms customer-orientated behaviours of sales employees is important, because such a climate enhances customer-oriented sales employees' values, and, in turn, improves the organisation's profitability. Consequently, this study suggests that CLC is a valuable resource that further reduces the negative effect of CO on burnout.

8.2.1.4. Service Role of Salespeople

In parallel with the increasing attention being paid to the relational aspect of the sales occupations (Vargo and Lusch, 2004), the importance of sales employees in customer service roles has also increased in the previous literature (e.g. Hunter and Perreault Jr, 2007; Miao and Evans, 2013; Gustafson et al., 2018). While the nature of business exchanges becomes more long term, corporative and integrative, the relationship-building aspect of performance within studies of SCSs and the JD-R has not been well documented. Therefore, the present research conceptualised the service performance as the dependent variable and tested a nuanced model which illustrates the interactions of CO, SCSs and CLC to influence FSEs' burnout, and, in turn, affect the service performance.

Although the negative association of burnout and service performance has been confirmed in a great deal of the literature (e.g. Bakker et al., 2007; Crosno et al., 2009; Ambrose et al., 2014), the present research suggests that, particularly in a sales environment, outcome control increases the level of burnout among customer-oriented FSEs, and, in turn, negatively affects their service performance. Therefore, this study extends the knowledge of salespeople's burnout literature by providing empirical evidence that each control system has different effects to influence burnout of customer-oriented FSEs, and, in turn, affect the relational aspect of performance.

8.3. Managerial Implications

According to a Gallup report, 67% of full-time employees experience some level of burnout at work (Wigert and Agrawal, 2018a). Although many full-time workers and managers may think burnout is a part of their job, its consequences should not be overlooked. For example, burnt-out employees are 2.6 times more likely to turnover or take sick leaves (Wigert and Agrawal, 2018a). In addition, burnt-out employees have lower confidence in their performance as well as being less likely to seek feedback on their performance from their supervisors (Wigert and Agrawal, 2018a; Wigert and Agrawal 2018b). Thus, burnout has a substantial managerial cost. While maximising and inspiring high productivity at work is any sales manager's priority, it may be paradoxical that current sales managers are also required to alleviate burnout among FSEs (Wigert and Agrawal, 2018b; Wigert and Agrawal 2018c). Therefore, understanding what forms burnout and what prevents FSEs from falling into burnout is one of the current managerial concerns. The present study sheds light by providing strategic and practical insights for sales managers on how this paradox can be effectively managed.

8.3.1. Pros and Cons of Recruiting Customer-Oriented Sales Representatives

The findings of this study suggest that CO is an important trait-level value and FSE resource which can alleviate burnout. Much of the sales and marketing literature emphasises the importance of hiring customer-oriented personnel for the sales and boundary-spanning roles of

an organisation because such value leads to longer tenure with higher job satisfaction and higher subsequent performances (e.g. Zablah et al., 2012). However, our study suggests that high trait-level CO can be detrimental to FSEs well-being when strong outcome control is initiated. That is, the benefit of hiring customer-oriented personnel for the sales jobs can be minimised when the organisation takes strong sales orientation. Although, customer-oriented sales employees are generally less susceptible to burnout because CO is a stress-coping personal resource on its own and facilitates them to deal with a high customer workload, balanced SCSs should be implemented for CO to work as a stress-coping resource.

8.3.2. Balancing Out Sales Control Systems

While SCSs are implemented simultaneously in one organisation, the most effective balance and combination of sales control systems is still unknown (Chan and Wan, 2012). The results of the present study showed that, when FSEs have high CO, activity control can work to alleviate burnout and outcome control can potentially work to form burnout. Furthermore, the results demonstrated that FSEs' burnout is lowest when they are highly customer-oriented and perceive high levels of activity control (see Figure 7.2.). In fact, activity control enhances interpersonal communication between managers and subordinates, which helps FSEs have a greater understanding of their managers' expectations (Challagalla and Shervani, 1996), and enhances exploitative learning by focusing on efficiency and productivity (Katsikeas et al., 2018). Understanding managers' expectations clarifies the tasks and end goals of each expected behaviour specified by activity control, and such clarification helps FSEs see why their supervisors impose different elements of activity control (e.g. call rate and sales reports). Such clarification helps them cope with the stress by actively solving problems, hence helps them put greater focus on the goal achievement.

On the other hand, the present study also suggests that customer-oriented FSEs may be more likely to experience burnout when they perceive a higher level of outcome control from their direct supervisor. Although it is important to communicate quantifiable goals to sales employees (e.g. Anderson and Oliver, 1984), emphasising, monitoring and communicating too

much on outcome target to FSEs with high customer-oriented values may be hindering to their personal development and goal achievement, deprive them of energy and demotivate them. This is because outcome control's primary goal is to achieve short-term sales gain, and not long-term customer service and relationship.

These findings point towards a more balanced approach to the implementation of SCSs. That is, although it is important to communicate quantifiable performance goals, putting too much focus on such control may lead to lower motivation and burnout. Rather, because customer-oriented FSEs are generally more intrinsically motivated (Harris et al., 2005), managers can activity communicate the expected behaviours and tasks in order for FSEs to achieve sales-related goals by explaining why each element of the activity control is necessary to achieve certain service as well as sales goals (Miao and Evans, 2014). This may, in turn, facilitates better achievement of quantifiable sales goals as customer-oriented FSEs perceive activity control as a means to achieve the goals and standards set by the organisation.

8.3.3. Minimising Burnout with Organisational Resources

The research finding shows that a positive climate, such as CLC, is especially important in alleviating FSEs' burnout. Creating CLC among sales units and throughout an organisation is especially beneficial for customer-oriented FSEs because such a climate provides them with a sense of belongingness and acceptance (e.g. value congruence), which, in turn, fosters horizontal (between FSEs) and vertical (between FSEs and supervisor) communications, especially in a stressful work situation (Edwards and Cable, 2009). In fact, it is important to create an organisational climate that complements frontline employees' motivation, which can maximise their performance (Menguc et al., 2017). Thus, burnout can be minimised when the organisation has a positive climate that can work complementally to sales employees' work-related values, such as CO.

8.4. Limitations and Future Research Directions

Although the present research advanced the understanding of the health impairment process in the JD-R framework by conceptualising sales-specific demands and organisational as well as personal resources, there are also shortcomings. Firstly, the present study used single organisational data from a Japanese pharmaceutical company. Thus, the generalisability of the study may be limited. However, scholars of burnout research have also utilised single organisational data to test their hypotheses because such a method gives advantages over multiple organisation sampling in terms of controlling for potential contingency factors, and proves that a single organisational study facilitates deeper understanding of what is really happening in the organisation about the phenomenon under investigation (e.g. Singh et al. 1994; Lewin and Sager, 2007). In addition, this study controlled for power distance and risk aversion to rule out potential cultural effects on burnout and the service performance. Although both constructs of cultural dimension are also individual-level constructs that have shown variation across FSE levels (see Table 5.6), generalisability of the study may be still limited. Thus, future studies should investigate multiple sales organisations and/or different cultural contexts in order to cross validate and bolster the findings of the present research.

Secondly, although the present study collected FSEs' service performance one month later from their direct supervisors, the research did not investigate the subsequent sales/financial performance of the FSEs. Although the importance of the relationship-building role of sales employees is highlighted in a great deal of research (e.g. Miao and Evans 2013; Katsikeas et al., 2018), future research can also benefit from including quantifiable performance measures of sales employees because a sales force's primary mission is to create profits for the organisation (Oliver and Anderson, 1984).

Finally, even though the study tested the nuanced JD-R framework by integrating sales-specific and relevant demands and resources, the possibility of other moderating variables which could potentially influence FSE burnout should not be ignored. Jaworksi (1988) and many other sales control scholars suggest that SCSs exist in parallel with informal controls such as group norms and group perception about leaders. Thus, investigating group-level variables such as

group-level customer orientation, supervisor-subordinate relationship quality and different climates may contribute to the further understanding of burnout phenomena in sales organisations. Further, because SCSs are implemented simultaneously with informal control (Jaworski, 1988; Challagalla and Shervani, 1996), it is worth investigating three-way interactions which include different control systems and informal controls in order to understand how these three-way interactions affect salespeople's motivation.

8.5. Summary and Concluding Remarks

The final chapter of this thesis provided a discussion germane to the main research findings of the study by highlighting the theoretical contributions that the present study makes to the current body of the salespeople's burnout and JD-R literature, followed by detailed managerial implications of the study. Last but not least, the chapter also discussed the limitations of the study and provided insights for future study directions.

In conclusion, many of us are working under a fast-paced work environment regardless of the occupation. However, since the news of a Japanese salesperson's burnout death shocked the entire nation, it has become more obvious that people in the sales occupations are more prone to burnout, and such a psychological state could lead to the worst consequence one can imagine – suicide (Sankei Shinbun, 2018). Thus, understanding what causes burnout and what prevents salespeople from falling into burnout is one of great interest to corporate Japan. This thesis investigated the current managerial concerns by looking into the boundary conditions of salespeople's burnout by utilising the JD-R framework and provided theoretically as well as managerially relevant contributions to the current understanding of the burnout phenomena.

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