A COMBINATORY APPROACH TO AFFECTIVE AND COGNITIVE ORIENTATIONS OF THE INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION OF SALESPEOPLE

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A combinatory approach to affective and cognitive dimensions of the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of salespeople.

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Thesis summary

Salesperson motivation is one of the key themes in sales management research and practice. Traditionally, it has been predominantly linked to financial incentives and pay packages assuming that extrinsic motivation is a prime driver of sales performance. However, later studies have demonstrated the crucial importance of intrinsic motivation in influencing salesperson job outcomes, although there is a number of inconsistencies and ambiguity within the research domain. The growing evidence that both types of motivation contribute to employee performance increasingly suggest that concentrating on one single type of motivation may be much less effective than utilizing a more balanced approach. Specifically, by combining intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Research in psychology suggests that certain orientations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can co-exist and in combination enhance work outcomes.

This study contributes to the knowledge on salesperson motivation in the following ways. First, by providing a comprehensive systematic review on how motivation is defined, major theories underpinning motivation, how motivation has historically been measured, and key methodologies employed over time. Second, by investigating how the combinations of cognitive and affective orientations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation affect salesperson performance and work engagement. Third, by examining the effect of formal and informal sales force control systems onto the motivational orientations.

Data in this study is collected from a cross-sectional sample of B2B salespeople. Findings from the main study using polynomial regression with response surface analysis reveal that salesperson intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations can co-exist, and have a positive combined effect on performance and work engagement. Findings from the third study utilising multiple regression analysis shed the light on the importance of informal control systems (e.g. cultural control) in influencing salesperson motivation.

The study also offers vital managerial recommendations and propose some avenues for future research in the area of salesperson motivation.

Keywords

Sales motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, polynomial regression with response surface analysis, (in)congruence analysis, salesforce control systems.

Dedication

To my Dad, Ildus Yahievich Khusainov.

Papik, you never saw me graduate from my Doctorate, but you are the one who has taught me the science way. I know you would have been so proud. Thank you for being my inspiration.

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Finally, I would like to acknowledge that based on the Chapter 2 (Literature review), a paper has been published in collaboration with the PhD supervisory team.

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Intrinsic motivation - IM

Extrinsic motivation - EM

Self-determination theory - SDT

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Introduction to the thesis

The aim of this opening chapter of this thesis is to present an overall theme and research context within which the PhD thesis is positioned. The first section 1.2. presents the introduction to the salesperson motivation. This is then followed by the discussion on the changes in the sales field (section 1.3.). The section 1.4. briefly summarises the research problems. The chapter concludes with a summary of the thesis structure (section 1.5.).

1.2. Introduction to salesperson motivation

Salesperson motivation has long been one of the most important areas of sales research, and one of the most important challenges for sales managers (Doyle & Shapiro, 1980; Jaramillo, Mulki, & Marshall, 2005). There is a number of reasons for this. First, salespeople's performance has important bottom-line implications (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998). Second, sales force accounts for the largest part of the marketing budget and marketing personnel (Cravens, Ingram, LaForge, & Young, 1993). Third, salespeople play an important boundary spanning role in organisations connecting the needs of a company with its customers, as well as connecting various functions within the sales organisation (e.g. Burke, 2013; Marshall, Moncrief, & Lassk, 1999; Singh, 1998). Despite the importance of the topic of salesperson's motivation in sales research, it received little attention in the literature in the last decades (Panagopoulos et al., 2011).

Research into salesperson motivation dates back to the 1970s, when sales and marketing researchers first began to explore this important area as key driver of sales performance (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1976). Of course, pre-dating this were hundreds of studies within the psychological literature that explored how extrinsic rewards could shape behaviors, thus serving to build a strong base for general motivational research. In the early 1970s, the idea that some activities could serve as their own intrinsic reward

emerged (e.g. Deci, 1971), thus setting up what appears to be a continuing dichotomy between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations.

Intrinsic motivation (IM) is defined as the inclination or drive to perform an activity that arises from enjoyment of the activity itself, absent any reinforcement or reward (Deci & Ryan, 1985a; Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Teo, Lim, & Lai, 1999; Weiner, 1995). Extrinsic motivation (EM) is defined as the inclination or drive to perform an activity in order to receive separable outcomes that are distinct from the activity itself (Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw, 1992; Deci & Ryan, 1985a; Teo et al., 1999). In addition, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are each comprised of cognitive and affective motivational orientations. These are labelled challenge seeking (IM), task enjoyment (IM), compensation seeking (EM) and recognition seeking (EM) (T. M. Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994).

1.3. Changes in the sales field

Sales scholars have expended significant effort on investigating salesperson motivation, creating a large and growing body of knowledge regarding how salespeople can be motivated, investigating the various forms of salesperson motivation, and exploring the effects of different forms of motivation on different forms of salesperson performance. Research has also exposed the different managerial interventions can be brought to bear on increasing the different forms of salesperson motivation including monetary and nonmonetary rewards, job designs, and interpersonal managerial steering mechanisms and techniques. Taken together, the existing body of research on salesperson motivation places motivation as one of the most enduringly popular topics of sales research (Pullins, 2001; Walker, Churchill , & Ford, 1977; Williams & Plouffe, 2007). However, there is a number of inconsistencies and ambiguity within the research domain, and a number of conflicting research findings. As a result, it does not provide a clear and unambiguous set of advice for managers as to what works, when, and why.

Inconsistencies in research findings are amplified by a variety of well-documented recent changes in the sales domain. Businesses have been going through numerous changes in the way sales organizations operate (Keszey & Biemans, 2016). The beginning

of this so-called revolution in sales (Marshall, Moncrief, Rudd, & Lee, 2012) could be dated back to the beginning of the century when the sales role was described as being in the heart of a ‘‘renaissance - a genuine rebirth and revival’’ (Ingram, LaForge, & Leigh, 2002, 552). Since then, there has been a dramatic evolution in the salesperson’s role in the organization towards that of a business/development/consultant (Keszey & Biemans, 2016; Narus, 2015), who is heavily technology savvy (Marshall et al., 2012), and a vital knowledge broker (Verbeke, Dietz, & Verwaal, 2011). An array of other advances, such as new sales technologies that support and improve the sales processes (Kuruzovich, 2013) and the emergence of big data (Erevelles, Fukawa, & Swayne, 2016), have changed the landscape in which salespeople operate. Further to this, the implementation of team-based structures (Stock, 2006) and global virtual sales teams (Badrinarayanan, Madhavaram, & Granot, 2011) and groupware technology (Janson, Austin, & Hynes, 2014) have also transformed the way sales organizations function. Also, recent years have seen significant changes in the composition of many sales forces, with inside sales roles making up an increasingly higher proportion of sales roles when compared with traditional field sales roles (Zoltners, Sinha, & Lorimer, 2013)

The dramatic shifts in the role of the salesperson touched on above are accompanied by a significant demographic change in the sales workforce. Specifically, as the prior generations reach retirement age and move out of the workforce, new salespeople are increasingly being recruited from the ranks of millennial generation, which is predicted to reach almost 50 percent of the workforce by 2020. Evidence suggests that they are motivated significantly differently from early generations such as Baby Boomers and Generation X (Brack & Kelly, 2012). Both academic research and practitioner publications have also suggested that millennials in sales roles are motivated and perform in a manner different from earlier generational cohorts (Pullins, Mallin, Buehrer, & Jones, 2011; Schultz, Schwepker, Davidson, & Davidson, 2012)

The aforementioned changes in the sales job, and the people doing it, likely necessitate some fundamental changes in sales force motivation strategies and calling for further research on salesperson motivation.

1.4. Research problem

Firstly, despite extensive research development in the field of salesperson motivation, there remains little consensus on exactly how best to motivate salespeople. For instance, a continuing challenge remains regarding whether it is best to use financial incentives, nonfinancial rewards, sales force steering instruments or rely on job level factors to generate IM. The lack of a prior comprehensive review of sales force motivation literature is a troubling as it leaves a number of important questions unanswered regarding the state of the literature, and its potential contribution to the knowledge of salesperson performance.

Secondly, historically, a key premise of motivational research is the idea that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation work in opposition (DeCharms, 1968; Deci, 1971; Deci & Ryan, 1985b; Lepper, Greene, & Nisbett, 1973). However, T. M. Amabile (1993) suggested that certain aspects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations can indeed coexist and even work in synergy. She stated that it should be possible for someone to be simultaneously motivated by, for instance, financial gains (compensation seeking, EM) and personal challenge at work (challenge seeking, IM). This means that certain motivational orientations can in combination enhance importance job outcomes, e.g. job performance. However, no research to date has explored how the combinations of motivational orientations of salespeople influence their job outcomes.

Thirdly, to date, literature does not provide a clear and unambiguous set of advice for managers as to what works in influencing sales force motivation. One of the key influencers of salesperson behaviours and motivation is sales control systems (Oliver & Anderson, 1994). Defined as sales managers' attempt to influence behaviour and activities of sales employees in order to achieve the required results, sales control systems are grouped into formal and informal classes (Jaworski, Stathakopoulos, & Krishnan, 1993). Research demonstrates that most of studies on sales control systems have concentrated on formal control systems (Guenzi, Baldauf, & Panagopoulos, 2014), largely neglecting the informal control systems. Given the importance of informal control in an organisation (Brown, Evans, Mantrala, & Challagalla, 2005), this is surprising and represents a gap in the knowledge on this important research areas.

The Figure 1.1. below presents a visual summary of how the three studies within the thesis correspond to the key aspects of salesperson motivation.

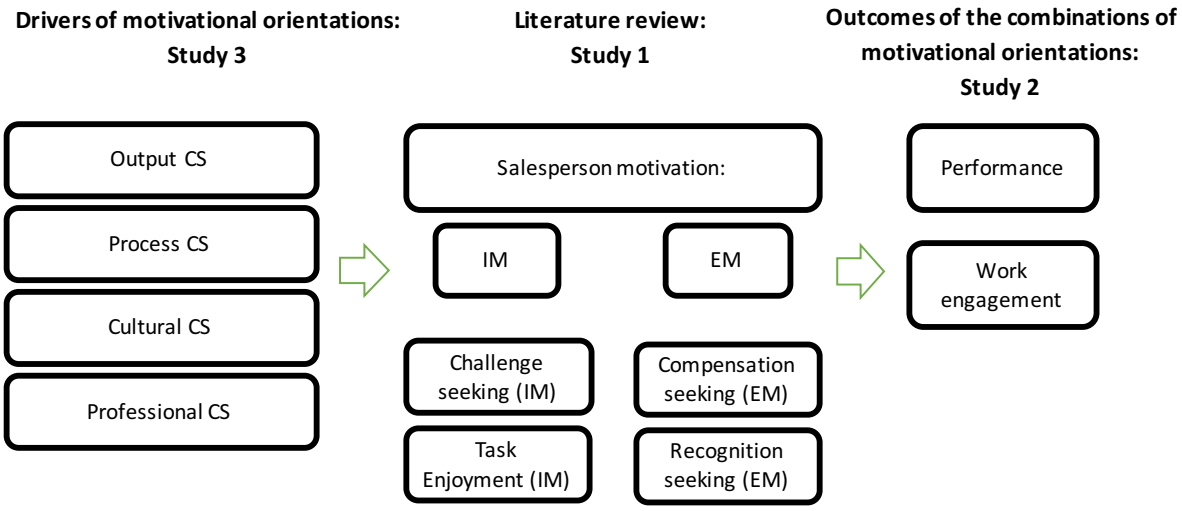


Figure 1.1. *Visual presentation of the position of the three studies within the thesis.*

1.5. Thesis structure

The present thesis consists of six chapter, including the present chapter (Introduction), and is organised as follows.

Chapter 2 is dedicated to a systematic review of relevant literature on salesperson motivation, which represents the first study of the thesis. This chapter aims to systematically review the key research outputs on salesperson motivation from its beginnings as a unique field of study in the 1970s, up to 2017. The literature review study aims to synthesise the key research findings and outline the gaps in the literature as well as to present the key future research directions.

Chapter 3 is devoted to summarising the general considerations on the research methodology. This chapter aims to present the discussion of the philosophical grounds of the thesis. Specifically, the research paradigm, epistemology and ontology, the rational for the choice of the research design and the choice of respondents and

methods of administration, designing and pretesting the questionnaire. The chapter finishes with outline of the main data collection procedure.

Chapter 4 forms a second study within the thesis, and aims to examine the outcomes of the combined cognitive and affective orientations of IM and EM of salespeople. The unique contribution of the chapter lies in utilising the polynomial regression with response surface analysis, a sophisticated statistical method, in order to examine the *combined* effect of the motivational orientations on the salesperson job outcomes. Specifically, the study investigates the effect of all possible combinations of cognitive and affective orientations of IM and EM on salesperson performance and work engagement. The study findings offer the unique insights on the most effective motivational combinations in influencing salesperson performance and work engagement.

Chapter 5 is the third and final study within the thesis. After the extensive literature on salesperson motivation has been reviewed (Chapter 2) and the (combinations of) outcomes of motivational orientations have been investigated (Chapter 4), the aim of this chapter is to explore the drivers of the motivational orientations. This chapter aims to examine the effect of the key salesperson steering mechanisms, sales force control systems, on the four motivational orientations of salespeople.

Finally, **Chapter 6** presents general discussion and conclusion for the thesis. This chapter is dedicated to summarising the key findings from the literature review study (Chapter 2), as well as empirical studies, study 2 (Chapter 4) and study 3 (Chapter 5). It brings together the key findings from the thesis and attempts to draw conclusions based on the research conducted for the present PhD project. It concludes with key research and managerial implications and propositions for future research.

Chapter 2. Study 1. Systematic Literature Review[1]

2.1. Introduction

The primary objective of this chapter is to present a systematic literature review and synthesis on the topic of salesperson motivation. Specifically, the purpose of this chapter is to systematically review the relevant literature on salesperson motivation drawing from sales, marketing and organisational psychology domains.

The chapter starts with presenting the details of the systematic review methodology adapted in this literature review (section 2.2.). Section 2.3. discusses the key definitions of motivation. This is followed by section 2.4. which presents the main theories utilized. Sections 2.5. and 2.6. outline the key motivational measures and methodologies. The next section 2.7. presents the literature synthesis structured around three main research areas: salesperson motivation drivers, salesperson motivation outcomes and the drivers and outcomes of the combination of salesperson IM and EM. Section 2.8. provides a key literature summary. This chapter finishes with a conclusion (section 2.9.) where the chapter is summarised.

2.2. Review methodology

In undertaking the review presented in this chapter, key principles of a systematic review were adopted (Barczak, 2017; Palmatier, Houston, & Hulland, 2017). A systematic literature review has been recognized as a highly effective and transparent method for gathering and analysing a body of knowledge in a specific research field (Shojania et al., 2007). Applying the key principles of the systematic review methodology can substantially enhance the quality of a review by making the ideas and assumptions

[1] Collaboration acknowledgement: based on this chapter a paper has been published in collaboration with the PhD supervisory team: Khusainova, R., de Jong, A., Lee, N., Marshall, G. W., & Rudd, J. M. (2018). (Re) defining salesperson motivation: current status, main challenges, and research directions. Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 1-28.

behind a review more explicit (Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart, 2003) and by minimizing error and bias (Cook, Mulrow, & Haynes, 1997). Indeed, Palmatier et al. (2017) recommend that a systematic approach is best used for literature reviews, rather than a narrative approach, which can lead to an overly descriptive approach that lacks critical assessment of the body of literature for additional guidance (see also Barczak, 2017).

Focus of the present literature review is *salesperson* motivation, hence the primary focus is on sales, marketing, and management/business literature in line with previous conceptual work in sales domain (e.g. Moncrief, Marshall, & Watkins, 2000). Obviously, much work has been conducted on the topic of general employee motivation in the wider I/O psychology domain, as summarized by Kanfer, Frese, and Johnson (2017). Thus, the present study is "informed by" the theoretical and empirical findings from in a wider psychology literature to enrich the understanding of salesperson motivation. But the focus here on motivation in the sales domain is clearly defendable, as sales is well documented as a unique job set and environment.

The current review is conducted in a funnelling manner where each step feeds into the next leading to an increasingly more precise focus (Stros & Lee, 2015). More specifically, an initial general literature review was performed to generate an overall pool of articles on the topic of salesperson motivation. Here the search was not limited to any specific subject area or journal. The search was performed using the key search terms "motivation" and "sales" in the abstract field of the search databases (ProQuest Business Collection, ABI/INFORM Collection, ABI/INFORM Global and Entrepreneurship Database). This resulted in 2,957 hits. After eliminating trade journals, wire feeds, conference proceedings, magazines and newspapers, the pool of articles came down to 560 hits. Following this, only peer reviewed journals were included which resulted in a pool of 507 articles. The next step was to filter by document type. Specifically, only journal articles were used (excluding such documents as features ,reports ,or case studies (resulting in a pool of 483 articles. Then only articles that were written in English were retained, which resulted in 478 hits. The next step was to utilize a key journal criteria. Initially, the 19 key journals were included that publish sales related research as described by Moncrief et al. (2000) (for similar guidance, see also Baumgartner and

Pieters (2003), and Richards, Moncrief, and Marshall (2010)). This resulted in 135 hits. In order to ensure that no relevant article has remained in the excluded pool, a manual check of the relegated articles was performed. Here, one additional relevant article from the Journal of Applied Psychology was identified and added into the main pool resulting in 136 entries.

The next step was to manually check all articles and eliminate those that merely had a mention of the relevant key terms in the body of the full-text, but did not specifically conceptualize or empirically/conceptually examine or investigate motivation per se.[2] As previously explained, the focus here was on salesperson motivation excluding such topics as customer/consumer/shopper motivation. Secondly, it was important to further explicate the scope of the review. That is, motivation is a broad topic, and as Ryan and Deci (2000a, 54) put it, to be motivated simply means "to be moved to do something" (note that a more formal definition of motivation will be provided shortly). Therefore, motivation is often used as an "umbrella term" referring loosely to a variety of behaviour-type variables (Kanfer et al., 2017). The focus of the present review is to explicitly concentrate on articles that conceptualize/examine motivation or its types (intrinsic and extrinsic). After the exclusion of such non-relevant articles, particularly those using "motivation" in the vernacular, the pool of articles came down to 57.

Again, a manual check of the citations was performed to ensure that none of the relevant articles has been missed. This resulted in additional six articles. Hence, the finalized pool of articles contains 63 papers that are from 13 different academic journals. The journals are the following: Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management (JPSSM), Journal of Marketing (JM), Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing (JBIM), Journal of Marketing Research (JMR), Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science (JAMS), Journal of Business Research (JBR), Industrial Marketing Management (IMM), European Journal of Marketing (EJM), International Journal of Research in Marketing (IJRM), Psychology and Marketing (P&M), Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice

[2] This included a number of articles that had the word "motivate" or "motivation" present in the full-text of the document. For example, in a paper that states "the authors' motivation to examine this topic is…" or "hedonic motivation of the shoppers was…" the term "motivation" is irrelevant to the current study.

(JMTP), Journal of Applied Psychology (JAP) and Journal of Business Ethics (JBE). Figure 2.1. below presents the key journals and the number of papers published per each journal.

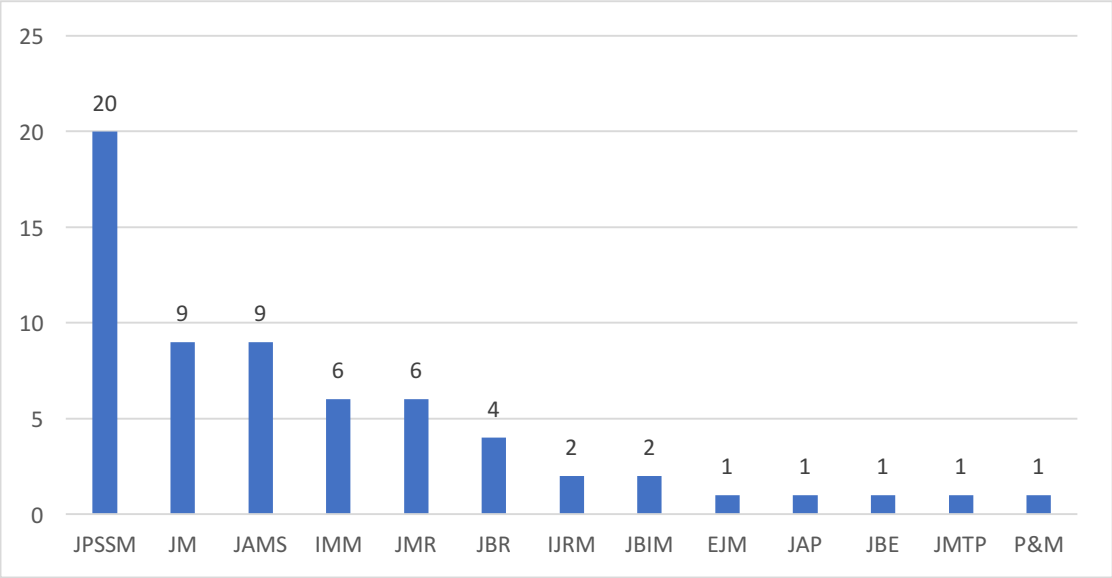


Figure 2.1. *Key journals.*

After the evaluation of the selected pool of articles, the information from the final pool of 63 key papers has been structured into a table as a means of presenting the details in a clear and structured manner (e.g. Hohenberg & Homburg, 2016; Menguc, Auh, Yeniaras, & Katsikeas, 2017; Shi, Sridhar, Grewal, & Lilien, 2017; Stros & Lee, 2015). The Appendix 1 represents the following information: study, year, journal, methodology, sample size and response rate, key relevant findings, theory utilized, and how motivation was measured.

2.3. How motivation has been defined

As a starting point, in a now classical paper Walker et al. (1977, p. 162) defined motivation as "the amount of effort the salesman desires to expend on each of the

activities or tasks associated with his job". Moreover, motivation is a psychological state that causes the arousal, direction, and persistence of behaviours conditioned by need satisfaction (Mitchell, 1982). Research on motivation disaggregate the construct into two distinct types: intrinsic motivation (IM) and extrinsic motivation (EM) (e.g. Mallin & Pullins, 2009; Tyagi, 1982; Weitz, Sujan, & Sujan, 1986).

IM arises from enjoyment of an activity with absence of an apparent reinforcement or reward (Teo et al., 1999; Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979; Weiner, 1995). The fundamental premise of IM is that human nature is active, curious, and inquisitive (White, 1959). EM on the other hand is concerned with whether an activity is performed in order to obtain a separable outcome apart from the activity itself (Davis et al., 1992; Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Teo et al., 1999). Historically, salesperson motivation has been linked almost exclusively to pay packages and financial incentives (e.g. Oliver, 1974; Walker et al., 1977). It is common to refer to this assumption as a "conventional wisdom" of salesperson motivation (e.g. Cravens et al., 1993; Wotruba, MacFie, & Colletti, 1991). However, later studies have further demonstrated the crucial importance of IM in influencing salesperson effort and performance.

Following the organisational psychology literature (T. M. Amabile et al., 1994), a number of studies on salesperson motivation (Miao and Evans, 2007; Miao, Lund, and Evans, 2009) further disaggregate EM and IM into their cognitive and affective orientations which were found to have distinct antecedents and consequences (Miao & Evans, 2007; Miao, Evans, & Zou, 2007). Specifically, the cognitive orientation of IM is labelled "challenge seeking," while the affective orientation of IM is labelled "task enjoyment." In addition, the cognitive orientation of EM is labelled "compensation seeking," whereas the affective orientation of EM is labelled "recognition seeking." Amabile et al (1994) have specifically defined these terms as follows: challenge seeking deals with the enjoyment of solving new and complex problems and seeking challenging tasks; task enjoyment is concerned with enjoying the selling job and finding it pleasurable; compensation seeking involves how much money one can earn in their job; and recognition seeking is concerned with receiving recognition from the others.

Now that the key definitions have been presented, the following three sections outline the main theories utilized, key motivational measures used and key methodologies employed in studies of motivation to date.

2.4. Main theories utilized

To-date three major theoretical underpinnings of motivation have dominated sales motivation research: expectancy theory, attribution theory, and self-determination theory (SDT).

Figure 2.2. below illustrates their frequency of use within the pool of sales motivation articles.

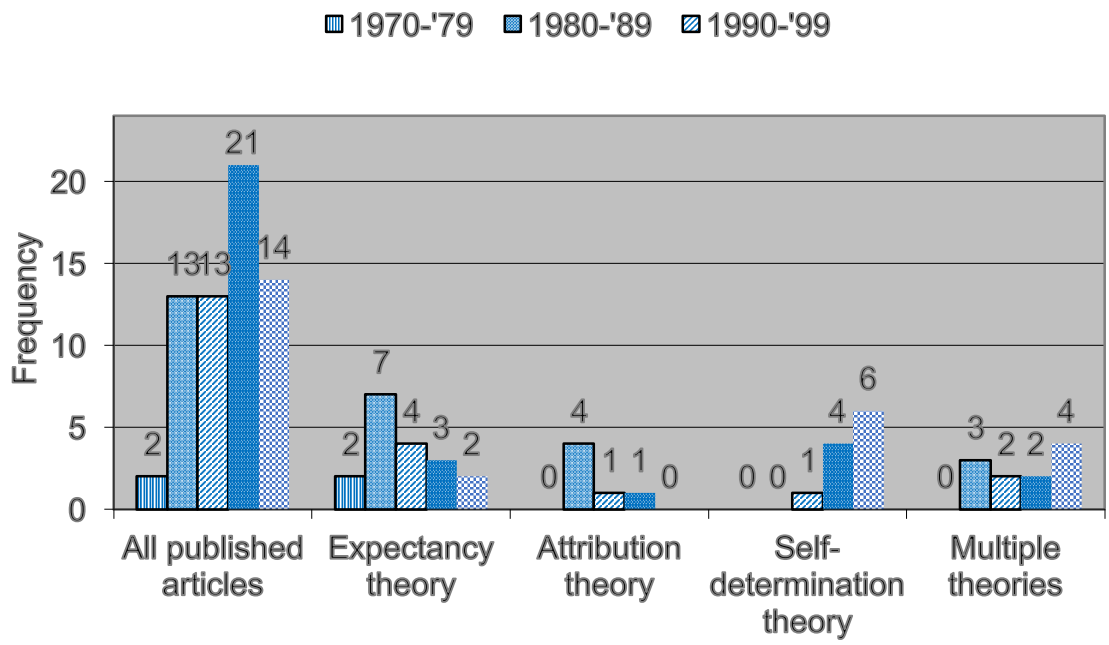


Figure 2.2. *Key theories utilized.*

2.4.1. Expectancy theory

Historically, the prevailing theory in sales research has been expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), which was originally applied by Oliver (1974) and then by Walker et al. (1977) to

create a famous model and what some might call a new paradigm for sales force management research (Johnston & Marshall, 2005). Expectancy theory suggests that motivation is driven by three variables, that Vroom (1964) named expectancy, instrumentality, and valence for rewards. Expectancy (effort-performance relationship) refers to an individual's belief that applying a given amount of effort will result in performance; instrumentality (performance-reward relationship) is the individual's belief that performing at a certain level will result in attainment of desired organisational rewards; and valence (rewards-personal goals relationship) – is concerned with the degree to which organisational rewards can satisfy individual's personal goals and attractiveness of these rewards to the individual (Robbins, 2009).

By the 1980s, expectancy theory was said to "dominate the sales motivation literature" (Badovick, 1990, 123), and sparked much empirical work (e.g. Oliver, 1974; Teas, 1980, 1981; Teas & McElroy, 1986; Tyagi, 1982; Walker et al., 1977). The theory has been described as primarily suited in situations when effort-performance and performance-reward relationships are consciously perceived by an individual (House, Shapiro, & Wahba, 1974). Specifically, salespeople exert effort in order to achieve certain level of sales (performance) which directly translates into them receiving a financial reward (Kishore, Rao, Narasimhan, & John, 2013). Such rewards are considered to be the most salient influencers of salesperson's behaviour (e.g. Cravens et al., 1993; John & Weitz, 1989; Oliver & Anderson, 1994; Roman, Ruiz, & Munuera, 2005). The sales area, where these effort-performance-reward relationships are especially salient, likely provided optimal conditions for utilizing the theory.

However, despite generally fruitful results produced by the expectancy theory in salesperson motivation (as well as in the general psychology domain), most studies could not provide *clear predictions* for salesperson motivation (Evans, Margheim, & Schlatter, 1982). Research in psychology demonstrated "a lack of support for the multiplicative nature of the theory's components" (Kanfer et al., 2017, 344) and suggested the use of individual constructs of expectancy, instrumentality, and valence (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996).

2.4.2. Attribution theory

One interesting alternative theoretical approach that has been used in salesperson motivation research is attribution theory (Badovick, 1990). Attribution theory, originated by Fritz Heider (1958), became widespread in the salesperson motivation literature during 1980s and 1990s. Heider (1958) suggested that people make attributions about themselves and other people in a manner of "naïve psychologists." Subsequently, Weiner (1980) further applied attribution theory in the area of motivation as a means to understand *why* individuals they succeeded or failed at a task. Sujan (1986, 41) was among the first sales motivation researchers to utilize attribution theory explicitly because it "appears to afford benefits over the expectancy value framework… in understanding the motivation to work smarter". He argued that instead of measuring motivation indirectly through valences, instrumentalities, and expectancies (as it's done in expectancy theory), it should be conceptualized as behavioural intentions. Badovick (1990) found a strong support for attribution theory and concluded that it should be used in addition to expectancy theory when examining human motivation.

2.4.3. Self-determination theory (SDT)

Expectancy and attribution theories were dominant in sales research until around the turn of the century (Cadwallader, Jarvis, Bitner, & Ostrom, 2010). Drawing from a wider psychology domain, Keaveney and Nelson (1993) and then Pullins, Haugtvedt, Dickson, Fine, and Lewicki (2000) took a different approach to measure intrinsic motivation by utilizing Deci and Ryan's (1985a) measure of causality orientation of autonomy within the SDT framework. SDT is a macro theory of human behaviour, personality and well-being (Ryan, 1995). It was developed by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1980, 1985b) and has been successfully applied in the area of work motivation (Gagne & Deci, 2005). The basic assumption of SDT is that humans are active organisms with innate tendency for growth, integration, and self-development, and that social environments and contexts can either facilitate and promote the growth and integration or disrupt and diminish it (Deci & Ryan, 2002). This combination of inner resources and

social contexts results in motivational states through the satisfaction (or frustration) of the three basic human needs: need for competence, need for autonomy, and need for relatedness (Gagne & Deci, 2005). One of the most important advancements brought by SDT is that it emphasized the importance of looking at different types of motivation (i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic) instead of treating it as a "unitary concept that varies primarily in amount" (Cadwallader et al., 2010, 221).

The emergence of the SDT in sales force research appears to be particularly timely considering the recent changes in the sales field. Specifically, changes in the dynamism of selling and the increasingly autonomous decision-making setting where salespeople are becoming almost "social scientists capable of analysing lines of power and influence across blurring boundaries" (Jones, Brown, Zoltners, & Weitz, 2005, 108) all have created fitting foundations for the development of the SDT in sales domain. Hohenberg and Homburg (2016) successfully applied the SDT to examine the effect of financial and non-financial steering instruments on salesperson innovative-selling motivation and found a strong support for the SDT.

2.4.4. Combining theories

Several authors in the literature sample endeavoured to combine two or more theories of motivation in an attempt to expand the present knowledge on the topic (e.g. job design theory and expectancy theory, Tyagi, 1985c). Hohenberg and Homburg (2016, 117) concluded that "future research could investigate how different motivation theories, such as SDT and expectancy theory, can be integrated to create a more nuanced perspective on intercultural sales force steering". Integrating theories could in some cases prove challenging as different theories are based on different assumptions, constructs, and relationships. And the tradition in academia is to pit one theory against another in competition for best explanatory power. However, Stathakopoulos (1996) in his work on sales force control systems asserted that theories do not necessarily have to be construed as competing, but rather can be built on as complementary to one another.

2.5. Key motivational measures used

In keeping with the conceptual dominance of expectancy theory, many studies have empirically operationalized motivation in line with the expectancy model (e.g. Cron, Dubinsky, & Michaels, 1988; Ingram, Lee, & Skinner, 1989; Tyagi, 1985a; Tyagi, 1985c).

A number of other publications employ more direct measures of IM and EM, while several measures capture the affective and cognitive orientations of IM and EM. Table 2.1. below presents a summary of the key motivational measures used.

Literature stream	How motivation is measured	Examples
Expectancy theory	Multiplication of the expectancy scores (effort-performance relationship), with the product of instrumentality (performance-reward relationship) and valence (rewards-personal goals relationship).	Ingram et al. (1989); Tyagi (1985a); Cron et al. (1988); Ingram et al. (1989); Tyagi (1985a, 1985c).
Attribution theory	A combination of working harder (EM) and smarter (IM).	Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar (1994); Badovick (1990); Schmitz (2013); Verbeke, Belschak, and Bagozzi (2004).
Control systems	Internal (IM) versus external (EM) motivations.	Anderson and Oliver (1987); Oliver and Anderson (1994); Jaramillo, Locander, Spector, and Harris (2007).
Affective and cognitive orientations of IM and EM	Specifically use designated scales for each of the four motivational orientations (originally developed by T. M. Amabile et al., 1994).	Miao and Evans (2012); Miao et al. (2007); Miao, Lund, and Evans (2009)

Table 2.1. *Summary of the key motivational measures used.*

In short, although motivation is measured in various ways, a trend is apparent nonetheless. Most IM scales largely incorporate both affective (task enjoyment) and cognitive (challenge seeking) orientations of IM, while the measurement of EM in most cases essentially captures the cognitive orientation only (compensation seeking),

ignoring the affective orientation (recognition seeking). This is largely in line with the trends in a wider organisational psychology literature (Kanfer et al., 2017).

2.6. Key methodologies employed

Methodological trends within the salesperson motivation literature are in line with those in sales research in general (Asare, Yang, & Alejandro, 2012; Williams & Plouffe, 2007). That is, the field is largely dominated by quantitative methodology - specifically survey research. The Figure 2.3. portrays the key methodologies employed within the pool of articles.
Within this pool, 51 articles out of 63 utilized some form of cross-sectional survey approach.

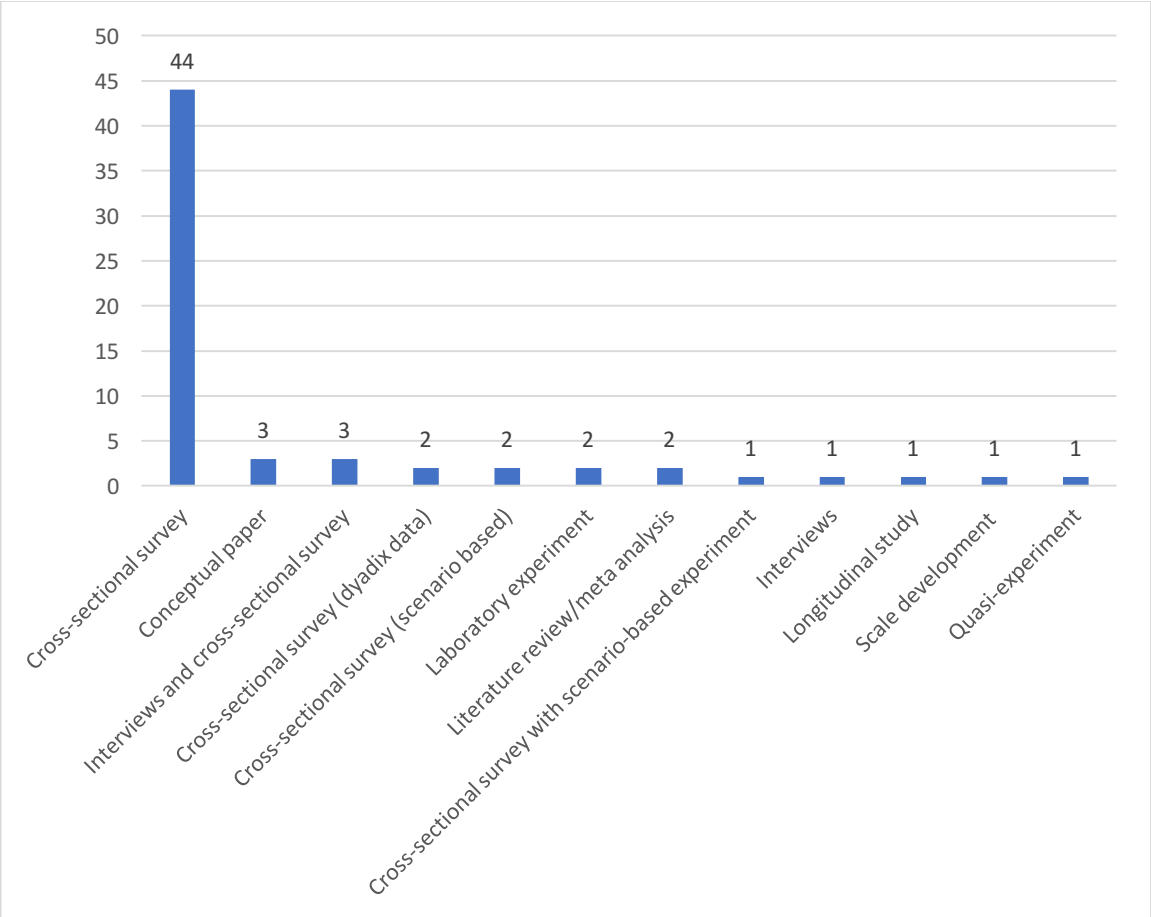


Figure 2.3. *Key methodologies.*

Now that the key theories, measurements and methodologies have been identified, the next section present the key literature on salesperson motivation, i.e. motivational drivers and outcomes and combined IM and EM of salespeople.

2.7. Salesperson motivation: drivers and outcomes

The literature on salesperson motivation has been concerned largely with the drivers and outcomes of motivation (Pullins, 2001). The following two sections are dedicated to the drivers and outcomes of IM and EM of salespeople, followed by a third section presenting a synergetic view of combining IM and EM of salespeople.

2.7.1. Drivers of salesperson motivation

Studies on the drivers of salesperson motivation can be largely grouped into (1) organisational level variables and (2) individual level variables. Organisational level variables include those such as job-related factors, organisational stress, and sales force control systems, while individual level variables include demographics (e.g. age and gender), personal feelings and emotions. Both sets of variables have been popular topics of analysis for sales researchers, and the next session discusses the organisational level variables.

Organisational level variables

The organisational variable of job importance has produced mixed results. For instance, job importance was found to be a strong predictor of both IM and EM (Tyagi, 1985b) or only a mild predictor and only of EM (Tyagi, 1982). Further to this, supervisory support was found to have a significant impact on salesperson EM (Tyagi, 1985a, 1985c) and on salesperson IM (Jaramillo & Mulki, 2008; Tyagi, 1982), or no impact at all (Kemp, Borders, & Ricks, 2013). Positive working environment (Kemp et al., 2013), organisational identification (Tyagi, 1982), and salesperson-brand relationship (Michel, Merk, & Eroglu, 2015) were reported to enhance salesperson motivation.

In addition, a number of studies have examined the effect of sales job related factors vis-à-vis job design theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). These findings reveal that organisational stress, emotional exhaustion, and role conflict and overload negatively impact both IM and EM (Kemp et al., 2013; Tyagi, 1982, 1985a), with role overload having a far stronger effect on IM rather than on EM and role ambiguity having no significant effect on either IM or EM (Tyagi, 1985a). In line with wider research on organisational stress (e.g. Everly & Girdano, 1980; Selye, 1978; Singh, 1998), moderate levels of stress were reported to be beneficial to enhancing salesperson motivation, whereas high levels of stress are detrimental to it (Tyagi, 1985a).

An array of studies has examined the effect of sales force control systems on salesperson motivation, and Oliver and Anderson (1994) were pioneers in this field. They report that sales force control systems are important drivers of salespeople's affective and motivational states. Specifically, behaviour-based control was found to be linked with greater IM, whereas outcome-based control was linked with greater EM. Further to this, behaviour activity control was found to play a negative moderating role in the relationship between the proportion of commission (in total compensation) and IM.

Miao and Evans (2012) further investigated this question and found that a combination of the capability and outcome-based control systems enhanced IM, but a combination of capability and activity control can decrease it. Further, Hohenberg and Homburg (2016) utilized an SDT approach (Ryan & Deci, 2000b), and concluded that both behaviour-based and outcome-based steering instruments can increase salesperson’s autonomous (intrinsic) innovation-selling motivation and financial performance.

Miao et al. (2007) however found that disaggregating IM and EM into their cognitive and affective orientations led to more nuanced findings in terms of the effect of control systems. Specifically, activity (behaviour-based) control was positively related to the affective orientation (recognition seeking) aspect of EM. In contrast capability (behaviour-based) control was positively related to the cognitive orientation of EM (compensation seeking). In addition, they found that activity control mainly affects challenge seeking (the cognitive orientation of IM), whereas capability control mainly affects task enjoyment (the affective orientation of IM).

Research in psychology (see Kanfer et al., 2017 for summary) also highlights the importance of considering cognitive and affective processes of human motivation. Kanfer et al. (2017) conclude that historically, motivational theories have primarily concentrated on the cognitive side of motivation somewhat overlooking the affective motivational processes. However, psychological research over the last few decades has progressed into including affect and emotion into the studies on motivation, which offers directions for the future theory development in the field of motivation (Kanfer et al., 2017). In this light, including both affective and cognitive orientations when studying IM and EM of salespeople seems especially sound.

Individual level variables

Several individual level variables have been found to influence motivation. For instance, salesperson motivation may vary significantly depending on age/career stage (Cron et al., 1988). This can be explained by salespeople's differences in valence for rewards, and whether these rewards contribute to a sense of accomplishment and career development aimed at different career stages. When IM and EM are disaggregated into their affective and cognitive orientations, the findings are somewhat different. Specifically, the cognitive orientation of IM and EM changes throughout career stages, whereas the affective dimension of IM and EM does not (Miao et al., 2009). Motivational perceptions were also found to vary significantly across certain national cultures (Dubinsky, Kotabe, Lim, & Michaels, 1994). Finally, Fine and Pullins (1998) in their study of the mentor-protégée relationship discovered differences in motivational variables between men and women within this relationship, a finding with a potentially fruitful implication for future research.

Personal feelings and emotions also have been demonstrated to play an important role in salesperson motivation (Badovick, 1990; Badovick, Hadaway, & Kaminski, 1992; Verbeke et al., 2004). Badovick (1990) found that feelings of self-blame after a failure to complete a quota and feelings of satisfaction in performance after completing a quota have different effects on salesperson motivation. Verbeke et al. (2004) reported that feelings of pride were also found to be an important driver of motivation (Verbeke et al., 2004). Feelings of fulfilment and enjoyment of being instrumental to the customer

(customer orientation) was found to have a direct positive impact on salesperson IM (Mallin & Pullins, 2009). Finally, perceptions of fairness (perceptions of gaining or losing sales potential in a territory realignment context) were found to be a significant predictor of salesperson motivation (Smith, Jones, & Blair, 2000); and satisfaction with territory design were reported to have a positive impact on salesperson IM (K. Grant, Cravens, Low, & Moncrief, 2001).

2.7.2. Outcomes of salesperson motivation

Interestingly, outcomes of salesperson motivation have been somewhat less extensively studied than that of the drivers. Early research on motivation revealed highly inconsistent findings. Some studies report IM as a stronger predictor of performance outcomes, whereas other studies argue in favour of EM. Specifically, Oliver (1974) found IM to be a poor predictor of performance while extrinsic motivation was effective in predicting it. The author even suggested that IM might be dysfunctional in influencing performance. These conclusions found support in a study by Ingram et al. (1989), who also reported that IM did not impact performance (via effort) whereas EM had a significant impact. Contrary to this, Tyagi (1985c) found that IM had a stronger effect on work performance compared with EM, while Jaramillo and Mulki (2008) reported that IM had a positive impact on salesperson effort but EM had a negative impact.

More recent studies have demonstrated a pattern that was more in favour of IM, which is fundamentally consistent with findings on employee motivation in I/O psychology literature. Specifically, Levin, Hansen, and Laverie (2012) found that both IM and EM had a positive impact on the intention to use (sales- and marketing-related) technology. Miao and Evans (2007) reported that although both IM and EM contribute to performance, salesperson IM results in higher levels of performance than EM. In particular, intrinsically motivated salespeople were more likely to practice adaptive selling which led to enhanced performance (Jaramillo et al., 2007; Pettijohn, Pettijohn, & Taylor, 2002; Roman & Iacobucci, 2010). They consider failures as a learning opportunity that helps them to improve in the future (Sujan, 1986), which also implies

an important performance consequence. IM was also found to increase job satisfaction (Grant et al., 2001; Low, Cravens, Grant, & Moncrief, 2001), which again is linked with performance.

Sujan (1986) using attribution theory found that IM led salespeople to attribute failures to poor strategies. This in turn motivated them to work smarter, which had a more important performance implication than EM. In contrast, EM led salespeople to attribute failures to insufficient effort, which in turn motivated them to work harder. Building on this, more recent studies have found that in comparison to IM, EM salespeople are more willing to work both smarter and harder (Jaramillo & Mulki, 2008; Oliver & Anderson, 1994), which in turn has important bottom line implications.

Research on motivation has also studied negative job outcomes, such as role conflict and ambiguity and burnout. IM has been found to reduce burnout, perceptions of role ambiguity and role conflict (Grant et al., 2001; Keaveney & Nelson, 1993; Low et al., 2001),, and also to contribute to a lessening in the tendency to engage in problematic behaviours (Murphy, 2004). However, these findings may be seen in a different light when IM is further disaggregated into its orientations. For example, challenge seeking (IM), was found to decrease salesperson role conflict while task enjoyment (IM) was found to increase role ambiguity (Miao & Evans, 2007; Miao et al., 2007). The two EM orientations have also been found to work in opposition. Specifically, compensation seeking (EM) was found to decrease role conflict, whereas recognition seeking (EM) was found to increase it (Miao & Evans, 2007).

Finally, a number of studies have examined the relationship between salesperson motivation and job satisfaction. For instance, motivation for recognition (EM, affective) was found to have a direct positive effect on job satisfaction (Tanner, Tanner, & Wakefield, 2015). Miao and Evans (2014) found that the two extrinsic motivational orientations have different effects on job satisfaction depending on the proportion of new customers they are dealing with. Specifically, the authors demonstrated that compensation seeking (EM) enhanced job satisfaction only when salespeople were dealing with lower percentages of new customers, but recognition seeking (EM) enhanced job satisfaction when salespeople were dealing with higher percentages of

new accounts. In tandem, compensation seeking (EM) led to higher levels of performance when salespeople dealt with more new customers, but the opposite was true for challenge seeking (IM).

2.7.3. Combining the types of salesperson motivation

This literature on the outcomes of salesperson motivation demonstrates that IM is generally associated with higher levels of performance and other important salesperson job outcomes than EM. However, as later studies demonstrate, when IM and EM are disaggregated into the cognitive and affective orientations, the results do not appear to be solely in favour of IM. Moreover, in reality in most work situations people are motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators (T. M. Amabile, 1993). Hence, examining a combined effect of IM and EM and their orientations would appear likely to produce more nuanced findings.

A limited number of studies on this subject exist in the sales domain, which primarily explore the effect of salesperson compensation (EM) on IM. For instance, Weitz et al. (1986) in their conceptual work proposed that the use of EM (incentive compensation) has a diminishing effect on IM orientation, especially if controlling rather than informational aspects of incentives are emphasized. Ingram and Bellenger (1983) found that salespeople on commission-based compensation plans (performance contingent extrinsic rewards) valued IM such as personal growth significantly higher than those salespeople on straight salary (performance non-contingent reward). Pullins (2001) has suggested that sales researchers should more vigorously investigate the impact of IM on salesperson EM.

2.8. Key literature summary, research gap and key future research directions

Based on the reviewed literature, the future research directions are structured into the following subcategories: (1) emerging trends and future research suggestions (digital technologies, team-based structures, salesperson ambidexterity, longitudinal research,

and curvilinear relationships); (2) drivers of salesperson motivation; (3) outcomes of salesperson motivation; and (4) other important variables.

2.8.1. Emerging trends and future research suggestions

First, the emergence of innovative digital technologies, including social media (e.g. LinkedIn, Twitter, Facebook), communication technologies (e.g. Skype, WebEx), cloud-based CRM technologies, mapping software, and apps has opened up new opportunities for the sales profession. These new digital technologies have paved the way to the era of big data (France & Ghose, 2016) where large datasets of customer information are readily available. Salespeople can help in interpreting customer information, market trends, and identifying latent customer needs. However, working with big data implies a motivational challenge, as a salesperson's motivation is geared to the face-to-face encounter with the customers with focus on interpersonal communication skills such as presenting, negotiating, and listening.

Prior studies have mainly relied on the Technology Readiness Index (Parasuraman, 2000) and the Technology Acceptance Model (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000) to examine the driving role of EM and IM factors to the adoption of traditional offline sales technologies. Compared to these traditional technologies, innovative digital technologies often are more complex and integrative in nature, requiring a broader scope and more profound intellectual effort from the salesperson. For instance, the use of cloud-based sales technologies (e.g. Womack, 2017) and the integration of different types of information from different types of channels and actors implies a different and more demanding way of working that may disrupt existing selling routines. As a result, salespeople often are more hesitant to use these innovative digital technologies. Moreover, they may be afraid that adoption of the innovative technologies will lead to the automation of important aspects of their job activities and put their job at risk. Therefore, one major challenge concerns how to effectively motivate salespeople to adopt digital technologies and effectively operate in this transformative and changing context.

Second, the introduction of team and network-based structures (Stock, 2006) has highlighted the importance of interpersonal dynamics as a key aspect of sales force motivation strategies. This underlines the importance of examining the role of team dynamics and interpersonal interactions with co-workers as drivers of salesperson motivation. The purpose of sales teams is having salespeople work together "to create synergies among team members with different levels of skills and experiences" (Ahearne, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, Mathieu, & Lam, 2010, p. 461). The use of such team-based structures implies that salespeople should be motivated to fulfil an additional role of helping and supporting colleagues in their sales team. Yet, both academics and practitioners recognize the importance of properly balancing salespeople's motivation to effectively sell products and help colleagues on the team. This presents a challenge as many sales teams still are dominated by self-interest—where salespeople tend to focus on maximizing personal utility with little room for displaying prosocial behaviours, such as helping other colleagues in the team. More research is needed to examine how to adequately regulate salesperson motivation in team-based settings such that it yields a maximal result in terms of selling products and helping colleagues.

Future research could draw on the motivation, opportunity, and ability framework (MacInnis, Moorman, & Jaworski, 1991) to acquire more insight into salespeople's motivation to help colleagues and sell products by considering their *ability* and the emerging *opportunity* to help colleagues on the team. Furthermore, it is recommended that insights from literatures in social identity theory, social exchange theory, and social network theory can be borrowed to get better insight into the nature of salesperson motivation to sell in team-based structures (MacInnis et al., 1991; Schmitz, 2013).

A related phenomenon is the emergence of global virtual sales teams (Badrinarayanan et al., 2011) and the use of groupware technology as a communication tool in those virtual teams (Janson et al., 2014). In a virtual context, it is more challenging to motivate salespeople, as managers have less capacity to control them. Then too, in a global virtual environment, clients may be doing business multiple time zones away and expect salespeople to be at their beckon call by virtual means during hours well outside the "normal work day" (Marshall et al., 2012).

Third, the traditional role of the salesperson is to carry out the different steps of the selling process, such as prospecting, approaching, negotiating, and closing the sale. However, the modern salesperson's job responsibilities have become much broader. Many salespeople operate in a multi-task environments where they are engaged across greatly expended tasks and roles. In many modern companies salespeople have to go beyond the straightforward selling task and also perform marketing activities (Moncrief & Marshall, 2005), combine the sale of products with the provision of high-quality customer service (Jasmand, Blazevic, & de Ruyter, 2012), or balance the traditional selling task with new selling approaches (der Borgh, de Jong, & Nijssen, 2015). Also, as mentioned earlier, team-based settings necessitate that salespeople combine additional prosocial behaviours such as helping colleagues with the gamut of selling responsibilities. Future research along these lines can make use of the literature on ambidexterity, which is the ability to combine potentially conflicting role activities to investigate how salespeople can successfully combine and integrate multiple roles (March, 1991; Tushman & O'Reilly, 1996). Other theoretical approaches that can yield better insights into how to effectively balance different roles in sales include role balance theory (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003; Marks & MacDermid, 1996) and role theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Role balance refers to the equal engagement of an individual in the performance of every role in his or her total role system (Marks & MacDermid, 1996).

Another important emerging theory of motivation that can be fruitful in studying salesperson motivation is Vancouver's (2008) dynamic process theory of self-regulation. This theory incorporates both cognitive and affective processes by utilizing the notion of goal systems to understand a person's acting, thinking, learning, and feeling (Vancouver, 2008). This is particularly relevant in sales roles when salespeople often work toward multiple goals.

Fourth, there is a strong call for adapting longitudinal techniques in sales research to "gain a more nuanced understanding of many of the most commonly studied phenomena in our field" (Bolander, Dugan, & Jones, 2017). Researcher psychologists in the area of employee motivation assert that it is of crucial importance to adapt a

dynamic interactionist approach to studying motivation in order to track how motivational variables change and develop over time (Kanfer et al., 2017). Advanced longitudinal techniques and multi-source data (e.g. as it was done by Fu, Richards, & Jones, 2009) can assist in exploring the cause-and-effect dynamics of salesperson motivation over time and as such further strengthen and develop the theoretical framework of the domain (Bolander et al., 2017). Another approach is Steel and König's (2006) temporal motivation theory (TMT), which is grounded on the premises of expectancy theory, picoeconomics, cumulative prospect theory, and need theory. TMT strives to provide "unifying insights from several theories of motivation" (Steel & Konig, 2006, 907). Importantly for sales research, it defines expectancy and valence in truly *dynamic* terms. It also incorporates time to deadlines as a predictor for subjective utility followed by task choices over time (Vancouver, Weinhardt, & Schmidt, 2010).

Finally, an interesting avenue for future research is to explore the possibility of curvilinear relationships (Walton, 1969) between motivational and outcome (e.g. task performance, salesperson well-being, customer satisfaction) variables. For instance, a number of studies have found support for a presence of a U-shaped relationship between assigned goals and selling effort (Fang, Palmatier, & Evans, 2004), quota levels and salesperson performance (Chowdhury, 1993),and task conflict and employee creativity (De Dreu, 2006). This raises the intriguing question: Is it possible to be too much motivated and is there a point of optimal level of motivation?

2.8.2. Drivers of salesperson motivation

Although sales motivation research to date has examined several drivers of salesperson motivation, there appears to be a scarcity of knowledge on certain types of drivers of salesperson motivation – such as monetary versus non-monetary rewards.

One of the key challenges faced by sales motivation researchers is the assessment of the role of EM rewards such as financial incentives on IM variables. Pullins (2001) summarized several propositions on this topic, most of which have not been addressed to date. Generally, extrinsic rewards have been found to have an undermining effect on

IM, especially when such rewards are offered for highly interesting tasks and are contingent on performance (as summarised by Kanfer et al., 2017). It is known that sales compensation packages commonly consist of bonuses and commissions which are contingent to certain performance achievements (Kishore et al., 2013), hence these could be detrimental to IM. Mallin and Pullins (2009) found that sales force steering mechanisms (behaviour activity control) negatively moderated the relationship between proportion of variable pay and IM. Careful utilization of the right (combination of) incentives as well as work environment contexts (e.g. sales force steering mechanisms) which would not harm IM but perhaps even enhance it appears to be critical in this light. Indeed, the most recent meta-analysis on this subject (Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Ford, 2014), which included 40 years of research and nine previously published meta-analyses, has demonstrated that although extrinsic rewards (incentives) can undermine IM, in truth EM and IM can still co-exist. Future research could investigate how salespeople's motivational orientations might work in synergy (as proposed by T. M. Amabile, 1993) by employing extrinsic rewards in such a way that they enhance IM.

Another key question is linked to non-monetary rewards. It has long been accepted that personal recognition, defined as "periodic acknowledgement of performance accomplishments of individual salespeople" (Wotruba et al., 1991, 9), is one of the important non-monetary rewards available to salespeople (Bellenger, Wilcox, & Ingram, 1984; Chonko, Tanner Jr, & Weeks, 1992; Churchill Jr, Ford, & Walker Jr, 1979). However, the current knowledge on the effect of such non-monetary rewards on salesperson IM and EM and performance is scarce. A potentially interesting research avenue lies in investigating the effect of non-monetary rewards on IM and EM as well as the combined effect of monetary incentives and non-monetary rewards on salesperson IM and EM and the four motivational orientations.

Finally, several studies within the sales domain have emphasized the importance of positive working environment and supervisory support in influencing salesperson behaviours (Jaramillo & Mulki, 2008; Kemp et al., 2013; Tyagi, 1982, 1985a, 1985b). These ideas are echoed in the organisational leadership literature (much of which is

summarized by Bass & Stogdill, 1990) which has demonstrated that charismatic leaders have highly motivated employees. However, how these influencers of motivation affect specific motivational orientations has not been explored to date. Hence, a potentially fruitful avenue for research is how sales leader behaviour can influence the four motivational orientations.

2.8.3. Outcomes of salesperson motivation

To-date much of the research on outcomes of salesperson motivation is concerned with salesperson performance, for several good reasons. For example, the sales force typically accounts for the largest part of the marketing budget and marketing personnel (Cravens et al., 1993), hence their actual performance is of crucial prominence in terms of ROI. That is, sales organisation performance has important direct bottom-line implications (MacKenzie et al., 1998). However, contemporary research in other areas of the sales domain as well as in the wider marketing literature includes other types of job outcomes that are subjective or behavioural in nature. Examples include salesperson innovativeness and creativity (e.g. Bai, Lin, & Li, 2016; Miao & Wang, 2016), work-life balance (e.g. Badrinarayanan, Dixon, West, & Zank, 2015; Closs, Speier, & Meacham, 2011) and work engagement (e.g. Fujimoto, Ferdous, Sekiguchi, & Sugianto, 2016; Menguc et al., 2017). Such work outcomes are commonly found to have important implications for overall organisational development, customer orientation, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and performance (e.g. T. M. Amabile, 1996; Bai et al., 2016; Miao & Wang, 2016; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). Future research could benefit by incorporating more of these behavioural job outcomes into studies on salesperson IM and EM in order to gain a richer understanding of the consequences of salesperson motivation.

2.8.4. Other important variables

As discussed earlier in this chapter, salesperson motivation research has gone from studying a global motivation construct to looking at IM and EM and to further

disaggregating these into the cognitive and affective motivational orientations. Extant research findings suggest that these motivational orientations have distinct antecedents and consequences. Hence, an opportunity exists for future research to further examine the four motivational orientations, incorporating their drivers and outcomes at individual and organisational levels.

In addition, research demonstrates the importance of personality traits and personal characteristics of salespeople in the field of salesperson motivation. Chonko et al. (1992) suggested that salesperson personality traits and personal characteristics be taken into consideration when motivating salespeople. Indeed, B2B salespeople have been found to choose combinations of jobs and pay contracts that suit their heterogeneous traits (Lo, Ghosh, & Lafontaine, 2011). Further research on salesperson motivation could incorporate personality traits such as the "Big Five" into the research framework (e.g. the Big Five personality traits, He, Wang, Zhu, & Harris, 2015).

Research also demonstrates that motivational variables could differ for males versus female salespeople (e.g. Jaramillo & Mulki, 2008). For instance, men and women were found to have differences in the ways motivational variables change across career stages (Cron et al., 1988) and in the motivational variables in the mentor-protégé relationship (Fine & Pullins, 1998). More recent studies in sales have also demonstrated the importance of incorporating gender in sales force research (Rutherford, Marshall, & Park, 2014). Boles, Madupalli, Rutherford, and Andy Wood (2007) reported significant differences between male and female salespeople in the relationship between aspects of job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment. Rutherford et al. (2014) found that there are important gender effects in such areas of sales job as perceived organisational support, work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion. Finally, Karkoulian, Srour, and Sinan (2016) in their study on work-life balance, perceived stress, and locus of control demonstrated the importance of this gender perspective. Future research investigating this matter in the sales context could offer fruitful insights on the topic of salesperson motivation, particularly since the percentage of females in B2B sales roles is rising.

2.9. Conclusion

This chapter presented a systematic review of the relevant literature on salesperson motivation drawing the relevant conceptualisations from organisational psychology domain.

Although theory development has progressed in this area, and has generally become more nuanced in terms of insights presented by academic research into salesperson motivation, a number of significant and new motivation-related challenges faced by sales organisations are identified in the present literature review.

One of the main challenges to sales motivation research in particular is in "its ability to provide sales executives with actionable guidance" (Asare et al., 2012, p. 387). Hence, it is of crucial importance that sales motivation research remains current, in order to inform and help organisations address new and emerging challenges. Sales leaders and managers must become aware of different types of motivation, as well as their potential to work in synergy to increase important job outcomes.

Now that the key literature on salesperson motivation has been reviewed and outlined, the next chapter (Chapter 3) presents the key considerations on the research methodology.

Chapter 3. Research Methodology

3.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to outline the general methodology utilised to investigate the affective and cognitive orientations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of salespeople.

The chapter begins with discussion of the philosophical grounds of the thesis. Specifically, with the research paradigm, epistemology and ontology (section 3.2.). Next, the rational for the choice of the research design is discussed (section 3.3.) and the longitudinal versus cross-sectional data choices are reviewed (section 3.4.) This is then followed by a presentation of the choice of respondents (section 3.5.) and methods of administration (section 3.6.). The next two sections are dedicated to the measuring instrument (section 3.7.) and to designing and pretesting the questionnaire (section 3.8.). The final two sections present ethical considerations (section 3.9.) and conclusion (section 3.10).

A more detailed description of methods utilised in each study is outlined in each corresponding chapter (Chapter 4 and Chapter 5).

3.2. Research paradigm, epistemology and ontology

This section aims to underline the philosophical approach that guided this research. Research paradigm is "a set of ideas, theories and methods used in a science" (Lee & Lings, 2008, p. 38). This set of ideas and theories forms a conceptual and philosophical framework for the discipline. To compare different philosophical positions, they may be considered through epistemology, ontology and methodology (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). These are so called the 'ologies' that help to understand various concepts in the knowledge generation process (Lee & Lings, 2008).

Ontology refers to a set of beliefs about what the nature of the reality studied by the researcher (Gray, 2013). This form the key question here: is reality objective and

independent from a researcher's own experience of it or is it created by those experiencing it (Lee & Lings, 2008).

Epistemology follows on from ontology (Lee & Lings, 2008). It deals with assumptions on what encompasses acceptable and valid knowledge (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). In other words, epistemology deals with what is possible to know about the reality.

Methodology deals with methods used in a research (Gray, 2013). This will be discussed in greater detail in the following sections.

The two major epistemological approaches that prevail social sciences are positivism and realism (Lee & Lings, 2008). Positivism which is most often associated with scientific method suggests that reality is external to the researcher and "must be investigated through the rigorous process of scientific inquiry" (Gray, 2013, p. 20). Positivists would argue that reality only consists of what is directly observable (Lee & Lings, 2008). For instance employee's motivation cannot be directly observed; the observable incident is the consequence or outcome (performance). Motivation is an unobservable (latent) construct and is an important concept of psychological theory (ibid). Thus, according to a positivist view, these constructs just don't exist.

Realism represents an alternative philosophy. It is described as a general theory of scientific knowledge (Feyerabend, 1985). Realism implies that the reality exists, but a researcher only interprets observations of it; latent variables can be measured; and that a researcher needs to theorise casual relationships (Lee & Lings, 2008). Going back to the example on human motivation, realists would argue that although motivation cannot be directly observed, it can be measured and studied "in the context of theoretical explanations"" (Lee & Lings, 2008, p. 30).

The discussed categories of scientific paradigms and their elements are summarised in the table 3.1. below.

	Paradigm	
Element	**Positivism**	**Realism**
Ontology	Reality is real and apprehensible.	Reality is "real" but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible.
Epistemology	Objectivist: findings true.	Modified objectivist: findings probably true.
Methodology	Experiment/surveys: verification of hypothesis, chiefly quantitative methods	Case-studies/convergent interviewing: triangulation, interpretation of research issues by qualitative and by some quantitative methods such as structural equation modelling.

Table 3.1. *Scientific paradigms and their elements. Adapted from Healy and Perry (2000, p. 119).*

It is recognised that in the last few decades borders between different research philosophies may have become more vague (Miles & Huberman, 1994), and it could be challenging to describe a research study as precisely following single specific research philosophy (Tesch, 1995). However, it appears advisable that a researcher defines their preference towards the philosophical approach utilised in a research (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Current research investigates the combinations of various components of human motivation and their relationship to job outcomes. At the heart of this research is a study of latent variable of human motivation. Hence, realism is a more relevant philosophy for this study than pure positivism.

Now that research philosophy is outlined, the next step is to discuss the methodology in more detail. Specifically, the next section presents discussion on the research design.

3.3. Choice of the research design

According to its purpose research can be classified into exploratory, descriptive and explanatory (Lee & Lings, 2008). Descriptive studies aim to explore the research area and 'draw a picture' of a phenomenon (Gray, 2013). They may be appropriate in the areas where not enough is known about the phenomenon (Punch, 2013). In areas where research is well established with a relatively extensive number of descriptive studies exist, an exploratory approach is recommended (Gray, 2013). While exploratory research answers 'what' type of questions, explanatory research seeks to answer 'why' and 'how' types of questions (ibid).

Churchill and Iacobucci (2006) suggest that exploratory research, such as e.g. literature review, could provide a solid foundation for a research project. It is suggested that in the present research project, the literature review presented in Chapter 2 forms the exploratory stage of the project. It therefore provides a foundation for a descriptive part of this research project which is outlined in the following sections of this chapter.

Next step is to consider quantitative and qualitative techniques to be utilised in a research project. Qualitative approach is generally concerned with understanding human behaviour from the actor's perspective; it is subjective and uses uncontrolled, naturalistic observational measurement (Deshpande, 1983). It is exploratory, and discovery-oriented in nature (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006). On the other hand, quantitative approach employs quantitative techniques and is generally concerned with understanding the facts and causes of social phenomenon, uses controlled measurement, and is objective, ungrounded, verification-oriented, deductive and reductionist in nature (Deshpande, 1983). Asare et al. (2012) in their work on the state of research methods in sales literature posit that quantitative methodology is the most common approach in sales research in general. Since the present research project builds on prior research and is primarily verification-oriented, a quantitative approach deems to be more appropriate (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006).

The present research project builds on prior research (e.g. T. M. Amabile, 1993; T. M. Amabile et al., 1994; Kanfer et al., 2017; Kooij, De Lange, Jansen, Kanfer, & Dikkers,

2011; Miao & Evans, 2007; Miao et al., 2007; Miao et al., 2009). Specifically, it draws on an extensive prior research in psychology and organisational psychology domain (see e.g. Kanfer et al., 2017 for an up to date literature review of the field) and on the research on motivation in the sales domain (e.g. Miao & Evans, 2007; Miao & Evans, 2014; Miao et al., 2007) to advance and extend the present knowledge on the topic. The maturity of the field is reflected in the large number of studies published over the last century (Kanfer et al., 2017).

Further to this, the essence of motivational orientations and their measurement was based on the thorough work by the theorists and researchers within the field which have been explored, described and tested on children, students and adults over the years (see T. Amabile, 1989; T. M. Amabile et al., 1994; Deci & Ryan, 1985a).

Finally, as Lee and Lings (2008) suggest, research design should be defined by nature of the research questions. This research, hence, is primarily verification-oriented which suggests that a quantitative approach deems to be more appropriate (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006).

Next step is to consider primary and secondary data collection. Primary data is collected in order to answer a specific research question, whereas secondary data is collected for reasons other than answering a specific research question (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). This PhD project is set to answer specific research questions which have not been explored previously. Thus, primary data is collected in this project.

A final step is to decide on how the data is to be collected. There are two main types of data collection: interactive and non-interactive (Lee & Lings, 2008). Interactive methods mainly include various types of survey whereas non-interactive methods involve mainly observations with researcher recording information about the participants (Lee & Lings, 2008). Although non-interactive methods can be described as being more flexible, they can be highly time and resource intensive (Walliman, 2011). Surveys are far less resource and time consuming (Harvey, 1987) and also can be seen as being more objective (Lee & Lings, 2008). In addition, they allow researcher to collect large amount of data (Jobber, 1989) which helps to settle generalisability problems (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006).

Hence, primary data was collected using a survey method. Further details on the data collection process are outlined and discussed in the next section.

3.4. Longitudinal versus cross-sectional data

There are two main types of survey design depending on time horizon chosen: cross-sectional and longitudinal (Saunders et al., 2012). Longitudinal design can be described as a diary perspective of a problem taken over a period of time whereas cross-sectional design is a 'snapshot' of a problem in a given point in time (Saunders et al., 2012).

In longitudinal studies a researcher collects data from the same sample multiple times over a certain period of time (Lee & Lings, 2008). One of its key benefits is that longitudinal studies are generally considered to offer a strong evidence of causality (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006). It is also considered to be helpful in overcoming a common method bias problems (Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005).

However, longitudinal studies have several drawbacks. Specifically, they are usually associated with smaller sample sizes due to the fact that they are highly resource intensive (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006). Due to the nature of longitudinal studies (measures are being taken repeatedly in time), it is far more time consuming and also require more financial resources, hence are often considered expensive and challenging (Lee & Lings, 2008).

In cross-sectional studies a researcher collects data on all the variables at a single point in time (Lee & Lings, 2008). One of the major issues associated with cross-sectional studies is in assessing causality which requires researcher to control the time and order of the measured constructs (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000). Specifically, when analysing cross-sectional data, a researcher can be described as being limited to drawing patterns of correlations between variables as opposed to claiming causality (Cadogan, Paul, Salminen, Puumalainen, & Sundqvist, 2001). Causality establishes relationships of the cause and effect and is often associated with experimental research (Churchill &

Iacobucci, 2006). Since the present research is building of the extensive body of motivational research (as discussed in section 3.3. above), any causal relationships and conclusions are based on the theory and prior research which was used for hypothesis development in the present study.

Another possible drawback is an issue of common method bias (MacKenzie et al., 2005). However, it was found that common method bias can be unproblematic when relationships between constructs investigated are quite large in magnitude (Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan, & Moorman, 2008). Additionally, given that appropriate sample is selected, cross-sectional studies can attain higher external validity and allow a researcher to collect data on far more variables and on larger samples (Lee & Lings, 2008). Furthermore, cross-sectional research is supported by the many examples of studies of a similar kind in sales and marketing research that also employ cross-sectional design (e.g. Flaherty, Mowen, Brown, & Marshall, 2008; Licata, Mowen, Harris, & Brown, 2003; Menguc & Barker, 2003; Miao & Evans, 2014; Murphy, Dacin, & Ford, 2004).

Therefore, based on the reasons outlined above and given the time and cost constraints in the present PhD project, cross-sectional design was selected over longitudinal design. Now that the research approach has been outlined, the next step is to decide on the choice of respondents.

3.5. Choice of respondents

Various respondents may be used in sales research, including sales managers, salespeople or a dyadic approach when both sales managers and salespeople participate in a study. The choice hence should be directed by the nature of the research. The current research project explores the effects of combinations of motivational orientations on performance and work engagement of salespeople. Specifically, motivational orientations are described as psychological states or even in some cases as inner traits (T. M. Amabile, 1993; T. M. Amabile et al., 1994). Thus, they are internal to an individual. In a similar vein, work engagement is defined as a certain state of mind associated with (internal) feelings of happiness, absorption and dedication (Salanova,

Agut, & Peiró, 2005). Such psychological states can be depicted by a person himself. Therefore, it appears logical to use salespeople as main source of data for these constructs.

However, when it comes to the main outcome variable which is salesperson performance, it is important to note how this construct differs from the other more internal variables. Specifically, salesperson outcome performance can be described as results or 'outputs' (Churchill, Ford, Hartley, & Walker, 1985) that are attributed to salesperson's selling behaviour (Baldauf, Cravens, & Piercy, 2001). Although such results are almost certainly consequences of salesperson's actions and behaviours, they are ultimately external to the person himself, i.e. can be either self-measured or 'more objective' (Churchill et al., 1985). Dyadic studies of both salespeople and their manager have previously been used in sales literature (e.g. MacKenzie et al., 1998; Oliver & Anderson, 1994; Russ, McNeilly, & Comer, 1996). In such studies, sales managers were asked to rate performance levels of their salespeople which provided a more objective data on performance than self-reports. Obtaining objective sales performance measures is often difficult and can be very time consuming (Shannahan, Bush, & Shannahan, 2013). The main issue here is that any self-reported performance ratings must be pair coordinated with the responses of their sales managers, and if any of the responses in a pair salesperson-sales manager is missing, the whole set of responses from that salesperson is discarded. This means that a samples size is required to be substantially larger. Further to this, Churchill et al. (1985) and Behrman and Perreault Jr (1982) posit that using self-reported performance measures do not create significant differences in findings and are generally acceptable. For these reasons, dyadic data was discarded as an option for the main studies in this research project, and salesperson was chosen as the most appropriate respondent for the main studies in this research project.

Now that the choice of respondents is finalised, the next step is to decide on the method of administration.

3.6. Method of administration

There are generally four methods of collecting cross-sectional survey data: mail, telephone, personal and the internet (Lee & Lings, 2008). Each method has its advantages and disadvantages (see e.g. Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006, for a summary). This section outlines the critical reasons for choosing the internet as the most appropriate method of administration for the present research project.

The rapid rise of technology usage in sales has been well documented (see e.g. Christ & Anderson, 2011 for a review). Salespeople are increasingly reported to widely utilising the 'always-on' communication technology such as the Internet and smartphones (Marshall et al., 2012). Using the Internet as a primary data collection method has major advantages of being convenient, fast and extremely cheap. Specifically, it allows to reach out for wider geographical audiences in a relatively short time (Saunders et al., 2012). This was very important considering the scope of the PhD project for which significant amounts of salesperson data had to be collected within relatively short period of time.

In addition to this, online questionnaires are very quick in administering and have extremely low costs associated with them which is said to make it the future's most popular method of survey administration in the world (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). The software automatically records the answers, and the data is ready for analysis within the minutes. Finally, the availability to the researcher of the online survey software called Qualtrics offered an additional advantage by incorporating the sophisticated tools for designing the questionnaire.

Although the Internet has offered a logical first choice option, other alternatives also had to be taken into the consideration.

Administering the questionnaires over the telephone or in person has been discarded instantaneously due to them being cost and time intensive. Specifically, in-person interviews would require substantial travelling across the UK and even around the world. Hence, this was not feasible for this project. Telephone interviews would also require significant time investment. Furthermore, it would seem difficult to reach salespeople via the telephone due the nature of their job. Specifically, salespeople are

often either on the phone with potential customers or travelling to them. In addition, using telephone is not recommended for lengthy questionnaires (e.g. it is associated with low response rates and non-response bias, Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006), and given the length of the questionnaire needed to measure all the important constructs in this project, telephone was also discarded as potential method of administration.

The final option was the mail questionnaires. Mail questionnaires have been commonly used in sales research (e.g. de Jong, de Ruyter, & Lemmink, 2004; Jaworski & Kohli, 1991; Lee, Cadogan, & Durden, 2007; Marshall, Mowen, & Fabes, 1992), although they also have some disadvantages, (e.g. they are associated with low response rates and non-response bias, Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006; Diamantopoulos, Reynolds, & Schlegelmilch, 1994). This option is relatively low in cost and convenient for the respondents as it can be completed at any time without the reliance on a computer or a smartphone (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006). In order to maximise response rates (discussed in more detail in the sections below), respondents were offered a choice to complete the questionnaire either online, or on paper. Next section covers the design of the measuring instrument.

3.7. The measuring instrument

One of the key questions in conducting survey research is a question of measurement which is described as a "business of quantifying attributes" (Lee & Lings, 2008, p. 139). All questions in the present research project were adapted from the recent marketing and sales literature. A table with scales that will be employed in this research is presented in Appendix 2. These are specifically discussed in more detail in Study one (Chapter 4).

Now that the question of a design of the measuring instrument is settled, the next step is pretesting the questionnaires.

3.8. Pretesting the questionnaire

Pretesting the questionnaire is essential step of questionnaire development and is important step to ensure a successful data collection (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010). Bolton (1993) posits that pretesting questionnaire is a useful way of improving questionnaire as well as identifying and refining defective questions. It also helps to assess the "flow" of the questions, their order, timing required to complete the questionnaires as well as the overall clearness of the instrument (ibid).

Pretesting usually consists of 2 stages – protocol interviews and actual mail pre-test (Lee & Lings, 2008).

3.8.1. Protocols

Protocol interviews (Diamantopoulos et al., 1994), also referred to as think aloud protocol interviews, take a form of personal interviews where researcher takes a passive role of a listener (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010). Protocols are mainly concerned with the following questions (Webb, 1999):

- How clear are the questions to the respondent;
- How easy are the questions to answer;
- Do the questions appear to follow a logical flow;
- Is the length of the questionnaire satisfactory;
- Does the questionnaire appear engaging to the respondents?

One of the most important considerations in preparing protocols is the nature and amount of respondents (Hunt, Sparkman, & Wilcox, 1982). Literature suggests that protocols should be run with a number of knowledgeable people, including experts on survey design, people from the population studied as well as people with an analytical thinking approach (Dillman et al., 2014). Regarding the number of participants for protocols, there appears to be no consensus in the literature with authors quoting from "small" size up to 12 to 20-30 respondents being satisfactory (Hunt et al., 1982). Hence,

Hunt et al. (1982) conclude that this should coincide with the function of the questionnaires as well as with the nature of the target population.

Since the study utilises existing measures, many of which have been tested a number of times, a small number of respondents for protocols was deemed satisfactory. These included four salespeople and 5 survey experts and people with analytical thinking approach. The feedback received was grouped into three categories, namely wording (comments on wording of the questions), structural (comments on the structure and flow of the questionnaires) and general (other general comments and feedback on the questionnaires). Both paper and e-copy of questionnaires have been pre-tested during the protocols. A table with a summary of the main feedback received from the respondents is presented in Appendix 3.

Overall, the feedback suggested that the questionnaires are of a “tolerable” length, that they follow quite a logical path and have quite clear and “tidy” presentation. However, there was a number of comments in relation to the following:

- wording of some questions;
- wording and structure of the instructions to some questions;
- consistency of the overall questionnaire style;
- effectiveness/impression of the introduction to the questionnaires.

As a result of running protocols, important changes have been implemented into the design of the questionnaires.

Firstly, wording in some questionnaires has been revised to make it clearer to the respondents and to eliminate potential misunderstanding. The spelling has been made consistent (British English) throughout the questionnaires. All the punctuation has been revised and made consistent throughout. Questions numbering was edited to introduce a clearer flow of the questionnaires. Similarly, scales appearance has been corrected to improve the consistency.

Second, some questions have been deleted or amended. Questions that have repeatedly been described as confusing, unclear and overly complicated have been removed where possible.

Third, introduction to both questionnaires have been amended to make them shorter, more precise and more inviting. Instructions to the questionnaires have been refined and updated. The note on timing required to complete the questionnaires has been added.

Once protocol interviews have been completed, and the necessary amendments have been implemented, the next step is to conduct a pilot study.

3.8.2. Pilot study

The next step is to undertake a small-scale pilot study in order to check for any potential problems with the survey. A pilot study that is well organised can give an indication of the problematic areas and improve the survey efficiency (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). It is recommended that a pilot study is run on a sample that is similar to that used in the main study (Fink, 2002). Hence, a pilot study was done with B2B salespeople. One small pilot study was completed in a single firm involving four salespeople. A second salesperson pilot study involved 8 salespeople from various sales organisations. The respondents were offered a choice of completing the questionnaires online or requesting a paper copies with pre-paid envelopes. However, all of the respondents in the pilot study chose the online mode. This did not seem to be problematic in regards to testing the paper questionnaires for two reasons. First, paper questionnaires have already been pre-tested during the protocol interviews stage. And second, as Churchill and Iacobucci (2006) assert that given the consistency of the format of the questionnaires, the method of administration does not have much impact on the data.

The results of the pilot study data were analysed for the completeness of responses and any potential problems with the process of the survey flow. Results have shown that all of the questions have been answered and the time taken to complete the

questionnaires was around 15-20 minutes (as shown by the Qualtrics software). As a result of the pilot study no changes have to be implemented to the questionnaires.

3.9. Ethical considerations

To ensure that this research complies with the ethical guidelines, Research Ethics Approval Application was submitted and granted by the Aston University Ethics Committee. The Ethical Approval was granted to the researcher on 27th May 2014.

One of the main areas of ethical considerations in research is informed consent (Bryman & Bell, 2007). It "entails giving sufficient information about the research and ensuring that there is no explicit or implicit coercion so that prospective participants can make an informed and free decision on their possible involvement' (ESRC, 2010). This means that respondents must be given as much information as possible, so that they can make an informed decision about whether they want to participate in the research project. Main means of ensuring this is project information/invitation to participate (see Appendix 4a and Appendix 4b) which contains information on the project, and researchers contact details. In order to ensure participants familiarised themselves with the content and purpose of the study, a compulsory informed consent form was integrated into the questionnaire (Appendix 5).

Another important consideration is concerned with data storage. Following the recommendations published in the Aston Business School Research ethical Guidelines, it is proposed that the data is kept in an electronic format for at least 5 years after the completion of the PhD project. Furthermore, it is suggested that physical data, and in particular, interviews recordings and paper questionnaires (e.g. from the protocol interviews) are destroyed after about 2 years.

3.10. Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the general methodology employed in this PhD project.

The chapter presented the discussion of the philosophical grounds of the thesis, the rational for the chosen research design and methods of administration, as well as the selection of salespeople as the main respondents. The chapter also detailed the procedures for pretesting the questionnaire. The following chapter (Chapter 4) contains a more detailed outline of the main data collection procedures and data analysis approaches employed in the present PhD project.

Chapter 4. Study 2: Salesperson intrinsic and extrinsic motivational outcomes: a combinatory perspective

4.1. Introduction

The objective of this study is to examine the outcomes of the combined cognitive and affective orientations of IM and EM of salespeople. Specifically, the study investigates the effect of all possible combinations of cognitive and affective orientations of IM and EM on salesperson performance and work engagement.

This chapter is structured in the following way. The section 4.2. summarises the key background literature on salesperson motivation and its outcomes. This is followed by hypothesis development (section 4.3.) and a discussion on the research method (section 4.4.). The section 4.5. presents data analysis and results. The last section 4.6. is dedicated to discussion of the research and managerial implications and limitations of the study.

4.2. Background literature

This section of the chapter is structured onto the literature on salesperson IM and EM and sales force performance outcomes.

4.2.1. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Salesperson job outcomes may vary significantly depending on whether salespeople are intrinsically or extrinsically motivated. Historically, the sales literature has largely concentrated on various methods of increasing extrinsic motivation (EM), presenting monetary rewards as a primary motivator for salespeople , while mostly neglecting intrinsic motivation (IM, e.g. Cravens et al., 1993; Wotruba et al., 1991). In fact, existing studies have referred to this assumption as the “conventional wisdom” of salesperson motivation (e.g. Cravens et al., 1993; Tyagi, 1982; Wotruba et al., 1991; Zoltners, Sinha,

& Lorimer, 2012). However, other research (Miao and Evans, 2007) has revealed that although both IM and EM contribute to performance, salesperson IM leads to higher levels of performance than does EM. Intrinsically motivated salespeople are more likely to practice adaptive selling, which is linked with enhanced performance (Jaramillo et al., 2007; Pettijohn et al., 2002; Roman & Iacobucci, 2010). They consider failures as a chance to learn and improve (Sujan, 1986), which also implies a positive performance outcome. IM was also found to increase job satisfaction (K. Grant et al., 2001; Low et al., 2001) and to reduce burnout, perceptions of role ambiguity and role conflict (K. Grant et al., 2001; Keaveney & Nelson, 1993; Low et al., 2001), and also to contribute to a lessening in the tendency to engage in problematic behaviours (Murphy, 2004).

The growing evidence that both types of motivation contribute to employee performance increasingly suggest that concentrating on one single type of motivation may be much less effective than utilizing a more balanced approach. Research in the organizational psychology domain has produced multiple explorations of the combined effect of employee IM and EM on job outcomes (much of which is summarized by Kanfer et al., 2017). Specifically, the most recent meta-analysis performed by Cerasoli et al. (2014) demonstrates that although extrinsic rewards (incentives) can undermine IM, they can still co-exist and even work together.

This notion supports the suggestion of T. M. Amabile (1993, 1997) who argued that 'given the right combination of personality traits and work environment contexts, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can combine synergistically to yield high levels of performance and personal satisfaction' (T. M. Amabile, 1993, p. 187). T. M. Amabile et al. (1994) in their Work Preference Inventory proposed four motivational orientations: two for IM (cognitive and affective) and two for EM (cognitive and affective). The cognitive orientation of IM is categorized as "challenge seeking," while the affective orientation of IM is titled "task enjoyment." In addition, the cognitive orientation of EM is titled "compensation seeking," whereas the affective orientation of EM is titled "recognition seeking." The proposed motivational orientations can be defined as follows: Challenge seeking deals with the enjoyment of solving new and complex problems and seeking challenging tasks; task enjoyment is concerned with enjoying the

selling job and finding it pleasurable; compensation seeking involves how much money one can earn in their job; and recognition seeking is concerned with receiving recognition from the others (T. M. Amabile et al., 1994).

In a laboratory study, T. M. Amabile (1993) found that the quality of performance remains strong when a person is both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated. Thus, it appears to be perfectly possible for someone to be both motivated by money (extrinsic reward) and enjoyment / personal challenge in their job (intrinsic rewards). Moreover, in most real-world work situations people are likely to experience motivation by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators (T. M. Amabile, 1993).

In the sales context, motivation to earn money (EM), personal enjoyment of selling (IM), motivation to earn recognition (EM) from peers, and willingness to work hard (IM) were found to be among several key success factors (Keck, Leigh, & Lollar, 1995). However, no prior empirical work to date has assessed how IM and EM act in combination, and specifically, the cognitive and affective motivational orientations in combination impact salesperson work outcomes. Therefore, it appears appropriate and timely to assess the combined effect of IM and EM on important job outcomes of salespeople.

4.2.2. Performance outcomes

Traditionally, performance is considered as the key salesperson job outcome (Churchill et al., 1985). Two performance dimensions that are commonly discussed in the sales literature are output and behavioural performance (e.g. Anderson & Oliver, 1987; Baldauf et al., 2001; Miao et al., 2007; Oliver & Anderson, 1994). Salesperson output performance refers to the quantitative results of salesperson's selling behaviour and effort, such as achieving annual sales targets or generating dollar sales to the major accounts (Baldauf et al., 2001; Baldauf, Cravens, & Piercy, 2005). On the other hand, salesperson behavioural performance refers to the activities a salesperson undertakes in his or her selling job (Baldauf et al., 2001; Cravens et al., 1993; Miao & Evans, 2007). These are the activities salespeople undertake to accomplish responsibilities of their job, such as e.g. adaptive selling, team working, sales planning, presentations and support

(Cravens et al., 1993). The most important difference between output and behavioural performance is that salespeople have a greater control over their sales activities (i.e. behavioural performance) than over the actual sales results they may achieve (Baldauf et al., 2001).

While the primary focus of the sales literature is on the tangible outcomes of salesperson behaviour (i.e. number of sales calls or revenue generated), more recent research in psychology and sales motivation has captured the importance of 'soft' outcomes such as work engagement (Salanova et al., 2005; Verbeke et al., 2011). Such 'soft' outcomes were found to have important implications for overall organizational development, customer orientation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which have all been linked to performance outcomes (e. g. T. M. Amabile, 1996; Bai et al., 2016; Miao & Wang, 2016; Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Work engagement is a concept that has emerged from role theory and is characterized by experiencing a full connection to work and a full active performance (Kahn, 1990). It is defined as a 'positive' fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption' (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 72). Vigour refers to high levels of energy while performing work tasks, dedication refers to enthusiasm and challenge at work, while absorption signifies a state of being fully immersed in an activity (Salanova et al., 2005). Work engagement is related to the idea of important, meaningful and challenging work (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). It is an affective-cognitive state which is not specifically concentrated on any particular objects or behaviour (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Hence, it does not deal with measurable and quantifiable work outcomes such as output performance, nor with specific selling activities as in behavioural performance. Although work engagement is a concept that is somewhat related to salesperson behaviour (i.e. various work activities), it is different in its very nature. Specifically, work engagement is about being connected to the work itself; it offers a more nuanced perspective into the relationship an employee has with their work (Maslach et al., 2001).

Unlike behavioural performance, work engagement has not been extensively studied in sales context, although it has been conceptualized as a direct motivational outcome

construct (Kanfer et al., 2017). Findings in the organizational psychology domain suggest that there is an important link between work engagement and employee well-being (Schooler, Mulatu, & Oates, 2004) as well as between work engagement and job performance (Salanova et al., 2005), although this growing body of knowledge can be described as nascent (Kanfer et al., 2017). Examining work engagement in the context of this study may provide a new and unique contribution to the research domain and introduce potential new avenues for future research development in the field.

4.2.3. Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) has been successfully employed in prior studies on salesperson motivation (e.g. Cadwallader et al., 2010; Hohenberg & Homburg, 2016; Miao et al., 2007). SDT is a theory of motivation, personality and well-being (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1980, 1985b) which has been providing fruitful foundations for employee motivation research for decades (Gagne & Deci, 2005). The basic assumption of SDT is that humans are active organisms with innate tendencies for growth, integration, and self-development. SDT also posits that social external environments can either promote personal growth and integration or diminish it (Deci & Ryan, 2002). This combination of inner resources and social contexts results in motivational states which then lead to performance outcomes (A. M. Grant, Nurmohamed, Ashford, & Dekas, 2011). This is done through the satisfaction (or frustration) of the three basic human needs: need for competence, need for autonomy, and need for relatedness (Gagne & Deci, 2005). SDT asserts that IM and EM are two independent, as opposed to opposite, states (A. M. Grant, 2008; A. M. Grant et al., 2011). Hence, according to SDT, IM and EM can co-exist and in combination enhance work performance.

With the three main outcome variables in mind, this study draws support from the SDT to examine and empirically test the theoretical model presented in Fig. 4.1.

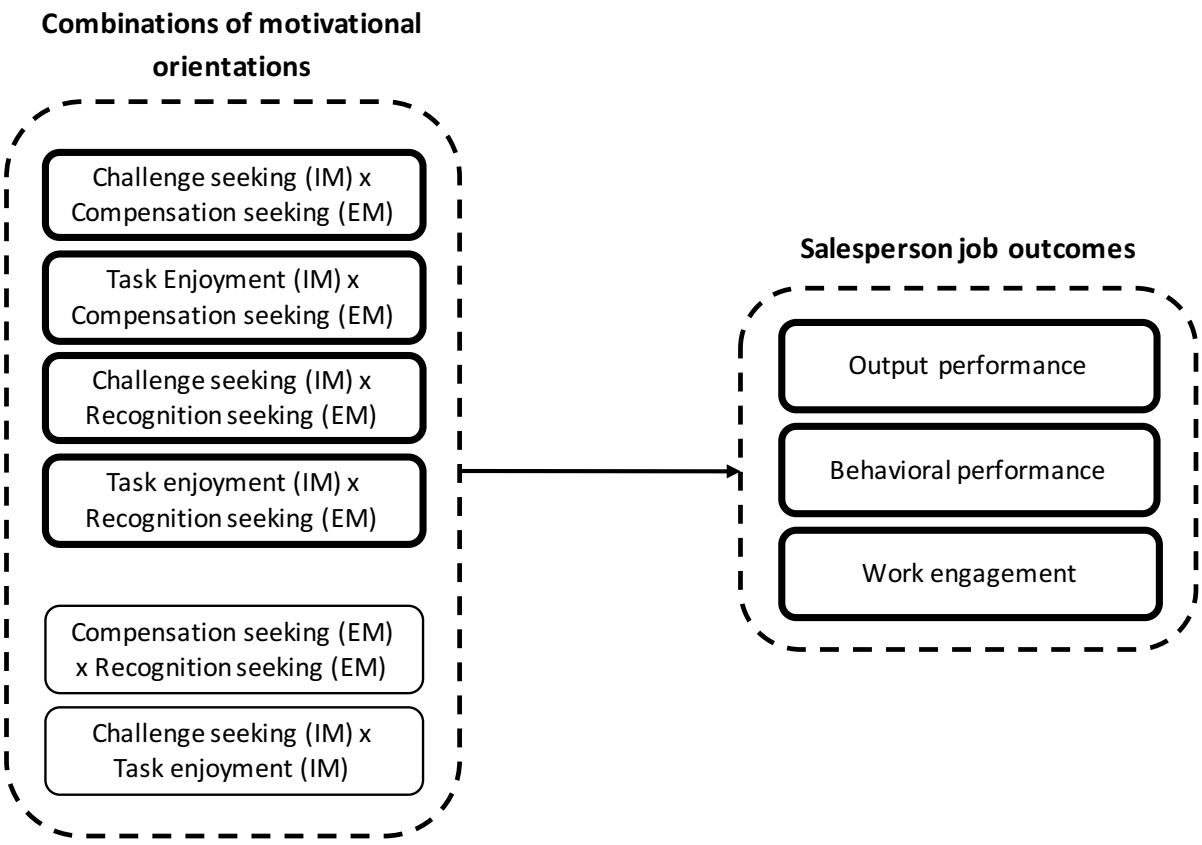


Figure 4.1. *Theoretical model.*

4.3. Hypothesis development.

4.3.1. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivational combinations and work outcomes

It is widely accepted that motivation leads to performance (Churchill et al., 1985) and work engagement (Salanova et al., 2005). Debate on this topic in the sales literature has centred around the question of whether IM or EM is a stronger predictor of performance (Ingram et al., 1989; Oliver, 1974; Tyagi, 1985c). Salespeople will behave differently depending on whether they are intrinsically or extrinsically motivated (Oliver & Anderson, 1994) which will result in differences in the ways they are engaged at work as well as on their behavioural and output performance.

Hence, a salesperson's behavioural performance will be influenced by their motivation as it represents the activities salesperson undertakes in their selling job (Baldauf et al., 2001; Cravens et al., 1993; Miao & Evans, 2007). Similarly, salesperson output performance is also motivation driven as it signifies the results that are attributed to the salesperson's selling behaviour (Baldauf et al., 2001). Finally, work engagement, which has been conceptualized as part of Churchill's et al (1985) motivation category (Verbeke et al., 2011), will also be affected by salesperson motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985b).

Research in the sales domain suggests that compared to EM, IM is commonly a stronger driver of sales performance (Jaramillo et al., 2007; Pettijohn et al., 2002; Roman & Iacobucci, 2010), learning orientation (Sujan, 1986) and job satisfaction (K. Grant et al., 2001; Low et al., 2001). Nevertheless, EM also plays an important role in the motivation-performance relationship (e.g. Miao & Evans, 2007).

In an attempt to explain why IM and EM have different performance outcomes, Sujan (1986) suggested that IM leads salespeople to work smarter which has a more important performance implication than EM which leads salespeople to work harder. However, taken together IM and EM could yield a greater effect on sales performance and engagement. The notion of the co-existence of IM and EM has been extensively explored in both psychology and sales domain, and these studies broadly suggest that EM is in most cases detrimental to IM (see Kanfer et al., 2017 for summary). However, it was confirmed that intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations are empirically and conceptually distinct (T. M. Amabile et al., 1994). As such, T. M. Amabile (1993) have demonstrated that IM and EM can coexist and even work in synergy. Pullins (2001) in her exploratory study with sales managers reported that less than half of salesperson's motivation comes from EM with more than half coming from IM. SDT asserts that given the right combination of internal and external factors, IM and EM can indeed coexist. Moreover, in most business contexts IM almost certainly goes along with EM (T. M. Amabile, 1997). For instance, a salesperson can be motivated by the challenge of closing a difficult sale as well as by being recognized for their effort.

Therefore, the argument presented here is that both IM and EM in combination will positively affect salesperson work outcomes. That is, the higher IM and EM in combination, the higher output and behavioural performance and work engagement.

H1a. IMxEM combinations will have a positive effect on salesperson output performance.

H1b. IMxEM combinations will have a positive effect on salesperson behavioural performance.

H1c. IMxEM combinations will have a positive effect on salesperson work engagement.

4.3.2. Most effective motivational combinations

Although it is possible for an employee to be purely motivated by extrinsic rewards (and in very rare cases by purely intrinsic rewards), in real organizational contexts, people are likely to be both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated (T. M. Amabile, 1997). While relationships between IM and job outcomes as well as between EM and job outcomes have been rather well-studied, the combinations that are most effective in enhancing salesperson performance and work engagement: purely intrinsic (IMxIM), purely extrinsic (EMxEM)or intrinsic-extrinsic (IMxEM) combinations remain unstudied.

Intrinsically motivated salespeople are more likely than those who are extrinsically motivated to practice adaptive selling (Jaramillo et al., 2007; Pettijohn et al., 2002; Roman & Iacobucci, 2010), to have an open-minded positive attitude and consider failures as a learning opportunity (Sujan, 1986) and are generally more satisfied with their job (K. Grant et al., 2001; Low et al., 2001). Combinations of IM and EM may result in enhanced results whereby salespeople achieve positive effects from both IM and EM. For instance, T. M. Amabile et al. (1994) found that professional artists' challenge seeking (IM) and recognition seeking (EM) was significantly positively correlated with creativity.

On the other hand, it has been established that IM may result in reduced levels of burnout, role ambiguity and role conflict (K. Grant et al., 2001; Keaveney & Nelson, 1993; Low et al., 2001), which all have negative performance implications. Hence, combinations of IM and EM, could have greater positive performance and work engagement effect as IM will compensate and neutralize the negative effects of an exclusive EM orientation. In other words, when EM contributes to a person's feelings of competence, it can effectively combine with IM. T. M. Amabile (1993) has labelled this underlying mechanism as 'extrinsics in service of intrinsics' (p. 194). For instance, rewards and recognitions that contribute to a person's feelings of competence will combine with intrinsic motivational orientations to enhance performance. In such complex environments as for example, sales, certain intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations can lead to the highest levels of creative productive work (T. M. Amabile, 1993). Thus, the following is hypothesized:

H2a. IMxEM combinations are more effective in enhancing salesperson output performance than combinations of IMxIM/EMxEM.

H2b. IMxEM combinations are more effective in enhancing salesperson behavioural performance than combinations of IMxIM/EMxEM.

H2c. IMxEM combinations are more effective in enhancing salesperson work engagement than combinations of IMxIM/EMxEM.

4.3.3. The role of congruence

Congruence has been extensively studied in organizational behaviour literature and refers to an agreement, match or fit of two predictor variables in the relationship between these and an outcome construct (Edwards, 1994). Congruence simply means fit or balance (Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison, & Heggestad, 2010).

One way to consider congruence in motivational context is via the SDT (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995). Specifically, Ryan and Connell (1989) proposed a motivational continuum

whereby behavioural causes move from amotivation to EM (controlled causes) and onto IM (autonomous causes). However, a person can act based on congruence of their intrinsic (autonomous) reasons and extrinsic (controlled) reasons (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995). While some attention has been paid to investigating the congruence or synergy of IM and EM (e.g. T. M. Amabile, 1993; Sheldon & Kasser, 1995), there are no known studies to date which have explored congruence between affective and cognitive orientations of IM and EM. Furthermore, still a little has been tested in relation to these motivational orientations, their predictors and outcomes. Therefore, it appears logical to present a set of exploratory propositions on the role of congruence of the pairs of motivational orientations and the outcomes of interest in general, as opposed to hypothesizing specific relationships.

Thus, the following is hypothesised:

H3a. Congruence in combinations of affective and cognitive components of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation will lead to higher levels of salesperson output performance than when there is an incongruence.

H3b. Congruence in combinations of affective and cognitive components of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation will lead to higher levels of salesperson behavioural performance than when there is an incongruence.

H3c. Congruence in combinations of affective and cognitive components of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation will lead to higher levels of salesperson work engagement than when there is an incongruence.

4.4. Research method

4.4.1. Sample and data collection procedure

In order to test the proposed hypothesis, a cross-sectional survey with B2B salespeople was administered. A combination of email and social media channels was utilized to distribute the survey. Professional social media networks and discussion groups were

utilized as main channels. These included sales professional groups on LinkedIn (linkedin.com), as well as professional sales networks of specific companies and groups which were accessed via personal and university contacts. The initial invitation to potential respondents included the general project information, the researcher's full contact details and a link to the questionnaire. It was also noted that if respondents preferred a paper copy of the questionnaire, it was available upon request. An incentive of a prize draw for one of two iPad Minis was offered, and respondents had to enter themselves into a prize draw by providing their email address and a full name. To encourage timely response, a time frame was introduced into the prize draw procedure.

Data collection was administered over 3 weeks which resulted in a total of 212 salesperson questionnaires. After a manual check 16 questionnaires were eliminated as they were only partially complete. This resulted in 196 fully complete usable salesperson questionnaires. In order to ensure that only industrial salespeople participated in the study, two screener items were used. The first question was at the beginning of the questionnaire, and asked the respondents to confirm that they work in B2B sales. Respondents were screened out if they did not confirm. The second question was positioned towards the end of the questionnaire, as a final check, asking the respondents to re-state their type of position and an industry they work in.

Salespeople represented B2B companies from various industries with biggest proportion coming from the UK and USA. The group 'other' contained several countries with 2 respondents per country (New Zealand, Bulgaria, Australia, Germany, Malaysia, Brazil and not known) and 1 respondent per country (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Brunei, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Italy, South Korea, Lithuania, Luxemburg, Pakistan, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Spain and Tasmania). The table 4.1. below presents the study respondents per country.

Country	Total quantity
UK	62
USA	40
Switzerland	19
India	14
Netherlands	10
Canada	7
Ireland	5
South Africa	4
UAE	4
Sweden	3
Other	28
Total:	**196**

Table 4.1. *Study respondents per country.*

4.4.2. Measurement model

The questionnaire for this study was based on existing validated scales from recent marketing and sales literature (see Appendix 2). The four motivational orientations (two for IM and two for EM) were measured using scales developed by Miao and Evans (2014), based on T. M. Amabile et al. (1994). Scale reliability (Cronbach's alpha) for challenge seeking is 0.91, for task enjoyment is 0.91, for compensation seeking is 0.82 and for recognition seeking is 0.78. Output performance and behavioural performance were both measured using a scale developed by Miao and Evans (2007) based on Behrman and Perreault Jr (1982). Scale reliabilities are 0.80 and 0.74 respectively. Work engagement was measured using a short version of Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9) that has been validated in a number of countries (Salanova et al., 2005). Scales reliability is 0.80. In addition to this, the questionnaire included demographic information, including age, gender, education and sales experience (general experience in sales, experience in the current position and experience in the current company).

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess the psychometric properties for each construct, demonstrating acceptable results for the constructs in this study. Specifically, the composite reliability and average variance extracted exceed the recommended level (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). Further to this, the results of the CFA revealed

that the items load on the intended constructs, showing loadings that above the recommended .40 which confirms the convergent validity. In order to assess discriminant validity of the model constructs, average variance extracted (AVE) test was performed. The AVE for each construct in a pair was greater than the squared correlation between that pair of constructs which signifies discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Descriptive statistics for the study data, including composite reliability and AVE is presented in Table 4.2. below. Finally, the overall model fit indices demonstrate an acceptable model fit. The Chi-Square χ^2 = 487.890 (df = 303)), comparative fit index (CFI) = .909 and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = 0.895) (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Root Mean Square Error Of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.058 which is below the recommended value of 0.06 (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) = 0.074 which is below the recommended threshold of 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999). Close examination of individual residuals and other indicators showed no major deviations or areas of concern. As such, it was judged that the model was appropriate to test theory.

		M	SD	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Challenge seeking	6.003	0.836	0.84	0.58	1.00	0.076~	0.000~	0.025~	0.061~	0.017~	0.084~
2	Task Enjoyment	5.397	1.063	0.75	0.51	0.275**	1.00	0.000~	0.056~	0.023~	0.023~	0.158~
3	Compensation seeking	5.393	1.104	0.74	0.51	0.017	0.018	1.00	0.065~	0.081~	0.002~	0.027~
4	Recognition seeking	5.169	1.330	0.88	0.72	0.158*	0.236**	0.255**	1.00	0.051~	0.007~	0.068~
5	Output performance	5.849	0.927	0.81	0.53	0.246**	0.352**	0.285**	0.226**	1.00	0.086~	0.096~
6	Behavioural performance	6.332	0.681	0.68	0.54	0.129	0.153*	0.043	0.085	0.294**	1.00	0.096~
7	Work engagement	3.641	0.834	0.92	0.59	0.29**	0.397*	0.163*	0.260**	0.310**	0.310**	1.00

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
~ Squared correlations.

Table 4.2. *Statistics and correlations.*

4.4.3. *Analytical procedure*

Once the data was organized and cleaned, polynomial regression with response surface analysis was performed following the steps and instructions outlined by Shanock et al. (2010) and Ahearne, Haumann, Kraus, and Wieseke (2013). Response surface analysis technique is a method of analysis that can offer a detailed understanding of the relationship between a combination of two predictor variables (X and Y) and an outcome variable (Z) (Edwards, 2007; Shanock et al., 2010). For instance, in the first of the combinations of motivational orientations, X is a challenge seeking orientation (IM, cognitive), Y is a compensation seeking orientation (EM, cognitive) and Z is an output performance (outcome variable). Hence, the polynomial regression where challenge seeking and compensation seeking variables which form a congruence measure and output performance is specified as the dependent variable, can be presented as follows:

$$Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4XY + b_5Y^2 + e. \quad \text{(Eq. 1), where}$$

b_1 is the unstandardized beta coefficient for the centred challenge seeking, variable,

b_2 is the unstandardized beta coefficient for the centred compensation seeking variable,

A three-dimensional plot is then created where Z is dependent on the values of the congruence measure (i.e. X and Y); the information from the surface along the symmetry (congruence) line represents the change in the outcome variable as a result of a change in the level of congruence between X and Y (Ahearne et al., 2013). The surface of the line of perfect agreement (Y = X) can be presented as follows:

$$Z = b_0 + (b_1 + b_2)X + (b_3 + b_4 + b_5)X^2 + e. \quad \text{(Eq. 2), where}$$

b_3 is the unstandardized beta coefficient for the centred challenge seeking variable squared,

b4 is the unstandardized beta coefficient for the cross-product of the centred challenge seeking and centred compensation seeking variables,

b5 is the beta coefficient for the centred compensation seeking variable squared.

In equation (Eq. 2), $b_1 + b_2$ represent a_1, i.e. $a_1 = (b_1 + b_2)$ which characterizes the slope of the line of perfect agreement between challenge seeking and compensation seeking as they relate to output performance, whereas $b_3 + b_4 + b_5$ represent a_2, $(= b_3 + b_4 + b_5)$ which characterizes the curvature along the line of perfect agreement as related to output performance.

Contrary to this, a surface along the asymmetry (incongruence) line (Y = -X) represents the change in the outcome variable, output performance, as incongruence between X (challenge seeking) and Y (compensation seeking) increases:

$$Z = b_0 + (b_1 - b_2)X + (b_3 - b_4 + b_5)X^2 + e. \quad \text{(Eq. 3)}.$$

In this equation, $b_1 - b_2$ represent a_3, i.e. $a_3 = (b_1 - b_2)$ which characterizes the direction of the discrepancy (challenge seeking higher than compensation seeking or vice versa), and $b_3 - b_4 + b_5$ represent a_4, i.e. $a_4 = (b_3 - b_4 + b_5)$ which represents the curvature of the line of incongruence as related to Z (output performance) demonstrating the degree of discrepancy between X (challenge seeking) and Y (compensation seeking), and output performance.

Below, the steps required to complete the hypothesis testing are outlined and discussed.

Step 1 aims at detecting the presence of discrepancies in the sample, as well as their percentage and direction. This step initially suggested by Fleenor, McCauley, and Brutus (1996) consisted of calculations of how many participants in the study would be considered to have discrepancies in the predictor variables of IMxEM and EMxEM and IMxIM combinations. For instance, for challenge seeking and compensation seeking combination, participants with standardized score (ZScore) for challenge seeking that were half a standard deviation above or below the ZScore for compensation seeking were considered as being discrepant (Shanock et al., 2010). In the present sample, for all combinations of IMxEM, IMxIM and EMxEM, more than half of variables in each combination are different from each other in one direction or the other. Table 3 (see below) serving as an example demonstrates frequencies of challenge seeking levels over, under, and in-agreement with compensation seeking levels. For instance, in 40%

of cases challenge seeking is more than compensation seeking, in 21% of cases they are in agreement and in 38% of cases challenge seeking is less than compensation seeking.

Agreement groups	Percentage	Mean CHSEE	Mean COSEE
CHSEE more than COSEE	40%	6.55	4.67
In agreement	21%	6.14	5.55
CHSEE less than COSEE	38%	5.4	5.97

Note: N = 196
CHSEE = Challenge Seeking. COSEE = Compensation Seeking

Table 4.3. *Frequencies of CHSEE levels over, under, and in-agreement with COSEE levels needed for Step 1.*

As can be seen from Table 4.3., more than half of the sample has values discrepant from each other in one direction or the other, hence, it can be concluded that proceeding with this analysis is practically meaningful (Shanock et al., 2010).

In Step 2 the polynomial regression was run in SPSS syntax and the surface values were calculated (as recommended by Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino, & Fleenor, 1998). Here the values were centred around the midpoint of the scale (scale-mean-centred). Since all the variables were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (from 1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree), 4 was subtracted from each score. Scale centering is recommended type of centering for this procedure (Edwards, 2007). It also aids better interpretation and reduces chances of multicollinearity (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991).

Next, three new variables were created. In the first example of combination of challenge seeking and compensation seeking, the following new variables are created: (1) centred challenge seeking squared, (2) centred compensation seeking squared, (3) and a cross-product of centred challenge seeking and compensation seeking. Next the results are evaluated using four surface test values: a1, a2, a3 and a4. In Step 3 results are graphed in Excel using the graphing function. Finally step 4 concerns the interpretation of the results which are presented and discussed in the next section.

4.5. Analysis and results

Results of the polynomial regression with response surface analysis are interpreted using three-dimensional response surface graphs and the calculated surface values. H1a and H1c suggest that the combinations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations (IMxEM) will have a positive effect on (a) salesperson output performance and (c) salesperson work engagement. Hence, H1a and H1c would be supported if in the combinations of intrinsic motivational orientations and extrinsic motivational orientations as they relate to (a) output performance and (c) work engagement, a1 is significant and positive. Table 4.4. below demonstrates that a1 is significant and positive for all IMxEM combinations as they relate to output performance and work engagement. Thus, H1a and H1c are both supported.

Motivational combination	**Outcome variable**	**a1**	
		p-value	**Coefficient**
Challenge seeking x Compensation seeking	Output performance	0.001	1.04
	Behavioural performance	0.342	0.23
	Work engagement	0.015	0.70
Challenge seeking x Recognition seeking	Output performance	0.000	0.96
	Behavioural performance	0.958	-0.01
	Work engagement	0.009	0.62
Task enjoyment x Compensation seeking	Output performance	0.000	0.67
	Behavioural performance	0.716	-0.07
	Work engagement	0.008	0.41
Task enjoyment x Recognition seeking	Output performance	0.015	0.36
	Behavioural performance	0.979	0.00
	Work engagement	0.004	0.39

Table 4.4. *P-value and coefficients for a1 for the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational combinations.*

H1b suggests that combinations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations will have a positive effect on salesperson behavioural performance. However, for all motivational combinations as they relate to behavioural performance, a1 is non-significant. Hence, H1b is not supported.

H2a and H2c state that the combinations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations (IMxEM) are more effective in enhancing (a) salesperson output performance and (c) salesperson work engagement than the combinations of only intrinsic (IMxIM) or only extrinsic (EMxEM) orientations. This means that the highest levels of output performance and the highest levels of work engagement are achieved through the combinations of IMxEM rather than IMxIM or EMxEM. Table 4.5. below presents the values for the highest levels of output performance and work engagement across all combinations. It can be seen from the Table 5 that the highest level of output performance (6.40 out of 7 with the data mean being 5.83) is achieved through the IMxEM combination, specifically, task enjoyment (IM) x compensation seeking (EM) combination. Combinations of IMxIM and EMxEM produced lower results of output performance, specifically, 6.08 and 6.07 out of 7 respectively. Hence, H2a is supported.

IM/EM	Motivational combinations	Highest level of output performance (out of 7)*	Highest level of work engagement (out of 7)**
IMxEM	Challenge Seeking x Compensation Seeking	6.07	3.76
	Challenge Seeking x Recognition Seeking	6.07	3.78
	Task Enjoyment x Compensation Seeking	<u>6.40</u>	3.55
	Task Enjoyment x Recognition Seeking	6.05	<u>3.89</u>
IMxIM	Challenge Seeking x Task Enjoyment	6.08	3.84
EMxEM	Compensation Seeking x Recognition Seeking	6.07	3.81
		* data mean is 5.83;	** data mean is 3.61.

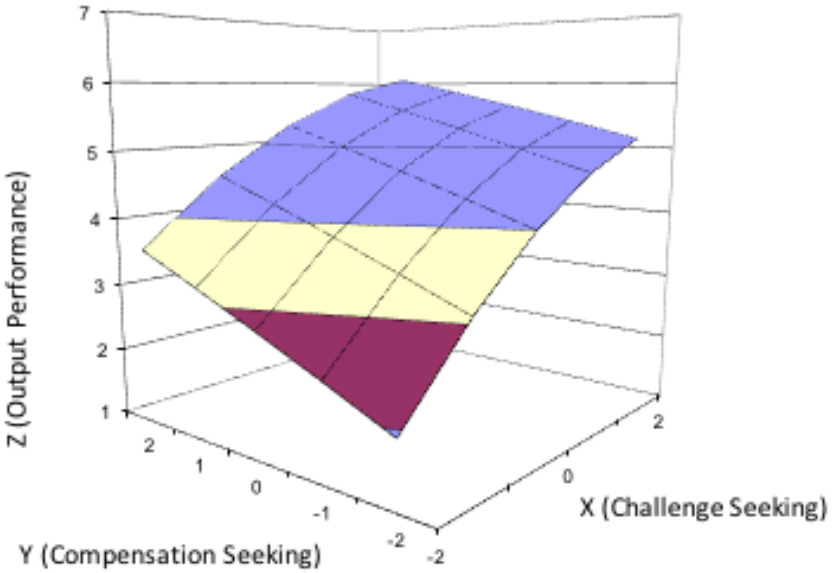
Table 4.5. *Highest levels of output performance and work engagement.*

Similarly, the highest level of work engagement (3.89 out of 7 with the data mean being 3.61) is also produced by an IMxEM combination, specifically, by task enjoyment (IM) x recognition seeking (EM). Combinations of IMxIM and EMxEM produced slightly lower results of work engagement, specifically, 3.84 and 3.81 out of 7 respectively. Hence, H2c is supported.

As it was mentioned previously, all relationships between the combinations of motivational orientations and behavioural performance are non-significant. Hence, H2b cannot be supported.

H3a posits that congruence in the combinations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations (IMxEM) will lead to higher levels of salesperson output performance than when there is an incongruence. Thus, H3a will be supported if the highest levels of output performance are achieved in situations when there is a congruence between the motivational orientations. In order to assess whether congruence leads to higher results than incongruence, the results of the individual combinations must be examined.

First, in the combination of challenge seeking (IM) and compensation seeking (EM), congruence yields output performance levels of 6.07 out of 7. Incongruence results in lower levels of output performance. Specifically, 5.13 when challenge seeking is high while compensation seeking is low and 3.59 when it is vice-versa. This can be seen from the Points to Plot table (the dotted diagonal line in the table represents the line of congruence) as well as the three-dimensional graph in the Figure 4.2. below. Finally, the lowest level of output performance is achieved when both challenge seeking and compensation seeking are low.



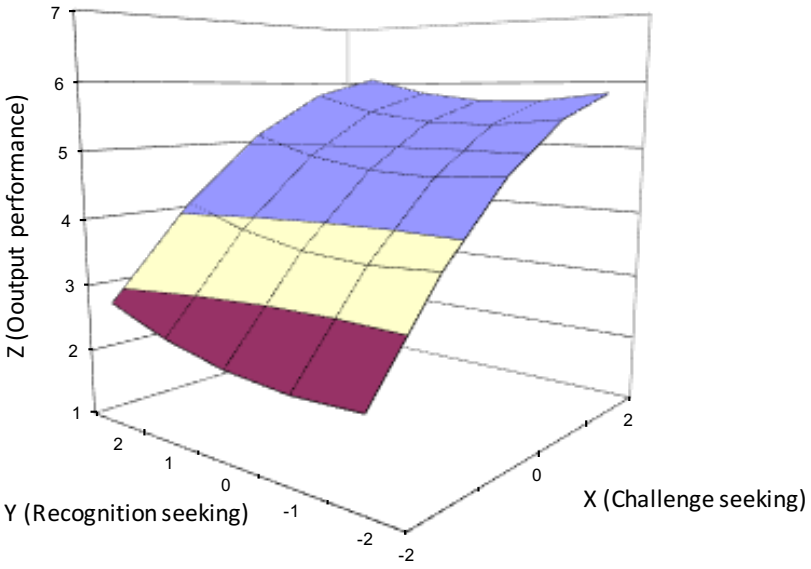
Points to Plot

		X				
		-2	-1	0	1	2
Y	2	3.59	4.57	5.31	5.81	6.07
	1	3.20	4.21	5.00	5.54	5.86
	0	2.78	3.85	4.68	5.27	5.62
	-1	2.36	3.47	4.34	4.98	5.38
	-2	1.93	3.08	4.00	4.68	5.13

Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

Figure 4.2. *Combination of challenge seeking and compensation seeking as they relate to output performance.*

Second, in the combination of challenge seeking (IM) and recognition seeking (EM) as demonstrated in the Figure 4.3. below, congruence also leads to output performance levels of 6.07 out of 7. Incongruence results in lower levels of output performance. Specifically, 5.83 when challenge seeking is high while recognition seeking is low and 2.82 when it is vice-versa. Finally, the lowest outcome (2.25) is achieved when both challenge seeking and recognition seeking are low.



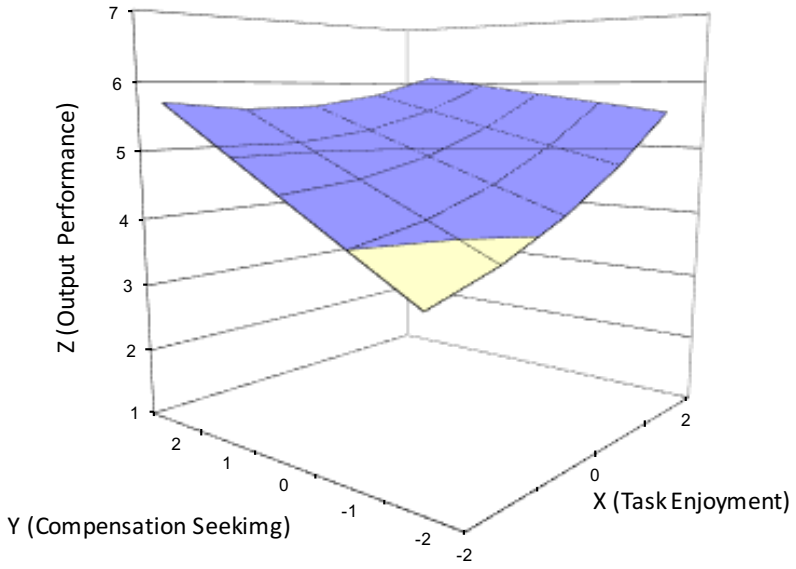
Points to Plot

		X				
		-2	-1	0	1	2
Y	2	2.82	4.15	5.14	5.78	6.07
	1	2.49	3.84	4.85	5.51	5.82
	0	2.28	3.66	4.69	5.37	5.70
	-1	2.20	3.60	4.65	5.35	5.70
	-2	2.25	3.66	4.73	5.46	5.83

Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

Figure 4.3. *Combination of challenge seeking and recognition seeking as they relate to output performance.*

Third, in the combination of task enjoyment (IM) and compensation seeking (EM), as demonstrated in the Figure 4.4. below, congruence leads to output performance levels of 6.10 out of 7. Incongruence results in lower levels of output performance. Specifically, 5.53 when task enjoyment is high while compensation seeking is low and 5.70 when it is vice-versa. Finally, the lowest outcome (3.44) is achieved when both task enjoyment and compensation seeking are low.



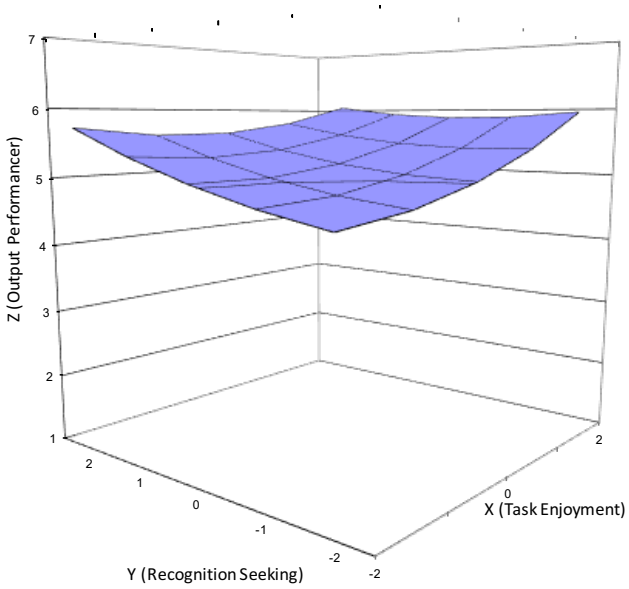
Points to Plot

Y \ X	-2	-1	0	1	2
2	5.70	5.59	5.61	5.79	6.10
1	5.13	5.12	5.25	5.53	5.95
0	4.56	4.66	4.90	5.28	5.81
-1	4.00	4.20	4.55	5.04	5.67
-2	3.44	3.75	4.20	4.79	5.53

Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

Figure 4.4. *Combination of task enjoyment and compensation seeking as they relate to output performance.*

Fourth, in the combination of task enjoyment (IM) and recognition seeking (EM), as demonstrated in the Figure 4.5. below, congruence leads to output performance levels of 6.05 out of 7. Incongruence results in lower levels of output performance. Specifically, 5.96 when task enjoyment is high while recognition seeking is low and 5.72 when it is vice-versa. Finally, the lowest level of output performance (4.62) is achieved when both task enjoyment and recognition seeking are low.



Points to Plot

		X				
		-2	-1	0	1	2
Y	2	5.72	5.60	5.61	5.76	6.05
	1	5.35	5.29	5.37	5.58	5.93
	0	5.04	5.04	5.18	5.46	5.87
	-1	4.80	4.87	5.07	5.41	5.88
	-2	4.62	4.75	5.02	5.42	5.96

Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

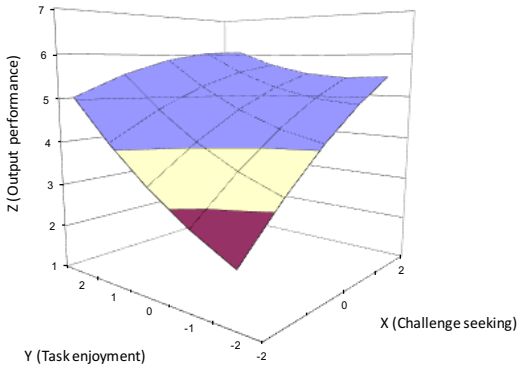
Figure 4.5. *Combination of task enjoyment and recognition seeking as they relate to output performance.*

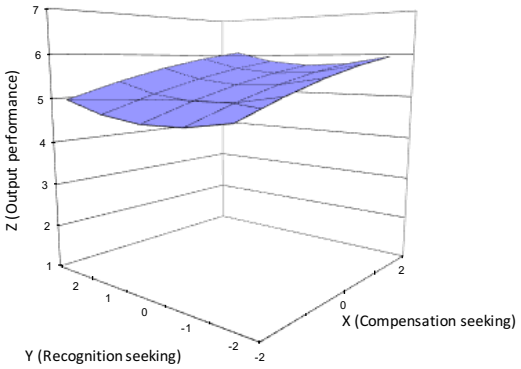
When it comes to purely intrinsic (IMxIM) and purely extrinsic (EMxEM) combinations, the results are also in favour of congruence.

Specifically, in the combination of challenge seeking (IM) and task enjoyment (IM), as demonstrated in the Figure 4.6. below, congruence leads to output performance levels of 6.08 out of 7. Incongruence results in lower levels of output performance. Specifically, 5.46 when challenge seeking is high while task enjoyment is low and 5.05 when it is vice-versa.

Likewise, in the combination of compensation seeking (EM) and recognition seeking (EM), congruence leads to output performance levels of 6.07 out of 7. Incongruence results in lower levels of output performance. Specifically, 5.95 when compensation seeking is high while recognition seeking is low and 5.05 when it is vice-versa.

Thus, it can be concluded that H3a is supported.





Points to Plot

Y \ X	-2	-1	0	1	2
2	5.05	5.53	5.86	6.04	6.08
1	4.13	4.75	5.22	5.55	5.73
0	3.35	4.11	4.72	5.18	5.50
-1	2.70	3.60	4.35	4.95	5.41
-2	2.19	3.22	4.11	4.86	5.46

Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

Points to Plot

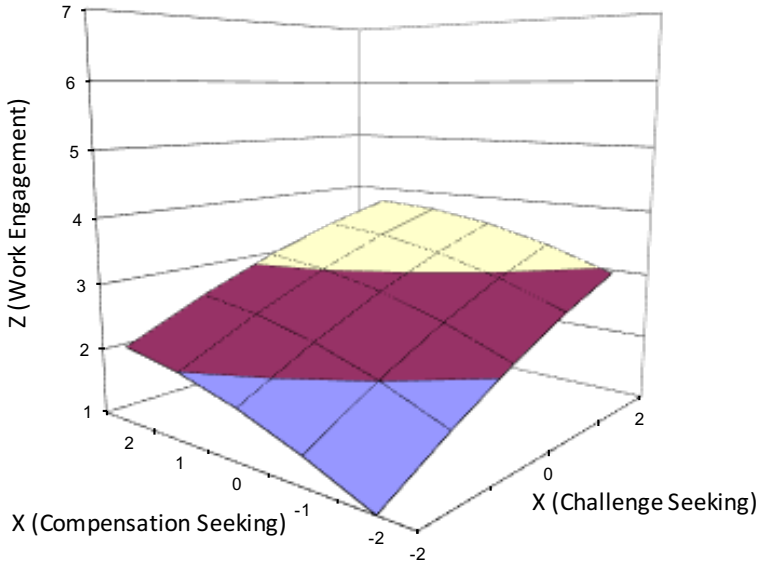
Y \ X	-2	-1	0	1	2
2	5.00	5.36	5.66	5.90	6.07
1	4.74	5.10	5.41	5.65	5.83
0	4.61	4.99	5.29	5.54	5.73
-1	4.64	5.01	5.33	5.58	5.77
-2	4.80	5.18	5.50	5.76	5.95

Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

Figure 4.6. *Combination of task enjoyment with challenge seeking, and compensation seeking with recognition seeking as they relate to output performance.*

Hypothesis 3c posits that congruence in combinations of affective and cognitive orientations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation will lead to higher levels of salesperson work engagement. Thus, like H3a, H3c will be supported if the highest levels of work engagement are achieved in situations when there is a congruence between the motivational orientations in each of the combinations. Once again, in order to assess whether congruence leads to higher results than incongruence, the results of the individual combinations have to be examined.

First, in the combination of challenge seeking (IM) and compensation seeking (EM), as demonstrated in the Figure 4.7. below, congruence leads to work engagement levels of 3.76 out of 7. Incongruence results in lower levels of output performance. Specifically, 2.94 when challenge seeking is high while compensation seeking is low and 2.14 when it is vice-versa. challenge seeking and compensation seeking in agreement. Finally, the lowest level of work engagement (0.98) is achieved when both challenge seeking and compensation seeking are low.



Points to Plot

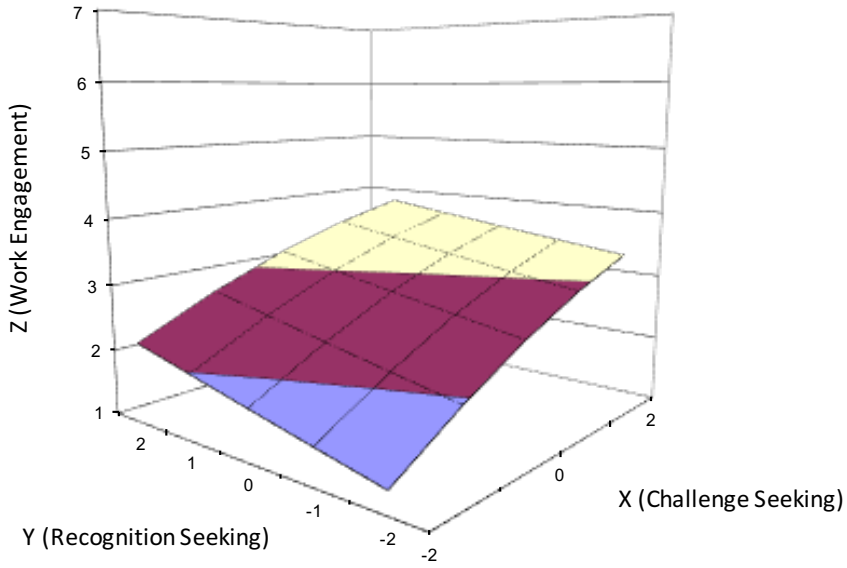
		X				
		-2	-1	0	1	2
Y	2	2.14	2.67	3.12	3.48	3.76
	1	2.00	2.55	3.01	3.40	3.70
	0	1.75	2.32	2.81	3.22	3.54
	-1	1.41	2.01	2.52	2.94	3.29
	-2	0.98	1.59	2.13	2.57	2.94

Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

Figure 4.7. *Combination of challenge seeking and compensation seeking as they relate to work engagement.*

Second, in the combination of challenge seeking (IM) and recognition seeking (EM), demonstrated in the Figure 4.8. below, congruence leads to work engagement levels of

3.78 out of 7. Incongruence results in lower levels of output performance. Specifically, 3.26 when challenge seeking is high while recognition seeking is low and 2.21 when it is vice-versa. Finally, the lowest level of outcome (1.32) is achieved when both challenge seeking and recognition seeking are low.



Points to Plot

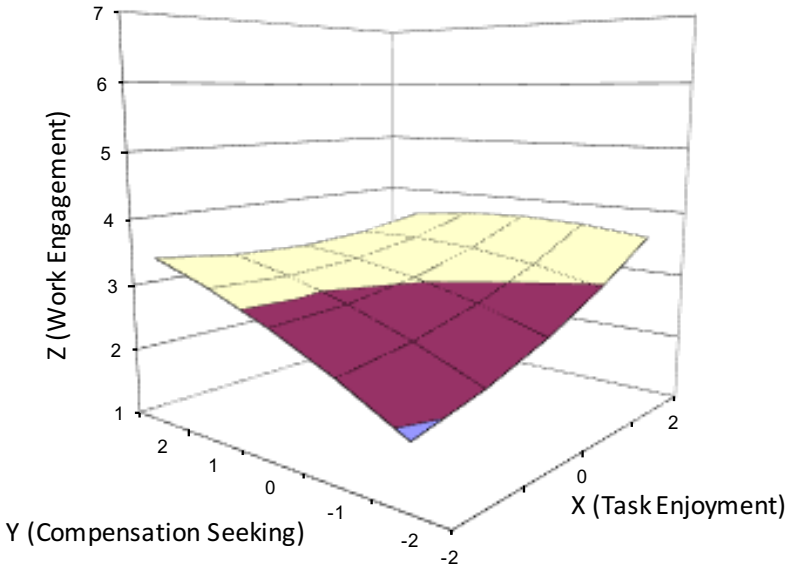
		X				
		-2	-1	0	1	2
Y	2	2.21	2.75	3.19	3.53	3.78
	1	1.99	2.54	3.00	3.37	3.65
	0	1.76	2.34	2.82	3.22	3.51
	-1	1.54	2.14	2.65	3.06	3.38
	-2	1.32	1.95	2.48	2.92	3.26

Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

Figure 4.8. *Combination of challenge seeking and recognition seeking as they relate to work engagement.*

Contrary to the above results, in the combination of task enjoyment (IM) and compensation seeking (EM), as demonstrated in the Figure 4.9. below, incongruence leads to marginally higher work engagement levels (3.55 out of 7) than if there is a congruence (3.53). In contrast to the other motivational combinations discussed above, the highest level of work engagement is produced in the situation when there is an

incongruence. Specifically, 3.55 when task enjoyment is high while the compensation seeking is low and 3.53 when there is a congruence. Finally, the lowest level of outcome (1.90) is achieved when both task enjoyment and compensation seeking are low.



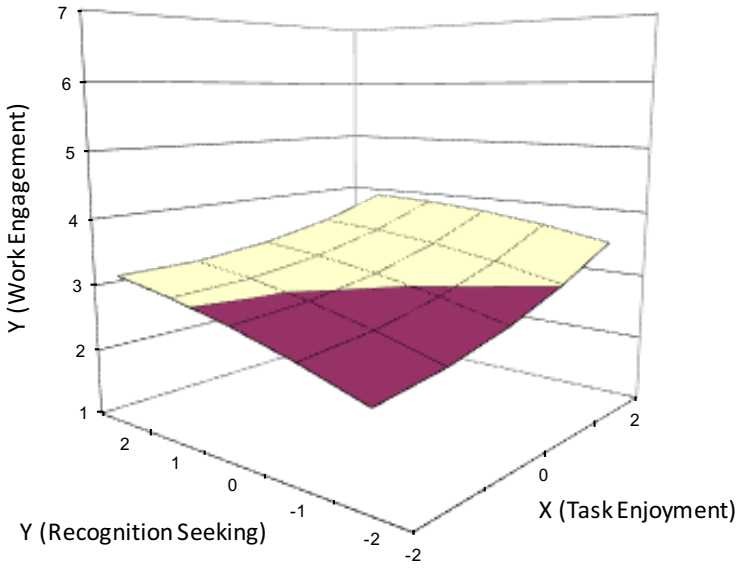
Points to Plot

		X				
		-2	-1	0	1	2
Y	2	3.48	3.33	3.29	3.35	3.53
	1	3.20	3.15	3.20	3.37	3.65
	0	2.84	2.89	3.04	3.31	3.69
	-1	2.41	2.55	2.81	3.18	3.65
	-2	1.90	2.15	2.50	2.97	3.55

Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

Figure 4.9. *Combination of task enjoyment and compensation seeking as they relate to work engagement.*

Fourth, in the combination of task enjoyment (IM) and recognition seeking (EM), as demonstrated in the Figure 4.10. below, congruence leads to the work engagement level of 4.89 out of 7. Incongruence results in lower levels of output performance. Specifically, 3.46 when task enjoyment is high while recognition seeking is low and 3.22 when it is vice-versa. Finally, the lowest level of outcome (2.32) is achieved when both task enjoyment and recognition seeking are low.



Points to Plot

		X				
		-2	-1	0	1	2
Y	2	3.22	3.23	3.34	3.56	3.89
	1	3.07	3.11	3.25	3.50	3.85
	0	2.87	2.94	3.11	3.39	3.77
	-1	2.62	2.72	2.92	3.23	3.64
	-2	2.32	2.44	2.68	3.02	3.46

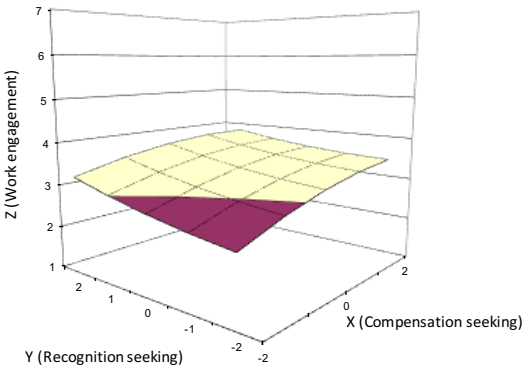
Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

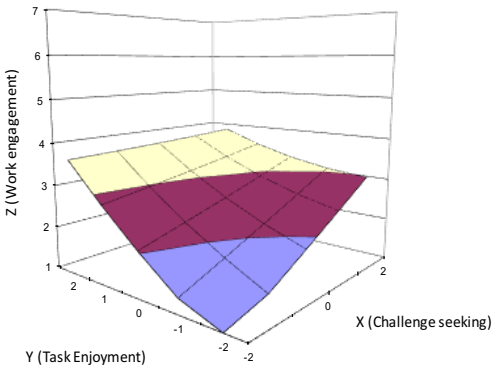
Figure 4.10. *Combination of* task enjoyment and recognition seeking *as they relate to work engagement.*

When it comes to IMxIM and EMxEM combinations, the results are likewise in favour of congruence. Specifically, in the combination of challenge seeking (IM) and task enjoyment (IM), as demonstrated in the Figure 4.11. below, congruence leads to output performance levels of 6.08 out of 7. congruence leads to work engagement levels of 3.84 out of 7. Incongruence results in lower levels of work engagement. Specifically, 3.67 when challenge seeking is high while task enjoyment is low and 2.97 when it is vice-versa.

Likewise, in the combination of compensation seeking (EM) and recognition seeking (EM), congruence leads to work engagement levels of 3.81 out of 7. Incongruence

results in lower levels of work engagement. Specifically, 3.41 when compensation seeking is high while recognition seeking is low and 3.26 when it is vice-versa.





Points to Plot

Y \ X	-2	-1	0	1	2
2	3.26	3.53	3.71	3.80	3.81
1	3.01	3.31	3.51	3.62	3.65
0	2.80	3.12	3.35	3.48	3.53
-1	2.64	2.98	3.22	3.38	3.45
-2	2.51	2.87	3.14	3.32	3.41

Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

Points to Plot

Y \ X	-2	-1	0	1	2
2	3.67	3.70	3.73	3.78	3.84
1	2.81	2.97	3.14	3.31	3.50
0	2.04	2.33	2.62	2.93	3.24
-1	1.35	1.76	2.19	2.62	3.07
-2	0.73	1.28	1.83	2.39	2.97

Note: Diagonal is line of congruence (x = y); Below the diagonal X>Y; Above the diagonal X<Y

Figure 4.11. *Combination of task enjoyment with challenge seeking, and compensation seeking with recognition seeking as they relate to work engagement.*

Now that the results of the individual combinations have been examined, it can be concluded that H3c is supported.

Going back to the H3b, it states that congruence in combinations of affective and cognitive components of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is important in influencing salesperson behavioural performance. Again, as the relationships between the combinations of motivational orientations and behavioural performance are non-significant, the information on the highest levels of behavioural performance as it is related to IMxEM, IMxIM and EMxEM cannot be assessed. Hence, H3b cannot be supported. Table 4.6. below summarizes the results of the hypothesis testing.

Hypothesis	Result	Outcome
H1a. IMxEM combinations will have a positive effect on salesperson output performance.	Significant positive a1	Supported
H1b. IMxEM combinations will have a positive effect on salesperson behavioral performance.	Insignificant a1	Not supported
H1c. IMxEM combinations will have a positive effect on salesperson work engagement.	Significant positive a1	Supported
H2a. IMxEM combinations are more effective in enhancing salesperson output performance than combinations of IMxIM/EMxEM.	The highest level of output performance (6.40 out of 7) is achieved by the combination of task enjoyment x compensation seeking (IMxEM).	Supported
H2b. IMxEM combinations are more effective in enhancing salesperson behavioral performance than combinations of IMxIM/EMxEM.	a1 is non-significant, hence conclusions cannot be drawn here.	Not supported
H2c. IMxEM combinations are more effective in enhancing salesperson work engagement than combinations of IMxIM/EMxEM.	The highest level of work engagement (3.89 out of 7) is achieved by the combination of Task Enjoyment x Recognition Seeking (IMxEM).	Supported
H3a. Congruence in combinations of affective and cognitive components of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is important in influencing salesperson output performance.	The highest levels of output performance are achieved in situations when there is a congruence between the motivational orientations in each of the individual combinations.	Supported
H3b. Congruence in combinations of affective and cognitive components of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is important in influencing salesperson behavioral performance.	a1 is non-significant, hence conclusions cannot be drawn here.	Not supported
H3c. Congruence in combinations of affective and cognitive components of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is important in influencing salesperson work engagement.	The highest levels of work engagement are achieved in situations when there is a congruence between the motivational orientations in each of the individual combinations.	Supported

Table 4.6. *Summary of the hypothesis testing.*

4.6. Discussion

4.6.1. Research implications

Research on salesperson motivation spans several decades when sales scholars have exerted substantial effort on investigating salesperson motivation, contributing to the growing body of knowledge on how salespeople can be motivated, exploring the various forms of salesperson motivation, and how they can affect varieties of salesperson performance. However, research on the combinations of the IM and EM in sales context is deficient, although the reality of the sales job increasingly requires heightened motivation to work both smarter and harder (Sujan et al., 1994), utilizing creativity (Bai et al., 2016; Miao & Wang, 2016) and working in the ambidextrous environments (der Borgh et al., 2015).

No research to date has examined the effect of the combined intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations on sales performance and work engagement of sales people. This study aims to shed the light on the relationship between the combinations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations and salesperson performance and work engagement. This study expands the extant literature base on salesperson motivation by utilizing polynomial regression with response surface analysis to study the combinations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations. This analytic method uncovered insights (e.g. congruence in the combinations of motivational orientations) which could not have been provided by other more traditional methods (e.g. multiple regression analysis or Structural Equation Modelling).

The highest levels of performance and work engagement are achieved by the combination of intrinsic with extrinsic motivational orientations and not by solely intrinsic combinations or solely extrinsic combinations. Specifically, the combination of task enjoyment (IM) and compensation seeking (EM) showed the highest levels of output performance, whereas task enjoyment (IM) with recognition seeking (EM) led to the highest level of work engagement. Although, the results reveal that all IMxEM combinations enhance output performance and work engagement, it appears that task enjoyment specifically (in combinations with extrinsic motivational orientations) plays a

somewhat more important role in influencing these work outcomes. Task enjoyment is concerned with enjoying the selling job and finding it pleasurable (T. M. Amabile et al., 1994). According to the SDT, the regulatory process that is involved here is the one of interest and inherent satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2000b); it describes human natural inclination to explorations and spontaneous interest which is a vital element of a person's cognitive and social development (Csikszentmihalyi & Rathunde, 1993). Intrinsic motivation and its affective orientation (task enjoyment) entails the feeling of personal choice and confirmation (Ryan & Deci, 2000b), i.e. it helps to satisfy the innate psychological need for self-determination (Deci, Eghrarl, Patrick, & Leone, 1994).

Interestingly, there were no significant relationships observed between any of the combinations of the IM and EM and behavioural performance. One reason for this unexpected finding may be the very nature of the behavioural performance construct. The construct typically reflects specific customer-related sales activities. While behavioural performance is a well-established measure, it seems that salespeople regard these specific customer-related sales activities as being a less essential aspect of their job performance compared to the two other, more generic performance outcomes of output performance and work engagement. The motivation of salespeople turns out to be a more important driver of more generic performance outcomes than specific behaviours. Future research is needed as to whether motivational orientations can also be used to improve on more specific customer related targets. Research could, for instance, develop more fine-grained motivational measures that are more specific in nature, more tailored to the content of the performance measure and measure their effect on this particular performance measure.

Finally, congruence in the combinations of IMxEM as well as IMxIM and EMxEM was found to be important in enhancing output performance and work engagement. That is, in most combinations, it is important to be high on both motivational orientations to achieve the highest level of outcome. Congruence is the 'fit, match, agreement, or similarity between two conceptually distinct constructs' (Edwards, 1994, p. 51). In the present study, congruence between intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations have been found to lead to the highest levels of output performance and work

engagement, compared to the situations when there is incongruence (e.g. high challenge seeking (IM) in combination with low compensation seeking (EM) would lead to higher outcome).

Congruence has long been studied in the social psychology context. Sheldon and Kasser (1995) summarize the notion of personality congruence as follows: 'Optimal psychological health and well-being occur when the different aspects of personality are integrated into a relatively harmonious whole' (p. 531). The authors suggest that the personality system is made up of the congruence of all the personality elements with basic innate human needs. However, being harmonious appears to be important not only in the context of personality, but in the context of motivation. Simply speaking, while IM and EM in combination have a positive impact on output performance and work engagement, the best results are achieved when both motivational orientations in the combination are high.

The study findings contribute to the sales domain in the following ways. First, the study adds to the sales motivation literature by investigating the combined effect of IM and EM on salesperson output performance and work engagement. Results suggest that IM and EM can co-exist and in combination enhance performance. These findings are in line with a wider psychology literature, as the most recent meta-analysis on this topic (Cerasoli et al., 2014) demonstrates that in reality, EM and IM can co-exist.

Traditionally, salesperson motivation has been linked almost exclusively to extrinsic motivators, such as financial incentives (e.g. Oliver, 1974; Walker et al., 1977). This assumption is commonly referred to as "conventional wisdom" of salesperson motivation (e.g. Cravens et al., 1993; Wotruba et al., 1991). However, the findings of the present study demonstrate that utilizing both IM and EM is far more effective. Indeed, the findings demonstrate that the highest levels of output performance and work engagement are achieved through the IMxEM combinations, and not by the solely IMxIM or EMxEM. Thus, this present study uncovers a far more complex structure to the relationship between salesperson motivation and key outcomes.

Finally, literature review suggests that this is the first study in the sales and marketing research domain to examine the combined effect of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations and to investigate the role of congruence. Congruence was found to be important in most motivational combinations which further unpicks the nature of the complex relationship between motivation and its outcomes.

4.6.2. Managerial implications

Motivation is a key concern for sales managers who aim to create high performing sales force (Anders, 2012; Chung & Narayandas, 2017; Zoltners, Sinha, & Lorimer, 2017). As Steenburgh and Ahearne (2012) ratify: 'sales executives are always looking for ingenuous ways to motivate their team'. Motivation has become increasingly vital considering the recent changes in sales organization. As such, salesperson's role in the organization has significantly shifted towards a valuable knowledge broker (Verbeke et al., 2011) and a business developer (Keszey & Biemans, 2016; Narus, 2015). Other changes include the arrival of latest sales technologies (Kuruzovich, 2013), big data (Erevelles et al., 2016) team-based structures (Stock, 2006) and global virtual sales teams (Badrinarayanan et al., 2011) – all have changed the salesperson environment.

This study offers several vital managerial implications. Sales managers are advised to carefully utilize both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational tools to increase salesperson performance and work engagement. Creating working contexts that facilitate and promote task enjoyment without over-emphasizing compensation seeking orientation appears to be advisable in this light. Indeed, such salesperson performance contingent rewards as bonuses and commissions (Kishore et al., 2013) can be harmful to IM (see Kanfer et al., 2017 for summary). Managers should administer such rewards carefully. As Alfie Kohn (1993) put it: 'pay workers well and fairly and then do everything possible to help them forget about money'. When administering rewards, sales managers need to ensure that they are informational in nature, and that they emphasize salesperson competence and do not attempt to control behaviour (Weitz et al., 1986) which will also harm IM.

When it comes to work engagement, the most effective strategy is to combine the affective dimensions (while attenuating the cognitive orientations) of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: nurturing task enjoyment, in combination with recognition seeking. Recognition is one of the key non-monetary rewards available to salespeople (Bellenger et al., 1984; Chonko et al., 1992; Churchill Jr et al., 1979). Such acknowledgements as newsletter recognition, a mention of employee's achievements on a sales meeting, or a public pat on the back from the immediate supervisor can play an important role in motivating salespeople (Chonko et al., 1992). In addition to this, managers are advised to practice nurturing task enjoyment by providing salespeople with job variety and autonomy.

Finally, it is important that sales managers attempt to utilize a more balanced approach to motivating their salespeople without concentrating only on one single type of motivation and especially without over-emphasizing extrinsic motivators.

4.6.3. Limitations and future research

Despite the important research implications offered by this study, it also has some limitations and opportunities for future research. First, the present study employs a cross-section design. One of the major issues associated with cross-sectional studies is in assessing causality which requires the researcher to control the time and order of the measured constructs (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000). Thus, future studies may consider collecting longitudinal data. Although longitudinal studies are usually associated with smaller sample sizes due to the fact that they are highly resource intensive, they are generally considered to offer a stronger evidence of causality (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006). In an ideal world, researchers would also be able to manipulate motivational variables to further assess causality. However, experiences of many researchers in this regard suggest it is difficult to convince real organizations to allow such studies to be conducted. As such, future research on those lines may be restricted to lab studies, which have potential generalizability problems of their own. The focus of this study is

studying real-world salespeople, but a variety of approaches can be taken to extend this work.

Another potential limitation is that only a single source data is collected, i.e. from salespeople. Although prior research has repeatedly demonstrated that self-report measures of performance do create an upward bias in the results (Behrman & Perreault Jr, 1982; Churchill et al., 1985; Miao & Evans, 2014), future research might consider employing a dyadic method and obtaining more objective measures such as company records or manager ratings.

Chapter 5. Study 3: Motivating salespeople with sales force control systems: a cognitive and affective perspective

5.1. Introduction

After the extensive literature on salesperson motivation has been reviewed (Chapter 2) and the outcomes of (the combinations of) motivational orientations have been investigated (Chapter 4), the aim of the present chapter (Chapter 5) is to explore the drivers of the motivational orientations. Specifically, this chapter aims to examine the effect of the key salesperson steering mechanisms, sales force control systems, on the four motivational orientations. Specifically, the study examines the impact of formal sales force controls (output and process) and informal sales force controls (professional and cultural) on the affective and cognitive orientations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of salespeople.

This chapter is structured in the following way. First section 5.2. presents the summary of the theoretical background. This is then followed by hypothesis development (section 5.3.) and a discussion of the data analysis method (section 5.4.). The next section 5.5. presents the data analysis and results. The final two sections of the chapter are dedicated to discussion of the research findings (section 5.6.) and conclusion (section 5.7.).

5.2. Theoretical background

5.2.1. Salesperson motivation

Salesperson motivation has long been one of the most important areas of sales research and one of the most important challenges for sales managers (Doyle & Shapiro, 1980; Jaramillo et al., 2005). There are a number of reasons for this. First, salespeople's performance has important bottom-line implications (MacKenzie et al., 1998). Second, the sales force accounts for the largest part of the marketing budget and marketing personnel (Cravens et al., 1993). Third, salespeople play an important boundary

spanning role in organisations connecting the needs of a company with its customers, as well as connecting various functions within the sales organisation (e.g. Burke, 2013; Marshall et al., 1999; Singh, 1998).

Motivation is defined as a psychological state that causes the arousal, direction, and persistence of behaviours conditioned by need satisfaction (Mitchell 1982). The two types of motivation which are commonly discussed in motivation literature are intrinsic motivation (IM) and extrinsic motivation (EM) (e.g. Mallin & Pullins, 2009; Tyagi, 1982; Weitz et al., 1986). IM is concerned with enjoyment of an activity itself without an obvious external reward (Teo et al., 1999; Warr et al., 1979; Weiner, 1995). The notion of IM is based on the idea of human nature being active, curious, and inquisitive (White, 1959). Contrary to this, EM drives behaviours in order to obtain an outcome (i.e. a reward) which differs from the activity itself (Davis et al., 1992; Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Teo et al., 1999).

In line with the expectancy theory tradition which was dominant in sales research up until the end of the 20th century (Cadwallader et al., 2010), IM and EM has each been treated as a global construct. This has been described as one of the 'important limitation of the extant salesperson motivation research' (Miao et al., 2007, p. 417).

A number of later studies on salesperson motivation (e.g. Miao & Evans, 2007; Miao, Lund, & Evans, 2009) subdivided IM and EM into cognitive and affective orientations. The cognitive orientation of IM is termed challenge seeking, while the affective orientation of IM is termed task enjoyment. In addition, the cognitive orientation of EM is termed compensation seeking, while the affective orientation of EM is termed recognition seeking.

Research has demonstrated the importance of studying motivation on the level of motivational orientations as opposed to a more global level of IM and EM (T. M. Amabile et al., 1994), and not considering such disaggregation may lead to inconsistent findings as presented in Chapter 2. Recent research supports this point, as the motivational orientations were found to have distinct antecedents and consequences (Miao & Evans, 2007; Miao et al., 2007). For instance, activity (behavioural) control was found to

influence only the affective orientation of EM (recognition seeking) whereas capability (behavioural) control was found to affect only the cognitive orientation of EM (compensation seeking). In addition, the activity control was found to mainly influence challenge seeking (the cognitive orientation of IM), whereas capability control was found to mainly influence task enjoyment (the affective orientation of IM) (Miao et al., 2007).

It can be seen that incorporating the affective and cognitive orientations of IM and EM is likely to have superior explanatory power, and offer more robust results, than exploring more general intrinsic and extrinsic motivation constructs, as it captures a more nuanced and proximal nature of motivation.

5.2.2. Sales force control systems

Sales force control systems have been shown to be an important influencer of salesperson motivation and behaviour (e.g. Cravens et al., 1993; Hohenberg & Homburg, 2016; Miao & Evans, 2012; Miao et al., 2007). Table 5.1. below presents a summary of the key literature on the topic of control systems and salesperson motivation.

Sales force control systems refer to sales managers' attempt to influence behaviour and activities of sales employees in order to achieve the required results (Jaworski et al., 1993). It is also a set of organisational processes and procedures for monitoring, directing and influencing salesperson behaviours, as well as for evaluating and compensating salespeople (Anderson & Oliver, 1987). Largely, the literature on sales force control systems is based on the theoretical work of Jaworski (1988) and Anderson and Oliver (1987), and as noted by Baldauf et al. (2005), these two theoretical approaches represent two alternative measures and philosophies of sales force control.

Anderson and Oliver (1987), and subsequently Oliver and Anderson (1994), suggested two types of control systems: outcome-based and behaviour-based. Outcome-based control system is characterised with monitoring the final outcome(s) of salesperson work process, whereas behaviour-based control system is characterised by monitoring

the individual behaviours in the work process (Anderson & Oliver, 1987). The authors confirmed that sales force control systems are important drivers of salespeople's affective and motivational

N	Study	Journal	Research method	Sample	Relevant findings	Motivational measure	Control system measure	Theoretical approach
1	Baldauf et al. (2001)	IMR	Cross-sectional survey with field sales managers.	174 (19.5%) – Austrian sample; 142 (25%) – UK sample.	Behaviour control has a significant positive impact on IM and recognition motivation.	IM and recognition motivation based on Anderson and Oliver (1987) and Cravens et al. (1993) and Oliver and Anderson (1994)	Anderson and Oliver (1987) and Babakus, Cravens, Johnston, and Moncrief (1996)	Anderson and Oliver (1987)
2	Bande, Fernández-Ferrín, Varela-Neira, and Otero-Neira (2016)	JBIM	Cross-sectional survey.	145 (96%)	Outcome-based control system strengthens the positive impact of servant leadership on IM.	Cravens et al. (1993) for IM.	Miao et al. (2007) based on Oliver and Anderson (1994)	Anderson and Oliver (1987)
3	Cravens et al. (1993)	JM	Cross-sectional survey.	144	Field sales management control (a dimension of Anderson and Oliver's (1987) the sales force control) has an impact on IM and recognition motivation, but not the compensation control.	Develop their own scales for IM and recognition motivation based on the Anderson and Oliver (1987).	Based on Anderson and Oliver (1987).	Anderson and Oliver (1987)
4	Mallin and Pullins (2009)	IMM	Cross-sectional survey.	275	Behaviour activity control negatively moderates the relationship between the proportion of commission (in total compensation) and IM.	Oliver and Anderson's (1994) (IM).	Piercy, Cravens, and Lane (2001)	Anderson and Oliver (1987)
5	Miao et al. (2007)	JBR	Cross-sectional survey.	175 (44.2%)	Activity control primarily impacts challenge seeking (the cognitive dimension of IM) and capability control mainly affects task enjoyment (the affective dimension of IM).	Amabile et al (1994).	Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998)	Anderson and Oliver (1987)

	Miao and Evans (2012)	IJRM	Cross-sectional survey.	195 salesperson - sales manager dyads (16.3-19.2%)	The combination of capability and outcome-based control systems has a positive combined effect on IM and salesperson knowledge. The combination of outcome and activity based control systems decrease IM but increase role clarity. IM diminishes the negative effect of role ambiguity on performance.	IM and EM scale was borrowed from Miao et al. (2007), though EM is only a control variable.	Kohli et al. (1998)	Anderson and Oliver (1987)
7	Oliver and Anderson (1994)	JM	Cross-sectional survey. Dyadic data from sales managers and salespeople.	347 (64%)	Control systems influence salespeople's affective and motivational states. Specifically, behaviour-based control is linked with greater IM, whereas outcome-based control is linked with EM.	Developed their own (IM and EM).	Developed their own measures for control systems.	Anderson and Oliver (1987)
8	Piercy et al. (2001)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	214 (90%)	There are significant differences between male/female salespeople's levels of IM.	Anderson and Oliver (1987); Oliver and Anderson (1994) and Cravens et al. (1993) (IM).	Cravens et al. (1993) and Babakus, Cravens, Grant, Ingram, and LaForge (1996)	Anderson and Oliver (1987)

Table 5.1. *Summary of the key studies that incorporate sales force control systems and salesperson motivation.*

states. Challagalla and Shervani (1996) further disaggregated behaviour-based control system into activity and capability controls. The activity control system is characterised by monitoring salesperson activities (e.g. sales calls), and a capability control system is characterised by concentrating on the application of sales and selling skills and capabilities.

A somewhat different classification was proposed by Jaworski (1988) who suggested that sales force control systems can be broadly divided into formal and informal systems. A control system is categorized as formal if it has been documented (in writing). Within the formal category two types of control system can be distinguished, based on the timing of management involvement: output and process. An output control system is based on monitoring and evaluating the set of performance results, whereas a process control system is based on influencing the ways these results are achieved (Jaworski et al., 1993). In the informal class, Jaworski (1988) distinguishes two types of control system based on the level of aggregation. A professional control system is based on the sales department's certain established unwritten norms, while a cultural control system is a set of shared values, beliefs and norms of behaviour within the whole of organisation. Jaworski et al. (1993) suggested that 'both formal and informal controls can be in place at the same time' (p.58).

Table 5.2. below represents Jaworski's (1988) control system classification.

Control system differentiation basis	Control class	Control type	Differentiation basis	Description
Documented in writing	Formal	Output	Timing of management involvement	Based on monitoring and evaluating the set of performance results.
		Process		Based on influencing the ways performance results are achieved.
Not documented in writing	Informal	Professional	Level of aggregation	Based on the sales department's certain established unwritten norms.
		Cultural		Based on a set of shared values and beliefs of behaviour within the organisation.

Table 5.2. *Control system classification (based on Jaworski, 1988).*

It is worth noting the nature of the difference between the two informal controls. It is not only in the level at which the control is aggregated, but also in the nature of each of these two types. Specifically, the cultural control is based on the idea of a work environment that is encouraging salespeople to feel a sense of pride and belongingness. The professional control, on the other hand, is centred around a set of specific interpersonal behavioural norms within a division, such as respecting each other's work and encouraging work-related discussions and cooperation.

Of course, it can be argued that Jaworski's (1988) output and process control systems are somewhat comparable with Anderson and Oliver's (1987) outcome-based and behaviour-based control systems. Table 5.3 below presents the comparison table of these two elements.

Theoretical approach	Control type	Definitions	Main elements
Anderson and Oliver (1987)	Outcome-based	Is characterised with monitoring the final outcome(s) of salesperson work process.	• Low managerial involvement with salespeople. • Objective performance measures (e.g. number of sales) • Compensation is primarily based on variable pay, i.e. commission or bonus.
	Behaviour-based	Is characterised by monitoring the individual behaviours in the work process.	• High levels of supervisor involvement and monitoring. • More sophisticated and subjective performance measures (e.g. sales activities and strategies). • Compensation is primarily based on the use of salary.
Jaworski (1988)	Output	Based on monitoring and evaluating the set performance results.	• Very low management involvement. • Objective performance targets are set, but no advice on the process of. Achieving the performance goals is given. • Responsibility of achieving the set goals lies on salespeople.
	Process	Based on influencing the ways the performance results are achieved.	• High and active supervisory involvement, monitoring and feedback. • Salespeople are evaluated on the procedures used to accomplish a given task. • Responsibility of achieving results lies on the supervisor who modifies salesperson's procedures if necessary.

Table 5.3. *Comparison between the two theoretical approaches.*

The key difference between the two approaches is in the nature of the control system typology. Specifically, Oliver and Anderson (1994) view the two control system types as two polar opposites of one control continuum (Baldauf et al., 2005), while Jaworski's (1988) approach presents them as two types of control within the formal class of control systems which can even co-exist in a firm (Panagopoulos, Johnson, & Mothersbaugh, 2015)

Although both the Anderson and Oliver's (1987) control system taxonomy (e.g. Babakus, Cravens, Johnston, et al., 1996; Krafft, 1999; Robertson & Anderson, 1993) and the Jaworski's (1988) control system development (e.g. Cravens, Lassk, Low, Marshall, & Moncrief, 2004; Jaworski & MacInnis, 1989; Jaworski et al., 1993) have been extensively studied in the sales domain, Jaworski's (1988) theoretical approach affords an important advantage. Specifically, it offers a more comprehensive view of salesperson steering mechanisms by incorporating informal control mechanisms (to capture the established norms and behavioural rules in sales department and in an organisation, as a whole) into their conceptualisation. Conversely, the Anderson and Oliver (1987) model pays little attention to such issues (Panagopoulos & Avlonitis, 2008). As Cravens et al. (2004) note, the formal and informal control classification 'offer a compelling conceptual logic for examining management control in sales organizations' (p. 241). This theoretical approach also allows one to examine the influence of both formal and informal control systems (Guenzi et al., 2014). Hence, the theoretical approach adapted in this study builds on the work by Jaworski (1988) and Jaworski et al. (1993).

5.2.3. Control systems – motivation relationship and theoretical gap

The present study builds on the prior research on sales control and salesperson motivation and is positioned within the self-determination theory (SDT).

SDT is a macro theory of motivation which was developed by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1980, 1985b). SDT states that humans have an active nature with a natural tendency for growth, integration, and self-development, and that the social environment (e.g. control system) can either encourage the personal growth and integration or condense it (Deci & Ryan, 2002). SDT posits that motivation which is formed as a result of the combined inner resources and external contexts (e.g. control systems) are based on satisfaction of three basic human needs: competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Gagne & Deci, 2005).

The link between sales force control systems and motivation has been well documented (Bande et al., 2016; e.g. Brown et al., 2005; Miao & Evans, 2007, 2012, 2014), although

research findings have been somewhat inconsistent. For instance, Anderson and Oliver (1987) suggested that behaviour-based control is associated with higher IM, whereas outcome-based control is linked with higher EM. However, Hohenberg and Homburg (2016) found that both behaviour and outcome based controls can increase IM (in an innovation-selling context). Finally, Cravens et al. (1993) reported a positive relationship between (a dimension of) behaviour control and IM, but no effect of (a dimension of) outcome control on IM.

When IM and EM are disaggregated into the affective and cognitive motivational orientations, a more detailed set of findings emerge. Specifically, Miao et al. (2007) found that activity control mainly affects challenge seeking (the cognitive dimension of IM) whereas capability control mainly affects task enjoyment (the affective dimension of IM). Further to this, activity control system is positively related to the affective orientation of EM (recognition seeking), whereas capability control is positively related to the cognitive orientation of EM (compensation seeking) (Miao et al., 2007). These findings demonstrate that affective and cognitive motivational orientations indeed have distinct relationships with sales control systems. This implies that when investigating the control systems – motivation relationship, motivation construct should be considered at individual motivational orientations level.

As it can be seen from the discussion and from the summary of the literature above as well as from the Table 5.1., the majority of studies on sales control systems have concentrated on formal control systems (Guenzi et al., 2014), while the role of informal systems has remained heavily under researched. More importantly, prior studies on salesperson motivation have not included both formal *and* informal control systems. Hence, the effect of the formal and informal control systems on the cognitive and affective orientations of IM and EM has not been explored to date. Informal controls especially have not been comprehensively studied to date, although they 'constitute aspects of control that should be closely related to behavioural self-regulation in the motivation literature and could be usefully developed in conjunction with it' (Brown et al., 2005, p. 157). Given the importance of informal control in an organisation, this is somewhat surprising.

This study builds on prior research on salesperson motivation and sales force control systems to address this gap in knowledge. Drawing on the self-determination theory (SDT), the present study proposes the theoretical model as shown on the Figure 5.1. below whereby the four sales control systems (two formal and two informal) impact the four motivational orientations (two for IM and two for EM).

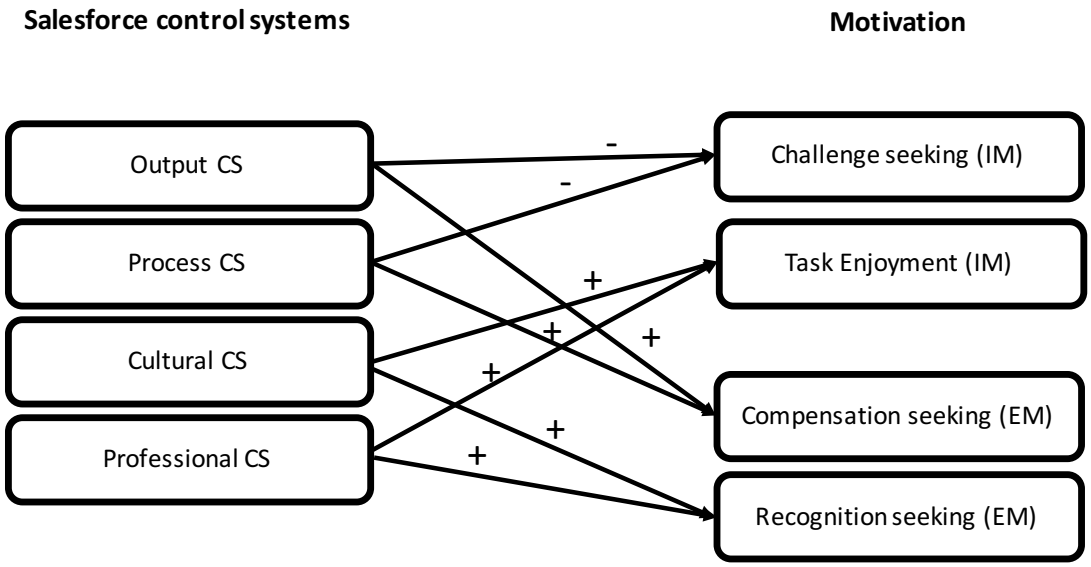


Figure 5.1. *Theoretical model.*

5.3. Hypothesis development

The relationships hypothesised below are based on prior research and theory development in the area of salesperson motivation and sales force control systems. The hypothesis development sections are structured by the types of control systems and their proposed impact on the motivational orientations.

Not all relationships were hypothesized. It was decided not to hypothesize a certain relationship if there were no theoretically compelling arguments available to underpin and argue that particular relationship.

5.3.1. Output control system and motivational orientations

The use of an output control system was found to have a significant impact on salesperson motivation (Oliver and Anderson, 1994). Oliver and Anderson (1994) further showed that this impact is greater for EM than for IM. Under output control, salespeople have little managerial direction and the risk for their performance outputs is moved on to a salesperson themselves (Oliver & Anderson, 1995). A variable compensation (i.e. commission and/or bonus) is a main source of income under an output control system, hence the monetary rewards are made highly salient (Anderson & Oliver, 1987) significantly tapping into the compensation seeking orientation. Hence, the following is hypothesised.

H1a. The use of an output control system positively impacts salesperson compensation seeking (EM, cognitive).

Under the output control system salespeople are likely to feel more pressure to achieve a certain set of performance targets, as output control is based on carefully monitoring and evaluating of that set of performance results (Jaworski et al., 1993). In settings where extrinsic motivators are tied to certain performance achievements and made salient, the level of IM will diminish (see Kanfer et al., 2017 for summary). On the other hand pressure for immediate results, and the emphasis on financial compensation as a main source of income will influence salespeople to seek quick wins and employ selling tactics to gain quick results (Anderson & Oliver, 1987). Conversely, salespeople in such a situation are less likely to seek the challenges in their work that are necessary for mastery and developing their selling skills, as this will be seen as a high opportunity cost (Andersen, 1994).

Hence, the following is hypothesised:

H1b. The use of an output control system negatively impacts salesperson challenge seeking (IM, cognitive).

5.3.2. Process control system and motivational orientations

Under a process control system, salespeople are closely monitored on their selling procedures and strategies (Jaworski & MacInnis, 1989). This reduces salespeople's role ambiguity by offering established procedures, and providing clear and corrective feedback when needed (Jaworski et al., 1993). However, salespeople who are carefully monitored for accomplishing set tasks, and are required to use set procedures, may feel diminished levels of challenge in their job (Miao et al., 2007), which is a vital and innate human psychological need (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). As a result, process control will eventually have a negative impact on their challenge seeking orientation.

Hence, the following is hypothesised.

H2a. The use of a process control system will have a negative effect on challenge seeking (IM, cognitive).

Similarly, under a process control system salespeople receive close managerial supervision and feedback on their selling strategies (Jaworski & Kohli, 1991). Under such a control system the risk is shifted towards the firm as opposed to the salesperson with the main compensation method being salary (Oliver & Anderson, 1995). As a result, in such conditions of financial security (i.e. fixed pay as opposed to variable pay) and minimal risk for the salesperson this will have lowered levels of compensation seeking.

Hence, the following is hypothesised.

H2b. The use of a process control system will have a negative effect on compensation seeking (EM, cognitive).

5.3.3. Cultural control system and motivational orientations

Cultural control system is a set of shared values and behavioural norms within an organisation as a whole. Supportive and positives working environments were found to have an important influence on salesperson's behaviours and motivations (Jaramillo & Mulki, 2008; Kemp et al., 2013; Tyagi, 1982, 1985a, 1985b). Under an informal cultural control system, salespeople have feelings of being a part of a division and feeling a sense of pride in their work (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993). Working in such positive environments mean salespeople will feel supported in their work and free to enjoy their job and associated selling tasks (Jaramillo & Mulki, 2008).

Hence, the following is hypothesised:

H3a. The presence of a cultural control system positively impacts task enjoyment (IM, affective).

In addition, because of the salience of shared values and behavioural norms within the team/division, and shared feelings of pride in their work (Jaworski et al., 1993), salespeople will be eager to get their efforts recognised satisfying the feelings of relatedness and competence (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

Hence, the following is hypothesized:

H3b. The presence of a cultural control system positively impacts recognition seeking (EM, affective).

5.3.4. *Professional control system and motivational orientations*

Under a professional control system, there exist established norms and behavioural rules in the sales department, such as encouraging cooperation and job-related discussions between salespeople. This creates an environment of mutual respect (Jaworski et al., 1993). Such informal conditions will lead to a more positive working environment for salespeople that are free to enjoy their selling job.

Hence, the following is hypothesised.

H4a. The presence of a professional control system positively impacts task enjoyment (IM, affective).

In addition, under a professional control system, most salespeople are more familiar with each other's productivity (Jaworski & MacInnis, 1989) which would create a suitable work environment for nurturing the feelings of relatedness and decrease the need for recognition. SDT asserts that people have an innate need for relatedness and competence (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Under a professional control system, salespeople would be immersed by an environment where everyone is familiar with each other's productivity to the point that colleagues are able to offer accurate evaluations of each other's accomplishments (Jaworski et al., 1993) reducing the need for recognition seeking.

Hence, the following is hypothesised:

H4b. The presence of a professional control system negatively impacts recognition seeking (EM, affective).

5.4. Method

5.4.1. Sample and data collection procedure

In order to test the proposed hypotheses, a cross-sectional survey with industrial salespeople was administered (see Chapter 2). Professional social media networks and discussion groups were utilised as main channels. These included sales professional groups on LinkedIn (linkedin.com), as well as professional sales networks of specific companies and groups which were accessed via the personal and university contacts.

The initial informational post included the general project information, the researcher's full contact details and a link to the questionnaire. Data collection was administered over 3 weeks which resulted in a total of 212 salesperson questionnaires. After the

manual check through the questionnaires, 16 questionnaires were eliminated as they were only partially complete. This resulted in 196 fully complete usable salesperson questionnaires. Salespeople represented B2B companies from various industries with the biggest proportion coming from the UK and USA. The Chapter 2 specifies the details of the sample and data collection procedure.

5.4.2. Measurement model

As it was discussed in chapter 3, the questionnaire for this study was based on existing validated scales from the recent marketing and sales literature (see Appendix 2).

The four motivational orientations (two for IM and two for EM) were measured using scales developed by Miao and Evans (2014), based on T. M. Amabile et al. (1994). Scale reliability for challenge seeking is 0.91, for task enjoyment is 0.91, for compensation seeking is 0.82 and for recognition seeking is 0.78. The four control systems were measured using scales proposed by Jaworski et al. (1993) which are based on previously utilised items. Specifically, output and process control system measures were both adapted from Ouchi and Maguire (1975), professional control system measure was based on Waterhouse and Tiessen (1978), and cultural control system measure was based on Buchanan (1974). Scale reliability for output control system is 0.79, for process control system is 0.86, for professional control system is 0.89 and for cultural control system is 0.86.

In addition to this, the questionnaire included demographic information, including age, gender, education and sales experience (general experience in sales, experience in the current position and experience in the current company).

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess the constructs' psychometric properties. The CFA showed that the composite reliability and average variance extracted exceed the recommended level (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). Average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct in a pair was greater than the squared correlation between that pair of constructs which signifies discriminant validity (Fornell

& Larcker, 1981). Descriptive statistics for the study data, including composite reliability and AVE is presented in Table 5.4. below.

		M	SD	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Challenge seeking	6.003	0.836	0.84	0.58	1.00	0.250**	0.017	0.158*	0.064	0.090	0.195**	0.128
2	Task Enjoyment	5.397	1.063	0.75	0.51	0.250**	1.00	0.019	0.238**	0.098	0.214**	0.149*	0.176*
3	Compensation seeking	5.393	1.104	0.74	0.51	0.017	0.019	1.00	0.255**	0.093	0.177*	0.256**	0.232**
4	Recognition seeking	5.169	1.330	0.88	0.72	0.158*	0.238**	0.255**	1.00	0.164*	0.355**	0.176*	0.151*
5	Professional control	5.086	1.251	0.89	0.62	0.064	0.098	0.093	0.164*	1.00	0.716**	0.308**	0.258**
6	Cultural control	5.194	1.406	0.87	0.77	0.090	0.214**	0.177*	0.355**	0.716**	1.00	0.428**	0.355**
7	Output control	5.357	1.269	0.80	0.51	0.196**	0.149*	0.256**	0.151*	0.308**	0.428**	1.00	0.665**
8	Process control	4.654	1.358	0.86	0.61	0.128	0.176*	0.232**	0.176*	0.258**	0.355**	0.665**	1.00

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 5.4. *Statistics and correlations for the 3rd study.*

Overall, each of the multi-item scales used in this study demonstrate acceptable psychometric properties. Specifically, for composite reliability, average variance extracted, and Cronbach's alpha exceed the recommended level (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). Further to this, all item reliabilities are above the recommended .40. Chi-Square Test of Model Fit $\chi 2$ = 163.882, P-Value 0.0000. Comparative fit index CFI = 0.93 and Tucker-Lewis index TLI = 0.912 which signifies an acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Root Mean Square Error Of Approximation RMSEA = 0.072 which is slightly above the recommended value of 0.06 (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Standardized Root Mean Square Residual SRMR = 0.07 which is below the recommended threshold of 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999).

5.4.3. Hypothesis testing

In order to test the proposed hypotheses a multiple regression analysis was carried out. Multiple regression can be used to identify how well a set of variables in a research model predicts an outcome of interest as well as to detect which variable in the set of predictor variables is the strongest driver of an outcome (Pallant & Manual, 2010).

A potential alternative to using multiple regression analysis could have been structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM has been used in prior research in the sales domain (e.g. Micevski, Kadic-Maglajlic, Banerjee, Cadogan, & Lee, 2017; Sok, Sok, & De Luca, 2016). Both methods utilise a single level approach (Wieseke, Lee, Broderick, Dawson, & Van Dick, 2008).

To allow for a reliable comparison of the effects of these salesforce control systems as drivers on the different motivational orientations as dependent variables, a full set of drivers was specified rather than only specifying the hypothesized relations of drivers with salesforce control systems. If one would specify all these relationships as one integral SEM model (which also means specifying the measurement model and thus specifying the involved variables at the item level as multi-item constructs), this SEM model would become very complex containing numerous parameters. Consequently, the parameter/observation ratio would become too unfavourable to yield stable

estimates. Hence, this study utilises multiple regression analysis as an estimation method.

5.5. Results

Table 5.5. (below) presents the overall results of the multiple regression analysis.

H1a posits that the use of an output control system positively impacts salesperson compensation seeking. Results of the regression analysis are not supportive of H1a (β = 0.155, α = 0.076). H1b states that the use of an output control system negatively impacts salesperson challenge seeking. The results do not support H1b (β = 0.117, α = 0.084).

H2a states that the use of a process control system will have a negative effect on challenge seeking. Results of the regression analysis do not support H2 (β = 0.016, α = 0.793). H2b which asserts that the use of a process control system will have a negative effect on compensation seeking, is not supported (β = 0.089, α = 0.258).

H3a suggests the presence of a cultural control system positively impacts task enjoyment which is supported (β = 0.193, α = 0.011). Similarly, H3b which states that cultural control positively impacts recognition seeking, is supported (β = 0.554, α = 0.000).

Finally, the results are not supportive of H4a which states that the presence of a professional control system positively impacts task enjoyment (β = -0.111, α = 0.165). However, the results support H4b, which states that the presence of a professional control system negatively impacts recognition seeking g (β = -0.280, α = 0.011).

Independent variables (N = 196)	Challenge seeking		Compensation seeking		Task enjoyment		Recognition seeking	
	B	Sig.	B	Sig.	B	Sig.	B	Sig.
Professional CS	0.002	0.977	-0.131	0.160	-0.111	0.165	-0.280	0.011
Cultural CS	0.029	0.677	0.154	0.081	0.193	0.011	0.554	0.000
Process CS	0.016	0.793	0.089	0.258	0.094	0.161	0.007	0.943
Output CS	0.117	0.084	0.155	0.076	-0.002	0.981	0.016	0.875
Age	-0.246	0.014	-0.488	0.000	-0.113	0.300	-0.239	0.114
Gender	0.195	0.169	0.151	0.402	0.315	0.043	0.453	0.036
Education	-0.101	0.017	0.021	0.701	0.037	0.425	-0.003	0.963
Experience in sales	0.035	0.006	0.031	0.055	0.027	0.055	0.003	0.871
Adjusted R2	0.063		0.130		0.072		0.165	
F-value	2.501		4.341		2.731		5.391	

CS = Control system

Table 5.5. Results of the regression analysis.

5.6. Discussion

5.6.1. *Discussion of results*

The present study expands prior research on sales control and salesperson motivation by empirically examining how salesforce control systems drive salesperson motivational orientations using SDT as a guiding theoretical rationale. It uncovers the importance of informal sales control systems in influencing sales motivation which has not been known before.

To begin with, H1a states that the use of an output control system positively impacts compensation seeking while H1b posits that it negatively impacts salesperson challenge seeking. Contrary to the expectations, the results do not support these hypotheses and reveal that the presence of an output control system does not significantly influence either salesperson challenge seeking, or compensation seeking. Apparently, output control doesn't drive salesperson challenge seeking or compensation seeking and salespersons are more driven by other, informal control systems.

In addition, H2a states that the use of a process control system will have a negative impact on challenge seeking, while H2b suggests that it will negatively impact compensation seeking. Results of the regression analysis do not support H2. Contrary to the expectations, the effect of a process control system on both challenge seeking and compensation seeking is insignificant. This control system, which relates to close supervisory monitoring of salesperson work processes and procedures doesn't appear to have an influencing power on their motivational orientations.

In short, the lack of support for H1 and H2 suggests that fostering salesperson motivational orientations doesn't appear to be due to the more traditional and formal output and process control systems but more a matter of softer, informal control systems (see the significant effects related to H3 and H4). An explanation may be that the salespersons in this study operate in sale settings in which the role of intrinsic motivation is quite relevant. The prevalence of this type of motivation seems to benefit more from softer, informal control systems than from formal ones.

Furthermore, H3a suggests that the presence of a cultural control system positively impacts task enjoyment which is supported. Similarly, H3b which states that the presence of a cultural control system positively impacts recognition seeking, is supported.

These findings are in line with the key premises of SDT. Specifically, Cognitive evaluation theory as part of SDT suggests that there is an active interaction between external events (e.g. rewards) and people's task enjoyment / interest (Deci, 1975). Cultural control refers to a set of behavioural norms within an organisation. It creates such external conditions under which salespeople feel a sense of pride in what they do and a sense of being part of the team (Jaworski et al., 1993). Such set of shared values and behavioural norms contribute to shaping salesperson's behaviours (Buchanan, 1974) and creating positive working environments which is positively associated with customer orientation and negatively associated with emotional exhaustion (Kemp et al., 2013). Therefore, salespeople under the cultural control system feel the enhanced task enjoyment in their sales job and will be happily searching for peer recognition (i.e. recognition seeking). This latter finding is in line with basic psychological needs theory, another component of SDT, external contexts can either facilitate or undermine the basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness (Ryan, 1995).

Finally, results are not supportive of H4a that the presence of a professional control system positively impacts task enjoyment, but they support H4b, which states that the presence of a professional control system negatively impacts recognition seeking.

Professional control system as an informal system refers to the sales department's established unwritten norms of behaviour and includes the notion of salesperson cooperation and high level of familiarity with other's productivity (Jaworski et al., 1993). This doesn't appear to be vital in impacting task enjoyment. However, it will have a negative impact on recognition seeking, as per SDT. Specifically, such external environments will facilitate salespeople's feelings of their own competence and relatedness to the colleagues (Deci & Ryan, 1985b) which in turn will decrease the need for recognition seeking.

5.6.2. Research implications

The study findings have a number of important research implications

First, research findings highlight the importance of informal controls, and specifically, the positive power of cultural control system. The cultural control system was found to have a direct positive effect on affective orientations of both IM and EM of salespeople. Both recognition seeking and task enjoyment are affected by the cultural control system (i.e. such work environment that encourages cooperation and feelings of being a part of the division).

Second, none of the formal controls (i.e. output control and process control) has a negative impact on the cognitive orientation of IM, challenge seeking. These findings may suggest that challenge seeking is a more stable trait-like construct (as discussed by T. M. Amabile et al., 1994).

Third, while cultural control (which is concerned with the work environment that encourages salespeople's feeling of being part of a department and pride in their work) positively impacts recognition seeking, professional control (which is concerned with salespeople being well familiar with each other's productivity levels) diminishes recognition seeking.

5.6.3. Managerial implications

The present study has a number of vital managerial implications. First, the study confirms the importance of cultural control in sales departments. Specifically, work environments that encourage salespeople feel pride in their work and support feelings of being part of a team have a positive impact on task enjoyment and recognition seeking, tapping into both IM and EM.

Second, it appears to be important to find the right balance between cultural and professional controls, i.e. between salespeople's cooperation which has a positive influence on motivation and salespeople being too familiar with each other's work

accomplishments which undermines it. Salesperson cooperation and helping behaviour was previously found to have a positive impact on performance (van der Borgh, de Jong, & Nijssen, 2017). However, when salespeople are too familiar with each other's productivity and achievements, this can be detrimental to motivation. The importance of personal autonomy has been highlighted in SDT. As per SDT, managers should to create autonomy supportive working contexts by providing greater and choice and encouraging self-initiation (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Sales managers are advised to strive for a balance between salesperson autonomy and cooperation to increase motivation.

5.7. Conclusion and future work

The objective of this study was to investigate the effect of sales force control systems on salesperson motivation. Specifically, the study assessed the impact of four types of sales force control systems (output, process, professional and cultural) on the affective and cognitive orientations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of salespeople.

The study findings are supported by theory and prior research on salesperson control and motivation and offer several future research directions. Future research can further investigate the combined effect of formal and informal control systems on motivational orientations of salespeople. Such research effort could also investigate the effect of additional contextual and individual level variables (e.g. relationship to supervisor and personality traits). Finally, further research may consider investigating the effect of sales control system on motivational orientations of salespeople in different cultures.

Chapter 6. General discussion

6.1. Introduction

Research on salesperson motivation spans several decades during which sales scholars have exerted substantial effort on investigating the construct and its antecedents and consequences. The aim of the present PhD project was to contribute to the knowledge on salesperson motivation by (1) conducting a systematic review of the literature on salesperson motivation; (2) investigating the effect of the combinations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations on salesperson performance and work engagement; and (3) examining the impact of formal and informal control systems on the motivational orientations of salespeople.

The objective of this chapter is to synthesize the key findings from the two empirical studies presented in the Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 and to summarize the research implications, limitations, future research directions and to produce managerial recommendations. The discussion outlined below reflects the research context and aim of this PhD research project.

The findings of the present PhD research contribute to the sales domain in the several ways.

First, the present PhD project provides a comprehensive review of sales force motivation literature offering a vital contribution to the knowledge of salesperson motivation. This literature review shows that although theory development has significantly advanced in this domain, several important and emerging motivation-related challenges faced by sales organisations are identified, such as e.g. the change of the role of a salesperson in an organisation.

Second, the present research further adds to the sales motivation literature by empirically investigating the combined effect of IM and EM on salesperson output performance and work engagement. More specifically, it provides insight into which particular IM and EM orientations should be combined to increase work outcomes.

Third, the research findings expand the literature by highlighting the importance of informal control systems as an alternative way to influence sales person motivational orientations. More specifically, the findings reveal that both cultural and professional control systems can be effective drivers of certain types of salesperson motivational orientations.

The remainder of this chapter is structured in the following way. The section 6.2. discusses the research implications. This is followed by the discussion of limitations and future research directions (section 6.3.) and managerial recommendations (section 6.4.). The chapter concludes with a final section (6.5.) which briefly presents some key closing points.

6.2. Research implications and key research findings

This section is organised in line with the key findings within this PhD project.

6.2.1. Combining intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations

One of the key findings of the present PhD project reveal that certain combinations of intrinsic with extrinsic types of motivational orientations lead to higher levels of both output performance and work engagement than do combinations of motivational orientations which are both intrinsic, or both extrinsic in nature. This finding presents an important contribution to the knowledge on salesperson motivation, as historically, IM and EM have been regarded as working in opposition and not combinable (DeCharms, 1968; Deci, 1971; Deci & Ryan, 1985b; Lepper et al., 1973). The present project findings contribute to the knowledge on salesperson motivation by presenting the combinatory approach to intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations.

The PhD research findings highlight a notion of congruence (agreement) between motivational orientations in these combinations. Specifically, the highest levels of

performance and work engagement can be achieved when there is a high congruence between particular intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations.

6.2.2. The role of the task enjoyment.

A second key finding of this dissertation is huge impact of task enjoyment influencing both output performance and work engagement. When combined with compensation seeking, task enjoyment results in the highest level of output performance, while when combined with recognition seeking, it results in the highest level of work engagement. This is consistent with SDT, which contends that human organisms have a natural predisposition towards curiosity, exploration and spontaneous interest. This is a vital element of a person's cognitive and social development (Csikszentmihalyi & Rathunde, 1993). This also confirms a basic notion of basic psychological needs theory – which is a part of the SDT – that task enjoyment orientation responds to the basic human need for self-determination (Deci et al., 1994) by satisfying the feelings of personal choice and confirmation (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Future research should further examine the role of task enjoyment by paying attention to its drivers and consequences.

6.2.3. Informal sales control systems

This PhD project has demonstrated the importance of informal sales control systems as a relevant alternative way next to the more well-known formal control systems to stimulate salesperson motivation.

Specifically, the findings of Study 3 revealed cultural control as an informal control system turns out to have a direct positive impact on task enjoyment and recognition seeking orientations. Professional control as another informal control system appears to have a direct negative impact on one of the motivational orientations: recognition seeking. Hence, it can be concluded that informal controls can influence task enjoyment

and recognition seeking, which in turn, may enhance output performance and work engagement.

This research adds to the literature that has long emphasized the importance of incorporating informal control when examining sales/management control strategies (e.g. Cravens et al., 2004; Panagopoulos & Avlonitis, 2008) but not empirically examined this. This research empirically confirms that such informal aspects of management control like unwritten established norms of behaviour and procedures that form the informal control class (i.e. cultural and professional control Jaworski et al., 1993) play a vital role when it comes to salesperson motivation.

6.3. Limitations and future research

Despite the important research implications offered by this PhD project, it also has some limitations as well as identifies important opportunities for future research. First, the research project employs a cross-sectional survey design. It has been previously highlighted in the literature that the sales domain is largely dominated by cross-sectional research (Asare et al., 2012; Williams & Plouffe, 2007). Hence, future studies may consider collecting longitudinal data. Although longitudinal studies are usually associated with smaller sample sizes due to the fact that they are highly resource intensive, they are generally considered to offer a stronger evidence of causality (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2006). Such longitudinal future study might consider examining the effect of the combinations of motivational orientations on output performance and work engagement, as motivation was shown to change over time (T. M. Amabile, 1993).

Data of this dissertation were based on self-reported measures from salespersons. Prior research has demonstrated that self-report measures of performance may lead to somewhat biased results (Behrman & Perreault Jr, 1982; Churchill et al., 1985; Miao & Evans, 2014). Therefore, future research may include self and manager ratings of output and behavioural performance as well as company performance ratings.

6.4. Managerial recommendations

Regulating salesperson motivation is a key challenge for managers who aim to build a high-performing sales force (Anders, 2012; Chung & Narayandas, 2017; Zoltners et al., 2017). This PhD project offers several vital managerial implications.

First, this research shows that fostering both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations yield higher levels of salesperson performance and work engagement, than solely concentrating on either intrinsic or extrinsic motivators. In other words, the dissertation findings recommend managers to broaden their scope, consider multiple orientations, and utilise a balance of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational tools.

Second, this dissertation provides evidence of the importance of task enjoyment (when combined with recognition seeking) as a driver of salesperson work engagement and of output performance (when combined with compensation seeking). This implies that managers should carefully consider and foster the 'pleasure' factor in salespeople's work environment and create conditions where salespeople are free to immerse and experience enjoyment with their sales activities.

Third, the dissertation findings highlight the relevance of informal control systems in influencing salesperson motivation. Hence, it is advised that managers should invest more resources in developing such work environments that encourage salespeople to feel pride in their work and support feelings of being part of a team. All of these (as part of the informal controls) have a positive impact on task enjoyment and recognition seeking, tapping into both IM and EM. In short, the results are a call to managers to also consider the often disregarded informal salesforce controls as suitable drivers of salesperson motivation.

6.5. Conclusion

The aim of the present PhD project was a threefold. First, to produce a systematic review of the literature on salesperson motivation. Second, to examine the combined effect of

intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations on salesperson performance and work engagement. Third to analyse the impact of formal and informal sales control systems on the salesperson motivation (i.e., on the four motivational orientations).

Research findings offer a series of important and somewhat thought-provoking research contributions into the literature on salesperson motivation and on salesforce control systems. Based on the research findings a series of managerial implications were formulated offered to provide sales managers with action items for better managing their sales personnel. Finally, despite the vital research and managerial implications, as any other project this study has some limitations that, when coupled with the findings themselves, provide fruitful avenues for continuing academic work on salesperson motivation.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Summary table of key articles on salesperson motivation.

N	Study	Journal	Methodology	Sample size and response rate	Key relevant findings	Theory	Summary on motivation measures.
1	Oliver (1974)	JMR	Cross-sectional survey.	95 (96%)	IM is a poor predictor of performance, whilst EM was effective in predicting performance.	Expectancy theory.	IM is measured as five intrinsic outcomes.
2	Walker et al. (1977)	JM	Conceptual paper.	N/A	The paper has provided a now classical definition: "motivation is viewed as the amount of effort the salesman desires to expend on each of the activities or tasks associated with his job, such as calling on potential new accounts, planning sales presentations, and filling out reports".	Expectancy theory.	N/A.
3	Evans et al. (1982)	JPSSM	Literature review.	N/A	Literature review on expectancy theory research in sales domain.	Expectancy theory.	N/A.
4	Tyagi (1982)	JMR	Cross-sectional survey.	104	IM and EM have distinct predictors (drivers) among the organizational climate variables. Organizational climate variables produce stronger influence on IM than on EM. All organizational climate variables apart from challenge and variety have a significant impact on IM (job importance, Task conflict, Role overload, Leadership consideration, Organizational identification and Management concern and awareness). Job challenge and variety, job	Expectancy theory.	Developed his own in line with Expectancy model.

					importance and role overload do not significantly impact EM. Only job importance and organizational identification have a mild influence on EM.		
5	Becherer, Morgan, and Richard (1982)	JM	Cross-sectional survey.	214 (33.2-65.8 depending on how many questionnaires have reached the salespeople)	Job related factors impact on motivation and job satisfaction of salespeople. It appears that internal motivation is positively related to the ways salespeople perceive their job characteristics and psychological states.	Job design theory.	Job diagnostics survey by Hackman and Oldham (1974).
6	Churchill et al. (1985)	JMR	Meta-analysis.	N/A	Motivation is third most important determinant of performance.	N/A	N/A
7	Tyagi (1985a)	JAMS	Cross-sectional survey.	104 (63%)	Organizational stress variables contribute negatively to both IM and EM. Role ambiguity did not produce any effect on IM or EM, though this could be situational. Role conflict was shown to produce the strongest negative impact on IM and EM. The variable role overload had a much stronger impact on IM than on EM.	Expectancy theory.	Developed his own.
8	Tyagi (1985c)	JM	Cross-sectional survey.	111 (62%)	Both job (re)design and leader's behavior affect salesperson IM and EM but to a different extent. Specifically, key job dimensions (job autonomy, variety, importance, task identity, feedback and agent's feedback) are more effective in impacting IM whereas leadership behavior is more effective in impacting EM. IM is more important predictor of salesperson performance, than EM.	Job design theory and expectancy theory.	Developed his own.

9	Sujan (1986)	JMR	Cross-sectional survey.	1283 (32 %)	Salespeople's motivation to work smarter has more important performance implications that motivation to work harder. An orientation towards extrinsic rewards leads salespeople to attribute their failures to a lack of effort which in turn motivates them to work harder. An orientation towards intrinsic rewards leads salespeople to attribute failures to poor strategies which in turn motivates them to work smarter.	Attribution theory.	Developed his own (M).
10	Teas and McElroy (1986)	JM	Cross-sectional survey.	N/A	The authors integrate expectancy and attribution theory.	Expectancy theory and attribution theory.	N/A.
11	Weitz et al. (1986)	JM	Cross-sectional survey.	N/A	The authors propose a framework for motivation to practice adaptive selling.	Attribution theory and theory Z.	N/A.
12	Beltramini and Evans (1988)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	933 (46.7%)	Contests have a potential to motivate salespeople, however, in order to serve a motivating purpose, they should be perceived as separate from the main compensation.	Not specified.	A series of agree/disagree items adapted from Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1974).
13	Cron et al. (1988)	JM	Cross-sectional survey.	176 (78%)	Salesperson motivation varies depending on career stage - in line with career stages framework.	Expectancy theory.	Used thermometer like scales and chances 0 to 100 on the expectancy,

							valence and instrumentality.
14	Abratt and Smythe (1989)	IMM	Cross-sectional survey.	Study of 75 industrial firms in South Africa.	The key salesperson motivators are satisfaction in the job well done and a desire for money.	Not specified.	N/A.
15	Ingram et al. (1989)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	231 (57.5%)	Salesperson's EM but not IM has a significant positive influence on effort which in turn has a significant positive influence on performance.	Expectancy theory.	Tyagi (1985c) and Kohli (1985).
16	Badovick (1990)	JAMS	Cross-sectional survey.	146 (94%) respondents who failed to make their monthly quota	Attribution theory is proposed as an additional theory of salesperson motivation. Feelings of self-blame after a failure of not completing a quota and feeling of satisfaction in performance (after completing a quota) directly influence motivation. When salesperson takes responsibility for their performance, then feelings of self-blame result in increased subsequent effort. Contrary to Weiner's Attribution theory, feelings of performance satisfaction resulted in subsequent decrease in effort.	Attribution theory.	Sujan's (1986) Smarter and harder.
17	Spiro and Weitz (1990)	JMR	Cross-sectional survey (scale development).	268 (54%)	Scale development. IM is a part of the developed adaptive selling framework and measured as rewards arising from the task itself (e.g. selling is like playing a game).	Not specified.	Developed their own (IM).
18	Chonko et al. (1992)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	249 (24.9%)	Sales people report that pay rises are one of the most important motivators.	Not specified.	N/A.

19	Chowdhury (1993)	JMR	Laboratory experiments.	N/A	Strong effect of self-efficacy on salesperson motivation and effort when sales tasks begin to increase in difficulty. However, this effect is only marginal for low quota levels or for easy tasks.	Expectancy theory, achievement motivation theory and goal setting theory.	Not measured. Motivation is used interchangeably with effort.
20	Dubinsky, Jolson, Michaels, Kotabe, and Lim (1993)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	212 (62%)	Minimal differences in male and female salespeople's perceptions of expectancies, instrumentalities, and valence for rewards.	Expectancy theory.	Teas (1981) and Tyagi (1985a).
21	Keaveney and Nelson (1993)	JAMS	Cross-sectional survey.	305 (43.6)	Intrinsic motivational orientations decrease perceptions of role conflict and role ambiguity and enhance job satisfaction.	Causality orientations theory (SDT).	Developed their own (guided by Ryan and Deci (1985).
22	Dubinsky et al. (1994)	JBR	Cross-sectional survey.	218 (64.1%), 220 (62.9%) and 156 (34.7%).	Dramatic difference in motivational perceptions between the US salespeople and Japanese and Korean salespeople.	Expectancy theory.	
23	Oliver and Anderson (1994)	JM	Cross-sectional survey. Dyadic data from sales managers and salespeople.	347 (64%)	Control systems influence salespeople's affective and motivational states. Specifically, behavior-based control is linked with greater IM, whereas outcome-based control is linked with EM.	Sales force control framework.	Developed their own (IM and EM).

24	Keck et al. (1995)	JPSSM	In-depth interviews and cross-sectional survey.	92 (64.6%)	Motivation to earn money, personal enjoyment of selling, motivation to earn recognition from the peers and willingness to work hard are among several key agency success factors.	Not specified.	N/A.
25	Barling, Cheung, and Kelloway (1996)	JAP	Cross-sectional survey	105 (87.5%)	The time-management behavior varies across individual levels of motivation.	Not specified.	Spence, Helmreich, and Pred (1987) (achievement striving).
26	DeCarlo, Teas, and McElroy (1997)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	135 (87%)	Organizational support attributions following high self-ratings can increase salesperson motivation, whereas organizational support attributions following low performance self-ratings can decrease it.	Attribution theory and expectancy theory.	N/A
27	Fine and Pullins (1998)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	165 (36.6%)	Significant differences on motivational variables between men and women in the mentor-protégé relationship. Specifically, female protégés with female mentors report higher motivation levels than male mentors with female protégés.	Not specified.	Hackman and Oldham (1976).
28	Schulman (1999)	JPSSM	Conceptual paper.	N/A	Based on prior research, the authors conclude that optimism result in increased level of motivation.	Learned helplessness theory.	N/A.
29	Smith et al. (2000)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey for study 1 and scenario-based experiment for study 2.	161 (43%) for study 1 and 251 (31%) for study 2	Perceptions of fairness (perceptions of gaining or loosing sales potential) in territory-alignment situations affect motivation. Salesperson motivation increases as managers take more actions (justice/fairness related). Motivation is an important predictor of performance.	Expectancy theory and organizational justice theory.	Combination of working hard and working smart measures (Oliver and Weitz, 1991 and Sujan,

							Weitz and Kumar, 1994).
30	Pullins et al. (2000)	JBIM	Laboratory experiment.	76	Individual differences in IM orientation (operationalized as causality orientation of autonomy) affect the cooperative negotiation tactics in negotiations between a seller and a buyer.	SDT.	Deci and Ryan's (1985) general causality orientation scale. SDT.
31	K. Grant et al. (2001)	JAMS	Cross-sectional survey.	148 (55%)	Satisfaction with territory design enhances IM which in turn reduces role ambiguity. Also, IM increases job satisfaction.	Not specified	Anderson and Oliver (1987), Oliver and Anderson (1994) and Cravens et al. (1993) (IM).
32	Low et al. (2001)	JM	Cross-sectional survey.	148 (55%)	IM directly reduces burnout, role conflict, role ambiguity, and increases job satisfaction. In turn, burnout has a significant negative impact on job satisfaction and performance.	Not specified.	Anderson and Oliver (1987), Oliver and Anderson (1994) and Cravens et al. (1993) (IM).
33	Pullins (2001)	IMM	Interviews.	19	Managers think that less than half of the motivation comes from incentive pay and the rest (biggest part) comes from intrinsic rewards.	SDT.	N/A.
34	Dubinsky and Skinner (2002)	IMM	Conceptual paper.	N/A	The authors build a proposition (among others) that salesperson IM is positively related to discretionary effort.	Expectancy theory.	N/A.

35	Pettijohn et al. (2002)	P&M	Cross-sectional survey.	109 (50%)	Interaction between salesperson motivation and skill level significantly related to customer orientation levels.	Not specified.	N/A.
36	Menguc and Barker (2003)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	102 (20.7%)	When extrinsic rewards (motivators) are strong, salespeople may compensate for the lack of intrinsic rewards in their jobs.	Agency theory and organizational control theory.	N/A.
37	Murphy (2004)	JBR	Cross-sectional survey.	827 (53%)	In high motivation conditions, affective organizational commitment and relationship with supervisor lead to less tendency to engage in problematic behaviors.	Theory of planned behavior.	N/A.
38	Verbeke et al. (2004)	JAMS	Cross-sectional survey (scenario based).	93 (30.5%) in study 1 and 250 (52%) in study 2.	Salespeople are affected by their emotions but they can control them to their advantage. Specifically, pride was found to stimulate performance-related motivations.	Not specified.	Spiro and Weitz (1990) and Sujan (1994).
39	Brown et al. (2005)	JPSSM	Conceptual paper.		Call for integrating the research domains of salesperson motivation, control systems, and compensation.	N/A	Goal theory and expectancy theory.
40	Harris, Mowen, and Brown (2005)	JAMS	Cross-sectional survey.	190 (84%).	Learning orientation has a positive impact on customer orientation, whereas performance orientation has a positive impact on selling orientation.	Control theory.	N/A.
41	Segalla, Rouziès, Besson, and Weitz (2006)	IJRM	Cross-sectional survey (scenario based)	652 (62%).	Sales managers choose incentive pay to increase salesperson motivation, or salary to increase control and parity.	Expectancy theory, agency control theory and	N/A.

						social comparison theory.	
42	Jaramillo et al. (2007)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	400 (66.7%)	Initiative strengthens the positive relationship between IM and adaptive selling. IM has a significant effect on adaptive selling. Also, customer orientation mediates the relationship between IM and adaptive selling.	Action control theory.	Oliver and Anderson (1994) (IM and EM).
43	Miao et al. (2007)	JBR	Cross-sectional survey.	175 (44.2%)	Activity control primarily impacts challenge seeking (the cognitive dimension of IM) and capability control mainly affects task enjoyment (the affective dimension of IM).	SDT.	Amabile et al (1994).
44	Miao and Evans (2007)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	175 (44.2%)	Cognitive and affective orientations of IM and EM have distinct impact on role conflict and role ambiguity and subsequently, behavioral and outcome performance.	Not specified.	Amabile et al (1994).
45	Jaramillo and Mulki (2008)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	344 (60%).	Supportive leadership has a direct positive effect on IM. IM is an important driver of salesperson effort. EM has a negative effect of effort. Female salespeople are less influenced by EM than male salespeople.	Path goal theory and social cognitive theory.	Oliver and Anderson (1994) (IM and EM).
46	Miao et al. (2009)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	175 (44%)	Cognitive orientations of IM and EM vary depending on salesperson's career stage, whereas affective orientations of IM and EM do not.	Expectancy theory and career stage theory.	Amabile et al (1994).

47	Fu et al. (2009)	JPSSM	Longitudinal study.	143 (17.9% final response rate)	The study indicates the importance of motivation hub (self-set goals and self-efficacy) in influencing salesperson's effort and new product sales.	Goal-setting theory.	Self-reported measures of self-set goals and self-efficacy.
48	Mallin and Pullins (2009)	IMM	Cross-sectional survey.	275	Salesperson customer orientation has a direct positive impact on IM through feelings of fulfilment and enjoyment of being instrumental to the customer. Behavior activity control negatively moderates the relationship between the proportion of commission (in total compensation) and IM.	Cognitive evaluation theory (SDT).	Oliver and Anderson's (1994) (IM).
49	Roman and Iacobucci (2010)	JAMS	Dyad: cross-sectional survey with salespeople plus telephone interviews for customers.	210 salespeople (out of 300) and 630 customers	IM among others mediates the relationship between a salesperson's perception of the firm's customer orientation and salesperson's adaptive selling behavior.	Expectancy theory.	Spiro and Weitz (1990) (IM).
50	Cadwallader et al. (2010)	JAMS	Cross-sectional survey.	328 (100%)	The study incorporates three levels of motivation: global, contextual, and situational (Vallerand 1995, 1997). Global motivation positively impact on contextual motivation regarding technology and work. Then, the contextual motivation for both technology and work has a positive impact on innovation implementation. Employee feelings and beliefs have a significant impact on situational	SDT.	Guay et al (2000).

					motivation to implement service innovation strategies.		
51	Byrne, Moon, and Mentzer (2011)	IMM	Interviews and cross-sectional survey.	262 (68.6%)	Motivational dimensions of sales force forecasting (satisfaction, seriousness and effort) are influenced by the five environmental signals: training, feedback, knowledge of how the forecast is used, forecasting computer program, and others' level of seriousness.	Developed their own (theory of industrial sales force forecasting)	Developed their own (for satisfaction, seriousness and effort)
52	Levin et al. (2012)	JPSSM	Quasi-experiment.	194 (68.5%)	IM and EM have a positive impact whereas apathetic motivation has a negative impact on the intention to use sales- and marketing-related technology.	Not specified	Davis et al (1992) (IM and EM). Vallerand et al (1992) (apathetic motivation)
53	Miao and Evans (2012)	IJRM	Cross-sectional survey.	195 salesperson-sales manager dyads (16.3-19.2%)	The combination of capability and outcome-based control systems has a positive combined effect on IM and salesperson knowledge. The combination of outcome and activity based control systems decrease IM but increase role clarity. IM diminishes the negative effect of role ambiguity on performance.	Expectancy theory and Cognitive evaluation theory (SDT).	IM and EM scale was borrowed from Miao et al. (2007), though EM is only a control variable.

54	Kemp et al. (2013)	EJM	Cross-sectional survey.	154 (51.3%)	Salesperson motivation is positively related to positive working environments and customer-oriented selling and negatively related to emotional exhaustion. Also, the relationship between manager support and salesperson motivation was not significant. However, the experience of positive emotions mediates the relationship between managers' support and salesperson motivation.	Not specified.	Badovick et al. (1992).
55	Schmitz (2013)	JAMS	Cross-sectional survey.	55 usable level-2 and 222 usable level-1 data records (77%)	The study found that the relationship between salesperson's motivation and their adoption of the company's product portfolio is positively moderated by a strong team group norm for cross-selling.	Social norm theory and reputation theory.	Sujan et al. 1994.
56	Yidong and Xinxin (2013)	JBE	Cross-sectional survey.	302 (75.5%)	IM mediates the relationship between the perceptions of ethical leadership on an individual and group level and salespeople's innovative work behavior.	Cognitive evaluation theory (SDT).	Zhang and Bartol (2010).
57	Michel et al. (2015)	JPSSM	Interviews and cross-sectional survey.	72 for interviews and 297 for survey.	Salesperson-brand relationship and brand affect have a positive effect on salesperson motivation to sell.	Consumer–brand relationship theory.	Spiro and Weitz (1990).
58	Tanner et al. (2015)	JPSSM	Cross-sectional survey.	339 (97%)	The effect of motivation for compensation/motivation for recognition on performance was non-significant. However, motivation for recognition was found to have a direct positive effect on satisfaction with moderating (weakening) effect of ethical climate.	Expectancy theory and social cognition theory.	Chonko et al (1996).

59	Bande et al. (2016)	JBIM	Cross-sectional survey.	145 (96%)	IM mediates the positive relationship between servant leadership and salesperson adaptively and proactivity. Outcome-based control system strengthens the positive impact of servant leadership on IM.	Cognitive evaluation theory (SDT).	Cravens et al. (1993) (IM.
60	Hansen and Levin (2016)	JBR	Cross-sectional survey.	210 (30%)	Apathetic motivation, IM and EM are distinct variables that can co-exist.	Expectancy theory and SDT.	Levin et al (2012) (IM, EM and apathetic motivation).
61	Hohenberg and Homburg (2016)	JM	Cross-sectional survey.	471 (76.7) from across 38 countries	In all cultures both behavior-based and outcome-based steering instruments can increase salesperson's autonomous innovation-selling motivation and the financial performance of innovations. Individualism strengthens the positive relationship between variable compensation and financial innovation performance through IM, but the power distance and uncertainty avoidance weaken this relationship Study findings offer a strong support for SDT.	SDT.	Grant et al. (2011) (IM).
62	Sok et al. (2016)	IMM	Cross-sectional survey.	239 (44%)	"Can do" and "reasons to" motivations impact salesperson ambidexterity.	Regulatory mode theory and SDT.	Spence and Robbins (1992) ("Reasons to" motivations), Kruglanski et al (2000) ("Can do" motivations)

63	Fu, Elliott, Mano, and Galloway (2017)	JMTP	Cross-sectional survey.	136 (68%)	IM and EM positively impact affective brand commitment which in turn has a positive impact on effort. Though the relationship of affective brand commitment and effort is significant only when both IM and self-efficacy are high. Non-significant relationship between EM and effort. EM has a positive impact on affective brand commitment.	Theory of planned behavior and the motivation, opportunity, and ability theory.	Miao, Evans and Zou (2007) (IM and EM)

Appendix 2. Measurement constructs

Construct/variable and source	Items
Challenge seeking (CA = 0.84) Miao and Evans (2014) based on T. M. Amabile et al. (1994).	(1 = fully disagree, 7 = fully agree) • I enjoy tackling sales problems that are completely new to me (0.80). • I enjoy trying to solve complex sales problems (0.74). • The more difficult the sales problem, the more I enjoy trying to solve it (0.79). • I prefer work that stretches my abilities (0.84).
Task enjoyment (CA = 0.77) (as above)	(1 = fully disagree, 7 = fully agree) • What matters most to me is enjoying my selling job (0.71). • It is important for me to be able to enjoy my selling job (0.75). • I enjoy selling for the pleasure of it (0.69). • It is the experience of selling that gives me the most pleasure (0.69).
Compensation seeking (CA = 0.68) (as above)	(1 = fully disagree, 7 = fully agree) • I am strongly motivated by the money I can earn in my sales job (0.49). • I want fellow workers to find out how good I really can be at work (0.69). • I am keenly aware of the promotion goals I have for myself (0.65). • Money is the main motivator of my selling job (0.60).
Recognition seeking (CA = 0.88) (as above)	(1 = fully disagree, 7 = fully agree) • I am strongly motivated by the recognition I can earn from other people (0.82). • I want other people to find out how good I really can be at my work (0.77). • It is important that fellow workers look up to me (0.90).
Output performance (CA = 0.80) Behrman and Perreault Jr (1982)	(1 = fully disagree, 7 = fully agree) • I am very effective in contributing to my firm's market share (0.85). • I am very effective in generating high-level sales (0.67). • I am very effective in selling to major accounts (0.76).

	• I am very effective in exceeding annual sales targets and objectives (0.71).
Behavioural performance (CA = 0.63) (as above)	(1 = fully disagree, 7 = fully agree) • I am very effective in maintaining good customer relations. • I am very effective in providing accurate information to customers and other people in my company. • I am very effective in providing accurate and complete paperwork. • I am very effective in acquiring the necessary knowledge about my products, competitor's products, and my customers' needs.
Work engagement (CA = 0.91) Salanova et al. (2005)	(1 = fully disagree, 7 = fully agree) • At my work, I feel bursting with energy (0.90). • At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (0.90). • When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (0.90). • I am enthusiastic about my job (0.89). • My job inspires me (0.89). • I am proud of the work that I do (0.91). • I feel happy when I am working intensely (0.91). • I am immersed in my work (0.90). • I get carried away when I am working (0.92).
Sales force control systems: output control Jaworski et al. (1993) based on Ouchi and Maguire (1975)	• Specific performance goals are established for my job. • My immediate supervisor monitors the extent to which I attain my performance goals. • If my performance goals were not met, I would be required to explain why. • I receive feedback from my immediate superior concerning the extent to which I achieve my goals. • My pay increases are based upon how my performance compares with my goals.

Sales force control systems: process control (as above)	• My immediate supervisor monitors the extent to which I follow established procedures. • My immediate supervisor evaluates the procedures I use to accomplish a given task. • My immediate supervisor modifies my procedures when desired results are not obtained. • I received feedback on how I accomplish my performance goals.
Sales force control systems: professional control Jaworski et al. (1993) based on Waterhouse and Tiessen (1978)	• The division encourages cooperation between salespeople. • Most of the salespeople in my division are familiar with each other's productivity. • The division fosters an environment where salespeople respect each other's work. • The division encourages job-related discussions between salespeople. • Most salespeople in my division are able to provide accurate appraisals of each other's work.
Sales force control systems: cultural control Jaworski et al. (1993) based on Buchanan (1974)	• The work environment encourages salespeople to feel a part of the division. • The work environment encourages salespeople to feel a sense of pride in their work.

Appendix 3. Summary of the main feedback received from the respondents

1. Clarification is needed on what 'Management Report' means.
2. "I feel I am working too hard for my customers because they're too demanding" question is not very clear whether the main emphasis on the question is on the customers being too demanding or on working too hard.
3. "I feel I work too hard trying to satisfy non-sales employees of the company" question – perhaps not satisfy, but communicate? As "satisfy" has a very strong meaning and no department will ever strive to "satisfy" another department.
4. Questions "I will probably look for a new job next year" and "It is likely that I will actively look for a new job next year" are too similar. What's the difference?
5. The phrase "sales problem in the "I enjoy tackling sales problems that are completely new to me" and following 2 questions is not very clear. The phrase "sales problem" is perceived as a real problem in a firm (e.g. problem with other departments, etc). Perhaps a phrase "negotiation challenge" or "sales challenge" would better describe the challenge emphasis of the question.
6. Comment on the recognition question – recognition is extremely important to motivate salespeople, as targets are always set too high.
7. In the question "I am very effective in providing accurate information to customers and other people in my company" the phrase "accurate information" is ambiguous, as salespeople often provide information that is accurate, but in a way "stretches the truth".
8. In the question "I am very effective in providing accurate and complete paperwork" it is unclear what the word "paperwork" refers to. Is it providing reports on pipelines and sales targets? Or is it something else?
9. In the question "I am very effective in contributing to my firm's market share" the meaning of the phrase "contributing to my firm's market share" is unclear.
10. In the question "I am very effective in selling to major accounts" it is unclear as to what "selling" means. Is it "upselling" (as major accounts mean existing accounts) or is it "managing accounts"?
11. In the question "I am very effective in exceeding annual sales targets and objectives" it is better to ask about targets in general, as they are not always "annual". Targets very often are monthly, per product, per event, etc).
12. The question "I offer the product/service that is best suited for the customer's problem" is quite ambiguous, as salesperson will always try to sell the best suited product to the customer, but at the same time it will be a product that he/she needs to sell at the time. Hence, many salespeople try to

find a balance between what a customer needs and what a salesperson needs to sell.

13. The 6 questions (that related to ethical behaviour) are very product specific.
14. “distribute 10 points between different types of recognition – it is not clear that the points have to add up to 10.
15. “Mention of your work in sales meeting” – always happens but it’s is never a “well done” kind of “mention”. It is just a “mention” without saying how good it was.
16. The phrase “compensation plan” is confusing! Is it “total pay”?
17. Bonuses may not be available for normal salespeople. In fact, salespeople never have bonuses. They have OTE (on-target earnings). Bonuses are something that is available for senior managers, e.g. sales directors, marketing directors, etc.
18. Salary is usually titled “basic salary”.
19. General comment on many of the questions – salesperson answers and behaviours depend hugely on their training, i.e. whether they received sales training or not.

Appendix 4a. Project information/invitation to participate – version 1 (LinkedIn)

Salespeople from medium and large B2B companies from all industries! You are invited to participate in **PhD Research on salesperson motivation**. It only takes **15 minutes.**

Participants who fully complete questionnaires will be entered in a prize draw to win one of three **iPad Mini 2** and will receive a **management report** presenting the most important findings of the study.

About the Research

Conventional wisdom of salesperson motivation reads: salespeople are motivated by money. However, some research suggests that motivation is also influenced by such things as supportive working environment, work-related recognition, person's personal characteristics and personality traits.

My research is trying to unravel the topic of salesperson motivation and to examine how intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are influenced by working environment, salesperson rewards and recognition, and how motivation is linked to performance, work engagement and boredom.

Benefits of participation

- By taking part in this research you will be entitled to a **management report** exclusively based on the findings of the study.
- Participants will get a chance to **win one of 3 x Apple iPad mini 2**.

How to get involved

If you are interested to take part in this research project or if you would like to discuss it, please email me on khusair1@aston.ac.uk or rushana.k@gmail.com, my mobile is [redacted].

The research involves salespeople completing an **online questionnaire** that takes about **15 minutes** to complete.

Confidentiality.

All information provided will be treated in the strictest confidence, and the research is being conducted in accordance with the Aston University Research Ethics Committee.

Appendix 4b. Project information/invitation to participate – version 2 (email).

Project Overview – Understanding and Increasing Salesperson Motivation and Performance

Why is this interesting?

Motivation directly leads to performance. This is why salesperson motivation is one of the key challenges for sales executives.

Companies implement complex compensation plans, extravagant sales contests and offer stimulating salary/bonus packages hoping to maximize sales force motivation. However, such things only account for the compensation seeking part of motivation, neglecting the other three types of motivation: recognition seeking, challenge seeking and task enjoyment. Research shows that over-reliance on compensation (e.g. money and other material rewards) can be expensive, and worse, less effective than a more balanced approach. Such an approach might use, for example, recognition as one of the rewards to motivate salespeople. Also, such an approach might take into account supervisory style that may also have an impact on salesperson motivation and hence, performance.

If we understand better how salesperson rewards (namely, salary, bonus and commission as well as recognition) can influence the four types of motivation, we will be able to better predict and steer important job outcomes like performance, organisational commitment, engagement and customer/selling orientation.

What it involves

The research involves salespeople completing an **online questionnaire** that takes about **15 minutes** to complete**.**

By conducting research with your company, the results should help us and you to answer the following questions:

- How can we ensure that salespeople are highly motivated to prioritise customer needs and feel engaged in their job?
- How can we achieve optimal levels of salesperson motivation and hence, performance?
- How can we ensure that salespeople have lower levels of job stress and burnout and that they are committed to their organisation?

Benefits of participation

- By taking part in this research you will be entitled to a **management report** exclusively based on the findings of the study.
- **Participants will get a chance to win one of 3 x Apple iPad mini 2.**

Confidentiality

All information provided will be treated in the strictest confidence, and the research is being conducted in accordance with the Aston University Research Ethics Committee.

Contact me

If you have any questions or would like to discuss the project, please contact me by email khusair1@aston.ac.uk or rushana.k@gmail.com or mobile [redacted]

Appendix 5. Informed consent form.

Informed consent form
Unravelling salesperson motivation

Researcher's contact details:
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	Please tick the box
I agree to take part in the above study.	☐
I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.	☐
I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without providing a reason.	☐

....
Your name **Date** **Signature**