ESSAYS ON SALES FORCE TURNOVER AND JOB SATISFACTION

A Dissertation Presented

by

HOSSEIN HASHEMI BAHRAMANI

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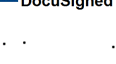
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DEDICATION

To Zohreh, the source of my greatest love and deepest affection.

& To Leila, my radiant source of joy and happiness…

To all those mentioned above, as well as the countless others who have supported me along this path, I extend my deepest thanks. Your contributions have been immeasurable, and I am truly humbled and blessed to have had such remarkable individuals in my life.

ABSTRACT

ESSAYS ON SALES FORCE TURNOVER AND JOB SATISFACTION

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Salespeople are among the most valuable resources of a firm. The salesperson's roles in value realization includes translating a firm's offerings into financial and relational rewards, co-creating value with customers, and forming and maintaining business relationships. Thus, retaining salespeople and enhancing their job satisfaction (JS) are among the top priorities of managers and the focus of this dissertation.

This dissertation presents three essays in sales management. Essay 1 provides a quantitative synthesis of turnover literature using meta-analytical methods. Using 129 samples of 36,436 salespeople, this study conceptualizes the antecedents of salesperson turnover into 30 unique groups and presents a bivariate meta-analysis of the relationships between these antecedents and turnover. In addition, the study provides moderation analyses of contextual, methodological, and measurement factors and tests the top three turnover theories applied in the literature: job demands–resources, social exchange, and social identity theories. The bivariate analyses highlight the importance of emotional exhaustion and trust in supervisors in turnover decisions among salespeople. The moderation analyses reveal that, compared with nonsales

employees, for salespeople, performance has twice the impact on actual turnover. The analyses also provide evidence for the distinction between turnover intention and action, suggesting a need for fresh theory development in the field. The study concludes by outlining future research directions at the individual, team, and organizational levels.

Essay 2 focuses on the importance of salesforce JS from a measurement perspective. JS is a key construct in sales literature, yet recently researchers warned that studies have confounded affective and cognitive elements in JS measures. This study examines the impact of this issue through meta-analytical methods. Building on Affective Event Theory (AET) and using 173 samples of 53,755 salespeople, this study theoretically examines the role of the level of affect and cognition in the measures of JS on the relationship between JS and its antecedents and consequences. The results indicate that the level of affect in a JS measure moderates the relationship between JS and dispositional traits as well as extra-role performance, while the level of cognition in the JS measure moderates the relationship between JS and sales force turnover. The findings contribute to JS literature and call for robust conceptualization and measurement of JS.

Essay 3 introduces a new theory and framework for understanding turnover decisions. Drawing on ideas from the migration literature and building on Rational Choice Theory, the study examines the forces that push, pull or moor salespeople to/from a sales role and shape turnover decision. This framework also incorporates the attractiveness of alternative employment opportunities, an often-overlooked aspect in current sales force turnover research. The findings show that the relationship with one's manager and social norms of trust and procedural justice play a significant role in shaping the push and pull factors. Our research also reveals that the impact of alternative employers on turnover decisions is influenced by the level of trust an

employee has in their manager. Furthermore, our study suggests that an increase in perceived

procedural justice weakens the relationship between distributive justice and the intention to leave

one's current job.

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CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

Salespeople hold immense importance for organizations as they serve as the backbone of their revenue generation (Siguaw, Kimes, & Gassenheimer, 2003). and customer acquisition efforts (Kim et al., 2019). They act as the vital link between businesses and their target audience, effectively communicating the value proposition of products or services (Anderson, Narus, & Van Rossum, 2006). By building strong relationships with customers, salespeople not only drive sales but also play a pivotal role in customer retention (Román, & Iacobucci, 2010). Their expertise in understanding customer needs, addressing concerns, and providing personalized solutions helps build trust and loyalty, contributing to long-term business success (Palmatier, Scheer, & Steenkamp, 2007). Furthermore, their ability to gather valuable market insights and feedback equips organizations with crucial information for refining their strategies, improving products, and staying ahead of competitors (Joshi, 2010). The significance of salespeople is evident in the numbers, with 15.8 million individuals involved in sales in the US (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2023), making it the second largest employment category (Pink, 2012). To support and empower these professionals, companies invest a substantial amount, allocating around 800 billion dollars for incentives and 15 billion dollars for training programs (Zoltners et al., 2008).

Despite the crucial role salespeople play and the substantial investment dedicated to their compensation and training, it is disheartening that this employment group experiences one of the highest levels of turnover, which is accompanied by alarmingly low levels of JS ratings. The rate of turnover among salespeople is twice the national average (26 percent for salesperson turnover

compared to 13 percent overall) (Darmon, 2008) and in some sales positions, the turnover rate exceeds 50 percent within the first year of employment (Boles et al., 2012). On a scale of 1 to 5, salesperson job satisfaction averages at a mere 2.5 (CareerExplorer, 2023), putting them in the bottom 5% of all employment groups and indicating significant room for improvement. Recognizing the significance of these challenges, this dissertation aims to delve into the intricacies of salesperson turnover and job satisfaction, examining the underlying causes and ways of improvement. By shedding light on these critical issues, this research seeks to contribute to the body of knowledge and provide actionable insights for organizations to enhance salesperson retention and job satisfaction.

The first essay provides a quantitative synthesis of turnover among salespeople through meta-analytic methods. Using 129 samples of 36,436 salespeople, this study theoretically conceptualizes the antecedents of salesperson turnover into 30 unique groups and conduct bivariate meta-analyses of the relationships between these antecedents and turnover. In addition, the study provides moderation analyses of contextual, methodological, and measurement factors and tests the top three turnover theories applied in the literature: job demands–resources, social exchange, and social identity theories. The bivariate analyses highlight the importance of emotional exhaustion and trust in supervisors in turnover decisions among salespeople. The moderation analyses reveal that, compared with nonsales employees, for salespeople, performance has twice the impact on actual turnover. The analyses also provide evidence for the distinction between turnover intention and action, suggesting a need for fresh theory development in the field. This essay concludes by outlining future research directions at the individual, team, and organizational levels.

The second essay is focused on salesperson job satisfaction from a measurement point of view. Job satisfaction is a crucial aspect of the sales industry. However, recent studies have revealed that researchers have often mixed up the emotional and cognitive elements of job satisfaction measures. This study aims to analyze the impact of this issue by using meta-analytical methods. Based on Affective Event Theory, this study uses 173 samples of 53,755 salespeople to examine how the level of affect and cognition in job satisfaction measures affects the relationship between job satisfaction and its antecedents and consequences. This study starts with bivariate meta-analytical synthesis of the literature and moderator analysis and then dives into the role of measurement. The results show that the level of affect in job satisfaction measures influences the relationship between job satisfaction and dispositional traits and extra-role performance. On the other hand, the level of cognition in job satisfaction measures affects the relationship between job satisfaction and sales force turnover. These findings contribute to job satisfaction literature and emphasize the importance of accurately conceptualizing and measuring job satisfaction.

The third essay presents a new theory and framework to help understand why salespeople leave their jobs. This study draws on ideas from migration literature and Rational Choice Theory (RCT) to explore the factors that push, pull, or moors a salesperson to their role, including the attractiveness of other job opportunities, an often-overlooked aspect of turnover decision in sales roles. The research found that the relationship between a salesperson and their manager, as well as social norms of trust and procedural justice, greatly influenced their decision to stay or leave. Additionally, the study revealed that the impact of attractiveness of alternative job opportunities on turnover decisions was affected by how much trust the employee had in their manager.

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Finally, the research suggests that a perceived increase in procedural justice weakens the relationship between distributive justice and intention to leave their job among salespeople.

This dissertation is structured as follows: Chapter II focuses on the first essay. The chapter starts with a review of literature that delves into theories and frameworks connected to salesperson turnover. Then, it presents a conceptual framework of the factors that cause salesperson turnover. In the methodology section, the chapter explains the meta-analytical process, including the literature search and data collection procedures. It outlines the coding methods used to analyze the collected studies and provides insights into the meta-analytic and moderator analysis procedures employed. The results section presents the findings of the meta-analysis and moderator analysis conducted in the study. Following the results, the chapter discusses the theoretical implications of the findings, summarizing the key theoretical insights and their impact on understanding salesperson turnover. Additionally, it explores the managerial implications of the research findings and suggests potential future research directions.

Chapter III includes the second essay. The chapter opens with a thorough literature review, which provides a comprehensive overview of existing research and theories on JS. It delves into the definitions, conceptualizations, and measuremen of JS, establishing a foundation for the subsequent discussions. A significant component of this chapter is the classification scheme. This section offers a systematic categorization of the antecedents of job satisfaction identified in the literature. Next, building on AET, the chapter explores the role of affect and cognition in JS measures developing hypotheses. Next, in the methodology section, the study explains the approach taken to develop the database for the study and outlines the meta-analytical procedures employed. The chapter also discusses the analysis of potential moderators, examining how contextual factors may influence the relationship between antecedents and job

satisfaction. The Results section presents the meta-analytic findings of the study. It reports the outcomes of the analysis, providing insights into the overall patterns and relationships between antecedents and job satisfaction. Finally, the chapter concludes with a discussion and conclusion summarizing the key findings and providing managerial insights.

Lastly, Chapter IV covers the third essay. The chapter starts by reviewing existing literature on migration, covering different aspects and theories related to the topic. After the literature review, the chapter focuses on the use of RCT in migration and presents a model and hypotheses for the research. The conceptual framework developed based on RCT is outlined, and specific hypotheses for the study are identified. In the methodology section, the chapter describes how data was collected and the measures used to ensure reliable and valid data. The results obtained from the research are presented, including a confirmatory factor analysis and statistical outcomes. The discussion section interprets the findings, highlighting their significance and implications. The chapter also acknowledges the limitations of the research and concludes by summarizing the key findings and their implications. This research concludes with a list of references.

CHAPTER 2

2. A META-ANALYSIS ON THE PREDICTORS OF SALESFORCE TURNOVER

2.1. Introduction

Sales organizations are characterized by consistently high levels of turnover (e.g. DeConinck & Johnson 2009; Rogers, 2020). Turnover represents considerable financial and relational losses to the organization. Financially, the costs include hiring and training a new salesperson where salesforce turnover deems companies' $800 billion incentivizing and $15 billion in training expenses wasteful (Zoltners et al., 2008). Salesforce turnover also incurs relational losses. When a salesperson leaves his or her job, company losses a major point of contact with customers, which may result in customer switching behavior (Sunder et al., 2017). Additionally, relational losses occur from the disruption of sales team, increasing the chance of quitting among colleagues. The destructive implications of turnover are more profound in sales than other professions as salespeople are more involved in customer relationship formation and maintenance (Oliver & Swan, 1989; Rutherford et al., 2009).

Turnover and its antecedents have been extensively studied in the sales literature over the past 50 years providing guidance to decrease turnover rates (Boles et al., 2012) focusing on salesforce characteristics (e.g., Lewin & Sager, 2010), job and role features (e.g., Johnston et al., 1990), leadership styles (e.g., DeConinck, 2015), and organizational factors (e.g., Jaramillo, Mulki, & Solomon 2006). Despite this deep body of research, consensus has not been achieved

for all relationships. Additionally, there are limited assessments of boundary conditions of the sales jobs and limited theoretical underpinnings of many of the salesforce turnover models.

This study performs meta-analysis of 118 studies, 129 samples, and 36,436 respondents to address these limitations in the salesforce turnover literature,. Although meta-analyses have been performed on antecedents of turnover in management (e.g., Rubenstein et al., 2018), it is necessary to conduct such a study in the sales realm for several reasons. First, the rate of voluntary turnover among salespeople is often much higher compared to other professions (Darmon, 2008). Research shows that in some sales roles 50% of sales people leave a company in their first year (Boles et al., 2012), and 80% leave within the first four years (Landau & Werbel, 1995). Second, salesforces' work environments are distinct from other roles. Salespeople operate from remote work settings, in contact with customers and partner companies, and often away from direct supervision. Third, there are certain sales and context – specific variables (e.g., customer orientation or satisfaction with customers) that are absent from non-sales turnover meta-analysis but need to be studied in sales context. Lastly, these boundary spanner roles are unique in their daily activities and also in their impact on the firm as they perform multiple, complex, knowledge-intensive tasks (Verbeke, Dietz, & Verwaal, 2011). The sales roles, as noted by Park and Shaw (2013) directly affects firm performance to a greater degree than many other employees. This unique work setting represented by sales positions may affect quitting decisions such that the antecedents and boundary conditions uncovered in other turnover studies may not apply or operate in the same fashion. Such a significant difference between sales and other professions cannot be explained without a synthesis of the sales turnover literature.

The first objective of this study is to review the theoretical underpinnings of the salesforce turnover literature. The lack of consistency in the turnover research findings may be due to 40% of the studies in the dataset having no overarching theory to systematically develop their hypotheses. They relied on broad frameworks from the literature to support their findings. Later, theoretical structural models are tested based on the most often used theories, Job Resource-Demand Theory, Social Exchange Theory, and Social Identity Theory.

The second objective is to develop an integrative classification of the antecedents by reviewing the literature. This classification of turnover antecedents offers a holistic overview of the variables examined across previous sales force turnover studies. The approach allows merging conceptually similar predictors (Verbeke, Dietz, & Verwaal, 2011; Rubenstein et al., 2018) and identifying less-studied predictors that could be addressed in future research. This conceptual classification includes the following categories: Salesperson Characteristics, Salesperson Psychological State, Salesperson Behaviors, Sales Job Characteristics, Sales Team, Salesperson Manager, and Organization.

Third, this study assesses the predictive validity of turnover antecedents using the meta-analytical method by correcting effect sizes for artifacts, including sampling error, measurement error, and dichotomization to address the inconsistency in findings and to gain a greater understanding of the relationships between turnover and the various antecedents. This analysis will provide more clarity to inconsistent findings in previous research. Also test for potential moderators or boundary conditions that would affect the correlations are conducted. These findings will move us closer to unifying the body of knowledge regarding salesperson turnover. These potential boundary conditions are the fourth objective of this study. Three theoretically grounded categories of moderators—selling context, research method, and measurement

method—that potentially modify the strengths of turnover predictors are examined. The findings provide insight into equivocal findings in the literature.

Lastly, the meta-analytic findings are leveraged to offer future research directions. Given the state of accumulated knowledge on salesforce turnover over half a century, along with emerging workplace trends, the necessity of determining new paths for future research in this area arises. The current research will propose three levels of future research at the individual, leadership, and organizational-level to broaden and deepen our understanding of turnover.

This study will begin with a brief literature review of the theories in the turnover literature followed by the conceptual classification framework of turnover antecedents compiled found in the literature. The third section develops hypotheses for the theoretically developed moderators. This is followed by methodology of the meta-analysis and the results. Following the findings, theoretical and managerial implications are provided. The study concludes with a discussion of future avenues of research.

2.2. Literature Review: Theories and Framework

2.2.1. Theoretical Underpinnings of Salesperson Turnover

This study includes 118 empirical studies of turnover and found that 40% did not include an overarching theoretical framework but focused on previous empirical work as their foundation. Of the studies that state an overarching theory, more than 12 theories guide empirical studies (See Table 2.1). this research summarized the previous research into five groups. These groups are: 1) social exchange theory, 2) social identity theory, 3) job resource-demand theory. 4) theories that have been utilized infrequently, and 5) no singular overarching theory

Table 2.1. Theories Applied in Salespeople Turnover Research

Theory	Frequency	Premises of theory	Example of variables used to test theory	Example of studies in the literature
Social Exchange Theory	High	Interdependent interactions among employees and managers, if they satisfy reciprocity rules, emerge high-quality relationships. Such relationships diminish the chance of observing undesired behaviors such as turnover and low performance among employees.	Organizational support, perceived fairness, leadership style, role stressors, trust, loyalty, job satisfaction, organizational commitment.	Brashear, Manolis, and Brooks (2005), DeConinck and Johnson (2009)
Social Identity Theory	High	Individuals identify themselves according to social groups, such as an organization or a team within the organization, that they are member of. Due to organizational identification factors, individuals tend to follow rules, and norms of an organization.	Organizational support, ethical climate, person-organization fit, organizational identification, brand identification, internal brand identification, organizational commitment.	DeConinck (2011) and DeConinck (2015)
Job Resource-Demand	High	Imbalance between job resources (e.g., organizational support, training) and job demands (e.g., role stressors) changes job state which in turn leads to undesirable decisions such as quitting.	Role ambiguity, role conflict, challenge hindrances, job strain, Organizational support, leadership style, customer orientation, training, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, unfavorable behaviors.	Sager and Menon (1994), Jones et al. (2007), Matthews et al. (2016)
Attitudinal Framework	High	Negative attitudes relate to unfavorable behaviors such as turnover while positive attitudes diminish the chance of leaving firms.	Job satisfaction including satisfaction with pay, manager, co-workers, organizational commitment, performance.	Sager and Menon (1994), Schwepker (2001), Rutherford et al. (2009).
Leader-Member Exchange Theory	Medium	The quality of relationships between managers and salespeople is determined by level of trust, respect, and fairness. The relationship quality leads to favorable outcomes such as lower turnover rate among employees.	Leader-member exchange, emotional exhaustion, organizational deviance.	Darrat, Atinc, and Babin (2016)
Equity Theory	Medium	Fair distribution of resources encourages employees to show more commitment and benefits them with job satisfaction.	Internal and external justice, distributive and procedural justice, fringe benefits, incentives, promotions, relationship with manager, trust, satisfaction, organizational support.	Brashear, Manolis, and Brooks (2005), Arnold et al. (2009)

Theory	Level	Description	Constructs	Reference
General Adaptation Theory	Low	Individuals reacts to stressors in three phases. First, performance decreases as stress level increases. Then, in reactance phase, if stress level keeps increasing, individuals tend to react positively with showing higher performance. However, if stress levels pass a threshold, it leads to an exhaustion phase.	Role conflict, role ambiguity, job stress, work-family conflict, job performance, job satisfaction.	Bhuian, Menguc, and Borsboom (2005)
Reinforcement Theory	Low	Consequences of employees' current behaviors are drivers of their future decisions and behaviors. Positive outcomes are expected to be repeated by individuals when negative outcomes curtail repetition of behaviors.	Time wasted, role ambiguity, role conflict, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, emotional exhaustion.	Jaramillo, Mulki, and Locander (2006)
Cohesiveness Framework	Low	Properties of groups attach group members together so that individuals within such groups are more cooperative and cohesive.	Group cohesiveness, leader's positive mood, Socialization emphasis, Prosocial behavior, sales performance.	George and Bettenhausen (1990)
Social Cognition Theory	Low	Employees attain knowledge and experience from observing and interacting with others. self-efficacy and individuals' personal goals are two key factors that encourage employees to engage in learning and gaining more knowledge from others.	Person-organization fit, ethical climate, job satisfaction, role overload, self-efficacy, performance.	Fournier et al. (2010)
Relative Deprivation Theory	Low	Employees constantly compare themselves with others in either same or different groups and assess own situations with other individuals. Such comparison leads to favorable (e.g., increasing performance) or unfavorable (e.g., turnover) behaviors.	Perceived overqualification, job satisfaction, performance, empowerment, work effort.	Sturman and Trevor (2001)
Adaptation-Innovation Theory	Low	Individuals are different according to their approach to cope with challenges such as problem-solving ability. Highly adoptive and highly innovative managers treat subordinate differently when overcoming challenges.	Adaptive sales managers, innovative sales managers, job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay and manager	McNeilly and Goldsmith (1992)

Studies using Social Exchange Theory: Social Exchange Theory suggests that relationships build trust, loyalty, and commitment if the participants to the exchange gain, economically or socially, from exchange (Homans 1958; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) or, if reciprocity is perceived between them (Lambe, Wittmann, & Spekman, 2001). Sales researchers have applied the notion of reciprocity in relationships among sales reps, sales managers, and organizational cultures to study turnover. Studies highlight the importance of perceived distributive and procedural justice (e.g., Brashear, Manolis, & Brooks, 2005; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009), organizational support, and ethical climates (e.g., Jaramillo, Mulki, & Solomon 2006) in reducing turnover intention. In summary, social exchange theory helps to understand how benefits from exchange and reciprocity in relationships influence salesperson turnover decisions.

Studies using Social Identity Theory: In organizational settings social identity is defined as an "organization's members' collective understanding of the features presumed to be central and relatively permanent, that distinguish the organization from other organizations" (Gioia, Schultz, & Corley, 2000, p. 64 " DeConinck, 2011). One focus in the sales turnover literature has been examining organizational, managerial, and individual-level factors that enhance salespeople organizational identification. For example, DeConinck (2011) documents that peer ethical norms, peer behaviors, and trust in managers boosts organizational identification which in turn diminishes turnover intention. He also found that person-organization fit enhances salespeople's organizational identification (DeConinck 2015) and is negatively related to turnover intentions. In summary, literature on salesperson turnover utilized social identity theory to find managerial and organizational antecedents of organizational identification and link this variable to organizational commitment and turnover intention.

Studies based on Job Resource-Demand Theory: Job resource-demand theory posits that there are organizational factors (job resources) that help employees accomplish their tasks while others (job demands) prevent them from being efficient and effective (e.g., Matthews et al., 2016). When job states change in an unfavorable direction poor performance and turnover happen (Boles et al 2012). Scholars have examined resources and demands in the context of salesperson turnover. Sales training and manager support, among other resources, are shown to boost salesperson job status and reduce turnover likelihood (e.g., Matthews et al., 2016). Research findings support the proposed roles that job demands such as role ambiguity, role conflict, and work overload have on sales force turnover (e.g., Johnston et al., 1990; Brown & Peterson, 1993). In summary, findings indicate that job resources (negatively) and job demands (positively) influence salesperson turnover.

Summary of infrequently used theories: A variety of other theoretical frameworks have been used less frequently in salesforce turnover research. The theories include Leader-Member Exchange Theory, Equity Theory, General Adaptation Theory, Reinforcement Theory, Cohesiveness Framework, Social Cognition Theory, Relative Deprivation Theory, and Adaptation-Innovation Theory. For example, leader-member exchange (Darrat, Atinc, & Babin, 2016) has been applied when studies focused on salespeople's relationship with managers. Equity theory (Brashear, Manolis, & Brooks, 2005) has been used to explain why lack of perceptions of justice and trust among salespeople encourages them to quit their positions. In addition, previous salesforce turnover studies have used cohesiveness frameworks (e.g., George & Bettenhausen, 1990) and social cognition theory (e.g., Fournier et al., 2010) proposing that organizational- and team-level factors affect salespeople's decisions to leave.

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Studies based on attitudinal frameworks or with no singular overarching theory: A considerable number of studies do not develop their argument based on a specific theoretical perspective. Rather, they built their arguments upon an overall understating of previous research findings (e.g., Naumann, Widmier, & Jackson, 2000) or based on the attitudinal model of turnover. Attitudinal models concern constructs such as job satisfaction or organizational commitment as the main precursor to turnover, and propose that turnover antecedents change salespeople's attitudes toward their jobs and cause quitting (e.g., Sager & Menon, 1994; Rutherford et al., 2009). The basis of the attitudinal models is the early works of March and Simon (1958) on job satisfaction or Porter et al. (1974) on organizational commitment.

The focus of the theoretical model analyses will be on Social Exchange Theory, Social Identity Theory and Job Resource-Demand Theory. The models will be developed based on the variables found across the full database of empirical turnover research. A more detailed descriptions can be found in the methodology section.

2.3. Conceptual Framework of Antecedents

The framework proposed by this research is based on a comprehensive evaluation of constructs. In Figure 2.1, The seven broad categories of predictors are included: *Salesperson Characteristics*, *Salesperson Psychological State*, *Salesperson Behaviors*, *Sales Job Characteristics, Sales Team*, *Salesperson Manager,* and *Organization*. The broad categories are further divided into subcategories and finally constructs. This classification provides a fine-grained examination of this phenomenon. First, the main categories were identified by examining salesforce research (e.g., Boles et al., 2012) and management literature findings (e.g., Rubenstein et al., 2018) that classify turnover antecedents. Second, the categories and subcategories were organized based on the salesforce turnover literature. In this stage, the constructs are placed

based on their theoretical definitions and revised by adding and removing subcategories. All research streams from the salesforce turnover literature are included. Third, following Verbeke, Dietz, and Verwaal, (2011), the constructs are merged in two circumstances. Two constructs were merged when they are conceptually close based on their definition. Such a merge would improve validity of the results and reduce redundancy in meta-analytical findings. The constructs are also merged when their differences were not meaningful for meta-analytic purposes. The definitions of the categories of antecedents are provided in Table 2.2 and the conceptual model is presented in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1. Theoretical Frameworks for Testing Turnover Antecedents and Moderators

Salesperson
Characteristics
Biographical Characteristics
Personality Characteristics
Sales Abilities and Skills

Psychological State
Attitudes
 •Job Satisfaction
 •Intrinsic Job Satisfaction
 •Extrinsic Job Satisfaction
 •Organizational Commitment
Stress
Motivation
Identification
Justice Perception
Fit Perception

Behavior
In-Role Performance
Extra-Role Performance
Effort
Deviant behaviors

Sales Job Characteristics
Job Characteristics Model
Role Stressors
 •Hinderance Stressors
 •Challenge stressors

Organization
Organizational Feature
Organization Culture

Salesperson Supervisor
Leadership Style and Qualities
Relationship with Supervisor
Trust Supervisor

Sales Department
Sales Team Features
Sales Control Mechanisms
Sales Training
Compensation

Moderators

Sales Type Moderators
B2B vs. B2C
Product vs. Service
Research Sample Moderators
US vs. Non-US sample
After 2000 vs. Before 2000
Multi-company vs. Single Company Sample
Measurement Moderators
Test vs. No-test for Common Method Bias
Intention to Leave vs. Turnover Measurement

Salespeople Turnover

Table 2.2. Variable Definitions

Predictor	Definition	Example of variables
Salesperson Characteristics		
Biographical Characteristics	Salesperson's demographics, physical characteristics, experience and family status, and lifestyle characteristics (Ford et al., 1987)	Age, Gender, Tenure
Dispositional Characteristics	"A broad, decontextualized, and relatively nonconditional constructs which provide a dispositional signature for personality description" (McAdams, 1995, p. 365)	Extraversion, Conscientiousness
Personal Concerns	Contextualized description of personality which is based on environment and time. (McAdams, 1995, p. 365)	Coping Mechanism
Salesperson Identity	"An inner story of the self that integrates the reconstructed past, perceived present, and anticipated future to provide a life with unity, purpose, and meaning." (McAdams, 1995, p. 365)	Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem
Sales Ability/Skills	"Proficiency in doing something, whether learned or innate. In this context, it refers to abilities or skills that are relevant to the job." (Rubenstein et al., 2018, p. 27)	Adaptive Selling, Emotional Intelligence
Customer Orientation	The Degree of salesperson disposition to meet customers' needs	Customer Orientation
Salesperson Psychological State		
Global Job Satisfaction	"A positive (or negative) evaluative judgment one makes about one's job or job situation." (Weiss, 2002, p. 175)	Job Satisfaction
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	"How people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves." (Hirschfeld, 2000, p. 256)	Satisfaction with Work, Job Meaningfulness
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	The extent of positive or negative attitude about the aspects of the work that are external to the task and the work itself (Spector, 1997)	Satisfaction with Pay, Satisfaction with Policy
Organizational Commitment	"An attitude in the form of an attachment that exists between the individual and the organization, and is reflected in the relative strength of an employee's psychological identification and involvement with the organization" (Jaramillo, Mulki & Marshall, 2005, p.706)	Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment
Job Involvement	The extent with which salespeople have an understanding and influence over the managerial decisions that affect their work (Hartmann & Rutherford, 2015, p.160)	Job Involvement
Strain	"A psychological state experienced by an individual when faced with demands, constraints, and/or opportunities that have important but uncertain outcomes." (Sager, 1991, p.5)	Stress, Anxiety, Strain
Motivation	"A psychological state that causes the arousal, direction, and persistence of behaviors conditioned by need satisfaction." (Khusainova et al., 2018, p.5)	Motivation
Identification	"Oneness between an individual and an organization or congruence between the employee and organizational values." (Gabler, Rapp, & Richey, 2014, p.176)	Organizational Identification, Brand Identification
Justice Perception	"Employees' perceived fairness in the workplace." (DeConinck & Johnson, 2009, p.334)	Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice
Fit Perception	"The congruence of the personality traits, beliefs, and values of individual persons with the culture, strategic needs, norms, and values of organizations" (Netemeyer et al., 1997, p.88)	Salesperson-Organization Fit

Table 2.2. Variable Definitions (Cont.)

Predictor	Definition	Example of variables
Salesperson Behavior		
In-Role Performance	Work behaviors pertaining to formal job requirements (Hui et al., 1999).	Self-Rated Performance, Amount
Extra-Role Performance	Work behaviors beyond formal expected job duties (Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999).	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
Effort	"The level of energy salespeople commits to their work" (Gabler, Rapp, & Richey, 2014, p.175)	Work Effort
Disruptive Behaviors	"Intentionally counterproductive sales behaviors that conflict with organizational norms and work to undermine the organization and/or its constituents" (Darrat, Atinc, & Babin, 2014, p.237)	Absenteeism, Frontline Deviance
Sales Job Characteristics		
Job Characteristics	"A set of generic job dimensions and outcomes inherent in every job." (Becherer, Morgan, & Richard, 1982, p.126)	Autonomy, Feedback
Hindrance Stressors	"stressors that people tend to appraise as potentially constraining their personal development and work-related accomplishment." (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007, p.438)	Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict
Challenge Stressors	"Stressors that people tend to appraise as potentially promoting their personal growth and achievement." (Podsakoff et al., 2007, p.438)	Customer Demandingness
Sales Team		
Sales Team Features	Items related to team composition, team structure (e.g., team size) and management of team processes (e.g., selection) (Bradford et al., 2010).	Number of Coworkers, Group Cohesiveness
Control Mechanisms	"Attempts by management or other stakeholders within the organization to influence the behavior and activities of marketing personnel to achieve desired outcomes" (Jaworski, 1988, p.24)	Process Control, Output Control
Sales Training	"The salesperson's overall training experience." (Babakus et al., 1996)	Level of Training
Compensation	"Amount of money an individual receives for the job. (Rubenstein, et al., 2018)"	Pay Amount, Salary
Salesperson Manager		
Leadership Style and Qualities	"The extent of sales managers' monitoring, directing, evaluating, and rewarding activities." (Anderson & Oliver, 1987, p.76)	Instrumental Leadership, Micromanagement
Relationship with Manager	The perceived quality of the exchange relationship between salesperson and manager based on salesperson judgment. (Darrat, Atinc, & Babin, 2016)	Leader-Member Exchange, Relationalism
Manager Support	The extent to which managers value salespeople contributions and care about their well-being. (Johnson et al., 2016, p.598)	Manager Support
Organization		
Organizational Feature	A broad range of organizational characteristics and social relationships which constitute the person's work environment (Ford et al., 1983)	Firm Age, Firm Size
Organization Culture	"The pattern of shared values and beliefs that help individuals understand organizational functioning and provide them with norms for behavior in the organization." (Deshpandé, Farley, & Webster, 1993, p.24)	Ethical Climate, Organizational Collectivism
Manager Support	"The degree to which an organization values employee contributions and cares about their well-being." (Johnson et al., 2016, p.598)	Organizational Support

2.3.1. Salesperson Characteristics

Previous research has examined a wide range of salesperson characteristics as predictors of turnover (e.g., Lucas, 1985; Bashaw & Grant, 1994; Lewin & Sager, 2010). Salesperson characteristics are organized into three subgroups . The first subgroup, *biographical characteristics*, includes salesperson's demographics, physical characteristics, experience, and family status, and lifestyle characteristics (Ford et al., 1987). The second subgroup, *personality characteristic*, covers enduring psychological characteristics that reflect on how an individual's responds to the environment (Strutton, Pelton, & Lumpkin, 1995). McAdams's (1995) hierarchical conceptualization is followed for studying personality characteristics. The first level, *dispositional characteristics*, is defined as "a broad, decontextualized, and relatively nonconditional constructs which provide a dispositional signature for personality description" (McAdams, 1995, p. 365). In this level, constructs such as extraversion, introversion, and openness to experience are included. The second level, *personal concerns*, is defined as the manifestation of personalities in the context of time and environment. This level cover constructs such as coping mechanism (McAdams, 1995) and customer orientation (Brown et al., 2002). The third level, *identity*, refers to the inner narrative of the individuals about themselves. This narrative is internalized and is evolving throughout one's life (McAdams, 1995). The identity level encompasses constructs such as self-efficacy and self-esteem, which inherently show an individual's self-valuation. The final subgroup of salesperson characteristics involves salesperson skills and abilities. This subgroup deals with the proficiency of an employee in performing their job (Rubenstein et al., 2018) and contains various selling skills such as adaptive selling and presentation skills. The extant literature on the relationship between salesperson

characteristics and turnover shows numerous studies, yet the results are inconsistent and provide low predictive power.

2.3.2. Salesperson psychological state

Salesperson psychological states are categorized into six subcategories; attitude, stress, motivation, identification, perceptions of justice, job involvement, and perceptions of fit. The first subgroup is *attitude*, which refers to "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 1). Associations between salesperson attitude and turnover are well studied in the sales literature (e.g., Brown & Peterson, 1993). The subgroups here are job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, intrinsic job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. These items are based on the Judge et al. (2017) and Spector (1997) conceptualizations.

The most studied attitudinal construct, *job satisfaction*, is defined as an evaluative judgment one makes about the overall state of the job (Weiss, 2002, p. 175). Job satisfaction plays a central role in explaining turnover, and its introduction stems from the equilibrium theory of March and Simon (1958). This theory suggests that perceived desirability of the job (i.e., job satisfaction) and the ease of movement determines turnover. Intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction are different from overall job satisfaction in that they concern the judgment of an individual about intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of the job, not the job itself. *Intrinsic job satisfaction* refers to "how people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves" (Hirschfeld, 2000, p.256) and includes items such as work satisfaction and job meaningfulness. *Extrinsic job satisfaction*, on the other hand, refers to the attitude of an employee about aspects of the job beyond the task and work itself and covers pay satisfaction, organizational policy satisfaction, and promotion satisfaction, to name but a few.

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Organizational commitment, is an attitude in the form of attachment between salesperson and organization (Jaramillo, Mulki & Marshall, 2005). Organizational commitment is more stable than job satisfaction, and, in contrast to job satisfaction, which stems from hedonic judgment, it is based on the value-based judgment of an individual about his or her job (Porter, et al., 1974). Current studies on the relationship between attitudinal variables and turnover indicate an inverse association between the two with different magnitudes.

The second subgroup, *stress*, refers to a psychological state experienced when an individual is faced with consequential demands, constraints, or opportunities with uncertain outcomes (Sager, 1991, p.5). Salespeople are susceptible to stress due to the boundary-spanning nature of their job and the conflicting demands placed upon them by multiple parties (Moncrief et al., 1997). Anxiety and strain are example variables included in this subgroup, and previous studies indicate a constant positive association between stress and turnover (e.g., Boyd, Lewin & Sager, 2009). The third subgroup, *motivation*, is a psychological state that provokes an individual and provides him or her with direction and tenacity to satisfy a need (Khusainova et al., 2018, p.5). Few studies have examined the relationship between motivation and turnover, and the current findings indicate inconsistent results. *Identification* is the fourth subgroup and is defined as the sense of oneness between salesperson and organization (Gabler et al., 2014). This subgroup is closely related to social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982) and concerns the organizational elements that influence the identity of a salesperson (DeConinck, 2011).

The fifth subgroup involves *perceptions of justice*. Justice refers to the perceptions of a salesperson about fairness in the job (DeConinck & Johnson, 2009). Distributive justice and procedural justice are the primary constructs in this subgroup, but other variables such as pay equity and informational justice are included. Justice is inversely related to turnover (e.g.,

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Brashear, Manolis, & Brooks, 2005). The sixth and final subgroup, perceptions of fit, concerns the perceptions of salespeople about the congruence of their characteristics with the organization (Netemeyer et al., 1997, p. 88). Person-organization fit and perceived overqualification are two example variables in this subgroup. Findings indicate that perceptions of fit is inversely related to turnover (e.g., DeConinck, 2015).

2.3.3. Salesperson Behavior

Sales researchers have investigated the impact of certain behaviors on turnover. Four research streams are identified and included in the subgroups: (1) in-role performance, (2) extra-role performance, (3) effort, and (4) deviant behaviors. Salesperson *in-role performance* refers to work behaviors pertaining to formal job requirements. For salespeople, this subgroup concerns the selling performance of the salespeople with variables such as self-rated or manager-rated performance. *Extra-role performance* concerns work behaviors beyond formal job duties (Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999) and includes organizational citizenship behavior (Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998). The other behavioral construct is salesperson *effort*. This construct refers to "the level of energy salespeople commits to their work" (Gabler et al., 2014, p.175). The third stream of research concerns *deviant behaviors* of salespeople, such as absenteeism and opportunism. This subgroup is defined as the intentional counterproductive behaviors of a salesperson, which are incongruent with organization values and norms (Darrat, Atinc, & Babin, 2014, p. 237). The research on the relationship between behavioral constructs and turnover is mixed for in-role performance and effort. In contrast, for extra-role performance and deviant behavior, the findings indicate consistent valence but different impact magnitude.

2.3.4. Sales Job Characteristics

The characteristics of the job have an essential effect on the turnover decision (Wren, Berkowitz, & Grant, 2014). In studying the association between turnover with job characteristics, two research streams were identified: Job characteristic model variables and role stressors. The *job characteristic* model refers to "A set of generic job dimensions and outcomes inherent in every job" (Becherer, Morgan, & Richard, 1982, p. 126). The variables related to this subgroup are derived from the influential study of Hackman and Oldham (1971). Autonomy, task identity, and feedback are three examples of the constructs in this subgroup. *Role stressors* refer to factors in the job that leads to job stress (Firth et al., 2004). This subgroup covers two types of stressors, hinderance and challenge stressors. *Hindrance stressors* are elements in the job that prevent an employee's professional development and accomplishments (Podsakoff, LePine and & LePine, 2007). Role ambiguity and role conflict are the two most studied constructs in this group. *Challenge stressors*, on the other hand, are stressors conceived as a means for improvement and success. Two of the constructs in this group are customer demandingness and role overload. Findings on the relationship of variables of job characteristic models (e.g., Singh, 1998) and challenge stressors with turnover indicate mixed results (e.g., Fournier et al., 2010), whereas hindrance stressors indicate a consistent negative association with turnover (Jaramillo, Mulki, & Boles, 2011).

2.3.5. Sales Team

Sales team is the primary work environment of a salesperson within a firm's organizational structure. Two streams of research were identified regarding the sales team's influence on turnover: (1) sales team features and (2) control mechanisms. The *sales team's features* subcategory refers to items related to team composition (e.g., diversity) and team

structure (e.g., team size) (Bradford et al., 2010). The second subgroup, *control mechanisms*, refers to "attempts by management or other stakeholders within the organization to influence the behavior and activities of marketing personnel to achieve desired outcomes" (Jaworski, 1988, p. 24). Studies that have investigated the impact of the sales team on turnover report mixed results (Skiba, Saini, & Friend, 2016).

2.3.6. Salesperson Manager

Managers are the main point of organization contact to salespeople (DeConinck & Johnson, 2009). Leadership style and qualities, relationship with manager, and trust manager are the three research streams recognized here. *Leadership style and quality* subgroup refers to "the extent of sales managers' monitoring, directing, evaluating, and rewarding activities" (Anderson & Oliver 1987, p. 76) and covers constructs such as instrumental leadership, servant leadership, or micromanagement. The *relationship with the manager* concerns the quality of the relationship between the salesperson and the manager (Darrat et al., 2016). Leader-member exchange and relationalism are two constructs in this subgroup. The third subgroup, *trust of the manager*, is conceptualized as "the salesperson's degree of confidence that his or her manager is both benevolent and honest." (Doney & Cannon, 1997; Brashear et al., 2003, p.190). Instances of variables included in this group are trust of the manager and honesty of the manager. Finding indicates mixed results about the impact of leadership qualities (e.g., Mulki, Caemmerer, & Heggde, 2015). Yet, the influence of relationships of sales managers and trusting manager with turnover are consistently negative (e.g., Brashear et al., 2003).

2.3.7. Organization

An organization's systems, resources, procedures, and practices shape the culture and the climates of organizations, which influence salespeople and managers (Boles et al., 2012).

Organizational variables are incorporated in the conceptualization, acknowledging that these elements impact the turnover decision of salespeople. The two research streams here are organizational features and organizational culture. *Organizational features* refer to a broad range of organizational characteristics and social relationships, which constitute the person's work environment (Ford et al., 1987, p. 375). It includes constructs such as firm age, firm size, and formalization. The second subgroup, *organizational culture*, is defined as "the pattern of shared values and beliefs that help individuals understand organizational functioning and provide them with norms for behavior in the organization" (Deshpandé, Farley, & Webster, 1993, p.24). Ethical climate and organizational collectivism are two sample examples of variables in this group. Few studies have investigated the relationship between organizational elements and turnover, and the results do not show consistent findings (Wang & Ma, 2013).

2.4. Moderator Effects

Researchers have made various arguments regarding the variation in sales research results. These rationales for the variations must be viewed in light of the level of abstraction (Hartmann, Wieland, Vargo, & Ahearne, 2020) as well as boundary conditions (Childs, Lee, Dewsnap, & Codagan, 2019). To that end, a rationale is provided to address the variations of effects of turnover antecedents on salesperson turnover across *sales-type factors* (business-to business (B2B) vs. business-to-consumer (B2C) and product vs. service), *research conditions, and sample factors* (publication before vs. after 2000, low vs. high unemployment, multi- vs. single-company samples), common methods *t factors* (control or assessment for common method bias) and the measurement of turnover (turnover intention vs. actual turnover).

B2B vs. B2C salespeople: B2B salespeople are distinct from their B2C counterparts when interacting with customers, as B2B purchases may be complex and involve several decision-

making milestones and the interaction of various stakeholders within an organization(e.g., Holmes et al., 2017). Thus, B2B salespeople are required to invest considerable amounts of time in developing relationships with potential customers. Once the tie is established and becomes stronger over time, both the customer and the salesperson benefit from a long-term relationship (Palmatier et al., 2006). B2B salespeople tend to remain in their jobs to harvest potential benefits from the customer relationships they build. In addition, B2B salespeople need to possess comprehensive expertise in the product, service, and solutions for customers (e.g., Payne, Storbacka, & Frow, 2008). Developing such deep knowledge is a considerable investment in time and energy, which increases their attachment. Thus, a B2B salesperson may show more inclination to stay with a firm to harvest the fruits of their investment and leverage their investment to gain further financial benefits. I propose that the antecedents of salesforce turnover are weaker for B2B salespeople than for B2C salespeople.

Product vs. Service: Service selling involves selling intangibles, where buyers find it challenging to assess service quality prior to purchase, and that are perishable when compared with selling products (Kindström, Kowalkowski, & Brashear Alejandro, 2015; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry, 1985). In addition, Service selling requires deeper interactions between salespeople and customers to co-create and customize services for customers (e.g., Payne, Storbacka, & Frow, 2008). Selling products is more process-oriented, and the quality of product is easy to evaluate for customers. Due to the complexity of service selling, service salespeople may show a lack of motivation (Román & Iacobucci, 2010) or poor performance (Verbeke, Dietz, & Verwaal, 2011). Therefore, I propose that the antecedents of salesforce turnover are weaker for product selling compared to service selling.

Publications prior to and after 2000: Previous research highlights the importance of job search when an employee intends to leave their job (Futrell & Parasuraman, 1984). Job search includes various activities, including preparing resumes, contacting potential employers, and interviewing Lippman & McCall, 1976). The more efficient the job search process, the more opportunities, and tools are available for salespeople to develop their resumes and network with potential employers (Devine & Kiefer, 1991). Turnover in economics can be viewed through the lens of information theory and, specifically, the ability and efficiency of search. Similar arguments in economics are made for consumers in their search (e.g., Goldman & Johansson, 1978). In essence, the capability and resources available for search will have a significant impact on the decision-making of salespeople to leave their job. The internet era year 2,000 and beyond saw a significant increase is the search capabilities of salespeople as well as employee placement, Tools such as the internet and web services (e.g., Monster.com, Indeed, ZipRecruiter) connect individuals and businesses considerably accelerate the job search process for salespeople who contemplate leaving their jobs. In turn, online recruitment has also escalated (Parry & Tyson, 2008) and enhanced the information content, which improves applicant attraction (Baum & Kabst, 2014). Due to the increased amount and availability of information since 2000 for job search and recruitment, Therefore, I propose that the antecedents of turnover are weaker for studies prior to 2000 compared to studies after 2000.

Low vs. high unemployment rate: The availability of jobs will have an impact on the level of turnover. Research in this area has been inconclusive (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985); however, subsequent research shows that there are mitigating factors in the lack of strong relationships in early work (Steel & Griffeth, 1989). More recently, Lee et al. (1999) argue that perceived job alternatives play a crucial role when employees decide to leave their jobs. Indeed,

two out of four turnover paths in their unfolding model of voluntary turnover entail evaluating

alternative steps in which employees compare their current jobs with possible alternatives. When

the unemployment rate is low, the job market provides salespeople with more options to consider

if they conclude that their current job does not match their expectations. However, when the

economy is in turmoil, salespeople may ignore unpleasant factors at their firms as they believe

that securing another job is unlikely. I propose that the salesperson turnover antecedents are

weaker when unemployment rates are high versus when unemployment rates are low.

Multi-company vs. single-company sample: Studies with the single-company sample are different

from their multiple-company sample counterparts in terms of control over extraneous factors

(Brashear et al., 2003). In a single-company sample, the number of extraneous variables that

impact the focal relationships is lower since the environment is more constrained. For instance,

organizational environment and sales situations are controlled for in a single-company sample,

while in a multi-company sample, such factors cannot be set aside (Piercy, Cravens, & Lane,

2003). Thus, in a multi-company sample, extraneous factors that strengthen or weaken the focal

relationships are present, which increases the variations and reduces the amount of the effect

size. In addition, single-study samples are susceptible to higher measurement errors, selection

bias, and method bias which may amplify the observed effect sizes (Viswanathan & Kayande,

2012). Thus, I propose that the effects of salesperson turnover antecedents on turnover are

weaker in multiple-company samples compared to single-company samples.

Intention to leave vs. Actual turnover: The sales literature has frequently used turnover intention

as a proxy to measure salespeople's turnover phenomenon (e.g., Brashear et al., 2003). Turnover

intention asks whether sales reps intend to leave their jobs during a certain time period in the

future. This measure enables scholars to study the turnover decision of salespeople when

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temporal data is not accessible. However, such a tendency on the part of a salesperson does not necessarily result in quitting the job (Vandenberg & Nelson, 1999). As Boles et al. (2012) conceptualized, the linkage between turnover intention and leaving a job is modified by a variety of organizational and non-organizational factors. Thus, utilizing turnover intention to measure turnover increases measurement error, which in turn results in inflated parameter estimates. I propose the effects of salesperson turnover antecedents on turnover are weaker when turnover is measured by intention to leave.

2.5. Method

2.5.1. Literature Search and Collection of Studies

The study effects used in this meta-analysis come from peer-reviewed journal articles published between 1975 until 2021 and dissertations between 2014 to 2021. A systematic search procedure was conducted following by a manual search. The systematic search procedure covered the following business databases: ABI/INFORM, Business Source Complete, and ProQuest Digital Dissertations. Salesforce turnover was the focus of the study, so synonyms of these two words—salesforce and turnover—were derived from the thesauruses of ABI/INFORM and Business Source Complete and searched together to consider any variation in terms. For "salesforce", the words salesman, salespeople, salesperson, sales personnel, and boundary spanner are considered. For employee turnover, both turnover and its antonym, retention, are considered. The words used for searching the term turnover are resignation and quitting, and, for retention, the word stabilization and remaining were searched as well. This process identified 357 papers.

Next, the following major journals were searched manually: *Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of Marketing Research*, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, *Journal of Retailing*, *Journal of Business Research*, *Marketing Science*, *Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing*, *Journal of Management*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Academy of Management Journal*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *Personnel Psychology*, *Journal of Occupational Psychology* and *Human Relations*. Consistent with previous meta-analysis (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Franke & Park, 2006), the references of influential salesforce turnover empirical articles were also examined to find any missing study. Finally, 42 sales researchers were contacted and a request on ELMAR listserv was posted to collect unpublished or working studies that include intention to leave or actual turnover (Borenstein et al., 2009) to address file drawer issue.

The search results were refined by reviewing the abstract excluding conceptual papers and studies focused on involuntary turnover. Empirical studies that measure voluntary turnover either by measuring actual turnover behavior of the salesperson or its proxy variable intention to leave were included. The focus of this research is on salesforce turnover; hence, non-sales samples were eliminated. Consistent with previous meta-analyses (e.g., Palmatier et al., 2006, Verbeke, Dietz, & Verwaal, 2011) and meta-analyses on employee turnover (e.g., Rubenstein et al., 2018), the focal effect sizes are correlation coefficients. For studies that reported regression coefficients or coefficients in a structural equation model, authors were contacted and asked for the correlation table if not provided in the publications. After refinement, 118 studies were found which met the criteria and extracted 129 unique samples covering 36,436 salespeople. The salespeople included are from B2B or B2C settings in various industries including retail, pharmaceutical, electronics, and insurance.

2.5.2. Coding Procedure

Following a pre-designed template, two of the authors coded the correlation matrices, reliability coefficients, means and standard deviations of the variables, the characteristics of the samples and research-related factors such as type of analysis (e.g., regression analysis, structural equation modeling) or response rate. The authors coded the papers twice and resolved any differences through discussion. Constructs with similar names were checked to compare definitions and operationalization of variables or the survey to determine whether variables are similar or not. Based on the coding, 891 effect sizes were found between 250 different constructs with turnover.

2.5.3. Meta-analytic Procedure

A random effects meta-analytical model was performed based on the Schmidt and Hunter method (2014). This method has been widely used in the marketing and sales literature (e.g., Kirca, Jayachandran, & Bearden, 2005; Palmatier et al., 2006). A random-effects model is preferred over a fixed effect model when there is an assumption that the effect sizes across studies are heterogenous which is the case in turnover studies (Rubenstein et al., 2018; Borenstein et al., 2009). Effect sizes were corrected for artifacts including measurement error, dichotomization, and sampling error based on the Schmidt and Hunter (2014). For measurement error correction, observed correlations were multiplied by a coefficient derived from the reliabilities of focal variables (Schmidt and Hunter, 2014). If the reliability of a construct was not reported or measured using only a single item, the average reliability of that construct across other studies was inserted (see Kirca et al., 2005). For demographic and deterministic variables, the reliability coefficient is set to 1. Turnover is a dichotomous variable, and thus need to be corrected for dichotomization. Following Hunter and Schmidt (2014), the observed effect size is

multiplied by a coefficient of mean turnover rate of the sample to address dichotomization. When turnover rate data was not available, the average turnover rate of all studies were used as a proxy (Schmidt & Hunter, 2014). Correction for dichotomization is not needed if turnover is measured using intention to leave. Finally, sampling error were treated by sample size weight averaging of the effect sizes that were corrected for measurement error and dichotomization.

2.5.4. Moderator Analysis Procedure

The seven moderators are categorized into three groups and coded with a dichotomous scale coding. The first group represents the sales context which includes B2B versus B2C, product versus service selling, low versus high unemployment rate, and sampling after versus before year 2000. The second group includes research method moderators, which is single versus multiple company sample. Finally, measurement moderators were captured through coding for measurement of turnover using actual turnover behavior versus intention to leave.

Three methods were used to determine the existence of moderators. First, the I^2 statistic, which represents the percentage of the variance attributed to the heterogeneity of the relationship between predictor and turnover (Borenstein et al., 2009). The second method was Cocharan's Q test of homogeneity (Schmidt & Hunter, 2014). Third, credibility intervals were calculated using z-scores and the estimated true population correlation variance (Whitener, 1990).

To assess the impact of moderators on the key relationships, meta-regressions were conducted with a weighted least square (WLS) procedure (Hedges & Olkin, 2014) previously used in the Marketing literature (Franke & Park 2006; Verbeke, Dietz, & Verwaal., 2011). This test is superior to ordinary least square as it remedies the unequal error variance across studies (Steel & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2002). The maximum variance inflation factor for each moderator is reported to assess multicollinearity.

2.5.5. Moderator Analysis for Intention to Leave – Turnover Behavior Relationship

Five moderators were used regarding the relationship between intention to leave and turnover behavior and put into 3 groups covering the selling environment, measurement and external environment. Specifically, the impact of B2B versus B2C context, product versus service selling, timeframe between attitudinal measurement and turnover, the mean of the sample and unemployment rate were examined. The meta-regression method is conducted similarly to the previous moderator analysis.

2.5.6. Structural Models

Two-stage structural equation modeling (TSSEM) (Cheung & Chan, 2005) was used to evaluate the three most often used theories of salesperson turnover— Job Resource-Demand Theory, Social Exchange Theory, and Social Identity Theory. This method ensures that correlation matrices for the structural models are homogenous and is more robust than other meta-analytical structural equation modeling methods (Landis, 2013). While the models are restricted to variables that were frequently examined by previous studies, the technique has the advantage of measuring effects of constructs on salesperson turnover simultaneously (Palmatier et al., 2006). However, this technique has two constraints. The first relates to the possible unobserved correlations among variables in a correlation matrix needed for path-analysis. Correlations reported in prior research were used to fill such blank cells following Landis' (2013) recommendation. The second constraint is associated with heterogeneity of correlation matrices which may occur from aggregating correlations from various studies where the resulting correlation matrix may not be homogenous. Cheung and Chan's (2005) method was adopted to ensure that correlation matrices for the structural models are homogenous.

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2.6. Results

In this section, the results of the pooled correlations for the predictors of turnover will be presented. Next, the results of moderator analysis will be provided, which includes the results of moderator detection tests. This research considers absolute correlations lower than .15 as modest; between .15 and .30 as moderate; and above 30 as high. Finally, results from turnover theory path-analyses are presented.

2.6.1. Meta-Analysis

This study examines predictors of salesforce turnover based on the 7 conceptual categories. The results are provided in Table 2.3. Emotional exhaustion ($\hat{\rho}$ =.56; p < .05), organizational commitment ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.55; p < .05), and trust manager ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.52; p < .05) have the highest absolute pooled correlation, followed by global job satisfaction ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.52; p < .05) identification ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.51; p < .05), and satisfaction with policies ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.49; p < .05). Other high pooled correlations are distributive justice ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.46; p < .05) satisfaction with task ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.45; p < .05), motivation ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.41; p < .05), leader member exchange ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.41; p < .05), relationship with manager ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.40; p < .05), and work-family conflict ($\hat{\rho}$ = .40; p < .05).

Table 2.3. Meta-Analytic Predictors of Salesforce Turnover

	k	N	$\bar{r}$	$\hat{\rho}$	$SD_{\hat{\rho}}$	90% Cr I	$SE_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Co I	Q	I^2(%)
Salesperson Characteristics										
Biographical Characteristics [a]	39	13304	-.06	-.07	.13	-.23 to .10	.01	-.09 to -.04	724.44*	82.33
Age	27	10093	-.06	-.07	.12	-.22 to .09	.02	-.11 to -.02	158.41*	82.32
Gender	17	6181	0	0	.05	-.06 to .07	.02	-.03 to .04	31.68*	46.33
Tenure	34	11980	-.09	-.1	.13	-.27 to .06	.02	-.14 to -.07	360.27*	82.51
Marital Status	4	809	-.11	-.14	0.1	-.27 to -.01	.07	-.27 to -.01	9.75*	69.23
Education	10	2982	.06	.06	0.1	-.06 to .19	.04	-.01 to .13	34.93*	74.23
Dispositional Characteristics	20	5914	.18	.24	.2	-.02 to .50	.05	.15 to .33	172.18*	88.97
External Locus of Control	7	2673	.32	.38	.13	.21 to .55	.05	.27 to .48	38.36*	84.36
Personal Concerns	12	4454	-.11	-.14	.2	-.39 to .11	.06	-.25 to -.02	126.88*	91.33
Emotion-Focused Coping	3	1431	.05	.06	.23	-.23 to .35	.14	-.20 to .33	50.15*	96.01
Problem-Focused Coping	3	1431	-.18	-.22	.06	-.31 to -.14	.05	-.32 to -.13	6.6	69.68
Salesperson Identity	10	3250	-.20	-.23	.08	-.33 to -.13	.03	-.29 to -.17	24.05*	62.58
Self-Efficacy	8	2739	-.17	-.2	0	-.20 to -.20	.02	-.24 to -.16	5.26	0
Sales Abilities and Skills	10	2028	-.22	-.27	.15	-.45 to -.08	.05	-.37 to -.16	39.13*	77
Customer Orientation	5	812	-.23	-.27	.12	-.43 to -.12	.07	-.41 to -.14	12.57*	68.17
Salesperson Psychological State										
Global Job Satisfaction	97	24932	-.42	-.52	.20	-.78 to -.25	.02	-.56 to -.47	795.73*	87.94
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	30	9314	-.33	-.39	.17	-.61 to -.17	.03	-.46 to -.33	224.09*	87.06
Job Meaningfulness	5	2286	-.33	-.36	.17	-.58 to -.14	.08	-.51 to -.20	58.31*	93.14
Satisfaction with Task	19	5334	-.38	-.44	.16	-.64 to -.24	.04	-.52 to -.36	117.96*	84.74
Opportunity to Growth	4	1120	-.18	-.28	.05	-.34 to -.21	.05	-.37 to -.18	5.17	42.02
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	97	24770	-.25	-.29	.22	-.57 to -.01	.02	-.33 to -.24	952.18*	89.92
Satisfaction with Coworkers	24	6194	-.23	-.27	.12	-.42 to -.12	.03	-.32 to -.21	86.93*	73.54
Satisfaction with Customers	9	2186	-.13	-.15	.35	-.60 to .29	.12	-.38 to .08	217.5*	96.32
Satisfaction with Pay	27	6581	-.21	-.26	.2	-.52 to .00	.04	-.34 to -.18	209.41*	87.58
Satisfaction with Policy	6	1705	-.45	-.49	0	-.49 to -.49	.02	-.53 to -.45	3.44	0
Satisfaction with Promotion	22	5820	-.28	-.33	.17	-.55 to -.11	.04	-.41 to -.25	151.34*	86.12
Satisfaction with Manager	26	5638	-.32	-.37	.1	-.49 to -.24	.02	-.41 to -.32	62.08*	59.73
Organizational Commitment	71	21073	-.45	-.55	.25	-.86 to -.23	.03	-.61 to -.49	949.2*	92.63
Job Involvement	7	3197	-.28	-.33	.05	-.39 to -.27	.03	-.38 to -.28	12.03	50.14
Strain	43	12315	.40	.48	.13	.31 to .64	.02	.43 to .52	181.79*	76.9
Emotional Exhaustion	18	5770	.48	.56	.09	.45 to .67	.02	.51 to .61	44.46*	61.76
Stress	25	6545	.33	.4	.11	.26 to .54	.03	.35 to .45	77.68*	69.1
Motivation	4	783	-.35	-.41	.21	-.68 to -.13	.11	-.63 to -.19	30.89*	90.29
Identification	10	3507	-.41	-.51	.3	-.89 to -.13	.10	-.70 to -.32	212.9*	95.77
Justice Perception	49	12710	-.33	-.42	.13	-.59 to -.25	.02	-.46 to -.38	183.62*	73.86
Distributive Justice	36	8406	-.36	-.46	.13	-.63 to -.29	.03	-.51 to -.41	122.32*	71.39
Procedural Justice	6	1562	-.31	-.37	.1	-.50 to -.25	.05	-.47 to -.28	15.91*	68.57
Fit Perception	6	1681	-.08	-.11	.39	-.62 to .39	.15	-.41 to .18	230.37*	97.4

Notes: K = Effect size, N = Sample size, $\bar{r}$ = Sample size weighted average correlation, $\hat{\rho}$ = Pooled correlation corrected for measurement error, dichotomization, and sampling error, *90% Cr I* = 90% credibility interval, *95% Co I* = 95% Confidence Interval, *Q* = Statistic for the test for heterogeneity or moderator, $I^2(\%)$ = Total heterogeneity divided by total variability. *p < .05;

[a] = This row shows meta-analytic findings of the overall effect of the variables in the category on turnover.

Table 2.3. Meat-Analytic Predictors of Salesforce Turnover (Cont.)

	k	N	$\bar{r}$	$\hat{\rho}$	$SD_{\hat{\rho}}$	90% Cr I	$SE_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Co I	Q	I^2(%)
Salesperson Behavior										
In-Role Performance [a]	57	17333	-.16	-.19	.19	-.44 to .06	.03	-.24 to -.13	504.02*	88.89
Self-rated Performance	35	10153	-.17	-.2	.12	-.35 to -.05	.02	-.25 to -.15	133.08*	74.45
Manager-rated Performance	11	2621	-.2	-.24	.14	-.42 to -.07	.05	-.33 to -.15	42.04*	76.21
Objective Performance	11	4559	-.12	-.13	.31	-.52 to .27	.09	-.31 to .06	310.69*	96.78
Extra-Role Performance	17	5245	-.17	-.21	.14	-.40 to -.03	.04	-.29 to -.14	87.69*	81.75
Courtesy	4	1214	-.12	-.16	0	-.16 to -.16	.02	-.19 to -.13	.73	0
Sportsmanship	3	872	-.24	-.28	0	-.28 to -.28	0	-.29 to -.28	.04	0
Civic Virtue	4	1214	-.25	-.3	.28	-.66 to .06	.14	-.58 to -.02	66.4*	95.48
Helping Behavior	5	1748	-.13	-.16	.02	-.19 to -.13	.03	-.22 to -.10	5.51	27.36
Effort	7	1753	.10	.11	.18	-.12 to .34	.07	-.03 to .25	49.79*	87.95
Disruptive Behaviors	4	940	.21	.25	.15	.06 to .45	.08	.09 to .42	19.34*	84.49
Sales Job Characteristics										
Job Characteristics Model	18	3631	-.2	-.24	.17	-.46 to -.02	.05	-.33 to -.15	95.05*	82.11
Autonomy	4	979	-.27	-.31	.07	-.39 to -.22	.05	-.40 to -.22	6.73*	55.43
Feedback	8	1252	-.17	-.2	.27	-.55 to .15	.10	-.40 to .00	78.53*	91.09
Decision Making Involvement	8	2036	-.17	-.23	.09	-.35 to -.12	.04	-.31 to -.15	18.33*	61.81
Hindrance Stressors	89	23437	.27	.35	.12	.19 to .50	.01	.32 to .38	293.47*	70.01
Role Ambiguity	36	9652	.26	.33	.11	.18 to .47	.02	.28 to .37	112.44*	68.87
Role Conflict	37	10104	.28	.37	.12	.21 to .52	.02	.32 to .41	125.64*	71.35
Work-Family Conflict	6	1281	.35	.4	.06	.32 to .48	.04	.33 to .48	8.62	41.97
Family-Work Conflict	4	869	.27	.32	.11	.18 to .47	.07	.19 to .46	11.03*	72.81
Challenge Stressors	9	3224	.05	.05	.2	-.21 to .31	.07	-.09 to .19	103.37*	92.26
Sales Team										
Sales Team Features	26	6797	-.18	-.21	.19	-.45 to .02	.03	-.28 to -.15	266.72*	87.63
Control Mechanisms	4	793	-.05	-.06	.17	-.28 to .15	.06	-.18 to .05	48.78*	81.55
Sales Training	6	2645	-.13	-.17	.11	-.30 to -.03	.05	-.26 to -.07	25.13*	80.11
Compensation	8	1390	-.12	-.12	.12	-.27 to .03	.05	-.22 to -.02	23.33*	70
Salesperson Manager										
Leadership Style and Qualities	25	6599	-.2	-.24	.26	-.57 to .09	.05	-.35 to -.13	331.23*	92.75
Servant Leadership	4	1474	-.29	-.33	.06	-.41 to -.25	.04	-.41 to -.25	7.62	60.61
Leader Role Clarification	7	1857	-.2	-.27	.14	-.45 to -.10	.06	-.39 to -.16	26.36*	77.24
Relationship with Manager	34	10011	-.35	-.4	.28	-.75 to -.04	.05	-.49 to -.30	624.62*	94.72
Leader-Member Exchange	3	560	-.32	-.41	.11	-.54 to -.27	.07	-.55 to -.27	9.55*	79.06
Similarity with Manager	8	1542	-.31	-.38	.4	-.89 to .14	.14	-.66 to -.09	185.28*	96.22
Trust Manager	11	3595	-.44	-.52	.05	-.58 to -.46	.02	-.56 to -.48	12.8	21.85
Perceived Manager Support	19	4196	-.31	-0.38	.17	-.60 to -.16	.04	-.46 to -.30	131.13*	86.32
Organization										
Organizational Features	7	1360	.03	.04	.06	-.03 to .11	.04	-.03 to .11	10.65	43.67
Firm Size	4	812	.06	.06	.07	-.02 to .15	.05	-.04 to .16	7.27	58.74
Organization Culture	20	7151	-.19	-.23	.23	-.52 to .06	.05	-.33 to -.13	272.09*	93.02
Ethical Climate	12	4576	-.2	-.24	.17	-.46 to -.02	.05	-.34 to -.14	102.14*	89.23
Organizational Support	13	4331	-.25	-.32	.23	-.62 to -.02	.07	-.45 to -.19	162.44*	92.61

Notes: K = Effect size, *N* = Sample size, $\bar{r}$ = Sample size weighted average correlation, $\hat{\rho}$ = Pooled correlation corrected for measurement error, dichotomization, and sampling error, *90% Cr I* = 90% credibility interval, *95% Co I* = 95% Confidence Interval, *Q* = Statistic for the test for heterogeneity or moderator, $I^2(\%)$ = Total heterogeneity divided by total variability. *p < .05;
[a] = This row shows meta-analytic findings of the overall effect of the variables in the category on turnover.

Table 2.4 provides the meta-analytical findings of three most highly correlated antecedents of intention to leave and actual turnover behavior separately. The results show that for intention to leave the most highly correlated antecedents are organizational commitment ($\hat{\rho} = -.57$; p < .05), emotional exhaustion ($\hat{\rho} = -.56$; p < .05), and global job satisfaction ($\hat{\rho} = -.56$; p < .05) while for turnover behavior, self-rated performance ($\hat{\rho} = -.44$; p < .05), objective performance ($\hat{\rho} = -.44$; p < .05) and manager-rated performance ($\hat{\rho} = -.37$; p < .05) have the highest correlation.

Table 2.4. Most Highly Correlated Antecedents of Intention to Leave versus Turnover Behavior

Rank		k	N	$\bar{r}$	$\hat{\rho}$	$SD_{\hat{\rho}}$	90% Cr I	$SE_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Co I	Q	$I^2(\%)$
	Antecedents of Intention to Leave										
1	Organizational Commitment	58	15509	-.5	-.57	.25	-.90 to -.25	.03	-.64 to -.51	855.03	93.33
2	Global Job Satisfaction	79	19203	-.48	-.56	.18	-.78 to -.33	.02	-.60 to -.52	510.76	84.73
3	Emotional Exhaustion	18	5196	.48	.56	.09	.45 to .67	.02	.51 to .61	44.46	61.76
	Antecedents of Actual Turnover Behavior										
1	Self-Rated Performance	3	806	-.31	-.44	.03	-.48 to -.40	.05	-.54 to -.35	2.85	29.88
2	Objective Performance	4	1794	-.33	-.44	.34	-.88 to .00	.17	-.78 to -.10	119.61	97.49
3	Manager Rate Performance	4	960	-.25	-.37	.03	-.41 to -.33	.05	-.46 to -.28	3.98	24.57

Notes: K = Effect size, *N* = Sample size, $\bar{r}$ = Sample size weighted average correlation, $\hat{\rho}$ = Pooled correlation corrected for measurement error, dichotomization, and sampling error, *90% Cr I* = 90% credibility interval, *95% Co I* = 95% Confidence Interval, *Q* = Statistic for the test for heterogeneity or moderator, $I^2(\%)$ = Total heterogeneity divided by total variability. *p < .05;

2.6.2. Moderator Analysis

Moderator detection. Based on I^2, Q statistic, and credibility intervals all the correlations are heterogenous and have moderators except for courtesy($I^2 = 0$; Q = .73, p < .05; Cr I = [-.19 to -.13]), satisfaction with policies ($I^2 = 0$; Q = 2.59, p < .05; Cr I = [-.53 to -.46]), self-efficacy ($I^2 = 0$; Q = 5.26, p < .05; Cr I = [-.24 to -.16]), helping behavior ($I^2 = 27.36$; Q = 5.56, p < .05; Cr I = [-.22 to -.10]), trust manager ($I^2 = 21.85$; Q = 12.8, p < .05; Cr I = [-.56 to -.48]), opportunity to growth ($I^2 = 42.02$; Q = 5.17, p < .05; Cr I = [-.37 to -.18]), servant leadership ($I^2 = 42.49$; Q

= 6.96 , p < .05; Cr I = [-.39 to -.26]), work-family conflict (I^2 = 41.97; Q = 8.62, p < .05; Cr I =

[.33 to .48]), job involvement (I^2 = 50.14; Q = 12.03, p < .05; Cr I = [-.38 to -.28]), and

problem-focused coping (I^2 = 69.68; Q = 6.6, p < .05; Cr I = [-.32 to -.13]).

Meta-Regression. This analysis is limited to variables that have a sufficient number of

observations. The findings are presented in Table 2.5. The meta-regression finds that all

moderators impact one or more relationships which provide general support for the moderator

hypotheses. The maximum levels of variance inflation factors are all below 10, which shows that

multicollinearity is not a concern (Verbeke, Dietz, & Verwaal., 2011). The impact of the

moderators is highest for the relationship between turnover and satisfaction with manager (R^2 =

.91) followed by decision making involvement (R^2 = .90), and stress (R^2 = .81).

Table 2.5. Meta-Regressions Moderator Analyses

	Selling Context				Research Method	Measurement Method	R²	VIF
	B2B (1) vs. B2C (0)	Product (1) vs. Service (0) Selling	After (1) vs. Before (0) 2000	Low (1) vs. High (0) Unemployment Rate	Single- (1) vs. Multi- (0) Company Sample	Actual Turnover (1) vs. Intention to Leave (0)		
Salesperson Characteristics								
Biographical Characteristics	-.17	-.13	-.12	.51**	.52**	-.06	.48	2.03
Age	-.04	.42	.57	.35	-.44	ins	.70	3.47
Tenure	-.22	-.04	-.16	.69**	.72**	0	.77	1.7
Salesperson Psychological State								
Job Satisfaction	.03	-.08	-.24	-.17	-.26	.40**	.33	1.49
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	-.36	.08	-.28	-.30**	.23	.20	.44	3.35
Satisfaction with Task	-.22	.33	ins	-.33*	.29	.20	.43	2.13
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	-.36**	-.51**	-.40	-.13	.43**	.17**	.34	6.07
Satisfaction with Coworkers	-.23	-.28	ins	-.29	.22	.27	.27	2.63
Satisfaction with Pay	-.20	-.19	ins	-.30	.41	.22	.31	2.53
Satisfaction with Promotion	-.42*	-.10	ins	-.16	.48*	.24	.40	2.63
Satisfaction with Manager	-.43**	-.52**	-.52**	-.15	.41**	.11*	.91	3.80
Organizational Commitment	.17	.06	-.31	.05	ins	.24*	.37	2.33
Strain	-.36**	.24**	.36**	.03	.45**	-.12*	.86	4.23
Stress	-.46	.05	.57**	ins	ins	-.16*	.81	1.43
Justice Perception	-.05	.23	.08	-.33	.02	.49**	.77	8.51
Distributive Justice	-.06	.26	.08	-.50	-.17	.55**	.73	7.97

Notes: β = Standardized estimated coefficient; ins = insufficient number of observations; *p < 0.1, **p < .05; VIF = Variance inflation factor

Meta Regression for Intention to leave–Turnover Behavior Relationship. The study of the moderators of the relationship between intention to leave and turnover behavior is provided in Table 2.6. The results indicate that product vs service selling (β = -.41, p < .01) and average age of the salespeople (β = -.47, p < .05) moderate the relationship between intention to leave and turnover behavior. The moderating effect of turnover recoding lag was not supported (β =.28, p > .05), B2B versus B2C selling (β = -.01, p > .05), and low versus high unemployment rate (β = .21, p > .01).

Table 2.6. Meta-Regressions Moderator Analyses for Intention to Leave – Turnover Behavior Relationship

	Turnover lag more (1) vs. less (0) than 12 Months	B2B (1) vs. B2C (0)	Product (1) vs. Service (0) Selling	Average Age above (1) vs. below (0) Median Age	Low (1) vs. High (0) Unemployment Rate	R^2	VIF
Intention to leave → Turnover Behavior	.28	-.05	-.41**	-.47*	.21	.85	3.21

Notes: β = Standardized estimated coefficient; ins = insufficient number of observations; *p < 0.1, **p < .05; VIF = Variance inflation factor

2.6.3. Structural Tests of Turnover Theories

Three tested models of Job-Resource Demand (X^2 (34) = 205.78, p < .01, CFI = .90, GFI = .91, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .06), Social Exchange (X^2 (10) = 52.15, p < .01, CFI = .94, GFI = .94, RMSEA = .13, SRMR = .04), and Social Identity Theory (X^2 (4) = 11.51, p < .05, CFI = .99, GFI = .98, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .02) show acceptable fit indices (Niemand & Mai, 2018). The models are shown in Figure 2.2 and the correlation matrices and the results of the test of the theories are provided in Tables 2.7 to 1.10. In the Job-Resource-Demand Theory model, findings provide evidence that job resources negatively relate to job strain (γ = -.36, t = -3.00) while job demands increases job strain among salespeople (γ = .28, t = 2.34). In addition, job strain decreases job attitude (γ = -.33, t = -4.27). Job resources is positively linked to job attitude (γ =

.59, t = 7.01) when job attitude increases performance (γ = .28, t = 2.24). Lastly, the results

support that job attitude is negatively related to turnover (γ = -.76, t = -10.74).

In the Social Exchange Theory model, justice, (γ = .31, t = 3.85), leadership practices (γ = .58, t

= 6.61), and organizational culture (γ = .17, t = 1.88) are significant predictors of salespeople

relationship with manager. The results support the positive effects of justice (γ = .44, t = 5.20)

and a salesperson's relationship with their manager (γ = .42, t = 4.97) on job attitude. This model

also indicates that job attitude is negatively associated with intention to leave (γ = -.76, t = -

10.63). Finally, testing Social Identity Theory indicates that trust in manager (γ = .76, t = 13.13)

and organizational culture positively influence on organizational identification (γ = .16, t = 2.61).

Organizational identification (γ = .85, t = 20.98) and organizational culture (γ = .39, t = 9.78) are

supported be significant predictors of job attitude. This model also suggests that job attitude is

negatively related to turnover (γ = -.66, t = -10.69).

Figure 2.2. Theoretical Frameworks for Testing Turnover Theories

Model 1: Job Resource-Demand Theory

Resources/ Demands	Job Status	Outcomes

Resources
Training
Customer Orientation
Organizational Culture
Relationship with Manager

Demands
Hindrance Stressors
Challenge Stressors

Job Strain

Job Attitude
Performance
Intention to Leave

Model 2: Social Exchange Theory

Antecedents of Exchange	Exchange Element	Outcomes

Justice
Leadership Practices
Organization Culture

Relationship with Managers

Job Attitude
Performance
Intention to Leave

Model 3: Social Identity Theory

Antecedents of Identification	Identification Element	Outcomes

Trust with Manager
Organization Culture
Person-Organization Fit

Organizational Identification

Job Attitude
Performance
Intention to Leave

Table 2.7. Correlation matrix for Job Resource-Demand Theory

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Intention to Leave	1								
2. Job Satisfaction	-.58								
3. Performance	-.13	.44							
4. Challenger	.28	-.15	-.04						
5. Hindrance	.37	-.45	-.17	.53					
6. Strain	.46	-.46	-.20	.31	.45				
7. Customer Orientation	-.27	.40	.27	-.28	-.28	-.28			
8. Training	-.28	.31	.21	-.45	-.44	-.45	.26		
9. Relationship with manager	-.43	.51	.13	-.31	-.44	-.43	.29	.52	
10. Organizational Culture	-.35	.50	.13	.04	-.39	-.10	.44	.13	.56

Table 2.8. Correlation matrix for Social Exchange Theory Model

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Intention to Leave	1					
2. Job Attitude	-.58					
3. Performance	-.13	.23				
4. Relationship with Manager	-.43	.51	.14			
5. Justice	-.48	.52	.33	.56		
6. Organizational Culture	-.35	.49	.13	.55	.61	
7. Leadership Practices	-.26	.41	.39	.65	.31	.40

Table 2.9. Correlation matrix for Social Identity Theory Model

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Intention to Leave	1					
2. Performance	-.13					
3. Job Attitude	-.59	.22				
4. Trust in Manager	-.51	.17	.63			
5. Organizational Culture	-.35	.13	.56	.18		
6. Organizational Identification	-.52	.39	.83	.70	.26	
7. Person-Organization Fit	-.26	.11	.56	.47	.44	.37

Table 2.10. Standardized Path Coefficients for Theoretical Models

Hypothesized Paths	Initial Model		Revised Model	
	γ	z-value	γ	z-value
Model 1: Job Resource-Demand Theory				
Job Resources → Job Strain	-.45	-4.52***	-.36	-3.00***
Job Demands → Job Strain	.28	2.75***	.28	2.34**
Job Strain → Job Attitude	-.73	-9.74***	-.33	-4.27***
Job Resources → Job Attitude	-	-	.59	7.01***
Job Attitude → Performance	.32	3.94***	.28	2.24**
Job Attitude → Intention to Leave	-.78	-10.49***	-.76	-10.74***

Fit indices for initial model: $X^2(34) = 205.78***$, CFI = .86, GFI = .91, RMSEA = .15, SRMR = .10.
Fit indices for revised model: $X^2(33) = 135.24***$, CFI = .90, GFI = .91, RMSEA = .11, SRMR = .06.

Hypothesized Paths	Initial Model		Revised Model	
Model 2: Social Exchange Theory				
Justice → Relationship with manager	.38	4.98***	.31	3.85***
Leadership practices → Relationship with manager	.57	9.98***	.58	9.61***
Organizational culture → Relationship with manager	.15	1.78*	.17	1.88*
Justice → Job Attitude	-	-	.44	5.20***
Relationship with manager → Job Attitude	.73	10.65***	.42	4.97***
Job Attitude → Intention to Leave	-.76	-10.42***	-.76	-10.63***
Job Attitude → Performance	.32	3.93***	-	-

Fit indices for initial model: $X^2(16) = 145.49***$, CFI = .84, GFI = .87, RMSEA = .19, SRMR = .08.
Fit indices for revised model: $X^2(10) = 52.15***$, CFI = .94, GFI = .94, RMSEA = .13, SRMR = .04.

Hypothesized Paths	Initial Model		Revised Model	
Model 3: Social Identity Theory				
Trust in Manager → Organizational Identification	.69	10.79***	.76	13.13***
Organizational Culture → Organizational Identification	.39	6.41***	.16	2.61***
Person-organization Fit → Organizational Identification	-.01	-.24	-	-
Organizational Identification → Job Attitude	.98	23.14***	.85	20.98***
Organizational Culture → Job Attitude	-	-	.39	9.78***
Job Attitude → Performance	.35	4.42***	-	-
Job Attitude → Intention to Leave	-.67	-10.64***	-.66	-10.69***

Fit indices for initial model: $X^2(11) = 151.39***$, CFI = .82, GFI = .85, RMSEA = .24, SRMR = .06.
Fit indices for initial model: $X^2(4) = 11.51**$, CFI = .99, GFI = .98, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .02.

Notes: *** $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .1$.

2.7. Discussion

The current study integrates the theoretical underpinnings and empirical results of previous studies and offers new generalizations regarding salespeople turnover theories, antecedents of salespeople's turnover decision, and factors that moderates the impacts of the predictors on turnover. In the following sections, the theoretical findings of the meta-analysis will be summarized along with their managerial implications and then future research directions are presented. This section will conclude by discussing limitations of the present study.

2.7.1. Summary of Theoretical Findings

Through a meta-analytical examination, moderator analysis, and meta-analytical structural equation modeling, this study provides a thorough quantitative assessment of the turnover literature. The results and findings of this study are extensive. Hence, I focus on important observations that merit a discussion.

Difference between Intention to Leave and Turnover. Although many studies use intention to leave as a proxy for measuring turnover , the results indicate a noticeable distinction between the two variables, suggesting that additional theoretical constructs can predict turnover among salespeople. Three observations in the results have brought us to this conclusion. First, intention to leave explains only 17% of the variance in turnover behavior showing that many salespeople who quit their job had not planned to leave the firm. Second, the variables that have the highest correlation with intention to leave are different from those of turnover behavior. The top three correlated variables with intention to leave are organizational commitment, global job satisfaction and identification, whereas, for turnover, the highest correlations are performance. The difference in highly correlated antecedents provides evidence that the predictors of turnover behavior and intention to leave may differ. Finally, moderator analysis reveals that the

measurement method of turnover (intention to leave vs. actual turnover) significantly moderates more than half of the relationships (See Table 2.4), which indicates that the method of measuring turnover phenomenon (intention to leave or actual turnover) can change the conclusions about the effect of turnover predictors.

This finding has crucial theoretical implications. The current state of salesforce turnover literature is mainly derived from two theoretical perspectives: organizational equilibrium theory (March & Simon, 1958) and organizational commitment theory (Porter et al., 1974). These two theories have an attitudinal basis and argue that the attitude of an employee toward her job predicts turnover. The organizational equilibrium theory, which is the basis of the important construct of job satisfaction, posits that an employee is seeking a balance between the company's inducement and their contribution. When the balance is disrupted, the employee becomes dissatisfied, and intention to leave increases. Organizational commitment theory focuses on the attachment of an employee to the organization rather than her satisfaction (Jaramillo, Mulki, & Marshall, 2005). In the current literature, most other constructs influence turnover through these two key attitudinal variables. However, results indicate that the two theoretical perspectives work only for intention to leave and not necessarily for turnover. This is important as organizations and managers are concerned about turnover, and the literature is supposed to address the issue of voluntary turnover, yet the current state of the literature has mainly dealt with intention to leave.

Moderators of Intention to leave – Turnover relationship. We tested several moderators to deepen our understanding of the relationship between the two main turnover variables. This analysis shows that the average age of the sample acts as a moderator and weakens the relationship, which shows that as individuals get older, they might stay in a job while they intend to leave the organization. This phenomenon might be partly related to the attachment developed

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through the years, the investment that they have formed throughout the years with their customers, or the embeddedness of the individual into the job or environment. Also, the results show that type of offering (service versus product) is a moderator for the relationship between intention to leave and turnover behavior and the relationship is weaker for service selling. This might be because of the fact that the level of investment by salesperson in service selling is higher in comparison to product selling. In service selling environment, the service is co-created with the customer and salespeople invest more time and energy in the development of the offering which may translate into more attachment to the firm and the customer. Further during the interactions with the customers, relationships are built which increases the level of sacrifices if salespeople decide to leave their job.

The Relationship Between Performance and Turnover. One unexpected observation is the magnitude of the relationship between actual turnover behavior and performance. Previous studies argue that high and low performers are more prone to leave their job (Sturman, Shao, and Katz, 2012). The rationale behind their premise involves organizational equilibrium theory (March and Simon, 1958), which posits that job satisfaction and perceived ease of movement determine turnover. Thus, low performers might leave their job since they have low job satisfaction (Sunder et al., 2017), while high performers quit since they have high perceived ease of movement (Trevor, Gerhart, & Boudreau, 1997). In this study, however, among all predictors of turnover behavior, self-rated performance ($\hat{\rho} = -.43$; p < .05) has the highest correlation and is double the magnitude of such a relationship for general employees ($\hat{\rho} = -.21$; p > .05) (Rubenstein et al., 2018). This observation indicates that in a sales organization, performance has a strong effect on actual turnover behavior. The control mechanism of sales organizations through the contingent compensation system could be one viable explanation for such association (Sunder et

al., 2017). Sales organizations that utilize a commission-based compensation program tying a portion of the salesperson's income to the performance of the salesperson is perhaps one explanation for this strong relationship between performance and turnover behavior. The more contingent the compensation plan becomes the more operational pressure the salesperson bears and the more stress they experience (Malek, Sarin, & Jaworski, 2018). In such organizations, poor performance translates to low income, which in turn causes dissatisfaction and turnover. Although such turnover is voluntary, it is induced by organizational policies and, in the long run, might cause excessive expenses due to rising costs of hiring and onboarding. This relationship is crucial as companies want to retain high performers while assisting low performers in avoiding the hiring and onboarding costs. It is important to note that this correlation has high variance and moderator detection tests, suggesting that moderators exist for the relationship. This is further evidence that the sales management compensation system could be an influential factor in the relationship between performance and turnover behavior.

Leadership. Results indicate that leadership-related variables such as manager trust and general leadership qualities are highly and negatively correlated with turnover. Sales managers are the primary point of salesperson contact with the organization as salespeople can spend most of their time in the external environment with customers. Managers also have a considerable impact on the salesperson's experience on the job because they implement the organization's policies (Plank et al., 2018). Results show that this effect, however, is moderated by the type of offering sold (service vs. product) and selling context (B2B vs. B2C). In a B2B setting, The moderator analysis documents that the association between leader qualities and turnover will be amplified. This observation corroborates the supposition that the complexities of B2B selling require effective communication and support from sales managers. This support further reduces

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stress which, in turn, lessens the organizational turnover rate among salespeople. Concerning the type of product sold the results show that the influence of a manager's qualities on turnover will be weakened in a service selling context. The possible explanation lies in the reduced role of a manager on the performance of salespeople. In service selling, the time spent on the service co-creation with the customer is out of the control of the salespeople (Bettencourt et al., 2002). This issue increases the opportunity cost of the salesperson since their limited time hinders their ability to visit more prospects. Thus, companies might move toward a more behavioral based compensation system rather than an outcome-based system. In such circumstances, the impact of the sales manager on the salesperson's performance is attenuated since salespeople can enjoy proper income regardless of their manager's qualities and behaviors.

Stress. The findings show that stress is highly correlated with turnover while revealing some nuances in the relationship between the two constructs. The sales job is characterized by high stress, and sales researchers have not turned a blind eye to the issue (Boles et al., 2012). Contingent reward systems, as well as the pressure placed by multiple parties involved in the selling process, have made the sales job distinctively stressful.

Our first observation confirms the previous theorization in the sales context that hindrance and challenge stressors have a differential effect on Turnover (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). The second observation relates to the moderating role of the type of offering sold (service vs. product) and selling context (B2B vs. B2C) in the relationship between stress and both turnover. We hypothesized that a B2B setting reduces the association between stress and turnover, and the observation supports this conjecture. However, with regards to selling services, the finding is contrary to the hypothesis, which anticipated a strengthening relationship when selling services. This finding may be explained through attenuation of the demand for resources

from salespeople in a service selling context. According to job demand-resource theory, the source of stress is a discrepancy between demand and available resources (Mullins & Panagopoulos, 2019). In a service selling context, offering fulfillment is the responsibility of multiple employees in the organization as the offering is produced while providing the service to the customer. Thus, the salesperson has less control and less responsibility (demand) over the proper delivery of the offering. The demand reduction further improves the salesperson's well-being and satisfaction which enhances their tendency to stay in the organization.

2.7.2. Managerial Implications

The findings of the meta-analytical study provide several managerial implications for sales managers who aim for a reduction in their organization's salesforce turnover rate. Firstly, guidance will be provided for sales managers on the most influential factors in predicting turnover. By constantly monitoring these factors, sales managers can act before salespeople make leaving decisions. Among them, the results suggest that the four antecedents with the strongest influence on turnover — job satisfaction, organizational commitment, identification, and trust in manager — are the factors that managers need to devote most of their resources to screen repeatedly. Trust and identification are frequent outcomes of the long-term investment of sales managers and the organization in their relationship with salespeople. Particularly, in the absence of conventional employee-organization interaction as a result of the work-from-home norms, sales managers may be required to put in additional work and innovative thought to develop and maintain a quality relationship with salespeople via technology.

Second, the examination of moderation effects gives insightful evidence to sales managers to minimize turnover in various contextual settings. The results shown in Table 2.5 show that B2C and service sales managers should be more vigilant about salespeople's extrinsic

job satisfaction compared to managers in B2B and product sections. In addition, sales managers need to be aware of the relative importance of stress in service and B2C sections. Salespeople are in constant contact with potential prospects and customers in B2C firms, which might incur additional stress and anxiety for salespeople if a product or service fails to meet customer expectations. Our results imply that salespeople in the service section are more likely to leave their firm due to stress -- making the salesperson's stress level an important factor to monitor for service and B2C sales managers.

Finally, from a managerial perspective, each of the three theoretical approaches tested in this study indicates avenues for managerial intervention in the turnover process where the firm and sales managers can take steps to reduce the likelihood of salesperson turnover. Namely, job resource-demand theory suggests that training can help reduce job strain, which is positively related to turnover. Thus, reducing salespeople's job strain should be the focus of sales managers to retain salespeople. From a social exchange theory standpoint, perceptions of justice, as well as enhancing the firm's leadership and organizational culture, benefit sales managers by generating lower turnover rates among their sales reps. Lastly, social identity theory proposes that improving managerial trust and organizational culture and using more effective recruiting and hiring practices can improve organizational identification, which in turn reduces salesperson turnover. Given these results, the findings reemphasize the key role of sales managers in lowering salespeople turnover intention.

2.8. Future Research

Previous studies have established a foundation for identifying antecedents of salesperson turnover. Based on study results, the suggestions for future research are grouped into individual, leadership, and organization levels. Table 2.11 summarizes an overview of the theories and research questions. It is crucial to note that from a data perspective, turnover research ideally needs to utilize multi-level, longitudinal, and multi-dimensional datasets to be able to comprehensively study sales force turnover. While data of this type are very difficult to attain, building partnerships with firms fielding major salesforces may allow such data collection efforts. Data of these types will potentially allow a much more in-depth investigation of salesperson turnover and its effects on the individual, firm, and customers. Furthermore, the availability of such data enables scholars to apply a variety of data analysis methodologies such as social network analysis and simultaneous equations modeling in their scholarly works. A combination of new data sources and advanced data analytics methods will result in rigorous and novel theoretical research.

Table 2.11. A Research Agenda

Theories to Explore	Research Questions
Individual	
Focusing on motivations:	*Performance and turnover:*
• Achievement motivation theory (Weiner, 1985)	• What is the nature of the relationship between salespeople performance and turnover?
• Goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 2002)	• How do salespeople's motivations moderate performance-turnover linkage?
•	• Does setting goals change the strength of the relationship between performance and turnover?
Focusing on the process:	*Short-term vs. long-term turnover:*
• Turnover process frameworks such as the unfolding turnover model (Lee et al. 1999) and the Cybernetic theory of turnover (Steel, 2002)	• What are the long-term vs. short-term impacts of changes in firms' policies or leadership practices on the decision of sales reps to leave their jobs?
	Status quo vs. changes in predictors:
	• What are the consequences of dramatic changes in turnover predictors on salespeople turnover?
	• Are there thresholds for changes in turnover predictors?
	Shocks:
	• What are the short- and long-term consequences of shocks on salespeople turnover?
	• Do shocks (positive/negative and expected/unexpected) affect a salesperson's intention to leave?
	• What salesperson characteristics moderate consequences of shocks and reduce intention to leave?
	Turnover intention vs. turnover:
	• What factors accelerate/is delay turning turnover intention into the leaving firms among salespeople?
Focusing on interactions:	*Peers:*
• Job embeddedness theory (Lee et al., 2004)	• When do peer effects matter in the context of salespeople turnover?
• Social network theory (Schrock et al., 2018)	• What environmental or organizational factors can modify peer effects in the context of salespeople turnover?
• Social penetration theory (Altman & Taylor, 1973)	*Team:*
	• To what extent do team-level factors influence a salesperson's turnover decision?
	• What type of team leadership style does lead to a lower turnover rate in a team?
	• How do potential conflicts between a selling team and an organization impact salespeople turnover?

- What is the optimum structure of a selling team?

New hires:
- What organizational factors enhance the effects of the onboarding process on newly hired salespeople?
- What key features should be examined during the hiring process to reduce turnover amongst new hire salespeople?

Leadership
- Cognitive evaluation theory (Anderson & Oliver, 1987)

- Do sales leadership control mechanisms affect turnover intention?
- What is the optimized level of control mechanism to minimize turnover intention?
- Do leadership styles during vulnerable times change salespeople's intention to leave?
- What types of sales leadership reduce salespeople turnover during a high uncertainty period?

Organization
- Resource-and Knowledge-based theory (Srivastava, Fahey, & Christensen, (2001)
-

- What are the positive and negative consequences of salespeople turnover on individuals and organizations?
- To what extent do incumbent customers intend to maintain their relationships with firms after their direct sales representatives leave jobs?
- When do salespeople turnover lead to positive consequences in a firm?

Data and Methodologies to Apply

Data
- Multi-level
- Longitudinal
- Multi-dimensional
- Social network

Methodology:
- Social network analysis
- Survival analysis
- Simultaneous equation modeling (dynamic modeling)
- Prediction models

Individual and Team Level Future Research Directions:

We urge sales to focus on the role of salespeople's motivation, turnover as a process, not a standalone decision, and interactions of salespeople with peers when scrutinizing turnover among salespeople. When motivation is the area of study, one critical research question involves determining the role of individuals' motivation and setting goals in the relationship between performance and turnover by capitalizing on achievement motivation (Weiner, 1985) and goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 2002). Next, an individual's path to leaving organizations may vary from one case to another and involves several steps such as image violation, dissatisfaction, job search, evaluation of alternatives, and monitoring the job market for opportunities. Thus, future research needs to examine theoretical frameworks that regard turnover as a process influenced by various factors over time (Hom et al., 2017). Unfolding (Lee et al., 1994) and cybernetic theory (Steel, 2002) are two candidates for theoretical frameworks to be explored.

Salespeople are in constant interactions with peers and teammates. Therefore, the degree a salesperson embeds in their network of colleagues affects their decisions (Cheng, 2014). Sunder et al.'s (2017) study indicates that both peers' performance and turnover increase the probability of a sales rep leaving the job. Interactions also take place at the team level. Research has scrutinized team characteristics without including turnover as a pivotal outcome of team-level characteristics (e.g., Mullins, Menguc, & Panagopoulos, 2019). Thus, future research needs to examine team-level questions such as Does team leadership style and team conflict affect turnover rates?

Another area related to salespeople's turnover decisions involves identifying organizational factors that enhance the onboarding process of newly hired salespeople. There has

been some examination of sales force socialization, but that research is quite limited (e.g., Cheng, 2014). Yet, the socialization of new hires may be critically important in determining salesperson outcomes (Dubinsky et al. 1986). By extending the onboarding process into the hiring stage (Barrick and Zimmerman, 2005), future research can evaluate to the extent realistic job preview, person-job fit, person-organizational fit, and characteristics of former employer impact on newly hired salespeople's turnover intention.

Leadership Level Future Research Direction: Further research is needed to establish theoretical and empirical justifications for the extent to which managerial control – formal, informal, and their interactions - to investigate the role of sales leadership control mechanisms in salespeople's turnover decisions- (Malek, Sarin, & Jaworski, 2018). While formal controls mainly focus on the process and outcomes of salespeople's activities, informal control mechanism tends to bound sales reps' behaviors using organizational norms and social interactions with other individuals. Next, sales leadership can also play a crucial role when an organization experiences a high degree of uncertainty from outside. Merger and acquisition, pandemics, and market vulnerability are some prime examples of the moments when a firm might lose its high-performance salespeople. Losing high performers might have drastic impacts on a firm's performance as they are frequently the driver of a significant share of sales in companies, and their turnover during vulnerable times exacerbates the situation for firms. In such circummundane, sales leadership may be able to mitigate the downsides of the shocks by offering roadmaps that outline organizations' strategic directions to overcome challenges. Therefore, further research is needed to scrutinize the role of sales leaders during high uncertainty periods. An example of questions to ask is: Do leadership styles during vulnerable

times change salespeople's intention to leave? Additionally, what types of sales leadership reduce salespeople turnover in periods of high uncertainty?

Organizational Level Future Research Directions: At the organizational level, salesperson turnover may have significant consequences on firm performance. Previous turnover research often limits its scope to identifying antecedents of turnover without examining the potential consequences of losing sales reps at the firm level. However, losing salespeople may have dramatic effects when they compete with others in the market. Such drastic effect worsens when salespeople's role is frequently similar to a gatekeeper between the firm and customers. Additional research is needed to understand to what extent and under what conditions, do customers maintain their relationships with firms after their direct sales representatives leave (Hancock et al., 2013)?

In addition to examining negative consequences of salesperson turnover, there may be some favorable results. As an illustration, when a salesperson with disruptive behaviors quits a job, it may have positive effects on peers by increasing their job satisfaction. Moreover, a new hire may add new knowledge to an organization. Thus, recruiting a new salesperson with distinct experience and knowledge may result in positive outcomes such as enhancing knowledge of others in an organization. Both negative and positive influences of salesperson turnover at individual- and organization-level should be considered as a future research direction.

2.9. Limitations

This study has limitations that originate from the meta-analysis method. First, the limited number of empirical manuscripts restricts the feasibility of in-depth testing of some contextual and theoretical factors. For instance, in moderator analysis, it was not feasible to study factors such as compensation scheme due to the limited number of studies that report such information.

We anticipate, as more scholarly works will be introduced to the literature, future meta-analytical studies can investigate the potential effects of such moderators on the turnover decision of salespeople. Second, following previous studies, structural equation modeling was applied to test the three most-studied turnover theories in the literature. One critical factor that drove this decision was the number of correlations collected in our sample of studies. Samples were available, it is suggested that future meta-analysis studies on salespeople turnover use the HLM technique to include nesting models in their analyses. Based on the theoretical foundations of turnover, turnover predictors were categorized into groups of variables. We classified variables into meaningful and homogenous groups. However, as more empirical studies are conducted, such categories can be fine-tuned and suggest more specific classifications of constructs where enough studies exist in each group for further investigations. Finally, although a moderator were included to show the impacts of changes in the sales job market before and after 2000, technologies and industries are in constant change with fluctuations in the supply and demand for the sales job market.

2.10. Conclusion

This research reports a comprehensive array of predictors of intention to leave and actual turnover among salesforce by performing a meta-analytic examination of the antecedents and correlates studied in the sales literature. In addition, this study investigates contextual and measurement factors through subgroup analysis and meta-regression. Finally, I coded previous studies for theoretical frameworks they applied to support empirical findings and offered an overview of turnover theories in the sales literature. This study is concluded through providing theoretical gaps and directions for potential future research.

CHAPTER 3

3. DIFFERENTIAL EFFECTS OF AFFECT AND COGNITION IN JOB SATISFACTION: A META-ANALYSIS

3.1. Introduction

Salesforce Job Satisfaction (JS) has been a central concept in salesforce research for more than half a century (Pearson, Barker, & Elliott, 1957; Churchill, Ford, and Walker,1974). The literature has examined numerous antecedents as well as consequences of salespeople's JS in various industrial contexts and environmental settings (e.g., Srivastava & Tang, 2018; Piercy et al., 2006). The predictors include demographic factors (e.g., age, education, and gender) (Busch and Bush, 1978), role stressors (e.g., role ambiguity and role conflict) (Moncrief et al. 1997), leadership-level variables (e.g., leadership consideration and clarification) (Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander 2009), and organizational-level antecedents (e.g., ethical climate and organizational support) (Jaramillo, Mulki, & Solomon, 2006). Key consequences of satisfaction are important work outcomes such as performance (Bagozzi, 1978), organizational commitment (Boles et al., 2007), turnover intention (Schwepker, 2001), and actual turnover (Jones et al., 1996). The importance of satisfaction to the theoretical domain of sales management and to managerial practice necessitates a continued investigation of this key construct into the twenty-first century (Rajabi, Boles, Alejandro and Sarin, 2021; Schwepker, 2001).

A milestone in the salesforce JS literature is the Brown and Peterson (1993) meta-analysis. Their research reviewed 59 studies and summarized the effects of 28 correlates of JS. Their study contributed significantly to the sales literature by providing a comprehensive

quantitative synthesis of the literature and assessing the impact of methodological moderators of the relationship. This study provided a powerful impetus for researchers to conduct future satisfaction studies (Rajabi et al, 2021). Over the intervening 30 years, JS research has continued to play a central role in the understanding of leadership impact, salesperson motivation, and additional boundary-spanning effects (Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander 2009). The number of studies published after the Brown and Peterson (1993) research has approximately quadrupled, and various new antecedents of salespeople satisfaction at the individual- and organizational-level, have emerged. Additionally, over these intervening years, the role of salespeople has also changed. As technological advances appear and the information asymmetry between buyers and sellers disappears, the role of salespeople as competent speakers who deliver information about products and services has dramatically altered into knowledge brokers (Verbeke, Dietz, & Verwaal, 2011) and value creators (Blocker et al., 2012). Salespeople nowadays need a deeper knowledge of the products, services, market, and customers and are required to create value for customers to sell their offerings. Further, their interactions with customers are no longer transactional since they now are responsible for relationship building and maintenance (Palmatier et al., 2007). The pace of such changes has increased in the past few year due to the outbreak of COVID-19 (Epler & Leach, 2021) and thus, it is timely and necessary to reconcile and solidify what we know from the literature on JS so far and prepare for future.

Although the volume of new research is a compelling rationale for synthesizing, it is not sufficient. Indeed, an examination of the literature reveals that conceptually and theoretically, significant developments regarding the definition of job satisfaction have occurred. Previously, studies defined JS as a construct that encompasses both cognitive and affective elements using definitions such as Locke (1969) and Vroom (1964). However, recently has these elements have

been differentiated and there is doubt regarding the inclusion of affect in the definition (Weiss, 2002). Researchers argue that JS is an attitude and an attitude by definition does not have an affective element (Weiss, 2002). Attitudes are "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p.1). Regardless of the correctness of the arguments, the differentiation between affective and cognitive elements has an important impact on the measurement of JS, which may, in turn, influence the validity of previous findings (Bagozzi & Verbeke, 2020) and requires further investigations. This is achieved by the use of Affective Event Theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) as a foundation to assess the role of affect and cognition in JS measures on the relationship between JS and its antecedents and consequences. AET differentiates between affective experience at work (affective element) and one's judgment (cognitive element) about the job, and posits that these two elements are related, but their antecedents and consequences are not the same. The theory argues that work environment, events, and personal dispositions shape affective experience while an individual's judgment about the job is formed by their affective experience at work and work environment. Finally, the theory suggests a differentiation between affective driven (e.g., helping behavior) and cognitive driven outcomes (e.g., turnover).

The purpose of this study is to achieve the following objectives: (1) Provide a reconciliation of the significant amount of research after Brown and Peterson (1993) through suggesting a conceptual framework for the antecedents and consequences of JS to understand the state of JS research, (2) Set a second marker in the long running study of satisfaction in the sales literature by conducting a meta-analysis on the JS and its correlates as the field is being affected by technological advancement, service selling, and customer-centric approaches (3) Perform

moderator analysis on such relationships to uncover sources of heterogeneity, and (4) Assess the

impact of affective and cognitive forms of JS measures on the relationships.

This study starts with a literature review of JS literature providing an overview of the

definition and measurement methods of JS. Then, I provide a conceptual framework of

antecedents and consequences of JS and then offer a review of the literature based on the

framework. Then, the methodology of the study will be provided. Next, the results, the

discussion and the conclusion of the study follows.

3.2. Literature Review

This section starts with an overview of various definitions utilized by sales researchers.

Then, I offer a discussion on various measurement methods of JS and finally end the section with

a summary of antecedents, correlates, and consequences of JS. In the final part of this section, I

develop a theoretical categorization of antecedents, correlates, and consequences to put many

constructs that have been studied into perspective and illuminate the scope of literature on JS.

3.2.1. Definitions of JS

There is a consensus among researchers that JS is the main job attitude construct

(Hartmann & Rutherford, 2015) and it is expressed as the degree of favor or disfavor of the job

(Judge et al., 2017). However, the definition of JS has been a point of contention (Bagozzi &

Verbeke, 2020). Two views exist with regard to the definition of JS. One view considers JS as a

multidimensional construct defining JS as the emotional response of an employee that stems

from his or her appraisal of the job circumstances (e.g., Srivastava, & Tang, 2018; Locke,1969;

Vroom, 1964). This view emphasizes both affective and cognitive dimensions in JS. The other

view is that JS is the evaluative judgment of an individual about his or her job circumstances

(Weiss, 2002; Bagozzi & Verbeke, 2020). This definition merely includes the cognitive dimension in JS and leaves the emotional dimension apart from the construct. This difference in the definition of JS has led to the introduction of affective and cognitive JS (Organ & Near, 1985).

Affective JS refers to satisfaction based on the emotional appraisal at the job. This type of satisfaction focuses on whether the reaction to one's job induces a good or bad mood or favorable or unfavorable feelings. Cognitive JS, on the other hand, covers the logical and rational evaluation of the job. The basis for this form of JS is comparison and analytical thinking rather than emotional responses evoked by the job (Moorman, 1993). Previous research has shown that the two items are related yet distinct from one another (Judge, Hulin, & Dalal, 2009). The inclusion of affect in JS has a well-grounded history, yet in terms of measurement, Bagozzi and Verbeke (2020) suggested that research has confounded the affective and cognitive elements.

3.2.2. Measurement of JS

In light of the various definitions of JS, it should not be a surprise that satisfaction has been measured differently in the sales literature. Based on the literature review, JS has been measured with more than 50 different instruments. Researchers have warned that the variety of measures may pose a threat to the external validity of the research findings since each measure is focused on certain aspects of JS (Bagozzi & Verbeke, 2020; Judge et al., 2017).

Researchers have measured job satisfaction in two ways. One way is by asking salespeople about their overall evaluation of the job (Global JS). The other is to first measure the evaluation of the salesperson about various facets of the job and then summing, averaging (Brown & Peterson, 1993) or weight averaging (Mikes & Hulin, 1968) the satisfaction score of facets to calculate overall JS (Faceted JS). According to proponents of faceted measurement, the

overall measure of JS fails to offer a comprehensive assessment of the job and provides little

information about aspects that requires management attention (Rutherford et al., 2009). Further,

the global measures of JS are so broad that they do not help in predicting specific behaviors

(Fishbein & Ajzen, 1972) and may not provide reproducible results with regard to the

relationship between JS and several job attitude and behavioral outcomes (Johnston et al., 1987;

Boles, Wood, & Johnson, 2003).

The concern with faceted measurement of JS is determining which aspects of JS should

be included and the number of measurement items required to assure reliability while avoiding

long surveys (Comer, Machleit, & Lagace 1989). This is apparent in the development of

different faceted measures of salesperson JS such the work of Pearson, Barker, & Elliot (1957)

(5 aspects and 13 items), Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1974) (7 aspects and 95 items), and

Comer et al., (1989) (7 aspects and 28 items). The INDSALE measure of JS by Churchill et al.

(1974) is an enhanced version of the JDI (Smith, Kendal, & Hulin, 1969), and its short form by

Comer et al. (1989) has become widely popular in the literature. These measures consider seven

aspects of the job, which are supervision, policy, promotion, pay, coworker, customers, and the

work itself. Table 3.1 shows JS measures that have been used more than five times in the

literature.

Table 3.1. Measures of JS

Measure	Studies	Items	No. of Scales	Facets	Response Format
INDSALE Churchill et al. (1974)	29	95	5	7	Agree-Disagree
Short INDSALE Comer et al. (1989)	19	28	5	7	Agree-Disagree
Brown & Peterson (1994)	15	4	7	Global	Varied
Hackman & Oldham (1975)	11	5	7	Global	Agree-Disagree
JDI Smith et al. (1969)	10	72	2	6	Yes/No
Netemeyer et al. (1997)	8	3	7	Global	Agree-Disagree
Cammann et al. (1979)	7	3	7	Global	Agree-Disagree
Brayfield & Rothe (1951)	6	19	5	Global	Agree-Disagree

| Spector (1985) | 6 | 36 | 6 | 9 | Agree-Disagree |
| MSQ Weiss et al. (1967) | 5 | 100 | 5 | 20 | Satisfied-Dissatisfied |

3.3. Classification Scheme

The JS literature of the past 30 years has been reviewed and to explain the determinates and outcomes of JS, a conceptual framework has been developed based on various theoretical perspectives. First, work in other disciplines such as management and psychology. I used the work of Brown and Peterson (1993) as the basis for the development of the conceptualization. Brown and Peterson (1993) reviewed the salesperson JS literature and identified research streams until 1993. They classified constructs into four categories: *work outcomes*, *personal characteristics, role perceptions,* and *organizational variables.* Although this classification effectively mapped the satisfaction literature at that time, the conceptualization is updated as it does not distinguish between antecedents and consequences of JS and also does not correspond with the full spectrum of the highly fragmented JS literature after the year 1993.

I adopt a broad perspective and distinguish between *antecedents*, *consequences*, and *correlates* of JS. Figure 3.1 shows the relationship between the categories and sub-categories with JS. Variables that are theorized as both antecedent and consequences of JS are referred to as *correlates*. Theoretical perspectives are inserted based on the current literature and the work of Brown and Peterson (1993). The definitions of categories are adapted to increase validity for the insertion of variables into categories and sub-categories. To avoid redundancy, I merged the variables with conceptual overlap when distinguishing among them was not meaningful to meta-analytical purposes. For example, task variety and job variety will be merged since both have been conceptualized and operationalized similarly.

Figure 3.1. Conceptual Model

Antecedents

Salesperson Characteristics
Biographical Characteristics
Dispositional Characteristics
Sales Characteristics
Psychological State

Job Feature
Job Characteristics
Role Stressors and Strains

Sales Team/Department Features
Supervisor's Qualities
Coworkers' Qualities
Justice Perceptions
Sales Control System

Organizational Variables
Organization Characteristic
Organizational Culture and
Climate

Job Satisfaction
- Affective ?
- Coginitive?

Consequences
Withdrawal Intentions and
Behaviors
Salesperson deviance

Correlates
Performance
Effort
Psychological Correlates
Selling Practice
Customer-related Correlates

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3.3.1. Antecedents

Salesperson Characteristics. The personal characteristics research stream argues that certain factors within an individual determine the level of JS experienced. I identified four research streams in this area; biographical characteristics, dispositional traits, sales characteristics, and psychological characteristics of the salesperson. Biographical characteristics include demographics and physical characteristics of salesperson such as age, gender, marital status, and education. The relationships between biographical variables and JS are highly inconsistent in the literature (e.g., Jaramillo, Mulki, & Boles, 2011; Cheng, 2014). Dispositional traits, which are "broad, decontextualized, and relatively nonconditional constructs which provide a dispositional signature for personality description" (Verbeke et al., 2011, p. 409), include variables such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, and external locus of control. Brown and Peterson (1993) only include self-esteem as a form of a dispositional trait. Theories such as social learning theory (Bandura, 1984) and self-consistency theory (Korman, 1970) have been used to explain the influence of such variables on JS. The final stream of research is for sales characteristics, which includes organizational fit, salesperson knowledge, and salesperson sales skill. This stream of research emerged after the work of Brown and Peterson (1993). Salesperson organization fit refers to the compatibility between an employee and the organization (Kristof, 1996). The organizational fit literature argues that fit between person and environment leads to positive outcomes such as satisfaction, creativity, or productivity (Kristof, 1996). Theories such as socialization theory (Netemeyer et al., 1997) and similarity-attraction and identity processes (Huang, Cheng, & Chou, 2005) have been used to argue that person-organization fit enhances salesforce JS. Sales knowledge and sales skill are not proximal determinants of JS (e.g., Li, Sun,

& Cheng, 2017), and no theoretical explanation to date has been provided on how they impact JS. Salesperson psychological characteristic includes salesperson organizational identification. Researchers have conceptualized organizational identification as an antecedent to JS with a direct relationship (Gammoh, Mallin & Pullins, 2014) and used social identity theory (Tajfel, 2010) to explain influence on JS.

Job Features. This stream of research looks at the impact of variables framed from the job characteristic model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) and role stressors and strains on JS (e.g., Johnson & Sohi, 2014). The job characteristics model is rooted in the humanistic perspective of an individual, which argues that when an individual's needs for self-fulfillment and meaning are addressed by the conditions of work, sales people will feel satisfied (Judge et al., 2017). The sub-category includes job dimensions (Becherer, Morgan, & Richard, 1982), namely, task identity, task variety, task significance, skill variety, autonomy, participation, and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Singh, 1998). Previous studies have argued and found support for a direct relationship between job characteristics and JS, yet the magnitudes of relationships have been highly inconsistent (e.g., Nauman, Widmier, & Jackson, 2000).

The role stressors and strains category is an update to the *role perception* category of Brown and Peterson (1993) and focuses on how stressors influence JS. This category contains role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload as stressors, and role stress and emotional exhaustion as strains. Role theory (Kahn et al., 1964), job-demand resource theory (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004), and identity theory (Thoits, 1991) are the three main theoretical foundations in this realm. It is worth mentioning that the job-demand resource theory introduces the prolonged effect of stressors and argues that placing excessive and persistent demand on a salesperson and providing limited resources cause strains such as emotional exhaustion (Jaramillo, Mulki &

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Boles, 2011) or anxiety (Netemeyer, Brashear & Boles, 2004). Research has consistently found a negative association between the variables in this group and JS and have assessed linear, quadratic, and triphasic relationships between the two but only found support for the direct inverse relationship (e.g., Singh, 1998, Bhuian, Menguc, & Barsboom, 2005).

      Sales Team/Department Features. A salesperson has constant interactions with the sales department, and the characteristics of the department play a crucial role in salesperson JS. When the work of Brown and Peterson (1993) was published, researchers only studied the influence of supervisory behaviors on JS. The literature has included the association between other sales department variables. I identified four research streams in this realm: supervisor's qualities, coworkers' qualities, justice perceptions, and sales control system. The investigations of supervisors' qualities on JS can be divided into three parts. First, some researchers focus on specific behaviors of the supervisor and ask salespeople whether the manager conducts particular actions or not (e.g., Jones et al., 1996; Gabler, Nagy & Hill, 2014). The other stream of research has to do with the influence of the quality of the salesperson-supervisor relationship on salesperson JS. Constructs such as supervisor support and relationship with the supervisor are included in this section. The foundational argument for explaining these relationships stems from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964a) which contends that supervisor and salesperson are social exchange partners, and a healthy relationship among them reduces conflict and increases satisfaction (Anderson & Narus, 1990). The second stream of research is coworker's qualities. Researchers have shown that the relationship with a coworker has a direct relationship with JS (e.g., Hartmann et al., 2016). Few studies have investigated this association, and rarely the underlying mechanism of the link between salesperson coworker relationship elements are discussed (except for Jaramillo, Mulki & Boles, 2011; Itani, Jaramillo & Chonko, 2019). The

third stream of research is the justice perception of the salesperson. Justice is a critical concept in a sales organization (Brashear, Brooks, & Boles, 2004; Ramaswami & Singh, 2003) and has been conceptualized as both predictors of JS (Arnold et al., 2009; Netemeyer et al., 1997) and a moderator of the relationship between conflict and JS (Magnotta & Johnson, 2020). Most of the research on the link investigates the effect of distributive justice and is built on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964b). The impact of procedural and interactional justice on JS has also been studied, and a direct relationship between the two has been shown (Gabler et al., 2014; Ramaswami & Singh, 2003). Finally, researchers have assessed the impact of sales control mechanisms on JS. Sales management control systems refer to "attempts by management or other stakeholders within the organization to influence the behavior and activities of marketing personnel to achieve desired outcomes" (Jaworski, 1988, p. 24). Researchers have identified five various types of controls; Input control (measures of a sales department before the selling activity begins, such as providing sales leads); Behavioral or process control (the methods or procedures provided by organizations to influence the sales behaviors of salespeople such as sales script); Activity control (organization policy to exert control over the daily activities of a salesperson); Capability control (controlling the skills and competencies of salespeople); Output control (the mechanism in which the salesperson is holding accountable for the results they produce) (Malek, Sarin, & Jaworski, 2018). Researchers suggest that salesforce control mechanisms impact salesperson JS. Yet no direct relationship between the two has been found, and the links are not clear (e.g., Challagalla & Shervani, 1996; Jaworski & MacInnis, 1989).

Organization. Organization variables consistently impact JS (Brown & Peterson, 1993). The two subgroups are organizational characteristics and organizational culture and climate. Two organizational characteristics on JS has been investigated: organizational age and size. These two

variables have been included as control variables in many investigations, yet a significant relationship between these variables and JS has not been reported (e.g., Groza & Groza, 2018; Johnson, Friend, & Agrawal, 2016). Few studies also studied the impact of organizational complexity and the level of bureaucracy on JS (e.g., Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014; Oliver & Anderson, 1994). The second stream of research assesses the impact of organizational culture on JS. Organizations culture is defined as "the pattern of shared values and beliefs that guide norms of behavior within the organization" (Jaworski, Stathakopoulos, & Krishnan, 1993, p. 58), and organizational climate refers to "the individual's internalized representations of organizational conditions and interrelationships among these conditions and reflects a cognitive structure" (Tyagi, 1982). Studies suggest that organizational culture and climate influence salesperson attitudes (Schwepker, 2001). Organizational support, ethical climate, and market orientation are three constructs included in his sub-category. Although researchers have consistently found a direct relationship between these constructs and JS, the magnitude of the relationships is highly varied (e.g., Mulki et al., 2009; Evans et al., 2007).

3.3.2. Consequences

Withdrawal Intentions and Behaviors. Salesforce turnover is a significant issue for managers and has been widely studied in the literature (Boles et al ; Rajabi et al 2021). Although the actual act of quitting the job is important, researchers have utilized turnover intention as an acceptable surrogate. Previous studies have found a significant negative relationship between JS and turnover (Brashear et al., 2003); however, two conceptualizations exist with regard to the way JS affects attrition. Some researchers assert that JS is a direct predictor of turnover (e.g., Wang & Ma, 2013; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Ahearn, 1998). They argue that constructs such as stress (Rutherford et al., 2012) or leadership (Tyagi & Wotruba, 1993) influence turnover

through JS. Additionally, they posit that the relationship between JS and turnover is moderated

by performance (Futrell & Parasuraman 1984).

Salesperson Deviance. Salesperson deviance is defined as discretional behavior that

breaches organizational norms and targets the employees, customers, or the organization (Darrat,

Amyx, & Bennet, 2017). Limited studies have investigated the influence of JS on deviant

behavior, and they indicate a mixed relationship between the two. Researchers have found that

customer orientation moderates the relationship between JS and deviant behavior (Iacono et al.,

2016).

3.3.3. Correlates

Performance. The relationship between JS and performance has been extensively studied

in sales literature (Rajabi et al, 2021). Research in this area has distinguished between types of

performance; in-role-performance (e.g., sales, percent quota, self-rated performance, etc.) and

extra-role performance (e.g., organizational citizenship behaviors, prosocial behaviors, etc.)

(MacKenzie et al., 1998). The association between JS and in-role performance has been

conceptualized and tested in different ways, and the results are mixed. Some researchers, such as

Brown and Peterson (1993), found no relationship between the two. Some have shown that JS is

an antecedent of in-role performance since the attitude of a salesperson toward the job (i.e., JS) is

the basis of their behavior in the job (i.e., in-role performance) (Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014;

Ahearne, Lam, Hayati, & Kraus, 2013). Some researchers contend that performance is the

consequence of JS due to the sense of fulfillment resulting from performing well in the job (e.g.,

Kwak et al., 2019; Behrman & Perrault, 1984). The extra-role performance stream of research

emerged after the publication of Brown and Peterson (1993) (e.g., Mackenzie, Podsakoff, &

Fetter, 1993; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). Early studies in this area have shown that JS is a

proximal antecedent for extra-role performance (e.g., Netemeyer et al., 1997; Vilela, Gonzalez, & Ferrin, 2008). The theoretical argument provided here is based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964a) and psychological contract theory (Robinson & Morrison; 1995) and specifically the norm of reciprocity which contends that a salesperson who is satisfied with his or her job reciprocates with the organization through engaging in behaviors beyond the duties of their roles (Netemeyer et al., 1997; MacKenzie et al., 1998). Extra-role performance can also act as an antecedent for JS, yet the relationship is not direct. Previous studies have shown that extra-role behavior can enhance in-role performance (Mulki, Jaramillo, & Marshall, 2007) or the ethical climate of the organization (Amyx et al., 2008), in turn, promote JS.

Work Effort. Work effort is defined as "the force, energy, or activity by which work is accomplished" (Brown & Peterson, 1994, p. 71) and deals with the behavior of a salesperson and not the psychological aspect of the effort, which concerns motivation (Walker, Churchill & Ford, 1977). The type of relationship between work effort and JS is not consistent in the literature. Initially, researchers posited that effort precedes JS. They argue that work effort leads to enhanced performance, which increases the extrinsic reward of the salesperson and, in turn, enhances his or her JS (Behrman & Perrault, 1984). Later, Brown and Peterson (1994) showed that, in addition to a mediated relationship, the work effort itself would result in JS and explain the relationship based on Effectance Theory (White, 1959) and Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Inversely, some researchers have included JS as a predictor of work effort (e.g., Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2009). They argue that since the capability of an individual is limited, they put effort into the activities that provide them the most satisfaction. Thus, the more satisfying the job, the more effort salesperson devotes to experiencing more satisfaction (Fu, Bolander, & Jones, 2009).

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Psychological Correlates. Organizational commitment, motivation, and job involvement are three psychological variables that have been conceptualized as both antecedents and consequences of JS. Organizational commitment is the other job attitude that concerns the attachment of the employee to the organization and stems from the value-based assessment of an employee about the job (Judge et al., 2017). The relationship between JS and organizational commitment has been widely studied, and a strong but inconsistent direct relationship between the two has been reported (e.g., Macintosh & Krush, 2014). The question of which one precedes the other in a causal network has not been clearly answered yet. Some researchers believe the relationship between the two variables are spurious (Currivan, 1999).

Selling Practice. One of the important research streams is focused on how two types of selling practice, customer orientation and adaptive selling, influence JS. Customer orientation plays a vital role in a sales job. Customer orientation is defined as the extent to which a salesperson intends to and enjoys satisfying customer needs (Harris, Mowen & Brown, 2005). Previous studies have extensively examined the relationship between customer orientation and JS as noted by the meta-analysis ofFranke & Park, (2006) C with ustomer orientation being both an antecedent and a consequence of JS. As an antecedent, customer orientation induces a sense of satisfaction in the salesperson since addressing the need of a customer is intrinsically satisfying (Franke & Park, 2006; Jaworski & Kohli, 1993). As a consequence, researchers posited and showed that JS increases the level of customer orientation because satisfied salespeople enjoy their job and interaction with customers. Hence, they are more likely to exercise customer-oriented behaviors (Singh & Das, 2013).

Adaptive Selling influences and is influenced by JS (Franke & Park, 2006). Adaptive selling refers to "the altering of sales behaviors during a customer interaction or across customer

interactions based on perceived information about the nature of the selling situation" (Weitz, Sujan & Sujan, 1986, p. 175). When a salesperson exercises adaptive selling, they customize their messages to fit the needs and preferences of the customers. As a predictor, adaptive selling behavior is synonymous with putting a conscious effort into understanding and responding to the difference in customer needs, which, in turn, enhances a salesperson's satisfaction with his or her performance (Keillor, Parker & Pettijohn, 1999). It is also argued that adaptive selling reduces salesperson ambiguity and improves the salesperson's relationship with customers, in turn leading to greater JS (Bejou, Wray, & Ingram, 1996). The findings suggest that adaptive selling is a predictor of JS. Consistent with Franke and Park (2006), it is reasonable to consider JS as a predictor of adaptive selling behavior since a satisfied employee enjoys the job and interaction with customers and hence providing adaptive behaviors toward customers. However, to the best of my knowledge, no study to date has considered such a relationship.

Customer-related Correlates. The sub-category includes the important but understudied variable, customer satisfaction. Few studies have looked at the relationship between JS and customer satisfaction in a dyadic setting. These studies have predominantly posited that salesperson JS is an antecedent of customer satisfaction (e.g., Homburg & Stock, 2004) and have provided arguments based on the concept of emotional contagion. However, recently, Zablah et al. (2016) have shown that salesperson JS and customer satisfaction have a reciprocal relationship. They explain this through social exchange theory which argues that a mirror effect exists between the two.

3.4. Role of Affect and Cognition in JS Measures

JS is regarded as the main organizational attitude variable (Macintosh & Krush, 2014) and, as an attitude, it entails both an affective (i.e., set of feelings and emotions evoked by the

attitude object) and a cognitive (i.e., a set of beliefs about attitude object) component (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998). Affective JS is the overall positive emotional appraisal of the job and focuses on the elicited good moods and positive feelings at work (Thompson & Phua, 2012). Cognitive satisfaction, on the other hand, is based on a logical and rational evaluation of the job conditions, which relies on the evaluation of conditions, opportunities, or outcomes of the job and not emotional judgment (Moorman, 1993).

Recently, Bagozzi and Verbeke (2020) raised the concern that researchers have confounded cognitive and affective components of JS. Particularly, measures of JS are not similar in terms of their orientation toward affective and cognitive components (Moorman, 1993). Organ and Near (1985) posit that JS measures are mostly cognitive since they are generally asking about the evaluation of employees on aspects of the job and not their emotional state at work. Investigations revealed that while many measures of JS are cognitive, some are based on affective states. For instance, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss et al., 1967) and Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith et al., 1969) are mostly cognitive-based (Brief & Roberson, 1988). The Brayfield & Roth (1951) and the Face scale (Dunham & Herman, 1975) surveys are predominantly measuring affective state at work (Williams, 1988). These findings have important implications for JS research since the antecedents and consequences of affective state at work and cognitive evaluation of the job are not similar.

Affective Event Theory (AET) provides a theoretical basis to assess the distinctive effect of affective and cognitive (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). By focusing on the affective state at work and job cognition (i.e., cognitive evaluation of the job), AET delineates how the two are formed, impact one another, and influence the behaviors while dealing with the formation of an affective state at work. The theory posits that the affective state at work encompasses both mood

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and emotions. Emotions are intense feelings that are directed at someone or something. Moods are different from emotions in that they are less intense, last longer, and are not specific toward an object or behavior (Hume, 2012). Researchers have suggested that moods and emotions should be considered together since the two have been used interchangeably in daily vernacular and, more importantly, when an employee is asked about her feelings at work, her response is an inseparable mixture of emotions and moods (Fisher, 2002). AET posits that the affective state has two proximal causes: dispositional traits and affective events at work (Weiss & Beal, 2005). Dispositional traits are "broad, decontextualized, and relatively nonconditional constructs which provide a dispositional signature for personality description" (McAdams, 1995, p. 365). The theory indicates that the momentary mood and emotions of an employee stem from the daily events that an employee encounter as well as some individual traits that he or she possesses. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) only included negative and positive affectivity as the dispositional traits for the affective state at work, yet other researchers have shown that other traits such as self-esteem and self-efficacy play a role in the formation of the affective state (Judge & Larsen, 2001; Brown & Mankowski, 1993; George, 1996). Here, since dispositional traits are the foundation of the affective state at work and not the cognitive evaluation, I hypothesize:

H_1: Dispositional traits (i.e., positive and negative affectivity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, internal locus of control, etc.) are more highly correlated with affective-based satisfaction measures than with cognitive-based satisfaction measures.

The relationship between cognitive job evaluation and work environment features includes both a direct relationship and an indirect relationship through an affective state. This conceptualization argues that the cognitive job evaluation is formed not only based on the

evaluation of the employee about the work environment features but also the momentary positive and negative moods and emotions. It is important to note that the cognitive judgment approach, which represents the direct relationship between the two, is the dominant perspective in JS literature (e.g., Rutherford et al., 2009; Park & Dietz, 2006). Theoretical perspectives such as social exchange theory (Blau, 1964a), equity theory (Greenberg, 1982), and outcome-value discrepancy perspective (Locke, 1969) established the foundation of their conceptualization of the match or mismatch between expectations and realized features of the work environment which is an evaluative process. Since work environment features have a dual effect on job cognition, I hypothesize:

> H_2: Work environment features (e.g., role perceptions, job characteristics, justice perception, etc.) are more highly correlated with cognitive-based satisfaction measures than with affective-based satisfaction measures.

AET also explains the outcomes of affective state at work and cognitive evaluation of the job and posits that affect-driven behaviors and judgment-driven behaviors as their proximal consequences. According to AET, affect has an immediate behavioral response, and those behaviors are directly driven by the momentary affective state at work and not the careful judgment of the job. Such behaviors directly stem from emotional experience and are impacted by mood management and coping mechanisms (Lewin & Sager, 2010). Previous studies have shown that mood influences empathy, helping behaviors, information processing strategies behaviors, and probability (Erevelles & Fukawa, 2013).

> H_3: Affective-based satisfaction measures are more highly correlated with affect-driven behaviors than with cognitive-based satisfaction measures.

On the other hand, the theory posits that the outcome of cognitive JS is judgment-driven behaviors. Such behaviors are the result of careful consideration and evaluation and need a

decision process where an employee's evaluation of the job comes into play. Withdrawal behaviors such as turnover and retirement are suggested to be considered judgment-driven behaviors since their consequential nature requires careful deliberation (Badrinarayanan, Gupta, & Chaker, 2020). Thus, I hypothesize:

H4: Cognitive-based satisfaction measures are more highly correlated with judgment-driven behaviors than with affective-based satisfaction measures.

3.5. Methodology

3.5.1. Database Development

Database Development. I collected relevant studies using a systematic literature search procedure (Crossan & Apaydin, 2010). This procedure entails determining the databases and defining the search terms. The two primary business databases, ABI/INFORMS, and Business Source Complete were chosen for the search process. Since this meta-analysis focuses on the correlates of the salesforce job satisfaction, the search terms were defined based on synonyms of job satisfaction and salesforce. The terms "job satisfaction," "work satisfaction," and "satisfaction" were searched along with the synonyms of salesforce, that is, "salesforce," "sales force," "salespeople," and "salesperson." The search is limited to the studies that were published after the year 1992 to exclude the studies that were synthesized in B&P 1993. For the manual search, the following journals were searched to find relevant studies: *Journal of Marketing, Journal of Marketing Research, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Journal of Retailing, Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, Marketing Science, Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing, Industrial Marketing Management, European Journal of Marketing, Journal of Business Research, Marketing Letters, Journal of Management, Journal of Applied Psychology, and Academy of Management Journal.* To address publication bias, I

followed the method used by Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, and Rothstein (2009). I contacted 112 sales researchers and sent a request on the ELMAR listserv to collect empirical unpublished articles or working papers, which includes the salesforce job satisfaction in the study.

I refined the collected studies and excluded papers with a qualitative or conceptual nature. Since the metric of effect sizes is a correlation, I included studies that reported r-family effects (i.e., correlation or its variants) (Kirca, Jayachandran, and Bearden, 2005). When the correlation was not reported in an empirical study, I contacted the corresponding author to provide the correlation matrix. If a study reported a correlation from multiple samples, I treated each sample as an independent observation. At the end of the search and refining process, I found 895 studies, among which 159 met the criteria of inclusion reporting 173 independent samples comprising 53,755 salespeople.

Coding Procedure. I designed a coding sheet to record the features of the study and the effect sizes. In these coding sheets, the correlation matrices and reliability coefficients, along with sample characteristics, methodological specification, and measurement features of a study were recorded. The constructs with close meaning were substantiated through the appraisal of the operationalization of constructs. At the end of the coding process, I found 651 various constructs with 2,247 effect sizes.

3.5.2. Meta-Analytical Procedure.

I performed the well-established meta-analytical procedure suggested by Hunter and Schmidt (2004) which has been utilized in multiple marketing studies (Verbek et al., 2011; Goad and Jaramillo, 2014; Franke and Park 2006). First, all the effect sizes were corrected for measurement error and sampling error. The correction was conducted by computing the correction coefficient of each relationship using the reliabilities of the constructs. If the

reliabilities were not reported or a single item was used for measuring, the average of the reliabilities of the focal construct is replaced (Geyskens, Steenkamp, Kumar, 1998). The sampling error was corrected by calculating the weighted mean of effect sizes, which have been previously corrected for measurement error. For actual turnover, a dichotomized continuous variable, a correction for dichotomization was performed (Hunter and Schmidt, 2004). It is important to note that I only report the meta-analytical results for the relationships that have been studied more than 3 times. Tables 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4 provides the meta-analytic results for the bivariate relationships.

3.5.3. Moderator Analysis

Moderator Detection Test. I first performed three moderator detection tests to see which effect sizes are homogenous. I used the I^2 statistic (i.e., the percentage of the variance attributed to the heterogeneity of the relationship between the predictor and job satisfaction) (Borenstein et al. 2009), Q Statistic (Hunter and Schmidt, 2004), and credibility intervals (Whitener 1990). Since the credibility interval method has weaknesses, priority was given to the Q-statistic and I^2 method. If the outcome of the two were inconsistent, I decided homogeneity based on the credibility interval method following Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, (2000).

A Postriori Moderator Analysis. I coded 21 features of each study encompassing, biographical, contextual, methodological, and measurement specifications and analyzed them using subgroup analysis. The biographical and contextual moderators were mean age, percentage of male, percentage of married salespeople, Business-to-Business (B2B) versus Business-to-Customer (B2C) selling, mean tenure, mean sales experience, product-selling versus service-selling, country, mean income, compensation type, mean and standard deviation of each measure industry, and year of data collection. The methodological moderators were response rate

and type of analysis. Finally, the measurement moderators were captured by recording the source survey, the number of measurement items, and the number of scales in each item.

In the subgroup analysis, the effect sizes of the relationships between each construct and job satisfaction were divided into two or more groups based on the moderator, and then the pooled effect size of each group was calculated. If the pooled effect sizes were not statistically equal (chi-square test) and if the effect sizes of each group were homogenous (tests of homogeneity of the previous section), then the tested variable was considered a true moderator of the relationship (Hedges and Olkin 1985; and Borenstein et al. 2009).

Role of affect and cognition in JS measures. The level of affect and cognition was measured following the method suggested by Roschk and Hosseinpour (2020). In the first stage, JS surveys were collected from primary studies. Then, a list of unique survey instruments was produced to be utilized for measuring the level of moderators in the surveys. I found 351 unique survey instruments in this stage. A protocol was developed to explain the coding procedure and the definition of the affective and cognitive JS. The protocol was given to two judges along with a random sample of 20 instruments for random coding. After coding 20 instruments, the judges met and discussed the discrepancies to reach a similar understanding of the definition of each instrument. Next, the remainder of the items were assessed. When the coding process was completed, since the variables were categorical, I measured inter-rater reliability based on Rust and Cooil (1994) method. The results showed that the inter-rater reliability was above 89 percent. The judges then discussed to resolve inconsistencies to reach a single outcome for the variables. In the final stage, the level of affect and cognition of a JS survey was measured by dividing the number of items in each survey that manifest the focal moderator by the total

number of instruments in the survey. For example, if a JS survey had 5 affective items out of 25 items then the affect score of the survey is 0.2.

A meta-regression was performed to assess the impact of affect and cognition on the relationships. The method of weighted least square (WLS) (Hedges & Olkin, 2014) was conducted for the relationships that have at least 13 observations. This method is previously used in marketing (Verbek et al., 2011; Goad & Jaramillo, 2014; Franke & Park, 2006) and is superior to ordinary least squares since it addresses the issue of unequal error variance across studies (Steel & Kammeyer-Mueller 2002). The maximum variance inflation factor for each moderator is reported to assess multicollinearity. I controlled for the contextual factors including mean age, mean male percentage, business-to-business versus business-to-consumer selling, product versus service selling, and industrial versus non-industrial selling.

3.6. Results

3.6.1. Meta-analytic Findings

The results of the meta-analysis of antecedents is provided in Table 3.2, consequences in Table 3.3, and correlates of job satisfaction in Table 3.4. In these tables, the pooled effect sizes, as well as the moderator test detection results, are included. Throughout the results section, we consider correlations lower than .15 as modest; between .15 and .30 as moderate; and above 30 as high.

Table 3.2. Meta-Analysis of Antecedents of Salespeople Job Satisfaction

	k	N	$\bar{r}$	$\hat{\rho}$	$SD_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Credibility interval	$SE_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Confidence Interval	Q	$I^2(\%)$
Salesperson characteristics										
Biographical										
Age	38	13,271	.06	.07	.08	-.04 to .17	.02	.03 to .10	117.77*	68.58
Education	16	6,104	-.04	-.04	.05	-.11 to .02	.02	-.08 to -.01	27.84*	46.11
Gender	25	7,006	.02	.02	.00	.02 to .02	.01	0.0 to .05	25.05	4.21
Sales experience	34	11,431	.07	.08	.09	-.04 to .20	.02	.04 to .12	113.39*	70.9
Tenure	38	12,319	.04	.04	.06	-.04 to .12	.01	.01 to .07	76.91*	51.89
Career stage	3	472	.31	.35	0	.35 to .35	.03	.28 to .41	1.26	0
Marital status	3	693	.02	.02	0	.02 to .02	.03	-.03 to .08	1.45	0
Dispositional characteristics										
External locus of control	8	3015	-.32	-.37	.10	-.50 to -.25	.04	-.45 to -.30	28*	75.00
Self-esteem	7	1019	.19	.24	.13	.08 to .40	.06	.12 to .36	16.72*	64.13
Self-efficacy	13	4005	.30	.36	.12	.21 to .51	.04	.29 to .43	50.88*	76.42
Salesperson organization fit										
Organizational fit	10	4669	.52	.58	.13	.42 to .74	.04	.50 to .66	62.95*	85.70
Value congruence	2	321	.54	.69	00	.69 to .69	.03	.63 to .76	0.42	00
Job features										
Job characteristics										
Task identity	4	741	.36	.48	00	.48 to .48	.03	.42 to .54	1.75	00
Task significance	2	682	.49	.62	.06	.53 to .70	.06	.50 to .73	2.94	65.94
Task variety	4	817	.19	.23	00	.23 to .23	00	.22 to .24	0.04	00
Skill variety	2	682	.46	.60	.15	.41 to .79	.11	.38 to .82	10.46*	90.44
Autonomy	9	2521	.37	.45	.10	.32 to .58	.04	.37 to .53	24.95*	67.94
Feedback	7	2152	.40	.49	.17	.27 to .70	.07	.36 to .62	47.82*	87.45

Notes: K = Effect size, N = Sample size, $\bar{r}$ = Sample size weighted average correlation, $\hat{\rho}$ = Sample size correlation corrected for measurement error and sampling error, *95% confidence interval* = Interval around mean corrected correlations, Q = Statistic for the test for heterogeneity or moderator, $I^2(\%)$ = Total Heterogeneity divided by total variability. *p < .05.

Table 3.2. Continued

	k	N	$\bar{r}$	$\hat{\rho}$	$SD_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Credibility interval	$SE_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Confidence Interval	Q	$I^2(\%)$
Job features (cont.)										
Stressors/ Strains										
Role ambiguity	65	18794	-.41	-.50	.17	-.72 to -.28	.02	-.54 to -.46	420.51*	84.78
Role conflict	58	16213	-.38	-.42	.14	-.60 to -.24	.02	-.46 to -.38	288.61*	80.25
Work overload	10	2622	-.21	-.27	.18	-.49 to -.04	.06	-.38 to -.15	63.91*	85.92
Work family conflict	12	3309	-.21	-.23	.11	-.37 to -.08	.04	-.30 to -.16	44.03*	75.02
Family work conflict	5	1356	-.05	-.05	0	-.05 to -.05	.03	-.11 to .01	4.48	10.73
Job stress	28	5993	-.38	-.46	.13	-.62 to -.30	.03	-.51 to -.41	86.08*	68.64
Emotional exhaustion	21	6205	-.44	-.51	.10	-.64 to -.38	.02	-.56 to -.46	59.26*	66.25
Sales team/department features										
Leader Qualities and Behaviors										
Role clarification	6	1350	.43	.54	.12	.38 to .70	.06	.43 to .65	17.53*	71.47
Leader opportunistic behavior	5	1507	-.52	-.59	.28	-.95 to -.23	.13	-.84 to -.34	93.04*	95.7
Leader consideration	8	1908	.47	.57	.16	.36 to .77	.06	.45 to .69	39.15*	82.12
Leader work experience	2	1870	.11	.13	0	.13 to .13	00	.12 to .14	0.03	0.00
Transactional leadership	2	386	.21	.29	0	.29 to .29	.06	.18 to .40	1.33	24.57
Transformational leadership	2	371	.35	.4	0	.40 to .40	.04	.32 to .49	1.09	8.02
Relationship with Supervisor										
Relationship with supervisor	3	751	.40	.46	.22	.18 to .75	.13	.20 to .72	30.48*	93.44
Trust in supervisor	9	2496	.48	.54	.11	.39 to .69	.04	.46 to .62	30.96*	74.16
Loyalty to supervisor	2	552	.22	.25	.18	.03 to .48	.14	-.01 to .52	14.2*	92.96
Closeness to supervisor	2	461	.34	.39	0	.39 to .39	.01	.36 to .42	0.15	0
Communication with supervisor	2	506	.39	.42	.20	.17 to .67	.14	.14 to .70	17.61	94.32

Notes: K = Effect size, *N* = Sample size, $\bar{r}$ = Sample size weighted average correlation, $\hat{\rho}$ = Sample size correlation corrected for measurement error and sampling error, *95% confidence interval* = Interval around mean corrected correlations, *Q* = Statistic for the test for heterogeneity or moderator, *I²(%)* = Total Heterogeneity divided by total variability. *p < .05.

Table 3.2. Continued

	k	N	$\bar{r}$	$\hat{\rho}$	$SD_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Credibility interval	$SE_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Confidence Interval	Q	$I^2(\%)$
Sales team/department features (cont.)										
Justice perceptions										
Distributive justice	14	2279	.5	.58	.21	.30 to .85	.06	.46 to .69	83.08*	84.35
Procedural justice	7	1027	.28	.34	.20	.08 to .60	.08	.18 to .51	36.08*	83.37
Relationship with Coworkers										
Teamwork orientation	3	1586	.31	.38	.11	.25 to .52	.07	.25 to .52	15.1*	86.76
Interpersonal conflict	2	537	-.26	-.34	0	-.34 to -.34	.02	-.38 to -.30	0.27	0
Sales management control systems										
Behavior control	2	1329	.27	.33	.09	.21 to .45	.07	.19 to .47	9.65*	89.64
Capability control	2	709	.16	.18	0	.18 to .18	.03	.13 to .24	.89	0
Territory design										
Size of territory	3	532	.06	.07	0	.07 to .07	.02	.02 to .11	.64	0
Territory potential	2	161	.28	.32	0	.32 to .32	.04	.25 to .40	.36	0
Organizational antecedents										
Organization features										
Organization age	2	394	.11	.12	0	.12 to .12	.02	.08 to .15	.28	0
Organization size	13	3250	.03	.03	.01	.02 to .04	.02	-.01 to .07	13.24	9.34
Organizational Culture and Climate										
Ethical climate	13	4471	.31	.37	.1	.24 to .50	.03	.31 to .44	43.58*	72.46
Perceived organizational support	14	3580	.52	.59	.13	.43 to .75	.04	.52 to .67	50.56*	74.29
Formalization	2	390	.05	.06	0	.06 to .06	.01	.04 to .07	.02	0

Notes: K = Effect size, N = Sample size, $\bar{r}$ = Sample size weighted average correlation, $\hat{\rho}$ = Sample size correlation corrected for measurement error and sampling error, *95% confidence interval* = Interval around mean corrected correlations, Q = Statistic for the test for heterogeneity or moderator, $I^2(\%)$ = Total Heterogeneity divided by total variability. *p < .05.

Table 3.3. Meta-Analysis of Consequences of Job Satisfaction

	k	N	$\bar{r}$	$\hat{\rho}$	$SD_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Credibility interval	$SE_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Confidence Interval	Q	$I^2(\%)$
Salesperson-related consequences										
Withdrawal intentions and behaviors										
Intention to leave	76	20797	-.49	-.56	.18	-.79 to -.33	.02	-.60 to -.52	538.59*	86.07
Turnover actual	19	5884	-.16	-.17	.14	-.34 to .01	.03	-.24 to -.10	113.11*	84.09
Thoughts about leaving	3	468	-.55	-.66	.16	-.87 to -.45	.1	-.86 to -.46	10.07*	80.14
Salesperson deviance										
Interpersonal deviance	3	1362	-.12	-.14	0	-.14 to -.14	.02	-.19 to -.10	1.7	0
Organizational deviance	3	1362	-.19	-.25	.08	-.35 to -.15	.06	-.36 to -.14	8.14*	75.43
Attitude										
Organizational identification	8	2479	.54	.62	.17	.40 to .84	.06	.50 to .74	60.45*	88.42
Job embeddedness	3	1035	.66	.75	0	.75 to .75	.02	.72 to .78	.67	0
Job involvement	7	2587	.35	.42	.13	.25 to .59	.05	.32 to .53	35.54*	83.12
Customer-related consequences										
Customer satisfaction	4	3363	.23	.24	.04	.19 to .29	.03	.19 to .29	8.96	66.51
Customer engagement	2	2940	.27	.27	.02	.25 to .29	.02	.23 to .31	2.53	60.42

Notes: K = Effect size, N = Sample size, $\bar{r}$ = Sample size weighted average correlation, $\hat{\rho}$ = Sample size correlation corrected for measurement error and sampling error, *95% confidence interval* = Interval around mean corrected correlations, Q = Statistic for the test for heterogeneity or moderator, $I^2(\%)$ = Total Heterogeneity divided by total variability. *p < .05.

	k	N	$\bar{r}$	$\hat{\rho}$	$SD_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Credibility interval	$SE_{\hat{\rho}}$	95% Confidence Interval	Q	$I^2(\%)$
In-role performance										
Objective performance	26	9968	.16	.18	.1	.05 to .31	.02	.13 to .22	109.18*	77.1
Self-rated performance	68	16593	.24	.29	.15	.09 to .48	.02	.25 to .33	326.64*	79.49
Supervisor-rated performance	7	2015	.17	.2	.09	.08 to .31	.04	.11 to .28	18.21*	67.05
Behavioral performance	5	949	.32	.35	.19	.11 to .59	.09	.17 to .52	30.75*	86.99
Extra-role performance										
Organizational citizenship behavior	6	863	.37	.45	.09	.33 to .56	0.05	.34 to .55	9.66	48.23
Courtesy	3	870	.27	.36	.08	.26 to .46	.06	.24 to .48	5.68	64.76
Altruism	4	855	.23	.27	0	.27 to .27	.03	.21 to .32	2.17	0
Civic-virtues	4	885	.27	.35	0	.35 to .35	.04	.28 to .43	3.34	10.14
Conscientiousness	3	469	.13	.15	.04	.11 to .20	.06	.04 to .27	3.35	40.35
Helping behavior	3	1073	.15	.2	.03	.17 to .24	.04	.12 to .29	3.4	41.12
Sportsmanship	4	874	.31	.38	0	.38 to .38	.02	.35 to .41	.55	0
Commitment										
Organizational commitment	69	19432	.58	.67	.15	.48 to .87	.02	.64 to .71	371.41*	81.69
Affective commitment	4	3199	.64	.75	.02	.72 to .78	.02	.72 to .79	2.68	0
Motivation										
Work motivation	5	1344	.24	.34	.21	.08 to .61	.1	.15 to .54	32.77*	87.79
Extrinsic motivation	2	471	-.1	-.11	.35	-.55 to .34	.25	-.60 to .39	46.84*	97.87
Intrinsic motivation	5	3337	.5	.64	.07	.55 to .73	.04	.57 to .71	13.07*	69.4
Effort										
Work effort	14	4166	.08	.09	.2	-.18 to .35	.06	-.03 to .20	143.15*	90.92
Selling practice										
Customer orientation	29	10095	0.15	0.19	0.25	-.13 to .51	0.05	.10 to .28	446.47*	93.73
Adaptive selling	4	1070	0.29	0.39	0.16	.18 to .59	0.09	.22 to .55	19.56*	84.66

*Notes: K = Effect size, N = Sample size, $\bar{r}$ = Sample size weighted average correlation, $\hat{\rho}$ = Sample size correlation corrected for measurement error and sampling error, 95% confidence interval = Interval around mean corrected correlations, Q = Statistic for the test for heterogeneity or moderator, $I^2(\%)$ = Total Heterogeneity divided by total variability. *p < .05.*

3.6.1.1. Antecedents of job satisfaction

Salesperson characteristics. This group involves biographical characteristics, dispositional characteristics as well as salesperson-organization fit. Salespeople demographic characteristics such as age ($\hat{\rho}$ = .06; p > .05) and education ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.04; p > .05), along with sales experience ($\hat{\rho}$ = .08; p > .05), and organizational tenure ($\hat{\rho}$ = .03; p > .05) show insignificant relationship with salespeople job satisfaction. However, the correlation between gender and job satisfaction is significant but small ($\hat{\rho}$ = .02; p < .05). In the category of dispositional characteristics, all three correlations are statistically significant and external locus of control ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.37; p < .05) and self-efficacy ($\hat{\rho}$ = .36; p < .05) show a strong correlation. The relationship between job satisfaction and self-esteem ($\hat{\rho}$ = .24; p < .05) is moderate. Finally, the relationship between organizational fit and job satisfaction is strong and significant ($\hat{\rho}$ = .58; p < .05).

Job features. This category has two groups, job characteristics and job stressors/strain. In the group of job characteristics, all constructs have strong and significant correlations with job satisfaction except for task variety ($\hat{\rho}$ = .23; p < .05) which has a moderate link. The relationship between job satisfaction and stressors shows a strong relationship for role ambiguity ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.50; p < .05) and role conflict ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.42; p < .05), but the correlation for family-work conflict ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.23; p < .05), work-family conflict ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.05; p < .05) and work overload ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.27; p < .05) is moderate. The specific strains, job stress ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.46; p < .05) and emotional exhaustion ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.51; p < .05) have strong and significant inverse relationships with job satisfaction. All the correlations in this group are heterogenous which means that the variation is noticeably high and requires moderator analysis.

Sales team/department features. The first category in this group concerns leader qualities and behaviors. As for behaviors, leader role clarification ($\hat{\rho} = .54$; p < .05) and opportunistic behavior ($\hat{\rho} = -.59$; p < .05) have sizable link with job satisfaction. These relationships are heterogenous. Further, considerate leadership ($\hat{\rho} = .57$; p < .05) is strongly correlated with job satisfaction. The results show that the leader work experience ($\hat{\rho} = .13$; p < .05) is not a strong predictor of job satisfaction. Also, transformational leadership ($\hat{\rho} = .40$; p < .05) is a strong predictor of job satisfaction whereas transactional leadership ($\hat{\rho} = .29$; p < .05) moderately predicts job satisfaction. The correlations for transactional and transformational leadership as well as leader work experience are homogenous while other construct's correlations are heterogenous.

In the group for the relationship with the supervisor, the results show that all constructs except supervisor loyalty ($\hat{\rho} = -.25$; p > .05) has a strong positive link with job satisfaction that is statistically significant. A Moderator search is required for all variables, excluding closeness to the supervisor. In the justice perception group, distributive justice ($\hat{\rho} = .58$; p < .05) has a strong correlation with job satisfaction. The link between job satisfaction and procedural justice ($\hat{\rho} = .34$; p > .05) is also strong but it is not significant. The moderator search is required for both variables. The link for both teamwork ($\hat{\rho} = .38$; p < .05) and interpersonal conflict ($\hat{\rho} = -.34$; p < .05) with job satisfaction are strong and significant but in opposite direction. A Moderator search is required only for teamwork orientation.

The sales management control system group has two variables, behavior control and capability control. Behavior control ($\hat{\rho} = .33$; p < .05) has a sizable positive relationship, but the correlation for capability control ($\hat{\rho} = .18$; p < .05) is moderate. The correlation for behavior control is heterogenous. The results for territory design category show that the potential of the

territory ($\hat{\rho}$ = .32; p < .05) have a significant correlation with job satisfaction. The correlation for territory size is modest ($\hat{\rho}$ = .07; p < .05).

Organizational antecedents. The results show that organization age ($\hat{\rho}$ = .12; p < .05) and size ($\hat{\rho}$ = .03; p < .05) have a modest relationship with job satisfaction. The moderator test shows that these relationships are homogenous and search for moderators is not required. Organizational support ($\hat{\rho}$ = .59; p < .05) and ethical climate ($\hat{\rho}$ = .37; p < .05) suggest a strong link with job satisfaction while the relationship between the level of formalization ($\hat{\rho}$ = .06; p < .05) is weak. Moderator search is required for ethical climate and perceived organizational support but it is not needed for formalization.

3.6.1.2. Consequences of job satisfaction

Withdrawal. The correlation between the behavioral variable, actual turnover ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.17; p > .05), is modest and not significant, but for the intention to leave ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.56; p < .05) and thoughts about leaving ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.66; p < .05) the correlations is strong and significant. All relationships are heterogenous and it is required to search for the moderators.

Customer-related consequences. Both customer satisfaction ($\hat{\rho}$ = .24; p < .05) and customer engagement ($\hat{\rho}$ = .27; p < .05) have significant moderate positive relationship with job satisfaction. The correlations are homogenous, and no moderator search is required for the links.

Organizational consequences. Job satisfaction is negatively and significantly related to both interpersonal deviance ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.56; p < .05) and organizational deviance ($\hat{\rho}$ = -.56; p < .05). Also, moderator search is required only for organizational deviance. Organizational identification ($\hat{\rho}$ = .62; p < .05), job embeddedness ($\hat{\rho}$ = .75; p < .05) and job involvement ($\hat{\rho}$ =

.42; p < .05) have a significant strong correlation with job satisfaction. The correlations are heterogenous except for job embeddedness.

3.6.1.3. Correlates of job satisfaction

In-role Performance. The relationships of objective performance ($\hat{\rho} = .18$; p >.05), self-rated performance ($\hat{\rho} = .29$; p < .05) and supervisor-rated performance ($\hat{\rho} = .20$; p < .05) and job satisfaction are moderate and the only for objective performance is not statistically significant. Behavioral performance ($\hat{\rho} = -.35$; p > .05) has an insignificant correlation with job satisfaction. All the effect sizes are heterogenous.

Extra-role performance. The relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior ($\hat{\rho} = .45$; p < .05), courtesy ($\hat{\rho} = .36$; p < .05), altruism ($\hat{\rho} = .27$; p < .05), civic virtue ($\hat{\rho} = .35$; p < .05), conscientiousness ($\hat{\rho} = .15$; p < .05), helping behavior ($\hat{\rho} = .20$; p < .05) and sportsmanship ($\hat{\rho} = .38$; p < .05) are statistically significant. The effect sizes are all homogenous and does not have moderator.

Commitment. The correlations between organizational commitment ($\hat{\rho} = -.56$; p < .05) and affective commitment ($\hat{\rho} = -.56$; p < .05) and job satisfaction are strong and significant. The moderator detection test shows that the effect sizes of organizational commitment and job satisfaction and organizational commitment is heterogenous.

Motivation. The pooled effect size for intrinsic motivation ($\hat{\rho} = .64$; p < .05) is strong and significant, but the relationship of work motivation ($\hat{\rho} = .34$; p > .05) and extrinsic motivation ($\hat{\rho} = -.11$; p > .05) with job satisfaction are not significant. All effect sizes in this group are heterogenous and search for moderator is required.

Effort. The relationship between job satisfaction and work effort ($\hat{\rho} = .09$; p < .05) is not significant. The moderator test also shows that the effect sizes are heterogenous, which supports a search for moderators.

3.6.2. Moderator Analysis Finding

Subgroup Analysis. We tested moderators of the relationship between variables and salesforce job satisfaction. First, we tested age in two groups, lower than median versus higher than the median age and we found that the age of the workgroup moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and the following variables: person-organization fit ($\hat{\rho} = .64$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = .75$); role conflict ($\hat{\rho} = -.19$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = -.39$); and actual turnover ($\hat{\rho} = -.07$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = -.28$). Next, to study the effect of gender, we tested the effect of lower versus higher than median average male percentage as the moderator. The results denote that the correlation between satisfaction and the variables are moderated by the percentage of male in the work group for the following construct: Customer orientation ($\hat{\rho} = .30$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = .06$); distributive justice ($\hat{\rho} = .48$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = .66$), organizational fit ($\hat{\rho} = .54$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = .67$), role conflict ($\hat{\rho} = -.19$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = -.41$), and work-family conflict ($\hat{\rho} = -.32$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = -.14$). Another moderator is working for in B2B versus B2C context. Results indicate that working in B2B section strengthens the relationship between salespeople job satisfaction and organizational commitment ($\hat{\rho} = .65$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = .76$), while exacerbates negative correlation between job satisfaction and work overload ($\hat{\rho} = -.16$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = -.49$). Further, service versus product moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and customer orientation ($\hat{\rho} = .20$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = -.02$) along with emotional exhaustion ($\hat{\rho} = -.57$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = -.47$), and job stress ($\hat{\rho} = -.48$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = -.25$). Finally, retail samples indicate stronger correlations for the relationships of job satisfaction with job stress ($\hat{\rho} = -.45$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = -.59$), role ambiguity ($\hat{\rho} = -.50$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = -.64$), while

the correlation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment is weaker for retail sales

reps ($\hat{\rho} = .67$ vs. $\hat{\rho} = .75$).

Table 3.5. Moderator Analysis

	Moderator				
	Lower vs. Higher than the Median Age	Lower Vs. Higher than median Male Percentage	Business-to-Business vs. Business-to-consumer Selling	Product vs. Service Selling	Retail vs. Non-Retail
Organizational Commitment	(.65 vs. .67)	(.71 vs. .65)	(.65 vs. .76) *	(.70 vs. .58)	(.67 vs. .75) *
Objective Performance	(.16 vs. .18)	(.21 vs. .16)	(.17 vs. .16)	(.18 vs. .19)	(.17 vs. .21)
Work Effort	(.08 vs. .05)	(-.01 vs. .02)	(.00 vs. -.06)	(.01 vs. .23)	ins
Self-Rated Performance	(.27 vs. .25)	(.29 vs. .29)	(.28 vs. .29)	(.27 vs. .29)	(.27 vs. .33)
Intention to Leave	(-.52 vs. -.58)	(-.57 vs. -.54)	(-.54 vs. -.52)	(-.53 vs. -.45)	(-.56 vs. -.41)
Actual Turnover	(-.07 vs. -.28)	(-.08 vs. -.20)	(-.27 vs. -.14)	(-.23 vs. -.04) *	ins
Role Ambiguity	(-.50 vs. -.47)	(-.48 vs. -.54)	(-.51 vs. -.54)	(-.54 vs. -.56)	(-.50 vs. -.64)
Role Conflict	(-.19 vs. -.39) *	(-.19 vs. -.41) *	(-.41 vs. -.42)	(-.49 vs. -.30) *	(-.24 vs. -.45) *
Work-Family Conflict	(-.27 vs. -.21)	(-.32 vs. -.14) *	(-.32 vs. -.20)	(-.14 vs. -.22)	ins
Work Overload	(-.27 vs. -.27)	(-.34 vs. -.16)	(-.16 vs. -.49) *	(-.39 vs. -.10) *	ins
Emotional Exhaustion	(-.51 vs. -.50)	(-.48 vs. -.52)	(-.54 vs. -.52)	(-.57 vs. -.47) *	(-.51 vs. -.45)
Job Stress	(-.49 vs. -.43)	(-.44 vs. -.47)	(-.46 vs. -.38)	(-.48 vs. -.25) *	(-.45 vs. -.59) *
Distributive Justice	(.51 vs. .52)	(.48 vs. .66) *	(.57 vs. .55)	(.37 vs. .52)	(.51 vs. .55)
Self-Efficacy	(.36 vs. .33)	(.41 vs. .30)	(.40 vs. .32)	ins	ins
Customer Orientation	(.13 vs. .07)	(.30 vs. .06) *	(.28 vs. .13)	(.20 vs. -.02) *	(.15 vs. .33)
Organizational Support	(.63 vs. .62)	(.61 vs. .57)	(.63 vs. .54)	(.64 vs. .53)	(.61 vs. .50)
Salesperson-Organization Fit	(.75 vs. .64) *	(.54 vs. .67) *	(.76 vs. .72)	ins	ins
Ethical Climate	(.46 vs. .29) *	(.40 vs. .39)	(.33 vs. .39)	(.43 vs. .30)	(.35 vs. .40)

Notes: The values are a comparison of weighted correlations corrected for sampling and measurement error for each moderator level. An asterisk indicates whether moderator subgroups are significantly different (Standard method (Schenker and Gentleman 2001) is used to determine the statistical difference).
*p < .05;
[a] Insufficient number of observations to perform analysis.

Table 3.6. Meta-Regressions Moderator Analyses

	Affect Level (β_1)	Cognition Level (β_2)	R^2	VIF	Hypotheses
H₁: Dispositional Traits					
Dispositional Traits	.49*	.18	.13	1.75	Supported
Customer Orientation	.17*	.45	.23	1.97	Supported
H₂: Work Environment Features					
Ethical Climate	-.26	.03	.06	2.04	Not Supported
Job Characteristics Model	.74*	.25	.28	207.7	Not Supported
Justice	-.12	.49*	.15	3.16	Supported
Organizational Support	-.33	.01	-.04	1.67	Not Supported
Role Ambiguity	.03	.26*	.04	1.00	Supported
Role Conflict	.09	.25*	.04	1.36	Supported
Trust Supervisor	-.12	.28	-.32	1.00	Not Supported
Work Overload	.64*	.76**	.45	3.59	Not Supported
H₃: Affect Driven Behaviors					
Extra Role Performance	.35*	.01	.05	1.09	Supported
H4: Judgement Driven Behaviors					
Turnover	-.04	-.20*	.11	1.07	Supported

Notes: β = Standardized estimated coefficient; *p < 0.1, **p < .05; VIF = Variance inflation factor

Meta Regression for The Role of Affect and Cognition in JS Measures. The results provided on

Table 3.6 show support for H₁. For the relationship between job satisfaction and customer

orientation, the level of affect in the JS measure (β = .17, p < .05) moderates the relationship.

Similarly, the level of affect in the JS measure (β = .49, p < .05) moderates the relationship

between dispositional traits and JS while the level of cognition in the JS measure does not have

an impact on the relationship. The results for H₂ indicate mixed findings since the cognitive level

in the JS measure only moderates the JS relationships with, justice (β = .49, p < .05), role

ambiguity (β = .26, p < .05), and role conflict (β = .25, p < .05). Contrary to H2, the results show

that the relationship of JS with Job Characteristic Model is moderated by the level of affect (β = .74, p < .05), not cognition (β = .25, p > .05) in the JS measure. The results show support for H_3 as the relationship between extra role performance and JS is moderated by the level of affect (β = .35, p < .05) and not cognition (β = .01, p > .05). Lastly and in support for H_4, the findings indicate that the level of cognition (β = -.20, p < .05) in the JS measure moderates the relationship between turnover and job satisfaction.

3.7. Discussion and Conclusion

A meta-analysis provides a quantitative synthesis and assesses the generalizability of the relationships across contextual and research factors. Further, it can provide insight into a research area by offering unanticipated results (Hunter and Schmidt, 2004). In this study, we analyzed 173 samples of salespeople in marketing literature that looked at the relationship between job satisfaction and its antecedents, consequences, and correlates. This research provides several insights that will provide hereunder.

First, in accordance with prior findings, salesperson biographical features do not explain much variance in job satisfaction. However, the dispositional traits of a salesperson and his or her fit with the work environment influence level of job satisfaction. This finding suggests that sales managers should consider the perception of self-efficacy and locus of control while recruiting and managing their department since damaging self-efficacy or inducing the feeling of lack of control may result in a lower level of job satisfaction (Kohli, 1985; Viela et al., 2008). With regards to fit variables, one interesting insight can be offered from moderator analysis. This analysis suggests that as the mean age of the department increases the association between fit and satisfaction becomes weaker. The reason behind this observation can be related to the fact that as the department age increases the age dissimilarity becomes less critical for the individual,

and, hence, reduces the dissimilarity feeling among salespeople. For the gender, however, the effect of the masculine and feminine department is not similar. As a sales department becomes more masculine, the impact of organizational fit on job satisfaction increases while as it becomes more feminine, the influence of fit on job satisfaction decreases. This observation requires further investigations to uncover possible underlying effects.

Second, the results indicate that role stressors, including salespeople role ambiguity, role conflict, and job stress, have been placed among the top choices for antecedents of salesforce job satisfaction. Their relative strength relationship with job satisfaction which can be as high as $\hat{\rho} = -.51$ shows that, if job satisfaction is a goal for the company, decreasing the level of stress can have a noticeable impact on the evaluation of the salesperson about their job.

Third, the results summarized in Table 3.2 specify that the literature has paid substantial attention to the association between job satisfaction and performance, mostly for subjective and objective measurement of the performance. The insignificant correlations for the relationship between job satisfaction and performance shows that previous studies are inconclusive when it comes to determining the valence of the link and the fact that which one precedes the other (Rajabi et al., 2021, Podsakoff et al., 1998). Some studies note that salesforce performance is a driver of job satisfaction (e.g., Johnson and Sohi, 2014), while other investigations have documented either no relationship between the two (e.g., Duganet al., 2019) or that job satisfaction results in job performance improvement (e.g., Itani et al., 2019). Thus, we recommend that future research focuses on the bi-directional relationship between these two critical variables and tests if job satisfaction and performance simultaneously influence each other among salesforce or not.

Fourth, the process of gathering studies results in findings four leadership variables — leadership consideration, leadership role clarification, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership — that each has at least two pairwise reported correlations with job satisfaction. The lack of studies on the impact of leadership styles on job satisfaction offers an opportunity to extend our understanding of the influence of the leadership styles on job satisfaction. Interestingly, Table 3.5 shows that moderators change the strength of relationships between job satisfaction and leadership consideration and leadership role clarification. Coupling the lack of sufficient empirical research on this topic with the importance of the role of managers in a sales job (Johnston and Marshall, 2016) highlight the importance of research on the effect of leadership on salesperson job satisfaction, we suggest that sales researchers fill this gap in their future studies.

The analyses also demonstrates that previous studies are primarily focused on performance, turnover intention, and organizational commitment as the consequences of salesforce job satisfaction. Indeed, we found that job satisfaction has a strong correlation with turnover intention. Yet, a lower level of job satisfaction may not necessarily result in the decision of a salesperson to leave her job (Boles et al., 2012). Indeed, unsatisfied employees may show non-productive activities such as not sharing innovative ideas with firms (Boichuk and Menguc 2013) or deviant behavior (Darrat et al., 2017). Therefore, exploring unpleasant outcomes of lower job satisfaction among salespeople is a new venue for marketing to study the downsides of lack of job satisfaction among sales reps.

This study discusses the developments in JS definition and investigates the role of the level of affect and cognition in JS measures in the relationship between JS and its antecedents and consequences. Using AET, I differentiate between affective JS and cognitive JS and posits

that the level of affect or cognition in the measures alters the focus of the measure which in turn leads to an increase or decrease in the level of correlation among JS and its antecedents and consequences. This is an important observation as all the efforts of researchers are dependent on correct understanding and conceptualization of the construct and valid measurement of it.

Two groups of antecedents of JS are identified based on AET. The first group is dispositional traits which refer to stable and decontextualized traits of an individual and find that the level of affect in the measure of JS moderates the relationship between JS and dispositional traits. This observation indicates that if a researcher studies the relationship between dispositional traits and JS and uses primarily affective measures by asking about their mood and emotions in the work environment, the reported correlation between JS and the dispositional trait will be stronger than in a study with less affective measures. The other group of antecedents is work environment features where we studied the relationship between JS and eight features of the work environment. The results are not conclusive on the relationship between these features and JS and require further investigation as we expected that the correlation between these variables and JS strengthens when the measure is cognitive.

As for the consequences, we studied the moderating role of affect and cognition in JS measures of the relationship between JS and extra-role performance and turnover and found support for the hypotheses. This finding shows the level of affect and cognition in the measure significantly moderates the relationship between JS and extra-role performance as well as turnover. Using meta-regression, this study shows that the validity of finding in survey studies is dependent on robust conceptualization and valid measurement of JS since using arbitrary measures and items causes biases in the results of the studies and negatively impacts the reliability of the findings.

CHAPTER 4

4. UNDERSTANDING SALESFORCE TURNOVER: A PUSH-PULL-MOORING FRAMEWORK

4.1. Introduction

The issue of sales force turnover has been extensively researched and is a crucial organizational concern that has persisted for many years (Kraut, 1975). The negative effects of turnover on companies are significant as replacing a salesperson can cost up to twice their salary in direct costs, including hiring and training (Boles et al., 2012). In addition, the disruption to customer relationships can have even greater consequences, potentially leading to revenue loss and reduced profitability (Sunder et al., 2017).

Researchers have been actively addressing the issue of employee turnover from various theoretical perspectives. They have primarily focused on personal and/or organizational factors, such as biographical characteristics (Kerber & Campbell, 1987), job satisfaction (Westbrook & Peterson, 2022), organizational commitment (Rajabi et al., 2021), job embeddedness (Darrat, Amyx, & Bennett, 2017), role ambiguity and conflict (Boles, Wood, & Johnson, 2003), stress (Kraft, Maity, & Porter, 2019) , and emotional exhaustion (Rutherford et al., 2012), to name a handful. However, there is a lack of research on the perception of salespeople regarding the external environment and potential alternative employers (Hom et al., 2017). This issue is important because turnover is primarily a move from one job to the other and is often driven by individuals' perceptions of better opportunities outside their current job. Therefore, it is

necessary to understand how attractiveness of external environment impact salespeople decision making, and this study aims to fill this gap.

The research provides a more comprehensive theoretical perspective for turnover by utilizing the push-pull-mooring (PPM) paradigm of human migration (Moon, 1995). Employee turnover and migration share conceptual similarities. In migration literature, individuals move from one administrative boundary to another, just like in employee turnover (Clark, 2020). The different types of migration and turnover, such as involuntary migration and involuntary turnover, are also comparable. Additionally, the quality of the destination plays a vital role in the decision to migrate, as discussed in migration literature. Therefore, it is logical to draw from this literature to inform our understanding of turnover.

The Push-Pull-Mooring (PPM) framework is widely used in the study of human migration literature as it offers a comprehensive explanation of the factors that influence migration. This framework has a long history dating back to the 19th century (Ravenstein, 1885), and is considered the dominant paradigm in the field (Bansal, Taylor, & James, 2005). It includes the role of destination qualities, which is not present in sales force turnover models. According to the framework, migration decisions are determined by the interplay of three forces: negative factors in the origin that push individuals out (push), positive features in the destination that pull individuals in (pull), and intervening factors that stabilize a person and hinder movement between origin and destination (mooring) (Moon, 1995).

Rational Choice Theory (RCT) provides a robust theoretical foundation for understanding the relevant push, pull and mooring forces in the turnover context. According to RCT, people make decisions based on a rational analysis of the potential benefits and costs of their actions (Hechter & Kanazawa, 1997). Further, RCT recognizes the role of social capital in decision

making by inclusion of social norms as a form of social capital in the rational decision-making process (Coleman, 1988). RCT posits that social norms encourage people to work together, share resources, and take collective action. These norms also provide access to opportunities and resources that may not be available otherwise. For a salesperson, these norms act as an anchor encouraging them to maintain their work relationships(Greeley, 1997).

This study contributes to sales force turnover literature in three ways. Firstly, it highlights the importance of a salesperson's perception of the external environment in their decision to leave. Previous research has mainly focused on personal traits and organizational factors. Understanding the impact of external environment perception is both important for theory and practical applications as managers do not want to lose their sales talents to the competitions. Secondly, this study introduces and tests a new theoretical framework for turnover which draws from migration literature and is viewed through the lens of RCT. This framework offers a broad understanding of turnover and can serve as a basis for explaining turnover in different contexts. Thirdly, this study explores and extends the application of RCT in the context of salesforce turnover and examines how social norms, a type of social capital within an organization, affect turnover decisions.

The chapter begins with a review of the literature on migration and the PPM framework in migration and RCT. Following that, the PPM model in turnover will be presented, and hypotheses will be developed. The methodology used to test the model and the results will be discussed. Finally, the study concludes by highlighting limitations and conclusions.

4.2. Literature Review

4.2.1. Migration

Migration refers to the significant movement of an individual from one administrative boundary to another (Clark, 2020). Not all movements are migration; rather, the movement should have some permanence or semi-permanence, yet researchers agree that the minimum migration duration cannot be assigned (Bansal, Taylor, & James, 2005). Migration has various types. The temporal element of migration has led to the study of temporary migration, where migrants maintain their residence in origin and move to the destination for a limited period, while permanent migration research studies a change of residence (Berninghaus, & Günther Seifert-Vogt, 1989). Voluntary migration is another form of migration that happens when an individual decides to relocate based on free will and without pressure inserted by formal constraints to leave the origin (Verkuyten, Mepham, & Kros, 2018). On the other hand, involuntary migration occurs when an individual migrates due to formal pressure such as war, natural disasters, or legal or political forces (Boyle et al., 1998). This form of migration is mainly studied in refugee literature (e.g., Ehrkamp, 2017). Other types of migration that have been studied are internal or national migration (migration within a country) and external or international migration (migration between countries) (Pencea & Curteanu, 2020).

Human migration bears a remarkable resemblance to employee turnover, and the analogies between migration and employee turnover concepts are reasonably straightforward. In migration (employee turnover), a migrant (an employee) relocates (quits) from one country (an employer) to another (another work or non-work destination). There is also a similarity between types of migrations. Employee turnover can be voluntary or involuntary (e.g., Rubenstein et al., 2019), might happen within an organization from department to department within an

organization (internal migration) or from an organization to an external destination (International migration) (Bidwell, 2011), or it can be temporary like boomerang employees (Arnold et al., 2021) or permanent. The conceptual closeness of the two phenomena suggests that theories of one are suitable for explaining the other.

A predominant paradigm in the migration literature, the PPM framework (Bansal, Taylor, & James, 2005), examines voluntary migration, which refers to migration that happens without formal forces to leave the origin (Richmond, 1988). This phenomenon is analogues to sales force turnover, which is the focus of this study, and thus, it is intended to assess the applicability of the PPM model of voluntary migration to salesforce turnover. The PPM framework has a long history in human migration literature and is considered the dominant framework in explaining how migration takes place (Bansal, Taylor, & James, 2005). This framework has been used to describe various business phenomena such as service switching behavior (Bansal, Taylor, & James, 2005), social Media (Chang, Liu, & Chen, 2014), mobile shopping (Lai, Debbarma, & Ulhas, 2012), to name a handful.

4.2.2. PPM Paradigm in Migration Literature

The PPM framework has a long history in human migration literature, starting with the work of Ravenstein (1885). The framework posits that the interplay of three forces determines the migration decision of an individual: push, pull, and mooring factors. The push-pull part of the model goes back to the seminal work of Ravenstein (1885) which is consistent with cost and benefit analysis of an individual. Initially, Ravenstein called this theory "Law of Migration" and developed it using census data from England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland (Ravenstein, 1885). Based on this perspective, push element are factors in the origin that urges an individual to leave, while pull factors are qualities in the destination that attracts the person. In the early days of the

development of this framework, migration researchers suggested macro-level factors such as an increase in the cost of living, high unemployment levels, and natural disasters as push factors and, for pull factors, higher income or education, to name a few, suggested (Bogue, 1969). Further research showed that these factors might provide a reasonable explanation for migration at an aggregate level, but they do not have adequate predictive power at an individual level (Lewis, 1982). At the individual level, the perception of a person about the qualities of the origin and destination provided improved predictive power (Barcus, 2014).

The concept of mooring was incorporated into the push-pull framework by Moon (1995) after the term "mooring" was coined by Longino (1992) following the work of Jackson (1986), Lee (1966), and Germani (1965) on "intervening factors," which might not be the main reason but facilitate or inhibit migration. Migration researchers realized that Ravenstein's (1885) push-pull model, although parsimonious, does not capture the complexity of human migration. They added mooring effects to the model and defined them as an opposing force that arises from social or personal factors and serves as an anchor creating stability (Moon, 1995). Previous migration studies included constructs such as emotional costs of migration (e.g., Sell & De Jong, 1978) and attitude toward migration (Desbarats, 1983) as possible constructs that shape mooring.

The PPM model can be explained by Rational Choice Theory (RCT). In fact, researchers posit that the push-pull elements of the theory stem from social functionalist theories since it assumes that individuals are rational and tend to seek serve their self-interest (De Hass, 2011). This part of the framework is akin to cost-benefit analysis and is close to economic bases of RCT. The mooring element, however, takes advantage of the social aspect of RCT as it emphasizes the role of social forces that hinder the will for migration. We will discuss the theoretical foundation of PPM model based on RCT in the next section.

4.2.3. Rational Choice Theory

The RCT is a decision-making theory that has had a significant impact on various fields of study, such as sociology, political science, psychology, and marketing. It has been used to explain social exchange (Homans 1961; Blau 1964), collective action (Ostrom, 1998), voting behavior (Fedderesen, 2004), consumer behavior (Huber, Payne, & Puto, 2014), and brand switching (Sun, Neslin, Srinivasan, 2002). The scope of decisions examined in this theory is comprehensive and is applicable to many decisions be it frequent or infrequent, large or minor, important of unimportant, poor or wealthy individuals, or adult or child (Becker, 1976).

RCT provides explanations for how humans make decision. In its core, the theory assumes that individuals are rational and aim to maximize their gains (Hechter & Kanazawa, 1997). Rationality means efficiency or maximizing one's gains (Diesing, 1962). RCT also assumes the existence of a market that coordinates the decisions and behaviors of employees, teams, and firms (Becker, 1996). This assumption helps to make the theory coherent and mutually consistent since we can assume that norms do not change. Additionally, RCT posits that an individual has a stable set of preferences in decision making (Green, 2002). These preferences refer to basic qualities of life such as health, prestige, and freedom that shape an individual's overall preferences, not a ranking of alternatives themselves (Becker, 1976). Finally, the theory assumes that individuals gather relevant information to identify the alternative that best satisfies their preferences (Green , 2002). Based on this theory, the process of accumulating information is rational and based on a cost and benefit analysis. Major decisions such as purchasing a house or changing jobs require more investment of time and effort than minor decisions such as buying groceries or clothing (Becker, 1976).

The history of RCT can be traced back to the eighteenth century, when Scottish economist and philosopher Adam Smith proposed the concept of the invisible hand (Smith, 1776), which is the unobservable market force that guides individuals to act in their own self-interest and achieve the best outcomes for themselves and society. Smith's idea of rationality influenced later scholars , yet it wasBecker, a prominent economist and a Nobel laureate, who formalized this theory by developing the concept of "rational choice" and applying it to various aspects of social life such as crime, family, and education (Becker, 1976).

One of the most important developments in RCT is the addition of social capital to the theory (Hetcher & Kanazawa, 1997) to explain the relational aspect of the theory. Viewing individuals as self-interest maximizers in decision making, researchers found that rationality is influenced by social factors and constraints (Coleman, 1988). They added the concept of social capital to theory and explained that relationships and trust can impact decision making process (Scholtz, 2015). This perspective emphasizes the importance of social relationships and social capital and indicates that the structure and quality of social relationships can provide individuals with valuable resources, such as access to information, social support, and opportunities. Further, relationships and norms are viewed as crucial components of social capital (Greeley, 1997). Trust enables individuals to rely on others and facilitates cooperation, while norms provide shared expectations and guidelines for behavior within a social group or community (Coleman & Farraro, 1992). These resources can significantly impact the cost and benefit analysis of an individual (Coleman, 1988).

Although turnover researchers do not often mention RCT as a theoretical perspective to explain turnover, they borrow basic principles of RCT such as cost and benefit analysis and utility maximization to explain turnover. The first formal theory of turnover, the organizational

equilibrium theory by March and Simon (1958), suggests that employees evaluate and conduct a cost and benefit analysis by analyzing their contribution and the employer's inducements. They remain in the company if these inducements match or exceed their contribution. Mobley et al. (1979) introduced the concept of expected utility of the current role and alternatives, which is similar to the utility maximization perspective in RCT. The investment model of turnover by Farrell & Rusbult (1981) uses subjective estimates of rewards to explain job satisfaction and intention to leave. Job embeddedness, a recent addition to turnover literature (Mitchell et al., 2001; Kiazad, et al., 2015), explains the reasons for staying in a job by using the resources embedded in the network of relationships, which is conceptually similar to the social capital aspect of RCT. Thus, RCT can be viewed as a theoretical framework to analyze voluntary turnover decision and PPM paradigm provides a unique framework for the turnover literature.

To understand the forces in the PPM paradigm, we can use RCT. The Push and Pull section of PPM looks at how an individual evaluates their current job and the best possible alternative. This involves weighing the costs and benefits of staying in their current job versus leaving for a better opportunity. The mooring factors, which act as stabilizers for a person, can be thought of as the social capital an individual has developed over time. These factors provide valuable resources, information, and social support, as well as potential opportunities, which prevent an individual from leaving their current job.

4.3. Model and Hypotheses

This study examines the role of social norms on the cost-benefit analysis involved in decision making about staying or leaving a job. The PPM framework of migration and its RCT underpinnings provide a useful theoretical framework to explain this issue. According to this perspective, the push and pull factors in the PPM framework represent the cost-benefit analysis

of the RCT while the moorings are the social capital of an individual that act as anchor that prevents a salesperson from leaving their job. This study is focused to one type of social capital, social norms. Figure 3.1 displays the theoretical model of this study. Based on this model, the push factor is best described through Distributive Justice, while Alternative Attractiveness represents the pull factor. The combination of these two constructs represent the logical cost-benefit analysis of a salesperson as they decide about leaving or staying. Relationalism, Trust Manager, and Procedural Justice capture the mooring factors and show the moderating impact of social norms in the turnover decision.

Figure 4.1. Theoretical Model
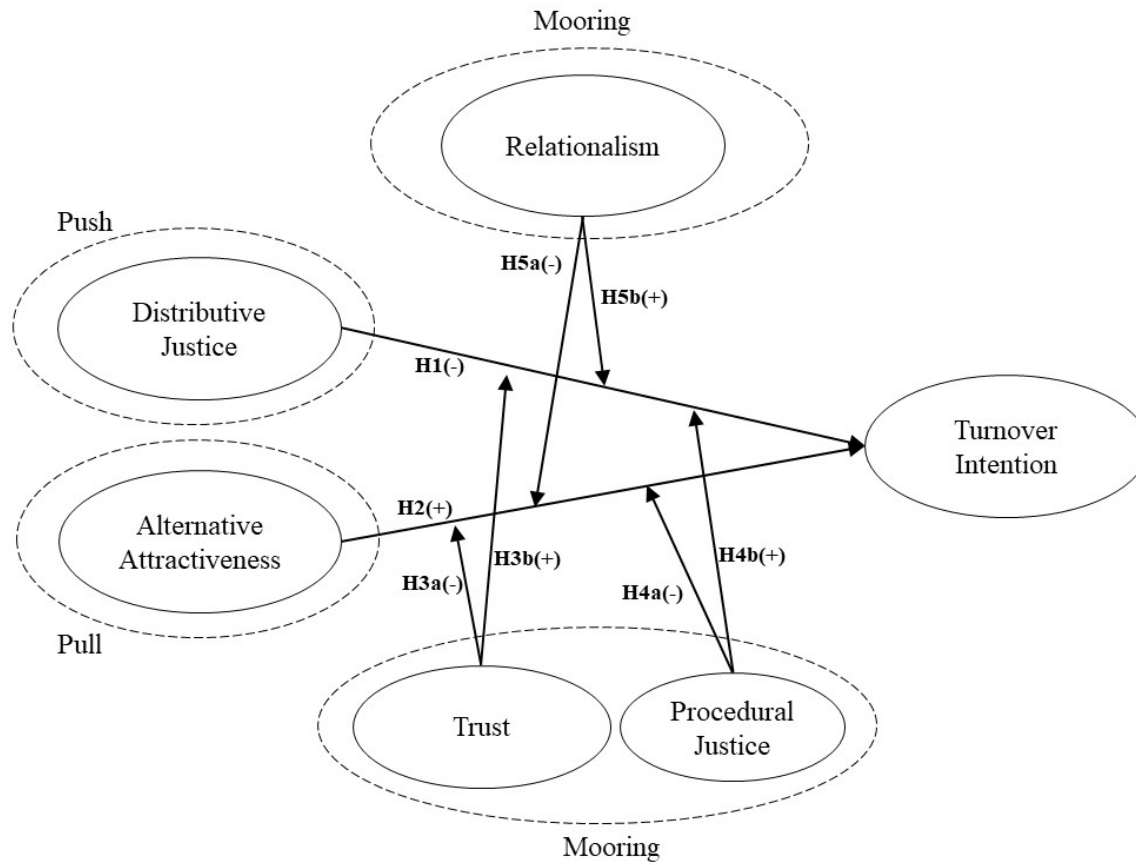
4.3.1. Push Factor

The PPM migration framework identifies push factors as elements that lower the quality of life and compel individuals to leave their origin (Moon, 1995). These undesirable factors are mostly perceptions of economic characteristics of the origin (Lewis, 2021) and correspond with Distributive Justice, a key predictor in the turnover literature (Rubenstein et al., 2018).

Distributive Justice refers to the perceived fairness of outcomes or resource allocation, which reflects the extent to which a salesperson feels rewarded for their efforts and contributions (Brashear, Brooks, & Boles, 2004). Salespeople evaluate their own inputs (efforts, contributions, etc.) and outcomes (rewards, benefits, etc.) and compare them to the inputs and outcomes of relevant others. Distributive Justice shows how salespeople evaluate the balance between their contributions and rewards. This involves a cost-benefit analysis to determine whether the benefits of a job outweigh the drawbacks. An individuals' concern for Distributive Justice can be traced back to the roots of RCT, which assumes that individuals are driven by self-interest maximization. Individuals want to maximize their resources in a social interaction and they believe that following the rules of Distributive Justice facilitates this goal (Walster & Berscheid, 1978; Moghadam & Taylor, 1987; Tyler, 1994). Thus, they engage in such an evaluation which has considerable impact on other key work outcomes. Previous studies have established that Distributive Justice impacts Job Satisfaction (Arnold et al., 2009), Organizational Commitment (Schwepker, 2016), Performance (Gabler & Hill, 2015), and also they provide support for the

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negative influence of this construct and Turnover Intention (Brashear, Manolis, &

Brooks, 2005).

These studies have shown that if salespeople perceive an imbalance or inequity in

their work relationship, they may experience feelings of distress or negative emotions,

and show intention to leave that social interaction. Thus,

H_1: Distributive Justice is negatively related to Turnover Intention.

4.3.2. Pull Factor

Pull effects refer to the attractive elements that make a destination appealing to

potential migrants (Moon, 1995). It includes the attributes that make a destination

desirable (Dorigo & Tobler, 1983). One critical variable that determines a salesperson's

evaluation of alternative job opportunities is the Alternative Attractiveness. Alternative

Attractiveness refers to the overall assessment of the relationship fulfillment available in

the best alternative relationship (Ping, 2007). Previous studies show that as the

Alternative Attractiveness increases, a salesperson will become vocal about their rewards

(Ping, 1993), opportunistic (Provan & Skinner, 1989), neglectful about their work

relationship with their current employer (Ping, 1993) and less loyal (Rusbult, Zembrodt,

& Gunn 1982).

In the context of turnover, the work of Thibaut and Kelly (1959) on

interdependence is relevant. They suggest that a person will be dependent on a

relationship as long as their expected outcomes in the current relationship exceed the best

available alternative for that relationship (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). This dependence is

because the relationship offers more significant rewards than what can be achieved

outside the relationship (Lambe, Wittmann, & Spekman, 2001). If an alternative

employer can provide more benefits, the salesperson will develop the intention to switch

employers. Therefore, Alternative Attractiveness is a crucial indicator of a salesperson's

intention to leave or stay in their job. Thus

H$_2$: Alternative Attractiveness is positively related to Turnover Intention.

4.3.3. Mooring Factors

The push-pull element of the PPM framework works as an evaluative element

(Bansal, Taylor, & James, 2005) that incorporate the analysis of advantages and this

advantages of the origin and destination. Yet, the simplicity of this conceptualization

does not explain the complexity of the migration or turnover decision. Mooring factors

are added to the PPM model by Moon (1995). These factors are the opposing force that

arises from social or personal elements that serves as an anchor creating stability for the

person. In this study, the focus is on social elements of mooring factors through the social

lens of the RCT, and specifically the role of social norms.

Social capital refers to the potential power that exists within social structures. It is

a resource that can help individuals achieve their goals through features such as personal

relationship and social norms that encourage cooperation and mutual benefits (Coleman,

1988), 1997). Social capital is not a property of individuals, but rather an integral part of

the social structure and relationships that exist between them (Greeley, 1995). It is

considered a form of social currency that individuals can use to gain access to

information, support, opportunities, and other benefits that can contribute to their overall

well-being (Coleman, 1990). Researchers specifically focuses on social norms as features

that facilitate access to resources. For salespeople, the key social capitals in the

organization are Relationalism , Trust and Procedural Justice established. Although a

salesperson might have multitude of relationships in the organization, their relationship with their managers and the norms established in this relationship is of significance. This study examines the mooring effect of Trust, Procedural Justice and Relationalism in the coming section.

Trust. Trust is a "psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based on positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (Rousseau et al., 1998, p. 395).Trust is an important social norm that creates the basis for the expectation of certain behaviors from the other party in relationship (Brashear et al., 2003).

Trust is an important element of social capital (Coleman, 1990). Research has demonstrated that salespeople who have a trusting relationship with their managers feel safe, satisfied, and committed to their organization (Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2008). Salespeople strive to optimize their resources during their daily work interactions, and trust in their managers' decisions and actions is a valuable asset in achieving this goal. A relationship that has a high level of trust is more productive than one that lacks it (Fulmer & Gelfund, 2012). It is a valuable resource that enhances an employer's appeal, promotes collaboration, collective action, and information sharing (Toh & Srinivas, 2012). This particular type of social capital serves as a mooring factor because it boosts the expected resources from one's present employer, reinforces reliance on them, and cannot be carried over to potential alternative jobs. Thus,

H_{3a}. The positive relationship between Alternative Attractiveness and Turnover Intention is weaker when Trust is higher (vs. lower).

Trust encompasses reliability, honesty, and integrity of a manager and is reflected in their concern about their subordinate's welfare. Trust can play an important role in mitigating the negative incidents in the workplace (Koranyi & Rothermund, 2012). When a salesperson assumes that distributive justice is violated and the cost and benefit of the current job does not indicate fair distribution of rewards based on contributions, they will first try to reestablish the balance in the relationship rather than leaving the job since it is less costly (Ping, 2007). However, their level of engagement in such behavior is proportionate to the trust that they have in their manager. If they believe that the manager has integrity, concerns their welfare, and considers their best interest, they have more motivation to put the effort to restore the balance. In such circumstances, it is less likely for them to consider leaving the firm. Thus,

H$_{3b}$. The negative relationship between Distributive Justice and Turnover Intention is weaker when Trust is higher (vs. lower).

Procedural Justice. Procedural justice refers to the fairness in processes that leads to distribution of reward and shows how actors are treated (Brashear, Brooks, & Boles, 2004). This construct indicates that the perception of fairness in a social interaction is not only shaped by the fairness in rewards distributed but also by the fairness of processes and procedures by which the rewards are distributed (Tyler, 1994). In sales context, previous research showed that procedural justice is positively related to organizational commitment (Roberts et al., 1999) and organizational support (DeConinck and Johnson et al., 2009).

To ensure procedural justice is followed, it is important to include input from those affected by the procedure in the decision-making process (Leventhal et al., 1980).

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When salespeople feel they have a say in decisions, their perception of procedural justice is higher, and they are empowered to protect and follow their self-interests. This perception makes the employer more appealing and creates a sense of dependence on the employer, reducing the likelihood of turnover. Thus,

H4a. The positive relationship between Alternative Attractiveness and Turnover Intention is weaker when Procedural Justice is higher (vs. lower).

Distributive and procedural justice are two important aspects of organizational justice that influence employees' attitudes and behaviors within the workplace (Brashear, Manolis, & Brooks, 2005). Procedural justice acts as a moderating factor in the relationship between distributive justice and turnover intention. When procedural justice is higher, it enhances the perception of fairness in the decision-making processes. Employees feel that they have been given a voice, their concerns have been heard, and decisions have been made based on fair and transparent procedures. As a result, the decisions have more legitimacy and employees are more likely to accept the outcomes, even if they perceive the distribution of rewards as less fair (Deutsch, 1975). This reduces the negative impact of distributive justice on turnover intention.

On the other hand, when procedural justice is lower, employees are more likely to question the fairness of the decision-making processes. They may feel excluded, voiceless, and perceive the distribution of rewards as arbitrary or biased (Leventhal, 1980). In such cases, the negative impact of distributive justice on turnover intention is amplified as employees are dissatisfied with both the outcomes and the procedures used to reach those outcomes. Thus,

H$_{4b}$. The negative relationship between Distributive Justice and Turnover Intention is weaker when Procedural Justice is higher (vs. lower).

Relationalism. Relationalism involves the expectation and desire for continuous and beneficial interactions between individuals, with the understanding that the relationship is more important than a single interaction (Brashear et al., 2005). Relationalism is a social norm that is established from the need for credible self-interest stakes by both parties in an interaction and establishes the foundation for mutuality and cooperation (Buchanan, 1975). This norm then evolves when parties look for a long term and bilaterally beneficial relationship (Macauley 2020; Scott 1987). Relationalism encompasses solidarity among parties and is identified by low degree of a need for monitoring in the relationship (Gundlach, Achrol, & Mentzer, 1995).

When the salesperson enjoys high level of relationalism with their manager, several factors come into play that can mitigate the impact of alternative attractiveness. First, high level of relationalism entails open communication and support which can bring about resources to the salesperson (Benoit et al., 2019). These factors serve as an asset for the salesperson in their current job, making them less inclined to consider alternative options. Furthermore, a good relationship with the manager fosters a sense of belonging (Gundlach, Achrol, & Mentzer, 1995). Salespeople who feel valued and appreciated are more likely to have an attached identity to the organization, even in the face of attractive alternatives. They may perceive their current job as more fulfilling due to the positive interpersonal interactions and support received from their manager. In contrast, salespeople with a weaker relationship with their manager are more susceptible to the attractiveness of the alternative opportunities. A lack of communication and limited

support, or a negative work environment can diminish the prospect of receiving higher level of resources and increase the appeal of alternative options. In such cases, employees may perceive the alternative job opportunities as a means to escape their current undesirable situation. Thus,

H_{4a}. The positive relationship between Alternative Attractiveness and Turnover Intention is weaker when Relationship with Manager is higher (vs. lower).

Fostering the norm of relationalism between salespeople and their manager shapes solidarity, and mutual understanding (Gundlach, Achrol, & Mentzer, 1995). When employees have a strong relationship with their managers, they are more likely to perceive distributive justice positively. They believe that their managers will consider their best interest, leading to a sense of fairness in the allocation of resources (Kashyap et al., 2007). Consequently, the negative impact of Distributive Justice on Turnover Intention is weakened. Employees are less likely to consider leaving the organization because they believe their managers will address their concerns and rectify any perceived inequities.

Furthermore, a strong relationalism with the manager can provide a supportive environment (Brashear et al., 2003) that buffers the negative impact of violation of Distributive Justice. When an employee faces unfairness, they may seek guidance, support, or resolution from their managers. If relationalism is established, employees are more likely to engage in open and constructive conversations to address their concerns. This communication channel allows managers to understand and empathize with their employees' perspectives, and they can work together to find satisfactory solutions.

Consequently, the likelihood of turnover decreases because employees feel heard and valued. Thus,

H$_{4b}$. The negative relationship between Distributive Justice and Turnover Intention is weaker when Relationship with Manager is higher (vs. lower).

4.4. Methodology

4.4.1. Data Collection Procedure

This research focuses on salespeople who work in business-to-business markets in the United States. A list of salespeople was created from various industries by browsing the internet and industry directories.. Then, they were contacted and qualified for the study. They had to be full-time salespeople with at least 6 months of experience working with a verifiable manager. Surveys were sent to 621 qualified salespeople, and 359 of completed the survey within 8 weeks.

The age of participants ranges from 20 to 63 with an average of 37 years. Males account for 78% of the sample and 64% of them are married. The tenure of the salespeople ranges from four months to 33 years, with an average of 7.47 years and 64% of the participants are married. In terms of education, 69% of the sample have some sort of college education. These salespeople sell from various industries and a wide variety of industrial products. A summary of the sample descriptive statistics as well as bivariate correlations is provided in Table 4.1.

4.4.2. Measures

All constructs in this study are measured using multi-item scales adopted from the literature. Respondents were asked to state their agreement or disagreement with each statement on a seven-point scale, with "1" = "Strongly disagree" and "7" = "Strongly

Agree." Measurement items and their properties — Cronbach's alpha, average variance extracted, mean, standard deviation, and factor loadings (λ_{ij}) — for each scale are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations

Variables	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Alternative Attractiveness	5.28	1.11	.89											
2. Distributive Justice	5.04	1.18	-.38	.95										
3. Relationalism	5.27	1.12	-.52	.48	.93									
4. Trust	5.40	1.06	-.43	.47	.63	.92								
5. Procedural Justice	4.98	1.39	-.42	.40	.59	.60	.95							
6. Turnover Intention	2.52	1.64	.45	-.47	-.56	-.44	-.41	.91						
7. Age	37.7	10.1	-.10	.19	.22	.06	.12	-.13	1					
8. Gender	.79	.41	-.09	.10	.08	.04	.07	-.08	.15	1				
9. Tenure	7.47	7.17	-.05	.13	.16	.02	.02	-.14	.56	.12	1			
10. Marital Status	.64	.48	-.03	.04	.16	.00	.03	-.09	.44	.16	.25	1		
11. Education	.69	.46	-.04	-.07	-.07	.02	-.03	.12	-.05	.06	-.04	.06	1	
12. Job Satisfaction	5.52	1.11	-.41	.49	.53	.56	.37	-.53	.14	.16	.11	.04	-.10	.89

Salesperson *Alternative Attractiveness* is measured with a five-item scale adapted from Anderson and Narus (1990). *Distributive Justice* is measured with 9 items borrowed from Brashear, Brooks, and Boles (2004). The seven-item scale developed by Gundlach, Achrol, and Mentzer (1995) is used for measuring *Relationalism*. Trust is measured with an eight-item scale from Kumar, Scheer, and Steenkamp (1995). The seven-item measure of *Procedural Justice* is adapted from the work of Brashear, Brooks, and Boles (2004). Salesperson *Job Satisfaction* is measured with a four-item scale from Brown and Peterson (1994), and *Turnover Intention* is measured using four items from Netemeyer et al., (1997).

4.4.3. Data Analysis

A two-step approach is used to study hypothesized relationships. First, the measures of the study are verified using confirmatory factor analysis and, in the second stage, the hypothesized model is tested using linear regression. The model is as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text{Turnover Intention}_i = {} & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \, \text{Alternative Attractiveness}_i + \beta_2 \, \text{Distributive Justice}_i \\
& + \beta_3 \, \text{Relationalism}_i + \beta_4 \, \text{Trust}_i + \beta_5 \, \text{Procedural Justice}_i \\
& + \beta_6 \, \text{Alternative Attractiveness}_i \times \text{Relationalism}_i \\
& + \beta_7 \, \text{Alternative Attractiveness}_i \times \text{Trust}_i \\
& + \beta_8 \, \text{Alternative Attractiveness}_i \times \text{Procedural Justice}_i \\
& + \beta_9 \, \text{Distributive Justice}_i \times \text{Relationalism}_i \\
& + \beta_{10} \, \text{Distributive Justice}_i \times \text{Trust}_i \\
& + \beta_{11} \, \text{Distributive Justice}_i \times \text{Procedural Justice}_i \\
& + \beta_{12} \, \text{Age}_i + \beta_{13} \, \text{Gender}_i + \beta_{14} \, \text{Tenure}_i + \beta_{15} \, \text{Marital Status}_i + \beta_{16} \, \text{Education}_i \\
& + \beta_{17} \, \text{Job Satisfaction}_i
\end{aligned}
$$

Where i denotes participants in the study. Two models are estimated using ordinary least square in R. Model 1 include only main effect and the control variables while model 2 integrates the moderating impact of Relationalism, Trust, and Justice.

4.5. Results

4.5.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The results of the Confirmatory factor analysis indicate that the data fits well with the model. Although the X^2 test is significant ($X^2(881) = 2086.415$; $p < .001$), the CFI and TLI are above .9 (CFI = .911 and TLI = .905) and the RMSEA and SRMR are below .08 (RMSEA = .062 and SRMR = .051) (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Findings also indicate that all variables in the measurement model have strong

convergent and discriminate validity. Specifically, all the measurement items load significantly on their respective constructs with the minimum standardized value of 0.66 (Johnson, Friend, Rutherford, & Hamwi, 2016). The minimum value for composite reliabilities is 0.89, and all constructs have the AVE above 0.50 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Finally, square roots of AVEs for each variable are larger than correlations of all other constructs in the structure model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Therefore, discriminant validity is established. The values of constructs used in the regression model estimates are the averages of scores of the items included in the measures of the constructs. These scores are not standardized when used in the model. Table 4.2 summarizes items, standardized loadings, Alphas, AVEs, and composite reliabilities of the constructs.

4.5.2. Model

Table 4.3 provides the results of the models tested and Figure 4.2 depicts the role of moderators. In Figure 4.2, the value of other variables are set to their average and the line is drawn for two high (moderator = 7) and low (moderator = 1) levels of the moderator. Model 1 only included the main effects and the control variables ($F = 24.19$, $p < .001$); Model 2 integrates the moderating effects of Relationalism, Trust, and Procedural Justice on Alternative Attractiveness and Distributive Justice ($F = 15.75$, $p < .001$). Multicollinearity is not an issue since the maximum level of variance inflation factor (VIF) for all independent variables is less than 10 (O'brian, 2007) in Model 1. Further, Model 2 shows a significant increase in R^2 over Model 1 ($\Delta R^2 = .028$; $p < .001$) which shows statistical support for our hypothesis to include mooring variables in the model. Both models show significant results for the main effect.

The findings support H_1 and H_2, showing that Distributive Justice (β = -1.11, p <

.01) and Alternative Attractiveness (β = .585, p < .1) have significant negative and

positive relationships with Turnover Intention, respectively. Additionally, H_{3a} is

supported, indicating that Trust plays a moderating role in the relationship between

Alternative Attractiveness and Turnover Intention (β = -.21, p < .01). This means that an

increase in Trust weakens the relationship between Alternative Attractiveness and

Turnover Intention. Figure 4.2 shows the impact of Trust more clearly. The figure is low

(Trust = 1) the relationship between Trust and Alternative Attractiveness is negative but

as it increase this relationship becomes closer to zero until it becomes positive. H_{3b} is not

supported, as there is no significant moderating effect for Trust on the relationship

between Distributive Justice and Turnover Intention (β = -.03, p > .1). Similarly, H_{4a} is

not supported, as the results show a significant moderating role in opposite direction for

Procedural Justice on the relationship between Alternative Attractiveness and Turnover

Intention (β =.11, p > .1), which contradicts H_{4a}. Procedural Justice moderate the

relationship between Distributive Justice and Turnover Intention (β = .08, p < .1), as

hypothesized in H_{4b}. Lastly, the results confirm H_{5a} but not H_{5b}, as the Relationalism only

moderates the relationship between Distributive Justice and Turnover Intention (β = .12 p

< .05), meaning that an increase in Procedural Justice would decrease the negative impact

of Distributive Justice on Turnover Intention.

Table 4.2. Measurement Items and Properties

Construct and Measurement Items	M	S.D.	Λ_{ij}
Alternative Attractiveness (*Alpha* = .89, *AVE* = .62, CR =.89)			
Please indicate how attractive the next best alternative company is compared to your current employer in terms of:			
Generating sales.	2.63	1.28	.89
Generating profits.	2.63	1.30	.85
Providing support and selling services.	2.78	1.40	.75
Generating customer traffic.	2.82	1.36	.80
Income potential.	2.71	1.36	.66
Trust (*Alpha* = .92, *AVE* = .60, CR =.92)			
Though circumstances change, I believe that my manager will be ready and willing to offer me assistance and support.	5.69	.28	.81
When making important decisions, my manager is concerned about my welfare.	5.14	1.43	.81
When I share my problems with my manager, I know that he or she will respond with understanding.	5.18	1.36	.77
In the future I can count on my manager to consider how his or her decisions and actions will affect me.	4.92	1.43	.81
Whenever my manager gives me advice on my sales activities, I know he or she is sharing his or her best judgment.	5.85	.11	.73
Even when my manager gives me a rather unlikely explanation, I am confident that he or she is telling the truth.	5.25	1.33	.72
My manager is honest.	5.70	1.25	.76
My manager usually keeps the promises he or she makes to me.	5.54	1.30	.76
Relationalism (*Alpha* = .93, *AVE* = .66, CR =.93)			
Maintaining our relationship in the face of adversity/challenge is very important	5.60	.24	.75
Our relationship is flexible in accommodating one another if special problems/needs arise.	5.45	1.24	.85
Our relationship extends across many complex responsibilities and multiple tasks.	5.36	1.28	.78
When disagreements arise in the relationship, all facts are reassessed to try to reach a mutually satisfactory compromise.	5.10	1.31	.84
Problems that arise in our relationship are treated as joint rather than individual responsibilities.	4.92	1.44	.81
We are both committed to improvements that may benefit our relationship as a whole,	5.35	1.29	.84
Our relationship is best described as long-term.	5.16	1.47	.82
Procedural Justice (*Alpha* = .95, *AVE* = .69, CR =.95)			
All salespeople are treated equally by my manager.	4.87	.69	.86
The policies my manager creates treat everyone equally.	5.12	1.53	.89
The standards set by my manager are enforced equally among all salespeople.	4.99	1.56	.91
My manager treats all salespeople the same when implementing company policy.	5.14	1.58	.85
My manager does not favor one salesperson over another.	4.67	1.71	.76
My manager applies policies consistently to all salespeople.	4.96	1.57	.88
My manager follows fair procedures in decision-making.	5.25	1.39	.84

Notes: Alpha = Cronbach Alpha, AVE = Average Variance Extracted.

Table 4.2. Measurement Items and Properties (Cont.)

Construct and Measurement Items	M	S.D.	Λ_{ij}
Distributive Justice (*Alpha* = .95, *AVE* = .67, CR =.95)			
To what extent you are fairly rewarded compared to…			
... for the investments in time and energy that you have made to support your company?	5.25	.26	.83
... for the roles assigned to you?	5.18	1.27	.82
... compared to other salespeople in your company?	5.29	1.38	.70
... compared to what your company earns from your sales?	4.76	1.53	.85
... compared the contributions you make to your company's marketing effort?	4.83	1.42	.83
... considering the responsibilities you have?	4.94	1.43	.88
... for the amount of effort you put forth?	4.93	1.49	.88
... for the risks and exposure due to working with for your company?	5.05	1.36	.75
... for the work you have done well?	5.14	1.43	.87
Turnover Intention (*Alpha* = .91, *AVE* = .72, CR =.91)			
I often think about quitting my present job.	2.71	.82	.86
I intend to quit my present job.	2.18	1.65	.92
During the next 12 months, I intend to search for an alternative role (another job, full-time student, etc.) to my present job.	2.70	1.97	.86
I have searched for a new job.	2.46	1.94	.76
Job Satisfaction (*Alpha* = .89, *AVE* = .72, CR = .90)			
My job is very pleasant.	5.44	1.28	.91
My job is very worthwhile.	5.65	1.21	.86
My job is better than most.	5.74	1.17	.71
I am very content with my job.	5.26	1.44	.82

*Notes:* Alpha = Cronbach Alpha, AVE = Average Variance Extracted.

Table 4.3. Estimated Model

|	Model 1 (No Interaction terms)		Model 2 (with Interaction Terms)	
	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Intercept	6.669***	.76	9.522***	1.933
Main Effects				
Alternative Attractiveness	.217***	.076	.585*	.386
Distributive Justice	-.215***	.069	-1.114***	.240
Relationalism	-.356***	.088	-1.041***	.235
Trust	.034	.107	.793	.372
Procedural Justice	-.085	.060	.781**	.257
Moderating Effects				
Alternative attractiveness x Relationalism			.054	.046
Alternative attractiveness x Trust			-.212***	.074
Alternative attractiveness x Procedural Justice			.105*	.049
Distributive Justice x Relationalism			.123**	.035
Distributive Justice x Trust			-.033	.054
Distributive Justice x Procedural Justice			.081*	.034
Control Variables				
Job Satisfaction	-.359***	.099	-.356***	.086
Age	.012	.009	.010	.009
Gender	.069	.160	.134	.173
Tenure	-.018	.011	-.014	.012
Marital Status	-.152	.162	-.172	.173
Education	.267**	.126	.310**	.143
Model Fits				
F-test	24.19***		15.75***	
Adjusted R^2	.416		.444	
ΔR^2			.028***	

Notes: N = 359 ; * $p < .1$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$; Standard Errors are corrected for heteroscedasticity.

Figure 4.2. Moderation Effects

Moderator Analysis of the Alternative Attractiveness – Turnover Intention Relationship
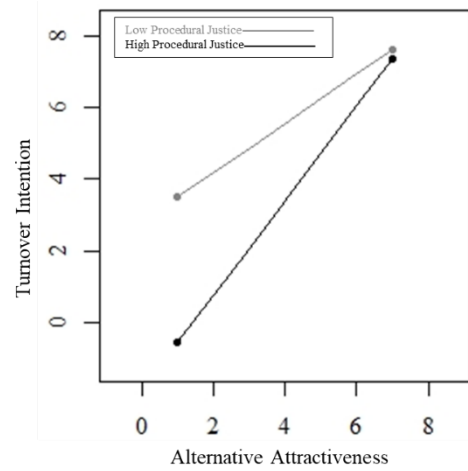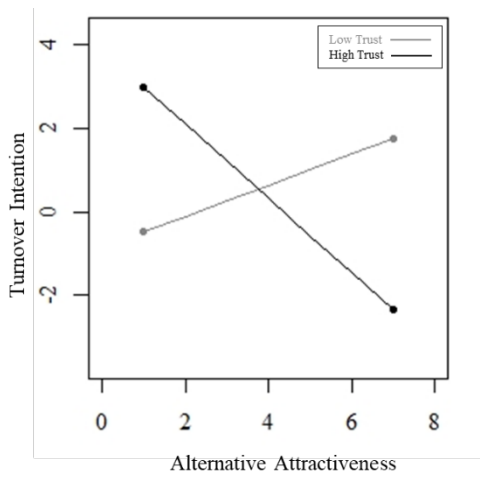
Moderator Analysis of the Distributive Justice – Turnover Intention Relationship
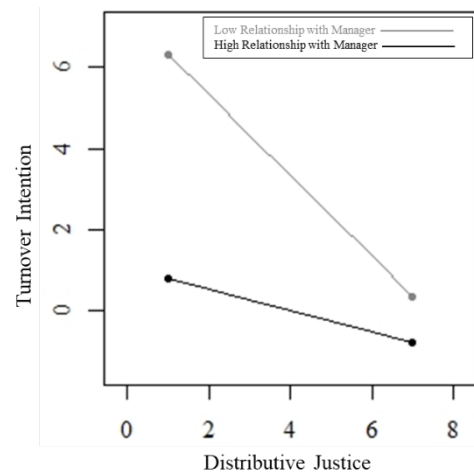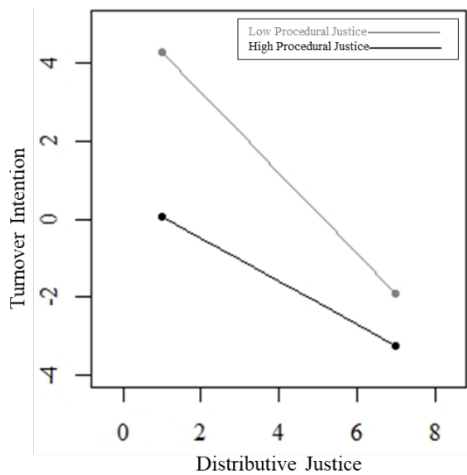
4.6. Discussion

This research delves into how social norms affect the decision-making process of whether to stay or leave a job. It uses the Push-Pull-Moorings (PPM) framework of migration, which is based on the Rational Choice Theory, to analyze the various factors that influence turnover decisions. The study concentrates on three main factors: distributive justice as a push factor, alternative attractiveness as a pull factor, and the impact of social norms within organizations as a mooring effect. This framework provides a useful perspective in comprehending the reasons behind salespeople's decisions to stay or leave their job.

The study supports the idea that fair distribution of rewards and resources, also known as Distributive Justice, can affect a salesperson's decision to leave their job. If they feel that their workplace is not distributing rewards and resources fairly, they are more likely to consider leaving. However, the study also found that if managers exhibit procedural justice and relationalism, it can mitigate the negative impact of Distributive Justice on turnover. This means that managers should build a positive relationship with salespeople, communicate openly and honestly, and involve them in decision-making. By doing so, salespeople will feel recognized and rewarded appropriately and will be less likely to leave the organization.

The study reveals that the concept of alternative attractiveness, which is often overlooked, plays a crucial role in an employee's decision to leave. Previous research on salesforce typically focuses on organizational factors, rather than external influences. However, this study includes the impact of external factors in its theoretical model, demonstrating that managers and organizations can partially manage salespeople's

perception of the external environment. The study suggests that employees who trust

their supervisors and their actions are less likely to perceive alternative attractiveness and

become dependent on the organization,

 making them less likely to leave the company. In other words, trust serves as a

stabilizing force that prevents salespeople from leaving their job. The results, however,

do not support the hypothesis that procedural justice and relationalism have a moderating

role in the relationship between Alternative attractiveness and Turnover Intention.

Surprisingly, the study found an enhancing moderating impact for procedural justice on

the relationship between Alternative Attractiveness and Turnover Intention, which is

counterintuitive and requires further research to understand the reasons behind it. Overall,

the findings underscore the role of perception about the external environment, the

importance of mooring factors in shaping turnover intentions, and the interplay of

mooring factors with push and pull factors. Mooring factors can mitigate the influence of

push factors and act as counterweights to the attractiveness of pull factors, thereby

reducing turnover intentions among salespeople. Organizations can leverage these

findings by focusing on trust-building processes, providing a supportive work

environment, promoting transparent procedures where salespeople are involved in the

decision-making, and focusing on mutual and long-term relationships with salespeople to

strengthen mooring factors and reduce turnover rates.

4.7. Limitations ad Conclusion

This study uncovers valuable insights regarding the connection between

distributive justice, alternative attractiveness, and turnover intention. However, it is

crucial to acknowledge certain limitations that may hinder the generalizability and

interpretation of the findings. To begin, the study relies on surveyed data to test the hypotheses, and the cross-sectional design of the study doesn't allow for the establishment of causal relationships between the variables. Longitudinal studies or experimental designs would be more useful in capturing the dynamic nature of these relationships over time and establishing stronger causal inferences. Moreover, despite following the literature's recommendations to minimize common biases, using longitudinal data to expand the proposed model would help control for any unwanted biases in the results. Lastly, the study examines only a few specific mooring factors, such as social norms of procedural justice, trust, and relationalism. While these factors are essential, there may be other relevant mooring factors that were not considered. Future research should explore additional mooring factors that could influence the relationships under investigation.

This study draws on ideas from migration literature and builds on RCT to enhances our understanding of the complicated connection between the push factor of Distributive Justice, the pull factor of Alternative Attractiveness, and the mooring role of social norms in the formation of Turnover Intention. The model's inclusion of Alternative Attractiveness, which represents salespeople's perception of the external environment, fills a crucial gap in the literature. Furthermore, the results emphasize how trust in managers can affect the attractiveness of the external environment. This is a significant finding since it enables managers to reduce the appeal of alternate job opportunities. Lastly, this study highlights that managing procedural justice and Relationalism can help companies moderate the perception of distributive justice and lower staff turnover.

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