

Workplace Stressors, Job Attitude, and Job Behaviors: Is Interpersonal Conflict the Missing Link?

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Abstract:

This research examines a model focused on two acute workplace stressors—interpersonal conflict and work overload—and their interrelationships with role stress, emotional exhaustion, job attitude, working smart, job performance, and turnover intentions. The moderating role of working smart on the relationship between work overload and interpersonal conflict is also investigated. A model is tested using responses of sales employees working for four large financial institutions in South America. Findings indicate that work overload and interpersonal conflict mediate the impact of role stress on emotional exhaustion, job attitudes, and behaviors. Our findings also show that work overload plays a significant role in the stressor-strain process. Results are discussed with reference to previous findings and future research.

Keywords: work overload | salespeople | interpersonal conflict | job attitude

Article:

Salespeople are required to respond to multiple demands from coworkers as well as customers, making role stress an inevitable part of the job (Avlonitis and Panagopoulos 2006; Singh, Goolsby, and Rhoads 1994). Stress research has often relied on the stimulus-response paradigm to suggest that salespeople face stressful working conditions—*stressors*, which can result in negative attitudinal and behavioral responses, and *strain* (Netemeyer, Maxham, and Pullig 2005; Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1975). Studies on *stressors* have focused mainly on examining role stress, which is generally conceived of as role conflict that occurs when job expectations/demands are viewed as incompatible, and role ambiguity, which arises from uncertain job functions and responsibilities (Kahn et al. 1964; Rizo, House, and Lirtzman 1970). In our review of empirical research published in *JPSSM* from 1980 to 2009, we found 33 articles investigating role conflict and 45 articles investigating role ambiguity. This clearly shows the importance of role stress to sales. However, this emphasis on role stress may also undermine the

importance of other critical yet understudied stressors at work, namely, work overload and interpersonal conflict. This is in spite of compelling evidence that work overload and interpersonal conflict are among the most frequently cited sources of employee stress across national cultures, age groups, and occupations (e.g., Liu, Spector, and Shi 2007, 2008; Narayanan, Menon, and Spector 1999).

The job-demand resources theory posits that employee strain results from excessive job demands with limited job resources (Demerouti et al. 2001). Work overload reflects employees' perceptions that the job places excessive work demands on them (Karasek 1979; Tattersall and Farmer 1996). Because of rising unemployment rates, layoff survivors are more likely to experience larger workloads because they now perform both their former workload and that of those who left (Virick, Lilly, and Casper 2007). In addition, today's salespeople are pressured to deliver greater output while using fewer resources and are thus likely to experience high work overload levels (Mulki, Lask, and Jaramillo 2008). Work overload is a significant source of stress in boundary-spanning occupations, where employees are required to meet the ever-increasing needs of customers (e.g., Babakus, Yavas, and Ashill 2009; Singh, Goolsby, and Rhoads 1994). Demerouti et al.'s (2001) meta-analysis demonstrates that workload is a critical predictor of emotional exhaustion. Work overload can also affect job satisfaction (e.g., Mulki, Lask, and Jaramillo 2008) as well as turnover intentions and job performance (e.g., Babakus, Yavas, and Ashill 2009).

In their review of the conflict literature, Spector and Bruk-Lee posit that occupational stress research has shifted from its traditional focus on role stress and workload variables to "stress resulting from the social work environment, namely interpersonal conflict" (2007, p. 267). Interpersonal conflict represents the extent to which an employee has negatively charged social interactions with coworkers (Spector 1987). Interpersonal conflict is one of the most important stressors at work due to its pervasive effect on employee emotions and team work (Jex and Thomas 2003; Liu, Spector, and Shi 2007; Spector and Jex 1998). Interpersonal conflict is of particular concern in boundary-spanning positions where collaborative work is expected (e.g., Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander 2008). Our study claims that the negative effect of interpersonal conflict on organizational outcomes is particularly salient in sales settings because salespeople regularly interact with coworkers as members of formal and informal cross-functional selling teams (Arnett and Badrinarayanan 2005).

Numerous psychological and emotional demands from customers make emotional exhaustion an almost unavoidable problem in jobs involving interface with customers. Interestingly, studies have identified role stress (e.g., Babakus et al. 1999), work overload perceptions (e.g., Lewin and Sager 2008), and interpersonal conflict (e.g., Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander 2008) as the major predictors of emotional exhaustion. Research has also shown that emotional exhaustion mediates the effect of role stress on salesperson's job attitudes and job behaviors (e.g., Babakus et al. 1999). However, research investigating how, together with role stress, work overload perceptions and interpersonal conflict affect emotional exhaustion and eventually organizational outcomes is still missing. This study posits that work overload and interpersonal conflict partially mediate the effect of role stress on emotional exhaustion and help explain how role stress works through interpersonal conflict and emotional exhaustion to affect a salesperson's attitudes and behaviors detrimentally (see Figure 1). This study also shows that effective planning has a direct effect on

interpersonal conflict and salesperson's attitudes and can help salespeople cope with work demands. Research hypotheses test a structural model using responses of salespeople working for four large financial institutions in South America.

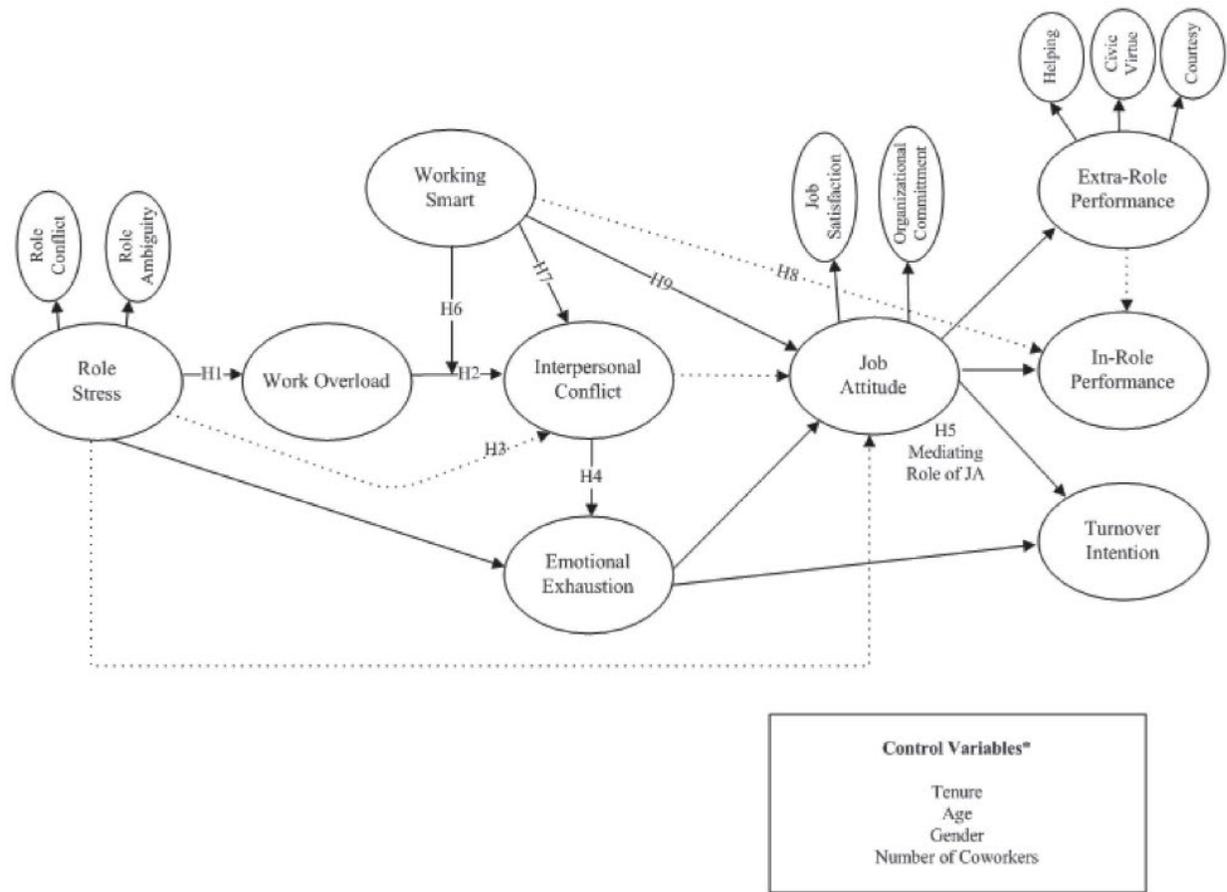


Figure 1. Job Stress Model

* Included as predictors of all endogenous variables.

This study is unique for three major reasons. First, as previously noted, occupational stress research has shifted from traditional role stress and workload models to studying stress that results from the social work environment (interpersonal conflict). This study demonstrates that interpersonal conflict helps explain how role stress and work overload affect critical organizational outcomes such as performance and turnover intention. This is the first sales study that links the traditional role stress and work demands theories with a new paradigm for studying stress that relies on a social work environment framework. Second, this study explains how effective planning can help salespeople reduce the effect of work overload on organizational outcomes. Third, relationships are studied using responses from salespeople working in dynamic emerging economies where most firms are focusing their operations. This responds to a call for research to extend and validate findings of studies of salespeople from developed economies to different cultural settings (Dwairi, Bhuian, and Jurkus 2007; Ellis 2005; Luo, Sivakumar, and Liu 2005).

OVERVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

There is increased recognition that stress can affect an individual's physical and mental health as well as performance, intention to stay with the firm, and job attitudes (Jex 1998). The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health indicates that about one-third of U.S. workers report high levels of stress, which has been referred to as the epidemic of modern society (Murphy et al. 2009). The 2008 Report of the Families and Work Institute shows that stress levels are rising while employees' physical health is deteriorating, with 27 percent of U.S. employees having sleep problems and 33 percent experiencing depression (Aumann and Galinsky 2008). Academic research also indicates that stress is particularly high in occupations that necessitate a strong interpersonal interaction component, such as sales (Grant et al. 2001; Singh, Goolsby, and Rhoads 1994).

The job characteristics approach to job stress suggests that job hassles can be a predominant causal factor in job stress (Beehr 1985). Salespeople face multiple and often conflicting demands from organizational stakeholders and thus are particularly affected by role stress (Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1975). Role stress is regarded as an unavoidable characteristic of the sales job (Behrman and Perreault 1984). Myriad empirical studies have studied the effects of role stress on important organizational variables, including job stress, organizational commitment, job performance, and turnover intentions (e.g., Brown and Peterson 1993; Peterson et al. 1995). Sales force researchers have concluded that role stressors have significant negative effects on organizational variables (Avlonitis and Panagopoulos 2006; Low et al. 2001; Singh 1998).

The job-demand resources model indicates that employees are also affected by excessive job demands in terms of high workloads (Demerouti et al. 2001). Narayanan, Menon, and Spector's (1999) qualitative study showed that salespeople are four times more likely to complain about work overload than role conflict or role ambiguity. Workload perceptions are now considered central in stress models tested in boundary-spanning positions (e.g., Babakus, Yavas, and Ashill 2009; Mulki, Lassk, and Jaramillo 2008). Research has shown that work overload perceptions have a detrimental effect on employee attitudes and behaviors (Claessens et al. 2004; Houkes et al. 2003).

Although role stress and workload are important in sales occupations, salespeople are known to be affected by another critical yet understudied work-condition stressor, namely, interpersonal conflict (see Keenan and Newton 1985; Narayanan, Menon, and Spector 1999). The relevance for salespeople of interpersonal conflict is particularly highlighted in Narayanan, Menon, and Spector's qualitative study, which asked salespeople "to describe the most stressful event that occurred over the past month" (1999, p. 66). This study found that interpersonal conflict complaints were significantly more frequent than those associated with role conflict or role ambiguity (23.8 percent compared to 4.6 and 2.3 percent, respectively). Perhaps salespeople are less likely to complain about role stress because they consider it a part of the selling job: "the nature of the salesman's job makes some conflict and ambiguity inevitable, regardless of what management does" (Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1975, p. 33).

Role Stress

Role stress theory posits that employees are required to perform distinct roles (patterns of behaviors) to meet the demands of distinct organizational stakeholders (Kahn et al. 1964; Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman 1970). Role conflict and role ambiguity are viewed as the main components of role stress (e.g., Behrman and Perreault 1984) and are inherent to the sales job (e.g., Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1975). Role conflict occurs when the employee believes that the job requires meeting incompatible demands and expectations. Role conflict is prevalent in sales since meeting customer expectations can be inconsistent with meeting company requirements, such as when customers ask for lower prices while companies strive to maintain higher prices so as to maintain profitability. Employees experience role ambiguity when they are uncertain about their job functions and responsibilities. Role ambiguity also occurs in sales since no standard procedures or magic formula exists for meeting sales quotas and building long-term relationships with customers. Chang, Rosen, and Levy's (2009) meta-analysis demonstrates that role stress (role conflict and role ambiguity) has a negative impact on job attitudes in terms of lower job satisfaction and lower organizational commitment. Lee and Ashforth's (1996) meta-analysis also shows that role stress (role conflict and role ambiguity) has a positive effect on emotional exhaustion. In view of this, the model showed in Figure 1 controls for the effect of role stress on both job attitudes and emotional exhaustion.

Research has also shown that role stress is positively associated with work overload (e.g., McKay and Tate 1999; Singh, Goolsby, and Rhoads 1994; Young and Corsun 2010). This association occurs because incompatible or unclear organizational demands are likely to result in greater time demands at work (Bacharach and Bamberger 1992). Mulki, Lassk, and Jaramillo (2008) showed that both role conflict and role ambiguity are important antecedents of work overload perceptions. They posit that salespeople who face role conflict put forth higher levels of effort to meet the demands of organizational stockholders. In addition, when organizational expectations and management priorities are unclear, salespeople have to spend more time and resources in search of clarity in direction, policies, and procedures. Based on this, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Role stress will be positively related to work overload.

Work Overload

As previously noted, workload has received increased attention in the stress literature (e.g., Babakus, Yavas, and Ashill 2009; Tucker et al. 2009). A study of Japanese employees shows that problems like *karoshi* (working to death) and *karo-jisatsu* (suicide by overwork) have become more serious in recent years (Kanai 2009). Work overload results in uncertainty for an employee about his or her ability to complete job tasks adequately and in time (Spector and Jex 1998). Research has shown that salespeople can experience high work overload because they operate in a competitive environment that requires a timely response to the ever-changing customer demands (McKay and Tate 1999; Mulki, Lassk, and Jaramillo 2008; Narayanan, Menon, and Spector 1999). In addition to satisfying customer demands, salespeople are often required by management to provide large number of reports, attend frequent meetings, and respond to numerous e-mails.

Overloaded individuals often experience feelings of impatience and being rushed, which ultimately affects the quality of their interactions with coworkers (Greenglass and Burke 2003). Sales research has shown that work overload is significantly related to job tension (McKay and Tate 1999). When employees face a demanding workload, they allocate more effort to the task at hand and, thus, have fewer opportunities to engage in altruistic behaviors toward other employees (Jex and Thomas 2003). Excessive workload also can result in anger and anxiety (Spector and Fox 2005), which may affect the quality of interactions with other employees. Previous research conducted in nonselling environments demonstrates that conflict is positively related to the number of hours worked (e.g., Spector, Dwyer, and Jex 1988). Based on this information, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: Work overload will be positively related to interpersonal conflict.

Interpersonal Conflict

Stress research is shifting from its traditional focus on role stress and workload to stress that originates from interpersonal interactions at work (e.g., Diefendorff and Ellington 2008; Schieman and Reid 2008; Young and Corsun 2010). Because humans are social beings, their attitudes and behaviors are significantly influenced by the quality of interpersonal relationships (Frone 2000). Interpersonal problems are a universal human phenomenon that often ranks as a *primary source* of unhappiness in people's lives (Frone 2000). A construct that measures the quality of interpersonal relationships at work is interpersonal conflict. In the workplace, interpersonal conflict can range from minor disagreements with coworkers to heated arguments and physical violence (Spector and Jex 1998).

Interpersonal conflict involves both *overt* (e.g., rudeness) and *covert* (e.g., spreading rumors) behaviors that lead to psychological strain (Spector and Jex 1998). Despite the potential importance of this construct, research investigating the effect of interpersonal conflict in sales settings is limited. Interpersonal conflict has been associated with employees' divergence of interests (Bluen and Barling 1988) and often occurs in selling, where salespeople compete for resources and customers (Narayanan, Menon, and Spector 1999). A high degree of interpersonal conflict occurs when employees have different and conflicting views about job issues (De Dreu and Weingart 2003). Because role conflict measures employees' beliefs that job demands are incompatible (Chen and Spector 1992), a strong association between interpersonal conflict and role conflict should be expected.

Similarly, role ambiguity occurs when the salesperson is uncertain about job expectations and his or her ability to satisfy those expectations with the resources at hand. Role ambiguity can affect interpersonal conflict in a number of ways. First, employees look for directions from their peers and supervisors. Failure of employees to agree on individual role jobs or uncertainty about supervisory directions can lead to interpersonal conflict (Liu, Spector, and Shi 2007). Also, failing to agree on individual job roles as well as their expected role as members of formal and informal organizational teams can result in interpersonal conflict (Aritzeta, Ayestaran, and Swailes 2005). Research has shown a positive and significant relationship between role stress and interpersonal conflict (Spector and Jex 1998; Spector, Dwyer, and Jex 1988). Based on the above literature:

Hypothesis 3: Role stress will be positively related to interpersonal conflict.

Research also indicates that interpersonal conflict results in negative emotions and feelings of frustration (Fox, Spector, and Miles 2001; Young and Corsun 2010). Herschovis et al.'s (2007) meta-analysis demonstrates that interpersonal conflict is the leading cause of workplace aggression. Interpersonal conflict is now viewed as a "universal human phenomenon" with a pervasive effect on the employee (Liu, Spector, and Shi 2007, p. 215). In fact, researchers have associated interpersonal conflict with higher levels of depression and lower self-esteem (Frone 2000) as well as sadness, energy depletion, helplessness, and feelings of being overwhelmed (Liu, Spector, and Shi 2007). These emotions are likely to lead to a higher level of emotional exhaustion—"the feeling of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work" (Maslach and Jackson 1981, p. 101). Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander's (2008) study of health-care workers found that interpersonal conflict had a significant effect on emotional exhaustion, even after role conflict and role ambiguity were controlled for:

Hypothesis 4: Interpersonal conflict will be positively related to emotional exhaustion.

Emotional exhaustion often occurs in activities in which employees do "people work" (Maslach and Jackson 1981). In fact, there is ample evidence of the negative effect of emotional exhaustion on the salesperson—lower job satisfaction, lower organizational commitment, and higher turnover intentions (e.g., Babakus et al. 1999; Boles, Johnston, and Hair 1997; Klein and Verbeke 1999; Rutherford et al. 2009). In view of this, the impact of emotional exhaustion on salespersons' job attitude and turnover intention are controlled for in our model.

Job Attitude

A key premise of attitudinal theory is that aggregate job attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment precede general employee behaviors, namely, job performance and turnover (Ajzen 2001; Harrison, Newman, and Roth 2006). Several meta-analyses conducted across business disciplines have found evidence that job attitudes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) are positively related to job performance and negatively related to turnover intentions (e.g., Brown and Peterson 1993; Harrison, Newman, and Roth 2006). Employees who are satisfied with their jobs and committed to the firm reciprocate by exerting greater efforts at the task at hand and thus achieve higher in-role performance (Jaramillo, Mulki, and Marshall 2005). In-role performance includes employee behaviors that are consistent with organizational objectives and that are formally rewarded by the firm.

Positive job attitudes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) can result in discretionary effort that goes above and beyond the firm's expectations and requirements, leading to higher extra-role performance (Harrison, Newman, and Roth 2006; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Ahearne 1998; Riketta 2002). Extra-role performance is defined as the degree to which salespeople are willing to go above and beyond the call of duty (Bagozzi, Verbeke, and Gavino 2003). Extra-role performance includes behaviors such as helping, civic virtue, and courtesy. Researchers have noted that extra-role behaviors enhance organizational performance because they "lubricate the social machinery of the organization, reduce friction, and increase efficiency"

(Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie 1997, p. 263). Helping behaviors allow selling organizations to better serve complex customer demands by bringing together diverse abilities in the firm. Also, civic virtue involves actions such as suggesting improvements in organizational practices that are likely to result in higher efficiency. Courteous salespeople avoid creating problems with others and preempt problem situations. These factors can explain why salesperson extra-role performance has a significant effect on in-role performance (Mulki, Jaramillo, and Marshall 2007; Piercy et al. 2006). Finally, salespeople who are satisfied with their jobs and committed to the firm are less likely to search for a new job and withdraw from the firm (Grant et al. 2001; Low et al. 2001; Rutherford et al. 2009).

In view of the above discussion, our model also includes (1) paths linking job attitudes with in-role performance, extra-role performance, and turnover intention, and (2) a path linking in-role performance with extra-role performance. Job attitudes are a *known* mechanism by which stressors ultimately affect performance (in-role and extra-role) and turnover intention (e.g., Arnold et al. 2009; Babakus, Yavas, and Ashill 2009; Johnston et al. 1990; Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander 2008). Research also shows that the effect of stressors on job attitudes is mediated by emotional exhaustion (e.g., Babakus et al. 1999; Low et al. 2001). Stressors affect salesperson's behaviors via a complex mediation process that involves emotional exhaustion and job attitude. In view of this, we posit the following replication hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: Emotional exhaustion and job attitude mediate the impact of stressors (role stress, work overload and interpersonal conflict) on salesperson's behaviors (in-role performance, extra-role performance, and turnover intention).

Working Smart

High-performing salespeople address the complexities of sales by focusing on *the goal* and by searching efficient ways to solve work-related problems—they work *smart*. Working smart is a critical construct in sales and has also been referred to as *planning behaviors* or *effort direction* (e.g., Fang, Palmatier, and Evans 2004; Jaramillo and Mulki 2008). Working smart is defined as “behaviors directed toward developing knowledge about sales situations and utilizing this knowledge in sales situations” (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994, p. 40). This definition draws from the notion of contextual intelligence that requires “planning or mentally preparing, being confident in one’s ability to alter behavior, and making situationally appropriate adjustments in behavior” (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994, p. 40). It also builds on Katerberg and Blau’s (1983) earlier conceptualization of effort direction, which refers to an employee’s ability to discriminate between actions that are important from those that are irrelevant to job completion.

This study posits that working smart plays a fundamental role in stressor–strain models because it is significantly associated with concepts known to affect stressor–strain relationships, namely, competence, efficient allocation of resources, and learning orientation. In his review of the stress literature, Jex (1998) posits that competent employees are less affected by stressors. Ito and Brotheridge (2003) also posit that individuals who allocate resources more efficiently are less affected by stressors and can effectively overcome the difficulties of their jobs. McFarland (2003) hypothesized that learning orientation reduces the impact of stress resulting from the use of coercive sales tactics. Moreover, Classens et al.’s (2004) study of research and development

engineers working for a semiconductor multinational demonstrates that employees who engage in planning behaviors believe that they have greater control over time and report less work strain and higher job satisfaction. Working smart may thus help salespeople cope with work overload. In addition, given their proclivity for efficient use of time and energy, salespeople who work smart are more likely to avoid unnecessary conflict with their colleagues. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 6: Working smart moderates the impact of work overload on interpersonal conflict. This impact is smaller with higher levels of working smart.

Hypothesis 7: Working smart will be negatively related to interpersonal conflict.

Rapp et al. (2006) posits that salespeople who work smart engage in planning and adaptive selling behaviors that help them achieve higher performance. Research has shown that working smart is directly associated with in-role performance (e.g., Fang, Palmatier, and Evans 2004; Jaramillo and Mulki 2008). Franke and Park's (2006) meta-analysis demonstrates that salespeople who engage in adaptive selling behaviors are more satisfied with their jobs. Taking together, this suggests that working smart has a direct effect on both in-role performance and salespersons' job attitudes. Therefore,

Hypothesis 8: Working smart will be positively related to in-role performance.

Hypothesis 9: Working smart will be positively related to job attitude.

Control Variables

Research has shown that demographic factors can affect employee perceptions and behaviors. Frank and Parke's (2006) meta-analysis showed that experienced salespeople were more likely to engage in adaptive selling behaviors and to report higher levels of job satisfaction and had higher performance. Experience has also been linked to stress perceptions, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and performance (e.g., Jaramillo et al. 2009; Siguaw and Honeycutt 1995). Age has been associated with stress perceptions, job satisfaction, and job performance (e.g., Kim, Knight, and Crustsinger 2009). Gender may also affect stress perceptions (e.g., Liu, Spector, and Shi 2007), customer orientation (e.g., Siguaw and Honeycutt 1995), working smart (e.g., Jaramillo and Mulki 2008), and performance (e.g., Kim, Knight, and Crustsinger 2009). In addition, frequency and number of interactions can vary with the number of coworkers and provide potential opportunities for interpersonal conflict. It may also affect workload, job attitudes, and behaviors. In view of this, tenure, age, gender, and number of coworkers are used as control variables, which are linked to all the endogenous variables.

Common Method Variance

Researchers have argued that common method variance (CMV) can inflate correlations among constructs that are measured with the same method (e.g., Cote and Buckley 1987). The variance attributed to method was controlled for, using Lindell and Whitney's (2001) approach. This approach consists on adding a marker variable that is linked to all exogenous variables in a

model. The marker variable is used to extract the variance that may be attributed to “common method.” Personality-like variables such as positive–negative affectivity (e.g., Podsakoff et al. 2003) or core-self evaluation (e.g., Jaramillo et al. 2009) are typically used as marker variables. This approach has been previously used in sales research (e.g., Fang, Palmatier, and Evans 2008; Jaramillo et al. 2009). Performance orientation was used as the marker variable in this study (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). The items we used were, “I very much want my coworkers to consider me to be good at selling,” “I feel very good when I know I have outperformed other salespeople in my company,” and “I always try to communicate my accomplishments to my manager.” As shown below, results from hypotheses testing did not change when CMV was controlled for.

METHOD

To investigate the relationships depicted in Figure 1, we conducted a study with salespeople from four private financial institutions in South America. The firms provided names and addresses of 500 salespeople (branch managers, commercial managers, and loan officers) working in 290 offices and 80 cities. The average number of employees in each office was 15.8 (standard deviation [SD] = 14.4). These salespeople were entirely responsible for managing firm’s relationships with customers. A total of 342 usable responses were received (68 percent response rate); 241 participants were female, 96 were male, and 5 did not indicate gender. These salespeople are rewarded with a mixed compensation system, and the average percentage of commission-based compensation was 16 percent (SD = 27.1). Respondents had an average of 5 (SD = 5.7) years of sales experience in the firms and an average of 6 (SD = 4.7) years of overall sales experience. Their mean age was 29.3 (SD = 5.8), and the mean annual salary was \$6,039 (SD = 2,919). Salespeople indicated that they spend an average of 30.6 (SD = 12.8) hours per week interacting with customers and an average of 7.5 (SD = 7.7) weekly hours on prospecting activities. However, salespeople also report spending a significant number of weekly hours on activities not directly related to the customer, such as preparing reports for management ($\mu = 3.1$, SD = 3.5), attending company meetings ($\mu = 3.0$, SD = 2.7), and training ($\mu = 2.9$, SD = 3.3) (see Marshall, Moncrief, and Lassk 1999).

Measures

As shown in the Appendix, all the constructs included in this study were operationalized with published scales. The study included two acute stressors, interpersonal conflict and work overload. Interpersonal conflict was measured using Spector and Jex’s (1998), four-item scale. Work overload was measured using Roberts, Lapidus, and Chonko’s (1997) five-item instrument. Role stress was assessed with Singh, Verbeke, and Rhoads’s (1996) role conflict and role ambiguity three-item scales. Emotional exhaustion was measured with Maslach and Jackson’s (1981) nine-item scale. We used two indicators of salesperson’s job attitudes, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction was operationalized using Spector’s (1985) three-item scale, whereas organizational commitment was measured with Speier and Venkatesh’s (2002) three-item scale. Our study also included two critical behaviors, in-role performance (job performance), measured with Low et al.’s (2001) instrument, and turnover intention, measured using Spector’s (1985) single-item scale (“How often have you seriously considered quitting your present job?”). A reliability of 0.85 was used to set the factor

loading value and error variance (Donavan, Brown, and Mowen 2004). Also, the survey included a measure of extra-role performance. Extrarole performance was measured using Bagozzi, Verbeke, and Gavino's (2003) 13-item scale, which taps into the helping, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and courtesy elements of the construct. Working smart was measured with six items from Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar's (1994) instrument. As previously noted, three items from Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar's (1994) performance orientation scale were also used to control for CMV.

The scales were translated from English to Spanish and Spanish to English by two independent interpreters. Prior to the administration of the survey, a pretest with a small sample was performed that included 30 salespeople and 12 supervisors in one of the above financial institutions to verify that the survey instructions and scale items were appropriate for the study setting. Table 1 shows the construct's Pearson's pairwise correlations.

Role Stress, Attitude, and Extra-Role Performance

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed on role stress (role conflict and role ambiguity). One of the items of the role conflict instrument had a factor loading of lower than 0.50 and was deleted. The remaining items were factor analyzed (principal component analysis) independently for role conflict and role ambiguity, and two factors were extracted. The factors explained 77.5 and 72.9 percent of the variance of role conflict and role ambiguity, respectively. Factor loadings were then used to create the *role stress* second-order construct. This procedure has been previously used in marketing and sales (e.g., Jaramillo and Mulki 2008; Singh, Goolsby, and Rhoads 1994). Similarly, items corresponding to job satisfaction and organizational commitment were factor analyzed independently and two factors explaining 91.1 percent of the variance in organizational commitment and 57.2 percent of the variance in job satisfaction were extracted. These factors correspond to the *job attitude* second-order construct in our study. Finally, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the helping, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and courtesy dimensions of extra-role performance. The sportsmanship dimension of the construct was dropped because all the factor loadings were below 0.4. The remaining items were independently factor analyzed for the helping, civic virtue, and courtesy dimensions. The extracted factors explain 79.8, 66.1, and 56.9 percent of the variance of helping, civic virtue, and courtesy and were used to create the *extra-role performance* construct.

Measure Validation

A CFA was used to assess the measurement properties of multi-item scales (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). The model parameters were estimated using the maximum likelihood (ML) method CALIS procedure of SAS 8.0. Measurement model results indicate a poor fit of the data ($\chi^2 = 2,234$, degrees of freedom [df] = 1,464; root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = 0.053, CI90% [confidence interval] 0.049 to 0.058; comparative fit index [CFI] = 0.83; nonnormed fit index [NNFI] = 0.82; Delta2 = 0.84). As shown in the Appendix, 11 of the 60 items were dropped because the corresponding factor loadings were below 0.40. A second measurement model was estimated with the remaining items. Results indicate that the model adequately fits the data ($\chi^2 = 1,382$, df = 1,000; RMSEA = 0.044, CI90% 0.038 to 0.050; CFI = 0.96; NNFI = 0.90; Delta2 = 0.91).

Table 1. Correlation Matrix

	WO	IC	RS	RC	RA	EE	JA	JS	OC	JP	ERP	H	CV	CO	WS	PO	TEN	AGE	GEN	N
Work Overload (WO)	0.73																			
Interpersonal Conflict (IC)	0.24	0.79																		
Role Stress (RS)	0.25	0.25	—																	
Role conflict (RC)	0.08	0.19	0.78	0.74																
Role ambiguity (RA)	0.30	0.18	0.77	0.20	0.85															
Emotional Exhaustion (EE)	0.23	0.42	0.36	0.28	0.28	0.80														
Job Attitude (JA)	-0.05	-0.26	-0.46	-0.44	-0.25	-0.49	—													
Job satisfaction (JS)	-0.04	-0.27	-0.38	-0.32	-0.22	-0.48	0.86	0.70												
Organizational commitment (OC)	-0.06	-0.17	-0.42	-0.44	-0.23	-0.35	0.86	0.49	0.90											
Job Performance (JP)	-0.02	-0.17	-0.36	-0.40	-0.12	-0.31	0.43	0.41	0.33	0.70										
Extra-Role Performance (ERP)	0.18	-0.16	-0.28	-0.43	0.02	-0.22	0.44	0.35	0.40	0.49	—									
Helping (H)	0.07	-0.15	-0.24	-0.35	0.00	-0.16	0.29	0.22	0.27	0.31	0.74	0.87								
Civic virtue (CV)	0.19	-0.07	-0.17	-0.31	0.01	-0.13	0.36	0.26	0.36	0.32	0.77	0.29	0.74							
Courtesy (CO)	0.15	-0.16	-0.26	-0.38	0.03	-0.24	0.38	0.34	0.32	0.51	0.84	0.45	0.50	0.77						
Turnover Intention (TI)	0.07	0.23	0.25	0.19	0.25	0.50	-0.54	-0.46	-0.46	-0.17	-0.19	-0.13	-0.18	-0.11	—					
Working Smart (WS)	0.00	-0.17	-0.22	-0.10	-0.28	-0.28	0.33	0.32	0.24	0.44	0.37	0.26	0.23	0.39	-0.22	0.73				
Performance Orientation (PO)	0.14	0.07	-0.01	0.12	-0.20	0.00	0.20	0.12	0.2	0.13	0.27	0.14	0.25	0.26	-0.12	0.08	0.70			
Tenure (TEN)	0.02	-0.07	-0.04	-0.02	-0.05	-0.07	0.1	0.06	0.1	0.07	0.02	-0.03	0.02	0.02	-0.05	0.05	-0.10	—		
Age	0.03	-0.03	-0.06	-0.06	-0.02	0.01	0	0.01	0	0.03	-0.05	-0.04	-0.07	0.00	-0.05	0.08	-0.15	0.33	—	
Gender (F = 0, M = 1) (GEN)	-0.03	0.11	0.08	0.08	0.03	0.03	-0.01	-0.07	0.03	0.11	0.05	-0.08	0.13	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.06	-0.17	0.11	—
Number of Coworkers (N)	0.03	-0.03	0	0.01	-0.01	-0.06	0.02	0.09	-0.04	0.09	0.04	0.05	0.01	0.04	-0.02	0.02	0.06	-0.13	-0.02	0.03

Notes: Boldface correlations are significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. Cronbach's alpha indices are shown on the diagonal.

The Appendix also shows that all composite reliability statistics (ρ_c) are above the desirable 0.60 level, providing evidence of adequate reliability (Bagozzi and Yi 1988). Some of the average variance extracted (AVE) indices (ρ_v) are below the recommended 0.50 value (Fornell and Larcker 1981) but are comparable to results obtained in many sales force studies (e.g., Amyx and Alford 2005; McFarland and Kidwell 2006; Silver, Dwyer, and Alford 2006). The AVE index is highly conservative, and values lower than 0.5 are not indicative of the inadequate reliability of the measures (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Finally, the AVE of each latent variable exceeded the square of the mutual correlation ($\rho_c > r^2$), thus providing evidence of discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker 1981).

Table 2. Structural Model Results.

Hypotheses	Parameter Statistics ¹	
	SP, USP ²	t-Values ³
H1: Role Stress → Work Overload	0.49, 0.97 <i>0.48, 0.78</i>	2.53** 2.66**
H2: Work Overload → Interpersonal Conflict	0.27, 0.27 <i>0.24, 0.26</i>	2.17** 1.91***
H3: Role Stress → Interpersonal Conflict	-0.01, -0.03 <i>0.01, 0.02</i>	-0.10 0.09
H4: Interpersonal Conflict → Emotional Exhaustion	0.73, 0.96 <i>0.70, 0.91</i>	7.12* 6.87*
H5: Mediating Role of Emotional Exhaustion and Job Attitude		
Antecedents of Job Attitude		
Working Smart	0.73, 1.13 <i>0.70, 1.08</i>	5.29* 5.25*
Interpersonal Conflict	0.14, 0.17 <i>0.05, 0.07</i>	0.81 0.30
Emotional Exhaustion	-0.47, -0.45 <i>-0.39, -0.37</i>	-2.42** -1.78***
Outcomes of Job Attitude		
Extra-Role Performance	0.67, 0.50 <i>0.66, 0.48</i>	4.96* 4.77*
In-Role Performance	0.53, 0.45 <i>0.52, 0.46</i>	2.72* 2.80*
Turnover Intention	-0.22, -0.31 <i>-0.22, -0.32</i>	2.15** 2.08**
H6: Moderating Role of Working Smart (WO * WS → IC)	-0.14, -0.09 <i>-0.15, -0.09</i>	-1.97** 1.96**
H7: Working Smart → Interpersonal Conflict	-0.37, -0.46 <i>-0.37, -0.45</i>	-3.64* 3.63*
H8: Working Smart → In-Role Performance	0.12, 0.16 <i>0.13, 0.17</i>	0.78 0.86
H9: Working Smart → Job Attitude	0.73, 1.13 <i>0.70, 1.05</i>	5.29* 5.25*

Notes: ¹ Values in italics correspond to a model that controls for CMV. ² SP = standardized path; USP = unstandardized path. ³ Significance level (two-tails): * $p < 0.01$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.10$.

TEST OF HYPOTHESES

Our hypotheses were tested using the ML-CALIS procedure of SAS 8.0. The moderating effect of working smart (WS) on the relationship between work overload (WO) and interpersonal conflict (IC) was tested by forming a term from the corresponding variables (WO * IC). This procedure is preferred to the group comparison method because it renders fewer Type I errors (Rigdon, Schumacker, and Worthke 1998). Both work overload and interpersonal conflict were standardized to minimize multicollinearity (Wood and Erickson 1998).

Results indicate that the model fits the data adequately ($\chi^2 = 873$, $df = 612$; RMSEA = 0.048, CI90% 0.040 to 0.054; CFI = 0.90; NNFI = 0.89; Delta2 = 0.90), particularly since the RMSEA 90% CI is below 0.06 and the statistical power of both models was high, $\pi > 0.99$ (MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara 1996). The model depicted in Figure 1 explains a significant variance of work overload ($R^2 = 0.27$), interpersonal conflict ($R^2 = 0.24$), emotional exhaustion ($R^2 = 0.75$), job attitudes ($R^2 = 0.89$), in-role job performance ($R^2 = 0.53$), extra-role performance ($R^2 = 0.47$), and turnover intention ($R^2 = 0.44$). We also ran a second structural model that used an anchor variable to control for CMV. As a result of this, the fit of the model worsened, χ^2 increased by 165, and the degrees of freedom increased by 106 (critical χ^2 at $\alpha = 0.01$ is 143). However, as shown in Table 2, the CMV control did not alter the results of the hypotheses tests. The anchor variable did not have a significant effect on the endogenous variables (at $\alpha = 0.05$).

As shown in Table 2, the results indicate that role stress affects salesperson's attitudes and behaviors through a complex process that involves work overload, interpersonal conflict, emotional exhaustion, and working smart. As hypothesized, role stress has a direct effect on work overload perception (H1: $\beta = 0.49$, $t = 2.53$), which eventually leads to higher interpersonal conflict (H2: $\beta = 0.27$, $t = 2.17$). Our findings also demonstrate that interpersonal conflict had a significant impact on emotional exhaustion (H4: $\beta = 0.73$, $t = 7.12$). This effect is significant even after the direct effect of role stress ($\beta = 0.37$, $t = 2.81$) on emotional exhaustion is controlled for. However, contrary to our hypothesis, role stress did not have a direct effect on interpersonal conflict (H3: $\beta = -0.01$, $t = -0.10$). Taking together, results indicate that the impact of role stress on interpersonal conflict is fully mediated by work overload.

Research findings also indicate that working smart plays a critical role in the stressor-strain process. Salespeople who engage in working smart behaviors are less affected by stress and are more likely to have a positive job attitude. As expected, working smart reduces the impact of work overload on interpersonal conflict (H5: $\beta_{WO * WS} = -0.14$, $t = 1.97$). In addition, working smart has a direct and negative effect on interpersonal conflict (H7: $\beta = -0.37$, $t = -3.64$) and a direct and positive effect on job attitudes (H9: $\beta = 0.73$, $t = 5.29$). However, the direct effect of working smart on in-role performance was not significant (H8: $\beta = 0.12$, $t = 0.78$). This indicates that working smart affects performance through job attitude and emotional exhaustion.

Our findings confirm Babakus et al.'s (1999) earlier findings that emotional exhaustion has both a direct ($\beta = 0.50$, $t = 4.90$) and an indirect effect on turnover intention through job attitude—emotional exhaustion to job attitude ($\beta = -0.47$, $t = -2.42$) and job attitude to turnover intention ($\beta = -0.22$, $t = -2.15$).

Our findings confirm Babakus et al.'s (1999) earlier findings that the indirect relationship of emotional exhaustion with turnover intention is explained by job attitude. Emotional exhaustion

is negatively related to the psychological well-being of salespeople—they become dissatisfied with their jobs and display lower levels of commitment (H3: $\beta = -0.40$, $t = -3.40$), which ultimately results in a greater desire to leave the organization. Our results are also in line with research indicating that role stress is a key predictor of emotional exhaustion (H8: $\beta = 0.40$, $t = 3.48$) (cf. Babakus et al. 1999; Singh, Goolsby, and Rhoads 1994). Emotional exhaustion thus mediates the effect of stressors on job attitudes.

A fundamental argument of attitudinal theory is that overall job attitude is a strong predictor of job behaviors (Ajzen 2001; Harrison, Newman, and Roth 2006). This study provides strong evidence to this claim by showing that salesperson job attitudes are positively associated with both in-role ($\beta = 0.53$, $t = 2.72$) and extra-role performance ($\beta = 0.67$, $t = 4.96$), and negatively associated with turnover intention ($\beta = -0.22$, $t = -2.15$). As predicted (H5), stressors ultimately affect salesperson's behaviors through a complex chain-of-effects that involves emotional exhaustion and job attitude.

As previously noted, tenure, gender, age, and number of coworkers were used as control variables. Results show that male salespeople report higher levels of both in-role ($\beta = 0.15$, $t = 1.98$) and extra-role performance ($\beta = 0.19$, $t = 2.11$). None of the additional paths linking demographics with the model variables were significant.

DISCUSSION

Conflict between individuals can occur in organizations in which the job requires mutual interactions among employees. Research examining the antecedents and the outcomes of interpersonal conflict may help organizations build an employee-friendly organizational culture that fosters collegiality and productive work. This study results show that salesperson's role stress has a positive relationship to work overload, which in turn can lead to higher interpersonal conflict. We also found that salespeople can reduce this interpersonal conflict by working smart.

Sales jobs are known to be stressful, as salespeople often face conflicting and ambiguous situations. They view role conflict and role ambiguity as an expected "comes with the job" issue and try to accommodate themselves to the conflicting or ambiguous directions. However, this accommodation can also create the perception of running around in circles and unproductive work and makes them frustrated. It can result in mental and physical fatigue because of the additional effort required to meet these demands. Studies of interpersonal conflict in organizations show that perceptions of excessive workload can also cause anger and irritation (e.g., Fox, Spector, and Miles 2001). Individuals may vent their festering negative emotions by being rude to others, ultimately affecting the quality of coworker relationships. Our study of financial salespeople in South America supports this by showing a positive work overload–interpersonal conflict relationship.

Earlier research examining stressors on salespeople have been conducted primarily in developed countries with individualistic cultures such as the United States (e.g., Behrman and Perreault 1984; Netemeyer, Brashear-Alejandro, and Boles 2004). European studies on stress and burnout have focused largely on Dutch health-care workers and nonsales employees (Schaufeli et al. 2009; Taris and Schreurs 2009; Van den Broeck et al. 2008). In addition, research examining the

relationship between work overload and interpersonal conflict is limited, in spite of research showing that employee conflict is positively associated with hours of work (e.g., Spector, Dwyer, and Jex 1988). To our knowledge, research specifically examining the relationship between work overload and interpersonal conflict in developing economies is lacking.

In view of this, the current study results make a unique contribution by explaining the relationship between work overload and interpersonal conflict among salespeople in developing economies. These findings are important because firms are seeking growth in emerging economies that are highly collectivistic (e.g., Brazil, Russia, India, China). As they expand their marketing operations to these countries, firm need to understand how workplace stress can affect their operations, particularly their employees.

Sales and service employees in emerging economies are facing the new reality of consumerism and idiosyncratic demands from customers. These countries have large populations with high disposal incomes that are becoming increasingly materialistic and quality conscious. These customers also see availability of numerous options for products and the increased competition among eager suppliers. They have discovered the power of consumers and thus have become extremely demanding (Gopal and Srinivasan 2006). Salespeople are forced to accommodate rising and often unreasonable customer demands while balancing resource constraints. The enthusiasm on the part of the salesperson to meet customer needs may lead to frustration when faced with excessive demands from customers and ambiguous directions from profit-driven managers. In a way, motivated salespeople who are keen to meet customer needs may run the greatest risk of interpersonal conflict with coworkers.

This study shows that role stress affects emotional exhaustion directly as well as by creating work overload perceptions and interpersonal conflict at the workplace. Collectivistic societies emphasize interdependence and reliance on friends and extended family for emotional support (Liu and Spector 2005). Conflicts with coworkers at the workplace are thus likely to cause significant distress to individuals in societies that value group harmony (Liu and Spector 2005). However, conflict in collectivistic societies operates in a more subtle way. A study of university employees in China and the United States showed that Chinese employees are more likely to report more “indirect” conflict than “direct” conflict (Liu, Spector, and Shi 2007). Research investigating how indirect (covert) and direct (overt) sources of conflict affect employees is still lacking. Research examining how covert and overt conflict affects salespeople is warranted, given our findings that interpersonal conflict is a significant driver of emotional exhaustion. Perhaps national culture (e.g., collectivism/individualism) moderates the impact of interpersonal conflict on emotional exhaustion and other employee outcomes.

The findings indicate that interpersonal conflict affects job attitudes through emotional exhaustion. Job attitude results in lower performance (in-role and extra-role) and higher turnover intention. The effect of interpersonal conflict on job attitudes is fully mediated by emotional exhaustion. This demonstrates our earlier claim that interpersonal conflict is harmful to the organization in a number of ways. Salespeople who have hostile interactions with colleagues and supervisors become dissatisfied with their jobs, are emotionally exhausted, and are more likely to leave the organization. This is in line with Liu, Spector, and Shi’s (2007) claim that interpersonal

conflict is an understudied universal human stressor that has negative consequences on the psychological and physiological well-being of employees.

Interpersonal conflict may also lead to engagement in subversive acts (Liu, Spector, and Shi 2007) and workplace aggression (Hershcovis et al. 2007). Ironically, this may be more likely to occur when employees want to avoid direct confrontation. It appears that subversive acts take place when the employee cannot externalize and vent anger and frustration. Future research could also examine how *simpatía* (harmonious interpersonal relationships) and the respect for authority that characterizes Hispanic salespeople (Comer and Nicholls 2000) affect their engagement in counterproductive work behavior.

Consistent with previous research, this study also found that negative job attitudes are detrimental to the firm because they discourage extra-role behaviors. This further indicates that salespeople engage in behaviors that go beyond the call of duty when they are satisfied with their jobs and committed to the organization (Mulki, Jaramillo, and Marshall 2007).

If work overload is becoming an unavoidable phenomenon in the current marketplace, what strategies can salespeople adopt to manage it and minimize interpersonal conflict? Our study results point out that if salespeople plan their work well, focus on their goals, and direct their efforts strategically, they may reduce interpersonal conflict with coworkers. By prioritizing their tasks and being strategic in their interactions and in shepherding customer requests with coworkers, they can minimize the potential for interpersonal conflict.

The current research has several managerial and theoretical implications. From a managerial view, it is important to structure an ambitious yet not overwhelming workload for salespeople. In general, salespeople are known to work long hours in pursuit of higher sales, which may increase performance in the short run but can lead to emotional exhaustion, turnover, and diminished performance over time. It is also critical to understand that an absence of complaints does not necessarily mean that all is well. In fact, research has shown that employees vent their frustration by both overt and covert means (Liu, Spector, and Shi 2007). In the current competitive and high-pressure sales environment, interpersonal conflict may be much more prevalent than is recognized. However, some salespeople may not have developed an adequate set of coping skills to deal with interpersonal conflict. This situation may increase job dissatisfaction and is probably related to lower levels of commitment and greater defection intentions.

As firms expand operations in emerging economies, they need to train salespeople to plan and organize their work. They also need to stress the importance of being assertive in asking for clear unambiguous directions from their supervisors. They also have to be diplomatic but firm in refusing unrealistic demands from their customers. Training salespeople on positive approaches to resolving interpersonal conflict may be a relatively simple step that could reward itself by positive workplace attitudes and outcomes.

LIMITATIONS

This research has some limitations. First, the use of self-reporting measures of the model constructs can result in social desirability bias. However, several steps were taken during data

collection to minimize social desirability bias. For example, we guaranteed anonymity and used reverse-scored items (Podsakoff et al. 2003). Also, survey responses were mailed back directly to the university researchers, thereby minimizing the potential for socially desirable responses (Podsakoff et al. 2003). In addition, because our study used a cross-sectional sample, causality of relationships cannot be claimed.

A limitation inherent to structural equation models is the existence of a large number of models that provide a statistically equivalent fit (MacCallum et al. 1993). However, theory, prior research, and meaningfulness of the model all justify the hypothesized relationships (MacCallum et al. 1993). Future research using experimental designs or longitudinal data can be used to investigate the causal links among the model constructs. Future studies can also validate our findings using sales forces from other industries.

Finally, this study used samples from South America, which differs from the United States with regard to individualism/collectivism levels and power distance (Hofstede 1997). Liu, Spector, and Shi (2007) indicate that national culture affects employee perceptions of stress and their effect on job attitudes and behaviors. However, definitive claims about national culture's role cannot be made because this study did not measure national culture. Future research is needed to address this limitation.

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APPENDIX

Study Measures, Measurement Model standardized Factor Loadings, and Reliability Indices

Scale Items	Standardized Factor Loadings
Work Overload (Roberts, Lapidus, and Chonko 1997)	
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.70; average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.38	
I have an excessive workload.	Dropped
There are not sufficient personnel to perform a required task.	0.54
My job places a great number of conflicting demands upon me.	0.76
I am required to attend too many meetings.	0.76
I have difficulty meeting performance standards.	0.60
Interpersonal Conflict (Spector and Jex 1998)	
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.77, average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.53	
How often do you get into arguments with others at work?	Dropped
How often do other people yell at you at work?	0.79
How often are people rude to you at work?	0.88
How often do other people do nasty things to you at work?	0.71
Role Ambiguity (Singh, Verbeke, and Rhoads 1996)	
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.80, average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.57	
I receive incompatible request from two or more people.	0.82
I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.	0.96
I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	0.74
Role Conflict (Singh, Verbeke, and Rhoads 1996)	
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.60, average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.43	
Clear, planned goals and objectives for my job. (reversed)	Dropped
I know exactly what is expected of me. (reversed)	0.60
I know how my performance is going to be evaluated. (reversed)	0.68
Organizational Commitment (Speier and Venkatesh 2002)	
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.81, average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.68	
I am proud to tell others that I am a part of this organization.	0.99
I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	0.82
I feel a sense of ownership for this organization rather than just being an employee.	Dropped
Job Satisfaction (Spector 1985)	
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.72, average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.47	
In general, I don't like my job. (reversed)	0.55
All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	0.74
In general, I like working here.	0.91
Emotional Exhaustion (Maslach and Jackson 1981)	
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.78, average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.35	
I feel emotionally drained from my work.	0.79
I feel used up at the end of the workday.	0.75
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	0.74
Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	Dropped
I feel burned out from my work.	0.74
I feel frustrated by my job.	Dropped
I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	0.73
Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	0.45
I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	0.40
In-Role Performance (Low et al. 2001)	

Scale Items	Standardized Factor Loadings
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.76, average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.31	
Building effective relationships with customers.	0.60
Making effective sales presentations to customers and prospects.	0.52
Achieving annual sales targets and other objectives.	0.58
Understanding our services and their applications.	0.64
Understanding customer needs and work processes.	0.44
Contributing to my sales unit profits.	0.66
Providing feedback to management.	Dropped
Extra-Role Performance (Bagozzi, Verbeke, and Gavino 2003)	
Helping	
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.79, average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.56	
I help colleagues who have heavy workloads.	0.76
I willingly give of my time to help colleagues around me.	0.95
I am always willing to lend a helping hand to colleagues.	0.76
Sportsmanship	
I tend to make problems bigger than they are. (reversed)	Dropped
I sometimes consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters. (reversed)	Dropped
I seldom look on the positive side of the matter. (reversed)	Dropped
Civic virtue	
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.66, average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.39	
I attend functions that are not required but that help the company image.	0.52
I attend company meetings that, although not required to attend, are recommended by the company.	0.62
I suggest improvements for procedures and practices of the company.	0.75
Courtesy	
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.71, average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.38	
I consider the impact of my actions on others.	0.73
I try to make work somewhat more pleasant for everyone in the company.	0.76
When conflicts arise at work, I try to solve them.	0.74
I try to avoid creating problems with others.	0.50
Working Smart (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994)	
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.71, average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.38	
I get to work without spending too much time on planning. (reversed)	Dropped
I think about strategies I will fall back on if I encounter problems in a sales interaction.	0.67
I keep good records about my accounts.	0.67
Each week I make a plan for what I need to do.	0.55
I am careful to work on the highest priority task first.	0.76
Planning is a waste of time. (reversed)	Dropped
Performance Orientation (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994)	
Composite reliability (ρ_c) = 0.71, average variance extracted (ρ_v) = 0.45	
I very much want my coworkers to consider me to be good at selling.	0.74
I feel very good when I know I have outperformed other salespeople in my company.	0.82
I always try to communicate my accomplishments to management.	0.67

Notes: All factor loadings are significant at $\alpha = 0.01$. Items with factor loadings below 0.40 were dropped from the measurement model. A Spanish version of the instrument can be obtained from the authors upon request.