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Pressure Selling or Customer Oriented Selling: Does Type
A Behaviour Pattern in Salespeople Affect
Their Selling Style?

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of
Arts in Psychology at Massey University at Palmerston North.

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ABSTRACT

The current study empirically investigated the effect of type A behaviour pattern on their tendency for salespeople to use either pressure selling, or customer oriented selling. The indirect effect of two sources of Type A behaviour were considered. Firstly, dispositional characteristics in salespeople that seemed to elicit type A behaviour were considered. Secondly the effect of role overload on eliciting type A behaviours from type B salespeople were also considered. The data was analysed with structural equation modelling. Hierarchical regression was used to test for interactions. It was found that both dispositional and stress-related type A behaviours indirectly affected the selling style used by salespeople. Firstly, it was found that dispositional and stress-related aspects of type A behaviour could increase the tendency for salespeople to become depressed. Depression tended to decrease the tendency for salespeople to use customer oriented selling, and increase the tendency for salespeople to use pressure selling. Secondly, although both dispositional and stress related aspects of type A increased the tendency for salespeople to become impatient, only partial support was found for the effect of impatience on increasing pressure selling in salespeople. Thirdly, the "motivated achieving" aspect of type A behaviour tended to increase the likelihood that salespeople would use customer oriented selling, and reduced their tendency to become depressed. No support was found for an interaction between the dispositional and stress-related aspects of type A behaviour in salespeople. The implications of these results were discussed. Recommendations were made for interventions that may reduce the effect of antecedent variables on dysfunctional aspects of type A behaviour pattern in salespeople.

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PART ONE: INTRODUCTION

NATURE AND PURPOSE OF THE CURRENT STUDY

Recent Trends in Sales

Over recent years there has been a move away from sales-oriented strategies that have focused on short-term sales volume, to customer-oriented strategies that focus on building long-term relationships with customers (e.g. Dwyer, Schurr, & Sejo Oh, 1987; Ganesan, 1994; Levitt, 1983; Manohar & Narayandus, 1995; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Sengupta, Krapfiel & Pusuteri, 1997; Wathne, Biong, & Hiede, 2001; Wilson, 2000). According to Levitt (1983) sales transactions often occur as a stream rather than as discrete events, therefore, organisations should seek to build relationships with customers to capitalise on the ongoing stream of transactions.

Type A Behaviour and Salespeople

Focus of the Current Study

The current study will aim to investigate how type A behaviour in salespeople may affect the ability of salespeople to build long-term relationships with their customers. It seems intuitively likely that the hard driving, impatient aspects of type A behaviour (e.g. Matthews, 1982) may result in salespeople exerting pressure when selling to customers. It also seems intuitively likely that this pressure may undermine relationships with customers (Bauer, Baunchalk, Ingram, & La Forge, 1998; Jolson, 1997)

Area of the Current Study

The current study investigates a relatively new area of research. Firstly, there does not appear to be any published literature that has considered the effect of type A behaviour in salespeople on their relationships with customers. Secondly, the predominate focus

on type A behaviour pattern (TABP) and its posited relationship with CHD has meant that type A research into areas of interest to the current study tend to have been investigated in less depth.

Theoretical Basis for the Current Study

The current study will draw on a wide body of theory and empirical research to develop a specific theory to predict the likely effect of TABP in salespeople on their ability to build relationships with clients through customer oriented selling. This study will investigate, firstly, the increasing focus on building relationships with customers rather than using sales oriented approaches such as pressure selling, and secondly, the aspects of TABP likely to increase the tendency for salespeople to use pressure selling with their customers.

Analysis Methods in the Current Study

Structural Model

The current study will aim to develop a structural equation model to evaluate the theory to be developed. This model will have a number of paths. Each path will represent a specific hypothesis. By necessity, then, there will be a reasonably large number of hypotheses to test in this study.

Hierarchical Regression

Hierarchical regression will be used to test for interactions in the current study.

Objectives for the Current Study

Providing new directions for future research

This study is cross sectional in nature and depends entirely on the use of self-report surveys. Therefore, the current study is limited in a number of ways that will be discussed later. Because of these limitations, conclusions that can be drawn from this study will be considered tentative. However, it is hoped that this study will provide new directions for research by raising questions that could be investigated by future researchers.

Practical Implications

It is anticipated that the current research will provide some useful recommendations for managers. This study may provide guidance to help managers make better decisions in a number of areas. For instance, the current study may provide information to assist managers in employing sales staff, and deploying them in the most effective manner to build relationships with customers. Also, the current study may assist managers by suggesting how variables external to salespeople such as work environments, control systems, and organisational cultures and values (e.g. Bennett, Lehman, & Forst, 1999; Flaherty, Dalstrom, & Skinner, 1999; Joshi & Randall, 2001; Kelly, 1992) are likely to relate to type A behaviour in salespeople and their ability to build relationships with customers.

SALES ORIENTED AND CUSTOMER ORIENTED SELLING

Sales Oriented Selling

Sales Oriented Selling defined

At its extreme, the sales oriented approach to selling tends to be transactional in nature. Its focus is often on short-term maximisation of sales volumes and profits (Bauer, et al., 1998; Crosby, Evans, & Cowles, 1990; Ganeson, 1994; Kotler & Armstrong, 1993; Weitz & Saxe; 1982). In sales-oriented selling, salespeople tend to promote product features and benefits, and aim to persuade customers into purchasing their offerings. The sales-oriented approach is based on the assumption that customers can be convinced that a given product will best satisfy their needs. (Bauer, et al. 1998; Bell, 1993; Kotler & Armstrong, 1993; Saxe & Weitz, 1982).

Problems with Sales Oriented Selling

Sales oriented strategies that previously dominated selling have been criticised over recent years. A major criticism (e.g. Bauer, et al., 1998; Jolson, 1997; Saxe & Weitz, 1983) has been that sales oriented strategies can tend to lead to pressure selling, exaggeration, and dishonesty in salespeople with customers. Pressure selling can tend to undermine relationships with customers in several ways:

Restricting information flow from customers

Salespeople who use pressure selling to dominate customers can restrict information flow from customers. By restricting information flow, salespeople may not fully understand customer needs, and therefore may be less likely to satisfy their needs (Jolson, 1997; Soldow & Thomas, 1984; Weitz & Bradford, 1999). Rather than understanding customer needs it has been argued (Bauer et al., 1998; Bell, 1993; Jolson, 1997; Rackman, 1988) that the goal in sales oriented strategies is often to pitch the product; convince, or pressure customers to purchase, and; close the sale as quickly as

possible before the customer has an opportunity to purchase from another seller. Consequently, if sales oriented strategies decrease the likelihood that customer' needs are fully understood, then needs may not be accurately met, and customers may be dissatisfied with the outcome. Dissatisfied customers seem less likely to seek future interactions with salespeople who have been the source of the dissatisfaction (Bauer, et al., 1998; Jolson, 1997).

Undermining customer trust

The sales oriented approach to selling has also been criticised by proponents of relationship selling because this style of selling may undermine customer trust for salespeople. It has been argued (Crosby et al. 1990; Ganeson, 1994; Jolson, 1997; Keillor, Parker, & Pettijohn, 1999; Rackman, 1988) that the pressure, exaggeration, and dishonesty thought to be associated with sales oriented selling can undermine customer trust in salespeople. Firstly, customers who feel pressured into a sale may not believe that the salesperson has their best interests in mind. Secondly, exaggeration and dishonesty from a salesperson can lead the customer to doubt the credibility of the salesperson.

Advantages of Sales Oriented Selling

Despite these criticisms, it has been argued that there are a number of advantages to the sales oriented approach to selling. Firstly, some customers prefer salespeople to use sales oriented methods (Bauer et al., 1998). Secondly, sales oriented strategies may be more successful; for sales that are low in value; where the risk in the sale is low for the customer; if it is unlikely that there will be an ongoing relationship between the customer and the salesperson after the sale, or; if the transaction can be completed in one interaction (Bauer, et al., 1998; Crosby et al., 1990; Keillor, et al., 1999; Kelly, 1992; Weitz & Saxe, 1982). Thirdly, sales oriented strategies are likely to be less risky in that they require less initial investment and are likely to have higher short-term results than relationship selling approaches (Joshi & Randall, 2001).

Customer Oriented Selling

Customer Oriented Selling Defined

According to Saxe & Weitz (1982), customer orientation is the marketing concept being applied in the selling context. Customer oriented selling focuses on understanding customer needs as accurately as possible, and meeting those needs as accurately as possible.

Conditions Required for Customer Oriented Selling

Customer oriented selling strategies focus on eliciting information from customers so their needs can be clearly understood by the salesperson (Lambert, Marmorstein & Sharma, 1990; Saxe & Weitz, 1982). Rather than dominating dyadic exchanges, the customer oriented approach recommends that salespeople should maintain equality in the relationship so that information can flow freely from both sides (Comstock & Higgins; 1997; Franwick, Porter, & Crosby, 2001; Jolson, 1997; Soldow & Thomas, 1984; Weitz & Bradford, 1999). Furthermore, salespeople should focus on building trust with customers so that salespeople are perceived by the customer as credible, dependable, and genuinely concerned for their needs (Barnes, 1981; Doyle & Roth, 1992; Dwyer et al. 1987; Ganesan,1994; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Levitt, 1983; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Shirdeshmakh, Singh, & Sabel, 2002). Through gaining customer trust and satisfying their needs accurately, it is hoped that customers will desire future interactions with the salesperson, and as a consequence, become committed to a long term relationship with the salesperson (Doyle & Roth, 1992; Ganesan, 1994; Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

Skills Required for Customer Oriented Selling

In order to be effective, customer oriented salespeople should be skilled at:

- Asking probing questions that enable the customer to share important information with the salesperson (De Cormier & Jobber, 1993; Rackman, 1988.)
- Listening empathetically to customers and demonstrating genuine concern for their problems (Castleberry, Shepherd, & Ridnour, 1999; Comer & Drollinger, 1999; Ramsey & Sohi, 1997).
- Cognitively processing information accurately so that needs are clearly understood (MacIntosh, Angling, Szymanski, & Gentry, 1992; McIntyre, Claxton, Anselmi, & Wheatley, 2000).
- Being flexible and adaptable to the customers needs and communication style (Boorom, Golsby & Ramsey, 1998; Lambert et al., 1990; Levy & Sharma 1994; Spiro & Weitz, 1990; Weitz, 1981; Weitz, Sujan, & Sujan, 1986; Williams & Spiro, 1985).
- Matching a solution to customer needs as accurately as possible (Jolson, 1997; Rackman, 1988; Saxe & Weitz, 1983).
- Avoiding opportunistic behaviour with customers that could undermine trust (Doyle & Roth, 1992; Ganesan, 1994; Morgan & Hunt, 1994)
- Demonstrating reliability and consistency in their dealings with customers (Doyle & Roth, 1992).

Implications for the Current Study

It follows that those skills mentioned in the previous paragraph are only likely to have most opportunity for use by salespeople if; the flow of information from the customer is not restricted by the salesperson (Jolson, 1997; Soldow & Thomas, 1984; Weitz & Bradford, 1999), and; there is an ongoing relationship between customers based on trust and commitment, as was mentioned earlier (Doyle & Roth, 1992; Ganesan, 1994; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). It follows then that any variables that restrict the flow of information from customers or undermine the customer's trust in the salesperson, may work against customer oriented selling objectives.

Advantages of Customer Oriented Selling Methods

It has been argued (e.g. Levitt, 1983; Rackman, 1988) that relationship selling methods are appropriate for products when; products are high in value or complex; sales are likely to occur as an ongoing stream of transactions, and; when customers expect various after-sales services to be provided by the salesperson. These characteristics apply to many products in many markets; for instance; the service industry; industrial markets, and; other business-to-business selling (Bauer et al. 1998; Crosby et al. 1990; Ganeson, 1994; Humphreys & Williams, 1996; Keillor et al., 1999; Kelly, 1992; Rackman, 1988).

Disadvantages with Customer Oriented Selling

However, despite the advantages that the customer oriented approach to selling seems to offer in terms of building long-term relationships with customers, there are a number of disadvantages to the customer oriented approach selling. Customer oriented strategies can be; riskier than sales-oriented selling strategies because they require a higher initial investment from organisations with no guaranteed pay-back (Joshi & Randall, 2001); less successful than the sales-oriented approach if ongoing relationships are unlikely to develop between buyer and seller (Garabino & Johnson, 1999), and; less effective than sales oriented selling strategies when the sales transaction can be completed during one interaction between salesperson and customer (Rackman, 1988).

TYPE A BEHAVIOUR PATTERN

Type A Behaviour Introduced

Type A Behaviour Pattern Defined

Type As have been described as individuals who are "aggressively involved in a chronic struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of other things or other persons." (Friedman & Rosenman, 1974, p. 67). The major components of type A behaviour pattern (TABP) are thought to be "competitive achievement striving, a sense of time urgency and impatience, aggressiveness, and easily aroused hostility." (Booth-Kewley & Friedman, 1987, p. 343).

Type B Behaviour Defined

Type B individuals tend to be classified according to their absence of type A features. Type B individuals, therefore, are thought to be more relaxed, less achievement oriented, and less irritable than type A individuals (Siegman, 1994).

Background to Type A Behaviour Pattern

Type As have been conceptualised as hostile competitive individuals who tend to be impatient and hurried in their behaviours (e.g. Booth-Kewley & Friedman, 1987; Friedman & Rosenman, 1974; Ganster, Shaubroeck, Sime, & Mayes, 1991; Price, 1983). The main focus of research into type A behaviour pattern has been on investigating a possible causal relationship between TABP and cardiovascular heart disease (CHD) (e.g. Friedman & Rosenman, 1974; Haynes et al., 1978; Price, 1983). The focus over recent years has shifted towards anger, hostility and aggression as likely

psychological causes of CHD, and other health symptoms either in association with TABP (Birks & Roger, 2000; Booth-Kewley & Rosenmann, 1987; Karlberg, et al. 1998; Spicer, Jackson & Scragg, 1993), or independent from TABP (Barefoot et al. 1993; Gidron & Davidson, 1996; Gidron, Davidson & Bata, 1999; Siegman, 1994).

Relevance of Type A Behaviour Pattern to the Current Study

This study considers the effect of TABP on the relational behaviour of salespeople in the salesperson-customer dyad. Type A behaviour is relevant to sales because research suggests that TBAP can lead to impatience and dominance behaviour. (Glass, 1977; Lamond, Scudder, & Dickenson, 1993; Price, 1983; Stensrund, 1985; Strube, Keller, Oxenberg, & Lapidot, 1989; Wright, Newman, McCormick, & Harding, 1994; Yarnold, & Grimm, 1988; Yarnold, Mueser, & Grimm, 1985). This behaviour could work against salespeople building long-term relationships with customers (Jolson, 1997; Soldow & Thomas, 1984; Weitz & Bradford, 1999). In other words, it seems that type A behaviour may tend to be associated with pressure selling rather than customer oriented selling. It follows then that type A behaviour may be of concern to managers who wish to pursue customer oriented selling strategies in their organisations.

Previous Research into Type A Behaviour and Sales

Only a few previous studies have considered TABP in the sales setting. These studies have tended to focus on TABP in salespeople in relation to; sales performance in terms of sales volume (Bluen, Barling, & Burns, 1990; Bartkus, Peterson, & Ballenger, 1989; Lee & Gillen, 1989; Matteson, Ivancevich, & Smith, 1984; Sager, 1991); planning ability (Barling, Kelloway, & Cheung, 1996); occupational stress (Sager, 1991), and depression (Bluen et al., 1990). However, none of these studies have considered the effect that TABP in salespeople might have on relationships with customers. Consequently, previous research into TABP in salespeople is not particularly helpful for the current study.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS FOR THE CURRENT STUDY

Some space will first be given to considering some theoretical issues related to TABP that are relevant to the current study.

Trait Type A versus State Type A Behaviour

An important theoretical consideration for this study is the difference between trait and state type A behaviour. The term "trait" is used very loosely in this study because, strictly speaking, TABP is not considered to be a true trait, but rather, "a set of overt behaviors". (Matthews, 1982, p. 293) However, the term "trait" is used to differentiate dispositional TABP from "state" TABP. The term "type A behaviour pattern" (TABP) used in this study without further qualification should be taken to mean "trait type A behaviour pattern".

Trait type A behaviour is thought to be a dispositional characteristic that defines individual behaviour in a wide variety of circumstances. (e.g. Booth-Kewley & Friedman, 1987; Friedman & Rosenman, 1974; Ganster, Shaubroeck, Sime, & Mayes, 1991; Price, 1983). On the other hand, "state" type A behaviour is considered an individual response to stress that can result in impatient, irritable behaviour similar to behaviour associated with TABP (Bennett, Gallacher, & Johnston, 1990; Stewart & Barling, 1996). This possibility will be considered in more depth later. The important point for this study is that both trait and state TABP may affect customer relationships in similar ways.

Social Cognitive Learning Theory and Type A Behaviour Pattern

This study will draw heavily on a theory for type A behaviour developed by Price (1983). This theory takes a social cognitive learning approach to explaining TABP, drawing on the work by Bandura into a social cognitive learning basis for behaviour (e.g. Bandura, 1986). Price's theory has been recently described as "probably the most complex theoretical account available" (Spicer, Jackson, & Scragg, 1993, p. 244) for explaining TABP. An important consideration in Price's theory that will be relevant for the current study is the theoretical origins of type A behaviour in child development.

Origins of Type A Behaviour in Child Development

Developmental influences in childhood experiences

It has been argued (Price, 1983) that developmental influences have a causal role in the development of the dysfunctional belief systems in children thought to underpin TABP in adults. Developmental influences are thought to result in reasonably stable, permanent personality characteristics in adulthood (Davison & Neale, 1998; Price, 1983). Price (1983) proposed a developmental process that may lead to the development of DBS in children. Price (1983) argued that parental and other societal influences could result in TABP development that is grounded in a number of dysfunctional beliefs.

Parental influence and the development of TABP in children

According to Price (1983), parents may drive their children hard to achieve. In doing so, they may; set unrealistically high standards for their children; drive their children hard to achieve standards; make parental approval contingent on achievement; make approval ambiguous so children are unsure when this parental approval has been obtained; and model work behaviour that suggests to children that success is gained through over-commitment to work.

Dysfunctional belief system thought to underlie TABP

Parental influences, and other developmental influences were thought to lead to a dysfunctional belief system (DBS) that may underpin TABP. Several of the beliefs thought to underpin TABP were that: self-worth is variable; self-esteem is dependent on

achievement outcomes; it is difficult to know when acceptable standards have been reached, and; that resources, including time, are scarce for meeting these standards. Price, (1983) theorised that this DBS is positively related to constant striving by type As to reach continually higher standards of achievement to reinforce their self-esteem in as shorter time as possible. It was argued (Price, 1983) that the tendency for type As to set themselves unrealistically high achievement standards in order to boost their self esteem: tends to set type As up for failure; leads type As to evaluate their performance negatively even when high standards are achieved, and; leads to striving for even higher goals in order to support their self-esteem.

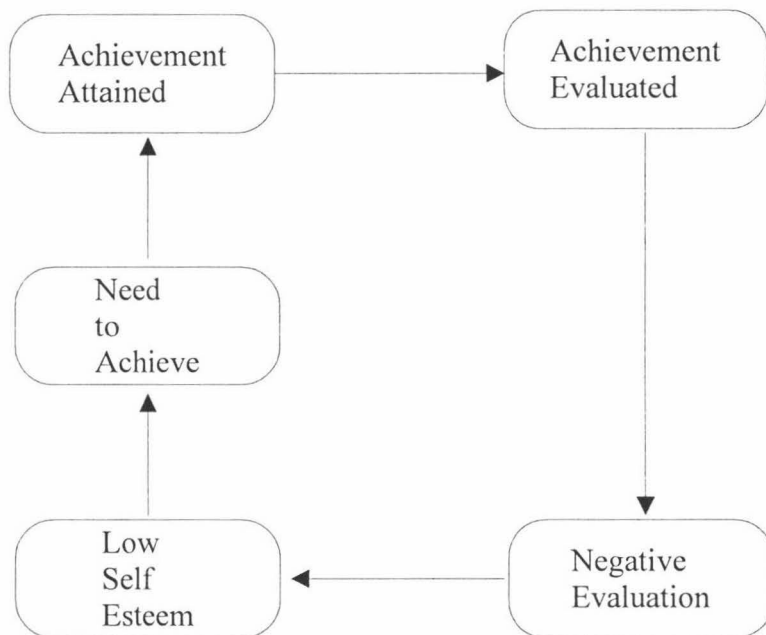


Figure 1. Effect of the dysfunctional belief system

The DBS and cognitive vulnerability to depression

The DBS is thought to increase cognitive vulnerability to depression through increasing; anxiety (Matthews, 1982; Price, 1983; Friedman, Hall, & Harriss, 1985); negative self-attributions about achievement standards (Price, 1983); and, impatience if results do not come quickly (Price, 1983; Birks & Rogers, 2000; Helmreich, Spence & Pred, 1988). It has been argued (Abramson, Metalsky, & Alloy, 1989; Birks & Rogers, 2000; Ingram, Miranda, & Segal, 1999; Price, 1983), that these characteristics can contribute to type As becoming cognitively vulnerable to depression.

Empirical support for Price's theory

There has been support for Price's theory in the type A literature. For instance, Ward and Eisler (1987) reviewed a body of earlier research that supported Price's (1983) theory. Ward and Eisler, (1987) also conducted several experimental studies (126 students in the first experiment and 90 students in the second) and a follow-up questionnaire with samples of these students. It was found that type As tended to set themselves unrealistically high goals. Also, type As tended to evaluate their performance negatively in achieving these goals. A follow-up survey suggested that failure to achieve goals was positively related to psychological distress.

Krug & Johns (1986) provided indirect support for Price's (1983) argument that low self-esteem contributed to the development of type A behaviour pattern. It was argued that "anxious insecurity and need for social approval reasonably explained an overt pattern of competitiveness, aggressiveness, haste, impatience, restlessness, and tenseness, each carried beyond normal limits." (p. 131). Need for social approval seems consistent with social comparison theory; individuals make comparisons with relevant others in order to reinforce their self-esteem (Feldman & Ruble, 1981; Franzoi, 1996). Birks & Roger (2000) have also posited low-self esteem as a causal factor in TABP. This study will be considered in more detail later.

Consistent with Price's (1983) theory, type A behaviour has been observed in school-age children (e.g. Matthews, 1979; Matthews & Volkin, 1981; Feather & Volkmer, 1991). These studies are consistent with the view that TABP is a result of distal developmental or biological factors rather than proximal stress in the work environment. These studies do not specifically exclude the possibility of genetic influences in the development of TABP. However, the important point for this study that these earlier studies are at least consistent with Price's (1983) theory that argues that social influences in childhood contribute to the development of TABP in adults.

Implications for the Current Study

Applying Price's (1983) theory to the sales environment, it seems likely that trait TABP in salespeople may be a dispositional characteristic that defines their behaviour in a wide variety of circumstances. Firstly, it follows that any tendency for trait type A

salespeople to use pressure selling with customers may also be a dispositional characteristic. Secondly, this DBS may also increase the vulnerability of salespeople to depression. Consequently, it seems intuitively likely that depression in salespeople may also tend to undermine relationships with customers. It seems important for the current study to consider the possible effect of a DBS on trait type A behaviour in salespeople.

Need for Control and Type A Behaviour Pattern

Introducing Glass's Theory

Another type A theory that is important to this study is Glass's (1977) uncontrollability theory of type A behaviour. This theory was described as "the most systematic and comprehensive effort to conceptualise Pattern A". (Matthews, 1982, p. 308). The uncontrollability theory has been an enduring theory to explain type A behaviour (e.g. Barling, Kelloway, & Cheung, 1996; Matthews, 1982; Wright et al., 1994). This theory is relevant to the current study because it has been studied extensively in the context of interpersonal relationships, as will be seen later. Consequently, Glass's theory seems relevant to the behaviour of salespeople with customers. Also, the uncontrollability theory seems similar to the hopelessness theory of depression posited by Abramson et al. (1989) that has received considerable support over recent years (Davison & Neale, 1998). Because depression is an important variable in this study, Glass's type A theory also seems relevant in this respect.

Glass's Theory Explained

Glass (1977) posited that TABP is driven by a high need for control in type As. It was argued that type As tend to respond to stressful events by attempting to bring these events under control. If repeated attempts at control result in failure, it was argued that type As would tend to give up and become helpless (see figure 3). Experimental research conducted by Glass (1977) tended to support these arguments. Specifically, type As were likely to attempt to control stressful events that were salient to them. Glass's theory will be considered further in this study in relation to; stress associated with

sales targets; depression; and the tendency for salespeople to exert pressure on customers.

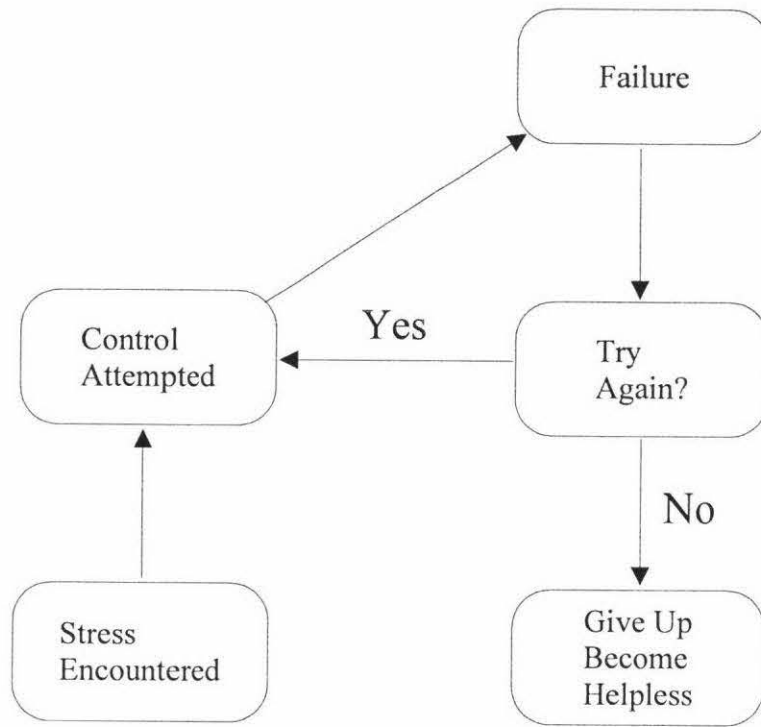


Figure 2. Uncontrollability theory of TABP

Achievement Striving and Impatience Irritability Dimensions

Move Towards Dimensional Measures of Type A Behaviour Pattern

Over recent years there has been a move away from global type A measures towards measures of type A dimensions. A problem that had been recognised with global measures of TABP was that studies based on global measures were often inconclusive. Inconclusive results were often found because differential effects from underlying type A dimensions have tended to confuse the results (e.g. Booth-Kewley & Friedman, 1987; Ganster, et al., 1991). Therefore, there has been interest in recent years in dimensions of type A.

A major focus in recent years has been on two dimensions of TABP: Achievement Striving (AS) and Impatience-Irritability (II). Differential effects have general been found for these dimensions. Firstly, AS has often been associated with functional outcomes (Barling, Kellowy & Cheung, 1996; Bluen et al., 1990; Feather & Volkmer, 1991; Helmreich et al., 1988; MacEwen & Barling, 1993). Secondly, II has often been associated with dysfunctional outcomes (Barling & Boswell, 1995; Barling & Charbonneau, 1992; Bluen et al., 1990; MacEwen & Barling, 1993; Spector & O'Connell, 1994).

Relevance to the Current Study

The AS and II dimensions are relevant to this study because differential effects may also be found for these dimensions in the sales environment. The possibility of differential effects will be considered later. The diagram below (figure 3. on the following page) is a summary of the findings from recent research.

Problems with Dimensional Measures of Type A Behaviour Pattern

Studies that have used the AS and II dimensions (Helmreich et al., 1988) have tended not to consider the underlying antecedents of the measured behaviours and have therefore not been very useful for recommending interventions that could modify the observed behaviours.

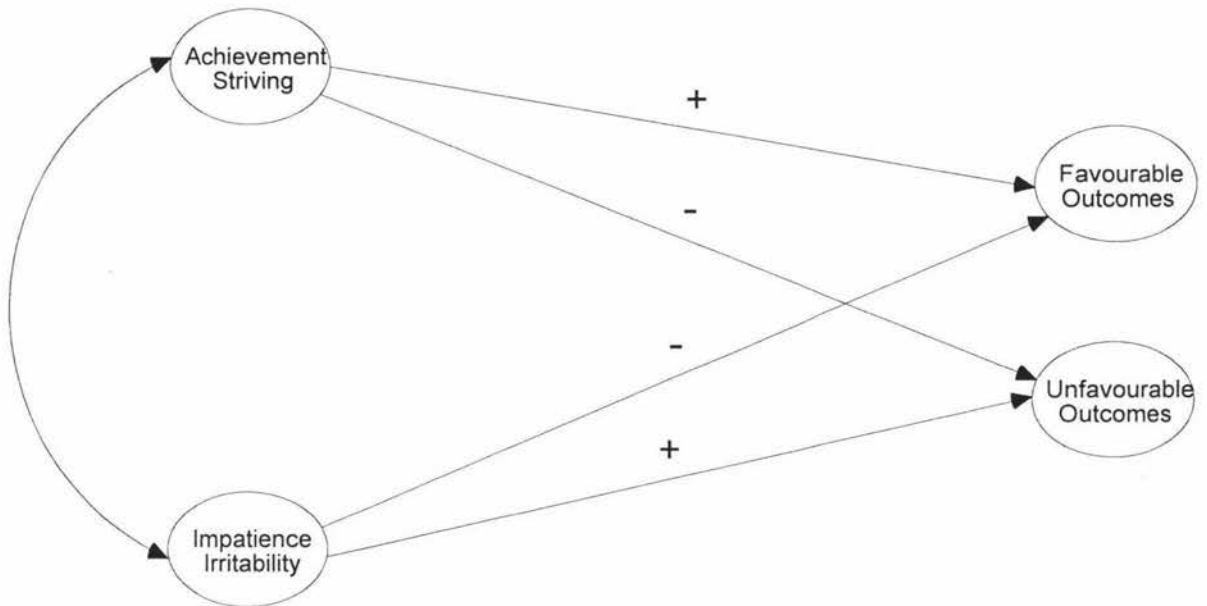


Figure 3. Achievement Striving Impatience Irritability Model

Toxic and Non-toxic Achieving Dimensions

Non-toxic and Toxic Achieving

Recently, Birks and Roger (2000) appear to have signalled a move back towards the original conception of TABP as a construct driven by achievement striving (e.g. Friedman & Rosenmann, 1974; Price, 1983), although retaining a dimensional approach to studying TABP. This recent study by Birks & Rogers (2000) considered "toxic" and "non-toxic" dimensions of TABP (see figure 4). This theory is relevant because it seems to integrate the dimensional approach to TABP pattern with earlier theories such as Price (1983) that have considered the likely effect of underlying variables on TABP.

Antecedents to Toxic and Non-toxic Achieving

Firstly, unlike recent dimensional studies, it has been posited in Birks & Rogers (2000) that achievement striving underlies both the "toxic" and non-toxic aspects of TABP. Birks and Roger (2000) found that both the toxic and non-toxic components "express a desire for achievement, but in the case of [toxic achievement] this is characterised by impatience, a hostile need to win at all costs, and anger if that goal is thwarted." (p. 1095) It is suggested in Birks & Rogers (2000) that the need for achievement that underlies "toxic" achieving differs with respect to self-esteem from the need for achievement that underlies "non-toxic" achieving (see figure 4. on the following page). Birks and Rogers have implied that high self-esteem underlies non-toxic achieving, and, similar to Price (1983), that low self-esteem may drive "toxic" achieving. The "non-toxic" and "toxic" dimensions are described briefly below.

Toxic achieving

Toxic achieving (Birks & Roger, 2000) appears to be characterised by; impatience; hostile competitiveness, and; anger if the desired objectives are not achieved.

Non-toxic achieving

The "non-toxic" achievement dimension (Birks & Roger, 2000) tends to be characterised by; an enjoyment of competition; a desire for success, and; the lack of the impatience, hostility, and anger associated with "toxic" achieving.

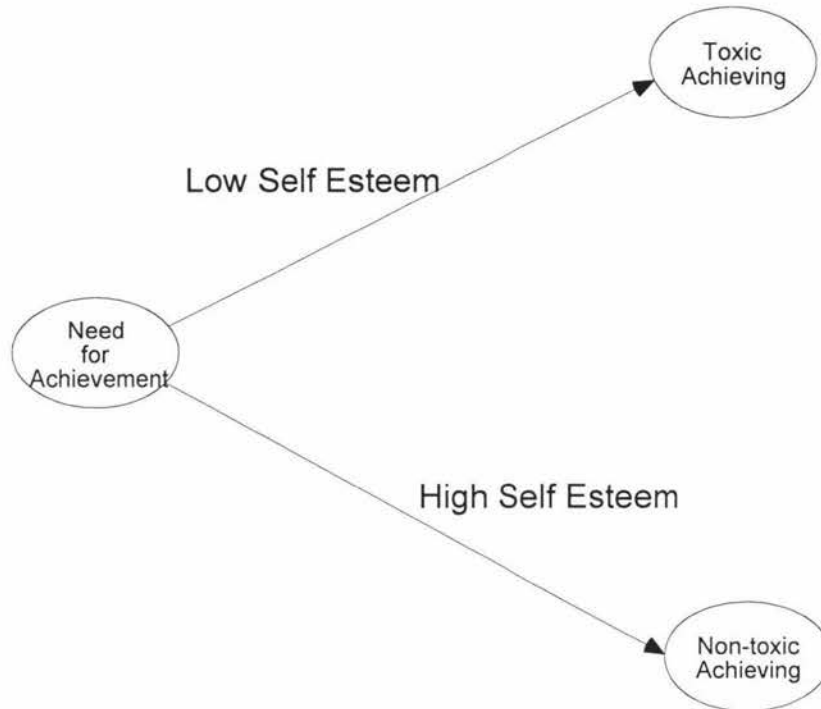


Figure 4. toxic and non-toxic achieving

State Type A Behaviour

According to Bennett et al., (1990), stressful circumstances can sometimes elicit type A behaviours from type Bs. This possibility is relevant to the current study because the sales environment is recognised as highly stressful (e.g. Klien & Verbeke, 1999; Sager, 1994; Sager, 1995; Singh, 1998). As will be seen later, it seems that stressors in the sales environment have the potential to elicit type A behaviour and increase vulnerability to depression in type B salespeople. These possibilities are relevant to the current study because they could have a similar effect on customer relationships as is expected from TABP in salespeople.

Hopelessness Theory of Depression

Relevance to the Current Study

The hopelessness theory of depression is relevant to the current study; because of its apparent relationship with TABP theory (e.g. Glass, 1977; Price, 1983), and; because depression seems likely to be negatively related to the tendency for salespeople to build relationships with customers, as will be seen later.

Hopelessness Theory of Depression Described

The hopelessness theory of depression (Abramson, Metalsky, & Alloy, 1989; Davison & Neale, 1998; Ingram Miranda, & Segal, 1998), is an influential cognitive theory of depression that seems to interlock with type A theories such as those posited by Price (1983) and Glass (1977). Similar to Glass (1997) the hopelessness theory holds that individuals who perceive that they are unable to control stressors in their lives can become helpless because they believe they have no response available to control the unpleasant experiences that are causing them stress. Individuals can then become hopeless and vulnerable to depression if they attribute their perceived lack of control to internal global causes rather than to external causes over which they have no control. Similar to the type A theory posited by Price (1983), the hopelessness theory of depression considers that low self-esteem may contribute to the tendency to "infer that negative life events will have severe negative consequences." (Davison & Neale, 1998, p. 236).

TYPE A BEHAVIOUR AND RELATIONSHIPS IN THE SALESPERSON-CUSTOMER DYAD

Trait Type A: Dysfunctional Belief System and High Need for Control

Relevance of Type A Theories to the Sales Environment.

Development of a dysfunctional belief system

Type A behaviour in salespeople may be a trait arising through developmental experiences in childhood, and may therefore be relatively resistant to change (Davison & Neale, 1998; Price, 1983). These childhood experiences may lead to the development of a dysfunctional belief system (DBS) in adult salespeople that seems likely to lead to certain behaviours consistent with TABP. Applying both Price's (1983) theory, and the recent work by Birks & Roger (2000) to the sales area, it seems likely that this that type A sales people may: be driven for quick sales results in order to boost their self esteem; tend to evaluate these results negatively, and; strive for even higher sales in an attempt to meet their self-esteem needs.

Integrating the Dysfunctional Belief System and Need for Control

Self-generated stress and type A behaviour pattern

It seems that Prices (1983) theory and Glass's (1977) theory are conceptually related. There is evidence to suggest that type As tend to create their own stress as they drive themselves hard to achieve (Hart, 1995; Matthews, 1982; Price, 1983). As a consequence, type As who drive themselves to achieve progressively higher standards in as shorter time as possible (Price, 1983) seem likely to encounter progressively more stress (Matthews, 1982). Glass's (1977) theory suggests that type As are likely to respond to stress with attempts to control the stressors. Repeated unsuccessful attempts at control are likely to result in helplessness, hopelessness, and vulnerability to depression (Abramson, 1989; Glass, 1977; Ingram et al., 1998; Price, 1983). There is

also evidence from the type A literature to suggest that stress can cause impatience and irritability in individuals (e.g. Conte, Schwenneker, Dew, and Romano, 2001). Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that those high in TABP may tend to be ineffective copers in stressful situations (Birks & Roger, 2000). Consequently, it seems likely that the self-induced stress that results from TABP may be responsible for the "toxic" aspects of TABP such as impatience, irritability, and cognitive vulnerability to depression.

Reactivity to self-generated stress

Success in the sales environment is usually measured in terms of financial outcomes such as sales targets, and financial incentives often include commission components (Eisenberger, Rhoades, & Cameron, 1999; Oliver & Anderson, 1994). It follows then, that the DBS proposed by Price, (1983) could motivate salespeople to strive for financial goals as indicators of successful achievement. It seems likely that type A salespeople will tend to drive themselves hard to meet these targets, and thereby experience considerable stress as a result (Hart, 1995; Matthews, 1982; Price, 1983). According to Glass (1977), type As are likely to seek to control stressors that are highly salient to them. In a similar way, sales objectives are often highly salient to salespeople (Oliver & Anderson, 1994). To the extent that type A salespeople find these objectives stressful, it seems likely that they will respond by attempting to control these objectives. If their repeated attempts at control fail, they seem likely to become reactive to this stress, and become impatient with customers, and cognitively vulnerable to depression (Abramson et al., 1998; Glass, 1977; Matthews, 1982; Hart, 1995; Ingram, 1998; Price, 1983; Stewart & Barling, 1996).

Comment about Child Experiences and the posited Dysfunctional Belief System

The current study will measure salespeople's memories of child experiences thought to lead to the development of a DBS, rather than the DBS itself. The presence of a DBS will be inferred if the predicted relationships between child experiences and other variables are supported. Measuring child experiences provides some evidence of causation, and allows environmental stress to be excluded with reasonable confidence as a possible explanation for the DBS. As will be seen later, stressors associated with the sales environment can elicit type A characteristics from type B salespeople.

Hypothesis One

Child experiences will increase motivated achieving in salespeople.

Hypothesis Two

Child experiences will increase impatience in salespeople.

Hypothesis Three

Child experiences will increase sales performance concerns in salespeople.

State Type A Behaviour

Similarities Between State and Trait Type A Behaviour

The following section will argue that state type A is similar to trait type A in that state type A behaviour is a response to stress (Bennett et al., 1990). However, state type A behaviour differs from trait type A behaviour in that state type A behaviour tends to result from external stressors rather than self-generated stress as seems likely in trait type A behaviour (Bennett, 1990; Glass, 1977; Hart, 1995; Matthews, 1982; Price, 1983).

State Type A Behaviour Pattern and Stress

Stress in the environment tends to exacerbate trait type A behaviour (Ganster, 1991; Matthews, 1982; Price, 1983). However, it also appears that stress is able to elicit type A characteristics from type Bs stressful situations. This possibility is relevant to the behaviour of salespeople because state TABP could have similar effects on relationships with customers as trait TABP in salespeople. There is evidence from the type A literature (Bennett, et al., 1990) to suggest that role stress may elicit type A characteristics from type Bs.

"Central to both theoretical approaches is that behaviour may vary according to the

individual's perceptions of differing environmental contingencies and demands: ... type Bs, given certain environmental contingencies may respond with type A behaviour." (Bennett et al., 1990, p. 155)

It follows from this line of argument that individuals need not necessarily be trait type As in order to display type A characteristics. Type Bs may display the toxic (Birks & Roger, 2000) aspects of TABP in certain contexts. The possible role of external stressors in eliciting impatience, urgency, and vulnerability to depression will be considered in the next paragraph.

Psychological reactivity to stress in state type A behaviour pattern

Occupational stress appears to contribute to both cognitive vulnerability to depression and impatient, irritable behaviour in the wider stress literature (Abramson et al., 1989; Barling & Kryl, 1990; Barling & MacIntyre, 1993; Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Schilling, 1989; Brief et al., 1988; Clark & Watson, 1988; Schleifer & Amick, 1991; Stewart & Barling, 1996). Consequently, consistent with Bennett et al., (1990) it seems reasonable to expect that type A symptoms may be elicited from type Bs who cannot cope effectively with the stressors in their environment (Erickson & Ursin, 1999).

Stress, Sales, and State Type A Behaviour

The possibility that stress may elicit type A symptoms in type Bs is relevant to the current study because sales is recognised as a stressful occupation. There is evidence to suggest that the sales occupation is highly stressful in terms of role conflict, ambiguity, overload, (Klien & Verbeke, 1999; Sager, 1994; Sager, 1995; Singh, 1998) and interpersonal conflict (Narayanan, Menon, & Spector, 1999). It has been argued that sales assumes a boundary spanning role across different organisations. As a result, salespeople must manage competing demands from managers and customers (Sager, 1994; Sager, 1995; Singh, 1998). Consequently, stress in the sales environment may elicit type A behaviours from type B salespeople. These behaviours may have similar effects on customer relationships to those that have been posited for type A salespeople. Furthermore, from a customer oriented selling perspective, there is evidence that emotionally sensitive salespeople, who tend to be highly responsive to customer needs, may be more reactive to stress in the sales environment than less emotionally sensitive

salespeople,

and therefore more vulnerable to burnout (Veberke, 1997). Consequently, stress in the sales environment may impact on customer relationships in several ways.

Likely Effect of Stress on Sales Behaviour with Customers

Considering this evidence, it seems that occupational stress has the potential to exacerbate trait type A behaviour in salespeople, elicit type A behaviour from type Bs, and reduce the effectiveness of salespeople who are dispositionally customer-oriented because of their emotional sensitivity to the needs of others.

Role Overload and Sales

Role overload defined

This study will focus on role overload as a likely source of stress for salespeople. Role overload has been described as the most common form of occupational stress. Role overload has been described as occupational stress that results when jobs require "excessive speed, output, or concentration." (Riggio, 1996, p. 250).

Role overload in the sales environment

Output controls such as sales targets and commissions seem to be likely sources of role overload for salespeople because these sales targets often involve deadlines, and require a certain amount of output within that time (Oliver & Anderson, 1994). Consequently at least several of the conditions for role overload in the previous paragraph seem to be met.

Could sales targets be intrinsically stressful?

Financial controls are commonly used to motivate individuals to work hard in a number of settings, including sales (Eisenberger, Rhodes, & Cameron, 1999; Oliver & Anderson, 1994). Because financial controls such as sales targets and commissions are intended to motivate employees to work hard (Eisenberger, et al., 1999), it seems that the financial objectives themselves are likely to be considered intrinsically stressful. Salespeople who have had previous experience in attempting to meet sales targets may be aware that a certain amount of effort could be required to meet a given target.

Consequently, salespeople who face challenging sales targets may feel overloaded before they even begin attempting to meet these objectives.

Financial controls and state TABP

It was argued earlier that stress can elicit type A behaviours from type B salespeople. As mentioned earlier, there is evidence to suggest that stressful situations may elicit type A behaviour from type Bs (e.g. Bennett, et al., 1990; Stewart & Barling, 1996). Consequently, sales targets that are stressful for type B salespeople may elicit type A behaviours that are harmful to customer relationships.

Implications for the Current Study

Rationale for measuring role overload

The review of the stress literature to this point suggests that occupational stress is an important antecedent for consideration in relationship to TABP and salespeople. The current study will focus on the suggested mediating effect of role overload because of its relevance to both TABP (e.g. Organ & Hui, 1995; Spector & O'Connell, 1994) and the sales environment (Klien & Verbeke, 1999; Sager, 1994; Sager, 1995; Singh, 1998), and because role overload is recognised as the most common form of occupational stress (Riggio, 1996).

Likely effect of role overload on sales performance

It seems that role overload in type B salespeople may exacerbate urgent, impatient type A behaviour that could undermine relationships with customers (Bennett et al., 1990; Ingram et al., 1998; Jolson, 1997; Stewart & Barling, 1996). Firstly, type B salespeople who feel under pressure to meet sales targets may tend to become impatient. Secondly, this impatience may lead them to use pressure selling in order to reduce their perceived stress. Thirdly, this response to stress may result in urgent, impatient behaviour from type B salespeople with their customers (e.g. Bennett et al., 1990; Schleifer & Amick, 1991; Stewart & Barling, 1996).

Hypothesis four

It is predicted that role overload will be positively related to impatience in salespeople.

Role Overload and Cognitive Vulnerability to Depression

There is evidence to suggest that individuals who appraise that the demands of their environments exceed their abilities to cope tend to engage in cognitive processes that increase their vulnerability to depression (e.g. Abramson, et al., 1999; Ericksen & Ursin, 1999; Ingram et al., 1998; Stewart & Barling et al., 1996). These processes will be explored later. However, applied to the sales environment, it seems reasonable to assume that type B sales people may become vulnerable to depression if they: perceive that they are unable to meet the performance standards they demand of themselves, or have set for them by their employers (e.g. Abramson, et al., 1999; Ericksen & Ursin, 1999; Ingram et al., 1998); hold themselves responsible for not meeting those standards (Abramson et al., 1999; Ingram et al., 1998; Rhodes & Cameron, 1999), and; perceive that they are unlikely to meet those standards in the future (Abramson et al., 1989; Ingram et al., 1998). Salespeople who meet three conditions are likely to engage in anxious and attributional thinking about their sales performance.

Hypothesis five

It is predicted that role overload will increase sales performance concerns in salespeople.

Interaction Between Type A Behaviour Pattern and Role Overload

There is evidence to suggest that trait TABP in individuals may tend to interact with stressors in the environment. TABP is conceptualised as an interaction between dispositional characteristics of the individual and stressful occupational environments (e.g. Friedman & Rosenman, 1974; Ingram et al., 1999; Matthews, 1982; Price, 1983). There is evidence to suggest that type As tend to perceive themselves as more stressed than type Bs when coping with the same stressors (Kirmeyer, 1988). Also, there is evidence to suggest that type As tend to experience higher physiological reactivity to stress than type Bs (Ganster, 1986). Continuing with this line of argument, it seems reasonable to assume that type As are also likely to experience higher psychological reactivity than type Bs to the same stressors. Consequently, it seems reasonable to assume that type A salespeople are likely to experience higher reactivity to role overload

in the sales environment than type B salespeople. This reactivity seems likely to be manifested in higher impatience and cognitive vulnerability to depression in type A salespeople than in type B salespeople coping with similar overload.

Hypothesis Six

It is predicted that the DBS in salespeople will interact with role overload. This interaction will explain significantly more variance in sales performance concerns than child experiences and role overload independently.

Hypothesis Seven

It is predicted that the DBS in salespeople will interact with role overload. This interaction will explain significantly more variance in impatience than childhood experiences and role overload independently.

Depression

Depression and the Current Study

Depression is of interest to this study because of its link to TABP in type A theory (Price, 1983) and in several other studies; one of these related to sales performance (Bluen et al. 1990); the other two related to marital satisfaction (Barling et al. 1990; MacEwen et al. 1993) Also, positive mood, the polar opposite of depression, tends to increase customer-oriented behaviour in salespeople (George, 1998). Therefore, by inference from these studies, it seems likely that depression will tend to decrease customer-oriented behaviour in salespeople, and perhaps increase the use of pressure selling. The aspect of depression of interest to the current study is the depressed mood and apathy associated with major depression, rather than other symptoms such as sleep disturbance or sexual dysfunction (Davison & Neale, 1998; Ingram et al., 1999).

Cognitive Vulnerability to Depression

TABP, self-esteem, and cognitive vulnerability to depression

It was argued earlier (Price, 1983) that type As tend to evaluate their performances negatively, and base their self esteem on their performance outcomes. Implications for type As who negatively evaluate their performances are that type As may use achievement instrumentally to boost self esteem. However, their achievements may not serve the instrumental goal of boosting self-esteem, as intended. Furthermore, it has been argued that low self-esteem increases cognitive vulnerability to depression (Ingram et al., 1999). It follows from this line of argument that type As may become vulnerable to depression because of their tendency to evaluate their achievements negatively and thus remain in a state of low self-esteem (Price, 1983).

Need for control, TABP and cognitive vulnerability to depression

Type As may become vulnerable to depression because they perceive that they are unable to control their desired outcomes (e.g. Glass, 1977; Wright et. al., 1994). The control theory posited by Glass (1977) to explain TABP is conceptually similar to the helplessness/hopelessness theory of depression (Abramson et al., 1989; Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978). Glass's (1977) theory holds that type As respond to stressful situations with repeated efforts to control the stressors. If these repeated efforts result in continual failure, then it is likely that they will give up and become helpless. Furthermore, type As seem likely to become vulnerable to stress associated with lack of control because they may tend to be ineffective copers in stressful situations (Birks & Rogers, 2000).

Integrating the hopelessness theory of depression

In a similar way, the helplessness/hopelessness theory of depression (Abramson, et al., 1989; Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978) holds that individuals who are unable to control stressful situations eventually become helpless. If individuals attribute their failure to exert control to stable, internal, causes, rather than external causes, these individuals are likely to feel hopeless and then become vulnerable to depression.

Implications for the Current Study

Applying these arguments to the sales environment, it is possible that type A salespeople could become vulnerable to depression for several reasons. Firstly, type A salespeople may tend to evaluate their achievements negatively. Even if they succeed in meeting or exceeding their sales objectives, meeting these targets may not improve their self esteem (Price, 1983). Secondly, type A salespeople may blame themselves should they find it difficult to control sales objectives. Thirdly, type As may tend to be ineffective in coping in stressful environments (Birks & Roger, 2000) Taken together, these possibilities may lead to type As becoming hopeless, and vulnerable to depression if they are unable to exert control in stressful environments (Abramson, et al., 1989; Glass, 1977).

Cognitive Vulnerability to Depression in Type Bs

State TABP and cognitive vulnerability to depression

Similar to type As, it seems that type Bs may become vulnerable if they perceive that they are unable to cope with stressful demands, and therefore become helpless or hopeless (Erickson & Ursin, 1999). However, it seems less likely that type Bs will either perceive failure as a threat to their self-esteem, or attribute failure to internal global causes for several reasons. Firstly, type Bs seem less likely to have the same high need for control that has been associated with type As (Glass, 1977; Price, 1983; Wright, et al., 1994). Secondly, it seems that Type Bs may be more likely than type As to attribute failure to environmental factors (Abramson, et al., 1989; Bennett et al., 1990). Thirdly, it seems that type Bs may be less cognitively vulnerable to depression from the effect of stress than type As in stressful situations. On the other hand, type Bs may still become cognitively vulnerable to depression depending on their individual coping and attributional styles (Abramson et al., 1989; Erickson & Ursin, 1999; Ingram et al., 1999; Strutton et al., 1995).

Specific causes for cognitive vulnerability to depression in type B Salespeople.

From a "state" type A perspective (Bennett, et al., 1990), there may be specific situations that increase the tendency for type Bs to attribute failure to internal rather than external factors. Firstly, it seems likely that sales targets may convey an implicit

suggestion to salespeople that they are in control of their destiny in terms of sales results (Eisenberger et al., 1999; Oliver & Anderson, 1994). For instance, Eisenberger et al., (1999) found that financial incentives were positively related to a high desire for control in participants in an experimental study. Secondly, if sales targets motivate type B salespeople to desire a high degree of control over their sales outcomes, and expect they can control those outcomes, it seems likely that their cognitive vulnerability to depression will tend to increase (Abramson et al., 1989; Glass, 1977; Ingram et al., 1998).

Implications for the Current Study

There are several reasons why salespeople may become vulnerable to depression. Firstly, it seems likely that both type A and type B salespeople may become vulnerable to depression if they: perceive that they can control their sales objectives; blame themselves if these objectives are not achieved, and; perceive that they are unlikely to meet these objectives in the future. Secondly, salespeople who are vulnerable to depression seem likely then to: perceive their sales objectives as threatening; begin to doubt their ability to meet their sales objectives, and; engage in anxious thoughts about their sales performance (Abramson et al., 1989; Glass, 1977; Ingram et al., 1998). It goes without saying that individuals who are cognitively vulnerable to depression are more likely to become depressed than individuals who are not cognitively vulnerable to depression (Abramson, et al., 1989; Ingram et al., 1998). The factor used in this study to measure cognitive vulnerability in salespeople specifically related to the selling environment will be called "sales performance concerns"

Hypothesis eight

Sales performance concerns will be positively related to depression in salespeople.

Depression and Customer Relationships

Relevance of Depression to the Current Study

The main concern with regard to depression in this study is the effect that depression may have on customer relationships. Since depression tends to reduce motivation and interest in life (Davison & Neale, 1998; Ingram et al., 1998; Stefanis & Stefanis, 1999) it seems highly likely that depressed salespeople will tend to engage in less sales activity. On the other hand, it seems reasonably clear that depressed salespeople must maintain a certain amount of activity in order to remain in their jobs. The quantity of activity by depressed salespeople is not of interest to this study. Of more interest to this study is the way depressed salespeople may interact with customers. There appear to be few, if any, published studies that have considered the relationship between depression in salespeople and their ability to build relationships with customers. Therefore, this study will rely on more general theories to predict how depressed salespeople might behave with customers with reference to the more general depression literature. It will be argued that depression may lead to an increased use of pressure selling, and a decreased customer oriented selling in salespeople.

Depression and Pressure Selling

Regardless of whether salespeople are type As or type Bs, it seems likely that some depressed salespeople will tend to use sales-oriented sales tactics such as pressure and exaggeration when they are selling to customers.

Conserving energy

Depressed salespeople may prefer pressure selling as a quick way to get results with minimum effort. Because depressed salespeople may decline in energy, activity, and become more apathetic than in their non-depressed state (Davison & Neale, 1998; Ingram et al., 1998; Stefanis & Stefanis, 1999), it seems likely that they will seek to minimise effort in performing their sales role. Consequently, it seems likely that depressed salespeople may prefer sales strategies that enable them to meet their sales objectives with minimum energy and activity.

Apathy about effect of pressure selling on customer relationships?

Depressed sales people may become apathetic about the effect that pressure selling may have on long-term relationships with customers (Davison & Neale, 1998; Ingram et al., 1998; Stefanis & Stefanis, 1999). Consequently, these salespeople may continue to use pressure selling to obtain quick results even though they may be aware that pressure selling could be harmful for long-term relationships with customers (Bauer et al., 1998; Jolson, 1997; Rackman, 1988; Saxe & Weitz, 1983).

Type A salespeople using pressure selling to escape depression

Type A salespeople may tend to use pressure selling as a strategy to gain quick results and thereby escape depression. Depressed type As are unlikely to remain in depression and tend to escape depression by setting even higher goals for which to strive (Price, 1983). Applying this argument to the sales environment, it seems that depressed type A salespeople may attempt to escape depression by setting themselves higher goals in terms of sales volume. This may result in increased pressure selling to gain quick results to meet these higher targets.

Implications for the Current Study

It seems reasonable on the basis of the previous arguments to expect that both depressed type A and type B salespeople may tend to exert pressure on customers in order to conserve energy in meeting sales targets and to escape depression.

Hypothesis Nine

It is predicted that depression in salespeople will increase the use of pressure selling by salespeople.

Depression and Customer Oriented Selling

There is evidence to suggest that depression in salespeople will reduce their tendency to use customer oriented selling.

Less awareness of customer needs

Even if depression does not always result in increased pressure selling in salespeople, it seems likely that depression will result in decreased customer oriented selling in salespeople. Firstly, depressed individuals tend to become more inwardly focused and therefore more aware of internally generated information. This inward focus also means that depressed individuals tend to be less aware of externally generated information and less perceptive of social cues in their interactions with others (Davison & Neale, 1998; Ingram et al. 1998). "Paying attention is exhausting for people who are depressed. They cannot take in what they read and what other people say to them." (Davison & Neale, 1998, p. 226). Secondly, customer-orientation in salespeople requires a shift towards perceiving, understanding, and responding to the needs of customers (e.g. Jolson, 1997; Saxe & Weitz, 1982). Consequently, this focus on customer needs implies that customer-oriented salespeople should be effective in interpreting the cues from their customers and proactive in meeting their needs (e.g. Lambert et al., 1990). However, it seems likely that depressed salespeople will be more inwardly focused, less likely to seek to information from customers about their needs, and less effective in interpreting and meeting customers' needs.

Less helping behaviour

It has been found that negative mood tends to lead to less helping behaviour in individuals (Aderman, 1972). Applying this tendency to sales, it seems likely that salespeople in a depressed mood will be less aware of customer needs and less helpful with customers.

Positive mood: the opposite of depression

It has been argued in a recent review (George, 1998) that positive mood is positively related to customer oriented selling. By inference then, depressed mood is likely to be negatively related to customer orientation in salespeople.

Implications for the Current Study

The arguments above imply that depressed salespeople will probably be less customer-oriented than non-depressed salespeople. Considering the arguments in this passage, it seems likely that depressed salespeople will be less customer-oriented and less helpful than non-depressed salespeople.

Hypothesis ten

It is predicted that depression will decrease customer oriented selling in salespeople.

Impatience

Relevance to the Current Study

The current study focuses on the impatience rather than the irritability aspect of type A behaviour (e.g. Birks & Roger, 2000; Helmreich, et al., 1988) because impatience seems more conceptually related to pressure selling. Customer oriented selling requires considerable patience on the part of sales people (Bauer et al., 1998; Jolson, 1997; Rackman, 1998). Consequently, impatient salespeople seem less likely to use customer oriented selling methods.

Impatience and pressure selling

Impatience is logically the polar opposite of patience. It follows logically that impatience in sales people will be incompatible with the customer oriented selling approach that recommends that salespeople should be patient with their customers (e.g. Jolson, 1997).

Impatience and interpersonal relationships

It seems likely that individuals who are impatient to achieve outcomes are likely to seek to control events and interpersonal relationships in order to ensure those outcomes are achieved as quickly as possible. For instance, Houston, Smith, and Zurawski, (1986), in their factor analysis of the Framingham type A scale, found that "Being bossy or

dominating" loaded onto the "Speed and Impatience" scale, providing support for this argument. It seems likely that type A salespeople who become impatient with customers may tend to dominate them with pressure in order to gain quick sales.

Evidence of dominating behaviour by type As in interpersonal relationships

A number of studies that have applied Glass's (1977) control theory to interpersonal relationships have consistently found that type As attempt to exercise control in group situations by dominating the group and limiting input from others in the group (Lamond, Scudder, & Dickenson, 1993; Stensrund, 1985; Strube, Keller, Oxenberg, & Lapidot, 1989; Yarnold, & Grimm, 1988; Yarnold, Mueser, & Grimm, 1985). There is also evidence that type As react to coercive communication from others by assuming a direct opposing position to the view that has been advanced by another (Matthews, 1982) suggesting that type A salespeople may react strongly to maintain control in interpersonal interactions with customers.

Because type As often seem to seek to dominate in group situations, it seems likely that type A salespeople may also attempt to dominate interpersonal encounters within the salesperson-customer dyad. Firstly, this interpersonal dominance behaviour may tend to result in a struggle for dominance by the type A sales person within the salesperson-customer dyad through the use of pressure selling in order to achieve quick sales (e.g. Glass, 1977; Lamond, Scudder, & Dickenson, 1993; Matthews, 1982; Stensrund, 1985; Strube, Keller, Oxenberg, & Lapidot, 1989; Wright et al., 1994; Yarnold, & Grimm, 1988; Yarnold, Mueser, & Grimm, 1985). Secondly, this tendency to exert dominance through pressure seems likely to restrict the flow of information from customers necessary for understanding their needs, as mentioned earlier (e.g. Jolson, 1997).

State type A Behaviour and Impatience in Salespeople

From a state type A perspective (Bennett, et al., 1990) it also seems likely that type B sales people who feel threatened by their sales targets, similar to type A salespeople, may also become impatient and attempt to dominate customers with pressure in order to meet their sales targets. The goal of state type As in using pressure with customers seems likely to be to reduce their perceived stress (Oliver & Anderson, 1994).

Hypothesis Eleven

Impatience will increase pressure selling in sales people.

Motivated Achieving

"Achievement striving" (Helmreich, et al., 1988) and "non-toxic achievement" (Birks & Roger, 2000) will now be subsumed under the one heading "motivated achieving" (MA), unless there are specific reasons to mention the other constructs. This change has been made to avoid unnecessary confusion by alternating between several terms, and in order to maintain consistency for the rest of the thesis. The "motivated achieving" title will be given to the factor that measures the achievement dimension in this study. Motivated achieving in this study refers to the tendency for individuals to set themselves high standards for achievement, and to drive themselves hard to achieve those standards (Birks & Roger, 2000; Ganster et al., 1991; Helmreich et al., 1988).

Relevance of Motivated Achieving to the Current Study

MA has been left to the end of the introduction because this construct seems to be associated with functional outcomes, unlike the other variables covered to this point that have tended to deal with dysfunctional outcomes. Firstly, MA has been found to be positively related to functional outcomes: in job performance (Barling, Kelloway & Cheung, 1996; Bluen et al., 1990; Feather & Volkmer, 1991; Helmreich et al., 1988); in satisfying marital relationships (MacEwen & Barling, 1993); in psychological well-being (Bluen et al., 1990; MacEwen & Barling, 1993), and; in physical well-being (Begley et al., 2000), but unrelated to health symptoms in one study (Birks & Roger, 2000). On the other hand, MA has been found to be positively related in several studies to apparently dysfunctional outcomes such as time pressure (Organ & Hui, 1995) and role overload (Spector & O'Connell, 1994). Therefore, since most studies cited above have found that MA seems to have beneficial rather than harmful effects in a variety of situations, it seems reasonable to expect that MA may also have beneficial effects on customer relationships. This possibility will now be explored.

Motivated Achieving and Interpersonal Relationships

Organisational research

One organisational study into type A behaviour has suggested that MA may be positively associated with building relationships. For instance, Organ & Hui (1995) found that MA was positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Intimate relationships

There is evidence to suggest that MA is beneficial to intimate relationships. The marriage relationship has been used as an analogy for the buyer-seller relationship, and therefore may provide some insight into the salesperson-customer dyad (Dwyer et al. 1987; Levitt, 1983). For instance, MA seems associated with satisfaction in the marriage dyad (MacEwen and Barling, 1993), hinting that MA may also be positively associated with building relationships between salespeople and customers.

Related construct from the motivation literature

There is evidence to suggest that "achievement motivation" (McClelland, 1961), a construct from the motivation literature, is positively related to customer oriented behaviour in salespeople. The similarity between MA and achievement motivation has been recognised by some type A researchers (e.g. Ganster et al., 1991). Achievement motivation (McClelland, 1961) has been positively related to pro-social behaviour such as solving customer problems (Puffer, 1987), and negatively related to "comfort with ethically questionable behaviours" in another study (Soyer, et al., 1999, p. 301). These findings suggested that achievement motivation (McClelland, 1961) may be positively related to building long-term relationships with customer relationships. Given that achievement motivation and the achievement striving construct (Helmreich, et al., 1988) seem conceptually similar, it follows that salespeople high in MA may also be positively related to customer oriented behaviour in customers.

Motivated Achieving and Need for Control in Sales people

On the other hand, it could be argued that MA may lead to greater use of pressure by salespeople. Even though individuals high in MA appear to lack the toxic elements such as impatience and irritability associated with toxic achieving, both constructs seem

similar in respect to need for control. Individuals high in MA seem likely to seek control over their environments (Birks & Roger, 2001). For instance, Barling et al. (1996), applying Glass's (1977) control theory to individuals high in MA, argued that car sales people high in MA would seek to maintain control of their work through better planning. Partial support was found for this hypothesis in that MA was positively related to control in the form of short-term planning. Contrary to the previous paragraph, an implication from type A control theory (Glass, 1977; Barling et al., 1996) is that salespeople high in MA may tend to use pressure to control customers in order to attain desired objectives.

Implications for Salespeople

Considering the evidence in the previous two paragraphs, it seems that the limited amount of evidence available suggests that on one hand, individuals that are high in MA are more likely to engage in behaviour supportive of customer relationships rather than pressure selling or efforts to dominate customers (e.g. Puffer, 1987; Soyer et al., 1999). On the other hand, it seems that individuals high in MA may also have a high need for control (Barling et al., 1996; Glass, 1977; Wright et al., 1994). Since this high need for control does not seem to result in dominance- behaviour with customers in salespeople high in MA, it may be that these salespeople tend to use more subtle forms of control with customers. Perhaps more subtle forms of control could facilitate information flow from customers rather than restrict it. For instance, individuals high in MA may guide customers through a questioning process that enables customer needs to be clearly identified (De Cormier & Jobber, 1993; Rackman, 1988).

Hypothesis Twelve

MA will increase customer-oriented selling in salespeople.

Motivated Achieving, Role Overload, and Depression

Motivated achieving and effective coping skills

There is evidence to suggest that individuals high in MA tend to overload themselves with work (Organ & Hui, 1995; Spector, & O'Connell, 1994). However, it seems this tendency does not tend to result in increased stress reactivity in these individuals (Bluen

et al., 1990; MacEwen & Barling, 1993; Strutton et al., 1995). It appears that their tendency to use effective coping skills may mean that they are able to cope effectively in most stressful situations, and therefore may be less vulnerable to depression (Abramson et al., 1989; Freidman et al., 1985; Kobasa, Maddi, & Zola, 1983; Strutton et al., 1995). According to Friedman et al., (1985), individuals high in MA seem to be resilient and hardy in stressful situations. In another seemingly relevant study, it was found that salespeople high in challenge, self-determination, and involvement of self with the environment (conceptually similar to MA) were more likely to appraise stressful situations positively, and were more likely to use problem-focused coping skills than individuals low in these variables (Strutton et al., 1995).

Positive evaluation of achievements

It may be that individuals high in MA are likely to evaluate their performances positively, unlike individuals high in the "toxic" aspects of TABP. Firstly, those high in MA tend to strive to achieve for enjoyment rather than to improve their self-esteem (Birks & Rogers, 2000). Secondly, there is evidence to suggest that individuals high in MA tend to produce a higher quality rather than quantity of achievement (Helmreich et al., 1988). Consequently, those high in MA may have more valid reasons to positively appraise their achievements. Thus, MA may be positively related to self-esteem in salespeople, and thus reduce their vulnerability to depression (Ingram et al., 1998).

Implications for Salespeople

It seems likely that salespeople high in MA may tend to overload with themselves with work (Organ & Hui, 1995; Spector & O'Connell, 1994). Also, it seems likely that salespeople high in MA may be more resilient against harmful effects from role overload (Ingram et al., 1998; Kobasa, et al. 1983). It seems reasonable to conclude from these possibilities that salespeople high in MA may be more likely to achieve high standards because they cope effectively with stress, and may tend to evaluate their achievements favourably. This positive evaluation associated with achieving may tend to increase self esteem in salespeople high in MA , and therefore reduce vulnerability to depression (e.g. Birks & Rogers, 2000; Ingram et al., 1998; Price, 1983).

Hypothesis Thirteen

MA will increase role overload in salespeople.

Hypothesis Fourteen

MA will decrease depression in salespeople.

Sales Oriented Selling and Customer Oriented Selling

Finally, consideration must be given to the probable relationship between pressure selling and customer oriented selling in the model. It seems tautologically obvious that these two constructs by definition will be negatively related to each other. The two constructs imply opposite ends of a continuum (Bauer et al., 1998; Jolson, 1997). Therefore, these two constructs would seem to be almost mutually exclusive of each other. However, it is not clear which direction that relationship should take. Firstly, correlating these two variables is not a possible in the structural model; correlated relationships are not permitted with endogenous (dependent) variables. Secondly, although a reciprocal relationship seems likely between these two variables, reciprocal relationships cannot be accommodated in AMOS, the software package used in this study (Byrne, 2001). However, it does seem that these variables should be connected for the purpose of good fit. It also seems logically sensible that they should be linked together. Therefore, it is intended that fit in either direction will be tested. The directional relationship that results in best fit will be included in the model.

Hypothesis Fifteen

Pressure selling will be negatively related to customer-oriented selling in salespeople.

PART TWO: METHOD AND RESULTS

METHOD

Participants

Organisational Categories

Five hundred surveys were sent to organisations in several business categories; advertising sales (AS), industrial sales, (IS), and office equipment and supplies (OES). Several business categories were included to extend the generalisability of the study. IS and OES had been included as a single category because they were considered conceptually similar in that they both involved the sale of tangible products to organisations.

Response Rate

The response rate was 37.4% with 187 responses. Ninety-nine responses came from AS, and 88 in total from IS and OES.

Demographic Data

There were 12 females and 76 males in IS and OES sales. There were 43 males and 56 females in advertising sales (AS). Male participants ranged in age from 22 to 61 years old ($M = 41.0$ $SD = 9.4$). Female participants ranged in age from 23 to 67 years old ($M = 37.8$ $SD = 9.2$). Sales teams ranged in size from one to moderately sized teams of approximately 60 from 23 organisations.

Business Category Comparisons

Advertising differs from products in IS and OES in that advertising is considerably less tangible than products from IS or OES. However, more importantly for this study, the three business categories were similar in that they sold primarily to organisations. The

business-to-business nature of these business categories meant that building long-term relationships with customers was likely to be a key ingredient for success in these markets (Levitt, 1983).

Measures

Framingham Type A Scale (FTAS)

Properties of the FTAS

TABP was measured with the Framingham Type A Scale (FTAS) (Haynes, et al. 1978) (See Appendix Two). The FTAS is a self-report instrument that consists of ten items. The first five items are scored on a four point Likert type scale from one (not at all) to four (very well). The last five items require Yes/No responses. The first five items, responses are scored as follows: 1 = 0, 2 = .3, 3 = 0.6 and 4 = 1. For the yes/no items, "Yes" is scored as one. "No" is scored as zero. The FTAS has been a popular test for TABP over several decades (e.g. Haynes, et al. 1978; Matthews, 1982; Spicer et al., 1993). The reliability of the FTAS was reported at $\alpha = 0.71$ in the primary study by Haynes et al. (1978). The FTAS has also demonstrated convergent validity with measures of emotional lability, stress, and anxiety and anger (Matthews, 1982). The FTAS was considered especially appropriate for this study because it seemed to tap other constructs relevant to the current study. The obvious alternative; the achievement striving and impatience-irritability scales (Helmreich et al., 1988) were not considered appropriate to this study because these scales did not seem to tap other constructs relevant to this study.

Previous factor analysis of the FTAS

Houston et al. (1985) factor analysed six out of ten items from the FTAS. They found two dimensions, competitive drive and speed-impatience, that were similar in content to the achievement striving and impatience-irritability sub-scales (Helmreich et al., 1988). The sub-scales derived from the FTAS have shown convergent validity with the JAS, similar to the achievement and impatience-irritability sub-scales (Houston et al., 1985).

Whereas Houston et al., (1985) limited their factor analysis to six items from the FTAS, it was considered that factor analysis of the complete FTAS may yield additional factors related to job stress and cognitive vulnerability to depression that would prove useful in the study.

Factor Analysing the Framingham Type A Scale: Part One

The FTAS was factor analysed in two steps. In the first step FTAS was conducted to validate the previous results from Houston et al., (1985). However, unlike Houston et al., (1985) who factor analysed part of the FTAS, in the current study the whole scale was factor analysed. Principal axis factoring with a varimax rotation with a eigenvalue stop-point of one was used in this study. Absolute values were suppressed below .3. The output for the current factor analysis is displayed in Appendix One.

Comparing the current factor analysis with the previous factor analysis

Similar to Houston et al. (1985), the current study found two factors that seemed to relate to achievement striving and impatience. The six items previously analysed by Houston et al., (1985) loaded in a similar way onto two factors in the current study with one exception: the item related to time pressure did not load onto "speed-impatience" as had been found by Houston et al., (1985). Rather, this item loaded onto another factor that seemed related to role overload. However the analysis of the complete FTAS provided substantial support for the earlier analysis by Houston et al. (1985). Two additional factors were also found; one of these seemed to relate to perceived role overload; the second seemed related to concerns about coping with this overload.

Factor Analysing the Framingham Type A Scale: Part Two

Adding additional items to the analysis

In the second stage, five items that had been developed specifically for this study were added to the FTAS factor analysis (see Appendix one). These additional items seemed conceptually related to several of the factors extracted in the first stage. The additional items were included to ensure that the data was represented in the most parsimonious fashion. Three items were related to childhood memories of parental behaviour. These items seemed conceptually related to the achievement dimension already identified in

the FTAS. Two other items; "pressure to meet sales targets" and "percentage of income earned by commission" seemed to conceptually relate to sales anxiety. The item related to commission was an objective rather than subjective measure. Although some salespeople may find commission sales challenging and exciting (Strutton et al., 1995), it was posited that anxiety about income may tend to increase with commission earnings. As a consequence, it was posited that this "commission" item would be a substitute for underlying anxiety about income for many salespeople. The factor analysis was repeated with the settings described above. Output for this analysis is displayed in Appendix One.

The results for the second factor analysis

Five factors were extracted in the second analysis compared with four factors in the first analysis (see appendix one). The additional factor comprised of the three "child experiences" items that loaded together onto a distinct factor. The "sales target" and "commission" items loaded onto the fourth factor along with two items from the FTAS. These five factors will now be described in the order in which they loaded in the analysis.

Role overload

The first factor was called "role overload" (three items: see appendix one) and was used to measure role overload in the current study. The items in this factor were related to work overload and perceived time pressure. These loadings suggested that the perceived time pressure was related to a struggle to process an overwhelming quantity of work. It seemed that individuals high on this factor would tend to perceive that their time resources were inadequate for the demands of their work. This factor had moderate reliability ($\alpha = .70$)

Child experiences

The second factor was called "child experiences" (three items: see appendix one). This factor was used to measure memories of parental influences thought to lead to the dysfunctional belief systems (DBS) that are thought to drive the type A construct (Price, 1983). This factor was considered useful because it measured variables that preceded the sales occupation, thus implying dispositional characteristics, and also causation, since child experiences precede adult behaviour. The items in this factor focused on three

areas; the tendency of parents to overload with work; the expectations that participants perceived their parents had placed on them as children; and the degree to which participants perceived they had met their parents expectations as children. The items in this factor had been based on the theory posited by Price, (1983). As mentioned earlier, all three items loaded together onto a distinct factor when factor-analysed with the FTAS, suggesting some discriminant validity for this measure. This measure had moderate reliability ($\alpha = .61$).

Motivated achieving

The third factor (two items: see appendix one) was called "Motivated Achieving". This factor was conceptually similar to the achievement striving dimension (Helmreich, Spence, & Pred, 1988), and the non-toxic achieving dimension (Birks & Roger, 2000). This factor seemed related to a strong drive to succeed at a high standard. This factor was moderately reliable ($\alpha = .71$).

Sales performance concerns

The fourth factor (four items: see appendix one) was called "sales performance concerns". This factor was used as a measure of sales-related cognitive vulnerability to depression in the current study. Appendix One displays a full rationale to justify this factor as a valid measure of sales-related "cognitive vulnerability to depression". However, both TABP research (Matthews, 1982), and depression research (Abramson et al., 1989; Ingram et al., 1998) provide support for the validity of this factor. The two FTAS items and the two items from the general questionnaire were transformed to z scores so they could be added together. The reliability for this measure was relatively low ($\alpha = .56$). However, this reliability was a substantial improvement over the original two item factor from the FTAS from the previous section ($\alpha = .44$).

Impatience

The fifth factor (three items: see Appendix One) was called "impatience". This factor had low reliability, ($\alpha = .50$) This factor measured dominance behaviour likely to be used to obtain quick outcomes, impatience for quick results, and eating pace. This factor seemed likely to tap the degree to which salespeople were impatient for quick sales and hurried in their behaviours.

The Depression Sub-Scale from the Depression Anxiety Stress Scale 21 (DASS 21)

Properties of the DASS 21 depression sub-scale

Depressed mood in salespeople was measured with the seven-item depression sub-scale of the DASS 21 (See appendix two). The depression sub-scale measures depressed mood over the previous week. More specifically, the depression sub-scale tests for dysphoria, helplessness, life devaluation, self-deprecation, and lack of interest and involvement, and lack of inertia. The depression sub-scale of the DASS 21 was considered appropriate for this study because negative mood was the aspect of depression of interest in this study. Also, a brief but reliable measure was required. Psychometric properties suggest that the depression sub-scale provides a reliable, valid measure of depression. The depression sub-scale has a reliability coefficient of 0.71 and a strong convergent validity ($\alpha = .74$) with the Beck Depression Inventory (Antony et al., 1998; Brown, Chorpita, Korotitsch, & Barlow, 1997; Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995a; Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995b).

Factor analysis of the DASS 21 depression sub-scale

This scale was too short to be reliably factor analysed (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Consequently, no factors were extracted from the DASS 21 depression sub-scale. The content of the depression sub-scale seemed conceptually related to depressed mood. The reliability for the DASS 21 depression sub-scale in this study was high ($\alpha = .869$). The seven items from this scale were used as indicator variables in the structural model.

Sales Orientation-Customer Orientation Scale (SOCO)

Description of the SOCO scale

Customer oriented and sales oriented behaviour in salespeople was measured with the SOCO scale (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). This instrument is a 24 item self-report instrument designed to measure the extent to which salespeople use customer-oriented selling methods (See Appendix Two). The SOCO is scored on a 9 point Likert-type system. It is comprised of two sub-scales: the sales orientation sub-scale and the customer oriented sub-scale. The sales orientation scale is reversed scored. The combined score provides an indication of the degree to which salespeople use customer-oriented selling strategies: the higher the score, the higher the perceived customer-orientation of the

salesperson.

Properties of the SOCO scale

The SOCO has reasonable psychometric properties. The SOCO is reliable ($\alpha = .83$; test-retest reliability of .67); has shown convergent and discriminant validity with several other measures (Saxe & Weitz, 1982); and has been extensively used in sales research over recent years (e.g. Brown, Widing & Coulter, 1991; Gillis, Pitt, Robson, & Berthon, 1998; Goff, Boles, Bellenger, & Stojack, 1997; McIntyre & Meloche, 1995; Tadepalli, 1995; Saxe & Weitz, 1982).

Problems with the SOCO scale

Skewness in the distribution of responses was a problem with the scale identified by Saxe & Weitz (1982). The skewness suggested that salespeople tended to overestimate the degree to which they were customer-oriented in their selling. Saxe & Weitz (1982) attempted to reduce this skewness by extending the instrument from a seven point to a nine point Likert type scale. However, they were unable to definitively demonstrate that the change had resolved the skewness problem. In this study, several of the questions were modified slightly in an attempt to enable salespeople to make more accurate estimates of their responses on the scale. For instance, "A good salesperson customer has to have the customer's best interests in mind" was extended to "A good salesperson has to have the customer's best interests in mind *even though it may mean selling less*". Consequently, this question was framed so that salespeople considered a possible disadvantageous consequence of focusing on customer interests; lower sales in the short-term. The slight modifications to this item and several other items in the SOCO are displayed in Appendix Two.

Factor analysis of the SOCO scale

The first factor extracted from the SOCO was called "customer oriented selling" (See Appendix One). This factor seemed to relate to clarifying and understanding customer needs, and helping customers achieve their goals. The second factor was called "pressure selling" (See Appendix One). This factor seemed to be related to exerting pressure on customers to buy, exaggerating product benefits to customers, and being dishonest with customers. Both customer oriented selling and pressure selling were reliable ($\alpha = .744$ and $\alpha = .748$ respectively).

Procedure

Approval of Ethical Requirements

Because this study was straightforward in terms of ethical issues, peer approval rather than Human Ethics Committee approval was obtained for this study. In order to obtain peer approval, the researchers' supervisor was first consulted about the viability of obtaining peer approval for the current study. After obtaining the supervisor's approval, a suitably qualified independent member of the Massey Psychology Department considered and approved the research proposal.

Data Gathering Process

Organisations were provided with an information sheet (Appendix Three). After they had the opportunity to answer any questions, they signed an informed consent form if they agreed for their organisation to participate (Appendix Three). Sufficient survey packs for the specified number of salespeople were sent to each participating organisation. The sales manager distributed the survey pack to sales people. Each survey pack included an information sheet for the participant (Appendix Three) and the survey form (Appendix Three). Participation was voluntary on the part of the salespeople. Salespeople participated anonymously. However, they were able to create their own code which they entered on the front of the survey (Appendix Three). This enabled salespeople to maintain their anonymity, but still be able to recognise their results on a subsequent summary sheet (Appendix Three). Participating salespeople completed the survey and returned it in the postage-paid envelope included with the survey. The summary sheet of all results was later distributed to participating organisations for distribution to salespeople. A management report was distributed to participating organisations.

Analysis

Structural Equation Modelling

Structural Equation Modelling explained

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was the main form of analysis used in this study. Structural models in SEM describe the relationships between latent variables based on observed or indicator variables. SEM is an extension of linear multiple regression and path analysis. However, rather than just focus on regression slopes and explained variance, SEM also considers how well a model fits the data. A chi square statistic describes fit in SEM. This "fit" statistic ranges from zero (no fit) to one (perfect fit). Confidence in the appropriateness of the model increases as the "fit" improves. A major advantage of SEM is that the effect of error is also calculated in SEM. This method differs from multiple regression in that multiple regression assumes perfect reliability in the measures used. However, in reality, measures often fall well below this standard, therefore, the strength of relationships in multiple regression are often understated (Byrne, 2001; McDonald & Seifert, 1999).

Structural Equation Modelling strategies

There are several strategies available for treating estimation and error in SEM.

The full information strategy. The full information strategy is commonly used in SEM research. In this technique, there are several indicator variables for each latent variable. Each indicator variable is usually a single test item. The full information technique allows all information to be used in calculating regression and error parameters, and is therefore considered most efficient in determining these results. There are several disadvantages with the full information technique, however. Firstly, "specification errors in one part of the model can bias parameter estimates throughout the model." (McDonald & Seifert, 1999, p. 3). Secondly, this variation of SEM usually requires a large number of participants. For instance, the model in this study would require between 400 and 500 participants if a full information technique was to be used (McDonald & Seifert, 1999).

The limited information strategy. The limited information strategy is also sometimes used in SEM research. In this technique, indicator variables for each latent variable are added together to become single composite indicator variables. This strategy is less efficient than the full information strategy in estimating parameters. However, the limited information strategy has advantages in that error is fixed at each composite indicator variable and therefore cannot bias other parts of the model. Also, fixing error for each composite indicator variable corrects for attenuation in the measures. Furthermore, less participants are required for this method since there are less parameters to be estimated. One problem with this strategy is in determining how to specify error. One option is to use previous theory and make an a priori decision about error to be fixed for each variable. The other option is to determine error on the basis of the current results with the formula: $(1 - \alpha) \times \text{variance}$. MacDonald and Seifert, (1996) demonstrated with a Monte Carlo simulation that the second option produced the most reliable results of the two options for fixing error.

Structural Equation Modelling in the current study.

It was decided to use the limited information strategy for several reasons. Firstly, the number of participants in this study were not sufficient for a full information strategy to be applied to the model. However, numbers were sufficient for a limited information strategy to be used; participant numbers exceeded the recommended five participants per freely estimated parameter (Byrne, 2001; MacDonald & Seifert, 1996). Secondly, as explained earlier, several factors derived from the FTAS had low reliability. However, the limited information strategy allowed for correction of this attenuation. AMOS 4.01 was used to conduct the SEM. It was decided to fix error for the composite indicators on the basis of reliability measures and variance for these indicators derived in the current study. Using reliability and variance results from the current was considered preferable to a theoretical approach because the former approach is easier to understand and is also more transparent. Also, a theoretical approach was not possible for several of these measures that were new factor scales for which previous reliability data was not available.

Hierarchical Regression

Hierarchical regression in SPSS 11 was used to test for interaction between several factors. Hierarchical regression was preferred because testing for interaction in AMOS is somewhat problematic. However, hierarchical regression is a well accepted and understood method for testing for interactions (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). There are several disadvantages to using hierarchical regression however. Firstly, observed, rather than latent variables are compared in hierarchical regression, reducing the efficiency of the model. Secondly, as mentioned earlier, regression techniques assume perfect reliability in measures. As a result, the strength of associations between variables tend to weaken as the reliability of measures decreases. The implications from these disadvantages with respect to the current study will be considered later.

RESULTS

Preliminary Analysis

Screening for Missing Data

The indicator variables were first screened for missing data. Missing data was found for 12 cases out of a total of 187 cases. Where only a small number of items were unanswered in any of the eight scales from these 12 cases, mean values were inserted for those items. There were six incomplete cases remaining after this process. Incomplete scales for each of these cases were deleted. These six cases along with their remaining complete scales were retained for use later in the structural model because the maximum likelihood method that was used can accommodate missing data (Byrne, 2001).

Screening for Normality

The data was screened for normality. Histograms for the variables to be used in this analysis are displayed in Appendix one. The "gaps" in some of the histograms seemed to be related to the small number of items and the score breaks in some of the variables. Firstly, as can be seen, some of the data was clearly not normally distributed. Attention is drawn to the result for "depression". This result was clearly right skewed as would be expected when testing for depression in a non-clinical population. Secondly, there was one outlier with customer focus as can be seen on the histogram. However, this outlier was for only a single case and therefore seemed unlikely to have a major impact on the results. Consequently, it appeared from the distributions that the greatest problem with the data was the skewness in "depression". Transforming variables to improve the distribution shape was not considered appropriate because variables were skewed in opposite directions. Opposite skew in some variables meant that a common transformation could not be found to normalise the variables. Therefore, given these considerations, it was decided not to trim or adjust the variables at this stage. This decision was made because there were procedures available in AMOS to assess

normality, and the effect of non-normality on model fit. These results will be considered later in the analysis.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix for Indicator Variables

VARIABLE	M	SD	MA	I	RO	SPC	D	CE	PS
Motivated Achieving	1.39	0.42	1						
Impatience	1.31	0.81	.22**	1					
Role Overload	1.41	1.02	.17*	.25**	1				
Sales Performance Concerns	0.01	2.63	.13	.18*	.20**	1			
Depression	6.68	6.90	-.22**	-.01	-.02	.24**	1		
Child experiences	7.54	2.84	.19*	.25**	.05	.31**	.08	1	
Pressure Selling	17.91	7.90	-.08	.14	-.06	.07	.25**	.13	1
Customer Oriented Selling	46.71	5.07	.25**	.00	.06	.05	-.33**	.02	-.37**

* = $p < .05$ ** = $p < .001$

Bivariate Analysis

The means, standard deviations, and the correlation matrix for the indicator variables used in the analysis are displayed in table 1. Firstly, it is interesting to compare "pressure selling" and customer oriented selling". Even though these variables were scored on the same scale and comprised the same number of items, the mean score for "customer oriented selling" was substantially higher than the mean "pressure selling" score. This result indicated that salespeople tended to perceive themselves as more customer oriented than sales oriented in their selling styles. Notice also that the standard deviation for "customer orientation" is smaller than the standard deviation for "pressure selling" even though the mean score for "customer orientation" is higher. This result indicated that there was considerably less variance in salespeople's perception of themselves as being customer oriented in their selling than was the case with their perception of themselves for "pressure selling". Secondly, the correlation matrix displays a number of significant correlations. However, there does not appear to be any correlations that are so strong that they could pose problems due to multicollinearity (Hair, et al., 1998). Thirdly, notice that correlations are in the directions that had been predicted. Of interest is a pair of variables that correlate significantly that are not directly correlated in the structural model (see figure 5.). Fourthly, notice that "sales performance concerns" correlate significantly with "impatience" even though this pair of

variables are related indirectly in the model. The structural model will next be considered.

The Structural Model

Table 2. Model Parameters and Fit Details

Model Summary	
Participants	187
Estimated Parameters	29
Degrees of Freedom	15
χ^2	9.08
Probability	.87
Comparative Fit Index	1.00
RMSEA	.00
Bollen-Stine Bootstrap	.89

Univariate and Multivariate Tests for Normality

The variables in the model were first tested for univariate and multivariate normality. These results and an explanation can be found in Appendix One. There was mild concern about both the univariate and multivariate normality. Therefore, due to this concern, it was decided to run a precautionary bootstrap. An explanation of the bootstrap procedure can also be found in Appendix One.

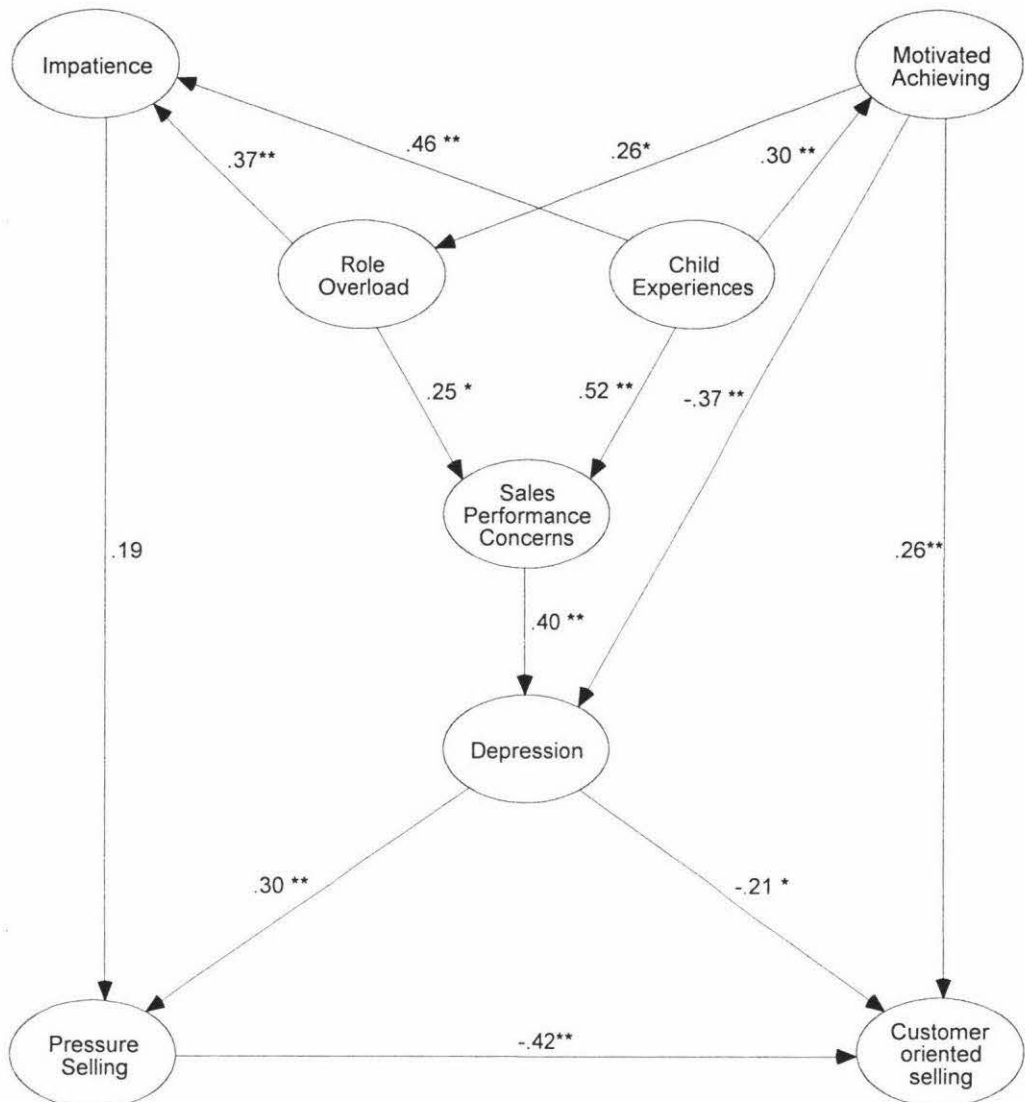


Figure 5. Structural Model depicting the relationship between type A behaviour, depression, and relationships with customers. * = $p < .05$ ** = $p < .01$ Note: Indicator variables not displayed.

Fixing Error Variances for Indicator Variables

As mentioned in the "procedure" error was fixed for the composite indicator variables. An explanation for how this was done, and the results for this process, can be found in Appendix One.

Model Fit Details

The structural model (see figure 5.) was tested for fit using Amos 4 in maximum likelihood mode. The χ^2 result (table 2 above.) indicated excellent fit by the model to the data. The p value for the χ^2 results can range from 0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit). In this case, excellent fit was indicated by a p value of .87.

Bootstrap Results

The Bollen-Stine bootstrap result of .891 indicated very similar fit to the χ^2 result displayed in table 2. The bootstrap result means that the data fitted the model better than would be expected by chance out of 89.1% of the samples taken ($p < .05$). Considering this result, it did not appear that non-normality in the data had substantially affected the model fit.

Caution Required in Interpreting χ^2 Result

Problem with χ^2 measure.

Caution is required when assessing χ^2 results. The reason that caution is necessary is that χ^2 scores are become increasingly sensitive to departures from fit as the sample size increases. In this instance, the p value would be expected to be considerably less in a larger sample, suggesting poorer fit. Therefore, because the χ^2 is sensitive to sample size, the reader is referred to other measures of "fit" displayed in table 2.

Alternative measures

In order to overcome the problems associated with χ^2 measures, a variety of other tests of "fit" have been developed that are not sensitive to participant numbers. Several of these measures are displayed in table 2. Each of these alternative measures also indicate good fit of the model to the data. Although results approaching one provide evidence of close fit for most of the measures displayed in table 2., the RMSEA result also indicates extremely good fit; results below 0.05 for this value are indicative of very good fit for this test (Byrne, 2001).

Regression Weights for Parameters

Beta weights for parameters

Model fit is not the only important consideration assessing the usefulness of the model. The p values for the regression weights for the estimated parameters are also important considerations when assessing fit. In this case, it can be seen on figure 5. that all values other than the parameter from "impatience" to "pressure selling" (PS) are significant or highly significant, suggesting that it is unlikely that these results would have occurred by chance. Even though the parameter from "impatience" to PS was not significant, the p value ($p = .078$) was in the expected direction, and was approaching significance. If this parameter was excluded for the model the p value for fit declined from .873 to .731, suggesting that this parameter made a substantial contribution to the fit of the model. On the basis of these results, it seems reasonable to conclude that the model generally supports all the direct hypotheses. Partial support at least could be claimed for hypothesis 11 considering that the regression weight is approaching significance, in the expected direction, and is located in a model with excellent fit.

Bootstrap confirmation.

The bootstrap output also provided parameter estimates on the basis of confidence intervals. Similar p values were obtained for the regression weights displayed on the model. There were several exceptions to these findings. The p value for the regression line, child experiences (CE) to motivated achieving (MA) decreased from highly significant to significant, and the p value for the regression line from "impatience" to PS increased from $p = .078$ to $p = .161$ in the bootstrap results. However, other than for these slight changes, the bootstrapping results were very similar to the results displayed, suggesting that there was little effect from non-normality in the data.

Squared Multiple Correlations

Further evidence that the model has explained the data effectively is displayed in table 3, below. Table 3. displays the squared multiple correlations for the endogenous (dependent) latent variables. The squared multiple correlation is equivalent to r^2 in regression, in that it is a measure of the variance explained by the exogenous (independent) variables that regress on the endogenous variable. Notice that there were

moderately high loadings on most of the endogenous variables, suggesting that the model explained a reasonable amount of the variance in the data. However, two of these loadings were below 10 percent; motivated achieving and role overload respectively. It appears that a large amount of variance was left unexplained for these two variables.

Table 3. Squared Multiple Correlations

VARIABLE	Squared Multiple Correlations
Motivated Achieving	.09
Impatience	.38
Role Overload	.07
Sales Performance Concerns	.35
Depression	.23
Sales Oriented Selling	.14
Customer Oriented Selling.	.37

Identifying Contributions of Individual Variables.

One problem with the squared multiple correlation results (table 3.) is that these results do not display the relative effects when several latent variables regress on the endogenous variable. In order to obtain some indication of relative effects for several variables of interest, parameters were alternatively deleted for several latent variables. The results were then re-run for each occasion. The relative contribution of each variable was then considered. It should be stressed that this procedure is very approximate. Firstly, each analysis recalculates the complete model. The new regression weights include any indirect effects from other variables in the path. Also, the results displayed in table 4. do not allow for correlation between exogenous (independent) variables regression on a single latent factor. However, the results in table 4. do provide some indication of the relative effect of each exogenous variable.

Table 4. Relative Effects in Squared Multiple Correlations

Path	Parameter Excluded	Target Factor	Squared Multiple Correlation
CE to Impatience	RO to Impatience	Impatience	.26
RO to Impatience	CHE to Impatience	Impatience	.18
CE to SPC	RO to SPC	SPC	.31
RO to SPC	CHE to SPC	SPC	.10
RO to SPC	MA to RO	SPC	.34

Note: The terms in this table are abbreviated terms from the structural model. (figure 1.)

The reader's attention is drawn to table 4. It can be seen that CE seems to have a relatively greater loading on both "impatience" and SPC than does RO. The indirect effect of MA on depression was also of interest to this study. This interest is because it seems illogical that MA could simultaneously reduce "depression" while indirectly increasing "depression". The reader's attention is drawn to the loading on SPC with the parameter, MA to RO deleted (with the parameter, CE to SPC still in place). When this result is compared with the loading on SPC on table 3. (.353), it is clear that MA has very little indirect effect on SPC and consequently very little indirect effect on depression. This result suggests logical consistency. MA has a substantial effect on decreasing depression but negligible noticeable indirect effect on depression.

Major Features of the Structural Model.

Several major features of the structural model (figure 5.) will now be highlighted.

Central role for child experiences and role overload.

Firstly, the reader's attention is drawn to the central role that both child experiences (CE) and role overload (RO) perform in the model. CE seems to influence three other variables directly: MA, sales performance concerns (SPC), and impatience. RO seems to influence both impatience and SPC. However, the reader's attention is again drawn to table 3. Notice the relatively small amount of variance explained in MA by CE. Also, notice that both CE and RO together explain a substantial amount of variance in both sales performance concerns and impatience respectively. These results suggest that both CE and RO were important constructs in the model.

Sales performance concerns and depression.

Secondly, the reader's attention is drawn to the latent variable, sales person concerns (SPC) in figure 5. Notice that the model supports a significant positive causal relationship between SPC and depression as expected, providing some support for the argument that SPC was tapping cognitive vulnerability to depression.

Depression and salesperson selling style.

Thirdly, the reader's attention is drawn to the substantial impact that depression seems to have on both SP and customer oriented selling (COS) in figure 5. Notice that the model suggests that depression has a positive causal influence on PS, and a significant negative causal influence on COS.

Motivated achieving, depression, and selling style.

Fourthly, the reader's attention is drawn to the role of motivated achieving in figure 5. Notice that motivated achieving appears to have a negative causal influence on depression, and a positive causal influence on both customer oriented selling and role overload. However, the reader's attention is again drawn to table 3. Notice that motivated achieving explains a relatively small amount of variance in role overload.

Hierarchical Regression

Interaction Hypotheses

The results for hypotheses six and seven will now be considered. These hypotheses predicted that role overload and childhood experiences interact to explain significantly more variance in both sales performance concerns and impatience than role overload and childhood experiences acting independently.

Table 5. Effect of Interaction on Sales Performance Concerns

Model Summary				
Model	R	R square	Adj R square	Sig.
1	.362	.131	.121	.001
2	.363	.132	.117	.001

Dependent: Sales performance concerns.

Table 6. Coefficients for Interaction on Sales Performance Concerns

Coefficients.				
Standardised Coefficients				
Model		Beta	t.	Sig.
1	Constant		-4.854	.001
	Role Overload	.182	2.585	.011
	Child exp.	.305	4.330	.001
2	Constant		-4.852	.001
	Roal Overload	.180	2.543	.012
	Child exp.	.306	4.336	.001
	RO x CE	.026	.362	.718

Dependent: Sales performance concerns.

Analysis Method

SPSS 11 was used for the hierarchical regression equations in testing hypotheses six and seven. The hierarchical regression equation involved entering both RO and CE as independent variables as the first step for testing each of the two hypotheses. In the second step, RO and SPC were centred by deducting the means from these variables. This action was undertaken to avoid multicollinearity between the interaction variable and the independent variables. Multicollinearity can be a problem in hierarchical regression when testing for interaction (Hair et al., 1998). The resulting centred variables were multiplied together, and included in the second stage of each equation.

Evaluating the Hypotheses

It appears that there was no support for hypothesis 6. as can be seen in tables 5. and 6. Firstly, as can be seen in table 5, the adjusted r^2 value decreased after adding the interaction term. A significant increase in r^2 is expected if a substantial interaction effect has occurred. Secondly, the p value for the regression weight of the interaction term in table 6. strongly suggests that the slight interaction effect occurred as a result of chance and therefore can be discounted.

Table 7. Effect of Interaction on Impatience

Model Summary				
Model	R	R square	Adj R square	Sig.
1	.347	.121	.111	.001
2	.350	.122	.108	.001

Dependent: Impatience

Hypothesis seven can safely be rejected for similar reasons to those advanced for hypothesis six as can be seen in tables 7. and 8. Again, there was a decrease in adjusted r^2 in table 8., and a large non-significant regression weight for the interaction term in table 8.

Table 8. Coefficients for Interaction on Impatience

Coefficients.				
Standardised Coefficients				
Model		Beta	t.	Sig.
1	Constant		2.829	.005
	Role Overload	.182	3.364	.001
	Child exp.	.305	3.464	.001
2	Constant		-4.852	.005
	Role Overload	.180	2.543	.001
	Child exp.	.306	4.336	.001
	RO x CE	.026	.362	.532

Dependent: Impatience.

Caution with Hierarchical Regression

Finally, before concluding this section, a comment should be made about several drawbacks with hierarchical regression that were mentioned earlier. Firstly, it was mentioned that hierarchical regression compares the indicator variables directly rather than through the latent structure, and thereby is not as accurate as the structural model. However, considering the results in tables 5., 6., 7., and 8., it should be noted that the relationships between the independent and dependent variables were both significant as was the case in the model, and in the same direction as in the model. Therefore, these results suggest that the hierarchical regression produced similar results to the structural model. Secondly, it was explained that regression analysis is based on the assumption that measures are perfectly accurate (Hair et al., 1998). Because, unlike the structural model, regression does not account for unreliability, any unreliability in the measures can tend to weaken the strength of the relationships. There was indeed a potential for a problem in this regard in the current study. The two constructs, SPC and impatience, used as dependent variables in the hierarchical analysis had low reliability ($\alpha = .56$ and $\alpha = .50$ respectively). These low reliabilities meant there was a realistic possibility that significant interactions may be overlooked. However, considering that the non-significant results are very high, it seems unlikely that even perfectly reliable measures would have made a substantial difference to these results. Therefore, considering these arguments, it seems safe to reject hypotheses six and seven even though several of the measures were low in reliability.

**PART THREE: DISCUSSION AND
CONCLUSION**

DISCUSSION

The Structural Model

The structural model seems to have provided support for the theory posited in this study: type A behaviour in salespeople appears to increase the tendency for salespeople to use pressure selling and decrease the tendency for them to use customer oriented selling. Furthermore, the results for this study provide support for the argument that type A dimensions (e.g. Birks & Rogers, 2000; Bluen et al., 1990; Helmreich et al., 1988; MacEwen & Barling) and underlying antecedents to those dimensions (e.g. Birks & Rogers, 2000; Friedman et al., 1985; Price, 1983) should both be considered when studying TABP. Several important aspects of the model will now be considered.

The antecedent variables: Child experiences and Role overload

As can be seen in figure 5., both child experiences (CE) and role overload (RO) seem to perform a central role in the structural model. These variables are similar in that they both seem to have a substantial effect on increasing the tendency for salespeople to become impatient for quick results, and to become concerned and anxious about the standard of their sales performance increasing their vulnerability to depression. Both impatience, and vulnerability to depression, have been associated with ineffective coping with stress (e.g. Abramson et al., 1989; Bennett, et al., 1990; Birks & Roger, 2000; Hart, 1995; Stewart & Barling, 1996). It was argued earlier that trait type A behaviour is substantially a result of self-generated stress (e.g. Birks & Roger, 2000; Hart, 1995). In a similar way, it seems that state TABP is substantially a result of external stress (Bennett, et al., 1990), suggesting that both trait and state type A behaviour may be related to ineffective coping with stress. Identifying CE and RO as antecedent variables in this model has important implications for this study. The structural model implies that intervening at the level of these antecedent variables could

substantially modify the behaviour of salespeople indirectly through several variables. Unlike RO, however, CE appears to also increase the motivated achieving type A dimension, suggesting that CE may be related to the striving associated with TABP (e.g. Price, 1983).

Child Experiences and Type A Behaviour in Salespeople

Childhood experiences and the dysfunctional belief system.

As mentioned earlier, child experiences (CE) were measured in this study as developmental variables that could lead indirectly to TABP in adults (Price, 1983). Measuring CE was useful because any observed effect could be attributed to dispositional characteristics rather than stressors in the environment. It was argued earlier that CE can contribute to the development of a dysfunctional belief system (DBS) that may drive TABP in salespeople. This DBS was thought to lead to the tendency for type As to: strive for continually higher standards of achievements in order to reinforce their self-esteem; evaluate these achievements negatively; and as a consequence, become vulnerable to depression (Price, 1983). The validity of assuming the action of a DBS from CE will be considered later. However, the possible effect of a DBS will first be considered.

The dysfunctional belief system and stress

The posited DBS seems likely to lead to self-generated stress in type As as they strive for unrealistically high levels of achievement in order to reinforce their self-esteem (Hart, 1995; Price, 1983). Continuing this line of argument, it seems that type A salespeople will probably tend to exhibit type A characteristics to some extent, even in the absence of stressors in the sales environment, because some of the stress they experience will probably be internally generated (e.g. Hart, 1995; Price, 1983).

Interventions to Reduce Trait Type A Behaviour in Salespeople

Stress Management

As mentioned earlier, trait type As are thought to self-generate stress through their constant striving to achieve unrealistically high standards (Hart, 1995; Matthews, 1982; Price, 1983). This self-generated stress is thought to elicit impatient behaviour, and

vulnerability to depression, from trait type As (Booth-Kewley & Friedman, 1987; Hart, 1995; Matthews, 1982). Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that trait type As tend to be ineffective copers in stressful situations (Birks & Roger, 2000). Some authorities have recommended stress management training (STM) to reduce the internally generated stress associated with TABP, suggesting that STM may be a viable strategy for reducing impatience and vulnerability to depression in type A salespeople (e.g. Hart, 1995; Friedman & Booth-Kewley, 1987). Specific recommendations for reducing stress reactivity in salespeople will be considered later.

Interventions to Reinforce Self-Esteem

The effect of the dysfunctional belief system in type As may be reduced through counseling. Friedman & Booth-Kewley (1987) have recommended counseling to assist type As in coping with anxiety associated with TABP, suggesting that counseling may be an effective intervention. Counseling may also assist type As to feel good about themselves, regardless of their ability to achieve. If the link between self-esteem and achievement can be weakened through counseling, then type As may be less likely to strive dysfunctionally to reinforce their self-esteem (Birks & Roger, 2000; Krug & Johns, 1986; Price, 1983), decreasing the tendency for type A salespeople to use pressure selling and may increase the likelihood that they will use customer oriented selling.

The Dysfunctional Belief System and Childhood Experiences

Consideration will now be given to the validity of assuming the action of a dysfunctional belief system (DBS) from child experiences (CE).

Evidence to support a causal argument for child experiences

There are several reasons to believe that CE may have indirectly contributed to TABP in salespeople through a dysfunctional belief system (DBS). Firstly, the child experiences (CE) measured in this study preceded the behaviours measured in salespeople, suggesting that CE had a causal effect on TABP. However, it is important to consider that it was salespeople's memories of the CE were measured, rather than the CE directly. The possible effect of memory biases on the CE measure will be considered later in the discussion of limitations to this study. Secondly, the effect of CE on other variables in

the model was similar to the effects predicted for a DBS (Price, 1983). Thirdly, The CE measured in this study have been posited as developmental processes likely to lead indirectly to TABP through the development of a DBS in individuals. There is evidence to suggest that developmental processes in childhood can contribute to the development of TABP in adults (Matthews, 1979; Matthews & Volkin, 1981; Price, 1983; Steinkamp, 1990). Consequently, it seems reasonable to infer the action of a DBS from CE on the basis of both empirical evidence and theory.

Type A Characteristics that may be Beneficial for Relationships with Customers

Although this study has focused on aspects of trait TABP that may tend to undermine relationships with customers, it may be that certain aspects of TABP are beneficial for customer relationships. For instance, the tendency for type As to drive themselves hard to achieve as much as possible in as short a time as possible (Friedman et al., 1975; Price, 1983) may mean that type A salespeople strive to fulfill customer orders as quickly as possible. Meeting customer needs quickly may logically increase customer satisfaction, and thereby be supportive of relationships between type A salespeople and customers (e.g. Bauer, et al., 1998; Jolson, 1997). Consequently, there may be certain aspects of TABP that are beneficial for relationships with customers. The possibility of an "inverted U" relationship between TABP and customer oriented selling will be considered later.

Role Overload

The effect of role overload in the structural model

Salespeople who perceived that they were overloaded with work and time-pressured were likely to be both impatient for quick results, and anxious about the standard of their sales performance. Although type As are likely to perceive themselves as overloaded and time-pressured (Kirmeyer, 1988; Matthews, 1982) it has also been argued that similar stressors can elicit state type A behaviour from type Bs (e.g. Bennett et al., 1990; Stewart & Barling, 1996). The current study provides further support for this argument. It seems that salespeople who perceive themselves to be overloaded may tend to become impatient, and also become likely to engage in anxious and self-attributional thoughts about their sales performance that may increase cognitive

vulnerability to depression (Abramson et al., 1989; Ingram et al., 1998).

Why does role overload seem to exert these effects?

There may be several reasons why type B salespeople may sometimes exhibit similar type A behaviour to type As in stressful circumstances. Firstly, there is evidence that ineffective coping with stress can increase both impatient behaviour (e.g. Stewart & Barling, 1996), and cognitive vulnerability to depression (e.g. Abramson et al., 1989; Ingram et al., 1998). Consequently, overloaded type B salespeople who are ineffective copers may become impatient and cognitively vulnerable to depression. Secondly there is evidence that the sales targets and financial incentives used to motivate salespeople can increase the tendency for salespeople to hold themselves responsible for sales outcomes (Eisenberger et al., 1999). Consequently, sales targets and commissions may increase the internal locus of control for sales outcomes in type B salespeople. As a result of this internal locus of control, these salespeople may tend to attribute failure to internal rather than external causes, similar to many trait type As (Glass, 1977; Price, 1983). Because self-attribution for failure seems to increase vulnerability to depression (Abramson et al., 1989), it seems reasonable to conclude that salespeople who engage in self-blame for failure to meet targets may tend to become vulnerable to depression for similar reasons to those proposed for type A salespeople earlier.

Theoretical considerations for role overload

There are several important differences in the structural model (figure 5.) between the effects of role overload (RO) and the dysfunctional belief system (DBS) (inferred from child experiences). Firstly, state type A behaviours elicited by RO in type B salespeople seem likely to be more unstable than similar behaviours in trait type As; RO in the sales environment may tend to fluctuate whereas the DBS in type As would seem to exert relatively stable effects (Price, 1983). Consequently, it seems that type B salespeople will be most likely to exhibit type A behaviours during exposure to RO from the sales environment (Bennett, et al., 1990). It follows from this possibility that interventions to reduce RO in the sales environment may have an effect in reducing state TABP elicited in type B salespeople. Secondly, it appears that the relative effect of RO on both impatience and sales performance concerns (SPC) in the current study was somewhat weaker than the effect of the DBS on the same variables, as can be seen by the strength of the relationships for these parameters in the structural model (figure 5.).

Consequently, it seems reasonable to conclude from these results that RO is unlikely to elicit type A behaviours from type B salespeople to the same extent as a DBS in trait type As.

Interaction between Child Experiences and Role Overload

No Evidence of an interaction

There was no evidence of the predicted interaction between child experiences (CE) and role overload (RO) in respect of impatience or salesperson concerns (SPC) as had been expected. It was argued in this study that type As can perceive themselves as more stressed than type Bs even though stressors in the environment may be objectively the same (Kirmeyer, 1988). There is also evidence to suggest that type As may be more reactive to stress than type Bs (Ganesson, 1986). On the basis of this evidence, it seems reasonable posit CE and RO would interact together to explain more significantly more variance than CE and RO acting independently. The results supported previous research that suggests that environmental stress can increase type A behaviours in trait type As (e.g. Matthews, 1982; Ganster et al., 1991). However, the observed effects were additive, but not multiplicative as would be expected if an interaction between CE and RO had been found.

Why was no evidence of an interaction uncovered?

Multiplicative effects may not have been found because brief scales were used to measure both child experiences (CE) and role overload (RO). If these scales tapped the CE and RO constructs more extensively, then an interaction may have been found. Furthermore, as mentioned previously, the dependent variables in the hierarchical regression were low in reliability. Even though it seemed unlikely that the low reliability of the dependent variables would have substantially affected the results in these analyses, the combined effect of low reliability, and narrow measurement of the constructs, may have resulted in the analysis missing potential interactive effects.

Sales Performance Concerns

Sales Performance Concerns in Type A Salespeople

Sales performance concerns (SPC) measured the tendency for salespeople to find their sales targets threatening, engage in anxious thoughts about their sales performance, and to doubt their ability to reach an adequate standard of performance. It was argued earlier that salespeople who engage in self-attributions for failing to reach their sales objectives were more likely to become vulnerable to depression than individuals who did not engage in these attributions (Abramson et al., 1989; Ingram et al., 1998). Furthermore, consistent with the hopelessness theory of depression (Abramson et al., 1989; Ingram et al., 1998) there is evidence to suggest that type As who perceive that they are unable to control their environments despite repeated efforts to do so, eventually become helpless and give up (Glass, 1977; Price, 1983; Wright, et al., 1994). The results of this study for CE seem to support this argument. Type A salespeople in this study seemed vulnerable to depression because they were likely to attribute perceived pressure to meet their targets to their own perceived lack of ability rather than to external factors.

Sales Performance Concerns in type B Salespeople

There is evidence to suggest that sales targets can increase the tendency for salespeople to desire to control their sales outcomes (Eisenberger, et al., 1999). The results for sales performance concerns suggested that type B salespeople who believe that they are able to control their sales outcomes, the more likely it seems that type B salespeople may become vulnerable to depression for similar reasons to those advanced for type As earlier.

Implications for Salespeople

The tendency to engage in self-blame for perceived inadequate results seems likely to increase vulnerability to depression in both type A and type B salespeople. Interventions that reduce the tendency for salespeople to engage in self-blame may also decrease their tendency to become vulnerable to depression.

Depression

The Relationship Between Depression and Selling Styles

Depression in salespeople was positively and significantly related to pressure selling (PS) and significantly and negatively related to customer oriented selling (COS) , thus supporting hypotheses nine and ten. The structural model suggests that child experiences and role overload can act indirectly on customer relationships through depression

Depression and Pressure Selling

Although depressed salespeople may engage in lower levels of sales activity due to decreased motivation (Davison & Neale, 1998; Ingram et al., 1998; Stefanis & Stefanis, 1999), results from this study suggest that the interactions that salespeople do have with customers may result in higher levels of pressure selling (PS) with customers as had been predicted. It seems that depressed salespeople may be likely to use pressure selling for several reasons. Firstly, depressed salespeople who perceive that PS enables them to meet their sales targets with minimum effort, may tend to engage in higher levels of PS than non-depressed salespeople (Davison & Neale, 1998; Ingram et. al., 1998; Price 1983). Secondly, depressed type A salespeople may tend to escape depression by setting themselves even higher sales objectives (Price, 1983). These higher objectives may logically result in increased use of PS by type A salespeople as they strive to reach these targets quickly.

Depression and Customer Oriented Selling

On the other hand, depressed salespeople seem likely to become less customer oriented even if they do not increase their use of pressure selling. Customer oriented selling (COS) relies on eliciting information about customer needs, and meeting those needs as accurately as possible (e.g. Lambert et al., 1990; Saxe & Weitz, 1983). However, depressed salespeople seem less likely to be aware of external information such as social cues from customers (Davison & Neale, 1998; Ingram et al., 1998), and

consequently, less aware of customer needs. Depressed salespeople may also be less helpful with customers than non-depressed salespeople (Aderman, 1972). It follows then that depressed salespeople seem less able to cognitively process customer needs, and less willing to meet customer needs. This lack of customer oriented behaviour may work against building long-term relationships with customers.

Implications for Salespeople

It seems that depression in salespeople should be of concern to managers regardless of its cause. The results for this study suggest that depression is likely to work against building relationships with customers. Consequently, depression in salespeople may reduce the effectiveness of salespeople, and thereby adversely affect the profitability of the organisation.

Impatience

The Theoretical Role of Impatience

A key argument for this study was based on the theory that type A salespeople were likely to be impatient for quick sales results. This impatience was likely to lead to pressure in order to dominate customers in order to make quick sales (Lamond et al., 1993; Strube et al., 1989; Yarnold & Grimm, 1988; Yarnold et al., 1985). It was argued that impatient salespeople may tend to pressure their customers for several reasons: to achieve a high level of sales as quickly as possible in order to reinforce self-esteem in type A salespeople (Price, 1983); and to reduce the stress associated with meeting sales targets in both type A and type B salespeople (Bennett et al., 1990; Hart, 1995). Partial support was claimed for this hypothesis.

Validating the Claim for Partial Support of the Impatience Hypothesis

There was some evidence to support hypothesis eleven. Firstly, impatience was positively related to pressure selling (PS) as was expected (figure 5.) Secondly, this parameter contributed substantially to the fit of the model. As was pointed out earlier, the chi square result went from a chi-square result of .873 to a chi-square result of .731 with this parameter excluded from the model. On the other hand the result hypothesis eleven approached, but did not reach statistical significance. Considering these factors together, claiming partial support for hypothesis eleven seemed reasonable.

Effect of Impatience in Salespeople

The results for this study provide some support for the proposition that salespeople who are impatient are more likely to engage in pressure selling with their customers. The measure for pressure selling also included items that measured the tendency for salespeople to exaggerate product benefits, and be dishonest with customers. Dominance behaviour associated with pressure selling seems likely to restrict the flow of information from customers and therefore work against building relationships with customers (De Cormier & Jobber, 1993; Jolson, 1997; Soldow & Thomas, 1984). Also, pressure selling that includes exaggeration and dishonesty to obtain quick sales is likely to undermine customers' trust in salespeople that use these tactics (e.g. Ganeson, 1994; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Consequently, the results suggest that salespeople who use pressure selling as measured in this study may be less likely to build long-term relationships with customers than salespeople who use customer oriented selling.

Motivated Achieving

As mentioned earlier, there is evidence to suggest that motivated achieving (MA) tends to lead to functional rather than dysfunctional outcomes. It was argued earlier that MA was likely to be a protective factor against depression and beneficial for relationships with customers (e.g. Bluen et al., 1990; MacEwen & Barling, 1996; Puffer, 1987; Soyer, 1999). The results for the current study appear to support these hypotheses.

Functional Effects of Motivated Achieving

Motivated achieving and depression

The result for the current study supports earlier findings that have found that MA seems to be a protective factor against depression (Bluen et al., 1990; MacEwen & Barling, 1993). The structural model in this study suggests that as MA increases, depression in salespeople tends to decrease. The model also suggests that MA contributes to reducing depression in salespeople as was predicted.

Motivated achieving and problem focused coping skills

Perhaps the reason that MA seems to reduce depression in salespeople may be partly because salespeople high in MA seem likely to use problem-focused coping skills that are thought to lead to effective coping skills in stressful situations. By coping more effectively with stress, salespeople high in MA may tend to be less reactive to stress in the sales environment. Secondly, salespeople who use problem-focused coping skills may be more likely to find novel solutions to their problems that increase their likelihood of success (Strutton, et al., 1995). Perceived success by salespeople high in MA may increase their self-esteem and thus reduce their vulnerability to depression (Ingram et al., 1998).

Motivated Achieving and Customer Relationships

It was argued earlier that MA would be positively related to customer orientation in salespeople (MacEwen & Barling, 1993; Organ & Hui, 1995; Puffer, 1987; Soyer et al., 1999). The results for MA add support to this argument. It appears that salespeople high in MA are more likely to use customer oriented selling. Salespeople high in MA seem likely to engage in sales behaviours that enable them to understand customer needs and help customers achieve their goals. As discussed in the previous paragraph, there is evidence to suggest that MA may lead to greater use of problem-focused coping skills (Strutton et al., 1995). Perhaps salespeople high in MA tend to find that customer oriented selling is the most effective way of solving the problem of meeting sales targets. Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that individuals high in MA tend to strive for high quality rather than quantity of performance (Helmreich et al., 1988). It follows from this possibility that salespeople high in MA may strive for high quality relationships with their customers.

Motivated Achieving and Role Overload

As mentioned earlier, MA was found to increase perceived role overload (RO) in salespeople, consistent with previous type A research (Organ & Hui, 1995; Spector & O'Connell, 1994). As mentioned earlier, the amount of variance explained in RO was relatively small (table 3.). Furthermore, MA had a negligible indirect effect on either sales performance concerns (SPC) or impatience (table 4). Consequently, the slight perceived increase in RO associated with MA in this study seemed to have little in the way of dysfunctional effects in increasing vulnerability to depression or impatience in salespeople.

Implications for Salespeople

The results for motivated achieving (MA) suggest that MA may increase the tendency for salespeople to engage in customer oriented selling and reduce their tendency to become depressed. It follows from these possibilities that interventions designed to reduce the dysfunctional aspects of TABP may be more effective if they also have the effect of increasing behaviours associated with MA. For instance, interventions that aim to reduce the dysfunctional aspects of TABP through stress management training (e.g. Hart, 1995) may also improve the effectiveness of salespeople by increasing their tendency to use problem-solving stress management strategies (e.g. Strutton et al., 1995).

Implications for Managers

Concerns for Managers About Type A Behaviour Pattern and Sales Behaviour

This study suggests that both state and trait TABP in salespeople may increase the tendency for salespeople to use pressure selling and reduce customer oriented selling in salespeople. It follows from this finding that TABP in salespeople may tend to work against building long-term relationships with customers by restricting information flow from customers, and by undermining trust in customers (De Cormier & Jobber, 1993; Jolson, 1997; Soldow & Thomas, 1984). If long-term relationships with customers are important for long-term profitability as has been argued by some authorities (e.g. Bauer et al., 1998; Jolson, 1997), then depression in salespeople may directly impact on organisational profitability. If depression in salespeople does impact on profitability, then there are economic reasons in addition to employee-welfare reasons to consider intervening to reduce both stress and depression in the sales environment. This section will focus on practical interventions at the organisational level that may reduce the incidence of both state and trait TABP in salespeople. The goal of these interventions is to increase the tendency for salespeople to use a customer-oriented selling approach with customers.

Identifying Type A Behaviour in Salespeople

Accurately diagnosing TABP is considered to be problematic: there is little overlap between many available measures for TABP and interview techniques for assessing TABP require considerable expertise (Booth-Kewley & Rosenman, 1987; Matthews, 1982). Consequently, it may be difficult for managers to identify type A salespeople. However, perhaps managers could identify the toxic attributes associated with TABP by observing the behaviour of salespeople under a variety of situations. As mentioned earlier, trait, unlike state type As, seem likely to exhibit type A characteristics even when they are not in stressful environments (e.g. Hart, 1995) Managers could therefore observe the conditions under which individual salespeople exhibit type A characteristics to determine whether observed type A behaviour is state or trait in nature.

Managing Trait Type A Behaviour in Salespeople

Many of the recommendations that follow apply to both type A and type B salespeople. At this point however, several interventions will be recommended that apply specifically to salespeople high in "trait" type A behaviour.

Counseling

Managers could consider providing counseling for type A salespeople if their type A behaviour is negatively affecting their job performance. Perhaps counseling could help type A salespeople resolve one of the drivers of type A behaviour; the need to boost self-esteem that seems to motivate dysfunctional striving (Price, 1983) as was suggested earlier. Counseling may help type A salespeople feel good about themselves regardless of their achievements. In this way counseling may break the link between self-esteem and achievement, and thus reduce some of the striving behaviour.

Training in relationship selling

Perhaps type A salespeople would benefit from training in relationship selling. According to self-efficacy theory, individuals are more likely to adopt a given behaviour if they perceive that they have the required skills for the behaviour, and they believe that those skills are likely to lead to desired outcomes (Bandura, et. al., 1986). It follows then that if type A salespeople perceive (1) that the success that they strive for is likely to be attained through customer oriented selling strategies, (2) that they they have the required skills to use customer oriented selling strategies, then they may tend to use customer oriented selling strategies more often.

Targeting type A salespeople effectively

Managers could consider targeting type A salespeople to sell to customers and to sell products that best suit the pressure approach to selling. Firstly, there is evidence that the customer oriented selling approach may not always be the approach that is most likely to lead to success (Rackman, 1988). Secondly, there is evidence to suggest that some customers still prefer sales-oriented selling approaches from salespeople (Bauer et al., 1998). Thirdly, type As may enjoy the competition involved in winning customers from "the opposition" (Sager, 1991). Managers could then assign salespeople that are more relationally oriented to building ongoing relationships with new customers that have

been won through the efforts of type A salespeople.

Selection decisions

Managers could consider type A traits when making decisions to employ new salespeople. As mentioned earlier, there are a number of problems with reliably diagnosing TABP (Matthews, 1982). However, there is general agreement in the literature about the "toxic" aspects of TABP (e.g. Birks & Roger, 2000; Booth-Kewley, 1987; Ganster et al., 1991). Managers may be best advised to include measures of the toxic attributes associated with TABP such as trait impatience and irritability in their selection screening tests.

Managing Stress in both Type A and Type B Salespeople

It was argued earlier that stress is at the root of both trait and state type A behaviour (e.g. Bennett, 1990; Hart, 1995). It follows then that recommendations to reduce the effect of stress may be beneficial in reducing TABP in both type A and type B salespeople.

The nature of stress

There is evidence to suggest that stressors tends to be cumulative in nature, and that stress may eventually exceed coping resources of individuals (Davison & Neale, 1998; Eriksen & Ursin, 1999; Riggio, 1996). Type As who cope ineffectively with self-generated stress (e.g. Glass, 1977; Hart, 1995), and type Bs who cope ineffectively with external stress, seem likely to elicit type A symptoms. It follows then that interventions to reduce the effects of stress may reduce type A symptoms.

The possible effect of role overload on customer relationships

In this study, role overload was found to increase impatience and vulnerability to depression in salespeople. There was support in the structural model for the argument that both impatience and depression could increase the tendency to use pressure selling with customers. It seems that interventions to reduce stress will be beneficial for the well-being of salespeople (e.g. Andries et al., 1996; Stewart & Barling, 1996), and reduce their tendency to use pressure selling, as the current study suggests. This discussion will now offer recommendations for interventions that may reduce; the

tendency for type Bs to exhibit type A behaviours due to stress; the likelihood that stress may exacerbate TABP behaviours in trait type As, and; the likelihood that salespeople will use pressure selling.

The likely effect of interventions to reduce stress on customer relationships

Role overload appears likely to elicit state type A behaviour from type Bs and exacerbate trait TABP in type As (Bennett et al., 1990; Price, 1983). It follows then, that reducing role overload for salespeople may have several effects. Firstly, type A behaviour in both state and trait type As may reduce. Reducing role overload for salespeople may indirectly reduce their tendency to use pressure selling because they may become less impatient for results (Bennett et al., 1990). Secondly, these salespeople may be less likely to become depressed (Abramson et al., 1989; Ingram et al., 1998). Thirdly, emotionally sensitive salespeople who tend to be: dispositionally customer oriented; but vulnerable to stress in the sales environment (Verbeke, 1997) may benefit from interventions to reduce stress in the sales environment. Stress in the sales environment could be reduced through a number of interventions.

Unnecessary stress. By identifying and removing unnecessary stressors from the environment, managers may reduce the load on salespeoples' coping resources. For instance, managers might examine the amount of paperwork required from salespeople to see if paperwork could be done in a more efficient way. Managers could seek to eliminate other sources of stress such as interpersonal conflict in the workplace.

Setting Sales Targets. Managers could reconsider the way in which sales targets and commissions are set for their salespeople. It was argued earlier that sales targets and commissions may become sources of role overload for salespeople (Eisenberger et al., 1999; Oliver & Anderson, 1994). It may be possible that managers may be able to avoid these effects in setting sales targets. There is evidence in goal setting theory to suggest that goals are more likely to be accepted if individuals perceive that they have participated in the goal setting process, and that they believe that the goals are equitable (Locke, Latham, & Erez, 1988). Applying these principles to the sales setting, it seems logical that managers could consider a consultative approach in setting targets for several reasons. Firstly, sales targets that are accepted and perceived to be fair seem less likely to be considered threatening because they seem likely to be appraised as

within the coping ability of the salesperson (Erickson & Ursin, 1999). Secondly, if salespeople do not feel so threatened by their targets they may be less inclined to engage in pressure selling to meet the targets. Thirdly, the additional benefit for managers from this strategy is that these sales goals may also be more motivating for the salesperson (Locke et al., 1988).

Process control. Managers could consider process control along with, or instead of, output control methods for controlling sales behaviour. Managers who use process control methods attempt to reinforce the correct behaviour in salespeople, rather than focus on their short-term results (Oliver & Anderson, 1994). Firstly, process control methods would eliminate stress associated with sales targets that may increase pressure selling in salespeople (Oliver & Anderson, 1994). Furthermore, there is evidence that process control methods can increase the tendency for salespeople to use customer oriented selling (Joshi & Randall, 2001; Oliver & Anderson, 1994). Consequently, process control methods may reduce the tendency for both type A and type B salespeople to use pressure selling and increase the likelihood that they will use customer oriented selling.

Positive mood. Managers could consider interventions to increase positive mood in their sales team to reduce vulnerability to stress, and increase the tendency to use customer oriented selling. Firstly, there is evidence to suggest that positive mood is protective against stress (e.g. Abel, & Maxwell, 2002; Moran & Massam, 1997). Secondly, there is evidence to suggest that positive mood increases the likelihood that salespeople will use customer oriented selling (e.g. George, 1998).

Stress management training. Managers could consider stress management training for salespeople to increase resilience to stress in the sales occupation. There is evidence that many highly successful salespeople tend to be more resilient to stress and also tend to use problem solving coping strategies in dealing with stress, as mentioned earlier (e.g. Strutton, et al., 1995). If this resilience and use of problem solving coping strategies in many successful salespeople contributes to their success, then it logically follows that imparting similar skills to other salespeople may not only reduce their vulnerability to stress, it may also increase the likelihood that they will succeed in the sales environment.

Organisational Support for Customer Oriented Selling

Managers could investigate the messages implicit in the organisational culture and ensure that there is support for a customer oriented approach to customers, thus reinforcing customer oriented selling by its salespeople. There is evidence to suggest that salespeople are more likely to use a customer oriented approach to selling if they perceive that the organisational culture is supportive of this selling approach (Kelley, 1992; Williams & Attaway, 1996). Consequently, type A and type B salespeople may be more likely to engage in customer oriented selling if they perceive that their organisation supports and encourages relationship selling from its salespeople.

Externalising failure

Managers could reduce the tendency for salespeople to become vulnerable to depression by acknowledging the effect of external factors on sales performance. There are likely to be circumstances in the environment that may on occasions prevent salespeople from achieving their targets despite their best efforts. Salespeople may become less likely to engage in self-blame, and thereby become less vulnerable to depression if managers acknowledge the contingent effect of external factors on performance rather than attributing failure to salespeople when it is beyond their ability to control sales outcomes (Abramson et al., 1989).

Limitations

Cross-Sectional Study

The cross-sectional nature of this study means that it is difficult to draw firm conclusions about directions of causation between the variables. The model fit to the data is good, but not perfect. Perhaps a better fitting model may indicate opposite directions of causation for some of the variables. Probably the strongest argument that can be advanced for the validity of the causal directions indicated on the model is that the model is grounded in theory, and that the data displays good fit to the model.

Self-Perceptions were Measured, not Actual Behaviours

This study relied on the self-perceptions of salespeople. It explained earlier that the SOCO scale is subject to these biases; salespeople tend to perceive themselves as more customer oriented than they actually may be (Saxe & Weitz, 1983). The possibility of bias cannot be ruled out for other measures used in this study. On the other hand, salespeople participated anonymously. Also, participants were aware that they would have the opportunity to see their results, while remaining anonymous. Therefore, there did not seem to be reason to believe that social desirability could have biased these results; it seemed that salespeople would be motivated to answer as accurately as possible. Therefore, there did not appear to be any influences that may exacerbate bias due to self-perceptions in this study.

Possible Memory Biases in the "Child Experiences" Measure

Problems with measuring memories

As mentioned earlier, it was the memories of child experiences in salespeople, not the actual events in childhood that were measured in this study. There is considerable evidence to suggest that memories can be biased by a number of factors (Matlin, 1996). Consequently, it could be argued that the memories may not have been accurate and may have been subject to systematic bias that may account for the observed associations.

Why memory biases were unlikely to have biased these results

It seems unlikely that memory biases affected these results. Memory biases are more likely to occur with specific events (Matlin, 1996). However, the CE remembered by salespeople in this study would seem to indicate established patterns of parental behaviour that may have spanned across the childhood of the salesperson. Salespeople who remembered these characteristics would seem to have perceived that they were important influences from their childhood. Consequently it seems reasonable to assume that salespeople's memories were relatively unbiased. .

Possibility of Mono-Method Bias

Arguments for the possibility of mono-method bias.

The data gathered for this study used the same method for all the variables. Consequently, the possibility of mono-method bias cannot be excluded in this study. The possibility that individuals may answer in a consistent manner for all surveys was of concern in this study. There was a major concern in this regard with respect to depression. Depressed individuals may tend to evaluate themselves more negatively when responding to other scales in the survey (e.g. Chen & Spector, 1991). Thus, spurious relationships may be found due to mono-method biases.

Why mono-method bias may not have seriously undermined the current study.

There is some evidence to suggest that mono-method bias did not have a major effect in the results for this study. As mentioned in the previous paragraph, depression appeared to provide the most likely cause for concern with respect to mono-method bias. If depressed individuals had responded consistently negatively about themselves, then along with other relationships, there should also be a strong positive relationship between depression and impatience. However, the results revealed that there was no direct significant relationship between these variables. Bivariate tests had already indicated that there was no significant correlation between these variables. When depression and impatience were directly linked in the multivariate context of the structural model, the result suggested a very low probability ($p = .693$) of a direct relationship between these variables. This result provided some comfort that mono-method bias had not substantially affected the outcome of this study.

How to Reduce Possible Biasing Effects in the First Four Limitations

In order to overcome the problems associated with the first four limitations outlined above, it is recommended that multiple methods should be used to measure the relationships between the variables. Experimental and longitudinal studies may add weight to the argument for causality. Observational studies, surveying managers, and surveying customers may reduce any effect from biases due to self-perceptions, or consistent responding.

Reliability of the Measures

This study was limited in that several of the measures used fell below generally acceptable standards of reliability. Unreliability in measures derived through factor analysis is a common problem. Derived factors often comprise only a few items. Since reliability tends to increase with scale size (Murphy & Davidshofer, 1998), it follows that very brief scales are more likely to be unreliable. On the other hand, the method used in this study for the structural model fixed error accurately for the indicators variables. Treating error in this way corrected for any attenuation, controlling for unreliability in these measures. Having made this point, it is still more desirable to use reliable measures. However, as just mentioned, reliability can imply longer surveys (Murphy & Davidshofer, 1998). However, lengthily instruments could not be used in this study because of the likely effect on response rates. Other researchers also may need to balance this consideration against the desirability of using longer, more reliable measures.

Representativeness of the Sample

Although the response rate of 37% could be considered reasonably representative in comparison to response rates for some studies, it is not known what the responses of the other 63% of salespeople might have been. Therefore, there must be some question about the representativeness of this study. On the other hand, non responders may have been on average more time stressed or type A in nature than the respondents to the survey. Considering this possibility, it seems likely that the structural model probably understates rather than overstates the strength of relationships between variables. In order to ensure a higher response rate it seems necessary to gain strong commitment of management to the project. Response rates seem likely to be higher if managers set aside time for salespeople to complete the surveys when they are all together; for instance, at a routine sales meeting.

Gender Distributions Between Business Categories

This study was limited due to the uneven distribution of male and female salespeople across business categories. Both industrial and office equipment and supplies sales

comprised mainly male salespeople. Advertising sales had a higher number of females than males, although the balance was more even than in the other two business categories. This gender distribution made it difficult to analyse differences between groups due to confounding between possible business group differences and gender differences. Due to this problem, it was decided to group all participants together in this study, rather than compare business categories. Future researchers may consider controlling these variables by focusing on one business category, or one gender group. On the other hand, they might control the number of participants for each gender to ensure that the gender groups are reasonably balanced in their distribution across business categories.

Convergent Validity Concerns

There is not substantial overlap between many type A measures, as mentioned earlier (Matthews, 1982). Therefore, this study that has used the Framingham type A survey (FTAS) (Haynes et al., 1977) may not necessarily generalise to other type A measures. On the other hand, the FTAS does seem to tap anxiety and stress issues thought to underlie TABP (Matthews, 1982), and therefore seems reasonably compatible with the Prices (1983) theory that has been recognised as a thorough theory of TABP (Spicer et al., 1993).

Recommendations for future research

Type A Theory

Dimensions and antecedent variables of TABP

Similar to previous research this study has found differential effects for the motivated achieving and impatience dimensions (e.g. Bluen et al., 1990; Helmreich et al., 1988; MacEwan & Barling, 1993). This study has also supported previous research that has emphasised the importance of understanding the effect of antecedent variables on TABP (e.g. Birks & Rogers, 2001; Friedman et al., 1985; Price, 1983). Considering these findings together, this study suggests that future researchers should consider the effects

of relevant type A dimensions to ensure that differential effects are not obscured, and also consider the effect of the antecedent variables to TABP.

Is motivated achieving a valid type A dimension?

Future researchers may wish to consider the validity of retaining motivated achieving (MA) and similar "non-toxic" type A dimensions (Birks & Rogers, 2000; Helmreich, et al., 1988) within the type A construct. Firstly, MA (and similar achievement constructs in the type A area) seems to have substantially different effects to "toxic" type A behaviour symptoms as was found in the current study and earlier research (e.g. Birks & Rogers, 2000; Bluen et al., 1990; MacEwen & Barling, 1993). Secondly, some type A researchers have noted the similarity between MA constructs in the type A literature, and the achievement motivation construct (McClelland, 1961) in the motivation literature (e.g. Ganster et al., 1991). For instance, these constructs have each been found to have beneficial effects on interpersonal relationships (Puffer, 1987; Soyer, et al., 1999). Thirdly, MA does not seem to have any theoretical basis in earlier theories of TABP (e.g. Friedman & Rosenmann, 1974; Glass, 1977; Matthews, 1982; Price, 1983). Given these considerations, future researchers may wish to consider the value of maintaining MA within the type A construct. Future researchers may be better advised to focus on dimensions of the "toxic" aspects of TABP (e.g. Landy et al., 1991; Wright et al., 1994).

Childhood experiences and TABP

Researchers may wish to further investigate the role of child experiences in the development of TABP. Firstly, the current study investigated a narrow range of parental influences on child development; the role of parental influence and other variables could be further investigated. Secondly, researchers could directly investigate the relationship between child experiences in the development of the dysfunctional belief system that is thought to underlie TABP (Price, 1983). It would be interesting to better understand the childhood developmental variables that contribute to belief systems that may affect future health and well-being. Further understanding these variables may enable parents to be educated about the likely effects of various parenting styles on the subsequent development of TABP.

Improving the Impatience Measure

Future researchers may consider broadening the impatience measure. For instance, the deadline control component of time urgency (Conte et al., 2001) could have been measured in relation to impatience in salespeople. Deadline control would seem to be relevant to salespeople who are often expected to meet sales targets by specified dates, and may increase their tendency to become impatient with customers and exert pressure on them. Future researchers may consider including deadline control in their measure of impatience.

Sales Performance

TABP, customer relationships, and sales volume

Future researchers could extend the current study by including sales volume as a variable in the model. A number of studies that have investigated the effectiveness of relationship selling have tended to focus on variables such as customer satisfaction (e.g. Humphreys & Williams, 1996), or customers' future intentions to interact with the salesperson (e.g. Crosby et al., 1990). However, few studies have investigated whether customer oriented selling results in higher sales in the long-term, as has been theorised (see Rackman, 1988 for an exception).

Curve-linear relationship between TABP and sales performance.

Future researchers may wish to extend the current study by investigating a possible curve-linear relationship between TABP and sales performance to determine whether the beneficial aspects of certain amounts of TABP in salespeople outweigh the negative effects proposed in this study. It is possible to argue that a certain aspects of TABP in salespeople may be beneficial to customer relationships and for sales performance. For instance, type A salespeople might push their suppliers hard to ensure that customer orders are met on time thus increasing customer satisfaction. Also, because type As tend to work hard (Friedman & Rosenmann, 1974; Matthews, 1982; Price et al., 1983) type A salespeople may tend to make more calls on customers than type B salespeople, giving type A salespeople more opportunities to make sales than type Bs. Perhaps TABP at a given level in salespeople may be high enough to drive these positive aspects of sales behaviour, but not so high as to seriously undermine relationships with

customers.

Gender Differences

Gender and customer relationships.

There is evidence to suggest that females tend to be more relational than males in both the wider social context (Anderson & Blanchard, 1982; Eagley & Johnson, 1990; Gilligan, 1982; Hall, 1978; Swan, Kiser & Martin, 1984) and in the sales environment (Adams, 1999; Dwyer, Orlando, & Shepherd, 1998; Levy & Sharma, 1994). Future researchers could consider whether gender differences may moderate the effect of type A behaviour in salespeople on relationships with customers.

Gender, TABP and customer relationships.

Perhaps the tendency for females to be more relationship-oriented could moderate the effect of type A behaviour on relationships with customers in females. On one hand, perhaps TABP in female salespeople will have less effect on customer relationships than type A behaviour in male salespeople. Female salespeople may tend to use a relational style with customers regardless of whether or not they are type A. On the other hand, females tend to be more vulnerable to depression than males (Davison & Neale, 1998; Ingram et al., 1998). As mentioned earlier, the structural model suggests that depression in salespeople leads to increased pressure selling, and/or decreased customer oriented selling in salespeople. Researchers might explore the way in which these apparently conflicting effects of gender translate through to relationships with customers.

Interaction Between Child Experiences and Role Overload.

Future researchers may consider exploring the possibility of the posited interactions that were discussed earlier. It was suggested earlier that interactions between child experiences (CE) and role overload (RO) may have been found when these variables were regressed on sales performance concerns (SPC) and impatience. However, interactions may have been overlooked because relevant constructs may not have been measured in sufficient depth. Furthermore, low reliability in the relevant dependent variables may have contributed to the analyses overlooking interactive effects. Future researchers may consider correcting these problems when replicating the current study.

CONCLUSION

Type A Behaviour Pattern and Customer Relationships

Focus of the Study

This study has considered the effect of type A behaviour in salespeople on their ability to build relationships with customers. Firstly it was argued that TABP may increase the tendency for salespeople to become impatient with customers, and to exert pressure on customers to obtain quick results. Secondly, it has been argued that pressure selling may tend to undermine relationships with customers by both restricting communication from the customer and undermining trust for the salesperson.

The Structural Model

Impatience, Depression, and Pressure Selling

The structural model in this study proposed several pathways by which this process might occur. Firstly, it seems that type A salespeople might be driven to achieve by a dysfunctional belief system that results in them constantly and impatiently striving for success in selling. This striving may lead to pressure selling. Also, these dispositional traits may make type A salespeople vulnerable to depression (Abramson et al., 1989; Ingram et al., 1998; Price, 1983). On the other hand, this study found that type B salespeople can also exhibit state type A symptoms when they perceive themselves to be under stress. (Bennett et. al., 1990). In this study, role overload seemed to increase impatience in type B salespeople, and increase vulnerability to depression in type B salespeople. However, it seems that state type A behaviour in type Bs is more likely to be exhibited mainly during exposure to stress in the sales environment.

Motivated Achieving

The current study has supported earlier studies that have found that MA: was associated with beneficial outcomes (e.g. Bluen et al., 1990; MacEwen & Barling, 1993), and; enhanced behaviours that could lead to building long-term relationships with customers (Puffer, 1987; Soyer et al., 1989). These findings suggest that motivated achieving is likely to improve relationships with customers both directly and indirectly. On the other hand, this study found that MA did seem to increase perceived role overload in salespeople, consistent with several earlier studies (Organ & Hui, 1995; Spector & O'Connell, 1994). However, the amount of variance explained in role overload was quite small, and had a negligible indirect effect on vulnerability to depression in salespeople. Considering these findings, it seems that the effect of motivated achieving has mostly beneficial effects. Salespeople high in this construct are likely to use customer oriented selling and thus increase the probability of building long-term relationships with customers.

Recommendations

Various recommendations were made to enable managers to reduce the aspects of both state and trait TABP that may undermine relationships with customers. Recommendations were made for ways in which managers might reduce stress in the sales environment and increase the ability of workers to cope with stress. For instance it was recommended that managers who wish to reduce the use of pressure selling should seek to eliminate unnecessary stressors from the sales environment. It was also recommended that managers might consider the most appropriate markets and products for type A salespeople. Type A salespeople may be better suited to markets where success does not depend on building long term relationships customers, to customers that prefer traditional selling approaches from salespeople, and to new markets where a considerable amount of competition is required might be best suited for type A salespeople.

Closing Comments

In closing then, it seems that both dispositional type A characteristics, and stress in the sales environment can increase the likelihood that salespeople will use pressure selling with customers. The pressure selling construct in this study included several associated behaviours including the tendency to; exert pressure on customers; exaggerate product benefits to customers; and behave dishonestly with customers. Pressure selling seems likely to undermine relationships with customers in several ways. Firstly, pressure selling seems likely to restrict the flow of communication from customers, thus making it less likely that their needs will be satisfied. Secondly customers who feel they have been pressured into buying, and perceive that salespeople have been dishonest with them, may not consider the salesperson to be credible.

It follows from this study that TABP may affect the ability of salespeople to build relationships with customers through several paths. Both dispositional type A traits and state type A effects in type B salespeople seem to increase the use of pressure selling in salesperson-customer interactions. These possibilities will be of concern in business categories where a key factor for success is building long-term relationships with customers. However, a number of strategies have been recommended to enable managers to reduce the effect of TABP on customer relationships. Several of these strategies may have the effect of not only reducing pressure selling by salespeople, but also increasing the use of customer oriented selling.

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APPENDIX ONE

Statistical information for factor analyses and related information.

Output for Framingham Factor Analysis (part one)

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.663
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	303.945
	df	45
	Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.664	26.640	26.640	1.523	15.234	15.234
2	1.464	14.638	41.277	1.136	11.359	26.593
3	1.261	12.609	53.886	.911	9.113	35.706
4	1.061	10.610	64.496	.698	6.980	42.686
5	.813	8.130	72.626			
6	.728	7.279	79.905			
7	.651	6.513	86.418			
8	.609	6.087	92.505			
9	.408	4.078	96.583			
10	.342	3.417	100.000			

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix of Framingham

	Factor			
	Role Overload	Ach. Striving	Impatience	Work Concerns
FRA		.757		
FRB	.762			
FRC			.518	
FRD		.699		
FRE			.378	
FRF			.617	
FRG	.782			
FRH				.667
FRI	.512			
FRJ				.403

Output for Framingham factor analysis (part two) (including child experiences, commission, and target pressure)

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.685
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	484.007
	df	105
	Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.059	20.394	20.394	1.644	10.960	10.960
2	1.908	12.720	33.114	1.227	8.182	19.143
3	1.503	10.023	43.137	1.162	7.749	26.892
4	1.303	8.687	51.823	1.055	7.034	33.926
5	1.078	7.186	59.009	.997	6.647	40.573
6	.888	5.922	64.931			
7	.828	5.521	70.453			
8	.776	5.175	75.628			
9	.715	4.765	80.393			
10	.658	4.384	84.777			
11	.603	4.023	88.799			
12	.531	3.541	92.340			
13	.435	2.901	95.242			
14	.393	2.618	97.860			
15	.321	2.140	100.000			

Output for Framingham Factor Analysis (including child experiences, commission, and target pressure continued).

Varimax rotated factor matrix of Framingham (including child exp., commission, and sales target pressure.

	Factor				
	Role Overload	Child Exp.	Ach. Striving	Sales Perf. Concerns	Impatience
FRA			.723		
FRB	.754				
FRC					.470
FRD			.715		
FRE					.398
FRF					.634
FRG	.787				
FRH				.315	
FRI	.536				
FRJ				.404	
COMM				.550	
PRESS				.620	
CHEX1		.359			
CHEX2		.758			
CHEX3		.605			

Output for Factor Analysis of SOCO Scale

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.854
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1393.652
	df	276
	Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.516	27.151	27.151	3.188	13.285	13.285
2	2.186	9.107	36.258	2.751	11.464	24.749
3	1.442	6.009	42.267	1.335	5.561	30.311
4	1.388	5.785	48.052	1.318	5.493	35.803
5	1.141	4.752	52.804	1.015	4.231	40.034
6	1.033	4.306	57.110	.884	3.681	43.716
7	.936	3.900	61.010			
8	.903	3.761	64.771			
9	.869	3.620	68.391			
10	.826	3.443	71.834			
11	.790	3.291	75.125			
12	.679	2.828	77.953			
13	.636	2.651	80.605			
14	.571	2.379	82.984			
15	.562	2.342	85.326			
16	.549	2.286	87.612			
17	.492	2.051	89.663			
18	.451	1.878	91.541			
19	.419	1.747	93.288			
20	.369	1.536	94.824			
21	.353	1.472	96.296			
22	.320	1.333	97.629			
23	.298	1.241	98.870			
24	.271	1.130	100.000			

Output for Factor Analysis of SOCO Scale (Continued).

Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for SOCO Scale.

	Factor					
	CO Selling	Pressure Selling	3	4	5	6
C1	.495					-.338
C2	.553				.300	
C3						
C4	.641					
C5	.486				.310	
C6	.438					
C7			.646			
C8	.684					
C9	.371					
C10			.701			
C11	.503					
C12	.668					
S1		.578				
S2		.524				
S3		.457				
S4				.348		
S5		.563			.713	
S6		.413				
S7		.647		.329		
S8				.399		
S9		.367		.531		
S10				.616		
S11		.324				.479
S12		.539				.441

Note: Items used as indicator variables from SOCO displayed in bold italics

Items Loading on Each Factor

Questions Used in Factors.

	<u>Instrument</u>
<u>Motivated Achieving</u>	
Competitive and hard driving	FTAS
A strong need to excel at most things.	FTAS
<u>Impatience</u>	
Bossy or dominating.	FTAS
Eating too quickly.	FTAS
Did you normally get upset if it was necessary to wait for something?	FTAS
<u>Role Overload</u>	
Usually pressed for time.	FTAS
Often very pressed for time.	FTAS
Stretched by works to the limit of energy and capacity.	FTAS
<u>Sales Performance Concerns.</u>	
Concerned with problems after work hours?	FTAS
Often uncertain, uncomfortable, or dissatisfied with own performance?	FTAS
Roughly, what proportion of your income is paid as commission on sales?	General
How often do you feel under pressure to meet your sales targets?	General
<u>Depression.</u>	
I couldn't seem to experience any positive feeling at all.	DASS
I found it difficult to work up the initiative to do things.	DASS
I felt that I had nothing to look forward to.	DASS
I felt downhearted and blue.	DASS
I was unable to become enthusiastic about anything.	DASS
I felt that I wasn't worth much as a person.	DASS
I felt that life was meaningless.	DASS
<u>Pressure Selling.</u>	
If I am not sure a product is right for a customer, I will still apply pressure to get him/her to buy.	SOCO
I treat a customer as a rival.	SOCO
I keep on alert for a weakness in a customer's personality so I can use them to put pressure on him/her to buy.	SOCO
I imply that something is beyond my control when it is not.	SOCO
I pretend to agree with customers to please them.	SOCO
It is necessary to stretch the truth in describing my product/service to a customer.	SOCO

Questions Used in Factors, continued.

	<u>Instrument</u>
<u>Customer Oriented Selling.</u>	
I try to help customers achieve their goals.	SOCO
I try to achieve my goals by satisfying customers.	SOCO
I try to figure out what a customers needs are rather than just promote my product.	SOCO
I try to figure out what kind of product/service would be most helpful to a customer.	SOCO
I try to bring a customer with a problem together with a product/service that helps them solve that problem.	SOCO
I am willing to disagree with a customer to help him/her make a better decision.	SOCO

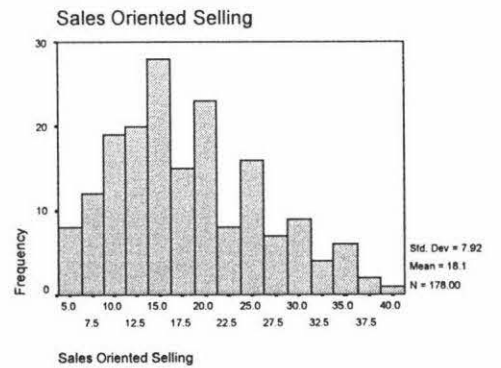
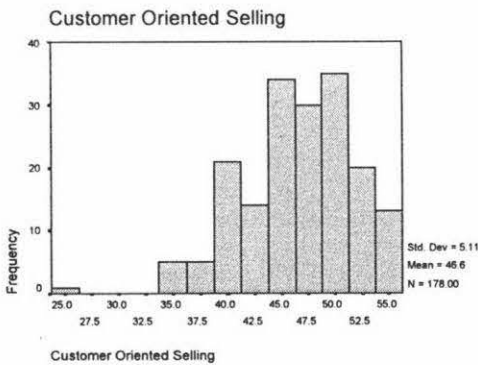
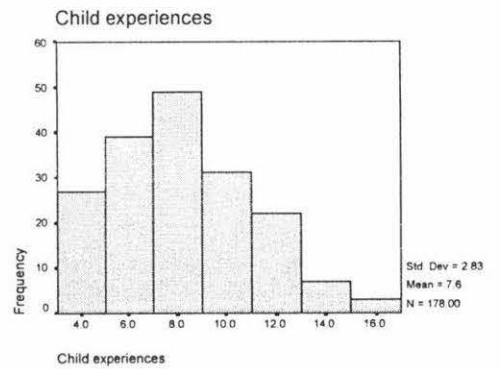
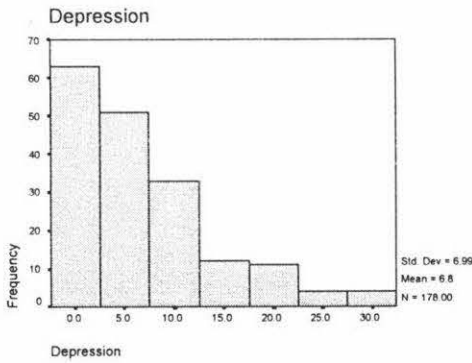
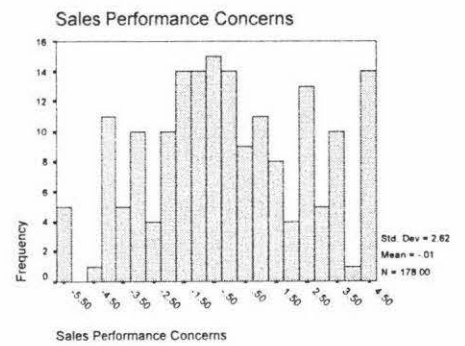
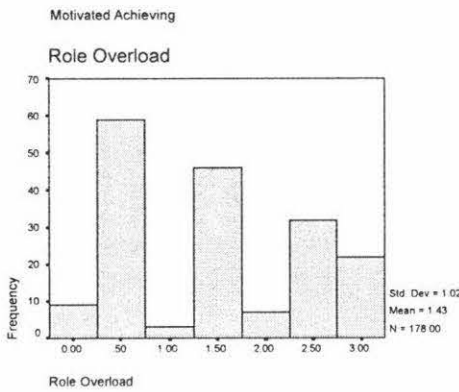
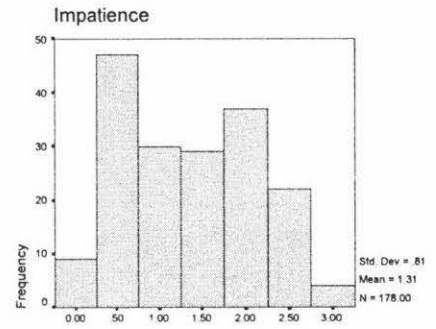
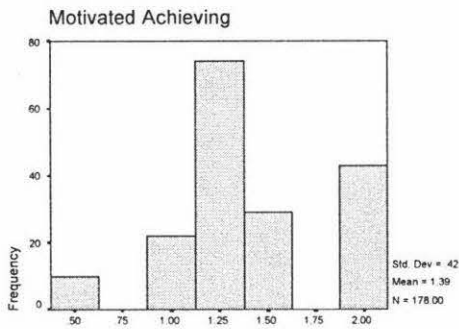
Rationale for "Sales Performance Concerns" Factor

The rationale for the assumption that sales performance concerns taps sales-related cognitive vulnerability to depression requires some explanation. It was explained in the introduction that perceived inability to cope, threats to self-esteem, and perceived inability to control stressful situations, and tendency to self-blame for failure could contribute to cognitive vulnerability to depression, especially if failure was attributed to internal rather than external causes (Abramson et al., 1989; Glass, 1977; Ingram et al., 1999; Price, 1983). Furthermore, an earlier review of the FTAS (Matthews, 1982) suggests that the FTAS is related to both stress and anxiety measures. The fourth factor seems to tap these elements with respect to the sales environment.

Evaluation of items in the "sales performance concerns" factor.

"How often do you feel under pressure to meet sales targets" seemed to imply a degree of threat perceived by sales people with respect to their ability to control their sales targets. Because "Roughly what proportion of your income is paid as commission on sales" loaded on other items related to anxiety and concern about sales performance; the commission item seemed to imply anxiety about future income. Although commission sales may not always be threatening for salespeople (Strutton et al., 1995), the reasonably strong loading on the fourth factor suggested that commission sales was likely to be threatening for many salespeople. Sales targets and commissions are important measures of success and determinants of income in the sales occupation and are therefore likely to be of concern to salespeople, and failure seems likely to threaten their self-esteem (Ingram et al., 1999; Oliver & Anderson, 1994; Price, 1983). "Often uncertain, uncomfortable or dissatisfied with own performance?" seemed to imply self-attributions for the sales outcomes within the sales context. Self-attributions for failure can lead to cognitive vulnerability to depression (Abramson, et al., 1989; Ingram et al., 1998). "Concerned with problems after work hours" seems to imply intrusive thoughts related to coping with work demands such as meeting sales targets (e.g. Sager, 1994; Eriksen & Ursin, 1999). Considering these items together, and relating them to theory outlined earlier, it seems reasonable to assume that these items tapped aspects of cognitive vulnerability to depression with respect to the sales occupation.

Histograms for indicator variables



Tests of Univariate and Multivariate Normality for the Model

Tests of Normality for Indicator Variables in Structural Model		
Indicator	Critical Ratio	Critical Ratio
Variable for:	Skewedness	Kurtosis
Motivated Achieving	0.74	-2.58
Impatience	0.17	-2.95
Role Overload	0.85	-3.83
Sales Performance Concerns	-0.01	-0.73
Depression	7.35	3.84
Pressure Selling	-3.21	-0.84
Customer Oriented Selling	-3.52	1.14
Multivariate	-1.86	-0.98

Univariate Normality

The table above displays the critical ratios for both skewness and kurtosis for indicator variables attached to the latent constructs. Values for individual variables that fall outside the range of +2 to -2 for skewness and kurtosis are considered significant departures from normality. (Byrne, 2001). The results displayed suggest that a number of variables fell outside the +2 to -2 range with respect to skewness or kurtosis. However, the most problematic result was for "depression". As can be seen, depression was substantially right skewed. Also, the kurtosis result for depression fell outside the specified range.

Multivariate Normality

Multivariate values that fall outside the range of +1 to -1 are considered significant departures from normality (Byrne, 2001). As can be seen on the table above, the result for multivariate normality was much closer to the specified range. Skewness for multivariate normality was marginally outside the required range, but kurtosis was within the specified range.

Tests of Univariate and Multivariate Normality Continued

Precautionary bootstrap

Considering the issues in relation to the distribution of the data raised above, it was decided to run the analysis through AMOS and then confirm the results with bootstrapping. Bootstrapping is a procedure in AMOS that takes a large number of samples (2000 in this analysis) from the data and assesses fit for each sample, and provides p values for model parameters on the basis of confidence intervals (Byrne, 2001). The method works on an idea similar to the central limit theorem and is effective in assessing fit for models with non-normal data. These results will be considered later in the analysis.

Fixing Error Variance for Indicator Variables

It was mentioned earlier that a limited information strategy was more appropriate for the structural model in this study. As mentioned earlier, this procedure involves using composite rather than multiple indicator variables. In structural models that use a limited information strategy error for each composite variable must be fixed. In this study, error was fixed on the basis of reliability results and variance from the current results. The table below displays the reliability data, variance, and the portion of error variance fixed for each of the composite indicators. The formula used to calculate this error variance is $(1 - \alpha) \times \text{variance}$.

Reliability, variance, and error variance fixed for composite indicators.

VARIABLE	α	$1 - \alpha$	Variance	Error Variance ($1 - \alpha$) x variance
Achievement Striving	0.71	0.29	0.17	0.05
Impatience	0.50	0.50	0.66	0.33
Role Overload	0.70	0.30	1.04	0.31
Sales Performance Concerns	0.56	0.44	6.91	3.07
Child Experiences	0.61	0.39	8.00	3.12
Depression Sub-scale	0.87	0.13	47.39	6.35
Pressure Selling	0.75	0.25	62.32	15.58
Customer Oriented Selling	0.74	0.26	25.48	6.70

APPENDIX TWO

Instruments used in study.

Instruments Used in Study

Type A Behaviour in Salespeople and Relationships with Customers

You may enter a code of up to six characters if you would like to identify your results on the summary sheet of all results. The keyword could comprise of letters, numbers, or both. Ensure it is a code that only you will recognise.

Code.

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General instructions for Questionnaires

1. Please read the instructions for each questionnaire carefully,
2. Remember your responses are totally anonymous. Therefore, you can be confident that your responses cannot be matched against your name.
3. Answer each question on its merits. Don't feel that you need to answer in a manner consistent with previous responses.
4. There are no right or wrong answers.
5. Please check each question carefully to ensure that you have answered all questions that you intended to answer.

Framingham Type A Scale

How well did each of the following statements describe you during the last twelve months?

The rating scale is as follows.

Describes me:

1. Not at all.
2. A little
3. Fairly well.
4. Very Well.

a.	Competitive and hard driving.	1	2	3	4
b.	Usually pressed for time.	1	2	3	4
c.	Bossy or dominating.	1	2	3	4
d.	A strong need to excel in most things.	1	2	3	4
e.	Eating too quickly.	1	2	3	4
f.	Did you usually get upset if it was necessary to wait for something?	Yes		No	
g.	Often pressed for time?	Yes		No	
h.	Concerned with problems after work hours?	Yes		No	
i.	Stretched by work to the very limits of energy and capacity?	Yes		No	
j.	Often uncertain, uncomfortable, or dissatisfied with own performance?	Yes		No	

Haynes, et al., (1978).

SOCO Scale (Modified): Instructions.

Please read each question fully and answer carefully.

The statements on the following pages describe various ways a salesperson might act with customers or prospects when trying to sell them products or services (for convenience, the word "customer" is used to refer to both customers and prospects). For each statement please indicate your estimate of how often each statement would describe the way you act when trying to sell your products or services to customers. The scores range from:

1. This statement NEVER describes you when selling to customers, to
9. This statement ALWAYS describes you when selling to customers.

How well do the following statements represent the way that you relate to customers?

		Never Always								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
p.	I offer the product/service of mine that is best suited to the customer's problems even though I could convince them to spend more.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
q.	It is necessary to stretch the truth in describing my product/service to a customer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
r.	I begin the sales talk for my product/service before exploring a customer's needs with him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
s.	I try to sell a customer all that I can convince him/her to buy, even if I think it is more than a wise customer would buy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
t.	I paint too rosy a picture of my products/services, to make them sound as good as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
u.	I try to achieve my goals by satisfying customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
v.	I decide what products/services to offer on the basis of what I can convince customers to buy, not on the basis of what will satisfy them in the long run.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
w.	I try to find out what kind of product/service would be most helpful to a customer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
x.	I keep alert for a weakness in a customer's personality so I can use them to put pressure on him/her to buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Saxe & Weitz (1982)

Note: Several items in this scale were modified slightly.

Item b. had added "...by asking them lots of questions."

Item l. had added "...rather than just promote my products."

Item p. had added "...even though I could convince them to spend more."

DASS 21 Depression Sub-scale.

Please read each statement and circle the number which indicates how much the statement applied to you over the past week. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any statement.

The rating scale is as follows:

1. Did not apply to me at all.
2. Applied to me to some degree, or some of the time.
3. Applied to me a considerable degree or a good part of the time.
4. Applied to me very much, or most of the time.

Please circle the most accurate response for you over the past week.

a.	I couldn't seem to experience any positive feeling at all.	0	1	2	3
b.	I found it difficult to work up the initiative to do things.	0	1	2	3
c.	I felt that I had nothing to look forward to.	0	1	2	3
d.	I felt downhearted and blue.	0	1	2	3
e.	I was unable to become enthusiastic about anything.	0	1	2	3
f.	I felt that I wasn't worth much as a person.	0	1	2	3
g.	I felt that life was meaningless.	0	1	2	3

Lovibond & Lovibond (1995).

General Questions

1. Sex (circle one).

Male	Female
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2. Age (Please indicate your age on the space provided).

3. Years in sales (Please indicate approximate years in sales on space provided)

4. Roughly, what proportion of your income is paid as commission on sales? (circle one).

None	Up to 20%	21-40%	41-60%	61-80%	81-100%
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5. How often do you feel under pressure to meet your sales targets (circle one).

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Constantly
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6	A childhood memory I have is that <u>one</u> or <u>both</u> of my parents worked extremely long hours.	1	2	3	4	5
7	As I was growing up I felt that my parent(s) put excessive pressure on me to excel academically and/or at sport.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I felt that I could never really meet the expectations my parent(s) had for me.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX THREE

Information sheets and consent form.



Type A Behaviour in Salespeople and Relationships with Clients

Information Sheet for Organisations

My name is Tony Norriss. I am completing a Masters in Industrial/Organisational Psychology through Massey University. I am supervised by Arnold Chamove from the psychology department at Massey University.

The purpose of this information sheet is to invite your organisation to participate in a study into type A behaviour pattern in sales people.

Your sales people will be invited to complete five brief questionnaires which will involve about 5-10 minutes of their time.

Contact Information.

Tony Norriss - Phone: [REDACTED] email - [REDACTED]
 Arnold Chamove (supervisor) email - A.S.Chamove@massey.ac.nz

Benefits in participating:

Your organisation will receive a management report based on the thesis document.

The purpose of this study is to investigate how type A behaviour in salespeople relates to their ability to form relationships with clients in business-to-business selling.

Type A behaviour typically includes various aspects such as high motivation to achieve and hard work, and others such as impatience, irritability, and underlying hostility. Since most sales adds emphasise high motivation and drive to succeed, it seems likely that type A behaviour will be seen more often in sales people than in many other occupations. Some aspects of type A behaviour could harm the ability of sales people to form and maintain relationships with clients. Relationship building is being recognised by many as a key factor for success in certain types of sales. Therefore, factors that impact on the relationship building ability of sales people could have important implications for salespeople and organisations.

This study focuses on business-to-business selling. Your organisation was selected to be approached for this study because it is in a category in which there is a major emphasis on business-to-business selling.

The information that is gathered will be used in a Thesis project at Massey University. The data may also be used in summary reports and possibly published in academic journals. Any data will be in

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summary form only and will not identify organisations that have participated in the research. The information will be combined with information from other participants from other organisations. The information will be used in statistical tests. The name of participants is not required.

Anonymity and confidentiality?

- Your organisation will not be named in the thesis or any other published material.
- Participants remain anonymous at all times.
- Participants are not requested to state their identity or the name of their organisation on any documents they send back.
- Results will be returned directly to the researcher. The researcher will not know who has supplied the results.

On completion of the project.

Only summary statistical information will be retained. All other information will be destroyed.

In considering to participate the rights of your organisation and individual participants are:

- Both the organisation and the salespeople may decline to participate.
- The organisation and salespeople may withdraw from the research at any time.
- Participants may decline to answer any particular question if they so wish.
- Both the organisation and participating salespeople may ask questions at any stage during the research.
- Information is provided on the understanding that name of the organisation and the names of participating salespeople will **not** be used in the research.
- The researcher undertakes not to disclose to any other party that your organisation is participating in the research.
- Your organisation may request modifications to research procedures in accordance with your organisation's ethical requirements.

Can I see the report or other information?

Your organisation will be provided with a management report based on the thesis document. Procedures are included that will allow your sales people to view their scores while remaining anonymous. Salespeople can supply their own keyword in the space provided that will enable them to recognise their results on a summary sheet of all results.



Type A Behaviour in Salespeople and Relationships with Customers

Information Sheet for Participants

My name is Tony Norriss. I am completing a Masters in Industrial/Organisational Psychology through Massey University. I am supervised by Arnold Chamove from the psychology department at Massey University.

The purpose of this information sheet is to invite you to participate in a study into type A behaviour pattern in sales people. Your organisation has given approval to invite you to participate in this study.

Contact Information.

Tony Norriss - Phone: [REDACTED] email - [REDACTED]
 Arnold Chamove (supervisor) email - A.S.Chamove@massey.ac.nz

Benefits in participating:

You will have the opportunity see your results and an interpretation of your results. This may enable you to learn a little more about yourself. A management report based on the thesis will also be sent to your organisation. It is explained later how you can receive your results back yet still remain anonymous.

You are invited to complete five brief questionnaires. When you have completed the questionnaires, simply place them into the stamp-addressed envelope provided post them back to the researcher.

The time required to complete the questionnaires is about 5-10 minutes.

The *purpose* of this study is to investigate how type A behaviour in salespeople relates to their ability to form relationships with clients in business-to-business selling.

Type A behaviour typically includes various aspects such as high motivation to achieve and hard work, and others such as impatience, irritability, and underlying hostility. Since most sales adds emphasise high motivation and drive to succeed, it seems likely that type A behaviour will be seen more often in sales people than in many other occupations. Some aspects of type A behaviour could harm the ability of sales people to form and maintain relationships with clients. Relationship-building is being recognised by many as a key factor for success in certain types of sales. Therefore, factors that impact on the relationship building ability of sales people could have important implications for salespeople and organisations in areas such as training.



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This study focuses on business-to-business selling. Your organisation was selected to be approached for this study because it is in a category in which there is a major emphasis on business-to-business selling. A number of other organisations are participating. You were selected because you are a salesperson working for your organisation. All salespeople in your organisation are invited to participate.

The information that is gathered will be used in a Thesis project at Massey University. The data may also be used in summary reports and possibly published in academic journals. Any data will be in summary form only and will **not** identify organisations or individuals that have participated in the research.

The information will be combined with information from other participants and used in statistical analysis. The names of participants are not required.

Anonymity and confidentiality?

- You will remain anonymous at all times.
- Your organisation will not be named in the thesis or any other published material.
- Participants are **not** requested to state their identity or the name of their organisation on any documents they send back.
- Results will be returned directly to the researcher. The researcher will not know who has supplied the results.

On completion of the project the

Summarised statistical data will be retained for future research. Any other information will be destroyed.

In considering to participate your rights are:

- You may decline to participate.
- You may withdraw from the research at any time.
- You may decline to answer any particular questions.
- You may ask questions at any stage during the research.
- Information is provided under the understanding that your name will **not** be used in research.

It is assumed that filling in the questionnaire implies consent.

Can I see the report or other information?

Your organisation will be provided with a report based on the thesis document. Procedures are included that will allow you to view your scores while remaining anonymous. You can supply your own keyword in the space provided that will enable you to recognise your results while remaining anonymous. Your results will be included on a summary sheet of all results that will be sent to the organisations that have participated.



Type A Behaviour in Salespeople and Relationships with Clients

Consent Form for Participating Organisation

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I understand that I have the right to withdraw my organisation from the study at any time. I also understand that participating sales people from my organisation may decline to answer any particular questions.

I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that the name of my organisation will not be used in this research or disclosed to any other party.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the information sheet.

Signed: _____

Name: _____

Organisation: _____

Date: _____

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