DYNAMIC CONTROL SYSTEMS

By

Yi Zheng

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Supervising Committee:
    Fred Miao, Supervising Professor
    Ariane Froidevaux
    Doug Grisaffe
    Yiyi Li

ABSTRACT

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Yi Zheng, Ph.D.

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Supervising Professor: Fred Miao

As a fundamental managerial tool for sales management, sales controls have received researchers' attention for a long time. However, current research on sales controls has mainly adopted a static perspective to examine the roles of sales controls. To overcome this limitation, I propose a new construct, dynamic sales control systems, to extend the static research on sales controls to a dynamic perspective. This dissertation includes two papers. Paper 1 focuses on dynamic control systems' antecedents and boundary conditions and their impacts on sales team performance. In Paper 2, I have investigated the mediating mechanisms between dynamic control systems and sales performance at the individual level. These two papers have enriched people's understanding of dynamic control systems and provided sales managers with critical managerial implications.

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DEDICATION

The Ph.D. journey is not only full of joy but also full of swears, disappointments, hardship, and various uncertainties. Though I had suffered more than I imagined before getting the degree, I am glad I finally hung out there. There are so many people who I need to appreciate. Out of all these people, I want to thank Dr. Miao first. I can't achieve anything without Dr. Miao's supervision and support. If I did not meet Dr. Miao, I do not know where I would be and what would happen to me. Dr. Miao is a great role model for me: his high work efficiency, conscientiousness, and work ethics always inspire me. I will always work hard and try to be a great researcher like Dr. Miao in the future. I also thank my other dissertation committee members. I am so lucky to keep learning and improving my dissertation with the help of these excellent researchers. Finally, I want to thank all other UTA faculties, staff, and colleagues. The big UTA family is always warm and friendly, and I always learn new knowledge and skills from them.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

To fully leverage the competitive advantages deriving from salespersons' knowledge, experience, and skills, firms have urged sales managers to invest a lot of time and energy in implementing sales controls (Katsikeas et al., 2018), which refer to "an organization's set of procedures for monitoring, directing, evaluating, and compensating its employees" (Anderson and Oliver 1987, p. 76). As a fundamental managerial tool in salesforce management, sales controls have aroused researchers' interest for a long time (e.g., Anderson and Oliver 1987; Ahearne et al. 2010; Challagalla and Shervani 1996; Miao and Evans 2013; Katsikeas et al. 2018). Generally, researchers have classified sales controls into three kinds (Challagalla and Shervani 1996): outcome control, activity control, and capability control. Outcome control focuses on monitoring and evaluating a salesperson's results (e.g., sales quota, revenue, and volume). Activity control focuses on monitoring and guiding salespersons to perform routine activities required by firms. Capability control focuses on developing salespersons' skills and abilities.

Though prior studies have enriched people's understanding of sales controls (please see the Table 1 for the literature review), their conclusions about the roles of sales controls in affecting salespersons' performance are inconsistent (Katsikeas et al., 2018). For example, Evans et al. (2007) have found that outcome control has a positive effect on performance, while other studies have found the link between outcome control and sales performance is nonsignificant (e.g., Fang, Evans, and Landry 2005) or even negative (e.g., Miao and Evans, 2013). Two reasons may explain the mixed results regarding sales

controls. First, except for Katsikeas et al. (2018), all previous studies on this topic only measure the absolute level of sales control at a one-time point, failing to capture sales managers' trajectory of sales controls. That is, almost all studies have adopted a static perspective to investigate sales controls. However, previous studies from various areas have suggested that the trajectory of a focal construct can work as an independent variable that accounts for the extra variance of key outcomes (e.g., performance or turnover) beyond its absolute level (e.g., Liu et al., 2012; Palmatier et al., 2013). Specifically, the trajectory of a variable includes two essential aspects ignored by static research: rate and direction of changes (Palmatier et al., 2013). The rate refers to the magnitude of the change within a specific period, and the direction refers to whether the variable increases or decreases within a specific period.

The ignorance of the trajectory of sales controls leads to obvious limitations in previous static research. For example, in a traditional static study, we may find that the level of capability control is 5 out of 7 on a Likert scale; however, disregarding rates and directions, we do not know whether the trajectory of sales control is in an upward or downward direction, nor magnitude of changes in capability control is big or small within a period. As a result, the findings of sales controls from the static research may be inaccurate. Katsikeas et al. (2018) also point out that prior conflicting findings on the roles of sales controls may be attributed to the need for a dynamic model and insights into their trajectories.

Second, even if Katsikeas et al. (2018) have considered the trajectory of sales

controls, their study has some obvious limitations. First, their previous study has not

revealed the antecedents of the time-varying changes in various sales controls. Second,

though they have tried to examine the differences in various sales controls at different

time points, their data did not show statistically significant variations in the sales controls.

Therefore, their study has yet to fully capture the impacts of sales controls' trajectory.

Third, Katsikeas et al. (2018) have not controlled the influence of absolute levels of sales

controls on outcomes when investigating the trajectory of sales controls. As a result, it is

possible that the absolute levels of sales controls, rather than the time-varying changes in

various sales controls, have caused the effects they have found.

    In my dissertation, I intend to overcome the above limitations by developing a new

conceptualization: dynamic control systems. It is defined as changing different sales

control styles at different time points. Dynamic control systems include capability control

velocity, outcome control velocity, and activity control velocity. My dissertation aims at

answering a question about sales controls: what are the effects of dynamic control

systems above and beyond the absolute levels of sales controls in a static perspective? Or,

say, after accounting for the sales control levels, how do dynamic control systems affect

job-related outcomes? How will the findings differ from those of Katsikeas et al. (2018)?

The answers to these questions will help address the research gaps summarized in Fig. 1.

    My dissertation has made two general theoretical contributions to the related

literature in the following ways. First, extending and refining the study by Katskeas et al.

(2018), the dissertation has reconciled the inconsistent findings of sales controls in

previous studies by identifying new antecedents, mediating mechanisms, and boundary conditions. Second, I have overcome the methodological limitations in the study of Katskeas et al. (2018), revealing the impacts of dynamic control systems more accurately. Specifically, my dissertation contributes to the literature about sales control systems, the construal level theory, temporal characteristics, and cross-selling.

This dissertation includes two papers. Paper 1 that focuses on the sales managers' perspective addresses the following research question: what are the antecedents and the outcomes for different dynamic control systems and moderators involved in this process? So far, previous research on the antecedents of sales controls mainly focuses on various firms' internal antecedents of sales controls (e.g., task characteristics, unit size, salespersons competence) (Malek et al., 2018) and external environmental characteristics (e.g., uncertainty) (Krafft, 1999). None of the research has investigated whether sales managers' personality traits affect their implementation of sales controls. Furthermore, no studies have examined the antecedents of dynamic control systems. Drawing on temporal literature, I contribute to sales control literature by revealing how sales managers' different temporal perspectives work as the antecedents of dynamic control systems, which affect various short-term and long-term sales team performance (e.g., sales teams' sales ranking or sales ranking growth within the company).

Paper 2 that focuses on individual salespersons' perspective aims at answering the following question: what are the underlying mechanisms between dynamic control systems and salespersons' sales performance? Using construal level theory (Liberman &

Trope, 1998), I will reveal a new mediating mechanism between sales controls and salespersons' performance. So far, researchers still have not used the construal level theory for sales control research. I argue that salespersons who experience different sales control ratio velocities will develop different construals (high vs. low), offering new insights into how dynamic control systems affect outcomes. In addition, my dissertation will make theoretical contributions by linking sales control literature with temporal literature, sales-service ambidexterity literature, and adding new dynamic insights into the interactionist perspective.

CHAPTER TWO: BACKGROUND LITERATURE, THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Sales controls and dynamic control systems

Anderson and Oliver (1987) introduce the concept of sales control systems and point

out that firms' sales control systems are essential managerial tools used to monitor, direct

and evaluate salespersons. They classify sales control systems into behavioral control and

outcome control. They point out that these two kinds of sales controls are not two

independent sales control systems. Instead, they are two ends of a continuum of one

dimension for sales control systems. In practice, sales managers may use mixed sales

controls simultaneously, emphasizing either behavioral or outcome control. Under

behavioral control, sales managers closely direct and monitor salespersons' activities.

They have clear expectations about salespersons' activities and routines and use

subjective methods to evaluate salespersons' behavioral performance in terms of effort,

knowledge, job attitudes, and activities (Anderson and Oliver, 1987). Salespersons

usually have a fixed salary instead of variable commissions under this control system.

The risks exposed to salespersons are relatively limited because they can fulfill most job

responsibilities by adhering to the precise work rules required by firms. The

disadvantages of behavioral control are its complexity and subjectivity in evaluations of

salespersons' performance (Anderson and Oliver 1987). On the one hand, sales managers

may have to undertake a large amount of work directing and monitoring salespersons; on

the other hand, they may inevitably have subjective work criteria and personal bias in the

evaluation process.

By contrast, sales managers focus on outcomes instead of behaviors when evaluating salespersons' performance under outcome control. Because the outcome control does not force salespersons to follow strict activities, routines, and rules, salespersons have much autonomy under this circumstance. As long as salespersons achieve their goals, they can use preferable selling strategies at their discretion. Compared with salespersons under behavioral control, those employees under outcome control face more significant risks and experience more pressure. They need to do all their means to achieve their sales goals even if many uncertainties are involved in the selling process. Otherwise, they cannot win commissions, which usually account for a large proportion of total compensations. In addition, because the outcome control overemphasizes salespersons' immediate payoffs, it may tend to ignore customers' satisfaction and thus sacrifice a firm's long-term benefits (Anderson and Oliver 1987).

Previous research has provided much empirical evidence to show that behavioral control is superior to outcome control in many ways. For example, Cravens et al. (1993) find that salespersons under behavioral control have better professional competence, stronger team orientation, intrinsic motivation, customer orientation, etc. However, outcome control may also outperform behavioral control in certain situations. For instance, Ahearne et al. (2010) find that under outcome control as opposed to behavioral control, the salesperson's effort on the new product improves the customer's perception of the new product more significantly. The underlying reason is that specific behavioral

requirements in behavioral control discourage salespersons from utilizing market

information and induce them to make suboptimal decisions for selling efforts.

However, not all scholars treat sales controls as a unidimensional construct. For

example, based on previous research on sales controls (Oliver and Anderson, 1994),

Challagalla and Shervani (1996) further categorize behavioral control into activity control

and capability control. The difference is that the former emphasizes monitoring

salespersons' activities strictly in practice, while the latter emphasizes cultivating

salespersons' abilities and skills. After Challagalla and Shervani (1996), many

researchers have investigated various mediating mechanisms and boundary conditions for

simultaneously three kinds of sales control. For example, Fang, Evans, and Landry (2005)

find that different sales controls affect salespersons' attributions. They find that

successful salespersons under activity control tend to attribute their success to the correct

use of sales strategies. In contrast, salespersons under outcome control tend to attribute

their success to personal effort. Miao and Evans (2013) find that the different

combinations of distinct sales controls have other impacts. Specifically, the combination

of outcome and capability control increases salespersons' adaptive selling and selling

effort. In contrast, the combination of activity and outcome control increases salespersons'

selling engagement but decreases their role clarity and adaptive selling. In addition, the

combination of activity and capability control reduces salespersons' role ambiguities.

Katsikeas et al. (2018) find that capability control increases salespersons' explorative

learning (i.e., salespersons' behaviors of searching and experimenting new sales

techniques), while activity control and outcome control increase salespersons'

exploitative learning (i.e., salespersons' behaviors of using existing knowledge and

experience to enhance productivity and efficiency).

Though previous studies have enriched people's understanding of sales controls,

inconsistent findings have indicated that researchers still need to pay attention to this

fundamental sales research topic. As I mentioned in the introduction section, except

Katsikeas et al. (2018), none of the previous studies has considered the trajectories of

different sales control systems over time. Furthermore, there are obvious conceptual and

methodological limitations in Katsikeas et al. (2018). To reconcile the mixed findings of

sales controls, I adopt new theoretical perspectives and conduct multilevel and

longitudinal studies to shed light on the antecedents, boundary conditions, outcomes, and

mediating mechanisms of sales control velocities.

Construal level theory

Researchers have widely admitted that employees' cognitions and mental

representations affect their behaviors and performance (e.g., Katsikeas et al., 2018;

Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Recently, marketing and management scholars have been paying

more attention to construal level theory and using it to examine the role of employees'

cognitions and mental representations (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Construal level theory is

developed initially from social psychology and has been widely used in research about

consumer behaviors (Adler and Sarstedt, 2021). Emerging management and management

information systems studies have used this theory to reveal how employees' mental

representations affect their explorative learning and usage of new information systems (e.g., Ho et al., 2020; Reyt and Wiesenfeld, 2015). In my dissertation, I will use construal level theory to reveal the mediating mechanisms and boundary conditions for the link between dynamic control systems and sales performance.

Construal level theory proposes that the ways individuals encode and retrieve information affect their experienced psychological distance towards a target (e.g., an object or an event) (Trope & Liberman, 2010). When a considerable psychological distance exists between people and the target, people can only encode and retrieve limited information about the stable characteristics of the target. In this case, people develop abstract, decontextualized, general, and broad cognitions with high construal levels. Conversely, people can encode and retrieve relatively more detailed information about the target when the psychological distance between people and the target is small. Under this circumstance, people who form relatively concrete, contextual, and detailed cognitions use low construal levels. Researchers have identified four kinds of cues that lead people to experience high psychological distances: temporal, spatial, social, and hypothetical distance (Trope and Liberman, 2010).

According to construal level theory, because people's experienced psychological distances towards the same target are different, they pay attention to different details of the target and process the information in different ways. As a result, their responses and subsequent behaviors are also different (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). For instance, people using high construal and low construal have different work motivations and pursue

different job goals. Specifically, high construals have strong desirability for the ends and thus are motivated to pursue ideal and long-term outcomes. Inspired by desirability, employees will think more about the meaningfulness of their work. By contrast, people using low construal focus on process feasibility and are motivated to pursue immediate and short-term goals. Inspired by the feasibility, employees will think more about how to realize job goals. Besides, people using high construal and low construal have different foci on collective vs. individualist goals. High construals are more willing to accommodate team-oriented goals and focus on collective benefits. By contrast, low construals focus more on individualistic benefits. Table 2 systematically summarizes various characteristics between high construals and low construals.

Previous organizational research has focused on designing work contexts or using managerial actions to affect others' construal level (Reyt and Wiesenfeld, 2015). For example, researchers have pointed out that leaders can use different communication ways and styles to frame employees' construal levels (e.g., Berson et al., 2015; Vanderstukken et al., 2019). If supervisors use abstract language to communicate organizational vision with employees, they focus more on long-term and abstract goals. By contrast, if supervisors use concrete language to communicate with employees, they will focus on short-term and specific goals. However, according to Wiesenfeld et al. (2017), the organizational antecedents of employees' construal level still have not received sufficient attention. It is unknown in sales literature how sales managers frame salespersons' construal level and the related implications for sales performance. Therefore, I will

examine how different sales controls affect salespersons' construal level to fill these research gaps. I argue that salespersons' construal-level related states or behaviors are an underlying mediating mechanism between sales controls and sales performance, which has been ignored by previous sales research. Generally, people have two kinds of construal levels: primary and current (Steinbach, Gamache, and Johnson, 2019). The primary construal level related to people's traits or values is relatively stable, while the current construal level can be framed or malleable by various external contextual factors. I focus the latter one in my dissertation.

Temporal Individual Differences

Recently, researchers have shown strong interest in how managers' and employees' perceptions of time affect their subsequent behaviors and performance (e.g., Chen and Nadkarni, 2017; Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011; Tang, Richter, and Nadkarni, 2020). Specifically, two personal stable temporal characteristics have recently drawn researchers' attention: time urgency and future time perspective (Chen and Nadkarni, 2017; Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011). Time urgency refers to the degree to which individuals perceive the passage of time to be fast. Time urgent people tend to conserve sufficient temporal resources for tasks; otherwise, they will be anxious and upset. To ensure they can finish the tasks in time, time urgent individuals usually set their timelines and strictly check the time markers to execute the tasks. They always compare their internal timelines with salespersons' task progress. As a construct, time urgency is a continuum with two ends.

Future time perspective, which is also named temporal focus or time orientation, refers to the extent of the relative importance of the future (vs. the present[1]). Future time perspective, which is also named temporal focus or time orientation, refers to the extent of the relative importance of the future in people's minds (Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011). Similar to time urgency, time perspective is also a continuum. One of its ends shows people's extreme focus on the present, while the other represents people's extreme focus on the future. Specifically, individuals with a future-time perspective pay much attention to the long-term impacts of their plans and actions. By contrast, people with a present-time perspective refer to the short time frame when making schedules, seeking immediate or near benefits, and ignoring the future far-reaching impacts of their current behaviors.

Because individual temporal differences are relatively personal traits, previous studies generally use them as the antecedents and examine their influence on various outcomes, such as behaviors (e.g., Chen and Nadkarni, 2017) and performance (e.g., Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011). For example, examining employees' temporal diversity at the team level, Mohammed and Nadkarni (2011) have found that the impact of team members' temporal diversity on team performance is moderated by temporal leadership, which refers to managers' activities of scheduling and synchronizing team members'

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[1] Some researchers think that employees' time perspective ranges from the past-time perspective to the future-time perspective (e.g., Mihalache and Mihalache, 2021), while others believe it ranges from the present-time perspective to the future-time perspective (Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011). Consistent with most empirical research, this dissertation also uses the scale from Mohammed and Nadkarni (2011) and examines sales managers' future-time perspective relative to the present-time perspective.

temporal-related activities and allocating their temporal resources. Specifically, the

positive impacts of time urgency diversity on team performance are stronger when

managers implement more temporal leadership. Focusing on CEOs' temporal individual

differences, Chen and Nadkarni (2017) find that CEOs' time urgency increases their

temporal leadership behaviors. However, sales literature has not recorded the roles of

individual temporal differences yet. Though Chen and Nadkarni (2017) have suggested

that managers' temporal characteristics affect their behaviors, it is still unclear how sales

managers' temporal characteristics influence their implementation of various sales

control systems. Paper 1 of my dissertation aims at addressing this issue.

CHAPTER THREE: PAPER 1

Conceptual Model and Hypotheses Development

The research purpose of Paper 1 is to examine the antecedents and boundary conditions of dynamic control systems and the subsequent outcomes, which are still blank in the sales literature. I first identify sales managers' temporal antecedents of dynamic control systems using temporal literature. Then I draw on the interactionist perspective to identify the contingencies involved in the relationships between antecedents and forms of dynamic control systems. According to the interactionist perspective, personal behaviors are not only the results of personal traits and organizational environments but also their interactions (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1990; Taylor and Giannantonio, 1993). Specifically, when a congruence exists between personality traits and organizational environments and its level is high, individuals in the environment will have more behaviors caused by their traits. As for the organizational environments, I focus on sales managers' competitive psychological climate, which refers to the extent to which sales managers "perceive organizational rewards to be contingent on comparisons of their performance against that of their peers" (Brown et al., 1998; p. 89). Based on the above arguments, I propose the following research model in Paper 1.

The Antecedents of Dynamic control systems

I expect that sales managers' time urgency positively affects the outcome control ratio velocity and activity control ratio velocity for the following two reasons. First, sales managers under high time urgency are eager to use sales controls that enable them to

accomplish tasks rapidly and reliably. In these situations, they can conserve time

resources and thus finish the tasks early. Suppose sales managers use sales controls that

may lead to unpredictable or unstable outcomes. In that case, they may have to spend

more temporal resources to deal with various uncertainties and bear more risks of missing

the deadline.

According to Katsikeas et al. (2018), salespersons under outcome control and activity

control prefer using proven selling techniques to pursue stable and predictable goals. For

example, to pursue short-term results underscored by the outcome control, salespersons

under this control system use the existing sales approaches to maximize efficiency and

productivity for the assigned outcome (e.g., sales quota). Similarly, salespersons under

activity control also strictly follow the activity routines to avoid making mistakes. These

sales control systems prevent salespersons from learning and experimenting, which

involves high risks and ambiguities. As a result, the time urgent sales managers can avoid

the possible waste of temporal resources and accomplish the tasks timely by accelerating

the use of outcome and activity dynamic control systems.

Second, when sales managers have intense time urgency, they frequently compare

their internal timelines with salespersons' task progress (Mohammed and Nadkarni,

2011). Therefore, it is realistic and feasible for sales managers to use activity and

outcome control sales controls, which provide specific and clear criteria for evaluating

salespersons' behaviors and performances. As Challagalla and Shervani (1996) note,

sales managers can use objective and quantifiable criteria to strictly monitor salespersons'

results (e.g., sales quota or sales revenue) under the outcome control and salespersons' standardized behaviors (e.g., number of customers visited) under the activity control. By contrast, capability control, which involves developing and evaluating salespersons' abstract selling skills, provides ambiguous and unquantifiable criteria to monitor salespersons' progress in completing tasks.

H1a: Sales managers' time urgency has a positive impact on outcome control velocity.

H1b: Sales managers' time urgency has a positive impact on activity control velocity.

Unlike present-oriented individuals who prefer short-term benefits, people with a future-oriented time perspective have a cognitive bias to achieve long-term success. When sales managers have a future-oriented time perspective, they develop a vision and make long-term schedules for themselves and the affiliating salespersons (Mohammed and Nadkarni, 2011). They actively engage in activities that produce positive consequences in the future, even if such activities currently bring unstable or ambiguous returns.

I anticipate that sales managers with a strong future-oriented perspective will enhance the capability control ratio velocity over time. As Katsikeas et al. (2018, p.56) point out, "Capabilities are typically tacit and thus require a long-term perspective to learn, develop, and master." Though sales managers must invest lots of time teaching and guiding salespersons to develop their abstract selling skills and competence (e.g., Challagalla and Shervani, 1996; Katsikeas et al., 2018), future-oriented managers consider such investments worthy. Future-oriented sales managers expect salespersons

and the whole sales team to improve sales performance by using novel approaches and creative methods in the long run, thus accelerating capability control velocity.

H1c: Sales managers' future-oriented time perspective has a positive impact on capability control velocity.

Moderation Effects of Contingent Factors

Previous research suggests that as the perceived levels of sales managers' competitive psychological climate increase, sales managers become more sensitive to their performance ranking in the firm and more eager to outperform peers (Miao et al., 2022). The social comparisons of sales team performance between their affiliating and peers' teams will become more frequent and common. To outperform colleagues, sales managers may accelerate the velocity of implementing sales control systems, shifting their pressure to the affiliating salespersons. Sales managers are likelier to win over others in the competition if their salespersons achieve the assigned goals.

Regarding the type of dynamic control systems accelerated by sales managers, the interactionist perspective suggests that the nature of the chosen sales controls is generally congruent with their temporal characteristics. Besides, because the environmental characteristics (e.g., sales managers' competitive psychological climate) interact with sales managers' characteristics (e.g., time urgency and future-oriented time perspective) to produce additional impacts beyond the main effect of individual characteristics (Brown, Cron and Slocum Jr., 1998), the sales managers are more motivated to accelerate to implement their preferred sales control over time. For example, time urgent sales

managers accelerate the outcome and the activity control velocity more when facing intense competition.

H2a: A sales manager's perceived competitive psychological climate strengthens the positive relationship between the sales manager's time urgency and outcome control velocity.

H2b: A sales manager's perceived competitive psychological climate strengthens the positive relationship between the sales manager's time urgency and activity control velocity.

H2c: A sales manager's perceived competitive psychological climate strengthens the positive relationship between the sales manager's future-oriented time perspective and capability control velocity.

The Impacts of Dynamic control systems

Previous studies have supported that all kinds of sales control positively impact sales team performance, though the underlying mechanisms are different (e.g., Challagalla and Shervani, 1996; Evans et al., 2007). For example, for outcome control, Katsikeas et al. (2018) argue that it encourages salespersons to refine their existing selling skills and improve work efficiency. Other studies also point out that outcome control provides salespersons with specific and clear goals to strike and strengthens salespersons' faith that they can win rewards via their effort (e.g., Fang et al., 2005; Evans et al., 2007). Such salespersons' positive perceptions, faith, and behaviors help improve team sales performance.

The activity control enhances sales team performance by offering salespersons specific directions and guidance for their selling behaviors. Under activity control, salespersons experience less role ambiguity and role conflicts, decreasing sales performance (Challagalla and Shervani, 1996). Moreover, the activity control increases the organization-level customer orientation perceived by the salespersons, which benefits team sales performance (Evans et al., 2007). Finally, previous studies have shown that capability control not only encourages salespersons to try novel approaches to selling (Evans et al., 2007; Katsikeas et al., 2018) but also increases salespersons' perceived supportiveness from the organization (Evans et al., 2007), both of which promote sales performance. When sales managers accelerate the dynamic control systems over time, additional impacts beyond the absolute levels of sales control will be exerted on sales performance.

However, the strength of the links between dynamic control systems and sales team performance is different. Previous research has suggested that some setbacks of the activity control and the outcome control may weaken their positive influences. For example, salespersons under outcome control may not receive enough guidance and support from the sales managers (Evans et al., 2007). Regarding activity control, Oliver and Anderson (1994) suggest that it deprives salespersons of autonomy and decreases their adaptations in selling activities, somewhat weakening its positive role in enhancing team sales performance. By contrast, salespersons under capability control receive personal training, perceive personal growth, develop solid organizational commitment,

and perceive intense organizational support (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla, 1998).

H3: the capability control velocity is more effective than (a) activity control velocity and (b) outcome control velocity at improving the sales team performance.

Moreover, different sales control velocities also have differential impacts on the sales team performance over time. Compared with outcome control which uses monetary incentives to arouse salespeople's extrinsic motivation, capability control is more effective in inducing salespeople's intrinsic motivation (Oliver and Anderson, 1994) and thus enhance salespersons' performance (e.g., Tyagi, 1985; Miao, Evans and Zou, 2007). Under a capability control system, salespersons love their job and persist in striving for the sales goals. By contrast, outcome control strengthens salespersons' utilitarian relationships with the firm, directing their attention to self-benefits rather than team sales performance (Anderson and Oliver, 1987). Under these circumstances, salespersons' extrinsic motivation wanes as soon as they adapt to the external economic stimulus. As time goes by, the positive impact of outcome control velocity gradually declines. Additionally, the positive effect of outcome control velocity is also weaker than the positive effect of activity control velocity. The underlying reason is that activity control velocity involves more sales managers' monitoring and directions. Therefore, sales managers can intervene and guide their activities to prevent possible deviations over time. However, such interventions and guidance do not occur in the presence of outcome control velocity. Therefore, I propose the following hypotheses:

H4: Outcome control velocity is less effective than (a) activity control velocity and (b)

capability control velocity at improving the sales team rank growth.

Research method

Sample and data collection

With a marketing research company's help, I randomly collected 50 firms in Jiangsu

Province in China. To encourage the firms' participation, I promised to protect all

participants' confidentiality and shared the research findings with the participating

companies. Finally, ten companies agreed to participate in our research project. The

companies were from different industries (e.g., manufacturing, real estate, construction,

and telecommunication). Another two independent translators and I translated an English

version of the questionnaire into a Chinese version by following translation-back

translation procedures. Then I had a pilot study with 25 salespeople and revised some

items based on the salespeople's feedback before data collection.

I have collected data at two different time points. At time 1, I collected data about the

antecedents (time urgency and future time perspective), moderator (sales managers'

competitive psychological climate), mediators (sales control systems), and outcome (sales

team ranking in a firm). To calculate sales control velocity and time-changing effect on

the outcome, I continued to collect data about sales controls and sales team ranking at

time 2. I collected data from 149 and 121 sales managers at these two times, respectively.

The time lag between these two waves of data collection was three months.

To examine whether nonresponse bias existed in our data, I compared the key

demographic information (e.g., age and gender) between the participants who answered the questionnaire twice and those who withdrew from the project after answering the questionnaire the first time (Ployhart and Vandenberg, 2010). Because there were no significant differences between the two groups of respondents, indicating that nonresponse bias was not a concern.

Measurement

I have used seven-point Likert scales to measure the constructs in the model. All scales for the measurement come from the existing literature. Specifically, I used four and seven items from Mohammed and Nadkarni (2011) to measure sales managers' time urgency and future-oriented time perspective, respectively. I adapted three items from Brown, Cron, and Slocum Jr. (1998) to measure sales managers' perceived competitive psychological climate. Outcome control, activity control, and capability control were accessed by five items from Miao and Evans (2013), respectively. I used sales managers' reported sales team rankings within the firm to measure outcomes. The first outcome is the sales team ranking at time 2, and the other is ranking growth from time 1 to time 2. For control variables, I used sales managers' age, gender, education, professional experience (e.g., how many years have you worked as a professional sales representative), and firm industry. Because previous research suggests sales managers' performance orientation also affects their executive actions towards salespersons (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla, 1998), I also used performance orientation as a control variable. The item is "I am motivated by the thought of performing better than my peers at my company." In

addition, I also used the levels of sales controls at time one as control variables to examine the impacts of sales control velocity. As shown in Table 3, the values of Cronbach's α and composite reliability for all constructs are no less than 0.60 and 0.64, respectively. Overall, the reliability of the constructs is satisfactory.

Because I collected data about sales control systems at different time points, I also conducted a series of tests to examine the measurement invariance across different time points. The values of CFI for the configural measurement model ranged from 0.92 to 0.94. The values of CFI for the metric measurement model ranged from 0.91 to 0.93. These results indicated that the configural measurement model and the metric measurement model were satisfactory. Furthermore, for each kind of sales control, the differences between configural CFI and metric CFI were no more than 0.1, reaching the cutoff suggested by Chen (2007). Therefore, the metric invariance for the measures of sales control systems was accepted.

Next, to assess the quality of the measurement model that included all relevant variables in the model, I used data at time 1 to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as previous research did (Kraemer et al. 2020). To ensure model convergence, I parceled items under the same construct for CFA as previous studies did (e.g., Little et al. 2002; Zhang, Zhang, and Law et al. 2022). According to Little et al. (2002), parceling items for CFA effectively enhances item reliability, improves the CFA's model fit, lowers the indicator/factor ratio, and addresses the violation of multivariate normality. Given that the ratio between the number of the original items and the number of constructs is

relatively high, parceling is effective and useful for the model. The reliability of the construct was significantly improved after parceling (e.g., the lowest factor loading became 0.69). The results of the measurement model were acceptable: chi-square/degrees of freedom = 281.21/137, CFI = 0.91, and RSMEA= 0.09.

I also used various tests to examine the construct validity. The correlations among different constructs are shown in Table 4. Except for time urgency, the values of average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability for all constructs were greater than 0.5. In addition, in the measurement model with parceled indicators, all the values of AVE were greater than 0.6. To test discriminant validity, I compared the fit indices of the CFA model (measurement model with all constructs) and those of nested models. This method has been widely used in recent studies published in top-tier journals (e.g., Zhang, Zhang, and Law et al. 2022). For example, I first constrained the constructs of capability control and activity control to be a single construct because of their high correlation. Then I conducted a Chi-square test between the CFA and constrained models. These two models were statistically different ($\triangle\chi2(5) = 19.89$, p< 0.01), justifying the discriminant validity between capability control and activity control. Similarly, I also found statistical differences between CFA and other constrained models. These results showed that the convergent validity and discriminant validity were satisfactory.

To exclude the threats from common methods bias, I collected some variables multiple times and calculated with data from different time points (e.g., sales control velocity and sales ranking growth). In addition, I conducted factor analysis and found that

the greatest variance explained by a single factor was 36.19%. This result also suggested

that common methods bias was not a concern in this study.

Analytical approach

I used two-level mixed-effects growth models to calculate dynamic control systems

as previous studies do (e.g., Chen et al., 2011; Katsikeas et al., 2018). This approach

calculated the Bayes slopes between different points and used them as the temporal

changes in various sales control systems. Therefore, the growth modeling approach

accurately captured the changes in sales control implementation over time. I used the

following equations to estimate the changes in sales control systems.

Level 1: $\triangle$ Sales control systems$_{ij}$ = π_{0j} + π_{1j}(time) + γ_{ij}

Level 2: π_{0j} = β_{00} + u_{0j}

π_{1j} = β_{10} + u_{1j}

In the above equations, $\triangle$ Sales control systems$_{ij}$ means the changes in the sales

control systems across i salespersons (i = the number of salespersons in the sample) and j

times (j = 1 or 2). γ is the residuals at level-1, and u_{0j} and u_{1j} are residuals at level-2. The

Bayes-estimated sales control-time slope (π_{1j}) reflects the change in sales control usage

over time. Following Bliese and Ployhart's suggestions (2002), I used R's nonlinear and

linear mixed effects (NLME) package to estimate the Bayes slopes. After this step, I used

conditional mixed-process models (CMP) for data analysis. This method has been widely

used in previous marketing studies (e.g., Antia et al., 2017; Miao et al., 2022) because it

is very powerful at simultaneously estimating various complex models with a nested data

structure (e.g., multilevel growth models).

Results

Table 5 and Table 6 display the results of CMP models. I found that sales managers' time urgency had a positive impact on the outcome control velocity ($\beta = 0.12$, $p < 0.1$) but had on significant effect on the activity control velocity ($\beta = -0.04$, $p > 0.1$). Therefore, H1a was supported, while H1b was not supported. Sales managers' future-oriented time perspective positively impacted the capability control velocity ($\beta = 0.09$, $p < 0.05$), supporting H1c.

As a sales manager's competitive psychological climate increases, the positive impact of the sales manager's time urgency on the outcome control velocity becomes stronger, supporting H2a. However, sales managers' competitive psychological climate does not strengthen the positive relationship between sales managers' time urgency and the activity control velocity ($\beta = -0.04$, $p > 0.1$). Thus, H2b was not accepted. As a sales manager's competitive psychological climate increases, the positive impact of the sales manager's future time perspective on the capability control velocity becomes stronger ($\beta = 0.09$, $p < 0.01$), supporting H2c.

Finally, I found that a sales manager's capability control velocity had a negative impact on sales team ranking ($\beta = -1.51$, $p < 0.1$), indicating that a sales manager's capability control velocity effectively boosts a sales team's ranking. By contrast, outcome control velocity ($\beta = 0.47$, $p > 0.1$) and activity control velocity ($\beta = 0.45$, $p > 0.1$). However, the results of two chi-square tests showed that the impact of capability control

velocity was not significantly stronger than those of outcome control velocity and activity

control velocity. Hence, H3a and H3b were not supported. In addition, a sales manager's

outcome control velocity positively impacted sales team ranking growth (β = 18.58, p <

0.05), suggesting the harmful effect of a sales manager's outcome control velocity on

sales team ranking became stronger as time went by. A sales manager's activity control

velocity (β = -8.54, p > 0.1) and capability control velocity (β = -14.15, p > 0.1) did not

have significant impacts on sales team ranking growth. Two chi-square tests indicated

that outcome control velocity was more impactful on sales team ranking growth than

activity control velocity (chi2(1) = 6.93, p < 0.01), but not capability control velocity

(chi2(1) = 2.22, p > 0.1). Therefore, H4a was supported, while H4b was not supported. I

also found that sales managers' competitive psychological climate strengthened the

positive impacts of their future time perspective on their activity control and outcome

velocity.

Discussions

Paper 1 confirms the existence of dynamic control systems and reveals their

antecedents and outcomes. Specifically, I find that sales managers' time urgency

positively impacts outcome control velocity. In contrast, sales managers' future-oriented

time perspective positively impacts capability control velocity. Besides, these two

relationships are strengthened by a sales manager's competitive psychological climate. I

also find that sales managers' future time perspective accelerates their implementation of

activity control velocity and outcome control velocity as sales managers' competitive

psychological climate strengthens.

About the impacts of dynamic control systems, I find that a sales manager's capability control velocity improves his/her sales team ranking within the company. However, I did not find that capability control velocity was significantly better than activity control and outcome control velocity at improving sales team ranking. In addition, outcome control velocity is less effective than activity control velocity at improving the sales team ranking growth, suggesting that the impact of outcome control velocity decline over time.

CHATPER FOUR: PAPER 2

Conceptual model and hypotheses development

After analyzing the antecedents and outcomes of dynamic control systems at the team level in Paper 1, I sought to reveal the mediating mechanisms, boundary conditions, and consequences of dynamic control systems at the individual level. Though organizational and work contextual factors are vital to developing or framing employees' mental representation, researchers still have not yet revealed what organizational antecedents affect employees' construal level (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Drawing on construal level theory, I argue how different sales control velocities affect salespersons' construal levels and subsequent behaviors and outcomes. I also identify contingent factors that moderate this process. The research model is shown in Fig. 3.

The Impacts of Dynamic control systems on Construal Level

Under capability control, sales managers need to commit time and effort to interact with and guide salespersons to improve their skills, enhance their abilities, and increase their knowledge (Challagalla and Shervani, 1996). Some skills, abilities, and knowledge are abstract and require salespersons to spend lots of time and energy learning. In addition, salespersons under capability control often search and experiment with creative techniques, which involve many uncertainties in knowledge accumulation. As a result, salespersons may need more time to grasp all essential skills and competence, and they develop a long-term perspective and overarching goals of enhancing competencies and skills patiently (Katsikeas et al., 2018). Because the perceived psychological distance

between salespersons and their targets (e.g., knowledge, skills, and abilities grasped in the long run) facilitates salespersons to form abstract mental representations, they develop high construal level. Such a tendency is further strengthened as sales managers accelerate the capability velocity.

However, on the other hand, capability control also enhances salespersons' low construal level because sales managers always monitor and teach salespersons skills or techniques to perform particular tasks or specific activities (Miao and Evans, 2013). Such detailed directions also develop salespersons' concrete mental representations. When sales managers exert increasing capability control over time, salespersons can retrieve related concrete and specific information and focus on various details.

H1a: Capability control velocity has positive impacts on salespeople's both high construal level and low construal level.

Salespersons are likely to develop low construal level under the outcome control. Under outcome control, salespersons have more specific and short-term goals (Katsikeas et al., 2018). For example, salespersons need to attain a quantifiable quota before the deadlines under outcome control. Under this circumstance, salespersons perceive the psychological distance between themselves and the targets (e.g., the specific and recent goals of sales revenues, numbers of calls, and visits) as small and thus form concrete and specific mental representations. They tend to focus on the targets' details and their actions' feasibility (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Notably, the low construal level increases when sales managers accelerate the outcome control velocity.

H1b: Outcome control velocity has a positive impact on salespersons' low construal level.

By contrast, activity control velocity increases salespersons' high construal level for several reasons. First, when using activity control, sales managers comprehensively monitor and direct salespersons' general activities rather than focus on specific behaviors within limited domains (Miao and Evans 2013). Under this circumstance, salespersons exposed to diverse information and knowledge are more likely to associate different things, developing high construal level (Wiesenfeld et al. 2017). Second, previous research suggests that individuals with sufficient self-regulated resources are more likely to have high construal level (Kim, Lee and Rua, 2015). Under activity control, salespersons have plenty of self-regulated resources because they only simply follow their sales managers' clear instructions to perform specific activities. They do not need to face various uncertainties created by capability control or job pressure posed by the outcome control. As a result, they have more job resources (e.g., time and energy) to think about their job and future activities, forming a big picture easily. Third, previous research has suggested that activity control increases salespersons' desirability by encouraging their recognition seeking (Anderson and Oliver, 1987; Miao, Evans, and Zou, 2007). Under the activity control, sales managers praise salespersons who strictly follow behavioral criteria as role models, and salespersons desire to seek peer recognition and their managers' complement. Such desirability to be recognized by sales managers and peers increases salespersons' high construal level (Wiesenfeld et al. 2017).

H1c: Activity control velocity has a positive impact on salespersons' both high construal

level and low construal level.

The Impacts of Construal Level

Cross-selling and problem solving are essential activities that salespersons engage in

to facilitate customer transactions (Schmitz, Lee, and Lilien, 2014; Wang, Dou, and Zhou,

2012). These activities are widespread in frontline employees' work, and many firms

require their frontline employees to engage in them (Schmitz, 2013; Wang, Dou, and

Zhou, 2012). Cross-selling refers to salespersons' selling activities that change customers'

current products/services portfolios and direct them to buy products/services potentially

in their interests (Jasmand, Blazevic and de Ruyter, 2012; Schmitz, Lee, and Lilien, 2014).

Problem solving refers to salespersons' activities to address various customer problems

(Wang, Dou, and Zhou, 2012). Researchers have made a great effort to highlight

cross-selling and problem solving (e.g., Johnson and Friend, 2015; Schmitz, 2013;

Schmitz, Lee, and Lilien, 2014; Wang, Dou, and Zhou, 2012). Previous studies have

revealed some positive roles of cross-selling and problem solving, such as improving

sales performance, salespersons' job satisfaction, and customers' relationship satisfaction

(Johnson and Friend, 2015; Schmitz, Lee, and Lilien, 2014). However, there are still

some limitations in the literature: first, previous research has investigated the

organizational-level antecedents from a static perspective. So far, no research has

identified any time-changing factors influencing salespersons' cross-selling. In addition,

none of the previous studies has investigated the antecedents of these activities from the

perspective of construal level theory.

Whether and to what extent salespersons engage in goal-directed behaviors (e.g., cross-selling and problem solving) dramatically depends on their motivation for cross-selling and sales managers' behaviors (e.g., Jasmand, Blazevic, and De Ruyter, 2012; Johnson and Friend, 2015; Schmitz, 2013). According to the construal level literature, construal level is an essential antecedent for employees' motivations that affects the intensity, scope, and direction of employees' activities (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Applying this logic, I reason that salespersons' construal levels affect their preferences for cross-selling and problem solving activities differently.

I argue that salespersons' high construal level has a more positive impact on salespersons' cross-selling than problem solving for the following reasons. First, high construal-level develops salespersons' mental and cognitive mindset, facilitating them to engage in cross-selling naturally. High construals have more inclusive cognitive structures, "capturing the forest but not each individual tree" (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017; p. 368). With a broad and general mental representation, they are motivated to process cognitively demanding information and associate things based on their nonalignable attributes (Nam, Wang, and Lee, 2012; Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Therefore, they can perceive the common grounds and compatibility among different products and services. According to Schmitz (2013, p. 58), salespersons engaging in cross-selling must "address a broader scope of customer needs that have not previously been covered." Schmitz, Lee, and Lilien (2014) also point out that salespersons actively engaging in cross-selling need

to accumulate experience and learn product information about a broad range of product/service portfolios rather than narrowly focus on limited products/services. They need to immediately recognize customers' potential needs and be sensitive to additional product/service information, which may satisfy their needs but be beyond their consideration set. In this situation, the motivation and ability to process nonalignable information, which are triggered by high construal level, are essential for salespersons' cross-selling activities. High construals are likely to search for various products/service information in mind and recommend customers additional useful ones.

Second, high construal level provides salespersons with the necessary self-regulated resources to address various challenges related to cross-selling (Chan and Wan, 2012). Self-regulation occurs when people attempt to control undesirable impulses and override the following behaviors. Because cross-selling often requires salespersons to deal with customers' complex and heterogenous needs, involve in extensive buying and value creation processes, and have deep knowledge of various customized activities (Schmitz, Lee, and Lilien, 2014), salespersons who cannot self-regulate themselves may feel exhausted quickly and thus withdraw from cross-selling activities. Furthermore, without self-regulated resources, these salespersons may not make persistent efforts to learn various knowledge and skills related to cross-selling. Salespersons' high construal level helps overcome these difficulties effectively. Previous research suggests that employees with high construal can self-regulate well (Taghavi, 2019) because they care about the meaningfulness of work and have a strong intrinsic motivation to pursue desirable and

long-term goals. They actively take the job responsibility firms require and undertake

cross-selling challenges to achieve superordinate goals (Clark and Freitas, 2013; Holt,

Bobocel, and Chen, 2021; Taghavi, 2019).

H2a: Salespeople's high construal level has a positive effect on salespeople's

cross-selling.

By contrast, salespersons' low construal level has a positive impact on salespersons'

problem solving for the following reasons. First, people with low construals seek feasible

ways to achieve their short-term and specific goals (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Such a clear

outcome-oriented mindset and subsequent behaviors increase their preferences for

problem-solving activities that address customers' particular problems. Under these

circumstances, salespersons have clear goals and directions and actively find feasible

solutions for customers. For these salespersons, exploring and satisfying customers'

potential needs are not a priority; instead, problem solving is an effective means to attain

their feasible goals pursued by their low-construal mindset. Second, low construals prefer

to focus on single and specific activities instead of having broad and multiple concerns

(Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). According to Trope and Liberman (2010), low construals who

form a specific and contextualized mental representation tend to classify activities into

detailed categories rather than associate them via nonalignable attributes. Because

problem-solving activities usually aim at dealing with customers' particular problems

within specific areas, such activities are consistent with low construals' mental

representation.

H2b: Salespeople's low construal has a positive effect on salespeople's problem solving.

Some research has demonstrated that salespersons' cross-selling promotes sales performance (e.g., Schmitz, 2013; Schmitz, Lee, and Lilien, 2014). The more cross-selling activities a salesperson engages in, the more knowledge and experience the salesperson will have about various products/services. As a result, the salesperson is more likely to recommend to customers appropriate products/services from the existing portfolios and realize the transactions, enhancing sales performance.

H3a: Salespeople's cross-selling has a positive effect on salespersons' performance.

On the other hand, a salesperson's problem solving also positively impacts his/her sales performance. Problem solving is a type of positive customer-oriented behavior that enhances the relationship quality between a salesperson and customers (Wang, Dou, and Zhou, 2012). If a salesperson can solve customers' problems timely and effectively, the customers are more likely to be satisfied, trust the salesperson, and perceive less risk in the transaction. As a result, the customers make more transactions with the salesperson, whose sales performance is increased.

H3b: Salespeople's problem solving has a positive effect on salespersons' performance.

Finally, I reason a positive interaction effect exists between salespeople's cross-selling and problem solving. On the one hand, the broad scope of knowledge about various products/services from cross-selling activities gives salespersons rich experience in solving customers' problems (Schmitz, 2013). On the other hand, salespersons who actively solve customers' issues when performing cross-selling can effectively deliver

their goodwill to customers and gain their trust (Wang, Dou, and Zhou, 2012). In this situation, salespersons are not perceived to be selling-oriented. Therefore, customers are less likely to be skeptical of salespersons' instrumental purpose in cross-selling activities and believe that salespersons recommend products in customers' interests. As a result, customers are more willing to buy the products/services from the salespersons.

H4: Salespeople's cross-selling and problem solving interact to affect their sales performance in such a way that when they have high levels of cross-selling, the positive impact of their problem solving on sales performance will be stronger.

Research method

Sample and data collection

With the same marketing research company's help, I collected two-time waves of data. The final dataset included 380 salespersons' data from 67 sales teams in two automobile companies in Jiangsu Province in China. I promised to protect all participants' private data and share the research findings with the two firms. Two independent translators and I translated an English version of the questionnaire into a Chinese version by following translation-back translation procedures. Then I had a pilot study with 20 salespeople and revised some items based on the salespeople's feedback before data collection.

I collected data about the antecedents (sales control systems) at two-time points to calculate sales control velocity perceived by salespersons. For the following variables, I additionally collected data at time 2: salespersons' high and low construal level,

cross-selling and problem solving (mediators), and salespersons' sales performance

expectancy (outcomes). The time lag between these two waves of data collection was 3

months.

As I did in Paper 1, I also compared the key demographic information (e.g., age and

gender) between the participants who answered the questionnaire twice and those who

withdrew from the project after answering the questionnaire the first time (Ployhart and

Vandenberg, 2010). Similarly, no significant differences between the two groups of

respondents were found. Therefore, nonresponse bias was not a concern in Paper 2,

either.

Measurement

I have used seven-point Likert scales to measure the constructs in the model. All

scales for the measurement come from the existing literature. Specifically, I used five

items from Miao and Evans (2013) to measure outcome control, activity control, and

capability control, respectively. Three items from Venus et al. (2019) measure

salespersons' high and low construal level, respectively. I used six items from Jasmand,

Blazevic, and De Ruyter (2012) to measure cross-selling. I adapted five items from Wang,

Dou, and Zhou (2012) to measure salespersons' problem solving. Sales performance was

measured by five salespersons' self-evaluative items adapted from Panagopoulos, Rapp,

and Pimentel (2020) and Schwepker Jr (2003). Finally, I included salespersons' age,

gender, education, and professional experience as the control variables. As shown in

Table 7, the values of Cronbach's α and composite reliability for all constructs are greater

than 0.85. Overall, the reliability of the constructs is very good.

In Paper 2, data about sales control systems were also collected at two different time points. Therefore, I also conducted a series of tests to examine the measurement invariance of sales control systems across different time points. The values of CFI for the configural measurement model ranged from 0.92 to 0.97. The values of CFI for the metric measurement model ranged from 0.92 to 0.96. These results indicated that the configural measurement model and the metric measurement model were satisfactory. Furthermore, for each kind of sales control, the differences between configural CFI and metric CFI were no more than 0.1, reaching the cutoff suggested by Chen (2007). Therefore, the metric invariance for the measures of sales control systems was accepted.

Next, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the quality of the measurement model with all relevant variables in the model, as I did for Paper 1 (Kraemer et al. 2020). The data for three sales control systems was from time one collection, and the rest was from time 2. The results of the measurement model were satisfactory: chi-square/degrees of freedom = 2116.43/567, CFI = 0.93, and RSMEA= 0.09.

I also used various tests to examine the construct validity. The correlations among different constructs are shown in Table 8. The values of average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability for all constructs were greater than 0.7. To test discriminant validity, I compared the fit indices of the CFA model (measurement model with all constructs) and those of nested models as I did in Paper 1 and other published studies

(e.g., Zhang, Zhang, and Law et al. 2022). For example, I first constrained the constructs

of capability control and activity control to be a single construct because of their high

correlation. Then I conducted a Chi-square test between the CFA and constrained models.

These two models were statistically different ($\triangle\chi2(6) = 50.99$, p< 0.01), justifying the

discriminant validity between capability control and activity control. Similarly, I also

found statistical differences between CFA and other constrained models. These results

showed that the convergent validity and discriminant validity were satisfactory.

I have collected data about sales control systems at different time points to exclude

the threats from common methods bias. In addition, I conducted factor analysis and found

that the greatest variance explained by a single factor was 39.49%. This result also

suggested that common methods bias was not a concern in this study.

Analytical approach

I used two-level mixed-effects growth models as previous studies did to calculate the

Bayes slopes of different sales control systems between different points to access

dynamic control systems (e.g., Chen et al., 2011; Katsikeas et al., 2018). As I did in Paper

1, I used the NLME package in R to estimate the Bayes slopes (Bliese and Ployhart,

2002), which was then used in CMP for data analysis. Because the salespersons in the

sample were nested within 67 sales teams, I examined whether hierarchical linear

modeling (HLM) should be used in CMP for data analysis. If the samples were

non-independent, the estimated standard errors would be biased. I calculated the

intraclass correlation (ICC) coefficients for the data and found that the data was justified

for using HLM. For example, the ICC(1) for salespersons' low construal level was 0.08, greater than the recommended cutoff of 0.05 (Bliese, 2000).

Results

Tables 9, 10, and Table 11 display the results of CMP models. I found that the activity control velocity had a positive impact on salespersons' high construal level ($\beta = 0.34$, $p < 0.01$), while the outcome control velocity had a positive effect on salespersons' low construal level ($\beta = 0.52$, $p < 0.01$). Besides, the capability control velocity had positive impacts on both salespersons' high construal level ($\beta = 0.69$, $p < 0.01$) and low construal level ($\beta = 0.48$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, H1a, H1b, and H1c were supported. Salespeople's high construal level positively impacted cross-selling ($\beta = 0.77$, $p < 0.01$), supporting H2a. A chi-square test further showed that salespersons' high construal level had a stronger positive effect on salespeople's cross-selling than on problem solving (chi2(1) = 10.77, $p < 0.01$). On the other hand, salespersons' low construal level had a positive impact on salespersons' problem solving ($\beta = 1.32$, $p < 0.01$), supporting H2b. Another chi-square test confirmed that salespersons' low construal level had a stronger positive effect on salespeople's problem solving than on cross-selling (chi2(1) = 12.66, $p < 0.01$). Next, I found that salespersons' cross-selling did not positively impact salespersons' performance ($\beta = -0.57$, $p > 0.1$), rejecting H3a. Salespersons' problem solving positively impacted their sales performance ($\beta = 0.83$, $p < 0.01$), supporting H3b. It is possible that cross-selling leads salespersons to experience much work exhaustion and less job satisfaction, which are harmful to enhance their sales performance. Finally, I

found a positive interaction effect between cross-selling and problem solving on salespersons' performance ($\beta = 0.11$, $p < 0.05$), supporting H4. Fig. 4 displays the simple slope plot of the interaction effect. It shows that salespersons' sales performance is highest when cross-selling and problem solving are high.

Discussions

Paper 2 confirms the role of dynamic control systems at individual level and reveals the underlying mechanisms towards sales performance. I find that different types of dynamic control systems have differential impacts. Specifically, capability control velocity positively impacts salespersons' high construal level and low construal level; activity control velocity positively impacts salespersons' high construal level; outcome control velocity positively impacts salespersons' low construal level. Second, different construal levels have distinct impacts on salespersons' selling activities: high construal level increases salespersons' cross-selling activities, while low construal level increases salespersons' problem solving activities. Finally, I find that problem solving activities improve salespersons' performance, while cross-selling dose not have significant impacts on salespersons' performance. However, cross-selling interacts with problem solving to enhance salespersons' sales performance.

CHAPTER FIVE: GENERAL DISCUSSION

Theoretical implications

My dissertation will make the following contributions to the sales control literature. First, this dissertation (vs. extant literature) has systematically conceptualized dynamic sales controls, verifying and establishing their theoretical merits. Extending the previous works on sales controls (e.g., Katsikeas et al., 2018; Malek Sarin and Jaworski, 2018), I consider the sales control velocity from a dynamic perspective and analyze how it affects sales performance. As illustrated in the introduction, the trajectories of the sales control have additional effects beyond the impacts of the absolute levels of sales controls. That is, sales control velocity, which differs from the absolute levels of sales controls, independently impacts sales performance.

Second, I have revealed the antecedents, the outcomes of dynamic control systems and the moderators involved in the processes at different levels. Though Katsikeas et al. (2018) have briefly investigated their impacts, people still need to learn more about them. I have investigated dynamic control systems and their related relationships at the team level in Paper 1 and the individual level in Paper 2. These studies have depicted a relatively complete picture of dynamic control systems.

Third, I have used construal level theory to reveal differential mediation mechanisms through which dynamic sales control systems affect salesperson outcomes. Previous research has shown mixed findings on sales controls (Katsikeas et al., 2018). My work has helped reconcile the inconsistent results by revealing ignored mediating mechanisms.

In addition to the above three contributions, my dissertation will also contribute by connecting sales control literature with temporal literature, cross-selling literature, and adding new insights into the interactionist perspective. First, though scholars have attempted to reveal how temporal perspective affects salespersons' behaviors (e.g., Rostami, Gabler, and Agnihotri, 2019; Briker, Walter, and Cole, 2021), research on this topic is still at an early stage. It has been relatively unclear how individual temporal differences affect salespersons' thoughts and behaviors. Moreover, though previous research has revealed some antecedents of sales controls (e.g., Jaworski, Stathakopoulus, and Krishnan, 1993; Krafft, 1999), the potential antecedents related to sales managers' characteristics have been ignored before. My dissertation has provided new insights into the roles of individual temporal differences.

Second, similar to the fourth point mentioned above, Paper 2 contributes to the literature on cross-selling by revealing new antecedents. I have revealed that different types of sales control velocity affect salespersons' cross-selling via their construal levels.

Finally, my studies will contribute to the interactionist perspective by developing a dynamic view. In previous sales research, marketing scholars have used this theoretical perspective to explain salespersons' goals and performance (e.g., Brown, Cron, and Slocum Jr., 1998); however, they only focus on the outcomes of the static congruence between personal traits and organizational environments. Extending this theoretical perspective, I examine the consequences of dynamic congruence, which capture the dynamic changes in individual behaviors over time.

Managerial implications

My studies have provided the following critical managerial implications. First, my studies provide suggestions on selecting and managing sales managers. Unlike most sales studies that have provided advice on selecting and managing salespersons (e.g., Miao et al., 2022; Zheng et al., 2021), my dissertation has provided suggestions from a different angle. Firms should consider their temporal differences when selecting and appointing sales managers. Suppose firms want sales managers to increase the outcome or the activity control ratio velocity to execute short-term and feasible tasks effectively. In that case, firms should select sales managers with intense time urgency. Otherwise, firms emphasizing the long-term development of salespersons' competence and skills should appoint sales managers with solid future time perspective.

In addition, to maximize the sales team performance, firms should also consider the work environment (e.g., sales managers' competitive psychological climate) and the task characteristic (e.g., salesforce observability of behaviors) when selecting sales managers based on their temporal differences. Suppose firms want sales managers to accelerate the outcome or the capability control ratio velocity. In that case, the firms should enhance the intensity of the competitive climate for time urgent sales managers and future-oriented sales managers, respectively. If firms want sales managers to accelerate the activity control ratio velocity, firms should appoint future-oriented sales managers.

Third, given the positive role of dynamic control systems, sales managers should accelerate capability control velocity. Sales managers should also be cautious about using

outcome control velocity, which may have a stronger negative impact on sales team performance over time.

Finally, sales managers should realize that different types of sales control velocity affect salespersons' construal levels differently. Sales managers should accelerate capability control velocity, enhancing salespersons' high and low construal levels. By doing so, they can create a synergistic positive effect on salespersons' performance via their cross-selling and problem solving activities. Accelerating outcome control velocity can enhance salespersons' performance by increasing their problem solving activities. By contrast, accelerating activity control velocity can increase salespersons' cross-selling activities.

Research Limitations and Future Research Directions

My dissertation has several limitations, and researchers can try to overcome them in future studies. First, though I have argued the positive roles of dynamic control systems and how they facilitate improving sales performance, they may also have some adverse effects on sales managers and salespersons. After all, implementing sales controls is essentially self-regulatory activity, and continuously accelerating the implementation may deplete both sales managers' and salespersons' resources (e.g., time and energy) (Chan and Wan, 2012). Therefore, the dark side of increasing dynamic control systems deserves future research attention.

Second, the data for the studies in my dissertation are from the same cultural source. I collected data from China because of the accessibility of the data. However, it is unclear

whether and how the roles of dynamic control systems work differently under other

cultural contexts. In future research, researchers can conduct cross-cultural studies about

dynamic control systems and compare their impacts under distinct contexts.

Third, because of the accessibility of the data, I only collected relatively short-term

data and examined the impacts of dynamic control systems within a short period. Future

research can try to collect data about long-term sales performance, which will help people

understand the long-term influence of dynamic control systems and reveal its other

possible profound influences. Besides, I only collected data for two-time points. In future

studies, researchers should collect data more than three times to look into the roles of

dynamic sales control systems.

Finally, the data for many variables were from the same sources and collected

simultaneously. In future research, researchers should collect data from multi-sources and

at different time points. In Paper 1, the Cronbach's α for time urgency is below 0.6, which

is below the cutoff of 0.7. Researchers can try to enhance the reliability of time urgency

in their future studies.

Antecedents

Boundary conditions

Mechanisms

Outcomes

Previous research

Research theme #3 Moderators for sales controls (exemplary moderators)
- Preference for sales predictability (Katsikeas et al., 2018)
- Goal difficulty (Fang, Evans and Zou, 2005)

Research theme #4

Outcomes of sales control

(exemplary outcomes)
- Sales performance (Miao and Evans, 2013)
- Dysfunctional behaviors (Ramaswami, 1996)
- Satisfaction with supervisor (Challagalla and Shervani 1996)

Research theme #1 (Exemplary antecedents)

Antecedents of sales controls
- Business unit size (Krafft, 1999)
- Environmental uncertainty (Krafft, 1999)
- Complexity of products (Jaworski, Stathakopoulus and Krishnan, 1993)

Sales controls
- Outcome control
- Activity control
- Capability control

Research theme #2 (exemplary mediators)

Mediators between sales controls and work-related outcomes
- Self-regulated learning (Katsikeas et al., 2018)
- Job stress (Miao and Evans, 2013)

This research

Addressed research gap 1&2 (Paper 1 &2)

Limited research on dynamic changes of absolute levels of sales controls; lack of insights into **dynamic control systems**.

Addressed research gap 3 (Paper 1 &2)

Lack of insights into **antecedents, boundary conditions and outcomes** of dynamic control systems drawn from theories in different areas

Contribution 2: new antecedents, boundary conditions and outcomes of dynamic control systems

Contribution 1: a new conceptualization, dynamic control systems

Fig. 1 Literature review on sales control systems.

Note: Additional exemplary variables can be found in Web Appendix A. The upper panel reviews themes in prior research. The lower panel identifies research gaps that will be addressed in this research

```
┌─────────────────────────────┐
│   Sales manager's competitive │
│   psychological climate       │
└─────────────────────────────┘
                │
                ▼
┌──────────────────────────────┐   ┌─────────────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────────┐
│ Managers' temporal           │   │ Sales control velocity      │   │        Outcomes          │
│ characteristics              │   │   ● Activity control velocity │   │   ● Sales ranking        │
│   ● Time urgency             │──▶│   ● Capability control        │──▶│   ● Sales ranking growth │
│   ● Future time perspective  │   │     velocity                │   │                          │
│                              │   │   ● Outcome control velocity │   │                          │
└──────────────────────────────┘   └─────────────────────────────┘   └──────────────────────────┘
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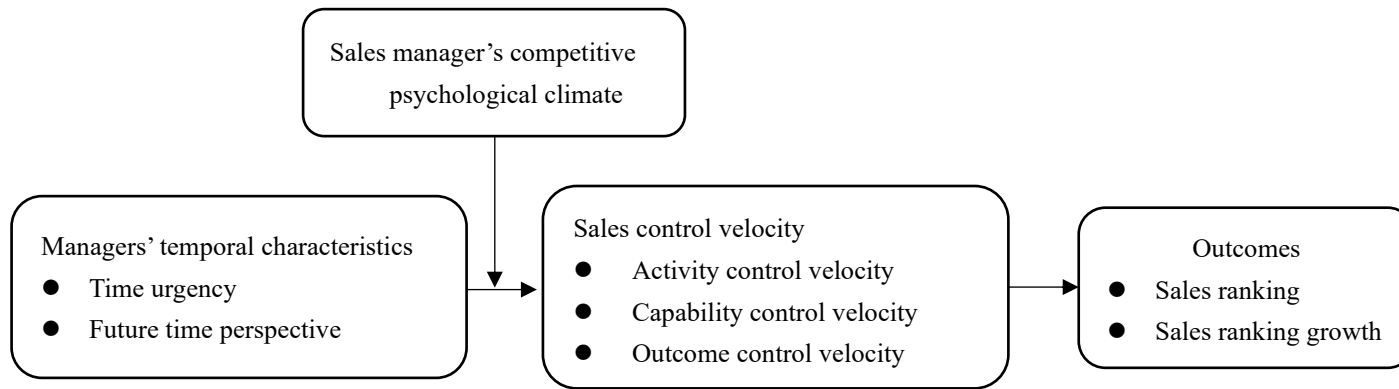
Fig 2 Research model in Paper 1
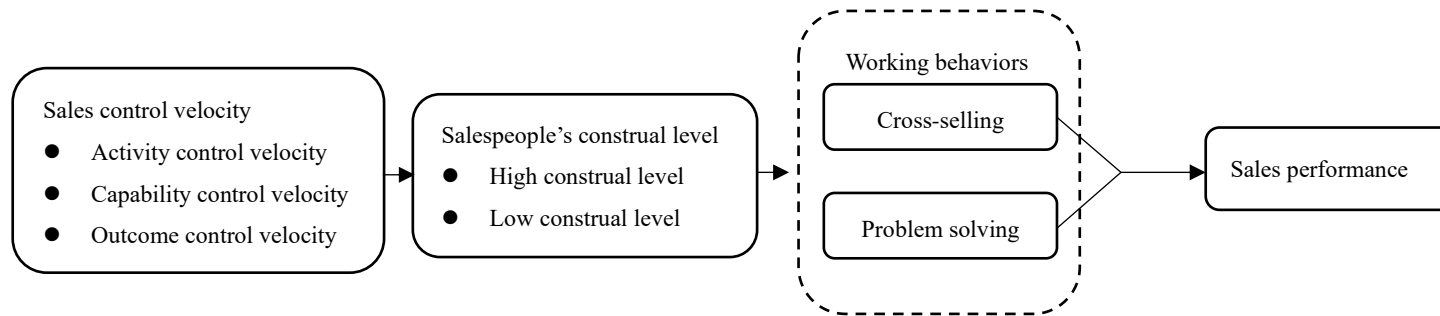
Fig. 3 Research model in Paper 2
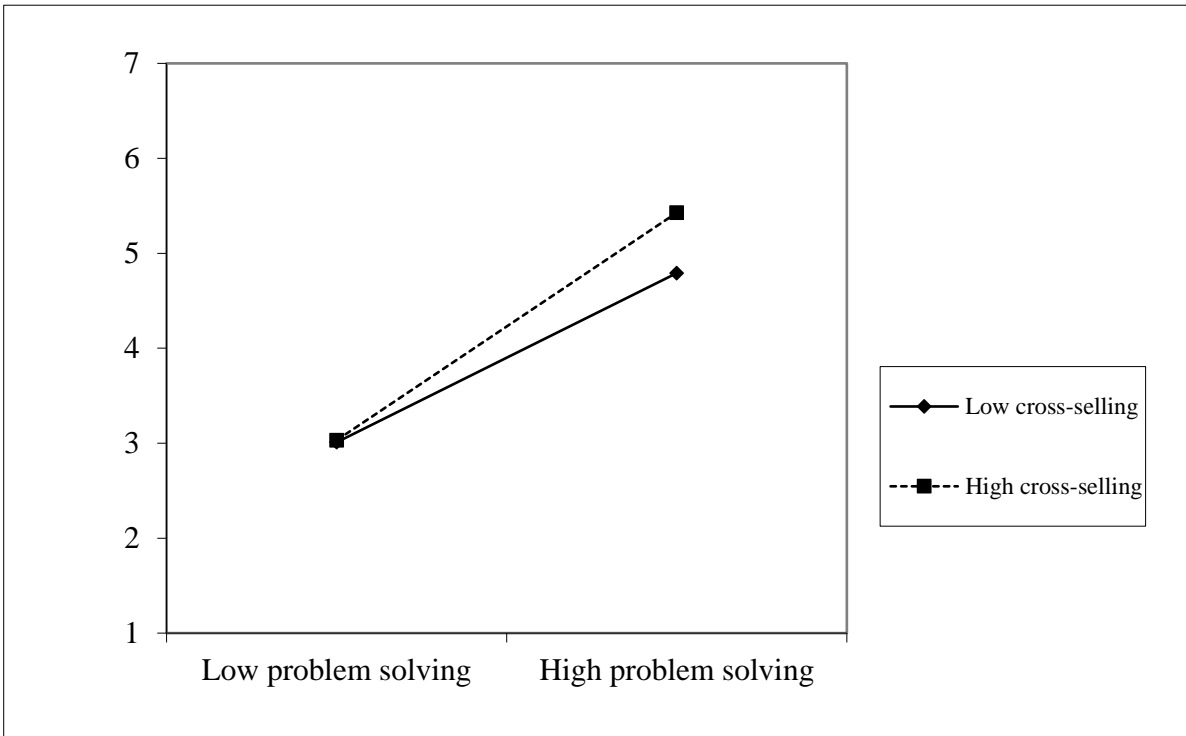
Fig. 4 Simple slope plot in Paper 2

TABLES

Table 1 Sales control literature review table

Study*	Substantive focus	The velocity of sales controls over time	The antecedents, outcomes, or boundary conditions for dynamic control systems	Research theme 1: antecedents of sales controls *Research gap:* Lack of research examining the roles of sales managers' characteristics as the antecedents	Research theme 2: the mediators between sales controls and sales performance *Research gap:* Lack of research examining the mediating mechanisms from construal level theory		Research theme 3: Moderators for sales controls	Research theme 4: the outcomes of sales controls
					Mediators examined?	Theoretical perspective		
This dissertation, dealing with theme 1 (antecedents), 2 (mediators), 3 (moderators) and 4 (outcomes)	(1) the conceptualization of dynamic control systems (2) new mediating mechanisms between sales controls and sales performance (3) the antecedents, boundary conditions and outcomes of dynamic control systems	✔	✔	Sales managers' temporal characteristics (time urgency and future time perspective)	✔	Construal level theory	✔	✔

Table 1 Sales control literature review table (Continued)

Study*	Substantive focus	The velocity of sales controls over time	The antecedents, outcomes, or boundary conditions for dynamic control systems	Research theme 1: antecedents of sales controls *Research gap:* Lack of research examining the roles of sales managers' characteristics as the antecedents	Research theme 2: the mediators between sales controls and sales performance *Research gap:* Lack of research examining the mediating mechanisms from construal level theory		Research theme 3: Moderators for sales controls	Research theme 4: the outcomes of sales controls
					Mediators examined?	Theoretical perspective		
Ahearne et al. (2010)	How to use sales control to improve salespersons' perception of the new product and effectiveness of effort	✘	✘	✘	✘	Motivation theory (inferred)	✔	✔
Atuahene-Gima and Li (2002)	How sales controls affect supervisee trust and moderate the relationships between supervisee trust and sales performance	✘	✘	✘	✔	Transaction cost theory and social exchange theory	✘	✔
Babakus et al. (1996)	The impact of sales controls on sales territory design, and thus salesforce performance and sales organization effectiveness	✘	✘	✘	✔	Walker et al. (1979) framework	✘	✔

Table 1 Sales control literature review table (Continued)

Study*	Substantive focus	The velocity of sales controls over time	The antecedents, outcomes, or boundary conditions for dynamic control systems	Research theme 1: antecedents of sales controls *Research gap:* Lack of research examining the roles of sales managers' characteristics as the antecedents	Research theme 2: the mediators between sales controls and sales performance *Research gap:* Lack of research examining the mediating mechanisms from construal level theory		Research theme 3: Moderators for sales controls	Research theme 4: the outcomes of sales controls
					Mediators examined?	Theoretical perspective		
Challagalla and Shervani (1996)	The disaggregation of behavior control into activity control and capability control The direct and indirect impacts of various sales controls	✘	✘	✘	✔	Control theory, goal theory, path-goal theory, and cognitive evaluation theory	✘	✔
Cravens et al. (1993)	The differential impacts of behavioral- vs. outcome-based sales controls	✘	✘	✘	✔	Anderson and Oliver (1987) framework	✘	✔
Evans et al. (2007)	How different sales controls affect salespersons' sales-related psychological climate perceptions and thus sales-related outcomes	✘	✘	✘	✔	Sales control literature and psychological climate literature	✘	✔

Table 1 Sales control literature review table (Continued)

Study*	Substantive focus	The velocity of sales controls over time	The antecedents, outcomes, or boundary conditions for dynamic control systems	Research theme 1: antecedents of sales controls *Research gap:* Lack of research examining the roles of sales managers' characteristics as the antecedents	Research theme 2: the mediators between sales controls and sales performance *Research gap:* Lack of research examining the mediating mechanisms from construal level theory		Research theme 3: Moderators for sales controls	Research theme 4: the outcomes of sales controls
					Mediators examined?	Theoretical perspective		
Challagalla and Shervani (1996)	The disaggregation of behavior control into activity control and capability control The direct and indirect impacts of various sales controls	✘	✘	✘	✔	Control theory, goal theory, path-goal theory, and cognitive evaluation theory	✘	✔
Cravens et al. (1993)	The differential impacts of behavioral- vs. outcome-based sales controls	✘	✘	✘	✔	Anderson and Oliver (1987) framework	✘	✔
Evans et al. (2007)	How different sales controls affect salespersons' sales-related psychological climate perceptions and thus sales-related outcomes	✘	✘	✘	✔	Sales control literature and psychological climate literature	✘	✔

Table 1 Sales control literature review table (Continued)

Study*	Substantive focus	The velocity of sales controls over time	The antecedents, outcomes, or boundary conditions for dynamic control systems	Research theme 1: antecedents of sales controls *Research gap:* Lack of research examining the roles of sales managers' characteristics as the antecedents	Research theme 2: the mediators between sales controls and sales performance *Research gap:* Lack of research examining the mediating mechanisms from construal level theory		Research theme 3: Moderators for sales controls	Research theme 4: the outcomes of sales controls
					Mediators examined?	Theoretical perspective		
Fang, Evans, and Landry (2005)	How different sales controls affect salespersons' attributions and thus psychological states	✘	✘	✘	✔	Attribution theory	✔	✔
Katsikeas et al. (2018)	(1) How different kinds of sales controls affect sales performance via exploratory vs. exploitative learning The contingent factors between distinct learning and sales performance	✔	✘	✘	✔	Regulatory focus theory	✔	✔
Menguc and Barker (2003)	How different sales controls independently and interactively affect sales performance	✘	✘	✘	✘	Agency theory and organizational control theory	✔	✔

Table 1 Sales control literature review table (Continued)

Study*	Substantive focus	The velocity of sales controls over time	The antecedents, outcomes, or boundary conditions for dynamic control systems	Research theme 1: antecedents of sales controls *Research gap:* Lack of research examining the roles of sales managers' characteristics as the antecedents	Research theme 2: the mediators between sales controls and sales performance *Research gap:* Lack of research examining the mediating mechanisms from construal level theory		Research theme 3: Moderators for sales controls	Research theme 4: the outcomes of sales controls
					Mediators examined?	Theoretical perspective		
Miao and Evans (2013)	How distinct sales controls interact job engagement and job stress, and thus sales performance	✘	✘	✘	✔	Job demands-resources theory	✘	✔
Oliver and Anderson (1994)	The differential impacts of behavioral- vs. outcome-based sales controls	✘	✘	✘	✘	Anderson and Oliver (1987) framework	✘	✔
Piercy et al. (2006)	How behavioral control affects salespersons' organizational citizenship behaviors and in-role behavior performance	✘	✘	✘	✔	Social exchange theory	✘	✔

Table 1 Sales control literature review table (Continued)

Study*	Substantive focus	The velocity of sales controls over time	The antecedents, outcomes, or boundary conditions for dynamic control systems	Research theme 1: antecedents of sales controls ***Research gap:*** Lack of research examining the roles of sales managers' characteristics as the antecedents	Research theme 2: the mediators between sales controls and sales performance ***Research gap:*** Lack of research examining the mediating mechanisms from construal level theory		Research theme 3: Moderators for sales controls	Research theme 4: the outcomes of sales controls
					Mediators examined?	Theoretical perspective		
Ramaswami (1996)	How sales controls affect salespersons' dysfunctional behaviors	✘	✘	✘	✘	Control theory and contingency theory	✔	✔
Ramaswami, Srinivasan, and Gorton (1997)	How sales controls affect information asymmetry between salespersons and supervisors and salespersons' dysfunctional behaviors	✘	✘	✘	✔	Agency theory and social exchange theory	✘	✔

Table 2 The Different Characteristics between High Contruals and Low Contruals

	High-level construals	Low-level construals
Conceptualization		
Basic definition	Abstract and decontextualized representations extracting essential and stable characteristics from the target	Concrete and contextualized representations extracting detailed and subordinate characteristics from the target
Description of construals	• Abstract • Simple • Structured, coherent • Decontextualized • Primary, core • Superordinate	• Concrete • Complex • Unstructured, incoherent • Contextualized • Secondary, surface • Subordinate • Goal irrelevant
Dimensions of psychological distance		
Temporal	Distant future or past	Now, near future, or past
Spatial	Distant place	Here, near place
Social	Dissimilar, unfamiliar, high in social status; in-group	Similar, familiar, low or similar in social status; out-group
Hypothetical	High probability	Low probability
Perceptions, thinking ways and behaviors		
Perceptions and observations	Big picture, "forest"	Component parts, "tree"
Categorizations	Broad groups of objects	Narrow groups of objects
Personal concerns	Desirability	Feasibility
Interpretation of actions	Why the action is performed (superordinate purpose)	How the action is performed (subordinate means)
Prediction	Focus on global trend	Focus on local (temporary) deviation
Evaluation	Focus on goal relevant issues	Focus on goal irrelevant issues

Adapted from Adler and Sarstedt (2021) and Wilson, Crisp and Mortensen (2013)

Table 3 Measurement items, reliability, and validity assessment at time 1 for Paper 1

Items	Loading
Activity control (*Cronbach's α* = 0.85; *CR* = 0.87; *AVE* = 0.57)	
1. I inform my sales staff about the sales activities I expect them to perform.*	0.72
2. I monitor how my sales staff perform required sales activities.*	0.65
3. I inform salespeople on whether they meet my expectations on sales. activities	0.85
4. I readjust my sales staff's sales activities when necessary.*	0.83
5. I would recognize my sales staff if they perform sales activities well.*	0.72
Capability control (*Cronbach's α* = 0.84; *CR* = 0.87; *AVE* = 0.58)	
1. I periodically evaluate the selling skills my sales staff use to accomplish a task (e.g., how I negotiate).*	0.69
2. I provide guidance on ways to improve my sales staff's selling skills and abilities.	0.87
3. I evaluate how my sales staff makes sales presentations and communicates with customers.*	0.64
4. I assist my sales staff by illustrating why using a particular sales approach may be effective.*	0.91
5. I would commend if my sales staff improves the selling skills.*	0.67
Outcome control (*Cronbach's α* = 0.87; *CR* = 0.93; *AVE* = 0.73)	
1. I tell my sales staff about the expected level of achievement on sales volume or market share targets.	0.84
2. I monitor my sales staff's performance on achieving sales volume or market share targets.	0.91
3. I provide frequent feedback on whether my sales staff is meeting expected achievement on sales volume or market share targets.*	0.95
4. I ensure that my sales staff is aware of the extent to which I they attain sales volume or market share targets.	0.72
5. I would recognize my sales staff if they perform well on sales volume or market share targets.*	0.82
Sales managers' competitive psychological climate (*Cronbach's α* = 0.74; *CR* = 0.75; *AVE* = 0.50	
1. My firm frequently compares my results with those of other sales managers.*	0.61
2. The amount of recognition I get in this company depends on how my sales team ranks compared to other sales teams.*	0.62
3. My coworkers frequently compare the results of their sales team with mine.	0.87
Future time perspective (*Cronbach's α* = 0.86; *CR* = 0.86; *AVE* = 0.55)	
1. My behavior is only influenced by the immediate (i.e., a matter of days or weeks) outcomes of my actions. (R)	0.76

2. My convenience is a big factor in the decisions I make or the actions I take. (R)	0.70
3. I generally ignore warnings about possible future problems because I think the problems will be resolved before they reach crisis level. (R)	0.68
4. I only act to satisfy immediate concerns, figuring that I will take care of future problems that may occur at a later date. (R)	0.86
5. Since my day to day work has specific outcomes, it is more important to me than behavior that has distant. (R)	0.71

Time urgency (*Cronbach's α = 0.60; CR = 0.64; AVE = 0.38*)

1. I find myself hurrying to get places even when there is plenty of time.*	0.51
2. I tend to be quick and energetic at work.*	0.76
3. I often feel very pressed for time.	0.55

Note: CR= composite reliability, AVE=average variance extracted. *means the items were parceled for the CFA of measurement model.

Table 4 Correlation table for Paper

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age	1.00													
2. Gender	0.00	1.00												
3. Edu	-0.35***	0.12	1.00											
4. Prot[1]	0.69***	0.06	-0.11	1.00										
5. Indu[2]	-0.03	-0.03	-0.08	-0.11	1.00									
6. PO[3]	-0.05	0.12	-0.06	-0.04	0.13	1.00								
7. Urge[4]	-0.17*	0.11	-0.08	-0.03	0.06	0.22**	1.00							
8. Futu[5]	-0.08	-0.02	0.09	-0.23***	0.07	0.06	-0.25***	1.00						
9. Comp[6]	0.15*	0.11	-0.10	0.16*	-0.01	0.33***	0.12	-0.17*	1.00					
10. Acti[7]	-0.17*	0.08	-0.09	-0.17*	0.15*	0.57***	0.40***	0.12	0.23**	1.00				
11. Capa[8]	-0.06	0.05	-0.17*	-0.05	0.04	0.41***	0.45***	0.06	0.25***	0.78***	1.00			
12. Out[9]	-0.17	0.02	-0.07	-0.17*	0.12	0.61***	0.24***	0.18**	0.35***	0.74***	0.66***	1.00		
13. Perf1[10]	-0.02	0.07	-0.11	0.01	0.04	0.08	-0.02	-0.33***	0.02	0.01	-0.08	-0.00	1.00	
14. Perf2[11]	-0.09	-0.01	0.07	0.02	-0.12	-0.04	0.11	-0.04	-0.10	0.05	0.12	0.05	0.31***	1.00
Mean	38.56	1.26	5.12	12.52	1.32	5.89	5.72	4.80	5.34	6.28	6.16	6.46	0.44	-2.38
S.D.	7.84	0.44	1.54	6.91	0.70	1.27	1.00	1.42	1.30	0.85	0.84	0.80	0.33	11.26

Note: *** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.1$ (two-tailed). Prot = professional tenure, Indu = firm industry (manufacturing = 1, construction = 2, telecommunication = 3, real estate = 4); PO = performance orientation; Urge = time urgency, Futu = future time perspective; Comp = sales managers' competitive psychological climate; Acti = activity control at time 1; Capa = capability control at time 1; Out = outcome control at time 1; Perf1 = sales ranking within the team; Perf2 = sales ranking growth within the team.

Table 5 Results of CMP using sales control velocity as outcomes

	Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.
DV	Activity CV		Capability CV		Outcome CV	
Urge	-0.04	0.06	0.04	0.05	0.12*	0.07
Futu	0.03	0.04	0.09**	0.04	0.05	0.04
Comp	0.04	0.05	-0.01	0.04	-0.10	0.05
Urge*Comp	-0.04	0.04	0.01	0.03	0.08*	0.04
Futu*Comp	0.07**	0.03	0.06**	0.03	0.09***	0.03
Age (logged)	0.44	0.42	0.72*	0.40	0.58	0.44
Gender	0.28**	0.13	-0.30**	0.13	0.47***	0.14
Edu	-0.01	0.04	-0.03	0.04	-0.06	0.04
Prof (logged)	0.11	0.11	-0.03	0.10	0.03	0.11
PerfO	0.00	0.05	-0.01	0.05	-0.10**	0.05
Intercept	-0.36	0.24	0.36	0.30	-0.39	0.25
Industry (manufacturing as the baseline group)						
Dummy 1	0.15	0.17	0.14	0.17	-0.03	0.18
Dummy 2	0.28	0.32	0.30	0.32	0.43	0.34
Dummy 3	0.06	0.32	0.57*	0.32	0.24	0.33

Note: *** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.1$ (two-tailed)

DV= dependent variable; S.E. = standard error; Activity CV = activity control velocity; Capability CV = capability control velocity; Outcome CV = outcome control velocity; Urge = time urgency; Futu = future time perspective; Comp = sales managers' competitive psychological climate; Prof = professional tenure; PerfO = performance orientation; Dummy 1 = the difference between construction industry and manufacturing industry; Dummy 2 = the difference between telecommunication industry and manufacturing industry; Dummy 3 = the difference between real estate industry and manufacturing industry.

Table 6 Results of CMP using sales performance as outcomes

	Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.
DV	SP1		SP2	
Activity CV	0.45	0.58	-8.54	9.82
Capability CV	-1.51*	0.90	-14.15	14.94
Outcome CV	0.47	0.48	18.58**	8.38
Age (logged)	0.68	0.59	-1.83	9.86
Gender	0.19	0.23	-2.76	3.88
Edu2	-0.05	0.05	0.79	0.88
Prof (logged)	-0.17	0.17	0.77	2.82
PerfO	0.04	0.08	0.37	1.33
Activity at t1	0.05	0.07	-2.22	2.48
Outcome at t1	0.08	0.07	6.89**	2.55
Capability at t1	-0.14**	0.06	-0.59	2.06
Intercept	0.54**	0.47	-28.54	11.97
Industry (manufacturing as the baseline group)				
Dummy 1	0.15	0.17	0.14	0.17
Dummy 2	0.28	0.32	0.30	0.32
Dummy 3	0.06	0.32	0.57*	0.32

Note: *** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.1$ (two-tailed)

DV= dependent variable; S.E. = standard error; SP1 = sales ranking; SP2 = sales ranking growth; Activity CV = activity control velocity; Capability CV = capability control velocity; Outcome CV = outcome control velocity; Prof = professional tenure; PerfO = performance orientation; Dummy 1 = the difference between construction industry and manufacturing industry; Dummy 2 = the difference between telecommunication industry and manufacturing industry; Dummy 3 = the difference between real estate industry and manufacturing industry.

Table 7 Measurement items, reliability, and validity assessment at time 1 for Paper 2

Items	Loading
Activity control (*Cronbach's α = 0.94; CR = 0.94; AVE = 0.74*)	
1. My manager informs me about the sales activities I am expected to perform.	0.75
2. My manager monitors how I perform required sales activities.	0.80
3. My manager informs me on whether I meet his/her expectations on sales.	0.90
4. My manager readjusts my sales activities when necessary.	0.92
5. I would be recognized by my manager if I perform sales activities well.	0.93
Capability control (*Cronbach's α = 0.97; CR = 0.97; AVE = 0.87*)	
1. My manager periodically evaluates the selling skills I use to accomplish a task (e.g., how I negotiate).	0.87
2. My manager provides guidance on ways to improve my selling skills and abilities.	0.95
3. My manager evaluates how I make sales presentations and communicate with customers.	0.93
4. My manager assists me by illustrating why using a particular sales approach may be effective.	0.97
5. I would be commended if I improve my selling skills.	0.95
Outcome control (*Cronbach's α = 0.97; CR = 0.97; AVE = 0.86*)	
1. My manager tells me about the expected level of achievement on sales volume or market share targets.	0.91
2. My manager monitors my performance on achieving sales volume or market share targets.	0.94
3. I receive frequent feedback on whether I am meeting expected achievement on sales volume or market share targets.	0.99
4. My manager ensures that I am aware of the extent to which I attain sales volume or market share targets.	0.97
5. I would be recognized by my manager if I perform well on sales volume or market share targets.	0.82
Salesperson's high construal level (*Cronbach's α = 0.89; CR = 0.93; AVE = 0.81*)	
1. At work I am focused on the big picture.	0.92
2. At work I am focused on the general meaning or overall effect.	0.84
3. At work I care more about central characteristics of my actions.	0.94

Salesperson's low construal level (*Cronbach's α = 0.89; CR = 0.88; AVE = 0.72*)

1. At work I am focused on the details.	0.95
2. At work I am focused on the particular meaning or narrow effect.	0.96
3. At work I care more about specifics in my actions.	0.59

Cross-selling (*Cronbach's α = 0.95; CR = 0.97; AVE = 0.87*)

During conversation with customers…

1. I usually explore potential matches between the customers' needs and the features of a product which they do not currently own.	0.94
2. I usually try to identify good ways of familiarizing customers with another product that can satisfy their needs.	0.94
3. I usually ask questions to assess whether the customers would be willing to buy an additional product.	0.95
4. I hardly neglect a good opportunity to advise customers of a product which they could benefit from.	0.91

Problem solving (*Cronbach's α = 0.98; CR = 0.98; AVE = 0.91*)

1. I try my best to understand and solve customers' problems.	0.91
2. I try to get customers to discuss their needs with me.	0.96
3. I offer solutions that are best suited to customers' problems.	0.95
4. I try to find out what kind of product would be most helpful to customers.	0.97
5. I try to bring customers a product that can help them solve a problem.	0.98

Sales performance (*Cronbach's α = 0.96; CR = 0.96; AVE = 0.87*)

On each of the following items, please indicate how well you perform in the past three months.

1. Making sales of those products or services with highest profit margins.	0.93
2. Generating a high level of sales.	0.98
3. Quickly generating sales of newly introduced products.	0.94
4. Identifying and selling to important accounts in my territory.	0.88

Note: CR= composite reliability, AVE=average variance extracted.

Table 8 Correlation table for Paper 2

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Age	1.00											
2. Gender	0.09*	1.00										
3. Edu[1]	0.01	-0.00	1.00									
4. Prot[2]	0.47***	0.04	0.03	1.00								
5. Acti[3]	-0.08*	0.01	-0.03	-0.00	1.00							
6. Capa[4]	-0.08	0.04	-0.03	-0.02	0.92***	1.00						
7. Out[5]	-0.04	0.03	-0.02	0.02	0.90***	0.89***	1.00					
8. HighC[6]	0.07	-0.02	0.04	0.12**	-0.06	-0.05	-0.04	1.00				
9. LowC[7]	0.05	-0.11**	0.03	0.01	-0.06	-0.04	-0.04	0.69***	1.00			
10. Csell[8]	0.03	-0.03	0.08	0.02	-0.05	-0.04	-0.03	0.68***	0.72***	1.00		
11. ProSol[9]	0.07	-0.08	0.05	0.01	-0.07	-0.05	-0.05	0.72***	0.81***	0.81***	1.00	
12. Perf[10]	0.11**	-0.09*	0.07	0.07	-0.03	-0.02	-0.02	0.62***	0.68***	0.62***	0.71***	1.00
Means	31.80	1.35	4.80	6.75	6.60	6.56	6.65	6.49	6.47	6.54	6.53	6.24
S.D.	5.15	0.48	1.16	4.08	0.82	0.90	0.77	0.88	0.87	0.82	0.84	0.10

Note: *** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.1$ (two-tailed). Edu = education; Prot = professional tenure; Acti = activity control at time 1; Capa = capability control at time 1; Out = outcome control at time 1; HighC = high construal level; LowC = low construal level; Csell = cross-selling; ProSol = problem solving; Perf = sales performance; S.D. = standard deviations.

Table 9 Results of CMP using construal levels as outcomes

	Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.
DV	HighCon		LowCon	
Activity CV	0.34***	0.11	0.04	0.06
Capability CV	0.69***	0.08	0.48***	0.06
Outcome CV	-0.06	0.10	0.52***	0.08
Age (logged)	0.15	0.26	-0.12	0.22
Gender	0.03	0.06	-0.10*	0.06
Edu	0.03	0.03	0.01	0.02
Prof (logged)	0.02	0.05	0.03	0.04
ActiCon at t1	0.34***	0.12	0.06	0.07
CapaCon at t1	0.47***	0.09	0.37***	0.07
OutCon at t1	-0.07	0.11	0.36***	0.08
Group means of all level-1 variables	Included		Included	
Intercept	1.67	1.31	0.01	1.13

Note: *** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.1$ (two-tailed)

DV= dependent variable; S.E. = standard error; HighCon = high construal level; LowCon = low construal level; Activity CV = activity control velocity; Capability CV = capability control velocity; Outcome CV = outcome control velocity; Edu = education; Prof = professional tenure; ActiCon at t1 = activity control at time 1; CapaCon at t1 = capability control at time 1; OutCon at t1 = outcome control at time 1.

Table 10 Results of CMP using cross-selling and problem solving as outcomes

	Coefficient	S.E.	Coefficient	S.E.
DV	Cross-selling		Problem solving	
HighCon	0.77***	0.25	-0.26	0.18
LowCon	0.26	0.23	1.32***	0.17
Age (logged)	-0.18	0.27	0.14	0.30
Gender	0.07	0.07	0.12	0.08
Edu	0.02	0.03	0.01	0.03
Prof (logged)	-0.02	0.05	0.04	0.06
Group means of all level-1 variables	Included		Included	
Intercept	-1.34	1.46	1.14	1.54

Note: *** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.1$ (two-tailed)

DV= dependent variable; S.E. = standard error; Edu = education; Prof = professional tenure.

Table 11 Results of CMP using sales performance as an outcome

	Coefficient	S.E.
DV	Sales performance	
Cross-selling	-0.57	0.35
Problem solving	0.83***	0.12
Cross-selling*problem solving	0.11**	0.05
Age (logged)	0.28	0.32
Gender	-0.06	0.08
Edu	0.02	0.03
Prof (logged)	-0.00	0.06
ActiCon at t1	0.10	0.12
CapaCon at t1	0.00	0.11
OutCon at t1	-0.06	0.12
Group means of all level-1 variables	Included	
Intercept	-1.35	1.70

Note: *** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.1$ (two-tailed)

DV= dependent variable; S.E. = standard error; Edu = education; Prof = professional tenure.

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