# Delayed Gratification and Its Impact in B2B Sales

*By Sergio Robledo, Laura Munoz, Rich Miller, and Tom Brill*

Salespeople play a pivotal role in organizations as they are responsible for the revenue. Finding which personal traits increase salespeople's chances to perform at high levels in a business-to-business environment, and how such qualities influence them to want to remain in the organization are important organizational questions. Establishing the relationship between delayed gratification, performance, and intentions to leave is the objective of this research. Additionally, finding how two of the Big Five personality traits, conscientiousness and neuroticism, influence individual's propensity to exercise delayed gratification is also explored. While sales performance and salespeople's intentions to leave have been analyzed from several perspectives, to date, no research has been done to relate salespeople's delayed gratification ability to these two constructs. A field study was employed to empirically test the four hypotheses that support the relationship between delayed gratification and performance, intentions to leave, conscientiousness, and neuroticism for salespeople.

## INTRODUCTION

For many organizations, salespeople may constitute the primary marketing tool in business to business (B2B) settings where they are responsible for creating the link between their organization and their customers. Furthermore, organizations have the ongoing challenge of successfully managing their sales resources to improve sales performance by growing market share, sales, and profitability (Reinartz et al., 2005, Schweidel et al., 2008). Along with sales performance, companies must focus on reducing salespeople turnover (Buciuniene and Skudiene, 2009, Griffeth and Hom, 2001) as it is one of the key factors that negatively influences sales performance, customer loyalty, and creates unpredicted expenses (Buciuniene and Skudiene, 2009).

Delayed gratification, the ability to effectively self-manage goals and objectives (Mischel and Ayduk, 2004), is paramount for long B2B sales cycles because salespeople need to have the patience to properly develop

**Sergio Robledo** (DBA, University of Dallas), Adjunct Professor, University of Dallas, srobledo@udallas.edu

**Laura Munoz** (Ph.D., The University of Texas - Pan American), Professor of Marketing, University of Dallas, lmunoz@udallas.edu

**Richard J. Miller** (DBA, Cleveland State University), Associate Professor of Operations Management, University of Dallas, rmiller@udallas.edu

**Thomas M. Brill** (DBA, University of Dallas), Adjunct Professor, University of Dallas, tbrill@udallas.edu

the sale (Tice et al., 2001). This trait is important because buyers need to perceive that salespeople understand the importance of finding the appropriate solution and to ensure the buyer's needs are met instead of rushing into a solution merely because it is time to close the sale. Research has found that based on their orientation towards delayed gratification, people will act upon their intentions to leave an organization (García-Chas et al., 2014). Regardless of the turnover model, one point remains constant: the cardinal relationship between intention to leave and turnover (Cohen et al., 2016). To date, intention to leave remains the best indicator to predict actual turnover (Bertelli, 2007). Therefore, delayed gratification can be a key trait for salespeople in B2B.

The Big Five personality traits can affect many aspects of a person's personal and professional efforts. For example, conscientiousness and low neuroticism have been found to have a positive and well-established relationship with sales performance and delayed gratification (Mischel 2014; Furnham and Cheng, 2019; Gross 2002). Conversely, the other three traits, openness, extroversion, and agreeableness were not included as they have less direct and negative relationship with delayed gratification (McCrae and Costa, 1997; Zuckerman 1994), citations here. Therefore, the focus of this study is on the traits that have a significant and direct impact on delayed gratification.

Salespeople are responsible for customer relationship management, which implies that they need to

understand, create, communicate and deliver value to the customer (Paparoidamis and Guenzi, 2009; Weitz and Bradford, 1999). For a long time, researchers have acknowledged the importance of performance for the sales profession (Agnihotri et al., 2016; Churchill Jr et al., 1985; Goad and Jaramillo, 2014; Verbeke et al., 2011; Vinchur et al., 1998). An area of special attention has been in the specific behaviors that allow salespeople to be successful in the different sales scenarios that they face in the B2B environment (Fang et al., 2004; Rapp et al., 2008). Scholars have studied sales performance based on the outcome it produces, such as market share, revenue generation, and ability to accomplish sales goals (Park and Holloway, 2003; Rapp et al., 2008).

This study builds on the existing delayed gratification literature to be able to understand the relationship with salespeople on intentions to leave their companies. To date, delayed gratification has not been widely studied in business, and it has not been studied at all in the B2B sales context. Therefore, the main contribution of this research is to study whether delayed gratification has an influence on performance and intentions to leave among salespeople. In addition, this study addresses whether neuroticism and conscientiousness, two of the Big Five personality traits, influence how salespeople apply delayed gratification in their activities.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Delayed Gratification

Individuals need to exercise self-management to restrain the impulse of obtaining a proximal reward (Tice et al., 2001). Self-management behaviors have several dimensions, such as self-assessment, goal setting, self-monitoring, time management, self-evaluation, and self-regulation (Frayne and Geringer, 2000). Self-management is based on the Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), which states that behaviors result from the interaction of three main variables: cognitive, environmental and behavioral (Akers, 1986). The combination of these variables creates conditions to meet the desired outcome (Bandura, 1977). One of the dimensions of self-management, self-regulation, is the prime focus of this paper. Self-regulation behaviors allow a person to adapt his or her behaviors to meet the demands of the environment (Doerr and Baumeister,

2010). An important component of self-regulation is how individuals manage their goals, plans, and hopes (Nuttin, 2014). To manage goals and objectives, people need to control their gratification impulses, and they can do this by using willpower as part of their self-regulation mechanisms (Renn et al., 2011). Still, individuals react differently when trying to obtain rewards; some prefer immediate benefits, while others can delay such rewards, if it serves a more important goal in the future (Bandura, 1977; Mischel and Ayduk, 2004). Delayed gratification, a part of the larger construct of resistance to temptation, is one of the behaviors of self-regulation (Jensen-Campbell and Graziano, 2005; Tobin and Graziano, 2006).

Delayed gratification is a self-imposed behavior that helps to keep the focus on a longer-term goal (Mischel et al,. 1989). Liu et al. (2013) argued that delayed gratification is divided in two phases: abandoning the "temptation" of taking the "easier" reward and waiting for a better reward. For this paper, delayed gratification is defined as a behavior that allows individuals to select a future goal instead of an immediate one (Graziano and Tobin, 2013). For B2B salespeople, delayed gratification is an important behavior as they may jeopardize the closing of a sale if they try to close the it too soon, or "leave money on the table" by not tapping into additional possibilities if they had waited (Cherniss et al., 1998). However, delayed gratification has not been widely studied for sales or even in general for business. Extant studies have positively related it to organization constructs, such as performance (Thoresen et al., 2004); intentions to leave (García-Chas et al., 2014); organizational commitment (Witt, 1990); job satisfaction (Wolf, 1970); turnover (Renn et al., 2014); ; ethics (McCuddy and Peery, 1996), and creativity (Liu et al., 2013). Even less research has been done to find out how personality traits are related to delayed gratification. Renn et al. (2011) did an empirical study with counselors in the United States to define how personality traits affected delayed gratification and its relationship to goals. Among the findings was that neuroticism and conscientiousness are positively related to the inability to delay gratification. They also found that delayed gratification has a positive relationship with achieving personal goals. Delayed gratification has

also been related to ethical consistency and orientation (McCuddy & Peery, 1996). In economics, delayed gratification has been studied in relation to delayed discounting (Cheng et al. 2012).

An important aspect of this study focused on understanding how personality traits, specifically the Big Five, can support or hinder salespeople's ability to exercise delayed gratification. Conscientiousness and neuroticism were selected for this study due to their established associations with delayed gratification and the traits required to apply it effectively. The remaining three traits, openness to experience, agreeableness, and extraversion, tend to present challenges for exercising delayed gratification. These are the details:

Conscientiousness: Research indicates a strong link between conscientiousness and the ability to delay gratification (Mischel, 2014). Individuals who score high in conscientiousness are generally better at resisting immediate temptations, as they tend to exhibit greater self-discipline and a focus on long-term goals. This trait is associated with positive outcomes, such as better financial management, improved academic performance, and healthier lifestyle choices (Sharma and Saxena, 2014).

Low neuroticism individuals tend to manage their emotions more effectively, enabling them to resist impulsive urges in favor of long-term goals. They experience fewer negative emotions, making it easier to remain focused on their plans and practice delayed gratification (Gross, 2002). Low neuroticism is linked to effective planning, as these individuals can envision long-term outcomes and prioritize delayed gratification over immediate rewards (Srivastava et al., 2003). Additionally, low neuroticism contributes to resilience in stressful situations, which aids impulse control and maintaining focus on future rewards. Overall, individuals with low neuroticism are better equipped to resist temptations and wait for larger rewards (Moffitt et al., 2011).

Individuals high in openness to experience are characterized by a willingness to explore new ideas and engage in novel experiences. While these traits can foster positive outcomes, they may also complicate the ability to delay gratification. For instance, those high in openness often seek out new and exciting experiences, which can lead them to opt for immediate rewards instead of exercising delayed gratification (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Such individuals may struggle with routines and predictability, essential skills for practicing delayed gratification. Furthermore, their constant desire for change and variety can lead to impatience and a tendency to prioritize immediate rewards (DeYoung, 2010). This impulsiveness, driven by a search for novel experiences, can further obstruct their ability to delay gratification (Zuckerman, 2007). Additionally, high openness individuals may be influenced by their environments, which can impede their capacity to exercise delayed gratification (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Individuals high in agreeableness are characterized by compassion, cooperation, and a desire for strong relationships. In certain circumstances, these traits can challenge their ability to delay gratification. Agreeable individuals often prioritize others' needs over their own, which may lead them to opt for immediate rewards rather than waiting for larger, long-term benefits (McCrae & Costa, 1997). To maintain harmony and avoid conflict, they may sacrifice delayed gratification (DeYoung, 2010; Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997). Moreover, agreeable individuals frequently compare themselves with others, which can create pressure to conform to social norms, potentially prompting them to seek immediate gratification (Côté & Miners, 2006).

Extraverted individuals are sociable, energetic, and seek stimulation from their environments. These characteristics can sometimes hinder their ability to delay gratification. Extraverts tend to pursue immediate and enjoyable rewards; their sociability and the excitement from social interactions can lead them to prioritize short-term pleasures over long-term goals (Zuckerman, 1994). Their energetic nature can also result in impulsiveness, making them more likely to make quick decisions that favor immediate rewards without considering long-term consequences (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Additionally, extraverts often thrive in social settings, which can subject them to peer pressure that prioritizes social enjoyment over personal goals (Côté & Miners, 2006).

## Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness is defined as the act of adapting to and following social norms, as well as having a high goal orientation and patience level. In other words, it is the ability to act consistently, independent of the specifics of the situation (Roberts et al., 2009). Conscientiousness includes several qualities, such as having a sense of order, being cautious and careful, and having strong planning skills (Robertson et al., 2000). Additionally, conscientiousness includes being dependable, result oriented, responsible, and focusing on the task at hand (McCrae and Costa, 1987). Individuals with high levels of conscientiousness are not impulsive, as they analyze the facts before acting (Sharma and Saxena, 2014). Costa and McCrae (1992) related conscientiousness with competence, dutifulness, desire to achieve, deliberation, and sales-discipline. In a different study, Chamorro-Premuzic and Furnham (2003) found that goal-focus, efficiency, perseverance, and achievement orientation have a significant relationship with conscientiousness. Sharma and Saxena (2014) found that individuals who can self-regulate and focus their impulses on achievement show high levels of conscientiousness. Low conscientiousness is related to failure to delay gratification as it is associated with low levels of deliberation, competence, and reasonableness, and with lack of order, weak self-discipline, and procrastination (Baumeister, 2002; Funder and Ozer, 1983). Individuals with low conscientiousness typically demonstrate a lack of self-discipline and the inability to plan, making it more difficult for such employees to focus on longer term rewards versus immediate gratification (Mischel and Ayduk, 2004).

## Neuroticism

Neuroticism encompasses characteristics such as depression, self-conscientiousness, and lack of confidence, impulsiveness, hostility, insecurity, and anxiety (Judge and Bono, 2001). Neurotics typically show a pessimistic perspective by focusing on the negative aspects of themselves and others (Roelofs et al., 2008). Because of this outlook, neurotics are likely to experience depression and vulnerability (Costa and McCrae, 1985). Also, their mood fluctuates, which creates insecurities (Feist, 1998). Such lack of confidence and stability makes neurotics less likely to

achieve their goals and objectives (Elliot at., 1997; Xu and Brucks, 2011).

Individuals who express the opposite of neuroticism show control over their emotions, defined as emotional stability (Sharma and Saxena, 2014). This type of behavior is based on resilience, temperament, self-confidence, and stress tolerance, making individuals with these traits highly satisfied with themselves. Emotional stability is also related to creativity, as creativity requires the ability to integrate information efficiently, and is achieved through a calm demeanor and self-confidence (Sung and Choi, 2009). These types of behaviors are the basis for self-regulation (Renn et al., 2011).

Vinchur et al. (1998) conducted a meta-analysis to investigate the relationship between the Big 5 personality traits and salespeople's performance. The meta-analysis found that conscientiousness is a strong predictor of sales success, having a validity coefficient of 0.41, the strongest of the Big Five performance personality traits. An additional dimension of the Big Five, low neuroticism (emotional stability), has a positive relationship with performance (Furnham and Fudge, 2008). In their research, Mount et al. (1998) found that low neuroticism also has a positive association with performance for activities that require interaction. Individuals who express the opposite of neuroticism show control over their emotions, defined as emotional stability (Sharma and Saxena, 2014). This type of behavior is based on resilience, temperament, self-confidence, and stress tolerance, making individuals with these traits highly satisfied with themselves. Emotional stability is also related to creativity, as creativity requires the ability to integrate information efficiently, and is achieved through a calm demeanor and self-confidence (Sung and Choi, 2009). These types of behaviors are the basis for self-regulation (Renn et al., 2011).

## Performance

The relationship between buyers and sellers is complex and interdependent (Autry et al., 2013; Chakrabarty et al., 2013). Both sellers and buyers are constantly experimenting with strategies to develop long lasting mutually beneficial relationships (Gonzalez et al., 2005;

Morgan and Hunt, 1994), known as adaptive selling strategies. It was defined by (Weitz et al.,1986) as "the altering of sales behaviors during a customer interaction or across customer interactions based on perceived information about the nature of the selling situation" (p. 175). Previously, (Weitz, 1981) suggested that personal differences and situational factors affect the relationship between salespeople and performance. This suggestion was empirically supported by Franke and Park (2006). Furthermore, salespeople's cognitive ability influences their performance based on their learning from previous experiences (Jones et al., 2003). Therefore, salespeople with higher cognitive ability tend to obtain better sales results by better understanding customer needs and being able to overcome their objections (Rapp et al., 2008).

Numerous studies of sales research have been conducted to define the characteristics of successful salespeople (Churchill Jr et al., 1985; Goad and Jaramillo, 2014; Verbeke et al., 2011; Vinchur et al., 1998). The results have shown that a combination of individual traits (consciousness, skills level, competence) and specific behaviors (motivation, role, job perception, goal orientation) are the most important aspects that affect sales performance (Churchill Jr et al., 1985). While little research has been published to relate delayed gratification to sales performance, plenty of work has been done to demonstrate how salespeople have used behaviors and personal traits to achieve high performance.

**Intentions to Leave**

At the beginning of the 21st century, scholars (Drucker, 1999; Mitchell et al., 2001) considered that one of the most significant challenges facing organizations would be employee retention. Retaining high performing salespeople has proven to be a major area of concern for managers (Boles et al., 2012). Based on the important role that salespeople have in organizations, understanding why salespeople voluntarily leave the organization remains a key area of company concern (Darmon, 2008; Jones et al., 2007; Pettijohn etal., 2008). In fact, García Rivera and Rivas Tovar (2007) considers that sales organizations have the highest turnover rate and it is difficult to find the right sales candidates. In his 11-year longitudinal study (1996-2006) that included 3,700 publicly traded firms in the United States, Hrehocik (2007) found that turnover of salespeople averaged 39 percent annually. Researchers have estimated that the turnover represented an average of three or four times the cost of the annual compensation for salespeople (Hrehocik, 2007; Van Clieaf, 1991). Besides the direct costs of replacing a salesperson, high turnover also can create loss of sales, and a possible short-term decrease in customer service and relationships (Darmon, 2008). Particularly in B2B sales, where the necessary skills to perform successfully change from case to case, it is even more difficult to find and keep high performers (Avlonitis and Panagopoulos, 2006). Boles et al. (2012) issued an invitation for additional research to gain an increased understanding of salespeople retention.

To retain employees, companies need to establish an end-to-end process that begins with recruiting, interviewing, selecting, and hiring the right employees, and then continues with training, management, and employee development (Arthur and Rousseau, 2001; Lawrence and Ursula, 2003). Additionally, to understand how to retain employees, organizations need to identify the reasons why the salesperson left the company. Scholars have identified the main reasons that influence intentions to leave: job satisfaction; organizational commitment; job search behavior; and economic factors, such as salaries, bonus and benefits (Carsten and Spector, 1987; Locke, 1976; Mobley et al., 1979; Spector, 1997) .

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) were the first scholars who empirically confirmed that intention to leave is a strong predictor of behavioral intentions, based on this, they developed the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), which focuses on a person's intentions to behave in a specific way in a specific situation. Several scholars subsequently confirmed their findings (Mobley et al., 1979; Mowday, 1981; Steel and Ovalle, 1984). Intention to leave is defined as the employee's desire to move out of his/her existing company to work for a different organization; such intentions could be the result of work, economic, or personal factors (Muchinsky and Morrow, 1980). From a psychological perspective, factors such as developmental, emotional, and motivational needs affect intentions to leave and confirm that employee retention is a complex human resource challenge

(Kopelman et al., 1992). Each one of these factors consists of analysis, decision making, and an action plan to show the selected behavioral response (Lee and Mitchell, 1994; Locke, 1976). One of the main research conclusions about employee retention is that the attachment employees demonstrate to an organization varies from person to person (Barrick and Zimmerman, 2009; March and Simon, 1958). Scholars have continued studying how an individual's embeddedness in the organization affects their intentions to leave (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). Researchers have also investigated the motivational variables that help employees develop stronger job attachments and reduce their intentions to leave (Maertz and Campion, 2004; Maertz Jr and Griffeth, 2004). Kraut (1975) found that when employees are in the process of quitting their job, they have already started a psychological withdrawal from the organization.

## HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

### Conscientiousness

Individuals with high levels of conscientiousness are considered competent, goal oriented, self-disciplined, and task oriented (Costa and McCrae, 1992, Judge and Ilies, 2002). Salespeople with such characteristics set ambitious goals and are most likely to stick to their goals and achieve them (Fu et al., 2009, Neubert et al., 2006). Research has shown the benefit of the positive relationship between conscientiousness and salespeople's performance (Barrick et al., 1993, Furnham and Fudge, 2008, Yang et al., 2011). Research has also shown that people with lower levels of conscientiousness show weak self-discipline, a lack of order, low competence, and low reasonableness (Baumeister, 2002, Funder and Ozer, 1983). The lack of self-discipline and order does not allow low conscientiousness individuals to control their impulses and resist immediate rewards (Baumeister, 2002, Funder and Ozer, 1983, Mischel and Ayduk, 2004). However, delayed gratification is a behavior, based on self-discipline, that helps individuals to delay an immediate reward for a future one, based on their goals and objectives (Mischel and Ayduk, 2004, Mischel et al., 1989, Renn et al., 2011). Based on this, it is expected that a positive relationship exists between conscientiousness and the ability to delay gratification.

Therefore:

> *H1: Conscientiousness of a salesperson is positively related to delayed gratification.*

### Neuroticism

Neuroticism, a Big Five trait, encompasses several emotions, such as irritability, restlessness, anger, and aggressiveness, which contributes to loss of focus on long-term rewards (Funder et al., 1983, Muraven and Baumeister, 2000). Such lack of focus will cause an individual to choose immediate rewards instead of distant ones (Baumeister et al., 1994, Metcalfe and Mischel, 1999). Particularly in the sales environment, a high level of neuroticism affects salespeople's ability to have the patience to wait for the right moment to close the sale. It is expected that individuals who exhibit neuroticism will not show self-control and instead will lack the ability to use delayed gratification to achieve their goals and objectives (Renn et al., 2014). This is expected as delayed gratification uses self-regulation mechanisms to be able to increase focus on goals and objectives (Jensen-Campbell and Graziano, 2005, Tobin and Graziano, 2006). Without a strong focus on long-term pursuits, individuals will not be able to exercise delayed gratification (Baumeister et al., 1994, Mischel and Ayduk, 2004, Renn et al., 2011). Therefore:

> *H2: Neuroticism of a salesperson is negatively related to delayed gratification.*

### Performance

Besides the Big 5 personality traits, other personality theories can predict performance as well, such as the Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory (RST) (Gray, 1973). RST is based on behaviors like self-regulation that effectively support performance indicators such as goal achievement and increasing customer satisfaction (Lord et al., 2010). To achieve their goals, individuals need to turn to delayed gratification (Renn et al., 2011). This allows employees to reduce impulsiveness and manage their actions to obtain their goals.

Scholars, such as Bandura (1977) and Stajkovic and Luthans (1998), have also found a strong relationship between performance and self-regulation in several fields, including the sales environment (Renn and

Fedor, 2001, Wang and Netemyer, 2002). Having a strong monitoring behavior, such as not being impulsive, has been found as one of the most important aspects of delayed gratification (Baumeister, 2002). For salespeople, it becomes critical to exhibit delayed gratification when selling in a B2B environment to have the patience to close the deal at the right time. Therefore:

> *H3: Delayed gratification is positively related to salesperson performance.*

**Intention to Leave**

Based on the Unfolding Model of Turnover (Holtom et al., 2005, Lee and Mitchell, 1991), everyone will react differently to the impulse to leave their job. The model is named unfolding because it is an evolutionary process and it is based on four different reasons that influence an individual's decision to leave an organization (Lee and Mitchell, 1991). Three of these reasons are the result of a distressing events that make employee consider leaving the organization and the fourth reason for leaving the job is not related to a shocking event but to job dissatisfaction which has developed over time (Lawrence and Ursula, 2003).

Depending on how employees can control their emotions, they will be able to manage their intention to leave the organization. People who can delay gratification do not act for the immediate reward but according to their long-term plan (Tice et al., 2001). Delaying gratification allows employees to prioritize their goals and thoughts and not to react to the fluctuation of emotions that happen in the organization. For this reason, they can reduce their intention to leave. Therefore:

> *H4: Delayed gratification is negatively related to salespeople's intention to leave their company.*

Figure 1 depicts the research model used in this study

**METHODOLOGY**

A sample of 242 salespeople was used for this study where the participants were asked to answer an online questionnaire. This research was done during the winter of 2018. Participants included salespeople that engage in B2B sales with at least two years of sales experience. Two different B2B sales groups were used to comprise the study sample: a telecom group and an internet panel group. The telecom group (n = 96), constituted of salespeople of this industry, was used based on the researcher's access to this group, also, technology sales

Figure 1. Research model
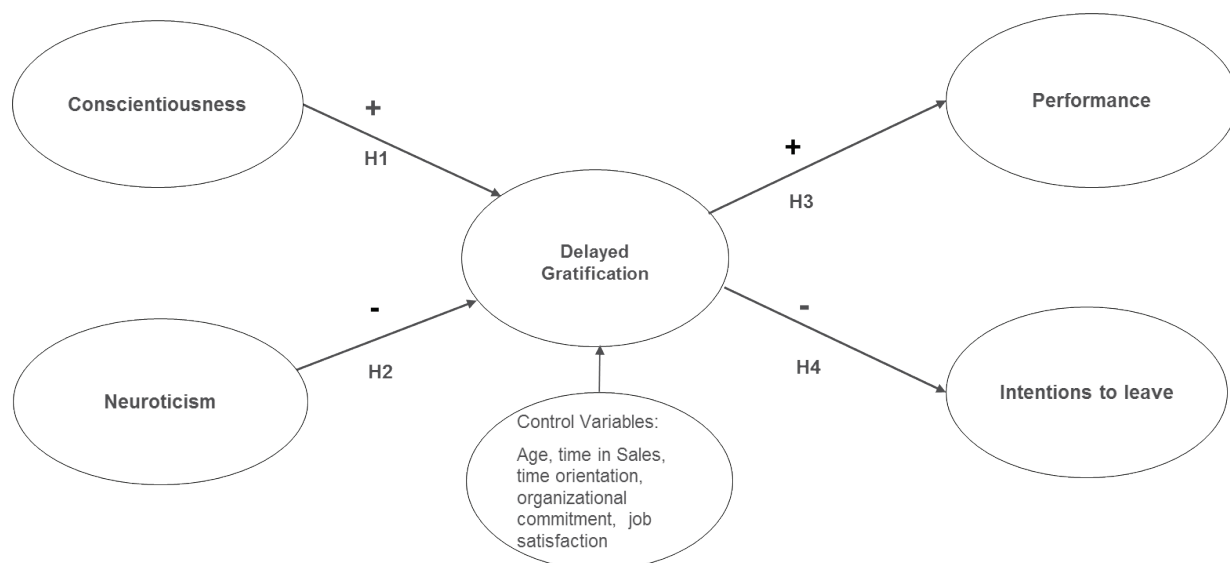
cycles are considered between the longest B2B sales cycles (Forbes.com, 2021). Qualtrics internet panel group (n = 146) was used to increase the sample size, which increased generalizability by having additional industries represented; thus, creating a larger and more diverse sample. For the telecom group, an invitational email was sent to 157 salespeople. Regarding the internet panel group, 146 respondents were surveyed. Compiling the panel responses took 14 days.

Delayed gratification was measured using the 12-item Generalizability of Deferment of Gratification Questionnaire (GDGQ) developed by Ray and Najman (1986). The questionnaire uses a 5-point Likert scale, with ranges from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree. Conscientiousness and Neuroticism will be measured using the Big Five Inventory (BFI) developed by John and Srivastava (1999). The BFI has 44 questions to measure the five personality dimensions using a 5-point Likert scale. As this study is just measuring two of the five personality dimensions, the questionnaire has 17 questions, 9 for conscientiousness and 8 for neuroticism. To evaluate performance, the self-evaluation seven question questionnaire created by Behrman and Perreault (1982) was used. The scale uses a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "not easy for me" to "very easy for me." Intention to leave was measured by the five-question survey developed by as an adaptation from the scales created Ganesan and Weitz (1996) which used a 5-point Likert scale.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to interpret the data, in particular Partial Least Squares (PLS) SEM Software. One of the main benefits of using PLS-SEM is the flexibility on the data distribution, not requiring normally distributed information (Monecke and Leisch, 2012). Several researchers support PLS-SEM to be used in marketing, management, and organizational research (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer, 2001, Jarvis et al., 2003, MacKenzie et al., 2005).

One of the main differences between PLS-SEM and other approaches is the fact that PLS-SEM focuses on variances (prediction-oriented approach of the methodology) versus training to explain covariances (Hair et al., 2016). This is particularly important when the cause-and-effect relationships between the constructs is not invested in deep detail. Also, PLS-

SEM allows the addition of latent variables within the reflective or formative models. Research has found that when trying to analyze success factors and areas of competitive advantage, PLS-SEM is a very useful tool (Hair et al., 2016).

## RESULTS

### Sample Characteristics

The demographics of the sample were as follows: 142 (59%) were male and 100 (41%) were female, the mean age of the respondents was 44 years old, the largest groups being 51-60 years old (28%) and 31-40 years old (26%). The mean for sales experience was 17 years. The sample consisted of 33 industries, as expected the largest was telecom with 38%, followed by business services at 10%. The race distribution was as follows: White with 82%, Asian with 8%, and African American with 6%.

### Measurement Model Evaluation

Two different measurements were used for internal consistency: Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability. All the model constructs showed a value above .70 as recommended in the literature (Gefen et al., 2000) for both composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha. Three different alternatives to measure convergent validity were used: 1) at the indicator level; 2) at the indicator statistical significance level; and 3) at the construct level by using the average variance extracted (AVE) were used for this study.

Nine indicators were removed from the model to improve reliability and validity. Indicator removal was done based on small loading values, two from conscientiousness (CS1, CS7), leaving seven indicators for this construct; five from delayed gratification (DG2, DG3, DG6, DG8, DG11), leaving seven indicators for this construct; one from neuroticism (NS3), leaving seven indicators to define this construct; one from intentions to leave (IL5), leaving for this construct; and one from sales performance (SP5), leaving seven indicators for this construct. Ten of the remaining 31 indicators had a value below .50. Thus, based on Hair et all. (2016) recommendation to not remove indicators with small loadings if this negatively affects consistency and validity, these indicators were kept in the model.

The AVE values for the constructs were .266 for conscientiousness, .399 for neuroticism, .252 for delayed gratification, .320 for sales performance, and .504 for intentions to leave. The model is considered appropriate even when the AVE values are below the targeted value of .50 (Gaskin, 2017). Table 1 depicts the values for the indicators' loading and reliability, as well as the construct values for AVE, composite reliability, and Cronbach's alpha.

For discriminant validity Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) was used in this study (Henseler et al., 2015, Voorhees et al., 2016). In a well-fitting model, Kline (2011) defines that the correlations between constructs should be smaller than the one between the constructs' indicators, which means that the HTMT ratio should be lower than .85 to establish discriminant validity for the model. All the constructs showed values below the .85 target and had significance at 95% range; therefore, they met the discriminant validity criterion.

Table 1
Results Summary for Reflective Measurements

| Latent Variable | Indicators[b] | Convergent Validity | | | | Internal Consistency Reliability | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Loadings | Indicator Reliability | *t* Statistic | AVE | Composite Reliability | Cronbach's Alpha |
| Conscientiousness (CS) | CS2 | .567 | .471 | 7.009 | .266 | .716 | .720 |
| | CS3 | .533 | .526 | 9.266 | | | |
| | CS4 | .532 | .472 | 6.225 | | | |
| | CS5 | .492 | .551 | 8.089 | | | |
| | CS6 | .520 | .541 | 6.092 | | | |
| | CS8 | .416 | .491 | 7.563 | | | |
| | CS9 | .539 | .560 | 8.424 | | | |
| Delayed Gratification (DG) | DG1 | .413 | .451 | 5.542 | .252 | .706 | .708 |
| | DG4 | .322 | .512 | 7.194 | | | |
| | DG5 | .690 | .382 | 4.865 | | | |
| | DG7 | .441 | .310 | 3.828 | | | |
| | DG9 | .465 | .644 | 11.662 | | | |
| | DG10 | .572 | .448 | 5.748 | | | |
| | DG12 | .526 | .480 | 6.960 | | | |
| Intentions to leave (IL) | IL1 | .618 | .855 | 9.103 | .504 | .801 | .804 |
| | IL2 | .709 | .632 | 4.434 | | | |
| | IL3 | .724 | .588 | 4.464 | | | |
| | IL4 | .778 | .791 | 7.435 | | | |
| Neuroticism (NS) | NS1 | .499 | .612 | 8.236 | .399 | .820 | .825 |
| | NS2 | .555 | .578 | 7.462 | | | |
| | NS4 | .545 | .567 | 7.936 | | | |
| | NS5 | .699 | .640 | 7.935 | | | |
| | NS6 | .768 | .700 | 10.689 | | | |
| | NS7 | .600 | .600 | 9.594 | | | |
| | NS8 | .706 | .714 | 13.763 | | | |
| Sales Performance (SP) | SP1 | .792 | .707 | 10.769 | .320 | .730 | .738 |
| | SP2 | .477 | .562 | 6.682 | | | |
| | SP3 | .517 | .489 | 5.064 | | | |
| | SP4 | .483 | .507 | 6.043 | | | |
| | SP6 | .604 | .527 | 5.843 | | | |
| | SP7 | .569 | .449 | 7.370 | | | |

Notes: [a] Nine indicators (CS1, CS7, DG2, DG3, DG8, DG11, IL5, NS3, and SP5) were removed
[b] *p* value for each indicator was < .001.

**Structural Model Evaluation**

The sampling approach was intended to source long sales cycle respondents. This approach was utilized for the Telecom respondents. However, this element cannot be confirmed with the purchased panel respondents as no filtering question was included. Even though the length of the sale cycle cannot be confirmed, it is important to assess if substantial differences exist between samples before conducting the traditional structural model evaluations.

Accordingly, two tests were conducted. First, a FIMIX test was conducted to assess possible unobserved heterogeneity issues. The results suggested that unobserved heterogeneity was not a substantive risk. Next, a multigroup analysis revealed that there were no statistically significant structural path differences involving these samples. Accordingly, the potential bias associated with different sample sources was not deemed to be a substantial risk.

The parameters that define the structural model are the common method variance (CMV), the model relationships relevance (path coefficients, $\beta$), the explained variance ($R^2$), the effect size ($f^2$), the predictive relevance ($Q^2$), the effect size ($q^2$), and the goodness-of-fit (Hair et al., 2016). Additionally, the use of anonymity for the survey respondents helped to reduce social desirability, which is an important component of CMV. The study used the three commonly used techniques to reduce CMV: the use of Likert-type scales, the randomization of the order in which indicators appear in the survey, and the utilization of reverse coded questions.

To establish the relevance of the relationships between the model constructs, the $\beta$ for each of the connections was calculated. These calculations used bootstrapping calculations to identify the t-statistic values for each of the constructs to measure the significance of the relationships between them. All the model paths, conscientiousness to delayed gratification ($\beta = .486$), neuroticism to delayed gratification ($\beta = -.421$), delayed gratification to sales performance ($\beta = .566$), and delayed gratification to intentions to leave ($\beta = -.382$) had *p* values smaller than .001. Once the path relevance has been measured, the model's predictive accuracy ($R^2$) is calculated by dividing the variance explained in

the endogenous constructs by the exogenous constructs. Delayed gratification showed a moderate $R^2$ value of .708, which is significant ($p = .000$); sales performance also had a moderate effect because its $R^2$ value was .321, which is significant ($p = .000$); intentions to leave had an R2 value of .146, which is weak, and had a non-significant effect.

Effect size ($f^2$) measures the change of $R^2$ in an endogenous construct after an exogenous construct is removed from the calculations. The effect between conscientiousness and delayed gratification (.364) was strong and significant ($p = .012$) supporting hypothesis 1, while the effect between neuroticism to delayed gratification with a value of .275 was considered moderate and significant ($p = .045$), thus supporting hypothesis 2. The effect between delayed gratification and sales performance (.466) was strong and significant ($p = .027$), such values support hypothesis 3. Finally, the effect that delayed gratification had over intentions to leave (.110) was moderate and significant ($p = .039$), providing support for hypothesis 4. The effect size $q^2$ allows assessing each exogenous (independent) construct predictive relevance for a specific endogenous construct. The effect value for conscientiousness to delayed gratification was weak (.025), as well as the one from neuroticism to delayed gratification (.038); the $q^2$ values.

While the focus of the study was on the direct relationships identified in the research model (like extant literature), additional insights were gathered through post hoc analyses which examined the direct relationships between the independent variables (conscientiousness and neuroticism) and the dependent variables (sales performance and intentions to leave). These assessments facilitated the evaluation of the specific mediation effects of delayed gratification upon those outcome variables. The post hoc assessments created four relationships to analyze: conscientiousness and sales performance; conscientiousness and intention to leave; neuroticism and sales performance; and neuroticism and intentions to leave.

The post hoc analysis identified a significant direct relationship exists between conscientiousness and sales performance ($\beta = .664$, p = .012). However, with the addition of this relationship, the specific mediated effect

involving delayed gratification is significantly reduced. The relationship between delayed gratification and sales performance was reduced from a significant relationship ($\beta$ = .566, p = .000) to a non-significant relationship ($\beta$ = .042, p = .879). All the other relationships, conscientiousness and intentions to leave; neuroticism and sales performance; and neuroticism and intention to leave, were assessed to be nonsignificant. Additionally, the mediation effect that delayed gratification exerts over the outcome constructs is greatly diminished and not supported. Table 2 shows the relevant statistical values that validated the four study hypotheses. Table 3 shows the relevant statistical values that validated the post hoc mediation hypotheses.

Table 2.
Significance Testing Results of the Structural Path Coefficients

| Hypotheses | Structural Path | Path Coefficients $\beta$ | $t$ Statistics | $p$ Values | 95% Confidence Intervals | $f^2$ Effect Size | $q2$ Effect Size | Hypothesis Result |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| H1 | Conscientiousness to Delayed gratification | .486 | 3.294 | .001 | [.239, .814] | .364 | .025 | Supported |
| H2 | Neuroticism to Delayed Gratification | -.421 | 2.938 | .003 | [-.672, -.109] | .275 | .038 | Supported |
| H3 | Delayed gratification to Sales Performance | .566 | 7.601 | .000 | [.428, .722] | .466 | | Supported |
| H4 | Delayed gratification to Intentions to Leave | -.381 | 4.483 | .000 | [-.556, -.221] | .110 | | Supported |

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

Organizations often try to delineate and understand what makes individuals perform to a high level and how to increase employee retention (Buciuniene and Skudiene, 2009), while employees try to find ways to be more competitive in the marketplace and to make the best decisions about whether to stay or leave an organization (Lee et al., 2004). The results of this study support a significant relationship between delayed gratification - a behavioral construct, sales performance, and intentions to leave. This impact is larger for sales performance than for intentions to leave. The results also support that two of the Big Five traits differences, conscientiousness and neuroticism, have a significant relationship with delayed gratification.

A key finding uncovered in this study was the direct relationship that delayed gratification has with conscientiousness and intentions to leave. Salespeople with strong self-discipline are better at managing their tasks and goals; hence will be able to self-regulate their behaviors and apply delayed gratification when it is important for their long-term achievements (Nuttin, 2014). Also, salespeople who effectively manage negative feelings such as anger, aggressiveness, and anxiety decrease their ability to act on impulse. Ultimately, this study showed that conscientiousness and neuroticism have a significant effect on whether individuals display delayed gratification. The importance of this study is that it is one of the first to support such relationships for salespeople. As a

Table 3.
Significance Testing Results of the Structural Path Coefficients for Post Hoc (PH) Analysis

| Hypotheses | Structural Path | Path Coefficients $\beta$ | t Statistics | p Values | 95% Confidence Intervals | $f^2$ Effect Size | Result |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PH1 | Conscientiousness to Sales Performance | 0.698 | 2.275 | 0.023 | [.238, 1.245] | 0.329 | Significant |
| PH2 | Conscientiousness to Delayed Gratification | 0.477 | 3.087 | 0.002 | [.176, .776] | 0.356 | Significant |
| PH3 | Delayed Gratification to Sales Performance | 0.107 | 0.294 | 0.769 | [-.536, .659] | 0.007 | Not Significant |
| PH4 | Conscientiousness to Intentions to Leave | -0.227 | 0.186 | 0.852 | [-.746, .298] | 0.021 | Not Significant |
| PH5 | Delayed Gratification to Intentions to Leave | -0.102 | 0.058 | 0.954 | [-.679, .491] | 0.004 | Not Significant |
| PH6 | Neuroticism to Sales Performance | 0.120 | 0.604 | 0.546 | [-.240, .499] | 0.010 | Not Significant |
| PH7 | Neuroticism to Delayed Gratification | -0.423 | 2.859 | 0.004 | [-.700, -.123] | 0.281 | Significant |
| PH8 | Neuroticism to Intentions to Leave | 0.114 | 0.174 | 0.862 | [-.279, .479] | 0.006 | Not Significant |

result, both individuals and organizations can better understand the value that delayed gratification brings to business relationships and business outcomes.

The validation of the positive relationship between delayed gratification and sales performance from this study positions delayed gratification as an additional construct that has a positive relationship with salespeople's performance in the B2B space. While no single construct will be the only one that contributes to sales performance, the positive results of this research highlight the importance of delayed gratification as an additional behavior that, when used properly, increases salespeople's performance.

The findings of these post hoc mediation analyses provide information that the impacts of utilizing delayed gratification are not straightforward and always predictable. Rather, due to the complex interaction effects of delayed gratification, the relational effects should be viewed as situationally dependent. For studies examining the direct relationship between delayed gratification and sales performance, the results are significant. However, when assessing delayed gratification in a mediating context, the results are not always significant. The significant direct relationship between conscientiousness and sales performance suggests that delayed gratification is not a behavior that should be used in every sales interaction, instead should be considered in a case-by-case basis.

## MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

For practitioners, this study provides important information on the impact that delayed gratification has within the whole organization, and particularly the sales area. While the full impact that delayed gratification has in the organization needs to be further studied, this research provides relevant information about which personality traits are positively related to delayed gratification. Also, it suggests under which circumstances delayed gratification increases sales performance, and how it supports individuals to "not rush" when considering leaving an organization. With this information, organizations can start tracking how such traits and behaviors are currently affecting their organization's outputs, and how to possibly screen for these behaviors in new hires.

Sales professionals exercising traits such building trust, patience and persistence, and keeping a consistent effort are positively associated to delayed gratification and how affect sales outcomes (Sung and Choi, 2009). Building trust building: by putting customers' needs first they can provide better and customized solutions, the trust that this type of behavior creates may provide them with additional business opportunities. Persistence and patience: building relationships and nurturing leads takes time; rather than seeking quick wins, they invest effort in long-term strategies Renn et al. (2011). Consistent effort: in B2B sales cycles could take several months, keeping a consistent effort with existing and new customers allows them to keep the engagement ongoing and maintain a steady pipeline (Mischel et al,. 1989) .

For any company reducing salespeople's turnover is an important objective, there are high costs associated with replacing salespeople. One of the main turnover components is intentions to leave, hence by reducing intentions to leave, companies could reduce turnover, which implies reducing costs. Exercising delayed gratification has a positive impact on salespeople by stopping them from acting impulsively and leaving the company, when there is not a deep desire to do it. Delayed gratification affects some of the intentions to leave dimensions: job satisfaction, resilience, and career progression.

Job satisfaction: salespeople exercising delayed gratification, in general wouldn't quit abruptly, they would look for a way to address their concerns or explore alternatives before leaving the organization (Buciuniene and Skudiene, 2009). Resilience: is one of the main characteristics of salespeople, due to this characteristic they wouldn't quit without analyzing the repercussions (Renn et al., 2011). Career progression: salespeople that apply delayed gratification to their job will patiently invest time in their career development and will be able to better manage the career development timeline (Tice et al., 2001).

The results of this study show that delayed gratification is a complex construct associated with several behaviors, and personal traits, including conscientiousness and neuroticism. The longer the sales cycle is the more an opportunity may raise to increase the sales outcomes by using delayed gratification (Tice et al., 2001). Therefore, it does not manifest through a single specific behavior. Instead, it can be observed through long-term goal focus, the ability to create long-term relationships, strong planning skills, consistent actions, and emotional stability—behaviors generally associated with self-regulation.

In times when the automation of activities grows every day, and artificial intelligence starts affecting the work force, including sales, it is important for organizations to better understand which are the salespeople's skills that make a difference in what matter to organizations, which is to increase top line, employee satisfaction, and customer satisfaction, while reducing operation costs. For these reasons, organizations are recommended to screen for the behaviors when creating a salesperson profile. Based on the study results, organizations need to define specific training programs to help salespeople to better understand the benefits that delayed gratification brings to their performance, when applied at the right moment of the sales process. This training should include the two predecessors of delayed gratification, conscientiousness and neuroticism, as these two constructs produce a strong relationship ($R^2$ with a .705 value) over delayed gratification. Additionally, organizations can monitor salespeople's performance, who show high levels of delayed gratification and how the turnover of such individuals compares with the rest of the organization.

As delayed gratification is not applicable to every sales situation, as shown in this study, where delayed gratification has a positive relationship with sales performance, R2 =.321, and intention to leave, R2 =.146, there are other constructs also influence these outcomes. Therefore, until delayed gratification is further researched, there is no reason to tie sales bonuses directly to delayed gratification. It is not an easy task to measure when delayed gratification is producing positive results. For example, during business development activities could be less complicated than during sales activities, as companies have a significant challenge to bring in as much revenue as possible. Instead, bonuses should be tied to the results produced by the mix of behaviors associated with delayed gratification. This means focusing attention, besides financial results, on behaviors such as customer and peer relationships, planning abilities, and emotional stability.

Finally, organizations can also analyze if their company culture is conducive for developing delayed gratification or if the organizational dynamics create an immediate gratification method of working.

## LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

While several industries are represented in this study, the sample has a large percentage of salespeople from the Telecom industry (38%). Future studies could reach out to include a more diverse sample. Sales performance was self-measured by salespeople, this could have biased the evaluation. Future research could benefit from more than one measure of performance.

As a limitation of the study, we need to consider that our questionnaire did not ask for how long the sales cycles were. Controlling the results by the specifics on the sales cycle will provide valuable information about how this variable affects delayed gratification. To do this, it is paramount to define intervals of the sales cycles to standardize responses.

The strong relationship between conscientiousness and sales performance has been already confirmed by Vinchur et al. (1998). Further research is needed to explore additional dimensions of the impacts of Delayed Gratification on B2B sales, such research should consider evaluating its relationship with other behaviors and assessing the relative impacts of delayed gratification within the overall compensation structure (e.g., high to low). Consideration could also be given to assessing how prominent delayed gratification is used in medium and long-cycle sales efforts. Additional research dimensions might include a long-term focus on sales goals, strong planning skills, the ability to act consistently, emotional stability, and self-regulation. Job satisfaction has been related to intentions to leave (Carsten and Spector, 1987, Locke, 1976, Mobley et al., 1979, Spector, 1997), and can be introduced to the model as a direct relationship to job satisfaction with delayed gratification as a moderator.

The relationship between delayed gratification, adaptive sales, and emotional intelligence is an area that needs to be researched for salespeople. B2B sales are complex and require high levels of skills to succeed. No single sales approach will work all the time, so adapting to the specifics of the sales situation is important. Successful salespeople need to have several sales styles, such as adaptive selling, and the emotional intelligence to know under which circumstance to use each one. For this reason, the relation between these sales behaviors needs to be better understood.

## REFERENCES

Baldauf, Artur, and David W. Cravens (2002), "The Effect of Moderators on the Salesperson Behavior Performance and Salesperson Outcome Performance and Sales Organization Effectiveness Relationships." *European Journal of Marketing*, 36 (11/12), 1367–1388.

Bandura, Albert (1977), "Self-Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change." *Psychological Review*, 84 (2), 191–215.

Barrick, Murray R., and Michael K. Mount (1991), "The Big Five Personality Dimensions and Job Performance: A Meta-Analysis." *Personnel Psychology*, 44 (1), 1–26.

Barrick, Murray R., Michael K. Mount, and Judy P. Strauss (1993), "Conscientiousness and Performance of Sales Representatives: Test of the Mediating Effects of Goal Setting." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78 (5), 715–722.

Baumeister, Roy F. (2002), "Ego Depletion and Self-Control Failure: An Energy Model of the Self's Executive Function." *Self and Identity*, 1 (2), 129–136.

Behrman, Douglas N., and William D. Perreault Jr. (1982), "Measuring the Performance of Industrial Salespersons." *Journal of Business Research*, 10 (3), 355–370.

Bertelli, Anthony M. (2007), "Determinants of Bureaucratic Turnover Intention: Evidence from the Department of the Treasury." *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 17 (2), 235–258.

Buciuniene, Ilona, and Vilte Skudiene (2009), "Factors Influencing Salespeople Motivation and Relationship with the Organization in B2B Sector." *Engineering Economics*, 64 (4), 78–85.

Carsten, Jeanne M., and Paul E. Spector (1987), "Unemployment, Job Satisfaction, and Employee Turnover: A Meta-Analytic Test of the Muchinsky Model." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72 (3), 374–381.

Cohen, Gregory, Robert S. Blake, and Doug Goodman (2016), "Does Turnover Intention Matter? Evaluating the Usefulness of Turnover Intention Rate as a Predictor of Actual Turnover Rate." *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 36 (3), 240–263.

Conte, Jeffrey M., and Joseph N. Gintoft (2005), "Polychronicity, Big Five Personality Dimensions, and Sales Performance." *Human Performance*, 18 (4), 427–444.

Costa, Paul T., and Robert R. McCrae (1992), "Four Ways Five Factors Are Basic." *Personality and Individual Differences*, 13 (6), 653–665.

Côté, Stéphane, and Christopher T. H. Miners (2006), "Emotional Intelligence, Cognitive Intelligence, and Job Performance." *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 51 (1), 1–28.

Cron, William L., Andreas Baldauf, Thomas W. Leigh, and Stefan Grossenbacher (2014), "The Strategic Role of the Sales Force: Perceptions of Senior Sales Executives." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 42 (5), 471–489.

DeYoung, Colin G., Jacob B. Hirsh, Matthew S. Shane, Xenophon Papademetris, Nallakkandi Rajeevan, and Jeremy R. Gray (2010), "Testing Predictions from Personality Neuroscience: Brain Structure and the Big Five." *Psychological Science*, 21 (6), 820–828.

Diamantopoulos, Adamantios, and Heidi M. Winklhofer (2001), "Index Construction with Formative Indicators: An Alternative to Scale Development." *Journal of Marketing Research*, 38 (2), 269–277.

Diefendorff, James M., and Kiran Mehta (2007), "The Relations of Motivational Traits with Workplace Deviance." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92 (4), 967–977.

Doerr, Charles E., and Roy F. Baumeister (2010), "Self-Regulatory Strength and Psychological Adjustment: Implications of the Limited Resource Model of Self-Regulation." *Social Psychological Foundations of Clinical Psychology*, 71–83.

Frayne, Colette. A., and. Michael Geringer (2000), "Self-Management Training for Improving Job Performance: A Field Experiment Involving Salespeople." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85 (3), 361.

Fu, Frank Q., Kevin A. Richards, and E. Jones (2009), "The Motivation Hub: Effects of Goal Setting and Self-Efficacy on Effort and New Product Sales." *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 29 (3), 277–292.

Funder, David C., Jerry H. Block, and Jack Block (1983), "Delay of Gratification: Some Longitudinal Personality Correlates." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 44 (6), 1198–1213.

Funder, David C., and Donald J. Ozer (1983), "Behavior as a Function of the Situation." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 44 (1), 107–112.

Furnham, Adrian, and Helen Cheng (2019), "The Big-Five Personality Factors, Mental Health, and Social-Demographic Indicators as Independent Predictors of Gratification Delay." *Personality and Individual Differences*, 150, 109533.

Furnham, Adrian, and Claire Fudge (2008), "The Five Factor Model of Personality and Sales Performance." *Journal of Individual Differences*, 29 (1), 11–16.

Ganesan, Shankar, and Barton A. Weitz (1996), "The Impact of Staffing Policies on Retail Buyer Job Attitudes and Behaviors." *Journal of Retailing*, 72 (1), 31–56.

García-Chas, Raúl, Enrique Neira-Fontela, and César Castro-Casal (2014), "High-Performance Work System and Intention to Leave: A Mediation Model." *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25 (3), 367–389.

Gefen, David, Detmar W. Straub, and Marie-Cécile Boudreau (2000), "Structural Equation Modeling and Regression: Guidelines for Research Practice." *Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, 4 (1), 7.

Gray, Jeffrey A. (1973), "Causal Theories of Personality and How to Test Them." *Multivariate Analysis and Psychological Theory*, 16, 302–354.

Graziano, William G., and Richard M. Tobin (2013), "The Cognitive and Motivational Foundations Underlying Agreeableness." *Handbook of Cognition and Emotion*, 347–364.

Graziano, William G (1997), "Agreeableness: A Dimension of Personality" Griffeth, Robert W., and Peter W. Hom (2001), Retaining Valued Employees. Saga Publications. Thousand Oak, CA.

Gross, James J. (2002), "Emotion Regulation: Affective, Cognitive, and Social Consequences." *Psychophysiology*, 39 (3), 281–291.

Hair, Joseph G., Thomas M. Hult, Christian M. Ringle, and Marko Sarstedt (2016), *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling* (PLS-SEM), Sage Publications.

Heatherton T, and Dianne M. Tice (1994), *Losing Control: How and Why People Fail at Self-Regulation*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Henseler, Jorg, Christian M. Ringle, and Marko. Sarstedt (2015), "A New Criterion for Assessing Discriminant Validity in Variance-Based Structural Equation Modeling." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43 (1), 115–135.

Holtom, Brooks C., Terrance R. Mitchell, Thomas W. Lee, and Edward J. Inderrieden (2005), "Shocks as Causes of Turnover: What They Are and How Organizations Can Manage Them." *Human Resource Management*, 44 (3), 337–352.

Jarvis, Cheryl B., Scott B. MacKenzie, and Phillip. M. Podsakoff (2003), "A Critical Review of Construct Indicators and Measurement Model Misspecification in Marketing and Consumer Research." *Journal of Consumer Research*, 30 (2), 199–218.

Jensen-Campbell, Laurie. A., and William. G. Graziano (2005), "The Two Faces of Temptation: Differing Motives for Self-Control." *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 51 (3), 287–314.

John, Oliver. P., and Sanjay Srivastava (1999), "The Big Five Trait Taxonomy: History, Measurement, and Theoretical Perspectives." In *Handbook of Personality: Theory and Research*, 102–138.

Judge, Timothy A., and Joyce E. Bono (2001), "Relationship of Core Self-Evaluations Traits—Self-Esteem, Generalized Self-Efficacy, Locus of Control, and Emotional Stability—with Job Satisfaction and Job Performance: A Meta-Analysis." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86 (1), 80–92.

Judge, Timothy. A., and Remus Ilies (2002), "Relationship of Personality to Performance Motivation: A Meta-Analytic Review." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 (4), 797–807.

Kline, R. B. (2011), "Convergence of Structural Equation Modeling and Multilevel Modeling." In *The SAGE Handbook of Innovation in Social Research Methods*. Guilford PressLent.

Lee, Thomas. W., Terrence R. Mitchell, Chris J. Sablynski, James P. Burton, and Brooks C. Holtom (2004), "The Effects of Job Embeddedness on Organizational Citizenship, Job Performance, Volitional Absences, and Voluntary Turnover." *Academy of Management Journal*, 47 (5), 711–722.

Lee, Timothy W., Timothy R. Mitchell, Christopher J. Sablynski, James P. Burton, and Benjamin C. Holtom (2004), "The Effects of Job Embeddedness on Organizational Citizenship, Job Performance, Volitional Absences, and Voluntary Turnover." *Academy of Management Journal*, 47 (5), 711–722.

Liu, Xiu, Lian Wang, and Jun Jiang (2013), "Generalizability of Delay of Gratification: Dimensionality and Function." *Psychological Reports*, 113 (2), 464–485.

Locke, Edwin A. "The nature and causes of job satisfaction." *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology/Rand McNally* 130 (1976),

Lord, Robert G., Jeffrey M. Diefendorff, Amanda M. Schmidt, and Robert J. Hall (2010), "Self-Regulation at Work." *Annual Review of Psychology*, 61, 543–568.

MacKenzie, Scott B., Philip M. Podsakoff, and Christopher B. Jarvis (2005), "The Problem of Measurement Model Misspecification in Behavioral and Organizational Research and Some Recommended Solutions." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90 (4), 710–730.

Matthews, Gerald, and Keith Gilliland (1999), "The Personality Theories of H.J. Eysenck and J.A. Gray: A Comparative Review." *Personality and Individual Differences*, 26 (4), 583–626.

McCrae, Robert R., and Paul T. Costa (2008), "Empirical and theoretical status of the five-factor model of personality traits." *The SAGE handbook of personality theory and assessment*: 273-294.

McCrae, Robert R., and Paul T. Costa Jr. (1997), "Personality Trait Structure as a Human Universal." *American Psychologist*, 52 (5), 509.

McFarland, Richard G., Jeffrey C. Rode, and Tara A. Shervani (2016), "A Contingency Model of Emotional Intelligence in Professional Selling." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 44 (1), 108–118.

Metcalfe, Janet, and Walter Mischel (1999), "A Hot/Cool-System Analysis of Delay of Gratification: Dynamics of Willpower." *Psychological Review*, 106 (1), 3.

Mischel, Walter (2014), *The Marshmallow Test: Understanding Self-Control and How to Master It*. Random House.

Mischel, Walter (1973), "Toward a Cognitive Social Learning Reconceptualization of Personality." *Psychological Review*, 80 (4), 252.

Mischel, Walter, and Ozlem Ayduk (2004), "Willpower in a Cognitive-Affective Processing System." *Handbook of Self-Regulation: Research, Theory, and Applications*, 99–129.

Mischel, Walter, Yuichi Shoda, and Monica L. Rodriguez (1989), "Delay of Gratification in Children." *Science*, 244 (4907), 933–938.

Mobley, William H., Robert W. Griffeth, Hugh H. Hand, and Benjamin M. Meglino (1979), "Review and Conceptual Analysis of the Employee Turnover Process." *Psychological Bulletin*, 86 (3), 493.

Monecke, Andreas and Fredrich Leisch, (2012) "semPLS: structural equation modeling using partial least squares. *Journal of statistical software*, 48, pp.1-32.

Mount, Michael K., Murray R. Barrick, and Gregory L. Stewart (1998), "Five-Factor Model of Personality and Performance in Jobs Involving Interpersonal Interactions." *Human Performance*, 11 (2–3), 145–165.

Muraven, Mark, and Roy F. Baumeister (2000), "Self-Regulation and Depletion of Limited Resources: Does Self-Control Resemble a Muscle?" *Psychological Bulletin*, 126 (2), 247–259.

Neubert, Michael J., Sherry Taggar, and Susan Cady (2006), "The Role of Conscientiousness and Extraversion in Affecting the Relationship Between Perceptions of Group Potency and Volunteer Group Member Selling Behavior: An Interactionist Perspective." *Human Relations*, 59 (9), 1235–1260.

Nuttin, Jozef (2014), *Future Time Perspective and Motivation: Theory and Research Method*. Psychology Press. Accessed November 24, 2024.

Ones, Dennis S. (2005), "Personality at Work: Raising Awareness and Correcting Misconceptions." *Human Performance*, 18 (4), 389–404.

Ones, Dennis S., Sylvia Dilchert, Chockalingam Viswesvaran, and Timothy A. Judge (2007), "In Support of Personality Assessment in Organizational Settings." *Personnel Psychology*, 60 (4), 995–1027.

Peeters, M. A., H. F. Van Tuijl, C. G. Rutte, and I. M. Reymen (2006), "Personality and Team Performance: A Meta-Analysis." *European Journal of Personality*, 20 (5), 377–396.

Poropat, A. E. (2009), "A Meta-Analysis of the Five-Factor Model of Personality and Academic Performance." *Psychological Bulletin*, 135 (2), 322–338.

Ray, J. J., and J. M. Najman (1986), "The Generalizability of Deferment of Gratification." *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 126 (1), 117–119.

Reinartz, Werner, Jay S. Thomas, and V. Kumar (2005), "Balancing Acquisition and Retention Resources to Maximize Customer Profitability." *Journal of Marketing*, 69 (1), 63–79.

Renn, Robert W., David G. Allen, and Thomas M. Huning (2011), "Empirical Examination of the Individual-Level Personality-Based Theory of Self-Management Failure." *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32 (1), 25–43.

Renn, Robert W., and David B. Fedor (2001), "Development and Field Test of a Feedback Seeking, Self-Efficacy, and Goal Setting Model of Work Performance." *Journal of Management*, 27 (5), 563–583.

Renn, Robert W., R. Steinbauer, and G. Fenner (2014), "Employee Behavioral Activation and Behavioral Inhibition Systems, Manager Ratings of Employee Job Performance, and Employee Withdrawal." *Human Performance*, 27 (4), 347–371.

Schweidel, David A., Peter S. Fader, and Eric T. Bradlow (2008), "Understanding Service Retention Within and Across Cohorts Using Limited Information." *Journal of Marketing*, 72 (1), 82–94.

Sharma, Gopal, and Krishna A. Saxena (2014), "A study of consciousness from the epochs of humans towards computers." *In India-Latvia Conference*.

Smits, David J., and Paul Boeck (2006), "From BIS/BAS to the Big Five." *European Journal of Personality*, 20 (4), 255–270.

Spector, Paul E. (1997), Job Satisfaction: Application, Assessment, Causes, and Consequences. Sage Publications.

Srivastava, Shibeer, Oliver P. John, Samuel D. Gosling, and Jeffrey Potter (2003), "Development of Personality in Early and Middle Adulthood: Set Like Plaster or Persistent Change?" *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84 (5), 1041–1053.

Stajkovic, A. D., and Fred Luthans (1998), "Self-Efficacy and Work-Related Performance: A Meta-Analysis." *Psychological Bulletin*, 124 (2), 240–261.

Stewart, George L. (1996), "Reward Structure as a Moderator of the Relationship Between Extraversion and Sales Performance." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81 (6), 619–627.

Sung, Sun Young, and Jung N. Choi (2009), "Do Big Five Personality Factors Affect Individual Creativity? The Moderating Role of Extrinsic Motivation." *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 37 (7), 941–956.

Tice, Diane M., Ellen Bratslavsky, and Roy F. Baumeister (2001), "Emotional Distress Regulation Takes Precedence Over Impulse Control: If You Feel Bad, Do It!" *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 80 (1), 53–67.

Tobin, Renee M., and William. G. Graziano (2006), "Development of Regulatory Processes Through Adolescence: A Review of Recent Empirical Studies." *Handbook of Personality Development*, 263–283.

Van Doorn, R. R., and J. W. Lang (2010), "Performance Differences Explained by the Neuroticism Facets Withdrawal and Volatility, Variations in Task Demand, and Effort Allocation." *Journal of Research in Personality*, 44 (4), 446–452.

Vinchur, A. J., J. S. Schippmann, F. S. Switzer, and P. L. Roth (1998), "A Meta-Analytic Review of Predictors of Job Performance for Salespeople." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83 (4), 586–597.

Voorhees, Clay Michael K. Brady, Roger Calantone, and Edward Ramirez (2016), "Discriminant Validity Testing in Marketing: An Analysis, Causes for Concern, and Proposed Remedies." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 44 (1), 119–134.

Wang, Guangpin., and Richard G. Netemyer (2002), "The Effects of Job Autonomy, Customer Demandingness, and Trait Competitiveness on Salesperson Learning, Self-Efficacy, and Performance." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 30 (3), 217–228.

Yang, Byunghwa, Youngchan Kim, and Richard G. McFarland (2011), "Individual Differences and Sales Performance: A Distal-Proximal Mediation Model of Self-Efficacy, Conscientiousness, and Extraversion." *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 31 (4), 371–381.

Zimmerman, Ryan D. (2008), "Understanding the Impact of Personality Traits on Individuals' Turnover Decisions: A Meta-Analytic Path Model." *Personnel Psychology*, 61 (2), 309–348.

Zuckerman, Marvin. (2007), Sensation Seeking and Risky Behavior (Vol. 72), Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Zuckerman, Marvin. (1994), Behavioral Expressions and Biosocial Bases of Sensation Seeking. The Press Syndicate of the University of Cambridge.