

Alleviating job stress to improve service employee work affect: the influence of rewarding

Ayşe Banu Elmadağ¹ · Alexander E. Ellinger²

Received: 15 July 2016 / Accepted: 8 February 2017
© Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2017

Abstract Firms strive to identify interventions that promote customer contact employee (CCE) well-being by mitigating job stress to encourage better service experiences for customers. Drawing on equity theory, this research examines the influences of alternative rewarding approaches on CCE job stress and work-related attitudes, by assessing the effects of intrinsic (social recognition) and extrinsic (monetary) rewarding on CCE job stress, commitment to the organization, and customer orientation. Results of a survey of 220 CCEs from multiple service organizations indicate that social recognition reduces CCE job stress but that, contrary to expectations, monetary rewarding increases it. Moreover, satisfaction with pay has a greater influence on CCE customer orientation than social recognition.

Keywords Job stress · Intrinsic rewards · Extrinsic rewards · Customer contact employee · Frontline employee · Customer orientation

1 Introduction

Improving the occupational health and well-being of customer contact employees (CCEs) to provide customers with better service is becoming an increasingly important priority for many firms. The demanding boundary spanning role of CCEs has long been recognized in the marketing literature (e.g., Kim et al. 2012; Singh

✉ Alexander E. Ellinger
aelling@cba.ua.edu

Ayşe Banu Elmadağ
elmadaga@itu.edu.tr

¹ Department of Management Engineering, Istanbul Technical University, Istanbul, Turkey

² Department of Marketing, Culverhouse College of Commerce and Business Administration, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487-0025, USA

1998, 2000). CCEs are “at the heart of service provision” (Surprenant and Solomon 1987) because they greatly influence customers’ perceptions of service quality through the key components of relatedness, assurance, tangibles, empathy, and reliability (An and Noh 2009; Parasuraman et al. 1985). Customers’ service experiences are therefore largely contingent upon CCEs’ job-related attitudes and behaviors (Kim et al. 2012; Jeon 2016; Bitner et al. 1994). Accordingly, researchers continue to highlight the need to identify effective managerial interventions that promote CCE occupational health and well-being (Gilbert et al. 2011; Rayburn 2014; Smith et al. 2012) and improve customer service experiences (Ostrom et al. 2010; Schneider and Bowen 2010). The current research draws on equity theory to assess the relative influence of alternative types of rewarding on CCE job stress and work affect.

Job stress—the sense of time pressure, anxiety, and worry associated with job-related activities that can lead to strain, hostility, and depression (Motowidlo et al. 1986)—has a particularly detrimental influence on CCEs’ ability to provide high-quality service that satisfies customers (Teng and Liu 2014; Kim et al. 2012, Babakus et al. 2009; Varca 1999). Research studies indicate that insufficient resource allocation (Gillespie et al. 2001) and predominantly cost-driven approaches to service provision (Marinova et al. 2008) increase employee job stress. Such work-related stress has a pervasive influence on CCE occupational health and performance (Fisk and Neville 2011). In contrast, effective work design (Rayburn 2014), human resource management (Schneider and Bowen 1993), and developmental interventions (Ellinger et al. 2008; Elmadağ et al. 2008) all favorably influence service employee work affect. Researchers therefore contend that job stress must be effectively mitigated to improve service worker attitudes that influence the quality of service provision (Singh 2000; Taris 2006). However, most examinations of CCE job stress are focused on the causes and outcomes of job stress (e.g., Teng and Liu 2014; Johnson and Sohi 2014; Varca 1999), rather than on identifying remedies.

A frequently employed managerial intervention that undoubtedly affects employee job stress and work affect is rewarding. According to equity theory, work-related affective outcomes are enhanced when employees perceive that efforts put forth are appropriately rewarded by their organizations (Adams 1963; Pritchard 1969). But different types of rewards have dissimilar effects and may therefore differentially influence work-related outcomes. For example, Gillespie et al. (2016) report that employees’ psychological responses and performance are differentially influenced by intrinsic and extrinsic approaches. Based on the ‘loci of control’ rewards are classified as intrinsic and extrinsic (Deci et al. 1999). Intrinsic rewards are primarily based on social recognition, while extrinsic rewards encompass job components such as pay, fringe benefits, opportunities for promotion or advancement, and physical working conditions (Deci et al. 1999). Therefore, although rewarding is generally believed to improve employee performance, the effects of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards on employee attitudes and behaviors require further clarification (Hershcovis and Barling 2010).

This research examines the influence of rewarding in potentially stressful service provision contexts where CCEs’ boundary spanning roles require them to interact

with supervisors and co-workers as well as customers. Based on survey data from a sample of CCEs from multiple service industries, we propose and test a conceptual framework that assesses the influences of alternative types of rewarding on CCE job stress, commitment to the organization and customer orientation. CCEs are utilized as key informants because their own perceptions of their firms' rewarding are far more reflective of their effects than those of their managers or other organizational respondents (Liao et al. 2009). Yet, despite Liao et al.'s (2009) identification of substantive differences between the opinions of managers and employees as well as multiple studies in the human resource management, organizational psychology, and labor economics literatures that report on employees' perceptions of their work environments, examinations of frontline service workers' perceptions of how their organizations treat them are relatively limited in the marketing literature compared to studies that draw upon managers as key respondents.

The following sections review the CCE literature, propose study hypotheses, describe the method, and discuss the study findings, their implications for research and practice as well as directions for future research.

2 Background

2.1 Customer contact employees: the frontline of the organization

CCEs *are* the firm in the minds of its customers because customer evaluations of organizations are largely based on their impressions of service employees (Hau et al. 2016; Berry 1995; Wentzel 2009). CCEs like retail associates, bank tellers, insurance claim processors, and airline counter staff interact daily with customers and are expected to deliver satisfying service in a cost-effective manner. Since production and consumption of services often occur simultaneously, interactions with customers represent the point where service delivery can be used as a source of differentiation and competitive advantage (Lovell and Gummesson 2004; Cruz-Ros 2009). Yet, Rayburn (2014, p.71) refers to the "common scenario" of "unmotivated and unenthusiastic service workers" and highlights recent industry reports that consistently rank service workers as "the least satisfied, least happy and most depressed employees at work." In consequence, many businesses fall short of capitalizing on the "moments of truth" that occur whenever CCEs interact directly with customers (Grönroos 1990). When CCEs are not effective service providers, sales opportunities become wasted moments and it is costly, if indeed possible, to correct mistakes, recover critical situations, and achieve re-sales and cross-sales (Grönroos 1990). Moreover, when service failure occurs, CCE attitudes and service orientations are critical for ensuring customer satisfaction and relationship maintenance (Teng and Liu 2014; Ma and Dubé 2011; Grönroos 1990).

The occupational well-being of employees also affects service provision. Recent studies emphasize the linkage between employee job stress, emotional exhaustion, and performance (e.g., Hershcovis and Barling 2010; Ganster and Rosen 2013). Hershcovis and Barling (2010) meta-analytic study highlights the negative influence of emotional exhaustion on employee performance, while Linden et al. (2005)

report that stress is significantly related to the number of cognitive failures, inhibition errors, and performance variability in attention-requiring tasks. Chi et al. (2013) study also indicates that CCE stress-related hostility in face-to-face service encounters explains service worker behaviors that intentionally harm customer interests.

CCE attitudes and service orientations receive considerable attention in the internal marketing literature. The key tenet of internal marketing is that employees who are well looked after by their organizations tend to take better care of the firm's customers (George and Grönroos 1989; Kennedy et al. 2002). Indeed, research studies demonstrate that human resource developmental interventions favorably influence employee job performance (Ellinger et al. 2008; Elmadağ et al. 2008; Rafiq and Ahmed 1993). However, examinations of such initiatives in service provision contexts are relatively rare. This apparent gap in the literature has motivated services marketing scholars to call for research that develops a better understanding of developmental interventions that improve service worker performance (e.g., Ostrom et al. 2010; Peccei and Rosenthal 2001; Schneider and Bowen 1993, 2010).

2.2 Rewarding: extrinsic and intrinsic

Strategically aligned rewards motivate the behaviors, actions, and accomplishments of employees that help advance the organization toward the business goals set by management (Ehrhart et al. 2011). Thus, Höglund (2012) and Webb et al. (2014) emphasize the importance of rewards offered to employees to motivate them and induce the implementation of organizational strategy. However, not all rewards work the same way. Thus, research suggests that the influences of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards may be markedly different. Nevertheless, regardless of type, rewarding employees is generally expected to encourage them to perform better.

Intrinsic rewarding based on social *recognition* consists of “personal attention, mostly conveyed verbally through expressions of interest, approval, and appreciation for a job well done” (Stajkovic and Luthans 2001, p. 582). Stajkovic and Luthans (2003) suggest that, given their intermittent properties, social recognition-based intrinsic rewards tend to retain their motivational power. According to Pfeffer (1998), the idea that people work purely for money is a “myth,” while Greene et al. (1994, p.11) argue that “there is more to a reward system than compensation.” Thus, Bandura (1986, p. 235) contends that “it is difficult to conceive of a society populated with people who are completely unmoved by the respect, approval, and reproof of others.” Stajkovic and Luthans' (2003) meta-analytic study provides additional support for these ideas by reporting that social recognition has a profound influence on job performance. However, although personal attention has an important role as a reinforcing managerial intervention employed in organizations (Simons 1991), the influence of intrinsic rewarding on customer-facing employee job stress has been relatively ignored.

In contrast, extrinsic rewards like monetary raises, bonuses, and benefits are external to the work itself. Consequently, their magnitude and dispensation are controlled by other people (Deci et al. 1999) with an external locus of control that

makes financial gain the focal reason for effort expended (Deci 1975). Monetary rewards are important determinants of quality of life especially for low-income workers (Diener and Biswas-Diener 2002), because financial rewarding motivates and enables employees to acquire the numerous need-satisfying things they desire (Robbins and Judge 2012). Thus, Judge and Colquitt (2004) argue that low wage levels increase job stress by exacerbating the pressures associated with employees' roles as family providers. Nevertheless, research tends to associate extrinsic rewarding with decreased levels of job stress because, in addition to providing an indication of the individual's value to the organization, material remuneration influences the type of lifestyle that an individual can lead.

Richardson and Rothstein's (2008) meta-analysis concludes that rewarding is a valuable way of managing job stress. Empirical studies demonstrate that intrinsic and extrinsic rewarding can both influence service employee outcomes (i.e., Gillespie et al. 2016) and reduce job stress (c.f., Rehman et al. 2010; Tse et al. 2007). Social recognition is important because people do not work solely for money. Moreover, since frontline service worker compensation tends to be relatively homogenous (Rust et al. 1996; Schlesinger and Heskett 1991), relying solely on financially rewarding CCEs would be impractical. Accordingly, Gagné and Deci (2005) contend that implementing the appropriate type of rewarding is important.

2.3 Commitment to the organization and customer orientation

Commitment to the organization and customer orientation are desirable work-related attitudes for frontline service employees that interact with customers. The linkages between commitment to the organization, customer orientation, and superior service provision are well established in the services marketing literature. For example, Malhotra et al. (2013) show that CCEs who feel part of an organization demonstrate their commitment by buying into the targets stipulated by management and by performing their duties and responsibilities with sincerity. Moreover, firms can build long-term relationships with customers by having committed (Boshoff and Allen 2000) and customer-oriented (Grönroos 1990) CCEs.

Commitment to the organization is defined by Mowday et al. (1979, p. 226) as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization." The construct is characterized by three related factors: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (2) a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. Research indicates that commitment to the organization diminishes when employees experience stressful working environments (Taris 2006).

Customer orientation is defined as "an employee's tendency or predisposition to meet customer needs in an on-the-job context" (Brown et al. 2002, p.111). The pivotal role of the frontline service worker derives from the inseparable nature of services (Lovelock and Gummesson 2004). Because of the indivisibility of production and consumption of services (Parasuraman et al. 1985), and the difficulty of delivering consistent levels of service quality, customer orientation has received considerable attention in the services marketing literature (c.f., George and

Grönroos 1989; Zablah et al. 2012). Peccei and Rosenthal (1997) contend that customer orientation is primarily a social action driven by affective, moral, and altruistic motivations, rather than by overtly calculative considerations. Kelley (1992) also suggests that customer orientation may be less likely to emerge under stressful conditions.

3 Conceptual framework and study hypotheses

The proposed conceptual framework draws on equity theory (Adams 1963). Equity is useful for distributing valued outcomes (i.e., rewards), where the emphasis is on rewarding individual achievement (Chen 1995; Gouldner 1960). To this end, rewards based on social recognition actually trigger internal locus of control, which in turn creates the belief that employees' own actions drive work-related outcomes. Thus, social recognition may encourage employees to repay the organization by taking responsibility for better serving customers. Furthermore, as per equity theory, employee stress levels may be lower due to being rewarded for efforts that they have internalized (Walster et al. 1978). In contrast, when extrinsic rewards are used, external locus of control is triggered and external factors become the reason for effort. Equity theory also proposes that rewarding practices, when misused, may cause distress due to lack of an equitable balance between work-related inputs—in the context under examination of CCEs' on-the-job effort—and outputs received in the form of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Gouldner 1960; Adam 1963). Thus, equity theory implies that the greater the inequity perceived by an individual, the more distress the individual feels.

The model and study hypotheses presented in Fig. 1 address a gap in the marketing literature that reflects the relative lack of studies that identify and examine managerial interventions that alleviate service worker job stress to favorably influence service provision. Research has established that a firm's managerial activities ultimately influence service experiences through CCEs' interactions with customers (Chebat and Kollias 2000; Schneider and Bowen 1993; 2010). Furthermore, research makes the connection between job stress, employee well-being, and commitment to the organization (Jamal 1990; Taris 2006). Yet,

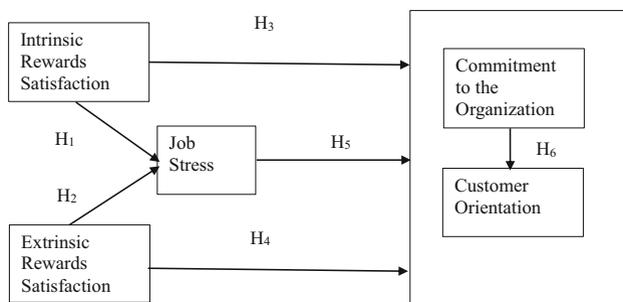


Fig. 1 A proposed model of the influence of rewarding on job stress, CCE commitment to the organization, and customer orientation

Ostrom et al. (2010) and others continue to highlight the need to better understand the influence of firms' motivational and developmental interventions on service employees' work-related attitudes and behaviors. Our research extends current understanding of how managerial interventions influence CCEs by examining linkages between rewarding, job stress, and work affect.

Our first two hypotheses address the direct effects of rewarding on job stress. Based on equity theory, the complex and demanding aspects of customer service provision provoke stress reactions that may be contingent on CCEs' perceptions of the effort–reward balance within their organizations. Thus, striking a balance between employee inputs and outputs becomes important. Research often shows that perceptions of inequity are associated with psychological distress that precipitates emotional exhaustion by depleting a person's psychological resources (Bakker et al. 2008). Conversely, positive emotions evoked by perceptions of equity promote well-being, health, and survival (Allisey et al. 2012).

Social recognition-based intrinsic rewarding represents a means of striking a balance between inputs and outputs by acknowledging employees for efforts invested at work. Thus, praising employees for efforts put forth, amplifying gratitude, and giving positive feedback are implicit ways of maintaining equilibrium by ensuring that employees feel appreciated. We therefore expect to find that employee satisfaction with social recognition is negatively associated with job stress:

H1 Intrinsic rewarding decreases job stress.

Based on the same theoretical foundations and on the general belief that rewarding promotes favorable work-related outcomes, extrinsic rewarding also enables firms to strike a balance between inputs and outputs by materially rewarding employees for their efforts. Thus, financial remuneration and the provision of other forms of work-related incentives and opportunities are manifest ways of maintaining equilibrium by explicitly rewarding employees. Therefore, we also anticipate that employee satisfaction with remuneration and other work-related incentives and opportunities is negatively associated with job stress:

H2 Extrinsic rewarding decreases job stress.

The next two hypotheses assess the direct effects of rewarding on CCE work-related affect. Research indicates that intrinsic rewards are important for reducing employees' perceived stress and for building dedication to the organization. When employees are intrinsically rewarded—meaning when they are socially recognized and asked to use their effort to direct their work activities toward accomplishing important organizational objectives—their attachment to the organization also increases (Mathieu and Zajac 1990; Malhotra et al. 2007). Based on the reciprocity norm (Gouldner 1960), when the organization provides them with rewards, employees feel the need to reciprocate (Eisenberger et al. 2001; Fischer et al. 2014). As a result, rewarding that involves caring, concern, and appreciation for employees tends to be reciprocated with higher levels of employee commitment (Eisenberger et al. 2001) and customer orientation (Gavino et al. 2012). We therefore propose that intrinsic rewarding encourages employees, to reciprocate by exhibiting higher levels of desirable work-related affect:

H3 Intrinsic rewards increase employee (a) commitment to the organization and (b) customer orientation.

Similarly, as a part of the social relationship between employees and their organizations, the provision of extrinsic rewards explicitly motivates employees to reciprocate with greater commitment to comply with the organization's goals of better serving and satisfying customers (O'Reilly and Chatman 1986). Thus, based on the same theoretical rationale and the general belief that rewarding promotes favorable work-related outcomes, we also anticipate that:

H4 Extrinsic rewards increase employee (a) commitment to the organization and (b) customer orientation.

Customer service provision is frequently characterized as a demanding occupation (Singh 2000). CCEs deal with customer problems that are often unique and may not have prescribed solutions (Bowen and Ford 2002). The ongoing need to respond to complex and unpredictable customer expectations is therefore expected to increase levels of CCE job stress. In support of this contention, research indicates that job stress reduces employees' willingness to invest energy in their work (Feldt et al. 2013; Hakanen et al. 2008) and that job stress is also associated with negative on-the-job behaviors (Chi et al. 2013; Madupalli and Poddar 2014) as well as absenteeism and turnover (Sawyer et al. 2009). Thus, Taris's (2006) meta-analysis reports that when employees experience high levels of job stress, customers are significantly less satisfied with the service received. These findings suggest that higher levels of job stress are associated with lower levels of commitment to the organization and customer orientation. We therefore expect that:

H5 Job stress decreases employee (a) commitment to the organization and (b) customer orientation.

Consistent with empirical research that has established the linkage (Jones et al. 2003; Siguaw et al. 1994), our final hypothesis is intended to further confirm the relationship between employee commitment to the organization and customer orientation. The logic for the positive association found in previous studies is that CCEs who are more committed to their organizations are also more likely to demonstrate that commitment by delivering high-quality service:

H6 Employee commitment to the organization increases customer orientation.

4 Method

4.1 Sample characteristics and survey design

Previously validated measures are utilized to operationalize the five study constructs. Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are assessed with Cammann et al. (1979) social rewards satisfaction and extrinsic rewards satisfaction measures. The 3-item intrinsic rewards satisfaction scale includes items like "I am satisfied with the way I am treated by the people I work with." The 3-item extrinsic rewards

satisfaction scale includes items like “I am satisfied with the fringe benefits I receive.” Job stress is assessed with Netemeyer et al.’s (2005) four-item scale that includes items like “At the end of the day, my job leaves me ‘stressed out.’” CCE commitment to the organization is assessed with Mowday et al.’s (1979) measure. The five-item scale includes items like “I feel my future is closely linked to that of this company.” Finally, customer orientation is measured using an abbreviated 6-item version of Deshpandé et al. (1993) scale. The researchers chose to omit three of the original nine items due to concern that CCEs would not have the requisite knowledge to appropriately respond to them. All study constructs are assessed with 7-point Likert scales. The control variables included in the survey instrument are as follows: CCE tenure with the firm, experience in the service industry, work status (full-time/part-time), education level, age, and gender as well as the specific industry for CCE respondents’ organizations. Consistent with previous research studies, 300 undergraduate students from a large Southeastern University in the U.S. were offered an opportunity to earn extra credit by recruiting one CCE respondent each (Arnold and Reynolds 2003; Bitner et al. 1990). The survey was placed on a secure server and the link to the questionnaire was e-mailed to the students for them to forward to the CCEs they recruited. The 221 responses received (one of which was not usable due to missing information) equates to a response rate of 73%. To further ensure the validity of the sample, two filter questions were included in the survey to ensure that respondents were not compensated based on sales and their roles involved direct contact with customers. The researchers conducted random follow-up phone checks to confirm respondents’ demographic information and verify their participation.

The convenience sample obtained includes CCEs from multiple service organizations and the research setting comprises organizations from multiple service industries. Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics. The typical respondent was a part-time working (56.4%), female (53.6%) with a high school degree (43.6%). Additionally, respondents’ average tenure with their company was 4.5 years, while tenure in customer service was 6.2 years. As shown in Table 1, the largest number of respondents worked in retail, healthcare, and restaurants.

4.2 Measurement model assessment

A two-step approach of measurement model estimation and SEM (Anderson and Gerbing 1988) was applied for data analysis using LISREL. Firstly, the unidimensionality, reliability, and validity of the study constructs were examined. The means and standard deviations as well as the reliabilities of the constructs were examined. Based on the suggestions by Gerbing and Anderson (1992), the model fits were evaluated. In the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), we included all items for Extrinsic Rewards Satisfaction, Intrinsic Rewards Satisfaction, Job Stress, Commitment to the Organization, and Customer Orientation. As shown in Table 3, the CFA model achieved adequate fit statistics ($\chi^2 = 408.45$, $df = 179$, NNFI = 0.953, CFI = 0.960, SRMR = 0.0686, RMSEA = 0.0765).

Within the CFA setting, scale reliabilities were calculated using the procedures outlined by Fornell and Larcker (1981). In conjunction with the reliability

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix of Constructs ($N = 220$)

Construct	Mean	S.D.
CCE tenure with the company	4.54 years	7.00
CCE experience in service industry	6.18 years	7.78
CCE work status (full-time/part-time)	56.4% part-time	

	Frequency
CCE education	1
GED	1
High school	96
Associate's degree	30
Bachelor's degree	75
Graduate degree	17
CCE gender	53.6% female

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Industry		
Restaurant	31	14.1
Healthcare	43	19.5
Retail	46	20.9
Banking/accounting/insurance	17	7.7
Automotive	10	4.5
Electronics	7	3.2
Education	20	9.1
Construction	12	5.5
Other (such as advertising, recreation, etc.)	34	15.5

Variable	Mean	SD	Reliability			1	2	3	4	5
			CR	α	AVE					
1 Int. Rew. Sat.	5.52	1.28	.60	.89	.53	1.00				
2 Ext. Rew. Sat.	4.51	1.55	.75	.77	.72	.48**	1.00			
3 Job stress	4.67	1.62	.64	.91	.64	-.13*	.14*	1.00		
4 Commit.	3.24	1.56	.76	.84	.68	.47**	.69**	.20**	1.00	
5 Cust. orient.	5.15	1.19	.60	.87	.51	.38**	.49**	.51**	-.07	1.00

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

assessment, we also examined the factor loadings and t values, and assessed the variance extracted (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). The reliabilities for the five scales ranged from 0.84 to 0.91 (see Table 2). Only extrinsic rewards satisfaction variable had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.77, which was still above the limits suggested by Nunnally (1978). Loadings ranged from 0.611 to 0.880 ($p < 0.01$, all t values > 8.374), and the variances extracted ranged from 51 to 72%. Overall, the set of

Table 2 Standardized structural results

Hypothesized relationships	Model	
	Coeff.	<i>t</i> value
H1 Intrinsic rewards → job stress	-.43	3.96
H2 Extrinsic rewards → job stress	.44	3.93
H3a Intrinsic rewards → commit. to the org.	Not Supported	
H3b Intrinsic rewards → customer orientation	Not Supported	
H4a Extrinsic rewards → commit. to the org	.82	10.45
H4b Extrinsic rewards → customer orientation	.40	2.60
H5a Job stress → commit. to the org.	Not Supported	
H5b Job stress → customer orientation	-.18	-2.67
H6 Commit. to the org. → customer orientation	.30	2.05
Total effects		
Intrinsic rewards → customer orientation	.08	2.24
Extrinsic rewards → customer orientation	.56	6.65

21 items was found to be reliable and valid when evaluated based on each item's error variance, modification index, and residual covariation (Fornell and Larcker 1981).

Following the procedure suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981), discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the variance extracted for each construct to the square of each off-diagonal value within the phi matrix for that construct. The largest off-diagonal value in the phi matrix was for Extrinsic Rewards Satisfaction and Commitment to the Organization (0.804). The square root of average variance extracted for both Extrinsic Rewards Satisfaction and Commitment to the Organization exceeded this value. In all cases, the square root of variance extracted exceeded the phi estimates, indicating support for discriminant validity.

Using a confirmatory factor analysis approach to Harmon's one-factor test (Sanchez and Brock 1996), the potential that the common method variance (CMV) may affect the analyses was examined. As such, if CMV poses a threat to the analysis, a single latent factor would account for all manifest variables (Podsakoff and Organ 1986). The one-factor model yielded a $\chi^2 = 1888.29$ with $df = 189$ (compared with $\chi^2 = 408.45$, $df = 179$ for the measurement model). The fit is significantly better for the measurement model than for the unidimensional model, indicating that CMV is not a serious threat in the analysis of the data.

5 Analyses and results

The first phase of the data analysis assessed the unidimensionality, reliability, and validity of the study constructs, while the second phase tested the study hypotheses. In the first phase, the means and standard deviations as well as the reliabilities of the constructs were examined and a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted.

Procedures suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Anderson and Gerbing (1988) were utilized to assess discriminant and convergent validity.

In the second phase, following the procedures outlined by Hair et al. (1998), the proposed conceptual model was tested. The hypothesized model (as shown in Fig. 1) demonstrated acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 395.92$, $df = 177$, $RMSEA = .071$, $NNFI = .957$, $CFI = .964$, $SRMR = .070$). However, three insignificant paths were identified. When the insignificant paths were removed from the original model, a significant increase in fit was obtained ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2.88$, $df = 3$) and the final model (as shown in Fig. 2) was formed ($\chi^2 = 398.80$, $df = 180$, $RMSEA = .071$, $NNFI = .958$, $CFI = .964$, $SRMR = .070$).

The tests of the study hypotheses reveal some interesting and unanticipated results. Consistent with expectations, the study findings indicate that intrinsic rewards negatively influence job stress ($\beta = -.43$, $t = 3.96$). Thus, H1 is supported. However, H2 is not supported since the findings reveal that extrinsic rewards significantly increase job stress ($\beta = .44$, $t = 3.93$). In contrast to our expectations, the results also fail to identify any significant effects between intrinsic rewarding and either commitment to the organization or customer orientation. Therefore, our findings do not support H3a and H3b. However, as anticipated, the study findings provide support for H4a and H4b by confirming that extrinsic rewards favorably influence both commitment to the organization ($\beta = .82$, $t = 10.45$) and customer orientation ($\beta = .40$, $t = 2.60$).

We also hypothesized that job stress would negatively influence commitment to the organization. However, the data do not support this relationship and therefore H5a is not supported. This finding is somewhat counterintuitive because extant literature and theory strongly indicates that job stress decreases commitment to the organization. However, consistent with Bentler's (2007) prescriptions, our analysis includes the effects of both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on CCE job stress and commitment to the organization. Thus, although the bivariate correlations between these variables (shown in Table 1) indicate significant relationships, when the direct effects of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on CCE job stress and commitment to the organization are collectively included in the model, the influence of job stress on

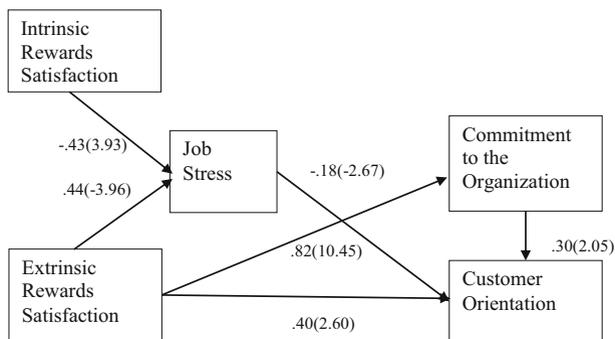


Fig. 2 Final model of the influence of rewarding on job stress, CCE commitment to the organization, and customer orientation

commitment to the organization becomes insignificant. In contrast, the influence of job stress on customer orientation was negative and significant, providing support for H5b. As expected, job stress significantly reduces customer orientation ($\beta = -.18, t = 2.67$). The study findings also provide support for H6 by providing further confirmation of the positive relationship between commitment to the organization and customer orientation that is established in previous studies ($\beta = .30, t = 2.05$) (see Table 3).

Finally, when the total effects of rewarding are examined, both extrinsic rewards ($\beta = .56, t = 6.65$) and intrinsic rewards ($\beta = .08, t = 2.24$) significantly increase customer orientation. As shown, the study findings provide support for the direct influence of extrinsic rewards on customer orientation ($\beta = .40, t = 2.60$). However, as shown in Table 3, extrinsic rewards also indirectly affect customer orientation, negatively through job stress and positively through commitment to the organization. The study findings also indicate that none of the control variables changed the significance or direction of the relationships tested.

6 Discussion

This study responds to calls for research that provides a better understanding of managerial interventions that favorably influence the well-being and occupational health of frontline service workers and improve service quality. To this end, our findings extend current knowledge about job stress in service provision contexts by examining the influence of rewarding as a means of alleviating job stress and improving CCE work-related affect that is associated with superior service quality. In addition, our application of equity theory in the services marketing literature extends previous studies by examining the differential effects of rewarding inputs (intrinsic and extrinsic) based on loci of control and their influence on CCEs' work-related affect. Finally, our research study augments the relatively few studies in the services marketing literature that assess frontline employees' perceptions of their own working environments.

Most significantly, the study findings reveal that alternative types of rewarding differentially influence CCE job stress and work affect. The results of our hypothesis testing indicate that, as predicted, intrinsic rewards reduce CCE job stress. However, contrary to expectations, the study findings indicate that extrinsic rewards increase it. Therefore, in contrast to the general belief that rewarding employees is associated with positive outcomes, CCE respondents reporting higher levels of satisfaction with pay also reported higher levels of job stress. This somewhat counterintuitive finding may be attributed to the two aspects of rewarding: the informational aspect that conveys self-determined competence and the controlling aspect that prompts an external locus of causality (Deci et al. 1999).

More specifically, when employees receive monetary rewards and other incentives, they may experience more job stress because they perceive that their performance is being watched and controlled and that an external locus of causality is associated with their performance (Deci 1975). Furthermore, extrinsic rewarding may reduce employees' self-confidence due to imperfect information (Bénabou and

Table 3 Reliability and convergent validity tests

Construct and Indicator	Model	
	Std. factor loading (t value)	SMC
Extrinsic Rewards Satisfaction ($\alpha = .77$; CR = .75; AVE = .72)		
Ext1: I am satisfied with the amount of pay	0.675 (10.575)	0.456
Ext2: I am satisfied with the fringe benefits I receive	0.760 (12.366)	0.577
Ext3: I am satisfied with the amount of job security I have	0.736 (11.856)	0.542
Intrinsic rewards satisfaction ($\alpha = .89$; CR = .60; AVE = .53)		
Int1: I am satisfied with the way you are treated by the people I work with	0.837 (14.615)	0.700
Int2: I am satisfied with the respect you receive from the people I work with	0.861 (15.244)	0.741
Int3: I am satisfied with the friendliness of the people I work with	0.847 (14.894)	0.718
Stress ($\alpha = .91$; CR = .64; AVE = .64)		
Str1: My job tends to directly effect my health	0.672	0.451
Str2: At the end of the day, my job leaves me "stressed out"	0.697 (8.983)	0.485
Str3: Problems associated with work have kept me awake at night	0.786 (9.918)	0.618
Str4: I feel uneasy or nervous because of my job	0.880 (10.508)	0.774
Commitment to the organization ($\alpha = .84$; CR = .76; AVE = .68)		
Com1: I feel my future is closely linked to that of this company	0.768	0.590
Com2: I feel very committed to this company	0.865 (16.355)	0.748
Com3: My values and those of this company are very similar	0.833 (12.933)	0.695
Com4: I am proud to tell others I am part of this company	0.833 (12.922)	0.694
Com5: I really care about the fate of this company	0.819 (12.677)	0.671
Customer orientation ($\alpha = .87$; CR = .60; AVE = .51)		
CO1: We have a good sense of how our customers value our products and services	0.721	0.520
CO2: We have routine or regular measures of customer service	0.705 (11.483)	0.497
CO3: We compete primarily based on having better products and services than our competitors	0.771 (10.448)	0.594
CO4: The culture is that the customer's interests should always come first	0.699 (9.541)	0.489
CO5: Our products/services are the best in the business	0.783 (10.589)	0.613
CO6: I believe this business exists primarily to serve customers	0.611 (8.374)	0.373

CFA fit: χ^2 (179) = 408.45, χ^2/df = 2.279, NNFI = 0.953, CFI = 0.960, SRMR = 0.0686, RMSEA = 0.0765

Model fit: χ^2 (177) = 395.919; χ^2/df = 2.237; RMSEA = 0.0714; NNFI = 0.957; CFI = 0.964 (initial model). χ^2 (180) = 398.803; χ^2/df = 2.216; RMSEA = 0.0709; NNFI = 0.958; CFI = 0.964 (revised model)

All standardized factor loadings are significant at $p < 0.001$. SMC squared multiple correlation, CR composite reliability, AVE average variance extracted, RMSEA root mean square error of approximation, NNFI non-normed fit index, and CFI comparative fit index

Tirole 2003). Our empirical findings are also consistent with Maslow's (1943) and Herzberg's (1986) contentions that pay is less of a motivator than the satisfaction of higher social needs and self-actualization. Furthermore, the positive association between extrinsic rewarding and job stress identified in our study lends credence to quality management researchers' suggestion that extrinsic rewarding can be counterproductive (Drummond and Chell 1992).

Examining the total effects of rewarding on job stress and work-related affect yields other interesting results. Although extrinsic rewards are shown to increase job stress, the total effects of rewarding on customer orientation indicate that extrinsic rewarding enhances customer orientation significantly more than intrinsic rewarding. Moreover, although intrinsic rewarding reduces job stress while extrinsic rewarding increases it, extrinsic rewarding is also found to significantly enhance commitment to the organization and customer orientation. Thus, the total effect of extrinsic rewarding on customer orientation is much greater than that of intrinsic rewarding.

This finding is consistent with Vroom's (1964) argument that rewards must be valued by their recipients. In the context under examination, CCEs place greater value on extrinsic rewards because they customarily work for low fixed salaries (Rust et al. 1996; Schlesinger and Heskett 1991). Consequently, despite the higher levels of job stress associated with extrinsic rewarding, consistent with equity theory, CCE attitudes toward the firm and its customers are enhanced when they are more satisfied with their pay and other benefits. This interpretation of our findings is also consistent with Staw's (1976) suggestion that pay-for-performance norms in the workplace can mitigate any potential negative effects of extrinsic rewarding.

The study findings also extend previous applications of equity theory in service provision contexts. Instead of examining the effects of the presence or absence of rewards, the differential influences of different types of rewarding are examined. Although equity theory proposes that employee stress levels should be alleviated when CCEs exert effort and are appropriately rewarded, our study indicates that not all rewards provide that expected outcome.

6.1 Implications for practice

As mentioned earlier, the attitudes and behaviors of CCEs greatly influence customer patronage, repurchase intentions, and perceptions of service quality. Accordingly, drawing on the perceptions of a sample of CCEs from multiple service industries appears to be particularly appropriate for assessing the influences of employees' satisfaction with their firms' rewarding on their job stress and work-related affect. The demanding work environments and considerable job-related stress encountered by frontline, customer-facing employees are frequently acknowledged in the literature, along with the economic benefits that accrue for firms that are able to differentiate themselves on service provision. Moreover, many CCEs are intrinsically customer oriented and inclined to act in the best interests of their customers (Jones et al. 2003). Yet, a myriad of managerial interventions may facilitate or hamper this natural inclination.

Our findings should therefore be of particular interest to firms who understand that differentiating themselves in their marketplaces through superior customer service goes hand in hand with promoting the occupational health and well-being of customer-facing employees. Job stress is a major reason for employee turnover (Feldt et al. 2013) that tends to be particularly high in service industries (US Labor Statistics, June 2014). High levels of employee turnover are associated with loss of productivity and lower levels of customer satisfaction (Guthrie 2001). Decreasing job stress through intrinsic rewarding and increasing commitment to the firm and customer orientation through extrinsic rewarding may therefore help service provider firms to reduce turnover and prevent economic losses associated with not being able to satisfy customers.

Since most employee–customer interactions occur unsupervised, our findings should also help firms to better recognize the diverse influences of rewarding approaches on CCE job stress and work-related affect. In particular, the study findings suggest that alleviating job stress per se may not achieve optimal levels of CCE commitment to the organization and customer orientation. Rather, the robust influence of extrinsic rewarding appears to mitigate the negative influence of job stress on CCE commitment to the organization and customer orientation. However, we do not propose that our findings suggest that firms can improve CCE work-related affect and associated service levels by ramping up job stress in conjunction with extrinsic rewarding. Nevertheless, our findings do provide an interesting direction for future research that identifies thresholds for optimal combinations of job stress and extrinsic rewarding.

Finally, the study findings shed some light on how firms can best exploit different types of rewarding. Because people do not work solely for money and organizational budgets are generally constrained when it comes to monetary rewards for CCEs, relying primarily on monetary rewarding and other incentives would be ineffective and impractical. So, while rewarding is an important way of letting CCEs know their worth to the organization, applying the most appropriate rewarding approach is also important. In times when employee morale is low and/or firms' financial resources are particularly limited, the most appropriate rewarding approach may be to focus on social recognition to reduce job stress. On the other hand, when the primary objective is to improve service quality by increasing service worker commitment to the organization and customer orientation, the more effective approach may be to incentivize improvements with more overt extrinsic rewarding.

6.2 Limitations and future research

Our research findings extend current knowledge about frontline service provider job stress and offer guidance for how organizations can appropriately exploit different types of rewarding to favorably influence the CCE attitudes that so profoundly affect customers' service experiences. However, as with most research, there are limitations that must be recognized when interpreting our study findings. Firstly, we acknowledge that the utilization of CCEs' satisfaction with their organizations' intrinsic and extrinsic rewarding is limited because the measures provide narrow

definitions of the constructs. More comprehensive conceptualizations of both constructs may therefore be used in future studies to more precisely assess employees' perceptions about their firms' intrinsic and extrinsic rewarding. Nevertheless, we maintain that the use of Cammann et al.'s (1979) social rewards satisfaction and satisfaction with pay measures is appropriate for the primary objective of our study which is to examine how CCEs' perceptions of their firms' rewarding practices influence their job stress and work-related affect. In addition, our analysis surfaces some interesting and somewhat unanticipated differences that can serve as an impetus for future research.

Other limitations include using a convenience sample of CCEs and the inherently non-dynamic nature of cross-sectional analysis. A longitudinal data collection involving multiple waves would likely provide a more nuanced test of the proposed model proposed by enabling evaluations and comparisons of the influences of different rewarding interventions over time. In addition, to most realistically reflect CCE perceptions of the effects of rewarding and job stress, self-report measures were used. Based on Liao et al.'s (2009) conclusions, no other organizational respondents would be more appropriate judges of the job stress experienced by CCEs than CCEs themselves. However, consistent with Podsakoff et al.'s (2003) prescriptions, we also acknowledge that the use of self-report commitment to the organization and customer orientation data might be considered a potential limitation in that employees may be biased judges of their own selves. Moreover, it is conceivable that associations between the two constructs may be inflated due to halo effects and respondents' desire to provide consistent results. Finally, as shown in Table 1, the respondent sample comprises CCEs from multiple different work settings. However, occupational factors such as job demands and components of pay tend to vary in different work settings. Therefore, although no significant difference was identified between the stress levels reported by part-time and full-time respondents, we also acknowledge that household size and other income factors may also influence CCE job stress. Accordingly, future research studies should also consider the influences of such factors to evaluate their influences on service provider work-related stress, attitudes, and behaviors.

Despite these limitations, we anticipate that the intriguing findings that emanate from our study will stimulate future research that identifies and assesses additional ways that firms can simultaneously improve frontline service employees' occupational health, well-being, and service quality, and in other words, find more remedies. As mentioned, customer service provision is often depicted as a complex and demanding occupation where CCEs must often be pragmatic in solving customer problems. Perceived levels of support from others within the organization may therefore be a particularly critical factor. Investigating service workers' perceptions of support-related phenomena like organizational social capital (Ellinger et al. 2013), informal managerial coaching (Ellinger et al. 2007), and distributive justice (Folger and Konovsky 1989) may unearth additional antidotes for improving frontline service employees' occupational health and well-being to favorably influence customer service.

References

- Adams SJ (1963) Toward an understanding of inequity. *J Abnorm Soc Psychol* 67(5):422–436
- Allisey A, Rodwell J, Noblet A (2012) Personality and the effort-reward imbalance model of stress: individual differences in reward sensitivity. *Work Stress* 26(3):230–251
- An M, Noh Y (2009) Airline customer satisfaction and loyalty: impact of in-flight service quality. *Serv Bus* 3(3):293–307
- Anderson JC, Gerbing DW (1988) Structural equation modeling in practice: a review and recommended two step approach. *Psychol Bull* 103(3):411–423
- Arnold MJ, Reynolds KE (2003) Hedonic shopping motivations. *J Retail* 79(2):77–95
- Babakus E, Yavas U, Ashill NJ (2009) The role of customer orientation as a moderator of the job demand–burnout–performance relationship: a surface-level trait perspective. *J Retail* 85(4):480–492
- Bakker AB, Schaufeli WB, Leiter MP, Taris TW (2008) Work engagement: an emerging concept in occupational health psychology. *Work Stress* 22(3):187–200
- Bandura A (1986) *Social foundations of thought and action: a social cognitive theory*. Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs
- Bénabou R, Tirole J (2003) Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *RESTUD* 70(3):489–520
- Bentler PM (2007) On tests and indices for evaluating structural models. *Pers Ind Diff* 42(5):825–829
- Berry LL (1995) Relationship marketing of services-growing interest, emerging perspectives. *J Acad Mark Sci* 23(4):236–245
- Bitner MJ, Booms BH, Tetreault MS (1990) The service encounter: diagnosing favorable and unfavorable incidents. *J Mark* 54(1):71–84
- Bitner MJ, Booms BH, Mohr LA (1994) Critical service encounters: the employee's viewpoint. *J Mark* 58(4):95–106
- Boshoff C, Allen J (2000) The influence of selected antecedents on frontline staff's perceptions of service recovery performance. *Int J Serv Ind Manag* 11(1):63–90
- Bowen J, Ford RC (2002) Managing service organizations: does having a thing make a difference? *J Manag* 28(3):447–469
- Brown T, Mowen JC, Donovan T, Licata JW (2002) The customer orientation of service workers: personality trait determinants and influences on self and supervisor performance ratings. *J Mark Res* 39(1):110–119
- Cammann C, Fichman M, Jenkins GD, Klesh JR (1979) *The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire*. Unpublished manuscript. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
- Chebat JC, Kollias P (2000) The impact of empowerment on customer contact employees' roles in service organizations. *J Serv Res* 3(1):66–81
- Chen CC (1995) New trends in rewards allocation preferences: a Sino-US Comparison. *Acad Manag J* 38(3):408–428
- Chi NW, Tsai WC, Tseng SM (2013) Customer negative events and employee service sabotage: the roles of employee hostility, personality and group affective tone. *Work Stress* 27(3):298–319
- Cruz-Ros S (2009) Multi-item models for evaluating managerial and organizational resources in service firms. *Serv Bus* 3(3):229–257
- Deci E (1975) *Intrinsic Motivation*. Plenum Press, New York
- Deci EL, Koestner R, Ryan RM (1999) A meta-analytic review of experiments examining the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Psychol Bull* 125(6):627–668
- Deshpandé R, Farley JU, Webster FE Jr (1993) Corporate culture, customer orientation, and innovativeness in Japanese firms: a quadrad analysis. *J Mark* 57(1):23–37
- Diener E, Biswas-Diener R (2002) Will money increase subjective well-being? *Soc Indic Res* 57(2):119–169
- Drummond H, Chell E (1992) Should organizations pay for quality? *Pers Rev* 21(4):3–11
- Ehrhart KH, Witt LA, Schneider B, Perry SJ (2011) Service employees give as they get: internal service as a moderator of the service climate–service outcomes link. *J App Psychol* 96(2):423–431
- Eisenberger R, Armeli S, Rexwinkel B, Lynch PD, Rhoades L (2001) Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *J App Psychol* 86(1):42–51
- Ellinger AE, Elmadağ AB, Ellinger AD (2007) An examination of organizations' frontline service employee development practices. *Human Res Dev Quart* 18(3):293–314

- Ellinger AE, Ketchen DJ Jr, Hult GTM, Elmadağ AB, Richey RG Jr (2008) Market orientation, employee development practices, and performance in logistics service provider firms. *Ind Mark Manag* 37(4):353–366
- Ellinger AE, Musgrove CCF, Ellinger AD, Bachrach DG, Elmadağ Baş AB, Wang YL (2013) Influences of organizational investments in social capital on service employee commitment and performance. *J Bus Res* 66(8):1124–1133
- Elmadağ AB, Ellinger AE, Franke GR (2008) Antecedents and consequences of frontline service employee commitment to service quality. *J Mark Theory Pract* 16(2):95–110
- Feldt T, Huhtala M, Kinnunen U, Hyvönen K, Mäkikangas A, Sonnentag S (2013) Long-term patterns of effort-reward imbalance and over-commitment: investigating occupational well-being and recovery experiences as outcomes. *Work Stress* 27(1):64–87
- Fischer A, Sieg JH, Wallin MW, von Krogh G (2014) What motivates professional service firm employees to nurture client dialogues? *Serv Ind J* 34(5):399–421
- Fisk GM, Neville LB (2011) Effects of customer entitlement on service workers' physical and psychological well-being: a study of waitstaff employees. *J Occup Health Psychol* 16(4):391–405
- Folger R, Konovsky MA (1989) Effects of procedural and distributive justice on reactions to pay raise decisions. *Acad Manag J* 32(1):115–130
- Fornell C, Larcker D (1981) Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable and measurement error. *J Mark Res* 18(1):39–50
- Gagné M, Deci E (2005) Self determination theory and work motivation. *J Org Beh* 26(4):331–362
- Ganster DC, Rosen CC (2013) Work stress and employee health A multidisciplinary review. *J Manag* 39(5):1085–1122
- Galvino MC, Wayne SJ, Erdogan B (2012) Discretionary and transactional human resource practices and employee outcomes: the role of perceived organizational support. *Human Res Manag* 51(5):665–686
- George WR, Grönroos C (1989) Developing customer-conscientious employees at every level: internal marketing. In: Friedman ML, Congram CA (eds) *Handbook of Services marketing*. AMACOM, New York, pp 85–100
- Gerbing DW, Anderson JC (1992) Monte Carlo evaluations of goodness of fit indices for structural equation models. *Sociol Methods Res* 21(2):132–160
- Gilbert C, De Winne S, Sel L (2011) Antecedents of front-line managers perceptions of HR role stressors. *Pers Rev* 40(5):549–569
- Gillespie EA, Walsh M, Winefield AH, Dua J, Stough C (2001) Occupational stress in universities: staff perceptions of the causes, consequences and moderators of stress. *Work Stress* 15(1):53–72
- Gillespie EA, Noble SM, Lam SK (2016) Extrinsic versus intrinsic approaches to managing a multi-brand sales force: when and how do they work? *J Acad Mark Sci* 44:707–725
- Gouldner AW (1960) The norm of reciprocity: a preliminary statement. *Am Soc Rev* 25(2):161–178
- Greene WE, Walls GD, Schrest LJ (1994) Internal marketing: the key to external marketing success. *J Serv Mark* 8(4):5–13
- Grönroos C (1990) Service management: a management focus for service competition. *Int J Serv Ind Manag* 1(1):6–14
- Guthrie JP (2001) High-involvement work practices, turnover, and productivity: evidence from New Zealand. *Acad Manag J* 44(1):180–190
- Hair JF, Anderson RE, Tatham RL, Black WC (1998) *Multivariate data analysis*. Prentice-Hall, Upper Saddle River
- Hakanen JJ, Schaufeli WB, Ahola K (2008) The job demands-resources model: a three-year cross-lagged study of burnout, depression, commitment, and work engagement. *Work Stress* 22(3):224–241
- Hau LN, Anh PNT, Thuy PN (2016) The effects of interaction behaviors of service frontliners on customer participation in the value co-creation: a study of health care service. *Serv Bus*. doi:10.1007/s11628-016-0307-4
- Hershcovis MS, Barling J (2010) Towards a multi-foci approach to workplace aggression: a meta-analytic review of outcomes from different perpetrators. *J Org Beh* 31(1):24–44
- Herzberg F (1986) One more time: how do you motivate employees. *The Leader Manager*, New York, pp 433–448
- Höglund M (2012) Quid pro quo? examining talent management through the lens of psychological contracts. *Pers Rev* 41(2):126–142
- Jamal M (1990) Relationship of job stress and Type-A behavior to employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, psychosomatic health problems, and turnover motivation. *Hum Rel* 43(8):727–738

- Jeon A (2016) The effect of pre-flight attendants' emotional intelligence, emotional labor, and emotional exhaustion on commitment to customer service. *Serv Bus* 10(2):345–367
- Johnson JS, Sohi RS (2014) The curvilinear and conditional effects of product line breadth on salesperson performance, role stress, and job satisfaction. *J Acad Mark Sci* 42(1):71–89
- Jones E, Busch P, Dacin P (2003) Firm market orientation and salesperson customer orientation: interpersonal and intrapersonal influences on customer service and retention in business-to-business buyer–seller relationships. *J Bus Res* 56(4):323–340
- Judge TA, Colquitt JA (2004) Organizational justice and stress: the mediating role of work-family conflict. *J App Psychol* 89(3):395
- Kelley SW (1992) Developing customer orientation among service employees. *J Acad Mark Sci* 2(1):27–36
- Kennedy KN, Lassk FG, Goolsby JR (2002) Customer mind-set of employees throughout the organization. *J Acad Mark Sci* 30(2):159–171
- Kim TT, Paek S, Choi CH, Lee G (2012) Frontline service employees' customer-related social stressors, emotional exhaustion, and service recovery performance: customer orientation as a moderator. *Serv Bus* 6(4):503–526
- Liao H, Toya K, Lepak DP, Hong Y (2009) Do they see eye to eye? management and employee perspectives of high-performance work systems and influence processes on service quality. *J App Psychol* 94(2):371–391
- Linden DVD, Keijsers GPJ, Eling P, Schaijk RV (2005) Work stress and attentional difficulties: an initial study on burnout and cognitive failures. *Work Stress* 19(1):23–36
- Lovelock C, Gummesson E (2004) Whither services marketing? in search of a new paradigm and fresh perspectives. *J Serv Res* 7(1):20–41
- Ma Z, Dubé L (2011) Process and outcome interdependency in frontline service encounters. *J Mark* 75:83–98. doi:10.1509/jmkg.75.3.83
- Madupalli RK, Poddar A (2014) Problematic customers and customer service employee retaliation. *J Serv Mark* 28(3):244–255
- Malhotra N, Budhwar P, Prowse P (2007) Linking rewards to commitment: an empirical investigation of four UK call centres. *Int J Hum Res Manag* 18(12):2095–2128
- Malhotra N, Mavondo F, Mukherjee A, Hooley G (2013) Service quality of frontline employees: a profile deviation analysis. *J Bus Res* 66(9):1338–1344
- Marinova D, Ye J, Singh J (2008) Do frontline mechanisms matter? Impact of quality and productivity orientations on unit revenue, efficiency, and customer satisfaction. *J Mark* 72(2):28–45
- Maslow AH (1943) A theory of human motivation. *Psych Rev* 50(4):370
- Mathieu JE, Zajac DM (1990) A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psych Bull* 108(2):171–194
- Motowidlo SJ, Packard JS, Manning MR (1986) Occupational stress: its causes and consequences for job performance. *J App Psychol* 71(4):618
- Mowday RT, Steers RM, Porter LW (1979) The measurement of organizational commitment. *J Vocat Beh* 14(2):224–227
- Netemeyer RG, Maxham JG III, Pullig C (2005) Conflicts in the work–family interface: links to job stress, customer service employee performance, and customer purchase intent. *J Mark* 69(2):130–143
- Nunnally J (1978) *Psychometric theory*. Mc Graw-Hill, Auflage
- O'Reilly CA, Chatman J (1986) Organizational commitment and psychological adjustment: the effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *J App Psychol* 71(3):492–499
- Ostrom AL, Bitner MJ, Brown SW, Burkhard KA, Goul M, Smith-Daniels V, Rabinovich E (2010) Moving forward and making a difference: research priorities for the science of service. *J Serv Res* 13(1):4–36
- Parasuraman A, Berry LL, Zeithaml VA (1985) A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *J Mark* 49(4):41–50
- Peccei R, Rosenthal P (1997) The antecedents of employee commitment to customer service: evidence from a UK service context. *Int J Hum Res Manag* 8(1):66–86
- Peccei R, Rosenthal P (2001) Delivering customer-oriented behaviour through empowerment: an empirical test of HRM assumptions. *J Manag Stud* 38(6):831–857
- Pfeffer J (1998) Six dangerous myths about pay. *Harvard Bus Rev* 76(3):108–120
- Podsakoff PM, Organ DW (1986) Self-reports in organizational research: problems and prospects. *J Manag* 12(4):531–544

- Podsakoff PM, MacKenzie SB, Lee J-Y, Podsakoff NP (2003) Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *J App Psychol* 88(5):879–903
- Pritchard RD (1969) Equity theory: a review and critique. *Org Beh Hum Perf* 4:176–211
- Rafiq M, Ahmed PK (1993) The scope of internal marketing: defining the boundary between marketing and human resource management. *J Mark Manag* 9(3):219–232
- Rayburn SW (2014) Improving service employee work affect: the transformative potential of work design. *J Serv Mark* 28(1):71–81
- Rehman S, Khan MA, Afzal H (2010) An investigative relationship between efforts-rewards model and job stress in private educational institutions: a validation study. *Int J Bus Manag* 5(3):42
- Richardson KM, Rothstein HR (2008) Effects of occupational stress management intervention programs: a meta-analysis. *J Occup Health Psychol* 13(1):69–93
- Robbins SP, Judge T (2012) *Essentials of organizational behavior*. Pearson, Boston
- Rust RT, Stewart GL, Miller H, Pielack D (1996) The satisfaction and retention of frontline employees: a customer satisfaction measurement approach. *Int J Serv Ind Manag* 7(5):62–80
- Sanchez JI, Brock P (1996) Outcomes of perceived discrimination among Hispanic employees: is diversity management a luxury or a necessity? *Acad Manag J* 39(3):704–719
- Sawyer OO, Srinivas S, Wang S (2009) Call center employee personality factors and service performance. *J Serv Mark* 23(5):301–317
- Schlesinger LA, Heskett JL (1991) Enfranchisement of service workers. *Calif Manag Rev* 33(4):83–100
- Schneider B, Bowen DE (1993) The service organization: human resources management is crucial. *Org Dyn* 21(4):39–53
- Schneider B, Bowen DE (2010) *Winning the service game*. Springer, US
- Siguaw JA, Brown G, Widing RE II (1994) The influence of market orientation of the firm on sales force behavior and attitudes. *J Mark Res* 31(1):106–116
- Simons R (1991) Strategic orientation and top management attention to control systems. *Strat Manag J* 12(1):49–62
- Singh J (1998) Striking a balance in boundary-spanning positions: an investigation of some unconventional influences of role stressors and job characteristics on job outcomes of salespeople. *J Mark* 62(3):69–86
- Singh J (2000) Performance productivity and quality of frontline employees in service organizations. *J Mark* 64(2):15–34
- Smith MR, Mills MJ, Rasmussen JL, Wefald AJ, Downey RG (2012) Stress and performance: do service orientation and emotional energy moderate the relationship? *J Occup Health Psychol* 17(1):116–128
- Stajkovic AD, Luthans F (2001) Differential engagement of incentive motivators on work performance. *Acad Manag J* 44(3):580–590
- Stajkovic AD, Luthans F (2003) Behavioral management and task performance in organizations: conceptual background, meta-analysis and test of alternative models. *Pers Psychol* 56(1):155–194
- Staw BM (1976) *Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation*. General Learning Press, New York
- Surprenant CF, Solomon MR (1987) Predictability and personalization in the service encounter. *J Mark* 51(2):86–96
- Taris TW (2006) Is there a relationship between burnout and objective performance? a critical review of 16 studies. *Work Stress* 20(4):316–334
- Teng CI, Liu TW (2014) How do personality interactions affect service quality? the perspective of processing efficiency theory. *Serv Bus* 8(2):375–397
- Tse JLM, Flin R, Mearns K (2007) Facets of job effort in bus driver health: deconstructing effort in the effort—reward imbalance model. *J Occup Health Psychol* 12(1):48–62
- Varca PE (1999) Work stress and customer service delivery. *J Serv Mark* 13(3):229–241
- Vroom VH (1964) *Work and motivation*. Wiley, New York
- Walster E, Walster GW, Berscheid E (1978) *Equity: theory and research*. Allyn & Bacon, Boston
- Webb DJ, Holladay CK, Johnson S, Barron LG (2014) Organizational rewards: considering employee need in allocation. *Pers Rev* 43(1):74–95
- Wentzel D (2009) The effect of employee behavior on brand personality impressions and brand attitudes. *J Acad Mark Sci* 37(3):359–374
- Zablah AR, Franke GR, Brown TJ, Bartholomew DE (2012) How and when does customer orientation influence frontline employee job outcomes? a meta-analytic evaluation. *J Mark* 76(3):21–40