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**A SOCIAL-COGNITIVE APPROACH TO
SALESPERSON WORK MOTIVATION**

by

Lawrence Scott Silver, BA, MA, MBA, CLU, CPCU

**A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Business Administration**

**COLLEGE OF ADMINISTRATION AND BUSINESS
LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY**

August 2000

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THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

August 17, 2000

Date

We hereby recommend that the dissertation prepared under our supervision
by Lawrence Scott Silver

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Salesperson Motivation

be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to apply a social-cognitive model of motivation, used extensively in educational psychology, to a sales setting. The topic pertaining to work motivation and its importance is evidenced by the amount of research devoted to the topic. The literature examined for this study was selected from the fields of industrial/organizational psychology, educational psychology, and marketing/sales. Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions: (1) To what extent is salespeople's goal orientation determined by their implicit personality theory? (2) Do salespeople's goal orientation determine their behavior pattern? (3) Does optimism moderate the relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theory and their goal orientation? (4) Does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between salespeople's performance goal orientation and their behavior pattern? (5) Do organizational factors – control systems and organizational culture – moderate the relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theory and goal orientation?

The sampling frame for this study was 2000 randomly selected life insurance agents. The survey was conducted by sending a mail questionnaire to the study participants. The survey instrument was designed to measure the dispositional and situational factors that influence salespeople's goal orientation and selling behavior. Two mailings of the survey instrument produced 254

responses resulting in a response rate of just over 12%. Hierarchical and moderated regression analyses were used to analyze the resulting data.

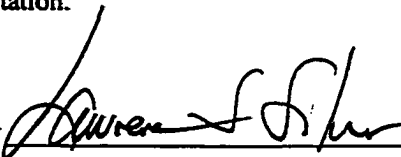
The statistical analysis revealed that salespeople's implicit personality theory did affect their mastery goal orientation and that a mastery goal orientation was associated with an adaptive behavior pattern. Support was also found for the moderating effect of sales force control systems and a market organizational culture type on salespeople's implicit personality theory-performance goal orientation relationship. Finally, marginal support was found for the moderating effect of a capability control system and a clan culture on salespeople's implicit personality theory-mastery goal orientation relationship.

Contributions of the study to the academic literature and the managerial implications of the results of the research were presented. The concluding section suggested future research in the area of salesperson work motivation.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated first to my wife and best friend – Debbie. Debbie is the source of my inspiration, the joy of my life, and the *teacher* I hope someday to be.

This dissertation is also dedicated to the seven people who make sure Debbie and I stay young – Scott, Maverick, Stephanie, Andy, Jeremy, Kandy, and Kit. Thanks, ya'!!!

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Salesperson motivation has been a primary focus in sales management research (e.g., Badovick, Hadaway, and Kaminski 1992; Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1998; Churchill and Pecotich 1982; Cron, Dubinsky, and Michaels 1988; DeCarlo, Teas, and McElroy 1986; Futrell, Parasuraman, and Sager 1983; Ingram, Lee, and Skinner 1989; Johnston and Kim 1994; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994; Tyagi 1985; Walker, Churchill, and Ford, 1977). Salesperson motivation has been modeled in terms of salesperson expectancy, attributions, and goal orientation (Ingram, Lee, and Skinner 1989; Teas and McElroy 1986; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). In sales, motivation refers to the amount of effort the salesperson desires to expend on an activity associated with the job (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1979). Thus, an understanding of the sources of salesperson motivation will aid managers in determining the effort a particular salesperson is willing to expend on a specific selling task. The motivation of salespeople has been shown to be influenced by personal and dispositional factors related to the particular salesperson (e.g., Badovick, Hadaway, and Kaminski 1992; Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1997; Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1979; Cron, Dubinsky, and Michaels 1988; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994), organizational and managerial factors

(e.g., Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998; Lee 1998; Tyagi 1982; Tyagi 1985), and the interaction between personal and organizational factors (e.g., Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1998; Ingram and Bellenger 1983; Sujan 1999). The current study applied the *social-cognitive approach to motivation*, (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997; Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Elliott and Dweck 1988; Erdley and Dweck 1993) adapted from the educational psychology literature to salespeople in a sales setting. The social-cognitive approach to motivation introduces *implicit personality theory* to extant models of salesperson motivation. Implicit personality theory is conceptually positioned as a dispositional antecedent to goal orientation. It has been shown to increase the understanding of, and explain, those factors that motivate elementary and middle school students to learn (Diener and Dweck 1980; Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Elliott and Dweck 1988; Erdley and Dweck 1993). In addition, the current study explored several dispositional and situational factors that were hypothesized to influence the social-cognitive motivational approach. Figure 1 presents a conceptual diagram of the model tested in this study.

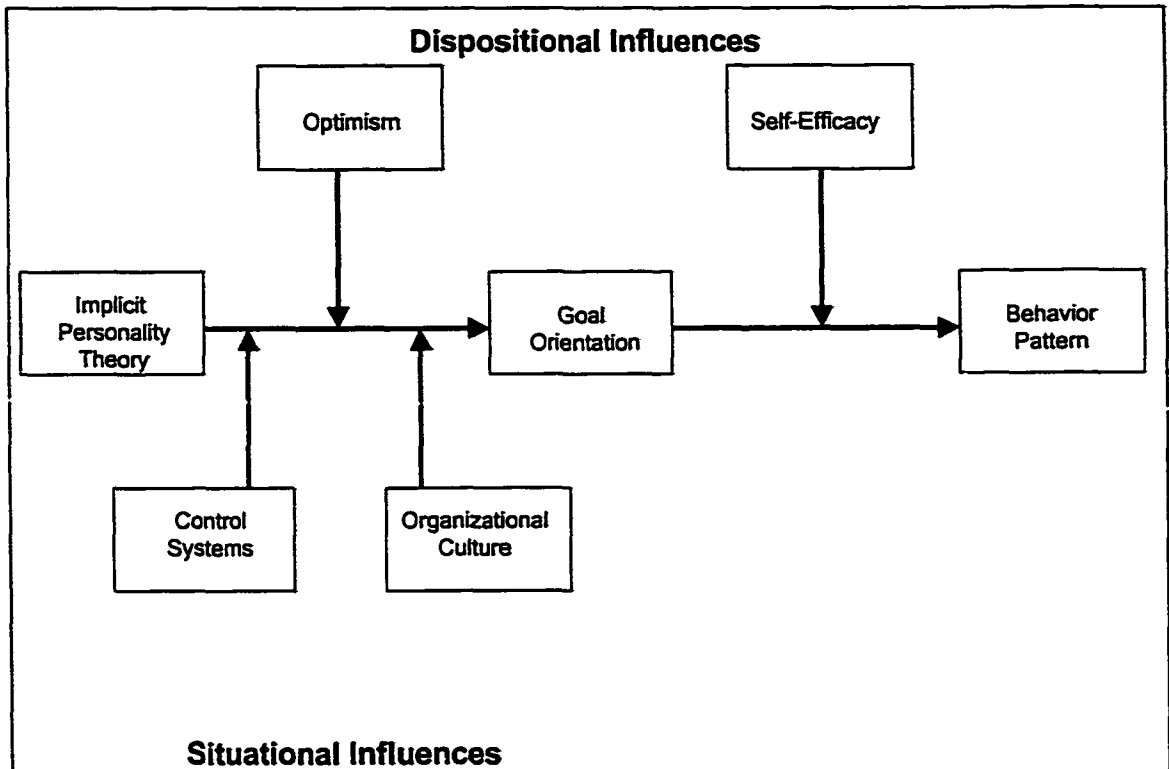


Figure 1. A Social-Cognitive Approach to Salesperson Motivation

The Importance of Personal Selling

Personal selling is an important element in a free-market economy (Fullerton 1988). This is evidenced by the fact that 18.3 million Americans are employed in sales positions (U.S. Department of Labor 1991). The salesperson is a direct reflection of the firm and its relationship with the customer (Magrath 1990) as salespeople are often the only contact that the customer has with the sales organization. From many customers' perspectives, the salesperson *is* the corporation. Thus, a firm's sales force is a fundamental element of the firm's long term success.

The importance of the sales force is underscored by the fact that it is one of the largest expenses for many firms (Behrman and Perreault 1982). For example, the average cost to the firm of one sales call is \$350 (Dartnell 1994).

Therefore, it is important for the sales force to work with maximum efficiency and effectiveness. In order for the sales force to accomplish this, salespeople need to be motivated to persist in the face of the rejection and failure that are an inevitable aspect of the selling profession. This motivation to persist is important because while some salespeople react to rejection by prospects by working harder and modifying their sales strategy (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994), other salespeople behave in maladaptive ways that reduce their chance of subsequent sales success. Maladaptive behavior can lead to *ultimate* failure, that is, “an irrevocable evaluation that continued poor performance cannot be improved [resulting in] termination and replacement” (Morris, LaForge, and Allen 1994, p. 4).

One unanswered question in sales motivation research, therefore, is why some salespeople react to rejection and failure with renewed motivation and effort (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994) while other salespeople, facing the same negative outcomes, exhibit reduced motivation and adopt behavior that involves avoiding or quitting the selling task. The different reactions or behaviors exhibited by salespeople in the face of rejection have been shown to be strongly influenced by their goal orientation (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994; Vandewalle, et al. 1999).

Central to the concept of the choice of goal orientation is the belief that goals motivate behavior (Ames and Ames 1981; Ames and Ames 1984; Ames and Archer 1988; Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1997; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Elliot and

Harackewicz 1996; Elliot and Church 1997; Elliott and Dweck 1988; Erdely and Dweck 1993; Locke 1968; Locke and Latham 1990; Locke et al. 1981; Nichols 1984; Ryska and Yin 1999; Sujan 1986; Sujan 1999; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994; VandeWalle et al. 1999). Despite the generally accepted concept that goals motivate behavior, the sales literature has not examined any dispositional antecedents to goal orientation. Goal orientation has been treated essentially as the fundamental variable from which salesperson behavior ultimately derives. The purpose of this study was to introduce to the marketing literature a more fundamental dispositional trait that may serve as an antecedent to goal orientation—implicit personality theory. Empirical findings in educational research indicate that the effect of implicit personality theory on people's goal orientation is a core element in the achievement motivation model (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Thus, this study attempted to determine the extent to which these educational findings generalize to the sales setting. In addition, other dispositional and situational factors that potentially affect the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship were explored.

Salesperson Motivation

While there are many theories of work motivation that have been applied to salespeople, three have received the most attention in the literature: expectancy-value theory (Johnston and Kim 1994), attribution theory (Teas and McElroy 1986), and goal theory (Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1997). Of these three theories, expectancy-value theory has been the dominant theory of salesperson motivation for over a decade (Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1997;

Churchill, Walker, and Ford 1997). More recently, achievement motivation theory as applied to the sales setting has been the focus of interest in the sales research literature (e.g., Sujan 1986; Sujan 1999; VandeWalle et al. 1999).

Expectancy-value theory. Expectancy-value theory, as it is applied in the sales literature, is based on Vroom's (1964) concept of valence, instrumentality, and expectancy (VIE). *Expectancy* is the belief that there is a relationship between behavior and the consequences of behavior. If a salesperson completes more sales calls in a week or works several more hours a day, he or she expects an increase in the level of sales. *Instrumentality* refers to the relationship between a change in the level of performance and the rewards associated with that performance. As the salesperson's level of sales increases, he or she expects greater rewards. The final concept of the VIE model involves the salesperson's perception of the value of the reward, that is, its reward *valence*. A salesperson may expect that increased effort will lead to an increase in performance and that the change in performance will be instrumental in achieving higher income. However, in spite of this understanding, the salesperson may decide that the reward is not commensurate with the additional effort. In other words, the reward has insufficient valence to justify the effort.

Attribution Theory. A second theory of motivation that has received considerable attention in the sales literature is attribution theory. In sales research, attribution theory asserts that salespeople are motivated by the attributions they make about the causes of outcomes or events (Weiner 1985).

Originally, attribution theory was a method by which people explained the reasons for the events that occurred around them. A person could attribute the reason for an experience to factors that were internal or external to the individual; to factors that were stable or unstable; and to factors that were specific to a particular event or to a wider range of events (Heider 1958; Kelley 1967).

Weiner (1985) developed a theory of motivation from attribution theory by incorporating expectancy-value theory into the attribution theory paradigm. According to Weiner (1985), an individual expects certain results based on the attributions he or she made about previous outcomes. In a sales setting, when the salesperson examines the outcome of a sales call, he or she attempts to determine the reason that the call was a success or a failure. If the salesperson attributes the cause of the outcome to factors that cannot be controlled or changed in the future, the salesperson will expect the same outcome in the future. On the other hand, if the causes for the outcome are attributed to factors the salesperson can control and change in the future, a different outcome can be expected. Outcomes that are perceived by the salespeople to be unchangeable will decrease their motivation to engage in similar activities in the future. Alternatively, if the outcome is perceived to be changeable, salespeople will be motivated to change their strategy and continue to pursue their objective in the future.

Goal Theory. Recently, sales researchers have shown interest in goal theory as a theory of salesperson motivation. Goal theory proposes that salespeople have

needs that can be defined in terms of goals. Motivation is enhanced when challenging goals are set for salespeople (Locke 1968). Because a salesperson is also able to act with volition, he or she is able to direct behavior toward the satisfaction of these needs. Thus, the attempt to attain a goal in order to satisfy a need directs and sustains behavior (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Locke 1968).

Another area of recent interest for sales researchers is achievement motivation theory. This theory was first conceptualized to explain young children's motivation for learning. Achievement motivation theory (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984) incorporates elements from expectancy-value, attribution, and goal theories. Similar to goal theory, achievement motivation theory proposes that goals motivate behavior. What distinguishes the two is that achievement motivation theory posits that people choose the goals they wish to pursue based on their *goal orientation*, or the approach they take in choosing goals. While a person can theoretically choose an infinite number of goals, it has been determined that, generally, goals can be categorized into one of two categories – *mastery goals* and *performance goals* (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984).

The choice of mastery goals or performance goals appears to invoke different reactions to the outcomes of events in an achievement setting. An achievement setting is one in which an individual desires to either develop and attain competence at an activity or to demonstrate competence at an activity (Hararckiewicz and Elliot 1993). Much of the original work concerning goal orientation has been done in an academic achievement setting (e.g., Ames and

Ames 1984; Ames and Archer 1988; Nichols 1984). However, recent research in the sales literature has extended the examination of the effect of goal orientation to the work achievement setting of a sales environment (Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1997; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994).

The difference in reactions based on goal orientation is particularly distinctive when an individual experiences negative outcomes or events (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984). People with a mastery goal orientation will, in the face of difficult challenges or failures, adopt a behavior pattern of persistence, renewed effort, and improved strategy. This response has been described as an *adaptive* behavior pattern (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995). An adaptive behavior pattern is characterized by seeking challenging tasks and persisting in the face of difficulty.

It is proposed that salespeople's goal orientations will influence their reactions to negative outcomes such as failure. Like those examined in an educational setting (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Nichols 1984), salespeople with a mastery goal orientation should adopt an adaptive behavior pattern. That is, when mastery-oriented salespeople experience negative events, they will renew their effort and re-focus their strategy in order to achieve success in the future.

On the other hand, in the face of difficult challenges or failures, people with a performance goal orientation have been found to engage in low levels of adaptive behavior, that is, in *maladaptive* or helpless behavior (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978; Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Erdley and Dweck

1993). Thus, a maladaptive behavior pattern is the polar opposite of an adaptive behavior pattern. Maladaptive behavior is characterized by task avoidance, quitting a task, or rationalizing that a successful outcome on the task is not important.

For salespeople, the adoption of a maladaptive behavior pattern was posited to result in the avoidance of challenging sales situations, insufficient persistence when dealing with a difficult sale, and possibly leaving the firm. The adoption of a maladaptive behavior pattern has, in fact, been shown to negatively impact the tenure and performance of life insurance salespeople (Corr and Gray 1996).

It has been shown empirically in both the psychological and the sales literature that self-efficacy influences the relationship between a performance goal orientation and behavior (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). Self-efficacy is a person's belief about his or her ability to successfully perform a specific task (Bandura 1989; Gardner and Pierce 1998). However, performance goal-oriented people choose only those tasks that they believe they can successfully accomplish. Therefore, the performance goal-oriented person's self-efficacy is critical in deciding which goals to pursue. Since mastery-oriented people choose tasks independently of their belief about their ability to perform the task, self-efficacy does not influence their goal choice-behavior relationship. Performance goal-oriented people with high levels of self-efficacy tend to choose, at least initially, an adaptive behavior pattern. In contrast, performance goal oriented people with low levels of self-efficacy

exhibit a maladaptive behavior pattern (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984). Thus, self-efficacy moderates the relationship between performance orientation and adaptive behavior pattern.

Implicit Personality Theory

In the last several decades, educational psychologists began to question whether some dispositional factor that predisposes a person to a certain goal orientation existed (Chiu, Hong and Dweck 1997; Dweck 1990; Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Dweck, Chiu and Hong 1995; Dweck, Hong and Chiu 1993; Elliott and Dweck 1988). This research led to the discovery of a personality characteristic known as *implicit personality theory* that has significant implications for motivation in an achievement setting.

An implicit personality theory is a personality construct that organizes how a person views the world (Dweck and Leggett 1988). The underlying theory supporting the implicit personality construct is derived from the work of (Kelly 1955) and Heider (1958). According to Kelly, a major component of an individual's personality includes "naïve assumptions" about the self and the social world. These naïve assumptions, held by everyone, influence the way in which individuals process and understand information. Similarly, Heider (1958) proposed that people act as "naïve psychologists" and that their beliefs influence the way in which they perceive themselves and others. Implicit personality theory combines the Kelly (1955) and Heider (1958) concepts. Thus, implicit personality theory is a dispositional characteristic of people that is believed to influence people's "inference, judgments, and reactions, particularly

in the face of negative events” (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995, p. 267). These personality theories are held by everyone and are implicit in the sense that they are not easily articulated nor fully understood by the people that hold them. This presents a challenge to behavioral scientists in identifying implicit theories and determining their effects. It is the effect of implicit personality theory on salesperson goal orientation and subsequent behavior that is the focal point of this study.

An individual’s implicit personality theory falls along a continuum that measures the degree to which human traits are perceived to be fixed. Anchoring the upper end of the continuum is the belief that human traits are malleable and changeable while beliefs at the other extreme are that human traits are fixed and unchangeable. Thus, people predominately hold one of two implicit personality theories: *incremental* theory or *entity* theory. As previously mentioned, the implicit personality theory an individual holds is a stable characteristic of that person. That is, implicit personality theory is a disposition of the individual. Additionally, Dweck and Leggett (1988) state that implicit personality theory determines, to a large extent, a person’s goal orientation. This suggests that one’s implicit personality theory has potentially important motivational consequences for individuals in general and, in particular, for salespeople. However, implicit personality theory has not been examined in a sales setting.

The addition of implicit personality theory to the achievement motivation model introduces a second social element in addition to self-efficacy to the

model. That is, it adds a personality characteristic that is universally possessed. Specifically, the motivational process is proposed to be *implicit personality theory* → *I orientation* → *behavior* (Dweck and Leggett 1988).

Optimism. Recent motivational research in psychology and sales has begun to consider optimism an important motivational factor (Scheier, Carver, and Bridges 1994; Seligman 1991; Strutton and Lumpkin 1993; Sujan 1999; Taylor and Brown 1988; Van Calster, Lens, and Nuttin 1987) and a possible dispositional antecedent to goal orientation (Sujan 1999). Optimists are people who tend to hold positive expectations of the future (Scheier and Carver 1985). In other words, optimists believe that the goals they value in life will be achieved and that negative events are more likely to occur to other people. Additionally, when optimists are faced with negative events, they tend to interpret these events in a positive manner (Taylor and Brown 1988).

In dispositional contrast to optimists are pessimists. Pessimists have negative expectations about the future and believe that they are more likely to experience negative events than are others. Optimism and pessimism are thus two ends of a continuum. Individuals predominately hold one of the two outlooks (Scheier and Carver 1992; Taylor and Brown 1988).

Optimism has been proposed as a moderating influence on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship (Sujan 1999). The moderating effect of optimism is caused by the optimist's ability to positively reinterpret negative outcomes. While this position has only been addressed conceptually in the sales literature, there is some evidence of an effect of optimism on the

implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship in the educational psychology literature. Dweck and Bempechat (1983) found in a qualitative research study that children with an incremental personality theory were more optimistic than were children with an entity personality theory. Dweck and Leggett (1988) reported similar results in a review of studies concerning implicit personality theory and goal orientation. These findings led Sujan (1999) to propose that optimism may also be an antecedent to an incremental theory.

Despite these qualitative reports, empirical findings indicate that implicit personality theory is *not* correlated with dispositional optimism as measured by Dweck and her colleagues (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988).

It is reasonable to assume that optimism is an integral part of a sales setting (Strutton and Lumpkin 1993; Sujan 1999). For example, optimism has been found to aid salespeople in coping with sales-related stress. Specifically, optimistic salespeople were more likely to develop a problem-solving strategy than were pessimistic salespeople. Additionally, optimistic salespeople reinterpreted negative events in a positive manner, and took more responsibility for their actions than did pessimistic salespeople (Strutton and Lumpkin 1993). The qualitative research of Dweck and Leggett (1988) coupled with the empirical findings of Strutton and Lumpkin (1993) indicate that optimism has some influence on salesperson motivation and behavior. Since optimism, like implicit personality theory, is a dispositional characteristic, it seems likely that optimism's influence on salesperson behavior precedes the salesperson's

choice of goal orientation. Thus, the potential of optimism to moderate the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship will be explored in this study. The possibility that optimism is an antecedent to goal orientation cannot be excluded, however.

Situational Factors

The psychology literature has long argued that the relationship between dispositional factors and behavior is moderated by the demands of the situation (Barrick and Mount 1993; Bem and Allen 1974; Bem and Funder 1978; Chatman 1989; Monson, Hesley, and Chernick 1982). That is, people's personality characteristics will predict behaviors to the extent that people are free to act without environmental restrictions. It has been previously proposed that implicit personality theory, as a personality trait, influences goal orientation that, in turn, influences behavior. Thus, goal orientation *mediates* the relationship between dispositions and behavior. Since situational factors affect disposition-*behavior* relationships, then situational factors should also influence the disposition-*goal orientation* relationship.

It is the strength or demands of the situation that influences the degree of moderation on the disposition-behavior relationship. That is, the extent to which people's dispositions predict their behavior depends on the extent to which the environment limits their freedom to behave in characteristic ways. Situational factors can be *strong* in the sense that they restrict the range of behaviors in which people feel they are willing or able to engage (Barrick and Mount 1993). In contrast, situational factors can be *weak* in that people perceive more

freedom in their behavior. Thus, the extent to which situational factors inhibit the individual from acting in ways that are consistent with his or her disposition dictates the degree to which situational factors will moderate the disposition-behavior relationship (Barrick and Mount 1993; House, Shane, and Herold 1996).

Situational factors have been found to influence an individual's goal orientation in an educational setting (Ames and Archer 1988; Ames 1992) as well as in a sales setting (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Situational factors have also been found to interact with dispositions in influencing goal orientation (Button, Mathieu, and Zajac 1996; Dweck and Leggett 1988). Thus, the effect of three organizational factors that are theoretically linked to the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship were examined with respect to salespeople. These organizational factors—control systems, organizational culture, and learning organization—will be discussed next

Control systems. A control system is the organization's set of procedures for "monitoring, directing, evaluating and compensating its employees" (Anderson and Oliver 1987, p. 76). Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) found that the emphasis that supervisors placed on certain managerial behaviors affected the goal orientation of salespeople. However, Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla noted that a limitation of their study was the fact that dispositional factors of the salesperson were not examined.

Research by Duda and Nichols (1992) and Elliott and Dweck (1988) has found that situational factors such as classroom structure and the influence of

the teacher *interact* with dispositional determinants of goal orientation in a classroom achievement setting. Similar results by Button, Mathieu, and Zajac (1996) have supported a dispositional-situational interaction effect on goal orientation in an organizational setting.

Salespeople enter the profession of selling with certain dispositional characteristics such as an implicit personality theory that predispose them to a particular goal orientation. In consonance with the work of Duda and Nichols (1992), Elliott and Dweck (1988), and Button, Mathieu, and Zajac (1996), it seems plausible that a situational factor such as the sales force control system influences the relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theory and goal orientation. Thus, the effect of control systems that was found to be a direct influence on goal orientation by Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) may instead *moderate* the predisposition of implicit personality theory to determine goal orientation. Alternatively, control systems may act as a quasi-moderator in this relationship. That is, control systems may interact with implicit personality theory while at the same time relate to goal orientation (Sharma, Durand, and Gur-Arie 1981). This relationship has not yet been empirically tested, however. The current study sought to fill this void.

Sales supervisors are oriented toward one of three control system orientations—end-results, activity, and capability (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). End-results oriented supervisors focus on the end-result, that is, the sales outcomes of their salespeople. Additionally, end-results supervisors possess a *laissez-faire* management style leaving salespeople free

to choose the methods they will use to achieve the stated sales goals (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998).

Activity oriented supervisors are concerned with the routine and habitual activities of a salesperson. This concern for routine activities leads the activity-oriented supervisor to monitor the day-to-day activities of their salespeople. These activities may include the number of sales calls made in a week, servicing customers, and completing required paperwork.

Capability oriented supervisors manage salespeople by helping them improve their sales skills and abilities. These improvements may include better sales presentations and more effective prospecting methods. The capability-oriented supervisor is seen as a coach or mentor to the salesperson. This requires working closely with each individual salesperson in order to become aware of the salespersons' strengths and weaknesses.

Organizational Culture. The sales firm's organizational culture serves as a situational factor that is likely to influence the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship. As discussed in Chapter II, organizational culture describes patterns of behavior in an organization. That is, organizational culture explains "why things happen the way they do" within a firm (Deshpandè, Farley and Webster 1993, p. 23). Further, organizational culture teaches employees, including salespeople, the norms of the organization and how people are expected to behave while members of the organization. Thus, the culture of the organization *guides* behavior.

In the model adopted in this study, four types of organizational culture are recognized—clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market (Deshpandè, Farley, and Webster 1993; Quinn and Spreitzer 1991). The four culture types are differentiated by their level of flexibility and spontaneity versus their levels of control, order, and stability as well as by their internal versus external orientation. Clan cultures have a great deal of flexibility and spontaneity and are internally oriented. Adhocracy cultures share the flexibility and spontaneity but are externally oriented. Cultures that exhibit hierarchy traits are internally oriented and emphasize control, order, and stability. Market cultures are similar to hierarchy cultures in order, control, and stability but are externally oriented.

The relationship between organizational culture, implicit personality theory, and salesperson goal orientation has not yet been examined in the marketing literature. However, certain organizational cultures are theoretically more likely to encourage one goal orientation over another. The evidence is based on parallel reasoning linking aspects of a mastery oriented classroom as described by Ames (1992) and the four types of culture described previously (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Deshpandè, Farley, and Webster 1993).

People begin in early childhood to form personality characteristics that influence their choice of goal orientation. These characteristics are relatively stable throughout their lifetime (Dweck and Leggett 1988; House, Shane, and Herold 1996). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that salespeople enter an organizational culture with personality characteristics held since early an early age. The organization's culture should exert its influence on goal orientation by

interacting with an individual's dispositional characteristics. That is, the situational factor, in this case organizational culture, is believed to moderate the disposition-goal orientation relationship (Barrick and Mount 1993). This relationship was explored in the current study.

Need for Further Research

It can be seen from the above discussion that the sales literature has examined the effect of goal orientation on salesperson behavior (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994) and salesperson performance (Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1998). In addition, the sales literature has explored the effect of a situational factor, supervisory control orientation, on salesperson goal orientation (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). The work represented by these studies has greatly enhanced researchers' understanding of salesperson motivation. However, this research stream requires further exploration and extension.

This study proposes to fill the gap in the current literature by investigating the effect of the dispositional characteristic of implicit personality theory on salespeople's goal orientation. This model is a *social-cognitive* model and posits that an individual's personality characteristics influence the cognitive process of goal orientation. Goal orientation then determines behavior and aspects of the goal orientation-behavior relationship are modified by the social construct of self-efficacy. The effect of dispositional optimism on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship will also be explored.

The psychology literature proposes that situational factors affect goal orientation only to the extent that they moderate the relationship between a

person's dispositional characteristics and goal orientation (Barrick and Mount 1993). Thus, the current study will explore the effects of three key situational factors – sales force control systems, organizational culture, and learning organization – on salespeople's implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship.

Statement of the Problem

Little, if any, research has investigated the effect of dispositions on salespeople's choice of goal orientation. More specifically, there has been no research conducted in a sales setting that has studied implicit personality theory as an antecedent to goal orientation. Yet, this relationship has been firmly established in the psychology literature. Thus, this study will examine the extent to which implicit personality theory determines salespeople's goal orientation. An understanding of the effect of personality on goal orientation is important because goal orientation is considered a primary motivator for key behaviors (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984). Additionally, the effect of dispositional optimism on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship will also be explored. Further, two situational factors – control systems and organizational culture – that are believed to be moderators of the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship will be investigated. In summary, this paper will examine the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship and the effects of key dispositional and situational factors on this relationship. These relationships are graphically depicted in Figure 1.

Objectives of the Study

The primary objective of this study was to test the affect of implicit personality theory on the goal orientation of salespeople. Additionally, the influence of key dispositional and situational factors on the implicit personality theory–goal orientation relationship was examined. Finally, the relationship between goal orientation and salesperson behavior pattern was tested. Each of the above relationships was examined using multivariate statistical techniques.

Theoretical Contributions

As previously mentioned, it is believed that people's goal orientation motivates them to behave in response to the outcomes of events in their lives. It why, when two people of equal ability are faced with challenge, one succeeds and the other fails (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984). The sales literature has examined the influence of goal orientation on sales performance (VandeWalle et al. 1999) and goal orientation on salesperson behavior (Sujan 1986; Sujan, Weitz and Kumar 1994; Weitz, Sujan and Sujan 1986). However, while the importance of goal orientation in relation to salesperson motivation has been tested and established, sales research has failed to consider dispositional antecedents to goal orientation. In contrast, the educational psychology literature indicates that there is a personality trait that predisposes a person to one of the two goal orientations. The introduction of a personality trait as a possible antecedent to goal orientation adds a social component to the achievement motivation model. If there is indeed a commonly held personality trait that predetermines goal orientation, traditional motivation

models need to be reexamined in light of this finding. This study sought, first, to fill the theoretical gap in the sales literature by examining implicit personality theory as an antecedent influence on goal orientation. Secondly, a set of potential moderating influences on the implicit personality theory–goal orientation relationship were also investigated to more effectively assess implicit personality theory’s influence in a sales context.

Managerial Contributions

As stated above, the goals people choose motivate their behavior. Therefore, sales managers’ knowledge of how salespeople choose their goal orientation is especially important because goal choice determines salespeople’s motivation. The effect of goal choice on motivation is especially critical when a person faces a negative outcome (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984). Negative events such as rejection and failure are common in personal selling. Often, repeated rejection and failure causes the salesperson to experience ultimate failure and to leave the profession altogether. Ultimate failure is costly for the firm in terms of lost sales due to vacant territories, increased training costs, and increased costs due to additional recruitment and selection (Morris, LaForge, and Allen 1994). Sales managers and their firms would thus benefit from an understanding of how their salespeople’s goal orientation is determined.

This study proposed that implicit personality theory is a primary determinant of salesperson goal orientation. Goal orientation, in turn, influences the behavior a salesperson will adopt when faced with rejection by prospects. A

mastery goal orientation has been found to be positively related to salesperson performance (VandeWalle et al. 1999). Thus, the ability to identify a salesperson's implicit personality theory may provide sales managers with a valuable tool in the recruitment, selection, and training process.

The effect of optimism on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship was also explored in this study. It has been found that salespeople who are optimistic are better equipped, emotionally, to handle stress than are pessimistic salespeople (Strutton and Lumpkin 1993). It has been proposed that optimism influences the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship and that optimism may even be an antecedent to a mastery goal orientation (Sujan 1999). Therefore, in addition to a salesperson's implicit personality theory, sales managers may well benefit from knowing the degree of optimism held by a potential hire.

The situational factors considered—control systems, organizational culture, and learning organization—may also affect the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship (Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Dweck and Leggett 1988). Different types of sales force control systems and organizational cultures may affect salespeople's predisposition to one goal orientation or the other. Since control systems and organizational culture are, to a large extent, under the control of management, adjustments to the organizational culture or sales force control system can be made to foster a mastery goal orientation. Therefore, knowledge of the antecedents to goal orientation can improve recruitment, selection, and management of the sales force. Sales managers

that understand the organizational environment that encourages a particular goal orientation can undertake the necessary steps to create that environment. The desired and ultimate result is reduced cost due to sales force failure and increased sales force effectiveness.

Plan of Study

A study of implicit personality theory as an antecedent to goal orientation and the effect of other dispositional and situational factors on this relationship were conducted to aid both academicians and sales managers. Literature from psychology, management, and sales, supporting the model (organizational culture, control systems, implicit personality theory, optimism, goal orientation, and behavior patterns) is presented in Chapter II, Literature Review. Information with respect to data collection techniques, the sample, hypotheses, and statistical methodology are presented in Chapter III, Research Methodology. The results of the tests of the hypothesis and overall model are included in Chapter IV, Presentation and Analysis of Data. Finally, conclusions from the study, managerial implications of the study, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research are in Chapter V, Discussion and Implications.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This study examined the causal antecedents of salesperson motivation. A social-cognitive approach to motivation known as *achievement motivation theory* is the basis for the study. In achievement motivation theory, goal orientation is the primary motivational factor. Recent motivational research has posited that there are dispositional characteristics of individuals that possibly precede goal orientation. One such dispositional characteristic is known as *implicit personality theory*. This study explored the relationship between salesperson implicit personality theory, goal orientation, and salesperson behavior patterns. The theoretical foundation for this study was adapted from the industrial/organizational, educational, and social psychology literature. This literature will be reviewed and, subsequently, tied to the sales management literature. Theoretical links between these concepts and salesperson behavior will be more specifically explicated in Chapter III.

The review of the literature has four main sections. The first section is a brief overview of the dominant theories of motivation in the sales literature. In the second section, the social-cognitive approach to goal orientation that serves as the basis for this study is reviewed. This approach introduces the concept of *implicit personality theory* and its affect on salesperson motivation. The third

section presents a dispositional factor—optimism—that is believed to moderate the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship. Section four presents two situational factors that conceivably influence the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship.

Motivation

Motivation is a general construct that encompasses all of the events that move an individual to action (Bandura 1990; Kanfer 1990). More specifically, "motivation concerns the conditions responsible for variations in intensity, quality, and direction of ongoing behavior" (Vinacke 1962). In sales, motivation has been defined as the amount of effort the salesperson desires to expend on each activity or task associated with the job (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1979; Churchill, Walker, and Ford 1997; Ford, Churchill, and Walker 1985). Because motivation is not directly observable, it is typically explained in terms of the *choices of courses of action* an individual makes and the *intensity and persistence* of effort in pursuing the chosen courses of action (Kanfer 1990; Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1977; Weiner 1992). Theories of motivation, then, generally attempt to answer the question: What do individuals want, need, and value? (Dweck 1990).

Understanding motivation requires an understanding of the sources of motivation and any factors that may mediate or moderate the relationship between motivation and action (Bandura 1990). The object of motivation research, in fact, is to understand how the individual determines the "selection,

activation, and sustained direction of behavior toward certain goals" (Bandura 1990, p. 69).

Motivation lies at the core of psychology (Dweck 1990). As such, motivation has been the focal construct of a number of theoretical models in the psychology literature that seek to explain and project why people behave as they do. The predominant motivational models used in the sales literature are the cognitive models of *expectancy-value theory*, *attribution theory*, and *goal theory* (Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1997; Churchill, Walker, and Ford 1997). This study takes a social-cognitive approach to motivation that incorporates elements of each of these three theories. Each approach to motivation is discussed below along with the relevant conceptual and empirical applications found in the sales literature.

Cognitive Approaches to Motivation

Attribution Theory

Attribution theory assumes that individuals are motivated to "attain a cognitive mastery of the causal structure of [the] environment" (Kelley 1967) p. 193. People observe events and then attribute reasons for, or *causes* of, the events. Causes are determined if the factors surrounding one event are present in similar events or if certain factors are absent when a series of similar events take place (Heider 1958). This is known as the principal of *covariation*. That is, events and their causes covary. It is this covariance that allows the individual to assign a cause to an outcome.

An individual can determine the covariance of causes and events if the causes are distinctive, have consensus, and are consistent across time and modality. *Distinctive* causes are those that separate one event from another. *Consensus* refers to the experience of the event as perceived by other people. If other people perceive similar causes for an event, the outcome has consensus. Finally, for an outcome and a cause to be connected, the relationship must hold across time and in different situations (Kelley 1967).

The causes one attributes to an event have been categorized into different *causal dimensions*. A classification of causal dimensions provides a means of comparison between various causal explanations. This is important since for any event there may be a number of possible causal explanations. Causal dimensions include internal/external dimensions (Heider 1958), stable/unstable dimensions, controllable/uncontrollable dimensions (Weiner 1985), and specific/global dimensions (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978). Each causal dimension exists as a continuum rather than as a dichotomy (Heider 1958; Kelley 1967; Weiner and Kukla 1970). It is the relative position along these dimensions' continuums that is important in understanding how people explain the events that they observe.

Heider (1958) proposed the first, and at that time only, causal dimension of *internal/external*. This dimension refers to whether a cause is attributed to some characteristic within the individual or to some factor outside of the individual. An individual may attribute success at a task to an internal factor

such as ability or effort or, alternatively, to an external factor such as luck or an easy task.

A second dimension, *stable/unstable*, was offered by Weiner et al. (1971) because it was observed that some internal causes appeared to be stable or unchangeable while others were unstable and more variable. Weiner et al. (1971) reasoned that an individual's ability was a fixed internal characteristic while a person's health, always subject to change, was an unstable characteristic. An individual could, for example, attribute failure on a task to an internal, stable factor such as lack of ability or an internal, unstable factor such as an illness.

The third causal dimension is the *controllable/uncontrollable* dimension. This dimension recognizes that some internal factors, such as effort, are under the volitional control of the individual while other factors, such as mood or fatigue, are not under the individual's direct control. By definition, factors that are *external* are not controllable by the individual. However, external dimensions of causality can nevertheless be considered controllable when all of the actors involved in an event are considered. For example, one's performance evaluation in a job setting may be due to one's effort at work (*internal/controllable*) and the manager's perception of the worker (*external/controllable*) (Weiner 1992). In other words, the evaluation is controllable together by the individual and by the manager.

A final causal dimension is the *specific/global* dimension of causality (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978). Attributions that fall into to a narrow

range of situations are specific causal dimensions while attributions within a broader range of situations are considered global dimensions. Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale (1978) give the example of a student who fails a math test. The student may attribute the failure to poor math ability (specific) or to low intelligence (global).

Attribution Theory as a Theory of Motivation

Weiner (1985) developed attribution theory from a theory that explained how people explain their environment into a theory of individual motivation. The process of individuals explaining their environment involves observing the outcomes of behavior, assigning attributions to that behavior and, based on those attributions, developing an expectancy of future outcomes. This expectancy about future outcomes influences, and thus motivates, behavior.

The attribution theory-based motivation process suggests that a person interprets the outcome of an event as either the attainment or non-attainment of a goal. Once this is determined, the second stage of the sequence involves undertaking a search for the cause of the event's outcome. If one has failed at a task, for example, one will ask the question, "Why did I do so poorly?" The answer to this question falls within one or more of the four causal dimensions of attribution theory—internal/external, stable/unstable, controllable/uncontrollable, and specific/global.

The third stage in the motivation process involves the individual determining the link between the observed outcome and the perceived causal dimensions. The cause ascribed to the outcome of the event determines future

expectancy and the emotional reaction to, or feeling about, the event. In short, this process is:

observation of an outcome → causal search → assign attribution → develop expectancy → motivation for future behavior.

It is the stability and specificity dimensions that primarily influence expectancy about future outcomes (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978; Weiner 1985). If one attributes the failure of goal attainment to a stable, recurring cause, it can be assumed that there will be failure in the future since the cause of the failure is not anticipated to change. On the other hand, if the cause is attributed to an unstable factor, there is always the possibility that the factor may change in the future, leading to a different outcome. If the failure is attributed to a global situation, that is, the attributed cause exists across all situations, it can also be assumed that all such endeavors will fail in the future. Alternatively, failure attributed to a specific situation offers hope that future efforts would be rewarded because the situation will change.

The internal/external and controllability dimensions play an important role in determining the individual's affective reaction to the outcome of an event. An internal ascription to failure will lower self-esteem and possibly induce shame. If the ascription is also perceived to be controllable by the actor, the failure might lead to guilt (Weiner 1985).

In summary, people observe the outcomes of their behavior and that of others. They then assign an attribution or causal dimension for the observed behavior. This attribution then becomes the basis for the expectancy of future outcomes of similar behavior. If, for example, the attribution for a failure is

perceived to be due to internal/stable/controllable/global dimensions, the individual will expect failure in the future on similar tasks and will likely avoid those tasks. On the other hand, if success is attributed to the same causal dimensions, the individual will expect success in the future and will seek out similar tasks.

As previously discussed, attributions influence one's motivation. One focused stream of research in this area deals with the concept of *learned helplessness* (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978). Learned helplessness, which is also known as a maladaptive behavior pattern, is the concept that certain attributions, if repeatedly employed by an individual, will teach that person to "learn" to become de-motivated. This notion of learned helplessness is discussed next.

Learned Helplessness

Learned helplessness is the "perceived inability to surmount failure" (Diener and Dweck 1978, p. 451). When an individual perceives that outcomes are no longer controllable, a motivational deficit will result. If a person believes that his or her actions are unlikely to achieve an outcome, then the probability of trying to alter the outcome decreases (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978). It is important to note that whether or not the person actually can influence the outcome of an event is not relevant. It is the individual's *perception* of his or her ability to alter an outcome that is pertinent.

The concept of learned helplessness can best be illustrated with an experiment conducted by Hiroto and Seligman (1975). In the experiment,

college student volunteers were divided into three groups. Group one, the control group, received a loud noise that could be terminated by pushing a button four times. A second group had no control over ending the noise; the noise stopped independently of any action taken. The third group heard no noise at all.

In the second phase of the experiment, each group was given control over the noise. Moving a lever from one side of the box to the other would turn off the noise. The first group that had been able to control the noise and the third group that had not received any noise were both able to turn off the noise, both of which did so. Significantly, most members of the second group that previously were unable to control the noise did not attempt to terminate the noise; instead, they sat and listened passively. Thus, despite the fact that they had the ability to turn off the noise, the second group had "learned" that they were "helpless" and acted accordingly (Hiroto and Seligman 1975).

The cornerstone of learned helplessness is the concept that uncontrollable outcomes result in three deficits to the individual: motivational, cognitive, and emotional (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978). In terms of motivation, the deficit lies in the fact that the person's initiation of a volitional response to control a situation is retarded because he or she does not believe the response will accomplish the task. A cognitive deficit is also present in that subsequent learning that would control the situation is impeded. That is, the person does not believe that he or she can learn what is necessary to improve

his or her skills. Finally, the emotional deficit results in a depressive state when one realizes that outcomes cannot be controlled.

The relationship of learned helplessness to attribution theory is tied to the fact that when people learn that they are helpless to control the situation, they will ask *why* they are helpless; that is they will seek a causal attribution for the unattained outcome (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978; Wong and Weiner 1981). The causal attribution will determine how chronic or ingrained the helplessness is (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978). It has been proposed that the degree of perceived helplessness is a function of attribution theory's internal/external, stable/unstable, and global/specific causal dimensions discussed earlier (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978; Schulman 1999; Seligman 1991).

In terms of the internal/external causal dimension, when people believe that outcomes are also likely to occur to other people, the attribution is considered external. The attribution is internal if it is believed is that the outcome is more likely to happen to the individual than to others. An example in a sales context can illustrate this concept. If a salesperson believes that the monthly sales quota is set so high that no one will meet it, the attribution is external. That is, the quota is unreasonable because neither the salesperson nor his or her peers can achieve it. On the other hand, if the salesperson fails to meet quota while the rest of the sales force meets it, the attribution is internal. The failure to attain quota resides within the salesperson. This failure to meet a quota that other salespeople are able to meet causes the salesperson to "learn"

that his or her actions will not change the outcome. That is, the salesperson has learned that he or she is helpless in this situation.

Second, individuals will become "helpless" if they believe that the cause of their failure is stable rather than unstable. For example, an attribution for failure due to poor ability, an inherent and stable attribute, may lead a person to believe that there is little hope of any change in the future. In contrast, an attribution due to lack of effort, a variable and, as such, unstable attribute, provides hope for future success.

The learned helplessness paradigm posits that the third causal dimension is a continuum anchored by the terms specific and global. The specific/global dimension has received little support outside of the proponents of learned helplessness, it should be noted (Wiener 1985). An attribution due to a specific cause indicates that the observed outcome falls within a narrow range of situations. An attribution due to a global outcome indicates that the cause exists across a broader range of contexts. For example, a student may attribute failure on an exam to a specific cause such as a lack of mathematical ability. In contrast, the student may attribute failure to a more global cause such as a lack of intelligence. The former attribution applies only to mathematics tests while the latter attribution applies to all measures of academic achievement (Weiner 1992).

Criticisms of Attribution Theory

There are three important criticisms of attribution theory as a theory of motivation (Bandura 1990; Dweck and Leggett 1988). The first criticism

contends that attribution theory is actually bi-directional rather than unidirectional as proposed by Weiner (1985) (Bandura 1990). Specifically, Bandura (1990) maintains that the emotional feedback loop of attribution theory influences self-esteem and that self-esteem, in turn, biases causal attributions. For example, individuals with high self-esteem attribute their failures to a lack of effort as opposed to a lack of ability. This perceived lack of effort might lead to a feeling of guilt (Weiner 1985). The guilt, in turn, influences the individual's self esteem which biases the original attribution. Thus, people with high self-esteem reinforce their self-esteem by choosing attributions that are consistent with their self-perception.

Dweck and Leggett (1988) offer two additional criticisms of attribution theory as a theory of motivation. One criticism suggests that there is a more basic cognitive process that gives rise to attributions than asking "why" to explain the outcome of events. As opposed to recognizing attributions as a motivator for behavior, Dweck and Leggett (1988) view attributions as part of a behavior pattern that has been influenced by other factors. These factors will be discussed in a later section.

A second criticism relates to the stability and controllability dimensions discussed earlier. In classical attribution theory certain traits or characteristics of the individual are believed to be unchangeable and uncontrollable. An example of such a trait is intelligence (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Weiner 1985). However, Dweck and Leggett (1988) argue that all traits and characteristics of a person

are malleable and, to some extent, under the control of the individual. These two propositions are discussed in more detail in a later section.

A full understanding of attribution theory as a theory of motivation requires a discussion of attribution theory's relationship to expectancy-value theory (Weiner 1985). As will be discussed, the theories are closely related in the sales literature. As such, a discussion of expectancy theory will be presented before attribution theory's contribution to the salesperson motivation literature is presented.

Expectancy Theory

The second major area of motivational research is *expectancy theory*, also known as *expectancy-value* theory (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Atkinson 1964; Rotter 1966; Vroom 1964). While a number of variations of expectancy theory exist, two concepts form its theoretical foundation. The first, simply put, is that certain behaviors will lead to certain outcomes. The second concept suggests that a person's desire or effort to achieve an outcome is based on the value that the person places on the outcome.

Researchers have explained the relationship between expectancy theory and a person's value of an outcome in terms of the possible antecedents that determine the value of outcomes (Bandura 1990). For example, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) posit that the social pressure an individual feels in a given situation causes that person to engage in behavior that conforms to certain social norms. In other words, people value outcomes that are valued by others and adjust their expectancy accordingly. Atkinson (1964) states that a person's

need for achievement influences expectancy and outcome values. (Rotter 1966) suggests that there is a *behavior-effort* relationship; that is, that the individual believes that action can control outcomes and determines expectancy based on the amount of effort that is to be expended at a task.

The most widely used model of expectancy theory in the sales literature incorporates Vroom's (1964) *valence, instrumentality, and expectancy* (VIE) model (Ingram, Lee, and Skinner 1989). The foundation of this model is that the salesperson recognizes a connection between effort and reward. The amount of effort that the salesperson will spend on a particular task is determined by three sets of perceptions:

- (1) Expectancy – the perceived linkages between expending more effort on a particular task and achieving improved performance;
- (2) Instrumentality – the perceived relationship between improved performance and the attainment of increased rewards; and
- (3) Valence for rewards – the perceived attractiveness of the various rewards the salesperson might receive (Churchill 1979)

Each element of this model is discussed below.

Expectancy. Expectancy is the salesperson's perceived link between effort and performance . The salesperson determines the expectancy by determining the probability that a certain change in level of effort will lead to a change in performance. For example, a salesperson might verbalize an expectancy by saying, "If I spend an extra two hours a day on the phone making sales calls [effort], there is a 50 percent chance [expectancy] that my new customer sales will increase by 15 percent [performance]."

There are two dimensions to salespeople's expectancy—magnitude and accuracy (Churchill, Walker, and Ford 1997). The *magnitude* of expectancy is the degree to which the salesperson believes that expending effort on a particular job activity will lead to a change in performance. If the salesperson has a high magnitude of expectancy, he or she will be more likely to expend effort in the hope of improving performance.

Accuracy of expectancy refers to the degree to which the salesperson understands the link between effort on a task and the resulting change in performance. If expectancy is inaccurate, the salesperson may expend a great deal of effort on a task that does not significantly influence performance. Hard work alone is not sufficient for improved performance. It is also necessary for the salesperson to work on the tasks that will be the most productive in improving performance.

Instrumentality. The link the salesperson makes between performance and rewards is known as instrumentality (Churchill 1979; Tyagi 1985) In other words, the salesperson determines the probability that an increase in performance will lead to an increase in rewards. Rewards, for example, include increased pay, winning contests, and promotion.

As with expectancy, the magnitude and accuracy of the salesperson's instrumentality is important. A high magnitude means that the salesperson perceives there is a high probability of gaining increased rewards after improving sales performance. The magnitude influences the salesperson's willingness to expend the necessary effort to improve performance.

Salespeople also need to accurately understand the link between performance and reward. If a salesperson has an accurate perception of the performance-reward linkage, he or she will put forth effort on those tasks that directly affect performance. If the perception is inaccurate, the salesperson may expend effort on tasks that do not lead to increased rewards. In the latter case, a salesperson may become discouraged and believe that no amount of work will lead to desired rewards.

Valence. A valence is the desirability of a reward (Vroom 1964). From the sales manager's point of view, the problem with rewards is that different salespeople have different valences. That is, some salespeople have a high valence for one type of reward while other salespeople have a low valence for the same reward (Teas 1981; Tyagi 1985).

The *source* of a reward contributes to its valence (Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl 1999). Money, as well as other external rewards such as sales contests, is considered to be an *extrinsic* reward. In contrast, rewards that increase an employee's interest in sales, for example, are considered to be *intrinsic* rewards. This increased interest in sales derives from the salesperson's perceived ability to master his or her environment (Deci and Ryan 1980). Sales managers and sales researchers have historically believed that money is the primary reward that motivates all salespeople across virtually all situations. Yet, early in the research on salesperson motivation, it was recognized that non-monetary rewards exist that salespersons value (Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1977). There are two approaches to understanding intrinsic and extrinsic

rewards (Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl 1999). An outline of these two approaches follows.

One approach to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation deals with the locus of causality (Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl 1999). Behaviors that are intrinsically motivated take place in the absence of external controls and symbolize *internal causality*. In contrast, behaviors that are shaped by external controls are symbolic of *external causality*. Behaviors shaped by external controls decrease intrinsic motivation. Thus, if salespeople perceive that a sales manager is imposing their behavior, the salesperson will not exert any extra effort on the firm's behalf. On the other hand, if salespeople perceive their behavior as intrinsically motivated, they will seek ways to overcome challenge (Deci and Ryan 1980).

A second approach to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation posits that intrinsic motivation is composed of two parts – *intrinsic process motivation* and *goal internalization* (Katz and Kahn 1978). A person with an intrinsic process motivation will engage in a task for the pure joy of performing the task. External controls are not considered. Additionally, an individual motivated by goal internalization has adopted the attitudes and behaviors of some organization or manager external to the individual. The internalization of the goals takes place because there is congruence between the values of the individual and those of the organization. Thus, an external control becomes internalized and the individual behaves as if the attitudes of the organization belong to him or her. In contrast, when a salesperson does not internalize the goals of the organization,

he or she will simply comply with external legal requirements or rules and external rewards.

In summary, expectancy theory assumes that people engage in work to maximize outcomes (Bandura 1990). In order for people to maximize outcomes, they must be aware of all of the possible alternative courses of action. They then weigh these alternatives against the possible outcomes and proceed toward the outcome that they perceive to have the most value.

A potential problem with expectancy theory, however, is that it may be unrealistic to assume that everyone is always aware of all possible outcomes or that people engage in such a complex thought process before they act. Another possible shortcoming of expectancy theory is that it does not explain the changes in behavior that take place when expectancies and valences remain constant (Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl 1999).

Comparison of attribution and expectancy theory. Similar to attribution theory, expectancy theory assumes that individuals make rational choices. This aspect of expectancy theory ignores the fact that most individual decisions are filtered through cognitive biases. Therefore, people may make seemingly rational subjective decisions that may appear irrational to observers (Bandura 1990).

While attribution theory and expectancy theories are similar, there are some important differences in the two approaches. First, the foundation of expectancy theory is the pleasure-pain approach (Weiner 1992). The pleasure-pain approach assumes that people attempt to maximize pleasure and minimize pain (Freud 1955). In contrast, attribution theory posits that individuals base

their actions on the causes of events with no consideration of the pleasure-pain relationship.

A second difference between attribution theory and expectancy theory is that expectancy theory suggests that individuals are motivated by *anticipated* feelings. A person is motivated to act or not to act because of possible future feelings of, for example, pride, guilt, or shame. Attribution theory also links expectancy and behavior but is based on *experienced* emotions as opposed to *anticipated* emotions. Thus, in attribution theory affect is a result of causal ascriptions assigned to the outcome of an event that has already taken place.

In summary, both expectancy theory and attribution theory posit that emotion serves as a motivator. In the expectancy approach, the *anticipated* emotion determines behavior while in the attribution approach it is the *experienced* emotion that determines future behavior. The difference between the two theories is illustrated in Figure 2.

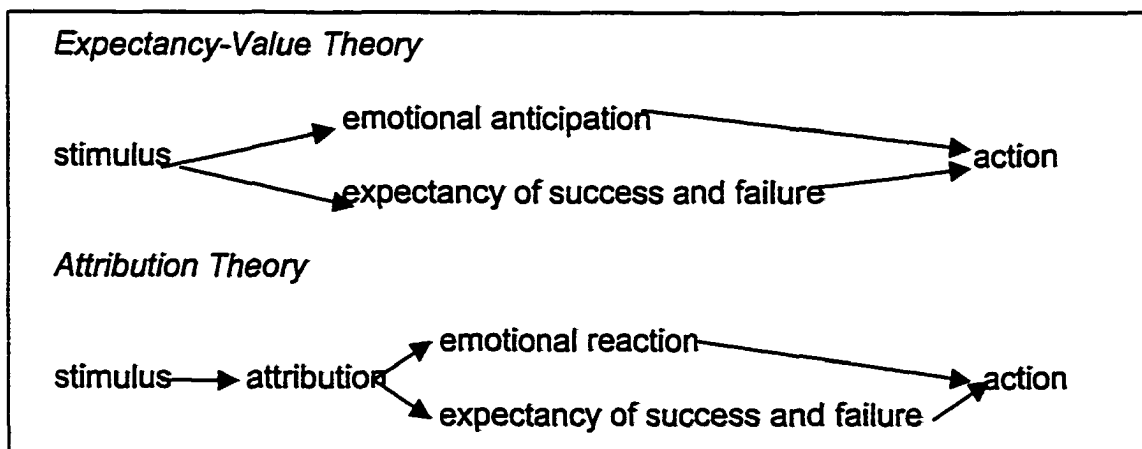


Figure 2. Expectancy-Value Theory and Attribution Theory (Weiner 1992, p. 284)

Attribution Theory and Salesperson Motivation

One of the first studies to apply Weiner's (1985) attribution theory of motivation in a sales context was conducted by Badovick (1990). Badovick found that when a salesperson's failure to meet sales quota was attributed to self-blame, an internal causation, salesperson motivation was reduced. It was also found that emotional reactions to failure to meet quota affected expectancy of future performance but only when the causal attributions were external. The study suggests that attributions for failures ascribed to stable causes reduce expectations for future success while attributions to unstable causes have no effect (Badovick 1990).

Badovick, Hadaway, and Kaminski (1992) examined the effect of task-specific self-esteem on the "emotional reaction-future effort intention" link. That is, the study attempted to determine if task-specific self-esteem mediated the link between emotional reactions to failure to meet quota and willingness to work harder to meet quota in the next time period. Support was found for the mediation of task-specific self-esteem. Thus, salespeople who felt confident of their ability but did not meet quota intended to work harder to meet quota the next month (Badovick, Hadaway, and Kaminski 1992).

As discussed in detail earlier in this study, Teas and McElroy (1986) built a conceptual model in a sales context based on Weiner's (1985) attribution theory as a theory of motivation. The motivational sequence followed Weiner's (1985) model of *performance* → *attribution* → *expectancy*. As previously discussed, attribution theory posits that experienced emotions, based on past

performance, determine future behavior. Therefore, the Teas and McElroy (1986) model included past performance information. The past performance information included three dimensions used in attributing causal explanations—consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness (Teas and McElroy 1986). *Consistency* is the extent to which an individual is associated with an event across time and situations. For example, if the salesperson experiences success on a regular basis for a particular selling task, he or she has high consistency for that task. The degree to which other people are associated with the success or failure of an event is *consensus*. For example, when salespeople believe that others have succeeded at a particular sales task, high consensus is achieved. The salesperson reasons, then, that he or she will also succeed at the task. Finally, *distinctiveness* is the extent to which an event is associated with a particular external cause and not associated with other external causes. Each of these past performance dimensions—consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness—influences the future expectations of salespeople.

The *personal* characteristics that Teas and McElroy (1986) believe modify attributions are locus of control, global self-esteem, and experience. *Locus of control* refers to the extent that people believe that life events are under the control of the individual (Rotter 1966). *Global* self-esteem refers to a person's conviction that he or she can attain success in any setting. This is in contrast to *task-specific* self-esteem in which an individual believes that he or she is competent only on a particular task. The *experience* dimension ties

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failure and determining future expectancies. Additionally, salespeople will form positive expectancies of future success if they believe that past success was due in part to support from the organization. The same is true for failure. If the salesperson believes that his or her firm is not supportive or competitive, the salesperson will anticipate failure on future calls. An interesting finding of this study was that there is not always a negative affect on motivation when salespeople attribute failure to internal/stable causes. This finding is inconsistent with Weiner's (1985) proposition that when a person fails and attributes the failure to internal/stable causes, that person will expect to fail again in the future. That is, the attribution for failure to internal/stable causes does not reduce salesperson motivation in every instance. The authors conclude that it is possible that there is an *unstable* element to sales ability and skill. If sales ability and skill are perceived to be unstable, and thus, malleable, attribution theory may need to be re-examined—at least with regard to personal selling. The implications of the possibility that intelligence, skill, and ability are, indeed, malleable characteristics will be explored in detail in a later section of this study.

Learned Helplessness and Sales

As noted, Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale (1978) proposed that when people fail and ascribe that failure to internal, stable, and global causes, they are more likely to assume more failure in the future. People learn that they are essentially helpless in this situation. Seligman and Schulman (1986)

conducted two empirical studies to test this “learned helplessness” model in a sales setting.

In the first study, life insurance agents were administered an Attributional Style Questionnaire (ASQ) (Peterson et al. 1982). The Attributional Style Questionnaire measures a salesperson’s attribution pattern, also known as a *behavior pattern*. A high score on the ASQ indicates that the salesperson attributes success and failure to factors the salesperson can control or can be changed. Salespeople that have a consistent pattern of attributing failure to uncontrollable and unchangeable causes are more likely to quit when faced with a challenging situation than are salespeople who attribute failure to factors they can control and change. Thus, agents scoring in the top half on the ASQ sold more insurance in their first two years on the job than did those agents that scored in the bottom half of the ASQ (Seligman and Schulman 1986).

The second study found that new agents scoring in the top half of the ASQ remained on the job longer and had higher sales than new agents who scored in the bottom half of the ASQ. These results supported the learned helplessness model assertion that salespeople who perceive that they cannot influence their performance will cease trying and accept failure.

Corr and Gray (1996) found that attributional style is directly related to performance for salespeople in the financial services industry in the United Kingdom. However, the results were ambiguous regarding the direction of causation. That is, while a relationship between attributional style and performance was supported, there was not a clear indication of which construct

was the causal predictor variable. Thus, while the Corr and Gray (1996) study found a relationship between performance and attributional style, it did not answer the question, "Does attributional style predict successful performance in salespeople or does successful performance lead to positive expectations of future success?" This lack of obvious prediction on the part of attributional style supports Bandura's (1990) criticism that attributional theory is bi-directional and not unidirectional. Additionally, attributional style does not explain the majority of the variance in performance differences among salespeople (Corr and Gray 1996). Corr and Gray's results point to a weakness in the argument that attributional style alone is a reliable predictor of sales success. More recent sales research has posited that attributional style may be a moderator in a *goal* → *performance* link rather than an antecedent to performance (Sujan 1999). This contention will be discussed in more detail below.

One school of thought considers learned helplessness the core motivational problem among salespeople (e.g., Schulman 1999; Seligman 1991). The proponents of this view believe that motivation can be changed if attributions can be changed (Seligman 1991). Specifically, this approach suggests that a key objective of the sales manager is to change the salesperson's pessimistic view that is characteristic of learned helplessness to an optimistic view. That is, a salesperson who attributes failure to stable, global, and internal causes is simply taught to change his or her failure attributions to unstable, specific, and external causes. There is, as yet, no empirical evidence to support this conclusion, however.

In summary, a relationship between salespeople's attributional style and performance has been established in the marketing literature (Corr and Gray 1996; Seligman and Schulman 1986). The results of the studies that have explored this relationship have not determined the *direction* of the relationship, however. Thus, it is not yet clear whether salespeople's attributional style determines their performance or if their performance influences their attributional style. The motivational consequence of which construct is the predictor variable is important to sales managers.

Expectancy-Value Theory and Sales

It was noted earlier that expectancy theory is the dominant theory of motivation in the sales literature. This literature will be reviewed and presented in four sections: (1) the effects of intrinsic/extrinsic rewards, (2) the valence-instrumentality-expectancy (VIE) model, (3) the effect of career stages on VIE, and (4) miscellaneous applications of expectancy theory.

Intrinsic/Extrinsic. One of the first empirical studies to examine salesperson motivation and expectancy found that the value placed on results by a salesperson, an extrinsic motivation, predicted performance (Oliver 1974). On the other hand, when management placed the value on activities or behavior, sales performance was not affected. A later study supported the opposite conclusion—that intrinsic motivators were more influential in sales performance than extrinsic motivators (Tyagi 1985).

Another early study of sales force motivation and external rewards indicated that monetary compensation may not be the only incentive that motivates salespeople (Darmon 1974). This study examined *changes* in compensation and the affect of these changes on the time salespeople spent selling. The results supported the proposition that not all salespeople are motivated in the same manner.

A more recent study of compensation plans and salesperson motivation found that different compensation plans affected intrinsic and extrinsic motivation differently. Salaries were more effective in motivating intrinsically motivated salespeople while commission-only compensation plans were more effective in motivating extrinsically oriented salespeople (Lee 1998).

Valence, Instrumentality, and Expectancy. Walker, Churchill, and Ford (1977) outlined a research agenda for salesperson motivation based on Vroom's (1964) VIE model. Twenty-five research propositions relating to the magnitude and adequacy of expectancy and instrumentality as well as valences were presented as a framework for future research. This framework has since dominated the subject of motivation in the sales literature (Brown and Weiner 1984; Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1997; Cron, Dubinsky, and Michaels 1988). A discussion of the VIE model as applied in the sales literature follows.

The personal characteristics of salespeople have been found to influence salespersons' valence for certain rewards (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1979). Salespersons with extensive job tenure and married salespeople with large families valued financial rewards more than younger salespeople who were

single or had small families. The younger salespeople were more interested in promotion and other opportunities for job enrichment. A similar relationship between job tenure and expectancies was later found, although the relationship was not statistically significant (Teas 1981).

Another study of the valence of rewards in a sales setting indicated that the salesperson's personal characteristics did not predict which rewards would be valued by salespeople nearly as well as organizational characteristics (Ingram and Bellenger 1983). Personal characteristics included such factors as self-esteem, job tenure, and level of education. The organizational characteristics examined in this study were promotion opportunity, earnings opportunity ratio, recognition opportunity rate, and compensation plans.

Psychological factors such as career aspirations and personality traits have not been found to influence salesperson reward valences (Ford, Churchill, and Walker 1985). Results from Ford, Churchill, and Walker (1985) indicated, however, that personal characteristics did influence salesperson reward valence. Specifically, salesperson pay had the highest valence among all salespeople although younger salespeople were more interested in promotion opportunities than were older salespeople. These findings are consistent with Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1979).

Contributing to the mixed results of empirical studies on expectancy theory, Futrell, Parasuraman, and Sager (1983), in a model testing expectancy theory, found no significant relationship between effort and performance or performance and satisfaction in a sample of 399 salespeople. It was

hypothesized that increased effort would lead to increased performance and job satisfaction. Salespeople reported their effort and supervisors reported the salesperson's performance. While no statistically significant relationship was found between the variables, the authors concluded that the results were too ambiguous to reject the expectancy model (Futrell, Parasuraman, and Sager 1983).

The motivation to expend more effort in selling was found to be negatively related to salesperson salary (John and Weitz 1989). Results from a national sample of salespeople and sales managers indicated that the role of salary decreases as the amount of time spent on selling activities increases. In other words, as the salesperson's selling activities increase in relation to non-selling activities, there is an increased valence for compensation tied to sales performance. Thus, the structure of the salesperson's job is related to his or her valence for certain systems of reward.

Another study of pay satisfaction and valence found that salespeople with a lower valence for monetary reward were more satisfied with their compensation level than were those with a higher valence for pay. No relationship was found between a salesperson's level of income and valence for more pay, however (Churchill and Pecotich 1982).

Chonko, Tanner, and Weeks (1992) found salespeople to have a higher valence for a pay raise than other rewards. Results indicated that salespeople preferred pay raises to promotion opportunities, recognition, and fringe benefits. This study also examined the relationship between a salesperson's personal

characteristics and preference for rewards. In contrast to Ingram and Bellenger (1986), personal characteristics *were* found to influence the reward valence of the individual salesperson. The relationships were not as strong, however, as those found by Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1979).

Overall, while the VIE model has added greatly to researchers' understanding of salesperson motivation, the results have been inconsistent. For example, studies have differed as to the effects of personal characteristics and psychological traits on salesperson reward valence. Additionally, the structure of the sales job appears to affect salesperson reward valence although there has been limited research in this area. This lack of conclusiveness about the effect of personal and psychological traits and the insufficient investigation of job structure on salesperson reward valence point to the need for further research.

Career Stages. The relationship between personal factors and reward valences among salespeople has suggested that salespeople's valences may change as they pass through different stages in their career (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1979; Ford, Walker, and Churchill 1985). A conceptual framework of four levels of career stages was developed in an effort to address the relationship of valence and salesperson experience (Cron 1984).

The first career stage described by Cron (1984) is the *exploration* phase. Salespeople in this phase are in the beginning of their careers and are not yet sure that sales is the appropriate career for them. Because of this career

uncertainty, these salespeople have low expectancy and instrumentality perceptions.

The second career stage is the *establishment* phase. By the time a salesperson reaches this stage, he or she has decided that sales is the appropriate career choice. The salesperson's goal in this stage is to build a successful and rewarding professional life. As such, promotion is highly valued (Cron 1984).

The third career stage is the *maintenance* phase. It is assumed that the salesperson who reaches this stage has been successful and wishes to maintain that success within the organization. The salesperson in the maintenance phase usually has a family and all of the attendant responsibilities (e.g., education for children and a mortgage). Due to these responsibilities, the salesperson in the maintenance stage places a high value on monetary rewards (Cron 1984).

The final career stage is the *disengagement* phase. In this phase, the salesperson is planning for retirement and final separation from the job. Family obligations are reduced in this phase and the salesperson may begin to psychologically withdraw from the organization. However, salespeople in the disengagement stage approach the end of their work life preferring rewards that contribute to the value of their retirement and their lives after their career has ended and with reduced job involvement (Cron 1984).

Career stages have been found to influence the valence, expectancy, and instrumentality of salespeople (Cron, Dubinsky, and Michaels 1988).

Salespeople in the exploration phase were found to have a low instrumentality estimate of reward for performance. In other words, these salespeople are uncertain about the probability of rewards even with superior performance.

In the establishment phase, promotion is perceived to be more important for salespeople than is compensation (Cron, Dubinsky, and Michaels 1988). The authors suggest that perhaps this is because in the establishment phase the salesperson is concerned about his or her success and tenure with the organization.

Salespeople in the maintenance stage are not as concerned about promotion as those in the establishment phase (Cron, Dubinsky, and Michaels 1988). Maintenance phase salespeople are motivated by money and are usually the top performers of the firm. While pay is still a motivator, there is a general tendency for salespeople in this stage to weigh carefully the value additional compensation against the extra effort needed to receive the compensation. The authors state that this finding may be because the maintenance phase salesperson is already successful and only wants to work to a level just sufficient to maintain that success.

In the disengagement stage, salespeople are motivated by neither monetary rewards nor opportunity for promotion (Cron, Dubinsky, and Michaels 1988). Instead, the salesperson in this stage is primarily attempting to reduce work hours, concentrate on tasks that are easy, and develop interests outside of work. However, an additional study involving career stages found that pre-

retirees had similar performance ratings from supervisors as salespeople in the other stages (Cron, Jackofsky, and Slocum 1993).

Miscellaneous Applications of Expectancy Theory. One study focusing on personal values and rewards found a relationship between salesperson values and the perception of rewards (Apasu 1987). Focal values were *competence* and *secular* values. Salespeople with competence values are creativity oriented, imaginative, ambitious, and capable. They are also achievement oriented. In contrast, a salesperson with secular values is more interested in security and a leisurely lifestyle. Salespeople with competence values were more motivated by the prospect of personal growth on the job. Salespeople with secular values were more interested in job security and promotion opportunities.

Various studies have looked at job dimensions (Tyagi 1982), supervisory behavior (Kohli 1985; Tyagi 1985), and the commitment the salesperson has to his or her organization (Ingram, Lee, and Skinner 1989) in relation to salesperson expectancy. Job dimension variables such as job enrichment, autonomy, and supervisory feedback were found to affect salesperson expectancy and, hence, motivation (Tyagi 1982). Job enrichment, or job skill and variety, enhanced intrinsic motivation while leadership behavior impacted extrinsic motivation (Tyagi 1985). Surprisingly, Kohli (1985) found that *punishment* by supervisors was positively related to salesperson intrinsic motivation and had no affect on salesperson self-esteem. Organizational commitment on the part of the salesperson was shown to have less impact on

effort than did intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Ingram, Lee, and Skinner 1989).

A more recent study of salesperson motivation refined the expectancy model to include *expectations* (Simintiras, Cadogan, and Geoffrey 1996). The terms *expectancy* and *expectation* are often used interchangeably in the literature, but the terms have different meanings and are operationalized differently (Teas and McElroy 1986). Vroom (1964) defined expectancy as "the likelihood that given amounts of rewards depend on given amounts of effort" (p. 19). *Expectations*, on the other hand, reflect anticipated outcome levels. That is, an expectation is desirable whether or not there is a probability that it will be fulfilled (Simintiras, Cadogan, and Lancaser 1999). Expectancy may have a desirable or an undesirable outcome. Simintiras, Cadogan, and Lancaster (1996) found that expectations were more motivational for salespeople than was expectancy.

A recent modification of the expectancy theory model proposes that behavioral decision theory complements expectancy theory in explaining salesperson motivation (Gray and Wert-Gray 1999). Incorporation of behavioral decision theory would add estimates of outcome probabilities and attractiveness of outcomes to the salesperson's perceived instrumentality and valence of rewards.

Summary. While expectancy theory has added a great deal of understanding to the motivation of salespeople, there remain questions that the model does not address (Gray and Wert-Gray 1999; Simintiras, Cadogan, and Geoffrey 1996).

For example, why are some salespeople motivated by intrinsic rewards while other salespeople are motivated by extrinsic rewards? Additionally, results of empirical studies that use the model have been inconsistent (e.g., Chonko, Tanner, and Weeks 1992; Futrell, Parasuraman, and Sager 1983; Ingram, Lee, and Skinner 1989). As such, its explanatory power is subject to debate.

In the psychology literature, the dominant model of motivation is one of goal *orientation* (Kanfer 1990) while in the sales literature the focus is on goal *setting* (Bartol 1999; Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1997). The difference between goal setting theory and goal orientation is outlined below. Relevant literature in sales for goal setting theory will also be reviewed. One purpose of the current study was to introduce and apply the full model of goal orientation to the sales literature.

Goal Theory

An alternative approach to motivation focuses on goals. A goal is defined as "something an individual is trying to accomplish; it is the object or aim of an action" (Locke et al. 1981, p. 126). Goal theory posits that the act of setting challenging goals will enhance motivation. People with specific task goals perform better at the task than people with vague task goals or no goals at all (Locke and Latham 1990). Goals are considered to represent people's needs. People deliberately and purposefully direct their behavior toward the particular outcome that will satisfy these needs. Thus, goals direct and sustain behavior (Yearta, Maitlis, and Briner 1995).

There are two primary dimensions of goals—*content* and *intensity* (Locke and Latham 1990; Locke et al. 1981). The content of a goal is the outcome the individual desires. The outcome also has two attributes – *difficulty* and *specificity*. Goal difficulty refers to the level of knowledge, skill, and effort needed to obtain a goal. In goal setting theory, the more difficult a task is, the more knowledge, skill, or effort is needed to accomplish the goal. Goal specificity involves the motivational relationship between an absence of goals, vague goals, specific goals, and "do your best" goals. Individuals who are given specific goals related to a task outperform those who are given no goals or are told to do their best (Locke 1968).

The second attribute of goals, goal intensity, refers to the process by which goals are set and attained. Intensity involves the degree of cognitive processing needed to assess a goal, the salience of the goal, and the context in which the goal is set. Goal intensity is related to goal content in that a desired goal that is complex requires more cognitive processes to accomplish than does a less complex goal. Thus, a more concentrated cognitive process is needed to set and accomplish complex goals as opposed to simple goals (Locke et al. 1981).

It is important to note that the individual must accept the goal in order to be motivated. If the individual did not have to engage in a mental process of goal acceptance, then goals would be environmentally determined and goal theory would be a behaviorist rather than a cognitive approach (Locke et al. 1981).

There are three factors that determine people's commitment to a goal that is set for them by another individual, such as a sales manager (Locke, Latham, and Erez 1988). The first set of determinants are *external factors* that include the perception of the goal as legitimate, trust in the supervisor, peer group influence, and the extrinsic rewards that will be received if the goal is attained. *Interactive factors* are the second set of determinants of goal commitment. Included in interactive factors are the context in which the goal setting occurs, the level of participation by the salesperson, competition with peers, and the cultural values. The final determinants that affect people's commitment to goals set by someone else are *internal factors*. Expectations of success and intrinsic rewards are examples of internal factors.

Self-influence and goals. Bandura (1990) proposed that *self-influence* mediated the relationship between goals and behavior. Self-influence mediators include affective self-evaluation, perceived self-efficacy for goal attainment, and ongoing adjustment of personal standards (Bandura 1990). The introduction of self-influence is an integrative approach that incorporates expectancy and attribution theories into goal theory (Kanfer 1990). Bandura's (1990) basic premise is that motivation occurs as a result of cognitive comparison. People compare their goals with the level of goal attainment and adjust their behavior accordingly. That is, the evaluation of one's behavior with respect to the goal is the motivating factor rather than the goal itself. A brief explanation of each form of self-influence proposed by Bandura (1990) follows.

Affective self-evaluation refers to the discrepancy between a goal one has set and the level of attainment of that goal. People receive satisfaction from the accomplishment of goals. Each person constantly evaluates his or her progress toward certain goals and the level of satisfaction attained. It is the pursuit of this satisfaction that motivates the individual toward the goal (Bandura 1990).

A second cognitive factor that mediates the relationship between goals and behavior is perceived self-efficacy. Perceived self-efficacy is the degree to which people believe that they possess the ability necessary to reach a goal. Individuals with high self-efficacy believe that they possess the capability to reach a goal and will persist in the face of difficulty or challenge. Alternatively, people with low self-efficacy are easily discouraged and are more likely to quit when a goal becomes difficult (Bandura 1990).

Finally, people assess their level of goal attainment and adjust their goals accordingly. If an individual sets a goal and realizes that attainment is not realistic or requires more effort than was originally deemed necessary, the goal may be adjusted downward. Thus, the constant monitoring of goal attainment and the resulting readjustment mediates the link between goals and behavior (Bandura 1990).

Bandura (1990) states that each form of self-influence is considered to mediate the relationship between goals and behavior. However, the social-cognitive model of motivation used in the current study posits that only perceived self-efficacy influences the relationship between goal orientation and

behavior. Specifically, it is proposed that perceived self-efficacy *moderates* the relationship between a performance goal orientation and behavior and has no effect on the mastery goal orientation-behavior relationship (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Thus, this study tested the moderating effect of perceived self-efficacy on the performance goal orientation-behavior relationship.

Goal theory, as proposed by Locke (1968), does not fully explain why some people choose goals that are easily accomplished while others choose goals that are difficult and challenging. Moreover, classical goal theory does not consider differences in the personal characteristics of people as they go about choosing which goals to pursue. These issues are addressed later in this study.

In summary, goal theory posits that people are motivated by the goals that they set. These goals are set in response to needs that the individual wishes to satisfy. Since people can anticipate the outcome of their actions, they are motivated to engage in certain behaviors that will fulfill unsatisfied needs (Locke 1968; Locke and Latham 1990; Locke et al. 1981). Recently, goal theory has been expanded with the proposal that the relationship between goals and behavior is mediated by one or more self-evaluative techniques. The individual monitors, through self-evaluation, the level of goal attainment within the context of perceived ability, level of satisfaction, and need for goal adjustment. A deficiency in goal attainment or level of satisfaction will motivate the individual to either continue to pursue the goal or to adjust the goal (Bandura 1990).

Performance and Behavior Outcomes. Performance outcomes, such as the number of sales made by a salesperson, are the central focus of goal-setting

researchers. In other words, the dependent variable in goal setting research is the evaluation of an individual's behavior, as discussed previously, or the attainment of a specific outcome. This is in contrast to expectancy theories that focus solely on the *behavior* of an individual (Kanfer 1990).

Goal-setting and expectancy theory focus on different but related motivational processes (Kanfer 1990). The same psychological variable, such as self-efficacy, is explained differently in the two systems. For example, in expectancy theory, there is evidence that an individual with high self-efficacy will have an increased expectation of success (Bandura 1990). Thus, the individual's goal choice is the motivating factor.

On the other hand, goal setting theory proposes that a person with high self-confidence may experience reduced motivation (task performance). The reason for reduced motivation among highly self-confident people is similar to the perceived effort-ability relationship of the performance goal oriented person. That is, highly self-confident people exhibit a lack of attention to the task and to the strategies employed in attempting to accomplish the task. While strong effort on a task indicates motivation, it also indicates a lack of confidence in the person's ability to accomplish the task successfully (Kanfer 1990).

Another difference between goal setting theory and expectancy theory is that goal setting theory focuses on performance goals that are the cumulative consequences of behavior. That is, the *sequence* of behaviors that are involved in reaching the goal are not generally considered. Goals, then, are considered distinct accomplishments with few, if any, subgoals. In this way, goals are easily

measured. Therefore, in goal setting theory, goal attainment offers opportunities for immediate reward (Kanfer 1990).

Expectancy theory, on the other hand, is concerned with the *process* of goal choice and *intended effort* (Kanfer 1990). In fact, in expectancy theory, goal choice and/or intended effort are the dependent variables. Rather than discrete accomplishments, expectancy theory views goals as more complex that take longer to accomplish. Expectancy theory posits that while it is possible to string a number of discrete goals together in order to attain a more complex goal, the controller of the behavior is usually an external actor, such as a sales manager, who has set the goal for another. The result is that the sales manager, in the process of combining discrete goals to achieve a more complex goal, is not concerned with the individual's goal choice. Therefore, these externally imposed goals do not motivate behavior and may, in fact, impede the accomplishment of more complex, long-term goals.

Goal Theory and Sales

The sales literature on goal setting as a motivational tool is not nearly as extensive as that of expectancy theory. One of the first studies on goal-setting theory in the sales literature focused on sales contests as goals. It was found that the degree of difficulty of goals and the acceptance of goals by salespeople influenced salesperson motivation (Hart, Moncrief, and Parasuraman 1989). Goal difficulty and goal acceptance enhanced motivation while goal clarity had no effect on salesperson motivation.

A study of the relationship between goals and the motivational effects of emotions found that emotions significantly motivate salespeople (Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1997). The more significant the goal was to the salesperson, the more emotional importance was attached to the goal. Goal attainment in this case created positive emotions while lack of goal attainment resulted in negative emotions. An interesting finding was that if the salesperson felt that he or she had been properly engaged in goal directed behavior, the emotions were positive regardless of the outcome. That is, the salespeople had a positive affect toward their work if they believed that they had employed an effective strategy toward goal attainment.

Brown, Cron, and Slocum (1998) investigated the interaction of dispositional and organizational factors on goal setting and performance. Sales people who were high in trait competitiveness set high goals for themselves when they also believed that the organizational climate was competitive. Salespeople who were low in trait competitiveness set low goals regardless of their perceptions of the competitiveness of the climate. Additional results indicated that salespeople experienced increased performance when goals were self-imposed and that self-efficacy positively impacted performance.

Goal theory as proposed by Locke and Latham (1990) and Bandura (1990) leave some questions about motivation unanswered (Dweck and Leggett 1988). The first question is, "Why do some people choose difficult and challenging goals while other people choose easily accomplished goals?" A second unanswered question is, "Why do two people of equal ability react

differently in the face of failure?" A third question is, "What are the characteristics of a person that influence goal choice and goal adjustment?" Finally, "What situational factors interact with personal characteristics to influence goal choice?" These questions are addressed in a social learning/social cognitive stream of research known as *achievement motivation theory* (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984). At present, achievement motivation theory is the predominant theory of motivation in an achievement setting in the social and educational psychology literature (Elliot and Harackiewicz 1996). Because the sales environment may be considered an achievement setting for salespersons, this theory has potentially strong implications for sales motivation research.

Achievement Motivation Theory:
A Social-Cognitive
Approach to
Motivation

Achievement motivation theory asserts that goals are the central determinants of achievement patterns. An achievement pattern includes what a person thinks, what a person feels, and how a person behaves in the pursuit of a goal (Elliott and Dweck 1988). Goals are "cognitive representations of the things we wish to accomplish" (Harackiewicz, Barron, and Elliott 1998, p. 2). The goals that one chooses represent the way one thinks about pursuing competence. Different goals orient a person toward different patterns of cognition, affect, and behavior (Dweck and Leggett 1988). To the extent that researchers can identify the determinants of goal choice, then individuals'

behavior in the face of failure can be more readily understood. Achievement motivation theory is the core theory of this study and a key aspect of this study's contribution. A detailed discussion of this theory follows.

Achievement Motivation

In current psychological research, achievement motivation theory is the primary approach to motivation in an achievement setting (Elliot and Harackiewicz 1996). An achievement setting is one in which people approach, participate in, and respond to achievement tasks (Ames and Archer 1988; Elliott and Church 1997). An achievement setting is used to test theories of motivation in educational psychology because the goal is to ascertain those factors that motivate students to learn. Central to recent research in achievement motivation is the concept that goals motivate behavior (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck 1990; Dweck and Leggett 1988).

In the psychology literature, an achievement goal is defined by Ames (1992, p.261) as:

. . . an integrated pattern of beliefs, attributions, and affect that produces the intentions of behavior (Weiner 1986) and that is represented by different ways of approaching, engaging in, and responding to achievement activities (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Elliott and Dweck 1988).

When a particular goal is chosen, certain cognitive-based and affective-based processes are set in motion (Dweck and Leggett 1988).

A key assumption of achievement motivation theory is that a person chooses behavior in an attempt to attain goals and that an individual acts *rationally* in the pursuit of these goals (Nichols 1984). In this context, "rational"

relates to the manner in which goals are pursued. That is, people pursue goals in the most efficient and economical way they know (Nichols 1984).

There are two achievement goal constructs – *mastery* and *performance* goals (Ames 1992; Dweck and Leggett 1988). Mastery goals are also known as "task involvement" goals and "learning" goals (Ames 1992; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). Performance goals are also referred to in the literature as "ego involvement" goals (Ames 1992; Nichols 1984). In this study, the term "mastery goal" will be used synonymously with task and learning goals while the term "performance goal" will also mean ego involvement goals.

Mastery Goal Orientation

A person with a mastery goal orientation is one who believes that effort and outcomes covary (Ames 1992). This means that an individual with a mastery goal orientation will continue to pursue a desired goal even if the attainment of the goal becomes difficult. Those that adopt this goal pattern believe that effort will lead either to a certain level of success or to a certain level of improved ability (Ames and Archer 1988). Most notably, with a mastery goal orientation, people feel that they are performing well on a task if they are learning something new or improving their skills (Nichols 1984).

The concept of a mastery goal is closely associated with, although not identical to, intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is the satisfaction of engaging in an activity in and of itself. Mastery goals promote intrinsic motivation because they encourage challenge, involvement, and persistence (Elliot and Harackiewicz 1996).

Performance Goal Orientation

A performance goal is adopted when a person feels the need to demonstrate ability and comparative self-worth (Dweck 1990; Nichols 1984). That is, the individual desires to evidence ability by either surpassing some normative-based standard or by outperforming others on a task. Central to the performance goal orientation is the belief that effort and ability are opposing constructs. If one has high ability, one does not need to exert much effort. In the same manner, expending effort to succeed at a task indicates a lack of ability. The essential difference between the performance goal orientation and the mastery goal orientation is that with the former the person views learning only as a means to an end whereas in the latter the process of learning is the reward. Additionally, because of the *perceived ability-outcome* linkage in a performance goal orientation, a person's self-worth is tied to his or her ability to perform well on a particular task (Ames 1992). Because people with a performance goal orientation wish to demonstrate their ability in comparison to others, performance goal oriented individuals will avoid those tasks in which they believe they might be perceived to lack ability.

Adaptive and Maladaptive Patterns of Behavior

In achievement motivation theory, selective cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes begin to take place once a particular goal orientation is chosen – be it mastery or performance. Each achievement goal orientation leads a person to different ways of thinking about oneself and about one's

reaction in the face of failure (Ames 1992). Collectively, these cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes are known as a *behavior pattern*. Thus, a behavior pattern is the cognitive, affective, and behavioral outcomes of a particular goal orientation. People adopt a behavior pattern that is consistent with their chosen goal orientation. That is, people will think, feel, and behave in the same manner in every situation where they choose a particular goal orientation. An understanding of these behavioral patterns explains why, given two people of equal ability, one persists in the face of failure while the other gives up.

Maladaptive behavior patterns resemble the learned helplessness model previously outlined (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978). In the face of task failure, people with a helpless response pattern think that the task is too difficult or impossible, give up on the task, and feel shame at having failed. Since every aspect of life contains obstacles and hurdles, such a behavior pattern can be considered maladaptive (Dweck and Leggett 1988). A person with a helpless behavior pattern will function less effectively than those who adopt a more adaptive pattern of behavior to life's challenges.

In contrast, a person who adopts a mastery-oriented pattern seeks challenge and attempts to develop effective strategies for overcoming obstacles (Dweck and Leggett 1988). The satisfaction of a challenge allows the person with a mastery-oriented behavior pattern to persist in the face of failure and to adapt to setbacks and barriers to desired goals. This willingness to persist when

the pursuit of a goal becomes difficult sustains effort in the long run. Further, a person with a mastery orientation is more willing to choose challenging tasks.

There is a considerable stream of empirical research examining elementary and middle school children that supports the relationship between achievement goals and behavior patterns (Diener and Dweck 1978; Diener and Dweck 1980; Elliott and Dweck 1988). Similar behavior patterns have been documented in adults, as well (Brunson and Matthews 1981; Button, Mathieu, and Zajac 1996).

The importance of the effect of goal orientation on behavior patterns was demonstrated with experiments conducted by Diener and Dweck (1978, 1980). In these experiments, researchers observed students *change* behavior patterns as they moved from success to failure on a task. All of the students exhibited a mastery goal orientation as long as they were successful. As soon as the students began to experience failure, however, two distinct behavior patterns began to emerge. A discussion of these research findings follows.

In the first stage of their research, Diener and Dweck (1978, 1980) assigned twelve problems to upper elementary school children. The children who were chosen were identified as having a mastery or helpless oriented behavior pattern based on a previously administered attribution instrument. The problems assigned to the children were concept formation tasks. The first eight problems were constructed to be easy to solve and the last four problems too difficult for children of that age to master. After the sixth problem the children

were asked to tell the researchers what they thought and felt as they worked the problems.

All of the children, regardless of their behavior pattern, solved the first six problems and both groups remained interested in the work. There was also no difference in the level of proficiency between the groups of children. After the eighth problem, all of the children experienced failure. Two noticeable patterns of behavior emerged.

First, there was a difference in the reported self-cognitions between the helpless-oriented and the mastery-oriented students. The helpless-oriented students attributed their failure to a lack of ability. Additionally, the helpless-oriented children had a negative expectancy of future success in spite of the fact that they had reported success on similar tasks only a few minutes earlier. Helpless children also expressed a negative affect in that they were bored with the tasks or anxious about their failure. Again these same children had, immediately before the failure, been highly task-involved.

Next, the helpless children turned to task irrelevant chatter. This irrelevant verbalization included an attempt to change the rules, descriptions of talents in other areas, and boasting of extraordinary wealth and possessions. This discussion was designed to divert attention from the task at hand. Finally, the helpless children indicated a noticeable reduction in performance on the more difficult tasks. That is, they were not as proficient on the difficult tasks as they had been on the earlier problems. When the helpless children faced

failure, the strategies they adopted were not as effective as those that they had used earlier were.

The mastery-oriented children faced the same set of problems and experienced the same failure as the helpless children. Yet, in the face of the more difficult problems, the mastery-oriented children believed they could succeed and verbalized their intent to succeed. In short, they were optimistic about their chances of success.

Instead of becoming less-task involved as the helpless children had, the mastery-oriented children became *more* task involved. Students exclaimed their enjoyment in challenging tasks and their belief that a challenge meant that they would learn something new. Finally, the mastery-oriented children improved their level of problem solving in the face of the more difficult challenges. They developed new and more effective problem-solving strategies as they worked on the more difficult tasks.

These results have implications for salespeople. Sales is an occupation where rejection and failure are faced on an ongoing basis. In this light, it is likely salespeople who are mastery-oriented would find greater sales success than performance-oriented salespeople. The performance-oriented salesperson may, like the students in the previously mentioned studies, adopt a helpless or maladaptive behavior pattern. A salesperson who adopts a helpless behavior pattern may reduce his or her sales effort in the face of a difficult sale or not attempt the sale at all if there is a good chance of failure.

On the other hand, the mastery-oriented salesperson is more likely to persist when faced with rejection and failure. Thus, as opposed to a maladaptive behavior pattern, the mastery-oriented salesperson will likely adopt an *adaptive* behavior pattern. Such salespeople are persistent, seek challenge and learning, and find satisfaction in the sales process itself. In contrast, a maladaptive behavior pattern in a sales context is one where the salesperson will choose to pursue “easy” sales and will reduce his or her sales effort when the work becomes difficult or when there is a chance that others will perceive that the salesperson has low ability.

Goals and Behavior

One explanation for the finding that children of equal ability react differently to failure is that the two groups – mastery-oriented and performance-oriented – are pursuing different goals (Elliott and Dweck 1988). Mastery-oriented children are pursuing mastery goals while performance-oriented children are believed to be pursuing performance goals. That is, in an achievement setting, performance-oriented children pursue goals that will demonstrate their ability while mastery-oriented children pursue goals that will improve their learning and ability. Therefore, different goals determine different behavior.

In order to demonstrate the influence of goal orientation, Elliott and Dweck (1980) induced different goal structures and observed the patterns of cognition, affect, and behavior. The belief was that students with a performance goal would be more likely to adopt a helpless pattern in the face of failure than

would students with a mastery goal. Those children who were taught that skill acquisition was important demonstrated a mastery pattern of behavior. Children who were taught that the evaluation of their work was important were more likely to develop a helpless pattern.

Interestingly, among the children who had been taught the importance of a performance goal orientation, the helpless pattern took on two dimensions. If a child were confident of his or her ability on a task, he or she would select challenging tasks with confidence. If, on the other hand, the child lacked confidence in his or her ability, the child would select an easier task that would result in favorable judgment. Other research has indicated a third possibility for those adopting a performance orientation. In order to protect self-esteem, the person attempts an extremely difficult task where failure is certain. In this situation, a person cannot appear incompetent because expectations of success are minimal for such a difficult task (Nichols 1984).

How Goals Determine Behavior

Goals create a framework within which individuals interpret and respond to the events that occur around them (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Therefore, a different meaning will be assigned to the same event depending on whether the person interprets the event in the context of a mastery or performance goal. These different interpretations and reactions are manifested in cognitive, affective, and behavioral ways, a discussion of which follows.

Cognitions

Different goal orientations cause people to view tasks with different concerns and questions. That is, different goal structures cause people to approach tasks with different thought processes (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Performance goals cause people to focus on, and address, their ability—most notably in relation to others. The primary feedback mechanism that provides people with information concerning their performance in relation to others is evaluation. Failure outcomes are indications that they lack the necessary ability. As previously discussed, there is also a perceived inverse relationship between effort and ability for those having a performance goal orientation. In the studies by Elliott and Dweck (1978, 1980), it was found that children with performance goals believed that the amount of ability needed to achieve a task was related to the amount of effort expended. That is, people with a performance goal orientation believe that great effort on a task indicates low ability and that low effort signifies high ability.

People with mastery goals, alternatively, are more concerned with increasing ability. The focal question for the person with the mastery goal is "How do I improve my ability?" Failure is seen as feedback with which to reorganize and attempt new strategies that may lead to success. Mastery-oriented people evaluate information from failure in order to achieve future success. As with the performance-oriented individual, an ability/effort relationship exists in the mastery-oriented person. However, here the relationship is positive, that is, greater effort is seen as enhancing ability.

It is important to note the implications of the ability/effort relationship in the two goal orientations. Children with performance goals reinforce their maladaptive or helpless pattern by believing an inverse relationship between ability and effort exists. High-effort failures are seen as indicative of low ability. The result is that the child then begins to doubt the possibility of high effort success. In contrast, the mastery goal oriented child believes that by increasing effort, he or she can increase the chance of success. That is, they perceive high effort as leading to success. Thus, the child is willing to persist at a task in order to succeed. These alternative cognitive processes have potentially strong implications in a sales setting to the extent that the same cognitive patterns exist for adults.

Affect

People with a performance goal perceive a threat to their self-esteem when they face a task that demonstrates low ability. If the negative assessment by others appears to be inevitable, a depressed affect is possible (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978). Additionally, the performance goal orientation can cause individuals to become defensive and self-protective. A person may then devalue the task or feign boredom with it (Diener and Dweck 1978; Diener and Dweck 1980).

The affective reaction is very different for people with a mastery-oriented goal. Since these people recognize a positive relationship between effort and success, it is likely that they will have an increased desire to sustain their effort until they achieve success. In contrast to the anxiety experienced by those with

performance goals, people with mastery goals may feel pride associated with extra effort and increased intrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan 1980; Dweck and Leggett 1988).

Behavior

Different goals affect task choices. That is, goals help to create behavior. Those with a performance goal desire a task that, upon completion, will elicit positive evaluations by others. At the same time, performance-oriented people will avoid challenging tasks that may result in negative judgments, anxiety, or shame. In contrast, mastery-oriented individuals desire a task that offers a challenge or the opportunity to improve a skill. Rather than comparing themselves to others, mastery-oriented people evaluate their outcomes relative to themselves in terms of the satisfaction received from performing a task (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Nichols 1984).

The level of confidence one has in one's ability is also a factor in one's behavior toward a task. Performance-oriented individuals with a low level of confidence in their ability will seek easy tasks and avoid challenging tasks. Alternatively, performance-oriented people with a high level of confidence in their ability will seek more challenge than those with a low level of ability. It is important to note, however, that even performance-oriented people with a high-perceived level of ability, that is self-efficacy, will often shy away from a challenging task if they believe there is a reasonable chance of failure. The highly confident performance-oriented person will even forfeit the opportunity to

learn something if the chance of failure is perceived to be real (Elliott and Dweck 1988).

Persons with a mastery goal orientation seek tasks that provide opportunities to learn. They take pride in the process of working on such tasks. This is especially true for people who are mastery goal oriented *and* who have perceived low ability (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Mastery goal oriented people continue with a task even if there are setbacks because they do not suffer from the anxiety and fear of negative judgment that is experienced by people with a performance goal orientation.

In the face of failure, both the effort expended and the quality of performance is differentially impacted by the choice of the two goal orientations (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Due to the perceived inverse relationship between effort and ability, performance-oriented individuals will tend to reduce their effort as a task becomes more difficult. This is because they believe that if one has the necessary ability, a high level of effort is not necessary. In fact, increased effort will only confirm the judgment of low ability. Performance-oriented people also worry about a negative evaluation or failure. This anxiety distracts people from concentrating on tasks and may result in quitting the task before others realize the failure. Finally, since the performance-oriented individual is not intrinsically motivated by the undertaking, he or she will not persist when the task becomes difficult.

In contrast, mastery-oriented people see a positive relationship between effort and success. Thus, these people will increase effort when the task

becomes difficult. Additionally, mastery-oriented people will concentrate on the task because they are not distracted by the thought of a negative evaluation. Finally, mastery-oriented individuals receive intrinsic reward from the work itself and are, therefore, willing to sustain effort when the risk of failure is high.

It can be readily determined from the above descriptions of performance and mastery oriented individuals that in most situations the performance goal orientation causes people to be vulnerable and predisposed to a helpless or maladaptive behavior pattern. In contrast, a mastery goal orientation leads to a constructively adaptive behavior pattern in which the person remains optimistic and persistent in the face of difficulty. As previously noted, it thus seems likely that a sales manager would prefer a mastery goal oriented salesperson to a performance-oriented salesperson, given a choice between the two.

Goal Orientation and Sales

Weitz, Sujan, and Sujan (1986) introduced the first model of goal orientation in sales research. This model was distinguished by the fact that it was the first to offer a *structural* rather than a *functional* research strategy (Vink and Verbeke 1993). A structural research strategy focuses on behavior while a functional research strategy focuses on outcomes of behavior. As previously mentioned, this is the major distinction between goal setting theory and achievement motivation theory outlined by Weitz, Sujan, and Sujan (1986) (Kanfer 1990). The distinguishing difference between goal setting theory and achievement motivation theory is that goal setting theory focuses on outcomes with little consideration for the behavioral processes that lead to those

outcomes. In contrast, achievement motivation theory attempts to explain the behavior that leads to particular outcomes.

Specifically, Weitz, Sujan, and Sujan (1986) proposed, in part, that intrinsic reward motivation would motivate a salesperson to practice adaptive selling. Adaptive selling is a *behavior* (Spiro and Weitz 1990). This model was a marked departure from traditional sales research that had been concerned only with performance outcomes (Vink and Verbeke 1993). Thus, research that investigates adaptive selling is structural in design.

Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar (1994) empirically tested part of the aforementioned model. A major finding of this study was that while salespeople may have a dominant goal orientation of either performance or mastery, they may still possess some degree of both goal orientations. That is, emphasizing one goal orientation does not diminish the other. Thus, a sales manager can emphasize a mastery goal orientation among his or her sales force without affecting the salesperson's performance goal orientation (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998).

A more significant finding was that salespeople with a mastery-orientation were more productive than those who do not have a mastery orientation (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). This finding supports the idea that sales managers will prefer mastery-oriented salespeople to salespeople with a performance-orientation.

Supervisory behaviors have also been found to have an influence on salespeople's mastery or performance goal orientation although the results are

arguably counterintuitive (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Supervisors who focused on outcome or performance evaluations were found to increase salespeople's *mastery* orientation. The reasoning for this result was that supervisors who focused on outcomes did not closely manage salespeople. Thus, salespeople had the freedom to learn and attempt different strategies in order to achieve the goals set for them. In contrast, supervision that stressed activity or behavior tended to encourage a *performance-orientation* within the sales force. An explanation offered for this finding is that salespeople in a behavior-based control system work closely with their supervisor and, thus, develop a personal relationship with the supervisor. The closeness of the relationship influences salespeople to do what is necessary to meet the sales manager's expectations (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998).

Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) proposed a third type of control system known as *capability* control. In the capability control system, the supervisor is concerned about increasing the skill and abilities of his or her salespeople. Thus, there is an emphasis on learning and skill improvement. Supervisors with a capability orientation enhanced salespeople's mastery orientation.

A mastery orientation was also found to increase the performance of salespeople in a longitudinal study (VandeWalle et al. 1999). Goal setting, effort, and planning mediated the relationship between goal orientation and performance. Salespeople with a mastery orientation set more challenging

goals, believed that effort lead to success, and were more likely to engage in planning.

Research on goal orientation and achievement motivation theory in the sales literature has been limited to date. Achievement motivation theory is ripe for further investigation. This point is underscored by the fact that achievement motivation theory is currently the most widely researched motivational theory in the psychology literature (Elliot and Harackiewicz 1996; Kanfer 1990). With one exception (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998), antecedents to goal orientation in a sales setting have not been examined. This subject is discussed next.

Antecedents to Goal Orientation

An individual's preference for one goal orientation over another has been found to be determined by a dispositional factor, implicit personality theory, (Dweck 1990; Dweck and Leggett 1988) and situational factors (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984; Ryska and Yin 1999; Vlachopoulos, Biddle, and Fox 1996). A disposition is a psychological characteristic of an individual. Dispositions include, but are not limited to, personality characteristics, attitudes, and motives. A person's disposition causes him or her to respond to situations in a predetermined manner (House, Shane, and Herold 1996). While there are many dispositional factors that can be considered, this study will examine the effect of implicit personality theory as a primary determinant of a salesperson's goal orientation (Dweck and Leggett 1988).

As will be discussed below, research shows that implicit personality theory directly affects an individual's goal orientation. While the effect of implicit personality theory on goal orientation has been widely presented in the educational psychology literature, the influence of implicit personality theory on goal orientation has not been addressed in a sales setting. The current study examines the characteristic of implicit personality theory as the primary determinant of goal orientation of salespeople.

The effect of an additional dispositional factor on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship, optimism, will also be examined. It has been proposed that optimism has a relationship with implicit personality theory and goal orientation in a sales setting, although that relationship has not yet been empirically tested (Sujan 1999).

Certain situational factors will also be investigated to determine their effect on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship. The sales literature suggests that sales force control systems influence the goal orientation and behavior of salespeople (Anderson and Oliver 1987; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998; Kraft 1999; Oliver and Anderson 1994). While there are no empirical findings supporting organizational culture (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Desphande, Farley, and Webster 1993; Desphande and Webster 1989; Quinn and Spreitzer 1991) or learning organizations (Argyris 1977; Garvin 1993; Peters and Waterman 1982; Senge 1990) as factors that influence salesperson implicit personality theory or goal orientation, it is plausible to assume that they have an effect on the implicit personality theory-goal

orientation relationship. A detailed discussion of each of these factors along with the theoretical rationale for their inclusion in this study is presented below.

Implicit Personality Theory as An Antecedent to Goal Orientation

Implicit Personality Theory

An *implicit personality theory* is a personality construct that organizes how a person views the world (Dweck and Leggett 1988). The underlying theory supporting the implicit personality construct is derived from the work of (Kelly 1955) and Heider (1958). According to Kelly, a major component of an individual's personality includes "naïve assumptions" about the self and the social world. These naïve assumptions, held by everyone, influence the way in which individuals process and understand information. Similarly, Heider (1958) proposed that people act as "naïve psychologists" and that their beliefs influence the way in which they perceive themselves and others. People's implicit personality theory combines the Kelly (1955) and Heider (1958) concepts. Thus, implicit personality theory is a dispositional characteristic of people and is believed to influence people's "inference, judgments, and reactions, particularly in the face of negative events" (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995, p. 267). These personality theories are held by everyone and are implicit in the sense that they are not easily articulated nor fully understood by the people that hold them. This presents a challenge to behavioral scientists in identifying implicit theories and determining their effects. It is the effect of

implicit personality theory on salesperson goal orientation that is the focal point of this study.

An individual's implicit personality theory falls along a continuum that measures the degree to which human traits are fixed. Anchoring the higher end of the continuum is the belief that human traits are malleable and changeable while beliefs at the other extreme are that human traits are fixed and unchangeable. Thus, people predominately hold one of two implicit personality theories: *incremental* theory and *entity* theory. As previously mentioned, the implicit personality theory one holds is a stable characteristic of that person. That is, implicit personality theory is a disposition of the individual. Additionally, (Dweck and Leggett 1988) state that implicit personality theory determines, at least in part, a person's goal orientation. This suggests that one's implicit personality theory has important motivational consequences for the individual.

A person with an incremental theory of intelligence believes that intelligence is a malleable quality. This person believes that one's ability is not fixed but can be changed with effort. In contrast, one who holds an entity theory of intelligence believes that ability is a fixed and uncontrollable trait. Most significantly, people who hold an incremental theory of intelligence tend toward mastery-oriented goals while those with an entity theory are more prone to performance goals (Dweck and Leggett 1988). For example, in a study of junior high school students, implicit personality theory was found to be a significant and stable predictor of student goal choice (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Thus, a person's implicit personality theory determines goal orientation and goal

orientation, as has been shown, determines whether the person adopts an adaptive or a maladaptive, (i.e., helpless) behavior pattern.

One's perceived ability can, however, temporarily modify one's goal orientation. For example, an entity theorist with high-perceived ability or self-efficacy will be initially oriented toward a mastery goal (Dweck and Leggett 1988). The key here is that the entity theorist calculates the risk of failure into any achievement situation relative to their ability. In this case the risk is low and a mastery orientation is taken. However, should the risk of failure be considered high given their ability at the task, the entity theorist will avoid the task. Only those challenges with a high probability of success will be attempted. Further, should the entity theorist miscalculate the probability of success of a task and face imminent failure, he or she will assume a helpless behavior pattern. This will cause the individual to either quit the task or diminish the importance of successfully completing the task.

The social-cognitive theory of achievement motivation model incorporating implicit personality theory is summarized in Table 2.1. In this model, a person's worldview with respect to intelligence is shown to determine that person's goal orientation in an achievement setting. Goal orientation subsequently determines behavior pattern. The individual's perceived present ability at the task to be completed, or task specific self-esteem, influences the resulting behavior pattern.

Table 1. Theories, Goals, and Behavior Patterns in Achievement Situations (Dweck and Leggett, 1988, p. 259)

Theory of Intelligence	Goal Orientation	Perceived Present Ability	Behavior Pattern
Entity (intelligence is fixed)	Performance (goal is to gain positive judgments/avoid negative judgments of competence)	High	Mastery oriented (seek challenge; high persistence)
		Low	Helpless (avoid challenge; low persistence)
Incremental (intelligence is malleable)	Mastery (goal is to increase competence)	High or Low	Mastery oriented (seek challenge that fosters learning; high persistence)

In summary, people possess a worldview that they use to organize and interpret their actions and the actions of others. Dweck and her colleagues (Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993; Dweck and Leggett 1988) have labeled this worldview as a person's implicit personality theory. Based on their implicit personality theory, people choose goals that are consistent with the way they interpret their environment. People with an entity personality theory will choose goals that they know they will accomplish. Choosing goals that can be easily attained allows entity theorists to reinforce their self-esteem by appearing competent in the eyes of other people. Should the chosen goals become too difficult, the entity theorists will find reasons to abandon the task or diminish its importance. In contrast, people with an incremental personality theory choose goals that offer the opportunity to learn something new or improve skill. It is the desire to

learn and improve that increases this person's self-esteem rather than a comparison with other people.

Each of these two implicit personality theories holds a unique and different concept about the self (Dweck 1990). For the entity theorist, the self is made up of stable traits that can be measured. Alternatively, the incremental theorist believes the self is more dynamic and can be changed. Thus, the entity theorist's self-esteem is enhanced when his or her traits are measured and found favorable in comparison to others. In contrast, the incremental theorist's self-esteem is increased if he or she is allowed to pursue goals that allow for development of skills or talents.

Dweck and Bempechat (1983) demonstrated how this concept of self is related to implicit personality theory. School children that had been previously tested to determine their implicit personality theory were asked when it was that they felt "smart" in school. Entity oriented children reported feelings of high self-efficacy when the work was easy, when little effort was needed for success, when the work was completed without mistakes, and when they finished first. Incremental theorists, on the other hand, reported feeling smart when they were exerting a great deal of effort, when they mastered something they did not understand, and when they mastered something new.

It is important to mention that one's implicit personality theory is not a fixed belief system that a person holds across all situations (Dweck 1990). People may conceive of themselves across different situations as entity theorists who are eager to be evaluated and at other times as dynamic

“systems” who are more willing to grow and learn. As previously discussed, a person does possess a predisposition toward one theory or the other. Additionally, situational factors, addressed later in this study, interact with a person's predisposition toward a particular implicit personality theory. While some marketing researchers have distinguished dispositional and situational factors research purposes (e.g., Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998), people's behavior may best be understood in the interaction of the person and the situation or the context in which the behavior takes place (Dweck and Leggett 1988). That is, the context in which one finds oneself may influence a previous tendency toward one implicit personality theory over the other. Additionally, other characteristics of the individual may also influence a predisposition to an entity or incremental implicit personality theory. Dweck and Leggett's (1988) concept of implicit personality theory is designed to predict what behavior pattern people will adopt in specific situations and not to predict a particular behavior across all situations. The central objective of this study is to identify the behavior pattern salespeople will adopt in a sales situation based on their implicit personality theory.

Generalization of the Model

Dweck and her colleagues (Diener and Dweck 1978; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Dweck, Chiu and Hong 1995) developed the *implicit personality theory* → *goal orientation* → *behavior* formulation in an achievement setting, that is, in a setting where individuals strive for competence in certain activities and pursuits. In this setting, a person's implicit personality theory is represented by the

manner in which people approach, participate in, and respond to achievement tasks (Ames and Archer 1988; Elliott and Church 1997). In order for the model to be considered a valid model of motivation, it needs to apply in more than one setting. Therefore, the model has also been applied in social settings (Chiu, Hong and Dweck 1997; Dweck 1990; Dweck, Chiu and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988).

In the social domain, that part of our lives where people interact socially with others, people attempt to establish relationships to one degree or another. The desire to establish a relationship can be seen as a 'social' goal (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Thus, a more generalized achievement motivation model would also explain people's motivation toward attaining social goals such as the development of relationships and establishing trust. Extension of the achievement motivation model to social relationships has significant implications for sales researchers and sales managers. Social accomplishments such as establishing trust with customers, handling client objections, and maintaining a long-term relationship with the client are critical and integral aspects of the personal selling process (Busch and Wilson 1976; Crosby, Evans, and Cowles 1990; Weeks and Kahle 1990; Weitz 1981). Because of the importance of relationships in the selling process, which is in essence a social process, a discussion of the application of the achievement motivation model to the social domain follows.

Motivation in the Social Domain

In the social domain, a person can have an adaptive or maladaptive reaction to social difficulties such as rejection or conflict. The particular behavior pattern a person exhibits reflects the social goal orientation the person has adopted, just as behavior patterns reflected goal orientation in an achievement setting. The social goal orientation is linked to a person's implicit theory about the fixed or malleable nature of social attributes (Dweck 1990; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Goetz and Dweck 1980). A person with an entity implicit *social* theory tends to believe that others' personalities are made up of fixed traits that will predict behavior in a new situation. In contrast, incremental social theorists are more likely to view a person's behavior in a contextual sense and make weaker trait inferences. That is, the incremental theorist is less likely to stereotype a person based on one or two incidents of observed behavior (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997).

In one study, a sample of college undergraduates was tested to determine whether they predicted behavior of others given only limited trait information. It was found that entity theorists believed that behavior in one social situation predicts behavior in another situation. Further, students who were found to be entity theorists believed that behavior in one social situation is indicative of fixed traits attributable to the individual and that these traits will predict behavior in other social situations (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997).

These findings that indicate that implicit personality theory influences social perceptions among school children and college-aged adults have

potentially important implications for sales managers. Salespeople who negatively categorize prospects based on limited information may avoid those prospects and forfeit potential sales. Entity social theorists have as a goal the attainment of positive social judgments from others and seek to avoid negative social judgments. They are thus unlikely to extend themselves socially in a situation that has a high risk of rejection (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997). Such a situation characterizes the sales setting well. Additionally, entity theorists are more likely to make inferences about other people based on limited behavioral information and are unwilling to change their opinions, even in the face of competing facts (Erdley and Dweck 1993). There is also a tendency for those with an entity social theory to make more global and more negative predictions about a person than are incremental theorists (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997). By negatively categorizing a group of prospects, salespeople may deprive themselves of the opportunity to turn those prospects into customers.

In contrast, incremental social theorists seek to increase their social ability and to develop relationships with others. These individuals are also more willing to consider contextual factors, moods, and other states when observing and interpreting the behavior of others. They also are willing to change their opinion of someone based on new information (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997). In contrast to entity-oriented salesperson, mastery-oriented salespeople will want to gather all available information about prospects before making a judgment as to their suitability as potential customers.

Previously, the *implicit personality theory* → *goal orientation* → *behavior* model was developed and presented in an achievement setting. The empirical findings supporting this model suggest that the same relationship holds in the social setting. It is also clear that the social behavior pattern associated with a mastery goal is adaptive while that of a performance goal orientation leads to a maladaptive social behavior pattern. In a sales setting, the adaptive behavior pattern would most likely be preferred by sales managers as will be discussed in a subsequent section.

Relationship of Implicit Personality Theories to Attribution Theory

Attribution theory is at the heart of the achievement motivation model proposed by Dweck and Leggett (1988). It is informative and important to distinguish the differences between the achievement motivation model that includes implicit personality theory and attribution theory. Two major differences exist and are discussed next.

First, attribution theory proposes that the feedback people experience from the outcome of an event is the source of their expectations and motivation concerning similar future events. The manner in which people interpret this feedback determines their attributional style, that is, their behavior pattern: maladaptive or adaptive (Weiner 1985). In contrast, the achievement motivation model incorporates goal orientation as an antecedent to attributional style. The social-cognitive approach to the achievement motivation model taken in this study proposes that there is a basic and fundamental *antecedent to goal*

orientation. This antecedent is the dispositional characteristic of implicit personality theory. It is this disposition of individuals that creates the framework for how people interpret and react to the world around them (Dweck 1990; Dweck and Leggett 1988). A person's implicit theory begins a chain of cognitive processes that *eventually* result in attributions and their consequences. Thus, implicit personality theory is more fundamental in the motivation process than are goal orientations or attributions. For example, people with an implicit entity theory see themselves and others as possessing stable, global traits. This view directs their goals toward demonstrating the adequacy of these traits, assigning attributions, and explaining the world in terms of these traits.

A second difference is that classic attribution theory (Kelley 1967; Weiner 1985; Weiner et al. 1971) assumes that some factors are stable and uncontrollable by their nature. For example, classic attribution theory posits that ability and intelligence are stable and uncontrollable factors. In contrast, the implicit theory model assumes that no factor, including intelligence, is inherently fixed. In fact, the premise of implicit personality theory is that incremental theorists view the characteristics of people as subject to change with a sufficient amount of effort (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Elliott and Dweck 1988).

In summary, the achievement motivation model proposes that there is a dispositional or personality characteristic—implicit personality theory—that influences how they will interpret the outcomes of events they observe. This personality characteristic is an antecedent to attributional style, mediated by goal orientation. Moreover, achievement motivation theory posits that a

significant number of people believe that all or most of the traits that individuals possess can be changed over time. This is in contrast to attribution theory that maintains that certain traits, such as intelligence, cannot be changed under any circumstances.

Relationship of Implicit Personality Theories to Expectancy-Value Theory

As previously detailed, the expectancy-value motivational approach assumes that expectancy is related to instrumentality (effort/reward) and valence (value of reward). The motivation for effort is due to the expectancy that a reward will be attained and that the reward is worth the effort (Vroom 1964).

Dweck and Leggett (1988) agree that expectancy plays a major role in an individual's motivation. As with attribution theory, however, implicit personality theory is seen as a more basic, fundamental cause of expectancy. In this view, it is not just the goal, its instrumentality, and valence that motivates a person; it is also the person's particular *goal orientation*—mastery or performance. The choice of one goal orientation over another thus determines the level of expectancy. Further, the personality characteristic of implicit personality theory influences the goal orientation people will choose in a particular situation. Thus, since goal orientation determines attributional style, implicit personality theory is considered a root cause of an individual's ultimate behavior pattern.

Moderating Dispositional Factors

Certain dispositional factors may influence the *implicit personality theory-goal orientation* relationship. While researchers agree that self-efficacy influences the relationship between goal orientation and behavior patterns e.g. (Dweck and Leggett 1988), there has been little discussion of dispositional factors other than implicit personality theory that may *precede* the individual's choice of a goal orientation. One exception was Sujan (1999) who provided a conceptual argument for the relationship between optimism and goal orientation with regard to salespeople. This theoretical association between optimism and goal orientation is discussed later in this study.

Optimism

Recent motivational research in psychology and sales has begun to consider optimism an important motivational factor (Scheier, Carver, and Bridges 1994; Seligman 1991; Strutton and Lumpkin 1993; Sujan 1999; Taylor and Brown 1988; Van Calster, Lens, and Nuttin 1987) and a possible *dispositional antecedent to goal orientation* (Sujan 1999). The discussion of optimism will be in three parts. First, optimism will be defined and explained. Next, the relationship between optimism and motivation is examined. Finally, the positioning of optimism as an antecedent influence on goal orientation is discussed.

Definition and explanation of optimism. Scheier, Carver, and Bridges (1994) define optimism and contrast it with pessimism:

Optimists are people who tend to hold positive expectancies for their future; pessimists are people who tend to hold more negative expectations for the future (p. 1063).

Moreover, optimists reinterpret negative outcomes to make them appear more positive, believing that the future will be better than the present or the past (Taylor and Brown 1988).

It is possible that most people engage in unrealistic optimism. When people are asked to judge their perception of the future compared to what they think the future holds for others, people tend to believe that their future is brighter (Taylor and Brown 1988). For example, people believe that they are more likely to get a good job or have a happy marriage than are their peers. Conversely, most people believe that negative events are less likely to happen to them than to other people. This unrealistic positive view of the future is believed by Taylor and Brown (1988) to contribute to mental health. Clearly, though, some people are more optimistic than others are (Hjelle, Belongia, and Nesser 1996; Scheier, Carver, and Bridges 1994) and it is this difference in optimism that is believed to affect motivation. The influence of optimism on motivation is discussed below.

Optimism and motivation. Research indicates that optimists use problem-focused coping strategies to a greater extent than do pessimists (Scheier, Carver, and Bridges 1994; Strutton and Lumpkin 1993). In attributional terms, optimists attribute their failures to poor strategy and, thus, adjust their strategy before again attempting the task. If a change of strategy is not available, optimists will use humor or a positive interpretation of the situation. These

behaviors contrast with pessimists who may resort to withdrawal and avoidance regardless of their ability to solve the problem (Scheier, Carver, and Bridges 1994; Taylor and Brown 1988).

This ability of optimists to use problem-focused coping strategies fosters increased motivation and persistence (Taylor and Brown 1988). Persistence coupled with the belief that problems are solved through increased effort and improved strategy result in positive internal feedback that leads to increased optimism within the individual. Social support, which optimists are more likely to seek than pessimists, only serves to enhance an optimistic attitude. Pessimists, on the other hand, tend to be loners and do not seek support from co-workers. This lack of social support from co-workers increases pessimism and operates as a de-motivator (Scheier, Carver, and Bridges 1994).

Optimism, goal orientation, and sales. It has been shown that children with a mastery orientation are more likely to expect success in the future and are willing to persist in the face of failure (Diener and Dweck 1978). Additionally, if one has a high expectation of success on a particular task, that person will work longer and harder than a person who has a low expectation of success (Atkinson 1964). Thus, an optimistic outlook, or positive expectancy, would appear to be associated with a mastery goal orientation (Sujan 1999).

Recent studies in the sales literature have incorporated goal orientation into the model of motivation for salespeople (Sujan 1999; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar (1994) found that optimism moderated the relationship between performance goals and adaptive selling. In contrast,

pessimism blocked performance goal oriented salespeople from adaptive selling practices. Put another way, salespeople's degree of optimism has an influence on their willingness to engage in adaptive selling. Further, Sujan (1999) has proposed that optimism is an antecedent to a mastery goal orientation. One of the purposes of the current study was to test this assertion.

Another interesting concept proposed by Sujan (1999) is that salespeople who are optimists are more likely to be incremental theorists and, thus, to have a mastery goal orientation. In contrast, pessimists are more likely to be entity theorists with a performance goal orientation. This argument is based on the concept that incremental theorists, who tend to have a mastery goal orientation, believe that increased effort and improved strategy will lead to success on a task. Since these traits are also consistent with optimists, Sujan (1999) recognizes a parallel between optimists and incremental theorists. This position is consistent with that of Dweck and Leggett (1988) who found that children with a mastery goal orientation had a more optimistic appraisal of the outcome on a difficult task than did children with a performance goal orientation. A relationship between these constructs has not been empirically verified, however. The direction of causal influence between these two constructs has not been established.

In summary, the literature supports the concept that there is a relationship between optimism and goal orientation, although the nature of that relationship is not clear. Further, there has been conjecture in the literature that the characteristics of dispositional optimism are the same as those of

incremental theorists (Sujan1999). Further exploratory research is needed to determine how optimism is related to implicit personality theory and goal orientation.

Situational Factors

The psychology literature has long argued that the relationship between dispositional factors and behavior is moderated by the demands of the situation (Barrick and Mount 1993; Bem and Allen 1974; Bem and Funder 1978; Chatman 1989; Monson, Hesley, and Chernick 1982). That is,

the extent to which a person's personality characteristics predict behavior is hypothesized to differ depending on the degree to which the external environment inhibits a person's freedom to behave in idiosyncratic ways (Barrick and Mount 1993, p. 112).

It has been previously hypothesized that implicit personality theory, as a personality trait, influences goal orientation that, in turn, influences behavior. Since goal orientation mediates the focal disposition-behavior relationship in this study (i.e., implicit personality theory-adaptive behavior pattern), it reasonable to believe that if situational factors affect disposition-behavior relationships then situational factors should also influence the disposition-goal orientation relationship.

It is the strength or demands of the situation that moderate the disposition-behavior relationship. That is, the extent to which people's dispositions predict their behavior depends on the degree to which the situation limits their freedom to behave in idiosyncratic ways. Situational factors can be *strong* in the sense that they restrict the range of behaviors that people feel they

are willing or able to engage in (Barrick and Mount 1993). In contrast, situational factors can be *weak* in that people perceive more freedom in their behavior. Thus, the extent to which situational factors inhibit the individual from acting in ways that are consistent with his or her disposition, the situational factors moderate the disposition-behavior relationship. (Barrick and Mount 1993; House, Shane, and Herold 1996).

Situational factors have been found to influence an individual's goal orientation in an educational setting (Ames and Archer 1988; Ames 1992) as well as in a sales setting (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Situational factors have also been found to interact with dispositions in influencing goal orientation (Button, Mathieu, and Zajac 1996; Dweck and Leggett 1988). Thus, the effect of two organizational factors that are theoretically linked to the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship will be examined with respect to salespeople. These organizational factors—control systems and organizational culture—will be discussed next.

Control Systems

Sales force control systems can influence the behavior and/or the outcomes of salespeople (Anderson and Oliver 1987; Jaworski 1988; Kraft 1999). A control system is defined as:

An organization's set of procedures for monitoring, directing, evaluating, and compensating its employees (Anderson and Oliver 1987), p. 76).

A sales force control system gives management the ability to provide prompt feedback to salespeople that can improve their sales performance (Jaworski

1988). The ideal design of a control system is one that is beneficial to both the firm and its salespeople. That is, the control system should motivate salespeople by designing a feedback and reinforcement method that encourages them to engage in the behaviors in which the firm wishes them to engage (Kraft 1999). *Feedback* is the information management provides salespeople that lets them know how well they have performed assigned tasks. The term *reinforcement* applies to all of the tangible rewards, including compensation that are available to salespeople in an organization. A properly oriented control system can aid in the success of the firm's salespeople (Kraft 1999).

Control systems can be divided into those systems that monitor the final results, or outcomes, of a salesperson's performance and those that monitor the behavior of the salesperson throughout the sales process. Control systems that measure final results are termed outcome-based while those that measure behavior are labeled behavior-based systems.

Because outcome-based control systems are characterized by very little monitoring of salespeople by management, relatively little direction as to how a salesperson is to carry out his or her duties is provided. Additionally, evaluation of the salesperson is based strictly on sales results. In an outcome-based control system, straight commission, where compensation is based directly on sales outcomes, is often the preferred method of compensation (Anderson and Oliver 1987).

Behavior-based control systems, in contrast, involve extensive monitoring of salesperson activity and behavior. Additionally, management directs and oversees many of the details of these activities. Salesperson evaluation is relatively more subjective in the behavior-based control system compared to the outcome-based control system. For example, product knowledge, the number of sales calls made, and the sales strategy used are as important, if not more important, in the evaluation process than are levels of sales production. In the behavior-based control system, salary or salary-and-bonus is often the preferred compensation system (Anderson and Oliver 1987).

Behavior and outcome-based control systems have been found to be independent concepts (Ouchi and Maguire 1975). This independence suggests that the two systems perform different functions with regard to salesperson motivation. Therefore, the type of control system chosen by management will directly influence salesperson outcomes or behaviors, or both (Anderson and Oliver 1987; Jaworski 1988; Kraft 1999). Because the control system influences behavior through managerial feedback, the theoretical link between a control system and motivation is best explained by cognitive evaluation theory (Deci and Ryan 1985), discussed next.

Cognitive evaluation theory. As previously noted, sales force control systems are designed to provide feedback and reinforcement that will motivate salespeople to perform behaviors or achieve outcomes that are beneficial to the firm. In addition to being advantageous for the firm, rewards and managerial feedback can also affect the salesperson's level of intrinsic motivation for a task

(Ryan, Mims, and Koestner 1983). There are two concepts to explain this influence: an *informational* and a *controlling* aspect. Information, or supervisory feedback, must be meaningful in order to be effective in directing behavior and outcomes in the desired fashion. Meaningful information is information that the salesperson perceives to be helpful. That is, either the feedback indicates that the salesperson is competent or it gives him or her guidelines on how to become so. Further, the salesperson must believe that a change in behavior along the lines suggested by the supervisor will enhance performance.

The informational aspect only has meaning, however, if the salesperson believes that it is he or she who makes the decision whether or not to change behavior. Thus, supervisory feedback that is perceived to “control” the salesperson's behavior is ineffective in increasing the salesperson's intrinsic motivation (Calder and Staw 1975). Information or rewards that are considered controlling cause the salesperson to see the reward as *pressure* to do something and to do it in a particular way in order to receive a reward. When salespeople do not believe that they self-determine their response to supervisory feedback and rewards, they cannot perceive the relationship between a change in behavior and a change in performance. Thus, the behavior-performance link is only effective if the choice to change behavior is perceived by the salesperson to be voluntary (Anderson and Oliver 1987).

Cognitive evaluation theory, then, provides the theoretical basis that suggests that management can aid in motivating the behavior and influencing the outcomes of salespeople through a properly constructed control systems.

As mentioned, the most effective control system is one that achieves the objectives of both the firm and the individual salesperson. Salespeople must perceive the feedback and rewards offered by management as helpful and as suggestive. That is, the salespeople need to perceive that they are free to modify their effort and strategies in reaction to supervisory feedback. To the extent that the control system is helpful and not perceived as controlling, intrinsic motivation will be increased (Deci and Ryan 1985). The central concepts of cognitive evaluation theory are shown in Figure 3.

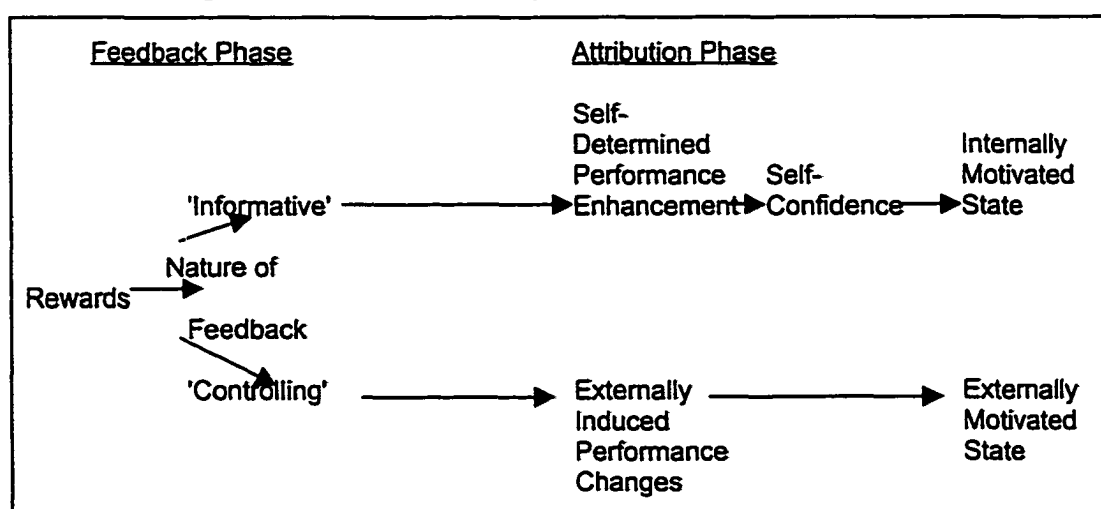


Figure 3. Central Concepts of Cognitive Evaluation Theory (Anderson and Oliver 1987)

Feedback, rewards, and goal orientation. Empirical evidence of the affect of rewards and feedback on goal orientation is evident in studies performed by Elliott and Dweck (1988) and Ames and Archer (1988). Elliott and Dweck (1988) manipulated the goals of elementary school children and the assessments of the students' perceived ability level. Children who were lead to believe that a performance orientation was valued were very concerned about their perceived ability. Those that perceived themselves to have high ability chose tasks that would demonstrate that ability; those with perceived low ability chose tasks that

were easy and that would avoid judgments of incompetence. Therefore, when performance is valued, as in an outcome-based control system, people will choose tasks that will demonstrate competence and ability in comparison to others and will *avoid* tasks that may result in failure.

On the other hand, children that were taught that a mastery orientation was valued did not perceive their ability to be relevant to success on the task. These children chose tasks that were interesting to them and that offered an opportunity to improve skill. The performance of the task in relation to others and the possibility of failure were not considered by the students. Thus, when mastery is valued, as in a behavior-based control system, people will choose tasks that are challenging and will continue to persist in the face of failure.

Students' perception of the goal orientation of the classroom also affects their behavior and emotional reaction to academic tasks (Ames and Archer 1988). When children perceived that teacher feedback and rewards were tied to effort, the students used more effective learning behavior enjoyed class more, and believed there was a positive relationship between effort and ability. Ames and Archer (1988) found that the students' perception of the feedback and reward system was more important than the students' perception of their ability. That is, students of both high and low perceived abilities chose tasks that were challenging and were intrinsically motivated to complete the chosen tasks. This study provides further evidence that supervisory feedback and rewards influence goal orientation and, ultimately, behavior.

The effect of a control system on goal orientation has also been studied in the context of athletic teams. Students in a youth soccer league were divided into competitive and recreational teams. The competitive teams resembled an outcome-based control system. That is, outcomes were valued, starting positions were assigned based on performance, and winning was the primary objective. In contrast, recreational teams stressed learning the game of soccer and resembled a behavior-based control system. Each child was allowed to play and the goal was to improve skill rather than just to win games. When measured for goal orientation, children on the competitive teams reported higher performance goal orientations than did children on recreational teams (Ryska and Yin 1999).

Sales force control systems and goal orientation. Empirical evidence supports the existence of a relationship between sales force control systems and goal orientation (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). In fact, sales force control systems are believed to influence salesperson goal orientation choice. This is important because goal orientation subsequently leads to either adaptive or maladaptive behavior patterns. Thus, the sales force control system ultimately influences salesperson behavior.

Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) separated outcome- and behavior-based control systems into three supervisory orientations. A sales supervisor who is end-results oriented, as described by Anderson and Oliver (1987), characterizes an outcome-based control system. That is, a supervisor

who emphasizes the periodic sales goals and who gives a minimum of direction to the sales force in how to achieve these goals.

Supervisors who are activity- and capability-oriented characterized a behavior-based control system as described by Anderson and Oliver (1987). Activity-based supervisors monitor the non-selling activities of their salespeople. These activities include product knowledge and customer service. Capability-oriented supervisors act as coaches or mentors for their salespeople. The capability-oriented supervisor works with his or her salespeople to help them develop their selling skills.

As previously mentioned, the reward structures are different in the two sales force control systems originally described by Anderson and Oliver (1987). In the outcome-based system, reinforcements or rewards are based on successful sales performance. On the other hand, the behavior-based system rewards non-selling behaviors such as product knowledge and selling behaviors such as the number of sales calls completed. The specific reward structure of the control system affects salesperson goal orientation as is described below.

First, it is necessary to recall that individuals receive satisfaction and a feeling of competence from behavior that either increases mastery or demonstrates performance. If the person receives satisfaction from learning a new task or understanding a problem, there is no need for that person to compare him- or herself to others. In contrast, if a person feels that demonstration of ability is the *only* way to receive satisfaction from task performance, then that person will be primarily motivated to differentiate him- or

herself from others. In short, the person who receives satisfaction from learning perceives the world as non-competitive while the person feels the need to differentiate him- or herself from others sees all aspects of the world as a competitive test (Nichols 1984).

In an outcome-based control system, rewards are based on one's level of performance. The higher a salesperson's level of performance, the higher is the salesperson's perceived level of ability. Further the salesperson who performs well receives higher rewards and more favorable supervisory feedback that indicates that the salesperson is competent. Thus, in an outcome-based control system, salespeople compete for rewards and favorable feedback. This competition requires salespeople to differentiate themselves from each other in order to be recognized. The approach the salesperson employs to succeed in this type of system is one characterized by a performance goal orientation (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Of importance to sales managers is that one characteristic of people with a performance goal orientation is that they perceive a negative relationship between effort and ability. If a person has high ability, then he or she should not need to put forth much effort in order to demonstrate that ability. In fact, high effort is indicative of low ability (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Thus, the performance-oriented salesperson may not attempt to sell to accounts that require a great deal of effort.

In contrast, in a behavior-based control system the salesperson's sales related *activity* is rewarded. Further, the salesperson's perception of his or her

ability is not tied to the level of sales. Thus, the salesperson does not need to compare his or her sales performance with peers. Increased ability, in this case, is seen as a product of increased effort. Increased effort is perceived to lead to enhanced ability in such areas as product knowledge and relationship building. This lack of need for salespeople in the behavior-based control system to compare their performance to others coupled with the positive relationship between ability and effort encourages a mastery goal orientation (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). While a behavior-based control system has not been shown to increase intrinsic motivation, it has been shown to reduce salesperson extrinsic motivation (Oliver and Anderson 1994).

As seen from the above discussion, Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) have established the relationship between sales force control systems and goal orientation. One objective of the current study is to extend that work by examining the effect of the control system on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship.

In addition to the dimensions of performance and behavior, recent research on sales force control systems has revealed a third dimension of control designated as *capability control* (Challagalla and Shervani 1996). This dimension refers to the potential for development of the individual salesperson's skills and abilities. Sales managers who emphasize capability control routinely judge the specific capability and skills of each salesperson. Salesperson goals are set with these skills in mind such that each salesperson has his or her individual goals. Rewards are then given based on the attainment of these

goals. If the goals are not attained by the salesperson, managers are expected to work with salespeople to improve any deficiencies in capabilities. Challagalla and Shervani (1996) found that the intrinsic motivation of salespeople was increased when managers stressed improvement of skills and ability and rewarded salespeople for such improvement. Further, Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) found that managers who exercised capability control encouraged a mastery goal orientation among their salespeople. The implication of this finding is that capability control can be used as a motivational tool to encourage salespeople to persist when a sale becomes challenging.

In summary, in the classroom, on the athletic field, or in sales settings, it appears that the type of reward and feedback system affects goal orientation. If students, athletes, or salespeople perceive that rewards are linked to effort and improvement, they will tend to adopt a mastery orientation. On the other hand, if the perception is that rewards and feedback are performance-oriented, a performance goal orientation will likely be adopted. The adoption of a performance goal orientation is most likely in a context where salespeople are encouraged to compete with one another. It is important to note that these studies on the effect of control systems and goal orientation did not consider dispositional factors that may also determine goal orientation. A central objective of this study was to examine the relationship between the dispositional factor of implicit personality theory, situational factors, and goal orientation.

Culture and Goal Orientation

Goal orientation has been shown to be influenced by classroom structure. The structure of a classroom relates to how tasks are designed, how students are evaluated, and the teacher's attitude toward student autonomy (Ames 1992; Ames and Ames 1981; Ames and Archer 1988). Additionally, a person's implicit personality theory (and, thus, goal orientation) has been shown to be affected by national culture (Ybarra and Stephan 1999). There has been no research, however, on the relationship between organizational culture and goal orientation. The current study explored the relationship between organizational culture, implicit personality theory, and goal orientation. A review of the literature that supports these links follows. First, the concept of culture is discussed and its applicability to organizations is presented. Next, one key aspect of culture, organizational culture, is discussed. Finally, the theoretical links are discussed tying certain organizational cultures to particular goal orientations.

Culture. Numerous definitions of culture exist (Schein 1990). The different definitions reflect the different perspectives taken by the fields of anthropology, sociology, social psychology, and organizational behavior. Becker and Geer (1970) offer a sociological definition of culture:

Any social group, to the extent that it is a distinctive unit, will have to some degree a culture differing from that of other groups, a somewhat different set of common understandings around which action is organized, and these differences will find expression in a language whose nuances are particular to that group (p. 134).

In an international business setting, national culture has been defined as follows:

Culture is a learned, shared, compelling interrelated set of symbols whose meanings provide a set of orientations for members of a society. These orientations, taken together, provide solutions to problems that all societies must solve if they are to remain viable (Terpstra and David 1991, p. 5).

Finally, culture has also been defined as:

the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another. (Hofstede 1980, p. 25).

Culture has importance in the business setting in that provides the norms of behavior that regulate the exchange process (Desphandé and Webster 1989). That is, the culture of a society determines the behavior that is both acceptable and valued in the allocation of scarce resources. Thus, the anthropological concepts of culture can be applied to organizations as well as to nations (Desphandé and Webster 1989; Hofstede et al. 1990; Quinn and Cameron 1983). A detailed discussion of the application of the anthropological concepts of culture as they are applied to organizations follows.

Organizational Culture. The research in organizational culture stemmed from an interest in the 1980s as to why Japanese firms, on the whole, tended to outperform their U.S. counterparts (Schein 1990). Since differences in national cultures did not explain all of the differences in observed performance, organizational culture became a possible differentiating factor (Ouchi 1981).

In marketing, the influence of organizational factors on salesperson motivation has been recognized (Churchill, Ford and Walker 1979; Tyagi, 1982;

Tyagi, 1985). In spite of the interest in organizational factors on salesperson motivation, the concept of organizational culture and its possible relationship to motivation has not been investigated. This study examined the association between organizational culture and salesperson goal orientation and its subsequent influence on motivation.

Definitions and concepts of organizational culture. The term *organizational* culture is used because it helps differentiate the values of the organization from the values or preferences of the individuals that make up the organization, that is, personal values. Additionally, organizational culture distinguishes the organization from the values, language, and norms of a national culture (societal values) (Cameron and Quinn 1999). A widely accepted definition of organizational culture in a sales context is offered by Deshpandé and Webster (1989):

"the pattern of shared values and beliefs that help members of an organization understand why things happen and thus teach them the behavior norms in the organization" (p. 4).

This approach to culture adopts an interactionist view that proposes that there is a person-situation interaction that affects individual behavior (Dweck and Leggett 1988; George 1991). Included in this person-situation interaction are the culture's role expectations of the individual (Weick 1979). The organization's socialization process makes a person a complete member of an organization and teaches him or her "the way we do things around here" (Peters and Waterman 1982). That is, organizational culture teaches employees, including salespeople, the norms of the organization and how people are expected to

behave while members of the organization. In this sense, the culture of the organization *guides* behavior. As previously discussed, at an early age people form personality characteristics that influence their choice of goal orientation. These characteristics are relatively stable throughout one's lifetime (Dweck and Leggett 1988; House, Shane, and Herold 1996). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that salespeople enter an organizational culture with personality characteristics held since early childhood. Therefore, the organization's culture exerts its influence on goal orientation by interacting with an individual's *dispositional characteristics*. The *situational factor*, in this case organizational culture, is believed to moderate the disposition-goal orientation relationship (Barrick and Mount 1993).

The study of organizational culture requires an understanding of the difference between the terms "culture" and "climate," two conceptually, distinct concepts. A shared set of assumptions and understanding about how an organization functions is, by definition, part of culture. In contrast, the perception of the members about how well the organization is meeting these assumptions is the organization's climate. Thus, culture refers to 'why things happen the way they do' and climate refers 'what happens around here' (Desphandè, Farley, and Webster 1993).

There are two general theoretical approaches to organizational culture – as a *variable* and as a *metaphor* (Desphandè and Webster 1989). In the variable approach, culture is a variable exogenous to the firm. In this approach, culture influences the formation of beliefs and values within the organization.

The variable approach posits that culture is something an organization *has*. For example, it is assumed in this approach that national culture influences the belief systems of the organization.

In contrast to culture as something an organization has, the metaphor approach considers organizational culture to be something an organization *is*. Within this theoretical framework the researcher attempts to understand the shared values and beliefs that guide behavior (Weick 1979). The organization as a whole is viewed as a "knowledge system" (Desphandé and Webster 1989). It is this latter approach that is used in this study and one which has been widely used in recent marketing research (Desphandé Farley, and Webster 1993; Moorman 1995). This approach is in consonance with the motivational theory of goal orientation that deals with belief systems – about oneself, others, or one's environment. Thus, an approach to culture that incorporates belief systems is the appropriate choice to test the influence of culture on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship.

Levels of culture. Any group that can distinguish itself from other groups and that has a shared history can have a culture (Desphandé and Webster 1989; Schein 1990). Schein (1985, 1990) explains that culture can be analyzed at three different levels. The levels of culture are the surface manifestations of a culture that can be observed by someone outside of the culture. The three levels of culture – artifacts, values, and basic underlying assumptions – range from tangible, easily observable manifestations to highly intangible

philosophies, thoughts, and feelings (Denison 1990). The three levels of culture are applicable to organizations as well as national cultures (Schein 1990).

The first level of culture offered by Schein (1985, 1990) is that of *artifacts*. When a person first encounters an organization, he or she observes the group's artifacts. This includes the physical layout of the facility, dress code, rituals, emotional intensity, and such published materials as the firm's mission statement and the annual report. While readily observable, artifacts are difficult to decipher. For example, one may be able to observe that an organization has a formal dress code. Yet, this does not tell a person anything about how the members of the organization feel about the dress code. In fact, a person may make an incorrect inference about a particular artifact because he or she does not understand how it connects to the organization's underlying values and assumptions (Schein 1990).

The second level of culture is *values*. This refers to the norms, ideologies, and philosophies of the culture. The culture's values represent the way in which members evaluate others, the organization, and themselves. Values can also predict how members of a culture will act in a particular situation. That is, values are conscious guides to dealing with events that are uncontrollable, difficult, or unexpected (Schein 1992).

The key to understanding a culture is to understand its *basic assumptions* (Schein 1985; Schein 1990). Basic assumptions are the beliefs members hold about themselves, others in the culture, and the society in which they live. Unconscious and invisible, basic assumptions are, nevertheless, the

foundation for behavior in the culture and determine how members of the culture interpret events. Basic assumptions are ingrained in the culture to the extent that they are extremely difficult to change. Members of the culture will interpret incidents in a manner that is consistent with the culture's basic assumptions, even if the interpretation misconstrues the reality of those incidents. A shared set of assumptions lends comfort and security to members of a culture (Douglas 1986).

Competing values approach. One widely accepted model of organizational culture is the Competing Values Framework (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Desphandé, Farley, and Webster 1993). This framework delineates organizational culture across two key dimensions. The first dimension distinguishes organizations by their emphasis on flexibility, spontaneity, and dynamism as opposed to stability, order, and control. For example, some organizations place an emphasis on change, flexibility, and adaptation to their environment. On the other hand, some organizations focus on stability, predictability, and mechanistic behavior.

A second dimension delineates organizations by their emphasis on internal or external orientation. Firms with an internal orientation emphasize structural stability and smooth running processes. At the other extreme, firms with an external orientation focus on adapting to the environment, outcomes, and competition (Moorman 1995). While a firm may have some characteristics of both an internal and an external orientation, one orientation or the other

typically dominates the firm. That is, a firm cannot be internally *and* externally oriented (Cameron and Quinn 1999).

These two dimensions result in four quadrants with each quadrant representing a set of characteristics that enhance organizational effectiveness. The particular quadrant in which a firm finds itself indicates what the firm values with regard to its performance. That is, the organizational characteristics found in each of the quadrants indicate what the firm sees as appropriate and desired behavior. They are, in short, the core values of the firm. This framework is shown in Figure 4.

Flexibility and Discretion

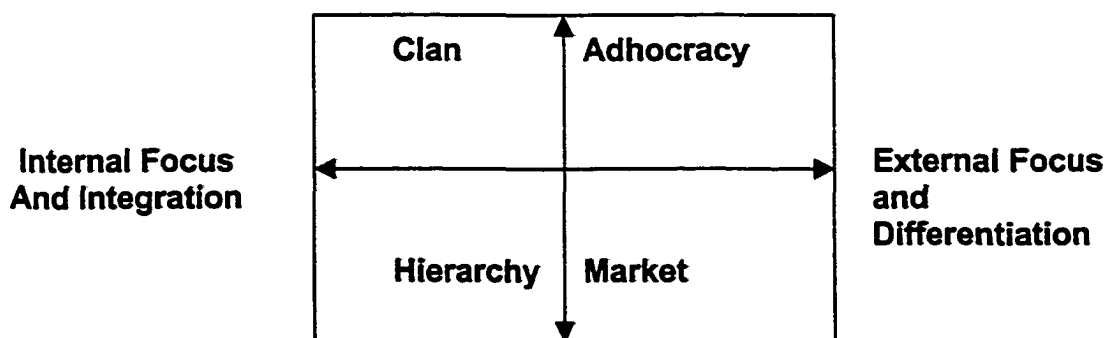


Figure 4. The Competing Values Framework (Cameron and Quinn 1999, p. 32).

This paradigm is known as the "competing values framework" (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Desphandé, Farley, and Webster 1993) in that each quadrant indicates core values that are in contradistinction to the values of the quadrant on the diagonal. For example, the upper left quadrant identifies an internal orientation with a focus on flexibility while the lower right quadrant emphasizes an external orientation with a focus on stability and control. Each quadrant is

identified with a label that refers to its most important, core characteristic. The culture types are *clan*, *adhocracy*, *market*, and *hierarchy* and are positioned as shown in Figure 4. A discussion of each of the culture types follows.

Hierarchy Culture

In the first half of the twentieth century, business organizations were faced with the task of producing and delivering goods and services in an increasingly complex society. Social scientists began to develop organizational structures that would enable firms to efficiently and effectively produce goods for the mass market. (Weber 1947) proposed seven characteristics of an efficient firm: rules, specialization, meritocracy, hierarchy, separate ownership, impersonality, and accountability. This form of enterprise was superior to prior organizational structures because it led to highly consistent products and services that were efficiently distributed. The original administrative structure proposal by Weber (1947) forms the basis of the hierarchy culture (Cameron and Quinn 1999).

The hierarchy culture type emphasizes smooth and efficient operations with an integration of stable tasks. Products are uniform and workers are closely supervised. There are clear lines of decision-making authority and rules and procedures are written, understood by all employees, and strictly followed. Thus, the hierarchy culture is high on the stability and control dimension and on the internal focus dimension.

Market Culture

In the late 1960s, U.S. organizations faced new competitive pressures. The hierarchy culture type was not able to efficiently meet these new outside demands. A new organizational structure was developed in order to improve the efficiency of organizations. The central focus of this new culture type was on *transaction costs* (Ouchi 1981; Williamson 1975). The new organizational perspective was known as a *market* form of organization (Cameron and Quinn 1999).

The term "market" in this context refers neither to the firm's marketing function nor to its customers. Rather, the firm is considered to function as a market itself. The focus is on the organization's transactions with other firms and individuals in the business environment. Firm transactions include those with customers, suppliers, competitors, and unions. Thus, this type of organization is externally oriented. The objective of this culture type is to minimize the total cost of all transactions and to effectively compete with all other providers in their market (Desphandé, Farley, and Webster 1993; Williamson 1975).

The core values of the market culture are competitiveness and performance. The market culture firm values aggressive behavior in its dealings with its constituencies because the environment is considered to be hostile. Thus, management's focus is on productivity, goal attainment, and bottom-line results (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Desphandé, Farley, and Webster 1993).

The market culture is similar to the hierarchy culture in that it emphasizes stability and control. It differs from the hierarchy culture in that the market culture has an external rather than an internal orientation.

Clan Culture

Researchers studied the differences between the American forms of organizational culture, market and hierarchy, and that of Japanese firms. It was observed that the Japanese firms had a family-type structure (Ouchi 1981). The culture of these firms has been labeled a clan culture. The clan culture is internally oriented and is distinguished by shared values, solidarity, and a sense of belonging among its employees. The fundamental emphasis of the clan culture is long term employee development and a shared commitment to the organization. Semi-autonomous teams and quality circles are used to empower employees and leaders are expected to manage the development of others in the firm (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Desphandé, Farley, and Webster 1993).

Clan cultures are high on the flexibility and spontaneity dimension and are internally oriented. This positions clan cultures in the upper left quadrant of Figure 4.

Adhocracy Culture

None of the previously described firm cultures are ideal models for the information age where firms in some industries face extremely turbulent environmental changes (Quinn and Cameron 1983). A culture type that can adapt to these changes through continuous innovation has evolved. This type of

firm is labeled adhocracy and is characterized by entrepreneurship and the ability to easily adapt to a rapidly changing environment. Firms that have an adhocracy culture are flexible, are able to bring new products to market quickly, and are able to deal with ambiguity in the marketplace.

The managerial perspective of the adhocracy culture is one of risk taking. Employees are encouraged to be innovative and creative and to seek new knowledge. The entire firm is committed to experimentation and development of unique products and services (Cameron and Quinn 1999).

Summary

In summary, the four culture types evolved to meet differing economic realities (Cameron and Quinn 1999). They represent different *ideal* firm types that were designed to address organizational efficiency and profitability in different organizational settings. Most organizations, however, will have aspects of more than one culture type, although one culture type typically predominates (Quinn and Rohrbaugh 1983; Quinn and Spreitzer 1991). Table 2 summarizes the attributes of each culture type.

Table 2. Organizational Culture Profile (Cameron and Quinn 1999, p. 58)

<p>The Clan Culture</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Friendly place to work • People share a lot of themselves. • An extended family. • Leaders are mentors. • Organization held together by loyalty and tradition. • Commitment is high. • Emphasis on human resource development. • Importance in cohesion and morale. • Success defined in terms of concern for people. • Premium placed on teamwork, participation, and consensus. 	<p>The Adhocracy Culture</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A creative place to work. • People take risks. • Leaders are risk takers. • Commitment to experimentation and innovation holds organization together. • On the cutting edge. • Emphasis is on growth • New products or services. • Being a leader is important. • Encourages individual initiative and freedom.
<p>The Hierarchy Culture</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formalized and structured workplace. • Procedures govern. • Leaders are coordinators. • Efficiency minded. • Smooth-running organization is most critical. • Rules and policies hold organization together. • Long-term concern is stability • Success defined as smooth scheduling, and low cost. • Secure employment and predictability. 	<p>The Market Culture</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Results-oriented organization. • Competitive and goal oriented. • Leaders are tough and demanding. • Winning holds the organization together. • Success is common concern. • Achievement of measurable goals. • Success defined as market share. • Market leadership is important. • Organization style is hard-driving and competitive.

Organizational Culture and Goal Orientation

This study will explore the relationship between organizational culture and goal orientation. The conditions that are necessary for a mastery or a performance goal orientation with respect to culture will be discussed.

Characteristics of each culture type as they relate to goal orientation will be detailed.

Research in educational psychology has shown that the environment impacts goal orientation and motivation (Ames 1992; MacIver 1988; Marshall and Weinstein 1984). Aspects of the classroom environment that influence student motivation include tasks and learning activities, evaluation procedures, and the distribution of responsibility and authority. The characteristics of a classroom that influence students toward a particular goal orientation have analogues among the four types of organizational culture discussed above. Thus, it seems plausible that the organizational environment of a sales firm, that is, its organizational culture, may influence its salespersons' goal orientation in a similar manner.

Tasks. Certain characteristics of achievement tasks promote a mastery goal orientation (Ames 1992). Students were found to be more likely to adopt a mastery goal orientation toward learning when they perceived a meaningful reason for engaging in an activity. Additionally, a mastery goal orientation was enhanced when students believed the purpose of the task was to gain new skills or to understand the relationship of the work with respect to other tasks being performed in the same context. Students also need to believe there is a relationship between effort on a task and success at the task in order to persist when the task becomes difficult (Elliott and Dweck 1988; Nichols 1984).

Additionally, there is a social component to tasks in that the tasks in the classroom are embedded in the social organization of the class (Ames 1992).

Students are more likely to assume a mastery goal orientation when they work together in groups, share ideas and, ultimately, share task outcomes. Alternatively, a classroom environment that encourages students to work alone and avoid risks in front of the other students, retards a mastery goal orientation.

The clan culture emphasizes employee development. A primary task of leaders in the clan culture is to develop employees in their charge (Cameron and Quinn 1999). This closely resembles the emphasis on development of students in the mastery-oriented classroom. Further, employees in the clan culture work together in teams as do students in the mastery-oriented classroom. Working in teams fosters cohesiveness and allows employees to view how their effort contributes to the entire organization. Thus, the clan culture mirrors the task structure of the mastery goal oriented classroom by emphasizing employee development and teamwork.

In contrast, the values of the clan culture do not reflect the conditions necessary for a performance goal orientation. Competition rather than teamwork is indicative of environments where employees adopt a performance goal orientation. For example, students in a performance goal-oriented classroom are encouraged to work individually rather than in teams. The sharing of new knowledge is discouraged because of the competitive nature of the environment. These attributes of the performance goal oriented classroom are antithetical to a clan culture (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster 1993).

Market cultures stress achievement and productivity. Work is demanding and failure is not tolerated. Experimentation is not emphasized and creative employees are rewarded only to the extent that they are successful. Teamwork is difficult to implement in the market culture because of the focus on individual results. Additionally, a focus on individual results discourages employees from sharing potentially valuable information. This is because the information an employee has is a valuable commodity in an organization where employees compete with one another for rewards and recognition. Therefore, the competitive nature of the task function in the market culture is contrary to the task structure of the mastery-oriented classroom. Employees who are encouraged to compete among themselves may well adopt a performance goal orientation and choose those tasks that are easily accomplished and provide little challenge.

The market culture has, in fact, many characteristics that promote a performance orientation. One such characteristic is competitiveness. Performance-oriented individuals choose tasks that allow them to demonstrate their ability in comparison to other people or to some accepted norm. The market culture, with its stress on winning, is ideally suited to this type of individual. Another characteristic of a market culture that encourages a performance goal orientation is that of goal achievement. Employees are motivated to achieve the goals of the firm. The emphasis is on achievement rather than process. In other words, management is concerned with goal attainment and the manner in which the goals are attained is secondary. It is

acceptable to management if an employee can achieve his or her stated goals without acquiring any new knowledge or working with another employee as long as the end result is satisfactory.

The adhocracy culture also exhibits aspects of the mastery-oriented classroom. For example, the acquisition of knowledge and skill is of paramount importance in both the adhocracy culture and the mastery-oriented classroom (Ames 1992; Cameron and Quinn 1999; MacIver 1988; Marshall and Weinstein 1984). Employees in the adhocracy culture are encouraged to experiment and try new ideas, as are students in the mastery-oriented classroom. The adhocracy culture also emphasizes teamwork and an exchange of ideas just as mastery-oriented classrooms stress cooperative learning and a sharing of knowledge among the students.

While the adhocracy culture shares some characteristics with the task structure of the mastery-oriented classroom, other attributes of an adhocracy culture support a performance-oriented environment. The emphasis the adhocracy culture places on being a leader and on individual initiative is consistent with the individualistic nature of a performance-oriented classroom and in contradistinction to the task structure of the mastery-oriented classroom. Thus, an adhocracy culture exhibits characteristics of both a mastery and a performance-oriented structure.

The hierarchy culture also shares characteristics with the mastery-oriented classroom's task structure in that tasks are designed to support the use of effective strategies. Additionally, goals are short-term and designed to

offer reasonable challenge. However, the hierarchy culture also has characteristics that mirror a performance-oriented classroom. Specifically, the hierarchy culture does not design tasks for variety and diversity. Tasks in the hierarchy culture are designed to facilitate the smooth flow of operations in the firm. Further, the meaningful aspects of the tasks, that is how the tasks fit into the overall production process, is not generally communicated to employees. Thus, as with the adhocracy culture, the hierarchy culture shares characteristics with a mastery- and performance-oriented classroom.

Evaluation. The structure of the evaluation process in a classroom has been shown to orient students toward different goals and lead to different patterns of motivation (Ames and Ames 1984). Students tend to adopt a mastery goal orientation when there is a focus on individual improvement, rewarding effort, and when there are opportunities for improvement. Additionally, a mastery goal orientation is encouraged when mistakes are seen as part of learning, and evaluation is private (Ames 1992).

As the case with task involvement, the clan culture possesses the evaluation structure that is consistent with mastery-oriented classroom. The less competitive atmosphere of the clan culture allows management to focus on improvement of the individual employee. In particular, effort is rewarded and employees are encouraged to take advantage of opportunities for development and improvement. This emphasis on effort and opportunity is manifested in the clan culture's emphasis on human resource development (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Desphandé, Farley, and Webster 1993). With its accentuation on

teamwork, clan cultures do not engage in social comparison but instead on social interaction. In the mastery-oriented classroom students are encouraged to strive for self-set goals and are discouraged from competition with other students for the highest grade. The emphasis on teamwork, participation, and consensus in the clan culture mirrors this structure.

Social comparison in the classroom includes announcement of highest and lowest scores, displays of selected papers and achievements, and public charts of students' achievement progress. In a corporate setting, social comparison is the public comparison of employee performance such as sales contests, posting of sales leaders, and announcing the recipients of sales bonuses. Social comparison may encourage employees to choose only those tasks on which they know they will do well and to avoid those tasks that present challenge and difficulty. A logical consequence of the use of social comparison as an evaluative technique is a performance goal orientation for students or employees. This is because, when social comparison is the evaluative structure, people will choose those tasks that allow them to compare favorably with others. This type of evaluative structure is not found in the clan culture or the mastery-oriented classroom.

The evaluative structure of the market cultures is likely to be conducive to a performance goal orientation. In the classroom, students were found to adopt a performance goal orientation if competition and social comparison were emphasized (Ames 1992; Dweck and Leggett 1988). The evaluation process in the market culture reflects this type of classroom and is structured to encourage

a performance goal orientation. In the performance oriented classroom students that did not perform well adopted a maladaptive behavior pattern (Ames 1992; MacIver 1988; Marshall and Weinstein 1984; Nichols 1984). It is reasonable to assume that similar behavior can be expected of employees who do not perform well in a market culture.

In contrast to the evaluative structure in the market culture, the mastery-oriented classroom evaluates students based on effort, improvement, and private evaluation (i.e., grades are not posted, honor rolls are not published). In short, the evaluative structure of the mastery-oriented classroom is based on long-term progress of the student while the evaluative structure of the market culture is based on results and competition. Thus, the market culture can be seen to be antithetical to the mastery-oriented classroom (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Deshpandé Farley and Webster 1993).

The adhocracy culture reflects a portion of the evaluative structure of the mastery-oriented classroom. For example, in the adhocracy culture risk taking and mistakes are seen as part of the learning process. These attributes are also recognized in the evaluative structure of the mastery-oriented classroom. Additionally, creativity and innovation are important elements of the evaluative structures of both the mastery-oriented classroom and the adhocracy culture (Ames 1992; Cameron and Quinn 1999).

On the other hand, the adhocracy culture encourages individualism and emphasizes growth of the firm through competitive efforts (Cameron and Quinn 1999). The evaluation of employees in terms of their individual effort and ability

to compete has more in common with a performance- rather than a mastery-oriented classroom. Individual performance, in particular, leads to the possibility of encouraging a performance goal orientation among students and employees. If individual performance is highly valued, students and employees will strive to outperform their peers because they know that social comparison is the basis for their evaluation.

Thus, the evaluative structure of the adhocracy culture exhibits characteristics of the mastery- and performance-oriented classrooms. While certain aspects of the evaluative structure may promote a mastery-goal orientation among employees, other aspects of the structure reduce that positive influence. In the classroom this "mixed message" about evaluation does not encourage either goal orientation (Ames 1992).

The evaluation structure of the hierarchy culture mirrors a small portion of the evaluation procedures in the mastery-oriented classroom. Specifically, the evaluation structure of the hierarchy culture is designed to be equitable (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Weber 1947). Employees in the hierarchy culture know that the rules and policies that are used to evaluate them are equitably applied to all employees. Fair and equitable treatment in the evaluation process provides security and a feeling of comradeship among employees. These are qualities that are valued in the mastery-oriented classroom (Ames 1992).

Other aspects of the evaluative structure of the hierarchy culture are similar to an organization with a performance goal orientation. For example, the hierarchy culture discourages innovation, risk taking, and mistakes. These

aspects of the hierarchy culture, valued in the mastery-oriented classroom, are likely to interrupt the smooth flow of operations that is one of the most highly valued attributes of the hierarchy culture. Further, an emphasis on rules and policies mentioned above, may create security and comradeship, but at the same time an emphasis on rules and policies may also create a fear of risk taking and innovation. Risk taking and innovation are necessary for individual improvement, progress, and mastery (Ames 1992). Thus, as with the adhocracy culture, the hierarchy culture exhibits properties of the evaluative structures of both the mastery- and performance-oriented classrooms.

Authority. Authority in the classroom refers to the degree to which teachers involve children in decision-making (Ames 1992). Students will better concentrate on learning when they are allowed to participate in the decision-making process. Participation in the decision-making process means that students are given flexibility in pursuing areas of interest. It is central to the concept of flexibility of task choice that the students understand that they will not be compared to other students that choose similar interests. If the student perceives that task choice will involve some type of competition, the performance goal oriented student will choose tasks that minimize effort, protect self-esteem, and avoid failure. Flexibility in the mastery-oriented classroom also leads to student responsibility and independence. In turn, increased student responsibility and independence enhances learning (Ames 1992; MacIver 1988; Marshall and Weinstein 1984; Nichols 1984).

Clan cultures have characteristics in common with the mastery-oriented classroom in terms of authority. Clan cultures emphasize a long-term commitment to human resource development (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Desphandé, Farley, and Webster 1993). Through organizational commitment and teamwork, employees are encouraged to participate in the decision-making process. Cultures that emphasize human resource development encourage employee cross-training and the learning of new skills. Thus, employees are allowed a certain measure of task choice. Cross training, skill development, and task choice require flexibility on the part of management.

In contrast to the mastery-oriented approach to authority, the performance-oriented approach is to structure task choices so that students and employees understand that their decisions of which tasks to pursue will eventually result in their evaluation. That is, the choices that are offered clearly indicate that social comparison is important. In the clan culture, as in the mastery-oriented classroom, employees are allowed to make task decisions where the evaluation will be based on effort and where they will be allowed to assume responsibility for mastering the task (Ames 1992).

The authority structure of the market culture encourages a performance goal orientation among its employees. Employees believe that proficient performance and the successful achievement of predetermined goals will be rewarded (Denison and Spreitzer 1991). Thus, task choice is not "real" in the sense that it is in the mastery-oriented classroom. That is, aware of how they will be evaluated, employees in the market culture may choose tasks that are

easily completed and that allow them to be favorably compared to others. This choice of task is not based on the employees' interest in the task, nor is it based on an opportunity to learn a new skill and to improve ability. In fact, often in the market culture management sets goals and it is the employee's job to achieve the goals he or she has been given (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Desphandé, Farley, and Webster 1993).

In contrast, the mastery-oriented classroom is structured in such a way as to eliminate social comparison. The non-competitive nature of the mastery-oriented classroom allows for temporary failure as students strive to master a task. This authoritative structure allows students to choose those tasks that offer the opportunity for improvement and mastery. Task choice is the decision of the student in that the student's interests, skills, and abilities are considered when making assignments. The authoritative structure of the mastery-oriented classroom is directly contradictory to the market culture.

The adhocracy culture mirror several of the aspects of the mastery-oriented classroom's authority structure in that the adhocracy culture is flexible enough to encourage participation in decision-making by employees. Employees are expected to be proactive in developing new ideas and innovations. Additionally, individual initiative and responsibility are encouraged. The emphasis on creativity rewards employees that take risks, are adaptable to a changing external environment, and discover new knowledge resources for the firm. Flexibility is ingrained in the adhocracy culture to the point that employees are aware that if the pursuit of one's interests leads to mistakes,

they will not be punished through social comparison with other employees (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Desphandé, Farley, and Webster 1993). This emphasis on creativity and adaptation to change are imitated in the mastery-oriented classroom.

While the adhocracy culture mirrors the mastery-oriented classroom in terms of authority structure, the culture shares aspects of both mastery- and performance-oriented classrooms in the areas of task and evaluation. In order for a classroom to effectively be considered a mastery-oriented classroom, the structure must adhere to *all* of the aspects of a mastery orientation (Ames 1992). Thus, the adhocracy culture has a mix of mastery and performance orientations in its structure and cannot be considered to foster one particular orientation or the other.

Hierarchy cultures are mechanistic processes that are steeped in procedures, rules, and policies. The authority structure in the hierarchy culture is antithetical to the authority structure in the mastery-oriented classroom. Employees in a hierarchy culture are specifically discouraged from participation in the decision-making process. While employees are encouraged to be responsible, they are discouraged from being independent and from applying any innovation that disrupts the stability and control of the firm. In the hierarchy culture, management is the job of the manager and not of the employee (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Desphandé, Farley, and Webster 1993). The hierarchy culture discourages employees from taking risk because success is measured by the smooth flow of operations and following the rules. Thus, in the

hierarchy culture, the strict devotion to rules and procedures reduces flexibility and employee task choice.

Unlike the task and evaluative structures of the hierarchy culture, the authority structure exhibits characteristics that are completely indicative of a performance goal orientation. As discussed above, the fact that one aspect of the organization is performance goal oriented does not suggest that the entire organization is performance goal oriented. It is the total organizational structure that determines a well-defined tendency to encourage one goal orientation of the other (Ames 1992). Thus, the hierarchy culture exhibits aspects of both a mastery- and performance-oriented environment.

To summarize there is a theoretical link between classroom characteristics that promote mastery goal orientations and organizational culture types. Specifically, firms that emphasize flexibility, spontaneity, and dynamism appear to parallel those classroom characteristics that encourage a mastery orientation. The culture that mirrors the mastery-oriented classroom is the clan culture. The characteristics of this culture that increase the possibility of mastery-oriented employees include teamwork, task choice, employee development and reduced intra-company competition.

In contrast, firms that emphasize results, goal achievement, competition and winning are not analogous to classrooms with a mastery orientation and in many instances encourage a performance goal orientation. The culture that has characteristics antithetical to the mastery-oriented classroom the market culture. A performance goal orientation among the employees of this culture is

possible because of the culture's lack of flexibility in task choice, negative sanctions for mistakes, and competition among co-workers.

Two of the cultures discussed above—adhocracy and hierarchy—exhibit qualities of both a mastery- and a performance-oriented classroom. As such, these cultures do not provide a precise guidance about the goal orientation the organization values.

Elements in Table 3 illustrate these relationships.

Table 3 Comparison of Mastery-Oriented Classroom Structure and Characteristics of Organizational Culture

Classroom Structure	Mastery-Oriented Classroom Structure	Characteristics of Organizational Culture
Task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on the meaningful aspects of learning activities. • Design tasks for novelty, variety, diversity, and student interest. • Design tasks that offer reasonable challenge. • Teachers help students develop short-term, self-referenced goals. • Support development and use of effective learning strategies. 	<p>Clan</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on long-term employee development. • Design effective learning strategies. • Leaders facilitate and serve as mentors. • Learn tasks in context of total organization. <p>Market</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emphasis on winning. • Rewards results. • Encourages competition.
Evaluation and Recognition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on individual improvement, progress, and mastery. • Make evaluation private, not public. • Recognize effort. • Provide opportunities for improvement. • Recognize mistakes as part of learning. 	<p>Clan</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on individual improvement. • Recognize effort. • Feeling of belonging. <p>Market</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rewarded for winning. • Public evaluation.
Authority	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on helping students participate in the decision making. • Provide "real" choices where decisions are based on effort, not social comparison. • Give opportunities to develop responsibility and independence. • Support development and use of self-management and monitoring skills. 	<p>Clan</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus is on participation in decision-making. • Lack of social comparison. • Teams are encouraged to self-manage. <p>Market</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Choices based on eventual evaluation. • Decisions based on firm's competitiveness. • Effort-success relationship not recognized.

*Adapted from Ames (1992) ** Adapted from Cameron and Quinn (1990)

Summary

Expectancy-value theory, attribution theory, and goal theory are the dominant models of salesperson motivation in the sales literature (Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1997; Churchill, Walker, and Ford 1997). Each of these approaches has been empirically tested and all have been found to explain some of the variance in salesperson performance.

Weiner (1979, 1985) proposed that attribution theory was a theory of motivation. According to Weiner (1985) the causes people attribute to the outcome of events determine people's cognitive, affective, and behavioral expectations about similar events in the future. One illustration of this phenomenon is the notion of learned helplessness (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978). The learned helplessness framework posits that when a person attributes failure on a particular task to causal dimensions that are stable, uncontrollable, and global, that the individual will have "learned" that he or she will also be unsuccessful at the task in the future.

Expectancy-value theory is based on the valence-instrumentality-expectancy model developed by Vroom (1964). The model proposes that salespeople are motivated by the potential of receiving rewards for certain behavior. Salespeople then decide if the reward is worth the increased effort to attain it.

Goal theory (Locke 1968) proposes that salespeople will be more motivated if they have specific, achievable goals to pursue. Goals need to be

specific, desirable, and attainable in order to be motivational. Social psychologists began to refine goal theory and discovered that people are motivated by one of two goal orientations—mastery and performance (Ames 1992; Ames and Ames 1981; Elliot and Harackiewicz 1996; Elliott and Dweck 1988; Erdley and Dweck 1993; Nichols 1984). Once a person chooses a goal orientation, he or she will behave in a manner that is consistent with that goal orientation, especially in the context of negative events (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Erdley and Dweck 1993; Nichols 1984). Thus, people who tend to choose a mastery goal orientation will generally behave in an adaptive manner when faced with challenge or failure and those who chose a performance goal orientation will behave in a maladaptive (i.e., helpless) manner when faced with the same challenge. Despite the general agreement in the psychological literature as to the motivational aspects of goal orientation, there has been little research on the determinants of goal orientation until recently.

Based on the above differences in individual reactions to negative events, researchers in educational and social psychology examined whether a more basic motivational force exists that precedes goals, attributions, and expectancies. This research led to the proposition that there is a personality characteristic of people—*implicit personality theory*—that is a fundamental, core construct that determines individual's goal choices. Implicit personality theory is a dispositional trait of a person that determines the way in which he or she views the world.

Implicit personality theory has been found to influence goal choice in an achievement setting with lower and upper elementary school children (Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Erdley and Dweck 1993), in a social setting with adults (Chiu, Hong and Dweck 1997; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995), and in an organizational setting (Button, Mathieu, and Zajac 1996). As such, implicit personality theory has an indirect influence on people's motivation and behavior. Dweck and Leggett (1988) refer to the *implicit personality theory* → *goal orientation* → *behavior pattern* relationship as a "social-cognitive approach to motivation." The primary purpose of the current study is to test the social-cognitive approach to motivation in a sales setting.

People hold one of two implicit personality theories – entity or incremental – in any particular situation (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Entity personality theorists believe that there are some characteristics of people (e.g., intelligence) that cannot be changed. In contrast, incremental personality theorists believe that all traits are malleable. Thus, the entity theorist who ascribes failure to an internal, unchangeable characteristic will expect failure in the future on similar tasks. This expectation is in accord with the entity theorist's belief that the cause of failure cannot be changed. On the other hand, a person holding an incremental theory believes that all personality traits and characteristics are malleable. Therefore, the incremental theorist will expect that increased effort or improved strategy may well lead to success in the future, despite past failure on similar tasks.

As noted in Table 1, Dweck and Leggett (1988) propose that the relationship between performance goal orientation and behavior is moderated by a person's self-efficacy. People with a performance goal orientation and high self-efficacy will adopt an adaptive behavior pattern while those with low self-efficacy will adopt a maladaptive behavior pattern. In contrast, self-efficacy does not moderate the relationship between goal orientation and behavior pattern for those with a mastery goal orientation. An important aspect of the proposed moderation of self-efficacy is that people with a performance goal orientation and high self-efficacy may adopt an adaptive behavior pattern, but they still place little interest in acquiring new knowledge or skills. This is in contrast to the mastery goal-oriented person's adaptive behavior pattern.

It has been suggested that optimism is a dispositional characteristic that influences implicit personality theory and goal orientation (Sujan 1999). The nature of this relationship has not been empirically examined. One purpose of this study is to empirically test and clarify optimism's influence on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship.

The situational determinants of sales force control systems influence on goal orientation has been examined in the sales literature (Kohli 1985; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). These studies did not, however, consider any dispositional factors in their analysis of the effect of control systems on goal orientation. The current study replicates, in part, the work of Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) and extends their work to include the effect of sales

force control systems on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship.

An additional situational factor that is explored in this study and that may influence the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship is organizational culture (Cameron and Quinn 1999). While no theoretical links tying organizational culture implicit personality theory or goal orientation exists, the link between situational factors in general and goal orientation has been well established in the educational psychology literature (Ames 1992). Following this theoretical guidance, the current study will apply situational factors found to influence goal orientation in an educational setting to analogous factors found in a sales setting and will extend that exploration to include implicit personality theory. It is unlikely that implicit personality theory or situational factors act alone in determining people's goal orientation (Barrick and Mount 1993). It is thus important that these situational factors be examined in the context of the effect of implicit personality theory on people's goal orientation. It is more plausible to expect that there is an implicit personality theory-situation interaction that is the ultimate determinant of goal orientation (Barrick and Mount 1993; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988).

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research methodology used to explore the relationships between implicit personality theory, goal orientation, and salesperson behavior and the effect of several dispositional and situational factors on these relationships. This chapter includes: (1) the research hypotheses, (2) the operationalization of the variables, (3) a description of the research instrument, (4) reliability and validity considerations, (5) the research design, including the sampling and data collection procedures, and (6) the statistical techniques used in the data analysis.

Research Hypotheses

In order to examine the relationship between implicit personality theory, goal orientation, and salesperson behavior, as well as dispositional and situational factors that influence these relationships, formal and testable hypotheses have been developed. The hypotheses that follow have been derived from the literature review and discussion presented in Chapter II. Figure 5 illustrates the conceptual model tested in this study.

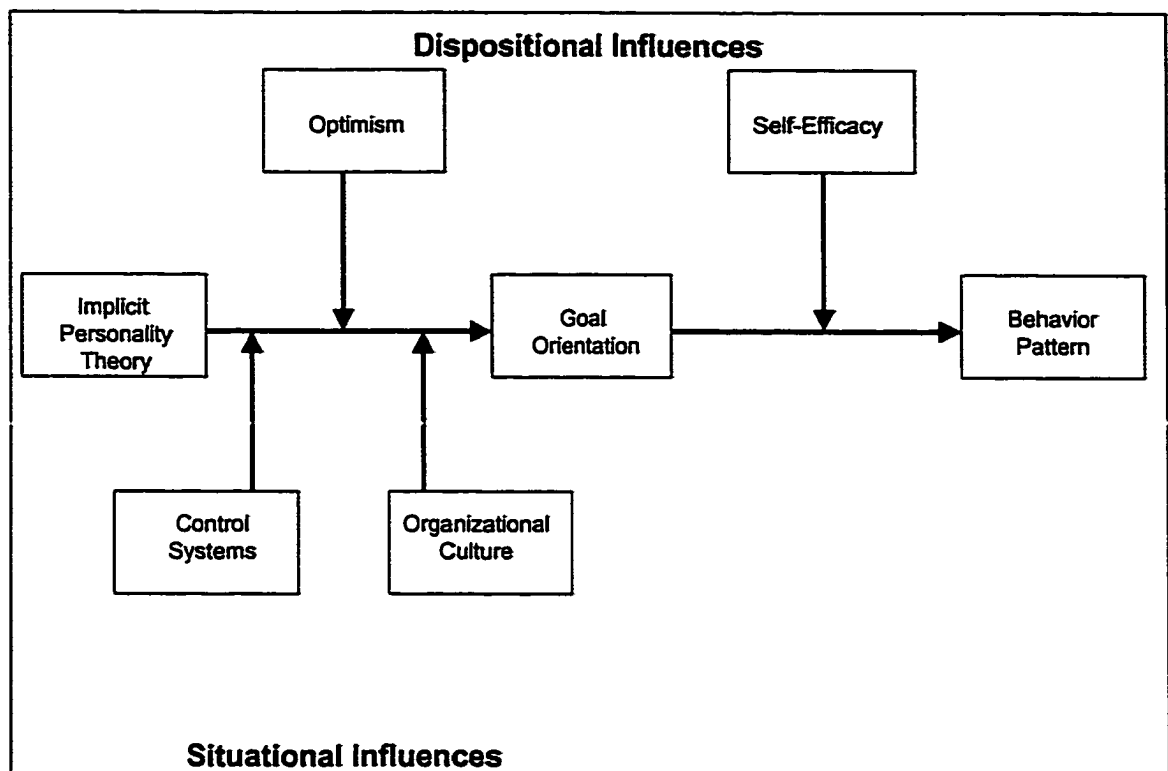


Figure 5. A Social-Cognitive Approach to Salesperson Motivation

Implicit Personality Theory

Dweck and her colleagues (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997; Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Elliott and Dweck 1988; Erdley and Dweck 1993) have determined that people possess a personality characteristic or disposition known as an implicit personality theory that aids them in organizing and interpreting the world. These implicit personality characteristics form the basis for the way people understand and react to human behavior and outcomes of events. Although implicit personality theories do not strictly determine behavior, they create a cognitive framework that *shapes* people's judgment and subsequent behavior in reaction

to the events that occur around them. The manner in which people react is thus consistent with the framework of their implicit personality theory.

An individual's implicit personality theory falls along a continuum that reflects the degree to which individuals believe that human traits are variable. Anchoring the upper end of the continuum is the belief that human traits are malleable and changeable while beliefs falling at the other extreme are that human traits are fixed and unchangeable. People who believe strongly that personal attributes such as intelligence or moral character can be changed over relatively short periods of time are known as *incremental* theorists. These people see a relationship between effort and a change in personal attributes. That is, effort properly applied can enhance those personal qualities to which a person aspires. For example, an incremental theorist might say, "I failed the test because I did not study hard enough." This individual's reaction to the failure would be to study harder for the next test. Additionally, he or she would expect to perform better as a result of the increased effort. People who exhibit strong beliefs that human traits are fixed and unchangeable are known as *entity* theorists. An entity theorist, for example, might say, "I failed the test because I am not smart." This individual does not believe that increased effort will improve his or her score on future tests and will, therefore, avoid such tests. People do not necessarily hold only one implicit personality theory across all situations. They may hold an incremental view in one situation and an entity view in another (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995).

Implicit personality theory researchers have parsimoniously dichotomized individuals as either entity or incremental theorists (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995). That is, past research has divided the sample of respondents into two groups holding relatively strong polar positions on the implicit personality theory continuum. This approach has received criticism, however, for treating a continuous variable in too simplistic a manner (Peterson 1995). Its users have defended the separation of the sample into two distinct groups, however, and the issue remains unresolved in the literature. At least one empirical study has recently treated implicit personality theory as a continuous variable (Button, Mathieu, and Zajac 1996).

A person's implicit personality theory is the framework the person uses to decide which goals to pursue. Research has shown that children in an educational setting (Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Elliott and Dweck 1988), adults in a social setting (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997), and adults in an organizational setting (Button, Mathieu, and Zajac 1996) who hold an incremental implicit personality theory tend to adopt a mastery goal orientation. Those with an entity theory tend to adopt a performance goal orientation. Goal orientation is important because a considerable stream of research in the educational psychology literature (Ames and Ames 1981; Ames and Ames 1984; Ames and Archer 1984; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Elliot and Harachkewicz 1996; Elliot and Church 1997; Elliott and Dweck 1988; Erdely and Dweck 1988; Locke 1968; Locke and Latham 1990; Locke et al. 1981; Nichols 1984; Ryska and Yin 1999;

VandeWalle et al. 1999) and the sales literature (Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1997; Sujan 1986; Sujan 1999; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994) indicates that goals motivate behavior. However, the relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theories and their goal orientations has not been previously examined.

Because implicit personality theory is a basic trait common to all individuals and has been empirically linked to goal orientation in non-sales settings, it seems likely that the implicit personality theory of salespeople would also influence their goal orientation. Therefore, the current study proposed that similar relationships between implicit personality theory and goal orientation exist for salespeople as those found for children and adults in other settings. The following hypotheses reflect this reasoning:

Hypothesis 1. Implicit personality theory is positively associated with a mastery goal orientation.

Hypothesis 2. Implicit personality theory is negatively associated with a performance goal orientation.

Goal Orientation and Behavior Patterns

As stated above, the goals people choose motivate their behavior. Therefore, knowledge of salespeople's goal choice is important for sales managers because goal choice determines salespeople's motivation (e.g., Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984). The effect of goal choice on motivation is especially critical when a person faces a negative outcome (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984). Negative events such as

rejection and failure are common in personal selling. Sales managers would thus benefit from an understanding of how goal orientation influences the reaction of their salespeople to these negative events. The influence of goal choice on motivation and behavior is discussed next.

Goal orientations can be characterized as *mastery-oriented* or *performance-oriented*. The mastery-oriented person chooses goals that present challenge and an opportunity to learn and/or improve skills. Learning enhances self-esteem for the mastery-oriented person as does succeeding at a task that requires strategy and effort. Risk taking and mistakes are considered an inevitable and accepted part of the learning process. The results of the mastery-oriented person's performance in relation to others are of lesser importance.

In contrast to the mastery-oriented person, performance-oriented people set goals that serve to protect and enhance their self-esteem. Thus, the performance-oriented person will choose goals that are easily accomplished, that can demonstrate ability in relation to others, and that involve as little risk of failure as possible.

The two goal orientations appear to invoke different reactions to the outcomes of events. The difference in reactions is particularly distinctive when an individual experiences negative outcomes or events (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984). People with a mastery goal orientation will, in the face of difficult challenges or failures, adopt a behavior pattern of persistence, renewed effort, and improved strategy. This response has been characterized as an *adaptive* behavior pattern (Dweck, Chiu, and

Hong 1995; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). An adaptive behavior pattern is portrayed by seeking challenging tasks and persisting in the face of difficulty.

It was proposed that salespeople who choose different goal orientations will have different reactions to negative outcomes such as failure. Salespeople with a mastery goal orientation should adopt an adaptive behavior pattern. That is, when mastery-oriented salespeople experience negative events they will renew their effort and change their strategy in order to be successful in the future. Thus, the relationship between a mastery goal orientation and behavior in a sales setting was hypothesized to be as follows:

Hypothesis 3. Mastery goal orientation is related positively to salesperson adaptive behavior patterns.

On the other hand, in the face of difficult challenges or failures, people with a performance goal orientation have been found to engage in low levels of adaptive behavior, that is, in *maladaptive* or helpless behavior (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978; Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Erdley and Dweck 1993). Thus, a maladaptive behavior pattern is the polar opposite of an adaptive behavior pattern. Maladaptive behavior is characterized by task avoidance, quitting a task, or rationalizing that a successful outcome on the task is not important. For salespeople, the adoption of a maladaptive behavior pattern results in avoiding difficult sales situations, insufficient persistence when dealing with a difficult sale, and possibly leaving the firm. The adoption of a maladaptive behavior pattern has been shown to negatively impact the tenure

and performance of life insurance salespeople (Corr and Gray 1996). The relationship between a performance goal orientation and behavior in a sales setting was hypothesized as follows:

Hypothesis 4a. Performance goal orientation is related negatively to salesperson adaptive behavior patterns.

There is empirical support in the psychological literature (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Sujan 1999) and in the sales literature (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994) that the relationship between a performance goal orientation and behavior is moderated by an individual's self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a person's belief about his or her ability to successfully perform a specific task (Bandura 1989; Gardner 1998). Performance goal-oriented people choose only those tasks that they believe they can successfully accomplish. Therefore, the performance goal-oriented person's self-efficacy is critical in deciding which goals to pursue. Since mastery-oriented people choose tasks independently of their belief about their ability to perform the task, self-efficacy does not influence their goal choice-behavior relationship.

Performance goal-oriented people with high levels of self-efficacy tend to choose, at least initially, an adaptive behavior pattern. In contrast, performance goal oriented people with low levels of self-efficacy choose a maladaptive behavior pattern (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Nichols 1984). Thus, self-efficacy moderates the relationship between performance orientation and adaptive behavior pattern. The following hypothesis reflects this discussion:

Hypothesis 4b. The relationship between salespeople's performance goal orientation and an adaptive behavior pattern is positively moderated for salespeople with high self-efficacy.

Dispositional Influences

Optimism

Optimists are people who tend to hold positive expectations of the future (Scheier and Carver 1992). In other words, optimists believe that the goals they value in life will be achieved and that negative events are more likely to occur to other people. Additionally, when optimists are faced with negative events, they tend to interpret these events in a positive manner (Taylor and Brown 1988).

In dispositional contrast to optimists are pessimists. Pessimists have negative expectations about the future and believe that they are more likely to experience negative events than are others. While optimism and pessimism are two ends of a continuum, a person predominately holds one of the two outlooks (Scheier and Carver 1992; Taylor and Brown 1988).

Optimism has been proposed as a moderating influence on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship (Sujan 1999). The moderating effect of optimism is caused by the optimist's ability to positively reinterpret negative outcomes. While this position has only been addressed conceptually in the sales literature, there is some evidence of an effect of optimism on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship in the educational psychology literature. Dweck and Bempechat (1983) found in a qualitative research study that children with an incremental personality theory were more

optimistic than were children with an entity personality theory. Dweck and Leggett (1988) reported similar results in a review of studies concerning implicit personality theory and goal orientation. These findings led Sujan (1999) to propose that optimism may also be an antecedent to an incremental theory.

Despite these qualitative reports, empirical findings indicate that implicit personality theory is *not* correlated with dispositional optimism as measured by Dweck and her colleagues (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988). The lack of correlation with optimism is reported in Table 4 in a later section.

Other researchers have proposed that optimism is situation specific and, as such, is more of a state than a trait (George 1991). That is, people may be optimistic when, for example, events in their lives are going well and pessimistic when events in their lives are not going well. Optimism, in this sense, is more of a mood than a disposition. In this case, it is unlikely to be permanently associated with either implicit personality theory or goal orientation. This lack of agreement in the literature leads to the need for further exploration of the relationship between implicit personality theory, optimism, and goal orientation.

It is reasonable to assume that optimism is an integral part of a sales setting (Strutton and Lumpkin 1993; Sujan 1999). For example, optimism has been found to aid salespeople in coping with sales related stress (Strutton and Lumpkin 1993). Specifically, optimistic salespeople were more likely to develop a problem-solving strategy than were pessimistic salespeople. Additionally, optimistic salespeople reinterpreted negative events in a positive manner and

took more responsibility for their actions than did pessimistic salespeople. The qualitative research of Dweck and Leggett (1988) coupled with the empirical findings of Strutton and Lumpkin (1993) indicate that optimism has an influence on the goal orientation-behavior relationship. Since optimism, like implicit personality theory, is a dispositional characteristic, it seems likely that optimism's influence on goal orientation occurs earlier in the social-cognitive motivation process and impacts the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship. The possibility that optimism is an antecedent to goal orientation cannot be excluded, however.

The current study explored the effects of optimism by proposing that optimism influences the form of the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship. Optimists reinterpret negative events with a positive narrative. This characteristic of optimists causes them to be more problem-focused and to use more effective strategies than pessimists (Scheier, Carver, and Bridges 1994). Thus, optimists appear to adopt behavior similar to people with a mastery goal orientation. Optimism, then, was proposed to strengthen the relationship between implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation. By the same reasoning, optimism should attenuate the influence of implicit personality theory on performance goal orientation. The following hypotheses reflect this discussion:

Hypothesis 5. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by optimism.

Hypothesis 6. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is negatively moderated by optimism.

Situational Influences

The psychology literature has long argued that the relationship between dispositional factors and behavior is moderated by the demands of the situation (Barrick and Mount 1993; Bem and Allen 1974; Bem and Funder 1978; Chatman 1989; Monson, Hesley, and Chemick 1982). That is,

the extent to which a person's personality characteristics predict behavior is hypothesized to differ depending on the degree to which the external environment inhibits a person's freedom to behave in idiosyncratic ways (Barrick and Mount 1993, p. 112).

It has been previously hypothesized that implicit personality theory, as a personality trait, influences goal orientation that, in turn, influences behavior. Since goal orientation mediates the focal disposition-behavior relationship in this study (i.e., implicit personality theory-adaptive behavior pattern), it is plausible that if situational factors affect disposition-behavior relationships then situational factors are likely to influence the disposition-goal orientation relationship. This assumption underlies the discussion that follows.

It is the strength or demand of the situation that influences the degree of moderation on the disposition-behavior relationship. That is, the extent to which people's dispositions predict their behavior depends on the extent to which the environment limits their freedom to behave in characteristic ways. Situational factors can be *strong* in the sense that they restrict the range of behaviors that people feel they are willing or able to engage in (Barrick and Mount 1993). In

contrast, situational factors can be *weak* in that people perceive more freedom to choose their behavior. Thus, the extent to which situational factors inhibit the individual from acting in ways that are consistent with his or her disposition dictates the degree to which situational factors will moderate the disposition-behavior relationship (Barrick and Mount 1993; House, Shane, and Herold 1996).

Situational factors have been found to influence an individual's goal orientation in an educational setting (Ames and Archer 1988; Ames 1992) as well as in a sales setting (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Situational factors have also been found to interact with dispositions in influencing goal orientation (Button, Mathieu, and Zajac 1996; Dweck and Leggett 1988). Thus, the effect of three organizational factors that are theoretically linked to the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship will be examined with respect to salespeople. These organizational factors – control systems and organizational culture – will be discussed next.

Control Systems

A control system is the organization's set of procedures for "monitoring, directing, evaluating and compensating its employees" (Anderson and Oliver 1987, p. 76). Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) found that the emphasis that supervisors placed on certain managerial behaviors affected the goal orientation of salespeople. However, Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla noted that a limitation of their study was the fact that dispositional factors were not included.

Research by Duda and Nichols (1992) and Elliott and Dweck (1988) has found that situational factors such as classroom structure and the influence of the teacher *interact* with dispositional determinants of a student's goal orientation in a classroom setting. Similar results by Button, Mathieu, and Zajac (1996) have supported a dispositional-situational interaction in an organizational setting. However, the direction of the influence of this interaction has not been determined in these studies.

Salespeople enter the profession of selling with certain dispositional characteristics such as an implicit personality theory that predispose them to a particular goal orientation. In consonance with the work of Duda and Nichols (1992), Elliott and Dweck (1988), and Button, Mathieu, and Zajac (1996), it seems plausible that a situational factor such as the sales force control system influences the relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theory and goal orientation. Thus, the effect of control systems that was found to be a direct influence on goal orientation by Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) may also *moderate* the predisposition of implicit personality theory to determine goal orientation. More specifically, control systems may act as a quasi-moderator in this relationship. That is, control systems may interact with implicit personality theory while at the same time relate to goal orientation (Sharma, Durand, and Gur-Arie 1981). This relationship has not yet been empirically tested, however. A discussion of the three dimensions of control systems and their potential to moderate the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship follows.

Sales supervisors are oriented toward one of three control system orientations—end-results, activity, and capability (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). End-results oriented supervisors focus on the end-result, that is, the sales outcomes of their salespeople. In addition, end-results supervisors establish goals such as target sales levels or market share, monitor the attainment of these goals, and provide feedback to salespeople regarding their progress toward these goals. End-results supervisors possess a laissez-faire management style. Salespeople are free to choose the methods they will use to achieve the stated sales goals (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998).

There is some debate about the effect of end-results supervisory orientation on a mastery goal orientation (Elliott and Harachkiewicz 1994; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla, 1998). Elliott and Harachkiweicz (1994) demonstrate empirically in the psychology literature that an end-results orientation is detrimental to a mastery goal orientation in that this emphasis creates anxiety about task performance and disrupts task involvement. In contrast, Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) posited that end-results oriented supervisors provide clear and unambiguous goals for their salespeople. These researchers suggest that by taking a laissez-faire or hands-off attitude toward management, the end-results oriented supervisors encourage their salespeople to assume a mastery orientation and learn the necessary information and skills needed to achieve the sales goals. Their results supported this notion.

The results of Elliott and Harachkiewicz (1994) and Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998), however contradictory, suggest that situational factors do

indeed affect goal orientation. Further, since supervisory end-results orientation provides little structure it is likely to be a weak situational influence. Thus, it is likely that dispositional factors will have more influence on goal orientation than in environments where salespeople are supervised more closely.

Despite the disagreement between the marketing and psychology literature on the effects of an end-results orientation on goal orientation, the current study will follow the lead of Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla's (1998) sales-setting study in this regard. That is, supervisors with an end-results orientation, by minimally interfering with salesperson behavior, allow for a strengthening of the implicit personality theory-mastery goal orientation relationship. In contrast, supervisors with an end-results orientation should weaken the negative relationship between implicit personality theory and a performance goal orientation. Thus, it was proposed that the specific relationship of an end-results supervisory orientation on the salesperson's implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship is as follows:

Hypothesis 7. The relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisors' end-results orientation.

Hypothesis 8. The relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theory and a performance goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisors' end-results orientation.

Activity oriented supervisors are concerned with the routine and habitual or day-to-day activities of a salesperson. This concern for habitual actions leads the activity-oriented supervisor to monitor the day-to-day activities of their salespeople. These activities may include the number of sales calls made in a

week, servicing customers, and completing paperwork. An example of such habitual work in sales is illustrated by filling out call reports.

When salespeople are required to perform day-to-day, habitual activities, they have been found to prefer low levels of supervision (Johnston, et al. 1990). Therefore, salespeople may see this level of supervision as redundant and controlling (Johnston, et al. 1990; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). In relationship to a performance goal orientation, close supervision of routine activities may motivate the salesperson to perform well on the standards established by supervisors. That is, the salespeople will want to look good in the eyes of their supervisor. The desire to demonstrate ability in comparison with others or with an established norm is characteristic of a performance goal orientation.

As in the case of supervisory end-results orientation, there is some disagreement between the marketing and psychology literature concerning the effects of supervisory activity orientation and goal orientation. Research in the psychology literature has indicated that a teaching emphasis on activities enhances a mastery goal orientation in the classroom (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Elliot and Harachkiewicz 1996). However, supported by Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla's (1998) sales setting findings, and in consonance with Barrick and Mount (1993), supervisory activity orientations are proposed to *moderate* the effect of personality characteristics on goal orientation in a manner that reduces one's mastery orientation and increases performance orientation. Thus,

Hypothesis 9. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisors' activity orientation.

Hypothesis 10. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a performance goal orientation is positively moderated by a supervisor's activity orientation.

Capability oriented supervisors manage salespeople by helping them improve their sales skills and abilities. These improvements may include better sales presentations and more effective prospecting methods. The capability-oriented supervisor is seen as a coach or mentor to the salesperson. This requires working closely with each individual salesperson in order to become aware of the salespersons' strengths and weaknesses. This personal interaction and attention has been found to lead salespeople to want to perform well on the goals their supervisors have set. Additionally, salespeople desired to be perceived as competent and effective by their supervisors. The desire to be perceived favorably by their managers enhanced the salesperson's performance orientation in the absence of any dispositional factors (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998).

The findings that a capability orientation is positively related to a performance goal orientation in a sales setting also contradicts research in educational psychology (e.g., Ames and Archer 1988). Capability orientation in the classroom has, in fact, been found to enhance a mastery goal orientation (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Nichols 1984). Nevertheless, consistent with the previous hypotheses concerning control systems, the current study adopted the position of Kohli, Shervani, and

Challagalla (1998) and proposed that supervisory capability control orientation strengthens the relationship between implicit personality theory and a performance goal orientation. Additionally, supervisory capability orientation should strengthen the relationship between implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation. Therefore,

Hypothesis 11. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisors' capability orientation.

Hypothesis 12. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a performance goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisors' capability orientation.

Organizational Culture

The sales firm's organizational culture serves as a situational factor that is likely to influence the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship. As discussed in Chapter II, organizational culture describes patterns of behavior in an organization. That is, organizational culture explains "why things happen the way they do" within a firm (Deshpandé, Farley and Webster 1993, p. 23). Further, organizational culture teaches employees, including salespeople, the norms of the organization and how people are expected to behave as members of the organization. Thus, the culture of the organization *guides* behavior.

In the model adopted in this study, four types of organizational culture are recognized—clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market (Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster 1993; Quinn and Spreitzer 1991). The four culture types are differentiated by their level of flexibility and spontaneity versus their levels of control, order, and stability as well as by their internal versus external

orientation. Clan cultures have a great deal of flexibility and spontaneity and are internally oriented. Adhocracy cultures share this flexibility and spontaneity but are externally oriented. Cultures that exhibit hierarchy traits are internally oriented and emphasize control, order, and stability. Market cultures are similar to hierarchy cultures in order, control, and stability but are externally oriented.

The relationship between organizational culture, implicit personality theory, and salesperson goal orientation has not yet been examined in the marketing literature. However, Chapter II notes the fact that certain organizational cultures are more likely to encourage one goal orientation over another. The evidence is based on parallel reasoning linking aspects of a mastery oriented classroom as described by Ames (1992) and the four types of culture described previously (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster 1993).

As stated in Chapter II, people begin at an early age to form personality characteristics that influence their choice of goal orientation. These characteristics are relatively stable throughout one's lifetime (Dweck and Leggett 1988; House, Shane, and Herold 1996). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that salespeople enter an organizational culture with personality characteristics that are firmly held. The organization's culture may, however, exert its guiding influence on goal orientation by interacting with an individual's dispositional characteristics. That is, the situational factor, in this case organizational culture, may moderate the disposition-goal orientation relationship (Barrick and Mount 1993).

Clan cultures have a great deal in common with the mastery-oriented classroom. In a clan culture, there is an emphasis on employee development, teamwork, information sharing, and a reward for effort. These are also important qualities of the mastery-oriented classroom in which student development and cooperative learning are stressed. Student evaluation is based on effort rather than strictly performance, as well. Clan cultures should, thus, provide an environment that fosters a mastery goal orientation, that is, that strengthens the relationship between implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation.

In contrast, clan cultures have almost nothing in common with a performance-oriented classroom where the emphasis is on individual achievement and evaluation is based on performance. The emphasis on individual achievement in the performance-oriented environment is detrimental to cooperation among employees because each employee is in competition with all other employees. Cooperation among employees is a key element of the clan culture (Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster 1993). Further, evaluation based on performance ignores employees' effort at a task. Effort is a part of the evaluative process in a clan culture. Thus, it was proposed that a clan culture weakens the relationship between a person's implicit personality theory and goal orientation.

Thus, clan cultures were hypothesized to affect the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationships as follows:

Hypothesis 13. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by a clan culture.

Hypothesis 14. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a performance goal orientation is negatively moderated by a clan culture.

The market culture holds competing values to that of the clan culture in every respect and, thus, is unlikely to have much in common with the mastery-oriented classroom (Ames 1992; Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster 1993). Market cultures stress competition and winning at all costs. Competition and social comparison are *particularly discouraged* in the mastery-oriented classroom. Employees in the market culture bond with the organization and each other through the pursuit of goals, production, and overcoming competitors in the marketplace (Deshpandé, Farley and Webster 1993). The mastery-oriented classroom discourages competition among students and de-emphasizes social comparison. Thus, there is little in this culture that mirrors a mastery-oriented classroom. As such, market cultures should weaken the relationship between implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation.

Employees in the market culture, on the other hand, are rewarded in a similar manner as children in a performance-oriented educational environment. That is, they are recognized for outperforming their peers and aiding the firm in outperforming its competitors. This closely mirrors performance goal-oriented practices such as putting only the best papers on the classroom wall, publishing honor rolls, and holding public award ceremonies (Ames 1992). Thus, market cultures should strengthen the relationship between implicit personality theory and a performance goal orientation. Therefore,

Hypothesis 15. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation is negatively moderated by a market culture.

Hypothesis 16. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a performance goal orientation is positively moderated by a market culture.

The adhocracy culture exhibits aspects of both the mastery-oriented and performance oriented classroom. Like the mastery-oriented classroom, the adhocracy culture encourages learning and risk taking. Mistakes are seen as part of the learning process. Additionally, the adhocracy culture encourages creativity and innovation (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Deshpandé, Farley and Webster 1993). Yet, the external positioning of the adhocracy culture promotes competition among co-workers for new information and innovations in pursuit of its goal is to stay ahead of its competition at all costs (Cameron and Quinn 1999; Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster 1993). These performance-oriented elements of the adhocracy culture are antithetical to the structure of the mastery-oriented classroom. The adhocracy culture thus possesses characteristics that are both mastery-oriented and performance-oriented. As such, the adhocracy culture's influence on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship is indeterminate. No hypothesis was thus offered in this regard.

The hierarchy culture is similar to the clan culture in its internal orientation but differs in the way that the internal orientation is manifested. In a clan culture, the bonding of the employees to the firm and among one another is accomplished through loyalty, tradition, and interpersonal relationships. In contrast, rules, policies, and procedures hold the hierarchy culture together.

Further, the hierarchy culture emphasizes control, order, and stability while eschewing flexibility in any form (Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster 1993). A reliance on rules and procedures rather than versatility and spontaneity are characteristics that oppose those found in the mastery-oriented classroom. In the hierarchy culture, employees are rewarded on merit and cooperation is essential to ensure the smooth operation of the firm. These are characteristics that are similar to those valued in the mastery-oriented classroom (Ames 1992).

The hierarchy culture's emphasis on a smooth flow of operations has characteristics in common with a performance-oriented classroom. Employees are discouraged from taking risks that may disrupt the operational flow. In addition, employees do not participate in the task decision process and are not expected to provide any innovation into the task process. Thus, employees are aware that mistakes and actions that interrupt the flow of operations will result in negative evaluations. These evaluative processes are similar to the performance-oriented classroom. On the other hand, employees in the hierarchy culture are evaluated based on merit and not on social comparison. This evaluative structure is in contrast to the evaluative structure in the performance-oriented classroom (Ames 1992; Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster 1993).

Therefore, the hierarchy culture evidences attributes of both the mastery- and performance-oriented classrooms. As in the case of the adhocracy culture, a hierarchy culture's effect on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship is unclear. Therefore, no hypothesis was offered in this regard.

Operationalization of the Variables

The following discussion describes the operationalization of the constructs considered in the current study. All variables included in this study are measured with multiple-item scales drawn from previously published research. Table 4 provides a summary of the variables and their definitions as previously presented in Chapter I.

Table 4. Summary of Variables and Their Definitions

Variable	Definition
Implicit Personality Theory	A personality construct that organizes how a person views the world (Dweck and Leggett 1988).
Goal Orientation	An integrated pattern of beliefs, attributions, and affect that produces the intentions of behavior. Goal orientation is represented by different ways of approaching, engaging in, and responding to achievement activities (Ames 1992).
Adaptive Behavior Pattern	Behavior that is characterized by seeking challenging tasks and the maintenance of effective striving under failure (Dweck and Leggett 1988).
Maladaptive Behavior Pattern	Behavior characterized by an avoidance of challenge and a deterioration of performance in the face of obstacles (Dweck and Leggett 1988).
Self-efficacy	People's judgments of their abilities to organize and implement courses of action necessary to attain desired outcomes (Bandura 1986)
Optimism	Optimism is a dispositional characteristic of people. Optimists are people who tend to hold positive expectations of the future (Scheier, Carver, and Bridges 1994).
Control System	Organizations' set of procedures for monitoring, directing, evaluating, and compensating its employees (Anderson and Oliver 1987).
Organizational Culture	Pattern of shared values and beliefs that help individuals understand organizational functioning and thus provide them with the norms for behavior in the organization (Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster 1993).

Implicit Personality Theory

As discussed in Chapter II, people hold implicit personality theories about the characteristics or traits of themselves and others. These implicit theories structure the way they understand and react to events in their own lives and the behavior of others (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995). While implicit personality theories are represented by a continuum anchored by entity and incremental theorists, a person predominately holds one theory or the other in a particular situation. That is, implicit personality theory is conceptually *domain specific*. In some studies, however, the issues under examination may cross several domains. Thus, implicit personality theory measures have been constructed for domain specific situations and for those instances where a study includes more than one domain (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Dweck, Chiu and Hong 1995). There are three scales designed to measure three areas of implicit personality theory: *intelligence*, *morality*, and *social (kind of person)*. The intelligence scale is an example of a domain specific scale while the social scale is an example of a scale that measures implicit personality theory across domains. The morality scale was not used in this study because the properties it measures are not applicable to its research objectives.

The current study used the social scale and a domain specific scale adapted for this study. The social scale was used because virtually all sales positions involve social relationships in dealing with customers (Crosby, Evans, and Cowles 1990). The second scale version used is an adaptation of the domain specific intelligence scale reworded to apply more specifically to the

sales profession. For example, the item "You have a certain amount of intelligence and you really can't do much to change it" on the original instrument was changed to "You have a certain amount of sales ability and you really can't do much to change it." The intelligence scale was used as the basis for the sales ability scale because the intelligence scale has been used to measure implicit personality theory in an academic achievement setting. Since selling is also considered an achievement setting, the intelligence scale was the appropriate scale to adapt.

Psychometric Properties. The implicit personality theory of the respondents was measured using a scale developed by Dweck and her colleagues (Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993; Elliott and Dweck 1988; Erdley and Dweck 1993). The measure is an eight-item, six-point, Likert-type scale. Salespeople were asked to assess their own implicit personality theory by selecting a response that ranged from "1 = Very Strongly Disagree" to "6 = Very Strongly Agree." Items for the implicit personality theory scale are presented in Appendix A.

To arrive at an implicit personality theory score an average of the scores of the eight items is calculated for each individual. A higher score indicates an incremental theorist, that is, a strong belief in the malleability of human traits, while a lower score indicates an entity theorist, or a weak belief in the malleability of human traits (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995).

Dweck, Chiu, and Hong (1995) state that it is preferable to include only those respondents with a distinct implicit theory. Thus, people are classified as

entity theorists if their score is 4.0 or higher and as incremental theorists if their score is 3.0 or lower. Past research indicates that in using this method about 15 percent of the participants who fall between 3.0 and 4.0 are excluded from further analysis. The remaining 85 percent are evenly divided between the two implicit theory groups. With only 15 percent of the subjects excluded, the two implicit theory groups do not represent extreme groups (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995).

Other researchers have criticized the elimination of those respondents who do not hold a distinct implicit personality theory (e.g., Button, Mathieu, and Zajac 1996; Peterson 1995). The current study will treat implicit personality theory conceptually as a continuous variable such that all respondents will be retained for subsequent statistical analysis.

Reliability. The reliability of the intelligence and social implicit personality scales was assessed using test-retest reliability measures and coefficient alpha. Over a two-week interval the test-retest reliability measures were .80 for the intelligence theory measure and .82 for the social measure (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995). Internal reliability as measured by coefficient alpha ranged from .94 to .98 for the intelligence measure and .90 to .96 for the social measure. These reliability scores exceed the values recommended by Nunnally (1978) for exploratory research. Summary statistics of the reliability of the measures derived from six studies are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Summary Statistics and Reliability of the Implicit Theory Measures (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995, p. 270)

Study	Sample Size	Mean ^a	Standard Deviation	Coefficient Alpha
Study 1	N = 69			
Social Intelligence		3.81	1.28	.94
Intelligence		3.96	1.34	.96
Study 1 Retest	N = 62			
Social Intelligence (2-Week Test-Retest, $r = .82$)		3.66	1.26	.94
Intelligence (2-Week Test-Retest, $r = .80$)		3.71	1.39	.98
Study 2	N = 184			
Social Intelligence		3.31	1.04	.90
Intelligence		3.80	1.32	.94
Study 3	N = 139			
Intelligence		3.65	1.13	.93
Study 4	N = 121			
Intelligence		3.51	0.95	.89
Study 5	N = 93			
Social Intelligence		3.59	1.24	.92
Intelligence		3.73	1.40	.96
Study 6	N = 32			
Social Intelligence		3.11	1.27	.96
Intelligence		3.57	1.49	.97

^a Range: 1 = Agree to 6 = Disagree

Validity. Five validation studies conducted by Dweck, Chiu, and Hong (1995) indicate that the three measures of implicit theory form distinct, separate factors. That is, the implicit theories in the different domains are unidimensional.

Additionally, implicit personality theories are not correlated with demographic, attitudinal, or other dispositional factors. For example, implicit personality measures were found to be independent of demographic factors such as the respondents' age and sex. The measure was also not correlated with the subjects' religious or political affiliation. Tests for construct validity based on the six studies previously mentioned indicated that the intelligence,

social, and morality implicit personality theory measures are unrelated to one another and can be discriminated from measures of cognitive ability; confidence in intellectual ability; self-esteem; optimism; and confidence in other people and the world. A person's implicit personality theory is also not correlated with his or her social-political attitudes such as authoritarianism and political conservatism/liberalism (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995). Sufficient evidence thus exists to support implicit personality theory's construct validity. A summary of the construct validity findings for implicit personality theory measures is found in Table 6.

Table 6. Construct Validity of the Implicit Person Theory Measure (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995).

Variable	Correlation
Age	$r = .12$, ns
Sex	$r = .13$, ns
Self-Presentational Concerns	
Self-Monitoring Scales (Snyder 1974)	$r = -.13$, ns
Social Desirability Scale (Paulhus 1984)	$r = .15$, ns
Cognitive Abilities	
SAT Scores (Quantitative and Verbal)	$r = -.12$, ns
Confidence and Optimism	
Confidence in Intellectual Ability (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997)	$r = .02$, ns
Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith 1967)	$r = -.01$, ns
Confidence in Other People's Morality (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997)	$r = .07$, ns
Confidence in the World (Chiu, Hong and Dweck 1997)	$r = -.18$, ns
Political Attitudes	
Right-Wing Authoritarianism (Altemeyer 1981)	$r = -.16$, ns
Political Conservatism	
Social Attitude Scale (Kerlinger 1984)	$r = .01$, ns
Referent Scale (Kerlinger 1984)	$r = -.02$, ns
Political Liberalism	
Social Attitude Scale (Kerlinger 1984)	$r = -.15$, ns
Referent Scale (Kerlinger 1984)	$r = .16$, ns

Goal Orientation

The instrument to measure salespeople's goal orientation was a 15-item scale specifically designed by Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar (1994) for use in a sales setting. The scale employed in the current study is a reduced, 11-item version of that scale used in recent research exploring salesperson's goal orientation (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998; VandeWalle et al. 1999). This scale measures a salesperson's mastery and performance goal orientation. Respondents self-report their goal orientation using a seven-point, Likert-type scale anchored by "Strongly Disagree" and "Strongly Agree." Scores

are summed for each construct—mastery and performance—and divided by the number of items per construct.

Psychometric properties of goal orientation scale. Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar (1994) and Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) performed a confirmatory factor analysis to assess the unidimensionality of the three measures. The measurement models for mastery and performance goal orientation were also evaluated for reliability, convergent, and discriminant validity. Each of these two studies conducted their analyses in accordance with recommendations made by Gerbing and Anderson (1988). The results indicated that the measures are unidimensional.

Cronbach alpha coefficients for mastery and performance goal orientation exceeded the .70 threshold for acceptable reliability in both studies. Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar (1994) reported .81 for mastery orientation and .71 for performance orientation while Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) reported .79 for mastery orientation and .72 for performance orientation. Further evidence of construct validity was established by obtaining sufficient convergent and discriminant validity (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998).

Self-efficacy

The self-efficacy measure is a 17-item scale developed by Sherer et al. (1982). Respondents were asked to report their self-efficacy in completing their job tasks using a seven-point, Likert-type scale anchored by “Strongly

Disagree” and “Strongly Agree.” Levels of self-efficacy were then determined by averaging the scores of the 17 items.

Psychometric properties of the self-efficacy scale. Sherer et al. (1982) reported a coefficient alpha of .86 for the self-efficacy scale. Reported coefficients from other studies were .86 (Riggs et al. 1994), .76 (Eden and Zuk 1995), .74 (Woodruff and Cashman 1993), and .86 (Gardner and Pierce 1998). These coefficient values exceed the values recommended by Nunnally (1978) for reliability.

Sherer et al. (1982) assessed construct validity by correlating the self-efficacy scale with measures of several other personality characteristics such as internal/external control, social desirability, and ego strength. The predicted correlations between these scales and the self-efficacy scale were all in the magnitude and direction sufficient to establish construct validity. Woodruff and Cashman (1993) also conducted Pearson correlations between self-efficacy and other personality measures with similar results. Gardner and Pierce (1998) used structural equation modeling to assess construct validity of the self-efficacy scale. The construct validity of the scale was found to be sufficient in accordance with procedures outlined by Anderson and Gerbing (1988).

Sherer et al. (1982) assessed criterion validity by correlating self-efficacy scores with past performance through the use of employment and military rank of subjects in a Veterans Administration hospital. The results supported a relationship between self-efficacy and past performance, providing evidence of criterion validity. Woodruff and Cashman (1993) assessed criterion validity

based on *predicted* performance. A relationship was found between self-efficacy scores, ambitious goals, and performance in an academic setting, further supporting criterion validity.

Attributional Style

Attributional style was measured using a questionnaire developed by Seligman (1984). This instrument measures an individual's *explanatory style* or, more specifically, the extent to which the individual engages in an *adaptive behavior pattern*. This instrument is based on the fact that after observing the outcome of an event, people try to explain why the event resulted in the particular outcome. Further, people tend to explain certain events, such as success or failure, in the same manner, regardless of the number of times they experience an outcome. People have a *habit*, that is a *pattern*, of explaining events in a similar manner each time they experience the outcome of an event. This is an individual's *explanatory style* or *behavior pattern*. Thus, people observe the outcome of an event, explain the reason for the outcome, and then behave in a manner that is consistent with their explanation for the outcome (Peterson and Seligman 1984).

Respondents are provided 12 events—six positive events and six negative events. For each event, the subjects are instructed to write the *one* major cause of the outcome as if the event had happened to them. Participants then answer three questions relating to the cause of these events that indicate the individual's explanatory style. Responses to these three questions are on a seven-point, semantic differential scale anchored by bi-polar terms that

correspond to the attributional dimensions of internality, stability, and globality. A composite score is obtained by subtracting the negative events score from the positive events score. The overall composite score ranges from -18 to $+18$ (Peterson and Seligman 1984). The attributional style questionnaire (ASQ) is reproduced in Appendix A.

Psychometric properties of the ASQ. The internal consistency of the ASQ as assessed by coefficient alpha has been reported in several studies. Peterson and Seligman (1984) report alpha coefficients of .93, .89, and .90 for the *internal*, *stable*, and *global* ratings, respectively. Nurmi (1992) found reliability for *stability* and *global* ratings in two studies to range from .48 to .70. In contrast, the *internal* dimension had coefficients that ranged from .00 to .66. However, the coefficients for the composite scale were an acceptable .72 and .75.

Similar results are reported by Hjelle, Belongia, and Nesser (1996). Reliability for the *stability* and *global* subscales was .59 and .65, respectively, for positive events and .62 and .59, respectively, for negative events. The *internal* dimension for positive events had an alpha coefficient of .37 while the alpha coefficient for negative events was .41. However, the composite score was acceptable at .72. Hjelle, Belongia, and Nesser (1996) found that the three dimensions of explanatory style measured by the ASQ tend to covary. This covariance justifies the development of a composite score.

Based on the studies above, it is apparent that the coefficient alphas of one or more of the dimensions of the ASQ fell below those recommended by

Nunnally (1978). While previous researchers have noted this failing, the composite score has nevertheless generally exceeded the recommended threshold (Hjelle, Belongia, and Nesser 1996; Nurmi 1992; Peterson and Seligman 1984). The composite score, and not the individual dimensions, was used in the current study.

Optimism

Dispositional optimism was assessed by the Life Orientation Test (LOT) developed by Scheier and Carver (1985) and revised by Scheier, Carver, and Bridges (1994). The LOT is a six-item, self-report instrument with a seven-point, Likert-type scale anchored by "Strongly Disagree" and "Strongly Agree." Scores are determined by summing all items and dividing by the number of items. A high score indicates dispositional optimism and a low score indicates dispositional pessimism. The LOT scale is presented in Appendix A.

Psychometric properties of the LOT. The revised LOT scale was reported to have a Cronbach's alpha of .78. A test-retest reliability of .68 over four months and .79 over 28 months was also reported (Scheier, Carver, and Bridges 1994). Hjelle, Belongia, and Nesser (1996) reported an alpha coefficient of .71 while a coefficient of .77 was reported by Strutton and Lumpkin (1993).

In addition to measures of reliability, Scheier, Carver, and Bridges (1994) conducted a principal components analysis to assess unidimensionality of the measure. Further, Hjelle, Belongia, and Nesser (1996) performed a correlation

analysis on the positively and negatively worded items on the scale. Sufficient unidimensionality was reported in each of the studies.

The revised LOT, used in the current study, had a significant .95 correlation with the original LOT providing support for convergent validity. Additional support for convergent validity was indicated by significant positive correlations with scales that measure similar but distinct constructs. These included Pearlin and Schooler's (1978) Self-Mastery Scale ($r = .48$) and Rosenberg's (1965) Self-Esteem Scale ($r = .50$). Discriminant validity was assessed by negative correlations with scales that measured constructs that are not theoretically linked to dispositional optimism. These scales (and the respective correlations) are: the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger and Gorsuch 1974) ($r = -.53$) and the Emotional Stability subscale of the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (Guilford, Zimmerman, and Guilford 1976), ($r = -.43$). These studies indicate that the LOT scale correlates highly and significantly with scales that measure similar traits and dispositions and is not correlated with scales that measure dissimilar traits and dispositions.

Control Systems

The sales force control system is measured by surveying salespeople's perceptions of the emphasis their supervisors place on different aspects of management. Sales managers are believed to stress one of three orientations in their day-to-day management activities—end-results, activity, and capability orientation. Challagalla and Shervani (1996) developed a control systems instrument that measured supervisory orientation by adapting items from

previous work done by Jaworski, Stathakopoulos, and Krishman (1993). Salesperson perceptions of supervisory orientation are reported on a 14-item measure with a seven-point, Likert-type scale anchored by "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree." Four of the items measure the salesperson's perception of the manager's end-results orientation. Activity and capability supervisory orientations are measured with five items each. A summated score is calculated for each supervisory orientation and divided by the number of items for that orientation. Items for this instrument are shown in Appendix A.

Psychometric properties of control system instrument. Exploratory factor analysis provided evidence that the three supervisory orientations were considered unidimensional (Challagalla and Shervani 1996; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Composite reliability of each scale exceeded .70, suggesting internal consistency. Challagalla and Shervani (1996) reported values of .87, .89, and .90 for end-results, activity, and capability, respectively. Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) reported that all Cronbach alpha scores were in excess of .70, providing sufficient evidence of reliability.

Path coefficients from latent constructs to their corresponding manifest indicators were all statistically significant indicating convergent validity. Pairwise latent-trait correlations of the constructs were significantly different from one another implying that the instrument evidenced discriminant validity (Challagalla and Shervani 1996; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998).

Organizational Culture

The organizational culture scale used in the current study is one introduced to marketing by Deshpandè, Farley, and Webster (1993) and Moorman (1995) and was adapted from Cameron and Freeman (1991) and Quinn (1988). A constant sum scale was used where respondents were asked to distribute 100 points across each of four groups of four-item statements about their organization. The four groups described the *kind of organization*, the *leadership of the organization*, what *holds the organization together*, and what is *important to the organization*. The respective statements in each of the groups applying to each of the four culture types were totaled to determine the relative emphasis that each salesperson perceives his or her firm places on each of the four culture types. The organizational culture questionnaire is presented in Appendix A.

Psychometric properties of the organizational culture scale. Deshpandé, Farley and Webster (1993) found Cronbach alphas of .82, .66, .42, and .71 for market, adhocracy, clan, and hierarchy cultures, respectively. An item-to-total correlation was performed to determine if the items represented a distinct domain of interest. Items with a low correlation were eliminated if they had no theoretical importance. Although the clan culture's internal consistency fell below the .70 level that Deshpandé, Farley, and Webster (1993) had established as adequate, it was retained for theoretical purposes because it was part of a broader construct as presented by Cameron and Freeman (1991) and Quinn (1988). Moorman (1995) assessed unidimensionality, reliability, and

construct validity of the scale. Results indicated that the items are unidimensional. Coefficients were reported as .57, .81, .57, and .85 for adhocracy, market, hierarchy, and clan cultures, respectively. Construct validity was also assessed and the instrument was found to have adequate convergent and discriminant validity.

Research Design

A mail questionnaire was selected for the survey research method. Questionnaires containing the instrument shown in Appendix A were mailed to a random sample of approximately 3,000 life insurance agents throughout the United States. A second mailing to the same sample took place approximately three weeks after the first mailing. Late respondents were compared with earlier responses in order to determine the possible existence of response bias (Armstrong and Overton 1977).

Statistical Methodology

Various statistical procedures were used to test the hypotheses. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test hypotheses concerning main effects and moderated regression analysis was used to test hypotheses that concerned interaction effects.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of this study. The chapter is divided into four sections. In the first section, the data collection process is described and nonresponse error is addressed. The second section describes the demographic and background characteristics of the sample. Descriptive statistics for each of the study variables are presented in the third section. The fourth section examines the results for the hierarchical linear regression and moderated regression analyses.

Data Collection

The sampling frame for the current study was 30,000 life insurance professionals in the United States, Puerto Rico, and Guam who subscribed to *Life Insurance Selling* magazine. Two thousand subscribers were randomly selected from this sampling frame. The life insurance professionals were sent the study questionnaire twice. The first mailing included a detailed cover letter describing the purpose of the study (see Appendix A), a postage-paid reply envelope, and the questionnaire (see Appendix B). Approximately ten days later, a follow-up, reminder letter (See Appendix C) with the questionnaire and a reply envelope was sent. From the two mailings, a total of 254 surveys were returned. Of these, 231 were completed by life insurance sales professionals,

23 were not eligible to participate in the study, and 1,746 individuals in the sample did not respond. Of the 231 completed questionnaires, 211 were found to be usable for purposes of the study. The response rate was calculated in accordance with the formula recommended by Churchill (1999) (see Table 7). The resulting response rate was 12.69%.

Table 7. Response Rate Calculations

CQ	=	Completed questionnaires	
NC	=	Not completed or refused	
IN	=	Ineligible	
		CQ	
		<hr/>	
CQ	+	$[CQ / (CQ + IN)]$	= Response Rate
		[NC]	
		Completed questionnaires	231
		Not completed or refused	1,746
		Ineligible	23
		231	
		<hr/>	
		$231 + [231 / (231 + 23)]$	= 12.69%
		[1,746]	

Nonresponse Error

Churchill (1999, p. 580) defines nonresponse error as “a failure to obtain information from some elements of the population that were selected and designated for the sample.” The relatively low response rate of 12.69% achieved may indicate the presence of nonresponse error that could potentially bias the results. However, according to Hunt (1990), response rate is not the most critical issue in survey research:

No manuscript should be rejected on the basis of potential nonresponse bias – no matter what the response rate is – unless there is good reason to believe that the respondents do in fact differ from the nonrespondents on the substantive issues in question and that these differences would make the results of the study unreliable (p. 174).

Armstrong and Overton (1977) argue that there is no reason to extrapolate in order to determine nonresponse bias unless there are *a priori* expectations that bias exists. No such *a priori* expectations existed in this study.

Since nonresponse bias was not assumed to exist, a simple means-comparison test was conducted between the means of each study variable for the first quartile of responses and the means of each study variable for the last quartile of responses (Churchill 1999). A t-test analysis indicated no significant difference between the responses of the two groups with the exception of *control systems-end results* (see Table 8). In light of the fact that the 12 other variables exhibited no significant differences across the two groups, nonresponse bias was not deemed to be evident.

Table 8. Early Versus Late Respondents

Variable	Quartile	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-value (p-value)
Mastery Goal Orientation	1	5.159	.5103	-0.234
	4	5.179	.4300	(0.816)
Performance Goal Orientation	1	4.111	1.329	1.275
	4	3.737	1.369	(0.209)
Self-Efficacy	1	4.354	.5153	-1.412
	4	4.494	.4807	(0.165)
Optimism	1	3.996	.4353	-0.212
	4	4.014	.4828	(0.833)
Control Systems – End Results	1	4.702	1.669	3.235
	4	3.599	1.705	(0.002)
Control Systems – Activity	1	3.721	1.868	1.555
	4	3.158	1.714	(0.123)
Control Systems – Capability	1	3.522	1.642	1.951
	4	2.906	1.481	(0.054)
ASQ	1	4.121	2.695	-0.377
	4	4.394	3.043	(0.709)
Organizational Culture (Clan)	1	29.583	18.131	-1.177
	4	34.504	21.272	(0.246)
Organizational Culture (Adhocracy)	1	12.431	12.431	0.201
	4	15.255	15.255	(0.841)
Organizational Culture (Hierarchy)	1	19.527	10.769	0.551
	4	18.311	9.531	(0.584)
Organizational Culture (Market)	1	29.602	16.782	0.774
	4	26.561	19.059	(0.443)
Implicit Personality Theory	1	2.215	1.222	-1.307
	4	2.556	1.209	(0.198)

Characteristics of the Sample

Selected demographic characteristics of the participants in this dissertation and their work activities are reported in Table 9 and Table 10. The average age of the respondents was slightly over 52 years with a standard deviation of 10.11 years and a median age of 52. A large number of respondents were male (90.3%). Additionally, the respondents had an average of 1.89 dependents and 85.1% were married.

Most of the respondents had at least some exposure to a college level education (93.1%). Of those that attended college, 43.9% had a college degree and 28% had an advanced or professional degree.

The respondents also reported various work characteristics. Over half of the study participants worked for an independent firm (52.1%). Respondents who work for independent firms are able to contract their services with several insurance companies at the same time and do not necessarily have to account to a manager for their activities. The remainder of the respondents worked as captive agents, that is, for one insurance company (47.9%).

The respondents perceived a high level of competition in the insurance industry (average response of 5.51 on a 1-to-7 scale) and 52.9% reported that the majority of their business came from new customers. The competition for new customers resulted in an average of 14.85 closing sale interviews per month and an average workweek of 41.7 hours. Commissions represented 90.1% of the income of the respondents and the average tenure in sales was 17.51 years.

Table 9. Characteristics of the Study Sample

	Age	Education	Level of Competition	Percent of Business from New Customers	Percent of Income that is Commission	Tenure in Sales
N	192	189	194	192	191	162
Mean	52.30	3.92	5.51	52.92	90.09	17.51
Median	52.00	4.00	6.00	50.00	100.00	15.00
Mode	51	4	6	50	100	10
Standard Deviation	10.11	.90	1.47	25.65	22.70	10.32
Minimum	26	1	1	0	1	1
Maximu	77	5	7	100	100	51

Table 10. Characteristics of the Study Sample - 2

Variable	Category	Frequency	Valid Percentage
Gender	Male	176	90.3
	Female	19	9.7
Marital Status	Married	166	85.1
	Single	29	14.9
Type of Firm	Captive	93	47.7
	Independent	101	52.1

Descriptive Statistics for the Study Variables

Descriptive statistics for the study variables are presented in Table 11. Scores for *mastery goal orientation* and *performance goal orientation* ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A composite score for mastery goal orientation was calculated by averaging the scores from the scale's five items and the score for performance goal orientation was obtained by averaging the six items from that scale. The mean for mastery goal orientation was 5.91 with a standard deviation of .91, while the mean for performance goal orientation was 3.95 with a standard deviation of 1.37. Thus, the participants in

this study tended to have a higher mastery than performance goal orientation. While the results from the analysis of the mastery goal orientation variable indicate a lack of normality, the skewness and kurtosis were not considered to be extreme enough to bias the test results.

Summated ratings scales were also used to assess *self-efficacy* and *optimism* (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). The self-efficacy mean was 5.44 with a standard deviation of .89 and the mean for optimism was 6.07 with a standard deviation of .83. This suggests that respondents were relatively optimistic overall and had a high level of confidence in their sales ability.

Two items were deleted from the original self-efficacy scale after a factor analysis was completed for that scale. The results of the factor analysis are reported in a later section. Additionally, in a reliability analysis, item #1 of the optimism scale was deleted because its deletion increased the reliability of the scale to an acceptable standard. As reported by Nunnally (1978), the *reduction* of a scale in order to increase reliability contributes to the parsimonious nature of the instrument. Further, the deleted item had a low item-total correlation score. According to Churchill (1999), a low item-total correlation score indicates that the item does "not share equally in the common core (of the domain of the construct) and should be eliminated" (p. 462).

None of the scales exhibited unacceptable levels of skewness and kurtosis with the exception of the Life Orientation Test that measured optimism (Scheier and Carver 1987). Over one-half of the respondents scored themselves at six or greater indicating a high level of optimism. These skewed

results are similar to those obtained by Strutton and Lumpkin (1993) and may be due to the generally optimistic nature of salespeople. In addition, the kurtosis of the distribution is also severely peaked due to the large number of high scores. This lack of normality may affect the level of significance or the power of the analysis of the data although the F test used to measure the changes in R^2 is generally robust even when the distribution is not normal (Box and Tiao 1973; Neter et al. 1996).

Behavior pattern was measured using the Attributional Style Questionnaire (ASQ). The ASQ is a copyrighted instrument. A copy of the letter granting permission for its use is found in Appendix D. There are 12 brief scenarios on the ASQ that require the respondent to vividly imagine a reason the scenario might happen to him or her. There are six positive and six negative scenarios. The respondent is asked to write the imagined reason on the instrument and then assign attributions for the scenario across appropriately worded attributional dimensions of internal/external, stable/unstable, and global/specific. Attributional dimensions are measured on a scale with 1 = "attributions to other people and specific situations" and 7 = "attributions to the respondents' and all situations." A summated score is obtained by summing the positive scenarios, subtracting the sum of the negative scenarios, and dividing by six. Scores can range from -18 to $+18$. The mean score was 4.59 for the ASQ scale representing an adaptive behavior pattern overall. The standard deviation for the ASQ was 2.77.

Each of the three types of control systems was measured on a summated ratings scale where respondents reported their level of agreement with statements about their supervisors (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). The summated scale means for control systems-end results, control systems-activity, and control systems-capability were 4.21, 3.45, and 3.2, respectively. The standard deviation for control systems-end results was 1.76, while standard deviations for control systems-activity and control systems-capability were 1.78 and 1.58, respectively.

Organizational culture was assessed using a constant-sum method. Respondents were asked to allocate 100 points among the four organizational culture types – *clan*, *adhocracy*, *hierarchy*, and *market*. The organizational culture variables of interest in this study were *clan* and *market*. The mean for a clan culture was 31.37 and for the market culture it was 27.90. The standard deviation for a clan culture was 18.36 and was 16.81 for the market culture.

Implicit personality theory was measured with an 8-item, summated ratings scale instrument. Respondents indicated their level of agreement with eight statements anchored by 1 = strongly disagree and 6 = strongly agree. The mean score for implicit personality theory was 2.87 with a standard deviation of .98. Thus, on balance, the respondents had low implicit personality theory scores. A low implicit personality theory score reflects an incremental personality theory.

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
PGO	3.9445	4.2000	4.20	1.3685	-.174	-.585
MGO	5.9067	6.0000	7.00	.9064	-1.148	1.986
IPT	2.8712	2.8750	3.00	.9770	.217	-.321
ASQ	4.5889	4.5000	3.83	2.7730	.188	-.515
CSEND	4.2125	4.2125	4.00	1.7600	-.308	-.708
CSACT	3.4525	3.4525	1.00	1.7830	.191	-.905
CSCAP	3.1955	3.1955	1.00	1.5819	.332	-.510
OCC	31.3723	28.3333	31.37	18.3551	.834	.807
OCM	27.8963	26.5000	31.67	16.8146	.765	.615
SELF	5.4369	5.4000	6.00	.8939	-.681	.978
OPT	6.0684	6.2000	6.80	.8307	-1.705	5.925

PGO = Performance Goal Orientation
 MGO = Mastery Goal Orientation
 IPT = Implicit Personality Theory
 ASQ = Attributional Style
 CSEND = Control Systems – End Results
 CSACT = Control Systems – Activity
 CSCAP = Control Systems – Capability
 OCC = Organizational Culture – Clan
 OCM = Organizational Culture – Market
 SELF = Self-Efficacy
 OPT = Optimism

Measurement of Constructs

Factor Analysis

The psychometric properties of the scales used in this study have previously been found to be acceptable as documented in Chapter III. However, an initial examination of the reliability statistics of the self-efficacy scale warranted further investigation of this scale. A factor analysis of self-efficacy produced two factors, thus violating the theorized unidimensionality of the construct. Items were considered to load on a factor if the value of the loading exceeded .40. Item #2 loaded on factor two with a value of .819 and Item #5 loaded on factor two with a value of .622. Both items loaded on factor one with values less than .40. Further examination resulted in removing items #2 and #5

from the original scale in order to achieve unidimensionality. The results of the factor analysis after the deletion of items #2 and #5 are shown in Table 12. As indicated, all items load on one factor providing evidence of unidimensionality of the scale.

Table 12. Factor Analysis of Self-Efficacy Scale After Item Deletions

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
SELFEF_1	.772
SELFEF_3	.734
SELFEF_4	.589
SELFEF_6	.806
SELFEF_7	.756

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Reliability

Previous examinations of the reliability of each of the scales used in this study were reported in Chapter III. Since reliability is a necessary condition for validity, each scale's internal consistency was assessed in this study using coefficient alpha. The results of these scores are reported in Table 13. To be considered adequately reliable, coefficient alpha scores should be .70 or higher according to Nunnally (1978). The internal consistency scores for the variables included in this study ranged from .74 to .96, indicating sufficient evidence of reliability.

Table 13. Scale Reliability

Variable	Coefficient Alpha
Mastery Goal Orientation	.86
Performance Goal Orientation	.87
Implicit Personality Theory	.88
Optimism	.75
Self-Efficacy	.76
Attributional Style – Positive	.83
Attributional Style – Negative	.74
Control Systems – End-Results Orientation	.94
Control Systems – Activity Orientation	.96
Control Systems – Capability Orientation	.92
Organizational Culture – Clan	.86
Organizational Culture – Market	.84

Correlations Among Study Variables

A correlation matrix presenting the correlations among the study variables is provided in Table 14. Significant ($p < .05$) correlations are discussed below in terms of their impact on nomological validity.

There was a negative correlation between implicit personality theory and a performance goal orientation. This relationship does not support the theoretical nomological network as the two variables have been reported to have a positive relationship in previous studies (e.g., Dweck and Leggett 1988). However, implicit personality theory's observed negative relationship with a mastery goal orientation *is* supported by theory (e.g., Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Elliott and Dweck 1988). It should be noted that an individual can hold *both* a learning and a performance goal orientation.

Additionally, a performance goal orientation was positively associated with a mastery goal orientation and all three types of control systems. This positive relationship is supported by previous empirical research (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). It should be noted, however, those classroom

management systems that emphasized behavior were found to be *negatively* associated with a performance goal orientation in non-organizational settings (Ames and Archer 1988; Nichols 1984).

A mastery goal orientation was positively associated with optimism. This result is in consonance with Sujan (1999) who proposed a positive relationship between a mastery goal orientation and optimism. Dweck and Leggett (1988) also found a relationship between a mastery goal orientation and optimism in a qualitative study of elementary school children. Thus, the positive relationship found in this study between optimism and a mastery goal orientation provides evidence of nomological validity for both scales.

Attribution style was positively correlated with self-efficacy. This relationship has been reported by other researchers (e.g., Peterson and Seligman 1978; Dweck and Leggett 1988). This result provides support for the nomological validity of both scales.

Table 14. Pearson Correlation Matrix

		PGO	MGO	IPT	ASQ	CSEND	CSACT	CSCAB	OCC	OCM	SELF	OPT
PGO	Correlation	1.000	.279	-.161	-.007	.376	.435	.459	-.071	.051	-.003	-.036
	Significance	.	.000	.024	.923	.000	.000	.000	.327	.481	.969	.621
MGO	Correlation	.279	1.000	-.210	.206	.235	.254	.127	-.099	.103	.396	.329
	Significance	.000	.	.003	.004	.001	.000	.077	.167	.150	.000	.000
IPT	Correlation	-.161	-.210	1.00	.004	-.219	-.183	-.135	.030	.004	-.042	-.092
	Significance	.024	.003	.	.961	.002	.010	.060	.677	.952	.560	.200
ASQ	Correlation	-.007	.206	.004	1.000	-.012	.047	.003	.053	-.056	.325	.333
	Significance	.923	.004	.961	.	.868	.515	.969	.465	.439	.000	.000
CSEND	Correlation	.376	.235	-.219	-.012	1.000	.720	.596	-.111	.255	.066	-.008
	Significance	.000	.001	.002	.868	.	.000	.000	.121	.000	.359	.911
CSACT	Correlation	.435	.254	-.183	.047	.720	1.000	.794	-.015	.105	.026	-.012
	Significance	.000	.000	.010	.515	.000	.	.000	.838	.145	.723	.868
CSCAB	Correlation	.459	.127	-.135	.003	.596	.794	1.000	.041	-.021	.013	-.013
	Significance	.000	.077	.060	.969	.000	.000	.	.572	.769	.859	.862
OCC	Correlation	-.071	-.099	.030	.053	-.111	-.015	.041	1.000	-.680	-.065	-.009
	Significance	.327	.167	.677	.465	.121	.838	.572	.	.000	.368	.899
OCM	Correlation	.051	.103	.004	-.056	.255	.105	-.021	-.680	1.000	.067	-.069
	Significance	.481	.150	.952	.439	.000	.145	.769	.000	.	.350	.339
SELF	Correlation	-.003	.396	-.042	.325	.066	.026	.013	-.065	.067	1.000	.547
	Significance	.969	.000	.560	.000	.359	.723	.859	.368	.350	.	.000
OPT	Correlation	-.036	.329	-.092	.333	-.008	-.012	-.013	-.009	-.069	.547	1.000
	Significance	.621	.000	.200	.000	.911	.868	.862	.899	.339	.000	.

PGO = Performance Goal Orientation
MGO = Mastery Goal Orientation
IPT = Implicit Personality Theory
ASQ = Attributional Style
CSEND = Control Systems – End Results
CSACT = Control Systems – Activity

CSCAP = Control Systems – Capability
OCC = Organizational Culture -- Clan
OCM = Organizational Culture -- Market
SELF = Self-Efficacy
OPT = Optimism

Tests of Hypotheses

Hierarchical and moderated regression analyses were employed to test the hypotheses proposed in Chapter III. The results of these analyses are discussed below.

Before the results of the hypothesis tests are discussed, it is appropriate to explain how the variables were entered into the regression equation. First, certain control or concomitant variables were entered. In this study, four control variables were used in each regression analysis. These variables were: (1) *the extent to which salespeople quickly generated new product sales for their firms* (1 = "far below average" and 7 = "far above average"); (2) *the level of competition in the insurance industry as perceived by the salesperson* (1 = "not very competitive" and 7 = "highly competitive"); (3) *the extent to which the salesperson was compensated on commission* (as a percent of overall compensation); and (4) *salesperson tenure in the selling profession* (measured in years). Control variables were added to the regression model to "reflect the effects of previously identified explanatory variables as the effects of the new, primary, explanatory variables on the response variable are being tested" (Neter et al. 1996, p. 1012).

The first control variable was added to account for extraneous variation in the mastery and performance goal orientation dependent variables. For example, salespeople with a performance goal orientation should be hesitant to try new sales techniques or to attempt to sell untested products. The reason for this reluctance is that performance goal-oriented salespeople seek favorable

appraisal from their manager and co-workers. Performance goal-oriented salespeople fear that an attempt to sell new products may result in failure and negative assessment of their sales ability. On the other hand, salespeople with a mastery goal orientation should be more willing to sell new products. The chance to sell new products offers the opportunity to learn about the products and presents a welcome challenge (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). Thus, it was believed that this item controlled for variance in two dependent variables that was not predicted to be accounted for by the independent variable, implicit personality theory.

Environmental factors also influence a person's goal orientation (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). Dweck and Leggett (1988) reported the ability of classroom teachers to influence the goal orientation of students by manipulating the classroom system of rewards. Since manipulation of certain organizational factors was hypothesized to affect the outcomes of this study, the decision was made to control for two important environmental factors that influence life insurance selling behaviors. These factors are the level of competition as perceived by the salesperson and the extent to which the salesperson is paid on a commission basis.

The final control variable used throughout the study was the salesperson's overall tenure in sales. Cron, Dubinsky, and Michaels (1988) found that a salesperson's tenure in sales was related to his or her motivation. Since the focus of this study is salesperson work motivation, a control variable

that accounted for variance in salesperson motivation was included in the analysis.

Additional controls were added to the regression equation when the effect of organizational culture was analyzed. It was hypothesized in Chapter III that clan and market organizational cultures types had an effect on a salesperson's implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship. When these relationships were analyzed, adhocracy and hierarchy cultures were entered to control for extraneous organizational culture effects. This was done because virtually all organizations are comprised of aspects of all four culture types (Cameron and Quinn 1991; Desphandé Farley, and Webster 1993). Therefore, while it was explained in Chapters II and III that the adhocracy and hierarchy cultures should not directly influence the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship, it was believed prudent to control for any extraneous influence that these two culture types might have within the regression model.

For the hypothesized main effects (H1, H2, H3, and H4a), hierarchical regression was employed. Controls were entered in the first model. The predictor variable was then entered in the second model to assess the hypothesized main effect.

For moderated regression models (H4b – H16), the controls were entered first. Next, the moderator variables were entered. The third model added the main effect/predictor variable to the previously entered variables. Finally, in the fourth model, the interaction term was entered to test the

hypothesized moderator effect. The procedure used for this analysis is one suggested by Sharma, Durand, and Gur-Arie (1981). Thus, the moderated regression equation is as follows:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1c + \beta_2z + \beta_3x + \beta_4xz$$

α = intercept
 c = control variables
 z = proposed moderator
 x = independent variable
 xz = interaction term

As each variable is entered into the model, the change in R^2 of the model is assessed. If the R^2 -change associated with the main effect is not significant, a moderator effect may nevertheless still be present (Bedeian and Mossholder 1994). That is, a statistically significant change in R^2 that exists because of the addition of the interaction term indicates that a moderator effect may be present. The significance of the interaction variable(s) of interest is the final determination of a moderator effect. It should be noted that if there was no significant change in R^2 when the moderator was entered, the variable is a "pure moderator." On the other hand, if the introduction of both the moderator *and* the interaction term into the models results in a statistically significant change in R^2 , the variable is a "quasi-moderator." If neither the moderator nor the interaction term result in a significant R^2 change, no moderation effect is present (Sharma, Durand, and Gur-Arie 1981).

The 16 proposed hypotheses were tested using one of the two regression procedures described above as appropriate. The results of each of the hypotheses are discussed below.

Hypothesis Evaluation

The data collected for this study was assessed using hierarchical linear regression and moderated regression analysis in order to assess the relationship between the variables. Below are the results of the hypothesis testing.

Hypothesis 1. Implicit personality theory is negatively associated with a mastery goal orientation. (Supported).

The results reported in Table 15 support the negative relationship between implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation ($\beta = -.196$, $p = .004$).

Table 15. Hypothesis 1

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.832	.404		11.960	.000
	Performance	.169	.043	.280	3.975	.000
	Level of Competition	6.495E-02	.043	.105	1.512	.132
	Commission Income	-1.027E-03	.003	-.025	-.367	.714
	Tenure	3.594E-03	.007	.037	.539	.591
2	(Constant)	5.421	.445		12.176	.000
	Performance	.164	.042	.272	3.926	.000
	Level of Competition	6.441E-02	.042	.104	1.528	.128
	Commission Income	-1.314E-03	.003	-.033	-.478	.633
	Tenure	2.766E-03	.007	.029	.422	.673
	IPT	-.182	.063	-.196	-2.903	.004

- a. Dependent Variable: Mastery goal orientation
 b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .142 (.119)
 c. Full Model F Value: 6.232
 d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .000
 Model 2 = .004

Hypothesis 2. Implicit personality theory is positively associated with a performance goal orientation. (Not Supported).

The results of the analysis of this hypothesis indicated a significant, although negative, relationship between implicit personality theory and a performance goal orientation ($\beta = -.164$, $p = .017$). However, the direction of the relationship was in the opposite direction of that hypothesized. Details of the regression results are displayed in Table 16.

Table 16. Hypothesis 2

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	3.767	.610		6.181	.000
	Performance	.169	.064	.185	2.624	.009
	Level of Competition	.126	.065	.134	1.938	.054
	Commission Income	-1.059E-02	.004	-.174	-2.506	.013
	Tenure	-1.737E-02	.010	-.119	-1.725	.086
2	(Constant)	4.509	.676		6.669	.000
	Performance	.162	.064	.178	2.553	.011
	Level of Competition	.125	.064	.133	1.952	.052
	Commission Income	-1.095E-02	.004	-.180	-2.623	.009
	Tenure	-1.841E-02	.010	-.127	-1.850	.066
	IPT	-.229	.095	-.164	-2.410	.017

- a. Dependent Variable: Mastery goal orientation
- b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .131 (.108)
- c. Full Model F Value: 5.714
- d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .000
Model 2 = .017

Hypothesis 3. Mastery goal orientation is positively related to salesperson adaptive behavior patterns. (Supported).

Results illustrated in Table 17 indicate a strong positive relationship between a mastery goal orientation and an adaptive behavior pattern ($\beta = .221$, $p = .008$). This result supports the hypothesis.

Table 17. Hypothesis 3

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	2.895	1.452		1.994	.048
	Performance	.143	.157	.074	.910	.364
	Level of Competiton	-.117	.156	-.061	-.753	.453
	Commission Income	1.177E-02	.010	.094	1.156	.249
	Tenure	3.720E-02	.022	.135	1.670	.097
2	(Constant)	-.625	1.935		-.323	.747
	Performance	2.278E-02	.160	.012	.142	.887
	Level of Competiton	-.129	.153	-.067	-.848	.398
	Commission Income	1.149E-02	.010	.091	1.151	.251
	Tenure	3.547E-02	.022	.129	1.624	.107
	Mastery Goal Orientation	.708	.264	.221	2.685	.008

- a. Dependent Variable: Attributional Style
- b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .080 (.049)
- c. Full Model F Value: 2.586
- d. Significance of F Value: Model 1 = .246
 Model 2 = .008

Hypothesis 4a. Performance goal orientation is negatively related to salesperson adaptive behavior patterns. (Not Supported).

Hierarchical linear regression results did not indicate any significant relationship between a performance goal orientation and an adaptive behavior pattern ($\beta = .001$, $p = .994$). The results are displayed in Table 18.

Table 18. Hypothesis 4a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	2.306	1.276		1.808	.072
	Performance	.266	.135	.144	1.979	.049
	Level of Competition	-9.952E-02	.136	-.052	-.734	.464
	Commission Income	1.155E-02	.009	.094	1.307	.193
	Tenure	3.523E-02	.021	.119	1.672	.096
2	(Constant)	2.301	1.402		1.642	.102
	Performance	.266	.137	.144	1.937	.054
	Level of Competition	-9.967E-02	.137	-.053	-.726	.469
	Commission Income	1.156E-02	.009	.094	1.284	.201
	Tenure	3.525E-02	.021	.120	1.655	.100
	Performance Goal Orientation	1.221E-03	.152	.001	.008	.994

- a. Dependent Variable: Attributional Style
- b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .045 (.004)
- c. Full Model F Value: 1.780
- d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .246
Model 2 = .994

Hypothesis 4b. The relationship between performance goal orientation and salespeople's adaptive behavior pattern is positively moderated by self-efficacy. (Not Supported).

The results of the regression reported in Table 19 do not support the presence of self-efficacy as a moderator effect on a salesperson's performance goal orientation ($\beta = -.088$, $p = .858$).

Table 19. Hypothesis 4b

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	2.895	1.452		1.994	.048
	Performance	.143	.157	.074	.910	.364
	Level of Competition	-.117	.156	-.061	-.753	.453
	Commission Income	1.177E-02	.010	.094	1.156	.249
	Tenure	3.720E-02	.022	.135	1.670	.097
2	(Constant)	-.699	1.877		-.373	.710
	Performance	-2.181E-03	.161	-.001	-.014	.989
	Level of Competition	-.142	.152	-.073	-.931	.353
	Commission Income	1.089E-02	.010	.087	1.096	.275
	Tenure	2.147E-02	.022	.078	.959	.339
	Self-Efficacy	.871	.298	.250	2.921	.004
3	(Constant)	-1.148	2.023		-.567	.571
	Performance	-2.520E-02	.166	-.013	-.152	.879
	Level of Competition	-.149	.153	-.077	-.976	.331
	Commission Income	1.202E-02	.010	.096	1.186	.237
	Tenure	2.302E-02	.023	.083	1.019	.310
	Self-Efficacy	.882	.299	.253	2.948	.004
	PGO	.103	.170	.050	.602	.548
4	(Constant)	-1.813	4.223		-.429	.668
	Performance	-2.396E-02	.166	-.012	-.144	.886
	Level of Competition	-.150	.154	-.078	-.977	.330
	Commission Income	1.213E-02	.010	.097	1.191	.236
	Tenure	2.210E-02	.023	.080	.951	.343
	Self-Efficacy	1.008	.759	.289	1.328	.186
	PGO	.265	.923	.130	.288	.774
	PGO x Self-Efficacy	-3.049E-02	.170	-.088	-.180	.858

- a. Dependent Variable: Attributional Style
b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .090 (.047)
c. Full Model F Value: 2.077
d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .246
Model 2 = .004
Model 3 = .548
Model 4 = .858

Hypothesis 5. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by optimism. (Not Supported).

Table 20 contains the results of the analysis of the above hypothesis.

Optimism was not found to moderate the implicit personality theory-mastery goal orientation relationship ($\beta = -.624$, $p = .318$).

Table 20. Hypothesis 5

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.970	.440		11.285	.000
	Performance	.169	.048	.284	3.562	.000
	Level of Competition	1.720E-02	.047	.029	.364	.716
	Commission Income	3.999E-04	.003	.010	.130	.897
	Tenure	2.451E-03	.007	.029	.363	.717
2	(Constant)	3.078	.628		4.898	.000
	Performance	.137	.046	.229	2.965	.004
	Level of Competition	1.165E-02	.045	.019	.259	.796
	Commission Income	3.984E-04	.003	.010	.135	.892
	Tenure	5.096E-04	.006	.006	.079	.937
	Optimism	.347	.086	.308	4.045	.000
3	(Constant)	3.789	.684		5.538	.000
	Performance	.134	.045	.224	2.954	.004
	Level of Competition	1.077E-02	.044	.018	.243	.808
	Commission Income	1.525E-05	.003	.000	.005	.996
	Tenure	3.098E-05	.006	.000	.005	.996
	Optimism	.318	.085	.282	3.731	.000
	IPT	-.166	.068	-.180	-2.427	.016
4	(Constant)	2.190	1.735		1.262	.209
	Performance	.142	.046	.239	3.089	.002
	Level of Competition	9.475E-03	.044	.016	.214	.831
	Commission Income	1.272E-04	.003	.003	.044	.965
	Tenure	-1.598E-04	.006	-.002	-.025	.980
	Optimism	.566	.262	.503	2.159	.032
	IPT	.399	.567	.433	.703	.483
	IPT x Optimism	-9.056E-02	.090	-.624	-1.002	.318

- a. Dependent Variable: Mastery goal orientation
b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .212 (.175)
c. Full Model F Value: 5.661
d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .010
Model 2 = .000
Model 3 = .016
Model 4 = .318

Hypothesis 6. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is negatively moderated by optimism. (Not Supported).

As the results reported in Table 21 indicate, optimism was not found to moderate the implicit personality theory-performance goal orientation relationship ($\beta = .454$, $p = .449$).

Table 21. Hypothesis 6

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	3.767	.610		6.181	.000
	Performance	.169	.064	.185	2.624	.009
	Level of Competition	.126	.065	.134	1.938	.054
	Commission Income	-1.059E-02	.004	-.174	-2.506	.013
	Tenure	-1.737E-02	.010	-.119	-1.725	.086
2	(Constant)	4.607	.883		5.220	.000
	Performance	.188	.066	.206	2.856	.005
	Level of Competition	.127	.065	.136	1.962	.051
	Commission Income	-1.076E-02	.004	-.177	-2.551	.012
	Tenure	-1.668E-02	.010	-.115	-1.658	.099
	Optimism	-.153	.117	-.093	-1.313	.191
3	(Constant)	5.522	.942		5.863	.000
	Performance	.184	.065	.202	2.839	.005
	Level of Competition	.126	.064	.135	1.983	.049
	Commission Income	-1.117E-02	.004	-.183	-2.684	.008
	Tenure	-1.767E-02	.010	-.121	-1.780	.077
	Optimism	-.177	.115	-.108	-1.539	.126
	IPT	-.242	.095	-.172	-2.538	.012
4	(Constant)	7.233	2.445		2.958	.003
	Performance	.175	.066	.192	2.653	.009
	Level of Competition	.126	.064	.134	1.969	.050
	Commission Income	-1.133E-02	.004	-.186	-2.717	.007
	Tenure	-1.746E-02	.010	-.120	-1.755	.081
	Optimism	-.441	.366	-.268	-1.205	.230
	IPT	-.853	.812	-.609	-1.051	.295
	IPT x Optimism	9.788E-02	.129	.454	.759	.449

- a. Dependent Variable: Performance goal orientation
b. R^2 (Adj. R^2)
c. Full Model F Value: 4.521
d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .000
Model 2 = .191
Model 3 = .012
Model 4 = .449

Hypothesis 7. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory end-results orientation. (Not Supported).

The results of the hierarchical linear regression reported in Table 22 indicate that supervisory end-results orientation does not moderate a salesperson's implicit personality theory-mastery goal orientation relationship ($\beta = -.196, p = .387$).

Table 22. Hypothesis 7

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.970	.440		11.285	.000
	Performance	.169	.048	.284	3.562	.000
	Level of Competition	1.720E-02	.047	.029	.364	.716
	Commission Income	3.999E-04	.003	.010	.130	.897
	Tenure	2.451E-03	.007	.029	.363	.717
2	(Constant)	4.530	.461		9.832	.000
	Performance	.158	.047	.264	3.369	.001
	Level of Competition	2.997E-03	.047	.005	.064	.949
	Commission Income	1.615E-03	.003	.041	.528	.598
	Tenure	3.777E-03	.007	.044	.569	.570
	CSE	.106	.039	.213	2.720	.007
3	(Constant)	5.167	.539		9.585	.000
	Performance	.155	.046	.260	3.359	.001
	Level of Competition	5.014E-03	.046	.008	.109	.913
	Commission Income	9.609E-04	.003	.025	.317	.752
	Tenure	2.848E-03	.007	.033	.434	.665
	CSE	8.115E-02	.040	.163	2.026	.045
	IPT	-.160	.073	-.174	-2.203	.029
4	(Constant)	4.845	.654		7.404	.000
	Performance	.150	.047	.251	3.217	.002
	Level of Competition	1.386E-03	.046	.002	.030	.976
	Commission Income	1.066E-03	.003	.027	.351	.726
	Tenure	3.213E-03	.007	.037	.488	.626
	CSE	.168	.107	.338	1.560	.121
	IPT	-4.215E-02	.154	-.046	-.273	.785
	IPT x CSE	-3.060E-02	.035	-.196	-.867	.387

a. Dependent Variable: Mastery goal orientation

b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .160 (.120)

c. Full Model F Value: 4.003

d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .010

Model 2 = .007

Model 3 = .029

Model 4 = .387

Hypothesis 8. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory end-results orientation. (Not Supported).

The analysis of Hypothesis 8 indicates that supervisory end-results orientation significantly moderates a salesperson's implicit personality theory-performance goal orientation relationship ($\beta = .565$, $p = .007$). The direction of this influence is *positive* rather than the negative influence that was hypothesized, however.

It should be noted that for Hypotheses 7 and 8, a decision was made to construct the hypotheses in accordance with recent empirical findings reported in a study completed in a sales setting (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998) rather than in accordance with previous conceptual work (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Oliver and Anderson 1987). Thus, while the hypothesis is not formally supported, the results are in consonance with theory and past empirical findings in educational settings. The implications of these findings will be discussed in Chapter V. The analysis of Hypothesis 8 is shown in Table 23.

Table 23. Hypothesis 8

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	3.767	.610		6.181	.000
	Performance	.169	.064	.185	2.624	.009
	Level of Competition	.126	.065	.134	1.938	.054
	Commission Income	-1.059E-02	.004	-.174	-2.506	.013
	Tenure	-1.737E-02	.010	-.119	-1.725	.086
2	(Constant)	2.753	.614		4.483	.000
	Performance	.145	.061	.159	2.382	.018
	Level of Competition	8.188E-02	.062	.087	1.320	.188
	Commission Income	-7.762E-03	.004	-.127	-1.921	.056
	Tenure	-1.450E-02	.010	-.100	-1.518	.131
	CSE	.250	.052	.321	4.807	.000
3	(Constant)	3.267	.706		4.626	.000
	Performance	.143	.061	.157	2.353	.020
	Level of Competition	8.458E-02	.062	.090	1.367	.173
	Commission Income	-8.178E-03	.004	-.134	-2.025	.044
	Tenure	-1.532E-02	.010	-.105	-1.607	.110
	CSE	.232	.053	.299	4.361	.000
	IPT	-.136	.093	-.097	-1.460	.146
4	(Constant)	4.816	.895		5.383	.000
	Performance	.156	.060	.171	2.606	.010
	Level of Competition	9.580E-02	.061	.102	1.572	.118
	Commission Income	-8.970E-03	.004	-.147	-2.254	.025
	Tenure	-1.677E-02	.009	-.115	-1.786	.076
	CSE	-.143	.146	-.184	-.977	.330
	IPT	-.662	.212	-.472	-3.118	.002
	IPT x CSE	.129	.047	.565	2.745	.007

a. Dependent Variable: Performance goal orientation

b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .242 (.213)

c. Full Model F Value: 8.514

d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .000
 Model 2 = .000
 Model 3 = .146
 Model 4 = .007

Hypothesis 9. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory activity orientation. (Not Supported).

No support was found for the influence of supervisory activity orientation on a salesperson's implicit personality theory-mastery goal orientation relationship ($\beta = .236$, $p = .255$). The results are reported in Table 24.

Table 24. Hypothesis 9

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.832	.404		11.960	.000
	Performance	.169	.043	.280	3.975	.000
	Level of Competiton	6.495E-02	.043	.105	1.512	.132
	Commission Income	-1.027E-03	.003	-.025	-.367	.714
	Tenure	3.594E-03	.007	.037	.539	.591
2	(Constant)	4.572	.407		11.240	.000
	Performance	.157	.042	.259	3.724	.000
	Level of Competiton	4.125E-02	.043	.067	.960	.338
	Commission Income	7.088E-05	.003	.002	.026	.980
	Tenure	3.306E-03	.007	.034	.505	.614
	CSACT	.102	.036	.201	2.869	.005
3	(Constant)	5.111	.458		11.151	.000
	Performance	.154	.042	.255	3.716	.000
	Level of Competiton	4.459E-02	.042	.072	1.051	.295
	Commission Income	-3.470E-04	.003	-.009	-.126	.899
	Tenure	2.653E-03	.006	.028	.410	.682
	CSACT	8.583E-02	.036	.169	2.398	.017
	IPT	-.154	.063	-.166	-2.438	.016
4	(Constant)	5.442	.542		10.039	.000
	Performance	.161	.042	.267	3.847	.000
	Level of Competiton	4.838E-02	.043	.078	1.138	.257
	Commission Income	-7.514E-04	.003	-.019	-.272	.786
	Tenure	2.394E-03	.006	.025	.370	.712
	CSACT	-2.149E-02	.101	-.042	-.214	.831
	IPT	-.274	.123	-.295	-2.232	.027
	IPT x CSA	3.892E-02	.034	.236	1.142	.255

- a. Dependent Variable: Mastery goal orientation
b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .173 (.142)
c. Full Model F Value: 5.579
d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .000
Model 2 = .005
Model 3 = .016
Model 4 = .255

Hypothesis 10. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory activity orientation. (Supported).

As hypothesized, supervisory activity orientation was found to moderate the relationship between a salesperson's implicit personality theory and performance goal orientation ($\beta = .421$, $p = .031$). These results are consistent with those found by Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998). Table 25 displays the results of the analysis.

Table 25. Hypothesis 10

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	3.767	.610		6.181	.000
	Performance	.169	.064	.185	2.624	.009
	Level of Competition	.126	.065	.134	1.938	.054
	Commission Income	-1.059E-02	.004	-.174	-2.506	.013
	Tenure	-1.737E-02	.010	-.119	-1.725	.086
2	(Constant)	3.011	.576		5.226	.000
	Performance	.132	.060	.144	2.208	.028
	Level of Competition	5.666E-02	.061	.061	.931	.353
	Commission Income	-7.392E-03	.004	-.121	-1.881	.062
	Tenure	-1.821E-02	.009	-.125	-1.962	.051
	CSACT	.297	.050	.387	5.891	.000
3	(Constant)	3.488	.655		5.322	.000
	Performance	.130	.059	.142	2.181	.030
	Level of Competition	5.962E-02	.061	.064	.982	.327
	Commission Income	-7.762E-03	.004	-.127	-1.978	.049
	Tenure	-1.879E-02	.009	-.129	-2.029	.044
	CSACT	.283	.051	.368	5.523	.000
	IPT	-.136	.090	-.097	-1.510	.133
4	(Constant)	4.381	.768		5.702	.000
	Performance	.149	.059	.163	2.500	.013
	Level of Competition	6.984E-02	.060	.075	1.159	.248
	Commission Income	-8.852E-03	.004	-.145	-2.259	.025
	Tenure	-1.948E-02	.009	-.134	-2.124	.035
	CSACT	-6.452E-03	.142	-.008	-.045	.964
	IPT	-.460	.174	-.329	-2.647	.009
	IPT x CSA	.105	.048	.421	2.172	.031

a. Dependent Variable: Performance goal orientation

b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .271 (.244)

c. Full Model F Value: 9.930

d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .000

Model 2 = .000

Model 3 = .133

Model 4 = .031

Hypothesis 11. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory capability control. (Not Supported).

As the results in Table 26 indicate, supervisory capability control was not found to affect a salesperson's implicit personality theory-mastery goal orientation relationship ($\beta = .316$, $p = .177$).

Table 26. Hypothesis 11

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.970	.440		11.285	.000
	Performance	.169	.048	.284	3.562	.000
	Level of Competition	1.720E-02	.047	.029	.364	.716
	Commission Income	3.999E-04	.003	.010	.130	.897
	Tenure	2.451E-03	.007	.029	.363	.717
2	(Constant)	4.957	.449		11.050	.000
	Performance	.169	.048	.282	3.516	.001
	Level of Competition	1.578E-02	.048	.026	.328	.744
	Commission Income	4.035E-04	.003	.010	.130	.897
	Tenure	2.420E-03	.007	.028	.357	.722
	CSCAP	7.867E-03	.046	.014	.171	.865
3	(Constant)	5.669	.504		11.242	.000
	Performance	.164	.047	.275	3.497	.001
	Level of Competition	1.751E-02	.047	.029	.372	.710
	Commission Income	-7.640E-05	.003	-.002	-.025	.980
	Tenure	1.707E-03	.007	.020	.257	.797
	CSCAP	-1.084E-02	.045	-.019	-.239	.812
	IPT	-.204	.071	-.222	-2.853	.005
4	(Constant)	6.046	.575		10.520	.000
	Performance	.173	.047	.290	3.664	.000
	Level of Competition	2.780E-02	.047	.046	.585	.559
	Commission Income	-4.863E-04	.003	-.012	-.160	.873
	Tenure	1.550E-03	.007	.018	.234	.815
	CSCAP	-.169	.125	-.293	-1.350	.179
	IPT	-.362	.137	-.393	-2.648	.009
	IPT X CAP	5.873E-02	.043	.316	1.355	.177

- a. Dependent Variable: Mastery goal orientation
b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .143 (.103)
c. Full Model F Value: 3.516
d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .010
Model 2 = .865
Model 3 = .005
Model 4 = .177

Hypothesis 12. The positive relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory capability orientation. (Marginally Supported).

The results of the moderated regression analysis shown in Table 27 indicate marginal support at the $p < .10$ level of significance ($\beta = .365$, $p = .055$) for supervisory capability orientation acting as a moderator of a salesperson's implicit personality theory-performance goal orientation relationship. Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) hypothesized that supervisory capability orientation was an antecedent to salesperson performance goal orientation. This finding is generally consistent with their hypothesis.

Table 27. Hypothesis 12

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	3.767	.610		6.181	.000
	Performance	.169	.064	.185	2.624	.009
	Level of Competition	.126	.065	.134	1.938	.054
	Commission Income	-1.059E-02	.004	-.174	-2.506	.013
	Tenure	-1.737E-02	.010	-.119	-1.725	.086
2	(Constant)	3.163	.556		5.690	.000
	Performance	.127	.058	.139	2.183	.030
	Level of Competition	4.606E-02	.060	.049	.774	.440
	Commission Income	-9.730E-03	.004	-.160	-2.558	.011
	Tenure	-1.964E-02	.009	-.135	-2.166	.032
	CSCAP	.372	.055	.430	6.746	.000
3	(Constant)	3.686	.626		5.890	.000
	Performance	.124	.058	.136	2.145	.033
	Level of Competition	4.838E-02	.059	.052	.817	.415
	Commission Income	-1.000E-02	.004	-.164	-2.643	.009
	Tenure	-2.027E-02	.009	-.139	-2.246	.026
	CSCAP	.359	.055	.415	6.492	.000
	IPT	-.155	.087	-.111	-1.782	.076
4	(Constant)	4.433	.732		6.055	.000
	Performance	.132	.058	.144	2.284	.024
	Level of Competition	6.174E-02	.059	.066	1.043	.298
	Commission Income	-1.064E-02	.004	-.175	-2.821	.005
	Tenure	-2.025E-02	.009	-.139	-2.260	.025
	CSCAP	8.914E-02	.150	.103	.593	.554
	IPT	-.440	.171	-.314	-2.571	.011
	IPT x CSCAP	9.872E-02	.051	.365	1.929	.055

a. Dependent Variable: Performance goal orientation

b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .304 (.278)

c. Full Model F Value: 11.681

d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .000

Model 2 = .000

Model 3 = .076

Model 4 = .055

Hypothesis 13. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is negatively moderated by a clan culture. (Marginally Supported).

In accordance with the above hypothesis, marginal support at a $p < .10$ level of significance ($\beta = .549$, $p = .089$) was found to indicate a clan organizational culture type may moderate the relationship between a salesperson's implicit personality theory and mastery goal orientation. That is, salespeople who score high on the implicit personality theory scale (entity theorists) tend to be low in mastery goal orientation. This relationship is weakened for those salespeople in a clan type organizational culture. The results are shown in Table 28.

Table 28. Hypothesis 13

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.916	.487		10.087	.000
	Performance	.167	.049	.280	3.440	.001
	Level of Competition	2.162E-02	.050	.036	.431	.667
	Commission Income	3.704E-04	.003	.009	.117	.907
	Tenure	2.476E-03	.007	.029	.364	.716
	OCA	1.973E-03	.006	.028	.331	.741
	OCH	1.253E-04	.006	.002	.022	.983
2	(Constant)	5.425	.553		9.803	.000
	Performance	.150	.049	.251	3.068	.003
	Level of Competition	2.091E-02	.050	.035	.421	.675
	Commission Income	5.868E-04	.003	.015	.186	.852
	Tenure	1.711E-03	.007	.020	.253	.800
	OCA	-2.471E-03	.006	-.035	-.389	.698
	OCH	-4.703E-03	.006	-.067	-.751	.454
3	(Constant)	6.083	.587		10.359	.000
	Performance	.142	.048	.237	2.959	.004
	Level of Competition	2.547E-02	.049	.042	.524	.601
	Commission Income	-1.464E-04	.003	-.004	-.047	.962
	Tenure	1.023E-03	.007	.012	.155	.877
	OCA	-1.009E-03	.006	-.014	-.162	.872
	OCH	-6.416E-03	.006	-.092	-1.045	.298
	OCC	-8.220E-03	.004	-.165	-1.831	.069
	IPT	-.204	.071	-.221	-2.862	.005
4	(Constant)	6.766	.707		9.567	.000
	Performance	.152	.048	.255	3.178	.002
	Level of Competition	1.264E-02	.049	.021	.259	.796
	Commission Income	-3.462E-04	.003	-.009	-.113	.910
	Tenure	2.872E-03	.007	.033	.432	.666
	OCA	4.519E-04	.006	.006	.072	.942
	OCH	-7.295E-03	.006	-.104	-1.192	.235
	OCC	-3.108E-02	.014	-.623	-2.205	.029
	IPT	-.417	.143	-.453	-2.909	.004
	IPT x OCC	6.994E-03	.004	.549	1.710	.089

- a. Dependent Variable: Mastery goal orientation
b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .171 (.120)
c. Full Model F Value: 3.330
d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .037; Model 2 = .061; Model 3 = .005; Model 4 = .089

Hypothesis 14. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is negatively moderated by a clan culture. (Not Supported).

There was no support indicated for a clan culture to moderate a salesperson's implicit personality theory-performance goal orientation relationship ($\beta = -.182$, $p = .579$). The results of the analysis are reported in Table 29.

Table 29. Hypothesis 14

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	3.768	.753		5.005	.000
	Performance	.210	.075	.224	2.795	.006
	Level of Competition	5.899E-02	.077	.062	.762	.448
	Commission Income	-1.035E-02	.005	-.169	-2.111	.036
	Tenure	-1.728E-02	.011	-.128	-1.644	.102
	OCA	-1.970E-04	.009	-.002	-.021	.983
	OCH	7.313E-03	.009	.067	.822	.413
2	(Constant)	3.781	.865		4.370	.000
	Performance	.209	.077	.223	2.733	.007
	Level of Competition	5.897E-02	.078	.062	.759	.449
	Commission Income	-1.035E-02	.005	-.169	-2.101	.037
	Tenure	-1.730E-02	.011	-.128	-1.637	.104
	OCA	-3.118E-04	.010	-.003	-.031	.975
	OCH	7.188E-03	.010	.066	.735	.464
	OCC	-2.238E-04	.007	-.003	-.031	.975
3	(Constant)	4.510	.931		4.845	.000
	Performance	.200	.076	.213	2.632	.009
	Level of Competition	6.402E-02	.077	.068	.832	.407
	Commission Income	-1.116E-02	.005	-.182	-2.281	.024
	Tenure	-1.806E-02	.010	-.134	-1.726	.087
	OCA	1.307E-03	.010	.012	.132	.895
	OCH	5.291E-03	.010	.048	.544	.588
	OCC	2.682E-04	.007	.003	.038	.970
	IPT	-.226	.113	-.156	-1.999	.047
4	(Constant)	4.154	1.131		3.673	.000
	Performance	.194	.077	.207	2.530	.012
	Level of Competition	7.069E-02	.078	.075	.905	.367
	Commission Income	-1.106E-02	.005	-.180	-2.253	.026
	Tenure	-1.902E-02	.011	-.141	-1.789	.076
	OCA	5.470E-04	.010	.005	.055	.956
	OCH	5.749E-03	.010	.052	.587	.558
	OCC	1.215E-02	.023	.155	.539	.591
	IPT	-.115	.229	-.079	-.501	.617
IPT x OCC	-3.637E-03	.007	-.182	-.556	.579	

- a. Dependent Variable: Performance goal orientation
b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .138 (.084)
c. Full Model F Value: 2.575
d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .007; Model 2 = .975; Model 3 = .047; Model 4 = .579

Hypothesis 15. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is negatively moderated by a market culture. (Not Supported).

No support was found for market culture to moderate a salesperson's implicit personality theory-mastery goal orientation relationship ($\beta = -.205$, $p = .438$). The analysis is displayed in Table 30.

Table 30. Hypothesis 15

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.916	.487		10.087	.000
	Performance	.167	.049	.280	3.440	.001
	Level of Competition	2.162E-02	.050	.036	.431	.667
	Commission Income	3.704E-04	.003	.009	.117	.907
	Tenure	2.476E-03	.007	.029	.364	.716
	OCA	1.973E-03	.006	.028	.331	.741
	OCH	1.253E-04	.006	.002	.022	.983
2	(Constant)	4.612	.502		9.195	.000
	Performance	.145	.049	.244	2.968	.003
	Level of Competition	2.415E-02	.050	.040	.487	.627
	Commission Income	6.156E-04	.003	.016	.196	.845
	Tenure	2.629E-03	.007	.031	.391	.696
	OCA	5.580E-03	.006	.078	.912	.363
	OCH	1.229E-03	.006	.018	.215	.830
	OCM	9.467E-03	.004	.177	2.154	.033
3	(Constant)	5.311	.545		9.751	.000
	Performance	.136	.048	.228	2.845	.005
	Level of Competition	2.870E-02	.048	.048	.594	.554
	Commission Income	-1.202E-04	.003	-.003	-.039	.969
	Tenure	1.889E-03	.007	.022	.288	.774
	OCA	6.782E-03	.006	.095	1.134	.259
	OCH	-7.749E-04	.006	-.011	-.138	.890
	OCM	9.338E-03	.004	.175	2.178	.031
	IPT	-.207	.071	-.224	-2.918	.004
4	(Constant)	5.038	.649		7.768	.000
	Performance	.139	.048	.233	2.896	.004
	Level of Competition	2.357E-02	.049	.039	.482	.630
	Commission Income	-1.258E-04	.003	-.003	-.041	.967
	Tenure	3.029E-03	.007	.035	.450	.653
	OCA	6.940E-03	.006	.097	1.158	.249
	OCH	-8.191E-04	.006	-.012	-.146	.884
	OCM	1.853E-02	.013	.346	1.474	.143
	IPT	-.116	.137	-.126	-.847	.398
	IPT x OCM	-3.163E-03	.004	-.205	-.778	.438

- a. Dependent Variable: Mastery goal orientation
b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .166 (.114)
c. Full Model F Value: 3.203
d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .037; Model 2 = .033; Model 3 = .004; Model 4 = .438

Hypothesis 16. The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is positively moderated by a market culture. (Supported).

A market organizational culture type was found to significantly ($\beta = .477$, $p = .041$) moderate a salesperson's implicit personality theory-performance goal orientation relationship. The analysis supports the hypothesis and is exhibited in Table 31.

Table 31. Hypothesis 16

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	3.645	.661		5.516	.000
	Performance	.174	.065	.190	2.659	.009
	Level of Competition	.116	.067	.124	1.728	.086
	Commission Income	-1.003E-02	.004	-.165	-2.346	.020
	Tenure	-1.759E-02	.010	-.121	-1.740	.084
	OCA	1.459E-04	.008	.001	.018	.985
	OCH	6.774E-03	.007	.067	.932	.352
2	(Constant)	3.524	.693		5.083	.000
	Performance	.170	.066	.186	2.583	.011
	Level of Competition	.118	.067	.126	1.753	.081
	Commission Income	-1.004E-02	.004	-.165	-2.343	.020
	Tenure	-1.749E-02	.010	-.120	-1.727	.086
	OCA	1.391E-03	.008	.013	.168	.867
	OCH	7.062E-03	.007	.070	.968	.334
3	(Constant)	4.246	.752		5.650	.000
	Performance	.161	.065	.177	2.479	.014
	Level of Competition	.120	.066	.129	1.814	.071
	Commission Income	-1.051E-02	.004	-.173	-2.479	.014
	Tenure	-1.843E-02	.010	-.127	-1.840	.067
	OCA	2.243E-03	.008	.020	.274	.784
	OCH	5.794E-03	.007	.057	.801	.424
	OCM	3.657E-03	.006	.045	.636	.526
	IPT	-.225	.096	-.160	-2.337	.021
4	(Constant)	5.219	.882		5.915	.000
	Performance	.153	.065	.168	2.374	.019
	Level of Competition	.136	.066	.146	2.059	.041
	Commission Income	-1.035E-02	.004	-.170	-2.463	.015
	Tenure	-2.247E-02	.010	-.154	-2.220	.028
	OCA	1.359E-03	.008	.012	.167	.867
	OCH	5.532E-03	.007	.055	.772	.441
	OCM	-2.823E-02	.017	-.347	-1.710	.089
	IPT	-.550	.185	-.393	-2.980	.003
IPT x OCM	1.094E-02	.005	.477	2.059	.041	

a. Dependent Variable: Performance goal orientation

b. R^2 (Adj. R^2): .155 (.114)

c. Full Model F Value: 3.777

d. Significance of F change: Model 1 = .001; Model 2 = .556; Model 3 = .021; Model 4 = .041

Summary

The results of the statistical analysis completed for this study were reported in this chapter. Included in the analysis were descriptive statistics of respondents and the study variables, factor analytic statistics, reliability statistics, and reports on non-response bias. Additionally, hypotheses were tested using hierarchical and moderated regression analysis and the results reported. In the following chapter, the conclusions and contributions of this study will be discussed along with limitations of the study and implications for future research. A summary of the findings concerning the study's hypotheses is found in Table 32.

Table 33. Summary of Results of Hypothesis Analysis

Hypothesis		Results
H1	Implicit personality theory is negatively associated with a mastery goal orientation.	Supported
H2	Implicit personality theory is positively associated with a performance goal orientation.	Not Supported
H3	Mastery goal orientation is positively related to salesperson adaptive behavior patterns.	Supported
H4a	Performance goal orientation is negatively related to salesperson adaptive behavior patterns.	Not Supported
H4b	The relationship between performance goal orientation and salespeople's adaptive behavior pattern is positively moderated by self-efficacy.	Not Supported
H5	The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by optimism.	Not Supported
H6	The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is negatively moderated by optimism.	Not Supported
H7	The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory end-results orientation.	Not Supported
H8	The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory end-results orientation.	Supported
H9	The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory activity orientation.	Not Supported
H10	The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory activity orientation.	Supported
H11	The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory capability orientation.	Not Supported
H12	The relationship between implicit personality theory and salesperson's performance goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory capability orientation.	Marginally Supported
H13	The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by a clan culture.	Marginally Supported
H14	The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is negatively moderated by a clan culture.	Not Supported
H15	The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is negatively moderated by a market culture.	Not Supported
H16	The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is positively moderated by a market culture.	Supported

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to interpret the results of the study and to discuss the implications of those results. The first section discusses the relevant findings contained in the statistical analysis presented in Chapter IV. The second section provides the contributions of the study to the marketing literature. The third section discusses managerial implications of the study and the fourth section outlines the limitations of the study. Finally, the fifth section discusses areas for future research based on the results of this study.

Interpretation and Discussion of Research Findings

The primary objective of this study was to explore the role of implicit personality theory as it relates to salesperson motivation and behavior. Specifically, the affect of implicit personality theory on the goal orientation of salespeople was examined (H1-2, H5-16). Additionally, the influence of key dispositional and situational factors on the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship was tested. Finally, the relationship between goal orientation and the behavior pattern of salespeople was assessed (H3-4).

Implicit Personality Theory and Goal Orientation

Hypothesis 1: Implicit personality theory is negatively associated with a mastery goal orientation.

Hypothesis 2: Implicit personality theory is positively associated with a performance goal orientation.

The effect of implicit personality theory on both a mastery and a performance goal orientation was tested. The results of the study provided support for a direct, negative relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation as hypothesized (H1). Thus, the results indicate that salespeople with an incremental implicit personality theory (i.e., those who score low on the implicit personality theory scale) are more likely to have a mastery goal orientation than are salespeople with an entity implicit personality theory (i.e., those who score high on the implicit personality theory scale). That is, salespeople who believe that people can change basic characteristics about themselves are likely to adopt a goal orientation that fosters challenge and learning.

It was also hypothesized that implicit personality theory would have a positive influence on salespeople's performance goal orientation (H2). This result was not, however, found. While the relationship between implicit personality theory and performance goal orientation was found to be significant, the influence was negative rather than positive. These results indicate that implicit personality theory has essentially the *same* affect on both mastery and performance goal orientation.

One possible reason for this finding is that the goal orientation scale chosen for this study treats performance goal orientation as a unidimensional construct. Recent empirical findings suggest that performance goal orientation may actually be two independent motivational conceptualizations (Elliot and Harackiewicz 1996). Performance goal-oriented salespeople may desire to *attain* task competence or may simply try to *avoid* incompetence. If the performance goal orientation construct is comprised of two dimensions rather than one, salespeople could hold either a predominant *performance-approach* goal orientation, or a predominant *performance-avoidance* goal orientation, or both. The performance-approach orientation is similar to a mastery goal orientation in that salespeople with this orientation are concerned with normative competence *and* task mastery. On the other hand, performance-avoidance salespeople are more likely to adopt a maladaptive or helpless behavior pattern (Elliot and Harackiewicz 1994; Harackiewicz and Elliot 1993). Thus, the unidimensional approach taken in this study could have clouded the relationship between performance goal orientation and other study constructs.

Implicit Personality Theory, Goal Orientation, and Dispositional Optimism

Hypothesis 5: The negative relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by optimism.

Hypothesis 6: The positive relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is negatively moderated by optimism.

This study proposed that dispositional optimism moderated the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship. Specifically, optimism was hypothesized to positively moderate the implicit personality theory-mastery goal orientation relationship (H5). That is, salespeople with low implicit personality theory scores (incremental theorists) would have a stronger tendency to be mastery goal oriented if they were also highly optimistic. Additionally, it was proposed that optimism would negatively moderate the implicit personality theory-performance goal orientation relationship. That is, salespeople with high implicit personality theory scores (entity theorists) were hypothesized to have a *weaker* relationship with a performance goal orientation if they were optimists (H6). Neither relationship was found to be significant, however.

In examining the correlation table and the regression results for Hypothesis 5 in Chapter IV, it can be seen that optimism was significantly and positively related to mastery goal orientation. Dweck and Leggett (1988) had reported in a qualitative study that elementary students who were mastery goal oriented tended to be more optimistic. The same relationship has been proposed for salespeople (Sujan 1999). As stated in Chapter III, the inclusion of optimism in this study's model was part of an exploratory design to determine optimism's role in salesperson motivation. The result of a significant positive relationship between optimism and a mastery goal orientation in salespeople is encouraging in this regard and supports a need for ongoing research in this area.

It should also be noted that a significant relationship between optimism and a performance goal orientation was not found in the analyses reported in Chapter IV. However, the direction of the relationship was negative suggesting a result that, if found significant in future research, would support the relationship currently proposed in the sales literature.

Implicit Personality Theory, Goal Orientation, and Control Systems

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory end-results orientation.

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory end-results orientation.

Hypothesis 9: The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory activity orientation.

Hypothesis 10: The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory activity orientation.

Hypothesis 11: The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory capability orientation.

Hypothesis 12: The relationship between implicit personality theory and salesperson's performance goal orientation is positively moderated by supervisory capability orientation.

A central focus of this study was to examine the affect of dispositional factors on the goal orientation and behavior patterns of salespeople.

Dispositional factors are believed to affect behavior to the extent that the organizational environment does not inhibit these factors (Barrick and Mount

1993). Thus, it was hypothesized that sales force control systems, operationalized as sales managers' supervisory orientation, influenced the relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theory and their goal orientation.

A supervisory end-results orientation was hypothesized to positively moderate the relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation (H7), and to positively moderate the relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theory and a performance goal orientation (H8). There was not a significant moderating influence of supervisory end-results orientation on the implicit personality theory-mastery goal orientation relationships found in this study. However, a significant interaction was found in the analysis testing Hypothesis 8. Supervisory end-results orientation was found to moderate the implicit personality theory-performance goal orientation relationship. Thus, salespeople with an entity implicit personality theory were found to have a stronger performance goal orientation when their supervisors had an end-results orientation.

It was proposed that supervisors with an activity orientation would positively moderate the negative relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theory and a mastery goal orientation (H9) as well as the relationship between salespeople's implicit personality theory and a performance goal orientation (H10). A significant effect for the interaction of implicit personality theory and supervisory activity orientation on mastery goal-oriented salespeople was not found. However, the direction of the effect was

as hypothesized. A significant effect for this interaction on performance goal-oriented salespeople was found, however. That is, salespeople with an entity implicit personality theory were found to have a stronger performance goal orientation when their sales supervisor had an activity orientation.

Finally, it was proposed that supervisors with a capability orientation would positively moderate the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship for salespeople with a mastery goal orientation (H11) as well as the relationship between implicit personality theory and performance goal orientation (H12). The results did not reflect a significant interaction of supervisory capability orientation and implicit personality theory on mastery goal-oriented salespersons. However, a positive interaction was found for performance goal orientation at a $p < .10$ significance level. Thus, salespeople with an entity implicit personality theory have the potential to be more performance goal oriented if their supervisors have a capability goal orientation.

In summary, the results of this study provide preliminary evidence that supervisory control systems, at least in part, affect the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship of salespeople. Thus, the type of environment sales managers create for their salespeople interacts with the salespeople's dispositional characteristics to influence salesperson goal orientation. The three hypotheses that were not supported were all associated with a mastery goal orientation. One possible explanation for these results is that a majority of respondents with a mastery goal orientation were also independent sales representatives to whom control systems did not apply.

**Implicit Personality Theory, Goal Orientation,
and Organizational Culture**

Hypothesis 13: The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is positively moderated by a clan culture.

Hypothesis 14: The relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is negatively moderated by a clan culture.

Hypothesis 15: The negative relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's mastery goal orientation is negatively moderated by a market culture.

Hypothesis 16: The positive relationship between implicit personality theory and a salesperson's performance goal orientation is positively moderated by a market culture.

It was proposed that certain types of organizational culture – *clan* and *market* – influenced salespeople's implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship. This research was exploratory in nature since the research literature has not previously addressed the relationship of organizational culture on salespeople's goal orientation.

First, it was hypothesized that a clan organizational culture type would positively moderate the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship for salespeople with a mastery goal orientation (H13) and would negatively moderate the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship for salespeople with a performance goal orientation (H14). That is, overall, a clan organizational culture type would interact with a salesperson's implicit personality theory to cause salespeople to be more mastery goal-oriented and less performance goal-oriented. A marginally significant finding (at $p < .10$ significance level) for the interaction affect of a clan organizational culture type

and salespeople's implicit personality theory was found for mastery goal orientation. Although the moderating effect of a clan organizational culture on the salespeople's implicit personality theory-performance goal orientation relationship was not significant, the direction of the relationship was as hypothesized.

It was also hypothesized that a market organizational culture type would negatively moderate the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship for salespeople with a mastery goal orientation (H15) and would positively moderate the implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship for salespeople with a performance goal orientation (H16). As with clan culture, the affect of the implicit personality theory-market culture interaction was in the hypothesized direction in both instances. In the case of performance goal orientation, the interaction variable was also found to be significant. Thus, a market oriented organizational culture in conjunction with an entity implicit personality theory will result in higher levels of performance goal orientation.

In summary, the results for the effect of organizational culture on salespeople's implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship were mixed but nevertheless encouraging. It does appear, however, that the potential for organizational culture to impact salespeople's implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship does exist.

Goal Orientation and Behavior Pattern

Hypothesis 3: Mastery goal orientation is positively related to salesperson adaptive behavior patterns.

Hypothesis 4a: Performance goal orientation is negatively related to salesperson adaptive behavior patterns.

Hypothesis 4b: The relationship between performance goal orientation and salespeople's adaptive behavior pattern is positively moderated by self-efficacy.

Mastery goal orientation was hypothesized to positively influence a salesperson's adaptive behavior pattern (H3). Salespeople with a mastery goal orientation were, in fact, found to attribute *positive* events in their lives to internal, stable, and global attributional dimensions while they ascribed negative events to external, unstable, and specific attributional dimensions. Thus, when faced with negative events, such as a difficult sale, mastery goal oriented salespeople are more likely to persist and improve their strategy until they are successful. These results support past research examining this relationship in fields outside of marketing and sales.

It was hypothesized that salespeople's performance goal orientation would be negatively associated with an adaptive behavior pattern (H4a). No such support was found, however.

It was also hypothesized that self-efficacy positively moderated the relationship between salespeople's performance goal orientation and their behavior pattern (H4b). Specifically, salespeople with a performance goal orientation and high self-efficacy were proposed to have a stronger adaptive behavior pattern. The moderator effect was found to be insignificant, however. The insignificant results of hypothesis 4a and hypothesis 4b may be related to the indeterminate dimensionality of the performance goal orientation scale that was discussed above.

In summary, mastery goal-oriented salespeople attributed positive and negative events in accordance with an adaptive behavior pattern. This result was consistent with previous empirical work done by Dweck and Leggett (1988) and Nichols (1984).

Contributions of the Study

This study has made several significant contributions to the sales literature. First, this study theorized and found a relationship between the dispositional characteristic of implicit personality theory and goal orientation in a salesperson setting. While this relationship has been detected in an educational setting (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Erdley and Dweck 1993) and in an organizational setting (Button, Mathieu, and Zajac 1996), it has not previously been reported in a *sales* setting. This study thus extends the work of previous research and provides evidence that a relationship between dispositions and salesperson motivation exists. This is a distinct contribution to the sales research literature that calls for further empirical investigation.

A second contribution of this study was to establish the affect of sales-setting environmental factors such as control systems and organizational culture on salespeople's implicit personality theory-goal orientation relationship. This study found that the organizational environment in which the salesperson operates does indeed interact with the salesperson's implicit personality theory to influence goal orientation. While Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) found that control systems directly influenced goal orientation, their study failed

to consider the influence of the salesperson's dispositional characteristics. The current study thus supports and extends this research stream.

Additionally, the analysis showed that clan organizational culture types may support salespeople's mastery goal orientation and market organizational culture types support salespeople's performance goal orientation. This contribution is unique and important. The influence of organizational culture on salesperson motivation has not been previously examined. These results have important implications for sales researchers. Both dispositional *and* organizational environment factors appear to interact to determine salesperson goal orientation. This study has shown that studying one of these variables with respect to goal orientation in isolation from the other may misspecify the relationship.

Third, this study supported prior research concerning the relationship between salesperson goal orientation and behavior pattern (Vink and Verbeke 1993; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). The contribution of this study relative to earlier studies is that salesperson behavior pattern was operationalized in the current study using attributional style as opposed to adaptive selling. Attributional style has been used in past sales studies to examine the effects of emotions on salesperson performance (e.g., Wesley and Kim 1994) and to measure the perception of sales managers regarding salesperson performance (e.g., DeCarlo and Leigh 1996). Additionally, the educational psychology literature (Ames and Archer 1988) and the sports psychology literature (Vlachopoulos and Biddle 1997) have used attributional style to operationalize

adaptive behavior. This study thus extends the use of attributional style to serve as a measure of salesperson adaptive behavior. The advantage of attributional style as a measure of adaptive behavior is that the instrument incorporates attributions for past behavior with expectations for future behavior (Weiner 1985) in support of current motivation theory.

Managerial Implications

As stated in Chapter I, goals motivate behavior (e.g., Ames and Archer 1988; Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1997; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Locke 1968). Therefore, sales managers can better understand and influence the motivation of their salespeople if they are aware of what factors impact salespeople's goals. The goals that motivate salespeople are particularly important in light of the fact that salespeople face rejection and failure in personal selling on an everyday basis.

This study confirmed previous research that found that salespeople's goal orientation is related to their behavior pattern. That is, in a sales setting it was found that salespeople with a mastery goal orientation adopted an adaptive behavior pattern. More importantly, this study found that there is a dispositional characteristic – implicit personality theory – that determines, at least in part, salespeople's goal orientation. Thus, through the simple administration of an 8-item questionnaire during the salesperson selection process, sales managers may receive an indication of the potential hire's disposition toward a particular, and desired, goal orientation.

In addition to the findings that dispositions influence salesperson goal orientation, it was also found that organization environmental factors such as sales force supervisory control systems and organizational culture influence the relationship between dispositional factors and goal orientation. These findings provide preliminary insight that can aid sales managers in structuring the proper environment to influence goal orientations among their salespeople. The results support the fact that sales managers can, and should, determine the dispositional characteristics of their sales force and then create the organizational setting that enhances salespersons' motivation. That is, sales managers should "match" the organizational environment to the salesperson's dispositional characteristics.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations of this study may influence the interpretation of results and limit the generalizability of the study. These limitations need to be considered when attempting to apply the findings to other organizational settings.

Sample Frame

The sample frame for this study was 30,000 life insurance professionals who subscribe to *Life Insurance Selling* magazine. From that sample frame, a sample of 2,000 names was randomly selected. Over 50% of the survey respondents reported that they worked for an independent firm. This bias

toward independent agents may limit the generalizability of the study to other life insurance salespeople – in particular, captive agents.

Additionally, the respondents for this study were all engaged in the life insurance industry. The use of a single industry may limit the external validity of the study. Caution should be used when attempting to apply these results to other industries.

Nonresponse

While nonresponse error was addressed in Chapter IV, the relatively low response rate of 12.69% suggests that such error may exist. Significant differences between early and late respondents were found for only one of 11 study variables. Nonetheless, a third wave of questionnaires would provide more support for the conclusion that nonresponse error was not evident.

Self-Reporting of Study Variables

A self-report, mail questionnaire was used to collect the information used in this study. This method of collecting data can lead to sequence-bias (Churchill 1999). That is, respondents have the opportunity to view the entire questionnaire at one time. Their answers to one or more questions may be influenced by other questions. Further, it is not possible for the researcher to explain questions that are ambiguous or unclear. Thus, respondents are responsible for interpretation of any questions they do not fully understand.

While the potential for bias is present in self-reporting survey methods, the self-report method is widely accepted in sales survey research (Behrman

and Perreault 1982). Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar (1994) suggested that the salesperson self-report method was appropriate from both a theoretical and empirical perspective. It has also been noted that when subjects believe that their responses will remain anonymous, they are unlikely to give inflated responses (Behrman and Perreault 1982).

Design of the Study

A limitation of the study design was the cross-sectional nature of the survey. Although widely used in sales and marketing research, cross-sectional research is nevertheless believed to achieve breadth at the expense of depth (Churchill 1999). The objective of such research is to summarize the statistics of a relatively large number of study participants. The result is that the “average” respondent for any one variable may not be representative of any of the individual respondents.

Future Research

The relationships between dispositional and organizational factors and goal orientation found in this study have important implications for further research. Several of these implications are discussed below.

First, the effect of implicit personality theory on goal orientation in a variety of organizational settings needs to be undertaken. The effect of this dispositional characteristic on goal orientation has been found to exist in educational and, now, sales settings. It should be of interest to researchers to determine if the same relationships hold in other business settings.

A second area of future research is to closely examine the construct of performance goal orientation. As previously stated, there is theoretical and empirical support for performance goal orientation to be composed of two dimensions. These two dimensions are *approach* and *avoidance* performance goal orientation (Elliot and Harackiewicz 1996). Thus, the current measure of performance goal orientation may not address the true dimensionality of the construct.

Third, future researchers may want to explore a possible relationship between behavior and performance. In other words, do the behaviors that are determined by dispositions and organization environmental factors translate to improved salesperson performance? The answer to this question awaits future research.

Fourth, the effect of organization environmental factors such as sales force control systems and organizational culture needs to be measured over time. The cross-sectional nature of this study limits the observance of the cumulative influences that such environmental factors may have on salespeople's dispositional tendencies. Additionally, in a longitudinal analysis, ethnographic or other qualitative methods may be employed to better interpret quantitative findings.

A fifth area of future research concerns the affect of optimism on salespeople's goal orientation and implicit personality theory. As previously stated, this study observed a significant positive relationship between optimism and salespeople's mastery goal orientation. Optimism, then, may be an

additional dispositional determinant of salespeople's goal orientation. Future research should examine this possibility.

Finally, this study explored salespeople's implicit personality theory as it related to their choice of goal orientation. Of equal importance is the affect of *sales managers'* implicit personality theory on their perception of salesperson's behavior. Sales managers' beliefs about the ability of salespeople to change their basic qualities may determine, in part, manager's goal orientations and the supervisory control systems they adopt. These beliefs may also affect the approach sales managers take toward failing salespeople.

In summary, this study, exploratory in nature, has introduced several key variables to extant models of salesperson motivation and behavior. These variables are ripe for future research in this important sub-set of sales force management research.

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APPENDIX A
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Professional Salesperson Survey

We are conducting research on what motivates top insurance salespersons. Your input on *your* and *your firm's* sales practices is very important to us. Please take a few minutes to complete this survey.

- Please do not put your name on this questionnaire. All information that you provide will be anonymous.
- Note: there are no right or wrong answers—just your perceptions and ideas about your selling experiences.
- Your participation in this important study is greatly appreciated. We thank you in advance for your input.

Section 1. Please indicate your level of disagreement or agreement with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree		Neither Agree Nor Disagree		Strongly Agree		
1. It is worth spending a lot of time learning new approaches for dealing with customers.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. An important part of being a salesperson is continually improving your sales skills.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. I put in a great deal of effort sometimes in order to learn something new about selling.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. It is important for me to learn from each selling experience I have.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. Learning how to be a better salesperson is of fundamental importance to me.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
6. Making mistakes when selling is just part of the learning process.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. I am always learning something new about my customers.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
8. There really are not a lot of new things to learn about selling.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. Making a tough sale is very satisfying.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. It is very important to me that my manager sees me as a good salesperson.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. I feel very good when I know I have outperformed other salespeople in my company.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. I always try to communicate my achievements to my manager.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
13. I very much want my co-workers to consider me to be good at selling.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
14. I spend a lot of time thinking about how my performance compares with that of other salespeople.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
15. I evaluate myself using my supervisor's criteria.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section 2. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree		Neither Agree Nor Disagree		Strongly Agree		
1. I am good at selling.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. It is difficult for me to put pressure on a customer.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. If something can go wrong for me, it will.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. I know the right thing to do in selling situations.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
6. I'm always optimistic about my future.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. I find it difficult to convince a customer who has a different viewpoint than mine.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
8. I hardly ever expect things to go my way.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. My temperament is not well-suited for selling.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. I rarely count on good things happening to me.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. I am good at finding out what customers want.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
13. It is easy for me to get customers to see my point of view.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section 3. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

A. In answering the following questions, please focus <i>ONLY</i> on SALES VOLUME or SALES QUOTA targets.		Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree				Strongly Agree	
1.	My manager tells me about the <i>level of achievement</i> expected on sales volume or sales quota goals.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
2.	I receive <i>feedback</i> on whether I am meeting expectations on sales volume or sales quota targets.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
3.	My manager <i>monitors my progress</i> on achieving sales volume or sales quota targets.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
4.	My manager ensures I am aware of the extent to which I attain sales volume or sales quota goals.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
B. In answering the following questions, please focus <i>ONLY</i> on SALES ACTIVITIES (e.g., call rate, number of presentations, customers to be contacted, reports to turn in, etc.)		Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree				Strongly Agree	
5.	My manager informs me about the sales activities I am expected to perform.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
6.	My manager <i>monitors my sales activities</i> .	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
7.	My manager <i>informs me</i> on whether I meet his/her expectations on sales activities.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
8.	If my manager feels I need to adjust my sales activities, s/he tells me about it.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
9.	My manager evaluates my sales activities.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
C. In answering the following questions, please focus <i>ONLY</i> on SELLING SKILLS / SELLING ABILITIES (e.g., negotiation, communication, presentation, etc.)		Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree				Strongly Agree	
10.	My manager has standards by which my selling skills are evaluated.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
11.	My supervisor periodically <i>evaluates</i> the selling skills I use to accomplish a task (e.g., how I negotiate).	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
12.	My manager provides <i>guidance</i> on ways to improve selling skills and ability.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
13.	My supervisor evaluates <i>how</i> I make sales presentations and communicate with customers.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
14.	My manager assists by suggesting <i>why</i> using a particular sales approach may be useful.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section 4. Please answer the following questions about your primary company.

		Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree				Strongly Agree	
1.	My fear of performing poorly at my job is often what motivates me.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
2.	I want to do well in my job to show my ability to my family, friends, supervisors, or others.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
3.	My goal in my job is to outperform most of the other salespeople in my firm.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
4.	I'm afraid that if I ask my sales managers a "dumb" question, they might not think I'm very smart.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
5.	I am motivated by the thought of outperforming my peers in my firm.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
6.	I often think to myself, "What if I do badly in my job?"	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
7.	It is important to me to do better than the other salespeople in my firm.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
8.	Please leave this question blank for administrative purposes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
9.	I worry about the possibility of not meeting my sales goals or quotas.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
10.	I am striving to demonstrate my ability relative to other salespeople in my firm.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
11.	It is important to me to do well compared to others in my firm.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
12.	I wish my job was not evaluated according to my sales performance.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
13.	I just want to avoid doing poorly in my job.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section 5. We would like to know how salespersons respond to the following non-selling situations. You may need to put some thought into your answers. Please take the time necessary to accurately reflect your opinions and feelings in the following situations. Thank you.

1. Read each situation and vividly imagine it happening to you.
2. Decide what you believe to be the one major cause of the situation if it happened to you.
3. Write this cause in the blank provided.
4. Answer the three questions about the cause by circling one number per question. Do not circle the words.
5. Go on to the next question.

SITUATIONS

YOU MEET A FRIEND WHO COMPLIMENTS YOU ON YOUR APPEARANCE

1. Write down the one major cause: _____

2. Is the cause of your friend's compliment due to something about you or something about other people or circumstances?	TOTALLY DUE TO OTHER PEOPLE OR CIRCUMSTANCES	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	TOTALLY DUE TO ME
3. In the future, when you are with your friend, will this cause again be present?	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
4. Is the cause something that just affects interacting with friends, or does it also influence other areas of your life?	INFLUENCES JUST THIS PARTICULAR SITUATION	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	INFLUENCES ALL SITUATIONS IN MY LIFE

YOU HAVE BEEN LOOKING FOR A JOB UNSUCCESSFULLY FOR SOME TIME

1. Write down the one major cause: _____

2. Is the cause of your unsuccessful job search due to something about you or something about other people or circumstances?	TOTALLY DUE TO OTHER PEOPLE OR CIRCUMSTANCES	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	TOTALLY DUE TO ME
3. In the future, when looking for a job, will this cause again be present?	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
4. Is the cause something that just influences looking for a job, or does it also influence other areas of your life?	INFLUENCES JUST THIS PARTICULAR SITUATION	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	INFLUENCES ALL SITUATIONS IN MY LIFE

YOU BECOME VERY RICH

1. Write down the one major cause: _____

2. Is the cause of your becoming rich due to something about you or something about other people or circumstances?	TOTALLY DUE TO OTHER PEOPLE OR CIRCUMSTANCES	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	TOTALLY DUE TO ME
3. In the future, will this cause again be present?	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
4. Is the cause something that just affects obtaining money, or does it also influence other areas of your life?	INFLUENCES JUST THIS PARTICULAR SITUATION	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	INFLUENCES ALL SITUATIONS IN MY LIFE

A FRIEND COMES TO YOU WITH A PROBLEM AND YOU DON'T TRY TO HELP HIM/HER

1. Write down the one major cause: _____

2. Is the cause of your not helping your friend due to something about you or something about other people or circumstances?	TOTALLY DUE TO OTHER PEOPLE OR CIRCUMSTANCES	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	TOTALLY DUE TO ME
3. In the future, when a friend comes to you with a problem, will this cause again be present?	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
4. Is the cause something that just affects what happens when a friend comes to you with a problem, or does it also influence other areas of your life?	INFLUENCES JUST THIS PARTICULAR SITUATION	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	INFLUENCES ALL SITUATIONS IN MY LIFE

YOU GIVE AN IMPORTANT TALK IN FRONT OF A GROUP AND THE AUDIENCE REACTS NEGATIVELY

1. Write down the one major cause: _____
2. Is the cause of the audience's negative reaction due to something about you or something about other people or circumstances?

	TOTALLY DUE TO OTHER PEOPLE OR CIRCUMSTANCES	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	TOTALLY DUE TO ME
--	--	---------------	-------------------------
3. In the future, when you give talks, will this cause again be present?

	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
--	--------------------------------	---------------	---------------------------
4. Is the cause something that just influences giving talks, or does it also influence other areas of your life?

	INFLUENCES JUST THIS PARTICULAR SITUATION	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	INFLUENCES ALL SITUATIONS IN MY LIFE
--	---	---------------	--

YOU DO A PROJECT WHICH IS HIGHLY PRAISED

1. Write down the one major cause: _____
2. Is the cause of your being praised due to something about you or something about other people or circumstances?

	TOTALLY DUE TO OTHER PEOPLE OR CIRCUMSTANCES	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	TOTALLY DUE TO ME
--	--	---------------	-------------------------
3. In the future, when you do a project, will this cause again be present?

	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
--	--------------------------------	---------------	---------------------------
4. Is the cause something that just affects doing projects, or does it also influence other areas of your life?

	INFLUENCES JUST THIS PARTICULAR SITUATION	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	INFLUENCES ALL SITUATIONS IN MY LIFE
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YOU MEET A FRIEND WHO ACTS HOSTILELY TOWARDS YOU

1. Write down the one major cause: _____
2. Is the cause of your friend acting hostile due to something about you or something about other people or circumstances?

	TOTALLY DUE TO OTHER PEOPLE OR CIRCUMSTANCES	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	TOTALLY DUE TO ME
--	--	---------------	-------------------------
3. In the future when interacting with friends, will this cause again be present?

	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
--	--------------------------------	---------------	---------------------------
4. Please leave this question blank for administrative purposes.

	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
--	--------------------------------	---------------	---------------------------
5. Is the cause something that just influences interacting with friends, or does it also influence other areas of your life?

	INFLUENCES JUST THIS PARTICULAR SITUATION	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	INFLUENCES ALL SITUATIONS IN MY LIFE
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YOU CAN'T GET ALL THE WORK DONE THAT OTHERS EXPECT OF YOU

1. Write down the one major cause: _____
2. Is the cause of your not getting the work done due to something about you or something about other people or circumstances?

	TOTALLY DUE TO OTHER PEOPLE OR CIRCUMSTANCES	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	TOTALLY DUE TO ME
--	--	---------------	-------------------------
3. In the future when doing work that others expect, will this cause again be present?

	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
--	--------------------------------	---------------	---------------------------
4. Is the cause something that just affects doing work that others expect of you, or does it also influence other areas of your life?

	INFLUENCES JUST THIS PARTICULAR SITUATION	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	INFLUENCES ALL SITUATIONS IN MY LIFE
--	---	---------------	--

YOUR SPOUSE (BOYFRIEND/GIRLFRIEND) HAS BEEN TREATING YOU MORE LOVINGLY

1. Write down the one major cause: _____
2. Is the cause of your spouse (boyfriend/girlfriend) treating you more lovingly due to something about you or something about other people or circumstances?

	TOTALLY DUE TO OTHER PEOPLE OR CIRCUMSTANCES	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	TOTALLY DUE TO ME
--	--	---------------	-------------------------
3. In future interactions with your spouse (boyfriend/girlfriend), will this cause again be present?

	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
--	--------------------------------	---------------	---------------------------
4. Is the cause something that just affects how your spouse (boyfriend/girlfriend) treats you, or does it also influence other areas of your life?

	INFLUENCES JUST THIS PARTICULAR SITUATION	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	INFLUENCES ALL SITUATIONS IN MY LIFE
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YOU APPLY FOR A POSITION THAT YOU WANT VERY BADLY (E.G., IMPORTANT JOB, GRADUATE SCHOOL ADMISSION, ETC.) AND YOU GET IT

1. Write down the one major cause: _____
2. Is the cause of your getting the position due to something about you or something about other people or circumstances?

	TOTALLY DUE TO OTHER PEOPLE OR CIRCUMSTANCES	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	TOTALLY DUE TO ME
--	--	---------------	-------------------------
3. In the future when you apply for a position, will this cause again be present?

	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
--	--------------------------------	---------------	---------------------------
4. Is the cause something that just influences applying for a position, or does it also influence other areas of your life?

	INFLUENCES JUST THIS PARTICULAR SITUATION	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	INFLUENCES ALL SITUATIONS IN MY LIFE
--	---	---------------	--

YOU GO OUT ON A DATE AND IT GOES BADLY

1. Write down the one major cause: _____
2. Is the cause of the date going badly due to something about you or something about other people or circumstances?

	TOTALLY DUE TO OTHER PEOPLE OR CIRCUMSTANCES	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	TOTALLY DUE TO ME
--	--	---------------	-------------------------
3. In the future when you are dating, will this cause again be present?

	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
--	--------------------------------	---------------	---------------------------
4. Is the cause something that just influences dating, or does it also influence other areas of your life?

	INFLUENCES JUST THIS PARTICULAR SITUATION	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	INFLUENCES ALL SITUATIONS IN MY LIFE
--	---	---------------	--

YOU GET A RAISE

1. Write down the one major cause: _____
2. Is the cause of your getting a raise due to something about you or something about other people or circumstances?

	TOTALLY DUE TO OTHER PEOPLE OR CIRCUMSTANCES	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	TOTALLY DUE TO ME
--	--	---------------	-------------------------
3. In the future on your job, will this cause again be present?

	WILL NEVER AGAIN BE PRESENT	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	WILL ALWAYS BE PRESENT
--	--------------------------------	---------------	---------------------------
4. Is the cause something that just affects getting a raise, or does it also influence other areas of your life?

	INFLUENCES JUST THIS PARTICULAR SITUATION	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	INFLUENCES ALL SITUATIONS IN MY LIFE
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Section 6. The following questions relate to what your sales organization is like.

Each of the following six parts contains descriptions of organizations. Please distribute 100 points among the four descriptions in each part depending on how similar the description is to your sales organization.

- Please note: None of the descriptions are any better than any other; they are just *different*.
- Please read *all four* questions in each part first, then divide the 100 points based on what your firm is like.

– Most businesses will be some mixture of those described –

1. KIND OF ORGANIZATION [distribute 100 points]

“My organization is . . .

- ___ points . . . a very *personal* place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.
- ___ points . . . a very *dynamic* and *entrepreneurial* place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.
- ___ points . . . a very *controlled* and *structured* place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.
- + ___ points
100 points . . . *results oriented*. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.

2. LEADERSHIP [please distribute 100 points]

“The leadership in my organization is generally considered to exemplify . . .

- ___ points . . . *mentoring*, *facilitating*, or *nurturing*.
- ___ points . . . *entrepreneurship*, *innovating*, or *risk-taking*.
- ___ points . . . *coordinating*, *organizing*, or *smooth-running efficiency*.
- + ___ points
100 points . . . a no-nonsense, *aggressive*, *results-oriented focus*.

3. WHAT HOLDS THE ORGANIZATION TOGETHER [please distribute 100 points]

“The glue that holds my organization together is . . .

- ___ points . . . *loyalty* and *mutual trust*. Commitment to this firm runs high.
- ___ points . . . commitment to *innovation* and *development*. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.
- ___ points . . . *formal rules* and *policies*. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.
- + ___ points
100 points . . . an emphasis on *achievement* and *goal accomplishment*. *Aggressiveness* and *winning* are common themes.

4. WHAT IS IMPORTANT [distribute 100 points]

“My organization emphasizes . . .

- ___ points . . . *human development*. High trust, openness, and participation persist.
- ___ points . . . *acquiring new resources* and *creating new challenges*. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.
- ___ points . . . *permanence* and *stability*. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important.
- + ___ points
100 points . . . *competitive actions* and *achievement*. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.

5. MANAGEMENT OF EMPLOYEES [dist. 100 pts.]

“The management style in my organization is characterized by . . .

- ___ points . . . *teamwork*, *consensus*, and *participation*.
- ___ points . . . *individual risk-taking*, *innovation*, *freedom*, and *uniqueness*.
- ___ points . . . *security of employment*, *conformity*, *predictability*, and *stability* in relationships.
- + ___ points
100 points . . . *hard-driving competitiveness*, *high demands*, and *achievement*.

6. CRITERIA OF SUCCESS [distribute 100 points]

“My organization defines success on the basis of . . .

- ___ points . . . the development of *human resources*, *teamwork*, *employee commitment*, and *concern for people*.
- ___ points . . . having the most *unique* or *newest products*. It is a product leader and innovator.
- ___ points . . . *efficiency*. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical.
- + ___ points
100 points . . . *winning* in the marketplace and *outpacing the competition*. *Competitive market leadership* is key.

Section 7. The following questions have been designed to investigate different ideas about people. There are no right or wrong answers. We are interested in your ideas.

• Using the scale below, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by checking the number that corresponds to your opinion in the boxes next to each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Mostly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Your ability to sell is something about you that you can't change very much.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. You can learn new things, but you can't really change your basic selling ability.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. You have a certain amount of sales ability and you really can't do much to change it.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. As much as I hate to admit it, you can't teach an old dog new tricks; you can't really change your deepest attributes.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. You can always substantially change the kind of person you are.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
6. Everyone is a certain kind of person, and there is not much that can be done to really change that.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. No matter what kind of person you are, you can always change very much.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
8. Please leave this line blank for administrative purposes.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. All people can change even their most basic qualities.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. Everyone, no matter who they are, can significantly change their basic characteristics.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. The kind of person you are is something very basic about you and it can't be changed very much.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. You can do things differently, but the important parts of who you are can't really be changed.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section 8. Please rate your own level of performance in insurance sales for the last two (2) years

• Evaluate how you compare to other salespeople in your firm in similar selling situations in the following areas.

"I would rate my performance on . . .

	Far Below Average	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average		
1. Sales commissions earned.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. Exceeding sales objectives and targets.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. Generating new-customer sales.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. Generating current-customer sales (additional sales).	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. Product knowledge and understanding.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
6. Assisting your sales supervisor to meet his or her goals.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. Quickly generating sales of new company products.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
8. Number of current-customer contacts (phone, mail, or in-person).	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. Number of prospecting contacts (phone, mail, or in-person).	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. Customer satisfaction.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. Overall, compared to the typical agent in my firm, I rate my performance.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>	6 <input type="checkbox"/>	7 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. How many new insurance sales (i.e., completed applications) have you averaged per month over the last year? _____ sales per month							

Section 9. Please answer the following background questions describing your present situation
• please note that all answers are strictly confidential

1. Which of the following best describes the organization for which you work? [check only one answer]
 Agency/branch/representative office Independent firm Other (specify): _____
2. Please indicate the type of products you *primarily* sell. Check the three (3) products that you sell the most:
 Term Life Whole/Universal Life Property-Casualty Insurance Other (please specify): _____
 Disability Health Insurance Annuities
3. How competitive is the insurance market in which you compete? Is there a lot of competition or a little?

Not Very Competitive	Highly Competitive
1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/> 5 <input type="checkbox"/> 6 <input type="checkbox"/> 7 <input type="checkbox"/>	
4. Please tell us a little about your client base: a. Gender: _____% Male _____% Female
b. Age: _____% in 20's _____% in 30's _____% in 40's _____% in 50's _____% 60 and over
5. Where would your *typical* customer's income fall within the following national income ranges?
 Bottom 25% Lower middle 25% Upper middle 25% Upper 25%
6. Approximately what percentage of your life insurance business is:

New Business – from <u>new</u> customers	_____ %	
Repeat Business – from <u>current</u> customers	+ _____ %	100%
7. How many closing presentations do you conduct per month? _____ closings per month
8. How much training have you had in insurance sales?
A. Pre-Contract Training – training *prior* to selling insurance 1 _____ days
B. Career Training – training in your first two years of insurance sales
(e.g., LUTC, company correspondence courses, etc.)..... 2 _____ days
C. Advanced Training – training in advanced forms of insurance sales
(e.g., CLU, ChFC, CPCU, estate planning, advanced underwriting)..... 3 _____ days
9. Approximately what percentage of your compensation is . . . [the total should add up to 100%]
1 _____ % Commission / Bonus (on personal production)
2 _____ % Fixed Salary
3 _____ % Override / general agent's commission (based on other agents' production)
4 _____ % Other (please describe: _____)
100 %
10. Are any salespeople in your firm required to report their individual production to you? Yes No
11. Are you required to report your individual production and/or your sales activities to anyone else (e.g., to a sales manager)? Yes No
12. How many years of experience do you have . . . selling insurance with your current employer, _____ years
. . . selling insurance (all insurance employers)? 2 _____ years
. . . selling (in sales overall)? 3 _____ years
13. Over the last year, how many hours per week have you worked on average? _____ hours/week
• Of these hours, approximately how many are spent . . . _____ prospecting _____ servicing current clients

Please tell us about yourself (for statistical purposes). All information is strictly confidential.

14. Are you: Male Female ⇔ ⇔ ⇔ 15. Your Age: _____ ⇔ ⇔ ⇔ 16. Married Not Married

17. # of dependents (excluding yourself) you help support financially (e.g., spouse, children): _____ dependents

18. How many years of formal education did you complete (starting with 1st grade)?
 Less than high school College degree
 High school diploma Advanced college degree
 Some college degree (Masters, JD, Ph.D., etc.)

19. Do you currently hold any of the following professional designations? Check all that you hold.
 CLU ChFC CFP CPCU CEBS MSFS MDRT CPA Other: _____

APPENDIX B
COVER LETTER

<name>
<address>
<address>
<address>

Dear Life Insurance Professional:

I am a doctoral student in business and former insurance salesperson conducting a nationwide survey of life insurance professionals like yourself. I would greatly appreciate your assistance.

Our goal is to determine the opinions and insights of you and others like you about the life and health insurance profession along with the practices of the company where you place the majority of your business. Our study hopes to identify how top salespersons *get* motivated and *stay* motivated . . . and how their *organization* can help them accomplish this.

I spent 25 years in the insurance business before going into education and research. I know how valuable your time is, but please take about 20 minutes to complete the enclosed questionnaire. I unfortunately can afford to send out only a limited number of questionnaires. Your response counts – it is *critical* to my study.

To make the process convenient, I have enclosed a postage-paid reply envelope.

Your name appeared in a random sample of life and health insurance agents from firms around the nation. However, please do not put your name on the questionnaire. **Your anonymity is guaranteed.** Neither your questionnaire nor your envelope can be distinguished from others; your responses will be combined and only composite results will be produced.

As a token of my thanks, I would be glad to send you an Executive Summary of the results of this survey. You should find it interesting, informative, and helpful to your practice. Simply enclose your business card with your survey or, to preserve your anonymity, feel free to drop your card in a separate envelope (or just email me at LSS001@LaTech.edu).

I hope that you can take a few minutes from your busy schedule, complete the questionnaire, and return it to me. Your cooperation is *vital* to my study.

If you have any questions about the survey, please feel free to contact me at (318) 257-2526 or my project advisor, Dr. Sean Dwyer, at (318) 257-2887 (dwyer@cab.LaTech.edu).

Thank you in advance for your assistance. It is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Lawrence S. Silver, CPCU, CLU
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX C
FOLLOW-UP LETTER

<name>
<address>
<address>
<address>

Dear Life Insurance Professional:

About two weeks ago, we mailed you a questionnaire on salesperson motivation and sales organizations' motivation practices. We hope that you have been able to mail us your completed questionnaire. If you have, we greatly appreciate your help and thank you for your considerable assistance.

In case the survey has been misplaced, a second copy is enclosed. If you have not returned a completed copy, will you please take a few minutes to give us your response? The information that you can supply is very important to our study. Remember, all of your responses to our survey are *anonymous*.

Again, as a token of my thanks, I would like to send you an Executive Summary of the results of this survey. You should find it interesting, informative, and helpful to your practice. Simply enclose your business card with your survey or, to preserve your anonymity, feel free to drop your card in a separate envelope (or just email me at LSS001@LaTech.edu).

I hope that you can take a few minutes from your busy schedule, complete the questionnaire, and return it to me. Your cooperation is *extremely important* to my study.

If you have any questions about the survey, please feel free to contact me at (318) 257-2526 or my project advisor, Dr. Sean Dwyer, at (318) 257-2887 (dwyer@cab.LaTech.edu).

Thank you in advance for your assistance. It is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Lawrence S. Silver, CPCU, CLU
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX D
**PERMISSION TO USE ATTRIBUTIONAL
STYLE QUESTIONNAIRE**

UNIVERSITY of PENNSYLVANIA

School of Arts and Sciences

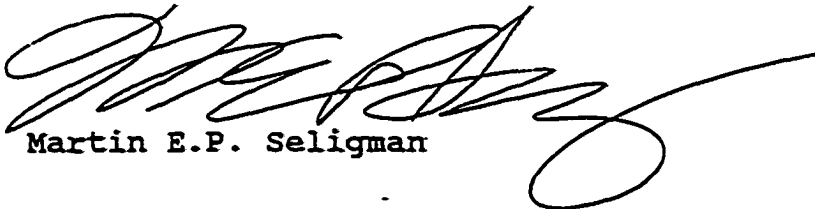
Department of Psychology
3815 Walnut Street
Philadelphia, PA 19104-6196
Martin E.P. Seligman
Professor of Psychology

Telephone: 215-898-7173
Office Fax: 215-573-2188
Home Fax: 610-896-6273
email: seligman@cattell.psych.upenn.edu

PERMISSION TO USE THE ATTRIBUTIONAL STYLE QUESTIONNAIRE

The Attributional Style Questionnaire (ASQ) is copyrighted material and may only be used with the written permission of the author, Dr. Martin E.P. Seligman. This letter grants you permission to use the ASQ, so please keep it on file. The questionnaire may be used only for academic research or by a clinical psychologist for the diagnosis or treatment of patients. It may not be used for profit or for any corporate-related activities.

Sincerely,



Martin E.P. Seligman

c:\wpwin\office\permis.asq

APPENDIX E
GOAL ORIENTATION ITEMS

Items for Goal Orientation Scale

Mastery Goal Orientation Items

1. It is worth spending a lot of time learning new approaches for dealing with customers.
2. An important part of being a salesperson is continually improving your sales skills.
3. I put in a great deal of effort sometimes in order to learn something new about selling.
4. It is important for me to learn from each selling experience I have.
5. Learning how to be a better salesperson is of fundamental importance to me.

Performance Goal Orientation Items

1. It is very important to me that my manager sees me as a good salesperson.
2. I feel very good when I know I have outperformed other salespeople in my company.
3. I always try to communicate my achievements to my manager.
4. I spend a lot of time thinking about how my performance compares with that of other salespeople.
5. I evaluate myself using my supervisor's criteria.

APPENDIX F
SELF-EFFICACY ITEMS

Items for Self-Efficacy Scale

1. I am good at selling.
2. It is difficult for me to put pressure on a customer.
3. I know the right thing to do in selling situations.
4. I find it difficult to convince a customer who has a different viewpoint than mine.
5. My temperament is not well-suited for selling.
6. I am good at find out what customers want.
7. It is easy for me to get customers to see my point of view.

APPENDIX G
OPTIMISM ITEMS

**Items for Optimism
(Life Orientation Test – Revised)**

1. In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.
2. If something can go wrong for me, it will.
3. I'm always optimistic about my future.
4. I hardly ever expect things to go my way.
5. I rarely count on good things happening to me.
6. Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.

APPENDIX H
ITEMS FOR SALES FORCE CONTROL SYSTEMS

Control Systems

Supervisory End-Results Orientation

1. My manager tells me about the level of achievement expected on sales volume or sales quota goals.
2. I receive feedback on whether I am meeting expectations on sales volume or sales quota targets.
3. My manager monitors my progress on achieving sales volume or sales quota targets.
4. My manager ensures I am aware of the extent to which I attain sales volume or sales quotas.

Supervisory Activity Orientation

5. My manager informs me about the sales activities I am expected to perform.
6. My manager monitors my sales activities.
7. My manager informs me on whether I meet his/her expectations on sales activities.
8. If my manager feels I need to adjust my sales activities s/he tells me about it.
9. My manager evaluates my sales activities.

Supervisory Capability Orientation

10. My manager has standards by which my selling skills are evaluated.
11. My supervisor periodically evaluates the selling skills I use to accomplish a task.
12. My manager provides guidance on ways to improve selling skills and ability.
13. My supervisor evaluates how I make sales presentations and communicate with customers.
14. My manager assists by suggesting why using a particular sales approach may be helpful.

APPENDIX I
ATTRIBUTIONAL STYLE QUESTIONNAIRE

Positive Items of the Attributional Style Questionnaire (ASQ)

1. You meet a friend who compliments you on your appearance.
2. You become very rich.
3. You do a project which is highly praised.
4. Your spouse (boyfriend/girlfriend) has been treating you more lovingly.
5. You apply for a position that you want very badly (e.g., important job, graduate school admission, etc.) and you get it.
6. You get a raise.

Negative Items of the Attributional Style Questionnaire (ASQ)

1. You have been looking for a job unsuccessfully for some time.
2. A friend comes to you with a problem and you don't try to help him/her.
3. You give an important talk in front of a group and the audience reacts negatively.
4. You meet a friend who acts hostilely towards you.
5. You can't get all the work done that others expect of you.
6. You go out on a date and it goes badly.

APPENDIX J
IMPLICIT PERSONALITY THEORY ITEMS

Entity Implicit Personality Theory Items

1. Everyone is a certain kind of person, and there is not much that can be done to really change that.
2. As much as I hate to admit it, you can't teach an old dog new tricks; you can't really change your deepest attributes.
3. The kind of person you are is something very basic about you and it can't be changed very much.
4. You can do things differently, but the important parts of who you are can't really be changed.

Incremental Implicit Personality Theory Items

5. You can always substantially change the kind of person you are.
6. No matter what kind of person you are, you can always change very much.
7. All people can change even their most basic qualities.
8. Everyone, no matter who they are, can significantly change their basic characteristics.

APPENDIX K
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ITEMS

Clan Culture Items

My organization is ...

...a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.

The leadership in my organization is generally considered to exemplify...

...mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.

The glue that holds my organization together is...

...loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this firm runs high.

My organization emphasizes...

...human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.

The management style in my organization is characterized by...

...teamwork, consensus, and participation.

My organization defines success on the basis of ...

...the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment and concern for people.

Adhocracy Culture Items

My organization is ...

...a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.

The leadership in my organization is generally considered to exemplify...

...entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk-taking.

The glue that holds my organization together is...

...commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.

My organization emphasizes...

...acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.

The management style in my organization is characterized by...

...individual risk taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.

My organization defines success on the basis of ...

...having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.

Hierarchy Culture Items

My organization is ...

...a very controlled and structured place. Formal procedures generally govern what people do.

The leadership in my organization is generally considered to exemplify...

...coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.

The glue that holds my organization together is...

...formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.

My organization emphasizes...

...permanence and stability. Efficiency, control, and smooth operations are important.

The management style in my organization is characterized by...

...security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.

My organization defines success on the basis of...

...efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low-cost production are critical.

Market Culture Items

My organization is ...

...results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.

The leadership in my organization is generally considered to exemplify...

...a non-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.

The glue that holds my organization together is...

...an emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.

My organization emphasizes...

...competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.

The management style in my organization is characterized by...

...hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.

My organization defines success on the basis of...

...winning in the marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is the key.

APPENDIX L
HUMAN USE COMMITTEE APPROVAL



LOUISIANA TECH
UNIVERSITY

RESEARCH & GRADUATE SCHOOL

MEMORANDUM

TO: ✓ Lawrence Silver
Sean Dwyer
Jeff Walczyk
Timothy Barnett
Joe Pullis

FROM: Deby Hamm, Graduate School

SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE: May 19, 2000

In order to facilitate your project, an **EXPEDITED REVIEW** has been done for your proposed study entitled:

"A social-cognitive approach to salesperson motivation"
Proposal # 1-SR

The proposed study procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Further, the subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary.

Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study.

If you have any questions, please give me a call at 257-2924.

A MEMBER OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA SYSTEM

P.O. BOX 7923 • RUSTON, LA. 71272-0029 • TELEPHONE (318) 257-2924 • FAX (318) 257-4487 • email: research@LaTech.edu
AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY UNIVERSITY

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