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THE SALES MANAGERS' IMPLICIT PERSONALITY THEORY
AND LEADERSHIP VARIABLES

by

Gordon Gunn Mosley, BA, MBA

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

COLLEGE OF ADMINISTRATION AND BUSINESS
LOUISIANA TECH UNIVERSITY

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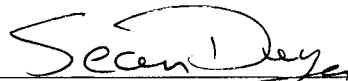
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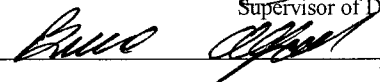
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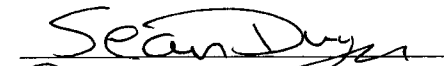


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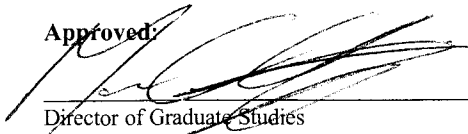




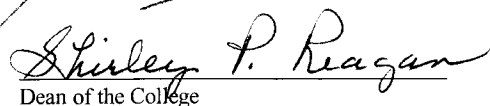


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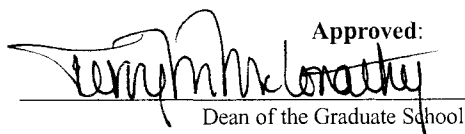


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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship of sales managers' implicit personality theory and various leadership variables provided to salespeople by their sales managers. Several bodies of literature were reviewed for this study from the educational psychology, management, leadership, and marketing/sales disciplines. More specifically, this study addressed the following research questions: (1) What effect does sales managers' implicit personality theory have on the nature of the feedback they provide to their salespeople? (2) What effect does sales managers' implicit personality theory have of the transformational leadership they provide to their salespeople? (3) What effect does sales managers' implicit personality theory have on the supervisory control orientation that sales managers use with their salespeople? (4) What effect do transformational leadership and sales managers' feedback have on the salespeople's perception of organizational justice? (5) What effect do transformational leadership, feedback, and sales managers' supervisory control orientation (as moderated by salesperson self-efficacy) have on the salespeople's satisfaction with the sales manager?

The sampling frame for this study was 1996 randomly selected life insurance agents who sell more than two million dollars in policies per year. The study was conducted by mailing a questionnaire to the respondents in three

sequential waves. This questionnaire was designed to measure the above-mentioned variables as well as demographic and work-related variables for each respondent. The response rate for this study was just over fifteen percent, and regression analysis was used to test the various hypotheses.

The statistical analysis provided evidence supporting the contention that sales managers' implicit personality theory has important, direct effects on the feedback, leadership, and supervisory control orientation associated with sales managers. Further, as hypothesized, both feedback and leadership are related to organizational justice; and organizational justice, leadership, and supervisory control orientation were found to be associated with the salespeople's satisfaction with the sales manager.

The potential contributions of this study to the various academic disciplines of interest and the managerial implications were presented. The concluding section also includes limitations of this study and suggestions for future research.

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Author *Jordan Lynn Moody*
Date *Feb. 3, 2006*

DEDICATION

This dissertation would not have been possible without the continual support of my family, particularly my wife, Connie. They have continually understood when the demands of doctoral work required changes in our plans and their schedules. This dissertation is also dedicated to my mother, who was the original inspiration for pursuing a doctoral degree, and Esther Holznagel who also made it possible.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Antecedents of salesperson performance and other key outcome variables (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to leave) have long been examined in the sales and marketing literature. A meta-analysis of 116 studies conducted between 1918 and 1982 concluded that no single variable predicted more than nine percent of salespeople's performance (Churchill, Ford, Hartley, and Walker 1985). Furthermore, all of the variables considered together were able to predict only about twenty-four percent of salespeople's performance. The relatively small amount of explained variance in salesperson performance suggests that other explanatory variables remain to be identified.

Researchers have investigated the effect that sales managers have on salespeople's performance and other outcome variables (Busch 1980; Challagalla and Shervani 1996; Dubinsky, Yammarino, Jolson, and Spangler 1995; Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Kohli 1989). It is widely recognized that sales managers can affect salesperson satisfaction (Teas and Horrell 1981), role perceptions (Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Sager, Yi, and Futrell 1998), organizational commitment (Sager, Yi and Futrell 1998), and other variables that have been shown, in turn, to affect salespersons' performance.

Indeed, of the six categories of variables studied in the Churchill et al. (1985) meta-analysis—aptitude, skill level, motivation, role perceptions, personal variables, and the organization's environmental variables—four variables can be directly affected by sales managers' performances: skill level, motivation, role perceptions, and organization-environment variables. Thus, sales managers appear to be well positioned to impact salespersons' performance.

In spite of the influence sales managers have with regard to salesperson performance, little research has examined their recruitment, selection, and subsequent training. For example, Anderson, Mehta, and Strong (1997) reported finding only three studies related to the training of sales managers in the past 35 years. These three studies were Adams (1965), Coppett and Staples (1980), and Shepherd and Ridnour (1995). Adams (1965) reported the need for such training, while Coppett and Staples studied the content and process of training sales managers. Shepherd and Ridnour (1995) reported on the content of such training and Anderson, Mehta, and Strong (1997) reported on the delivery methods used. Indeed, Anderson, Mehta, and Strong (1997) found that over half of the sales managers received no sales management training at all. It is therefore important to further examine the skill sets, attitudes, and abilities that sales managers possess as they apply for, and enter, sales management positions. Examining such factors may lead to a greater understanding of how sales managers influence salespersons' performance. As will be discussed, implicit personality theory has the potential to serve as a key variable in the sales manager selection process.

Furthermore, different training may be appropriate for sales managers with different implicit personality theories in order to maximize their managerial performance.

In light of the dearth of research relating to sales managers' selection and subsequent training, this study examines one key variable—sales manager implicit personality theory—and its affect on several relevant variables, including a key antecedent to salesperson performance, satisfaction with the sales manager.

Implicit Personality Theory

Implicit personality theories are people's viewpoints about whether the world around them is a relatively fixed or malleable environment (Dweck and Leggett 1988). People's implicit personality theories can be divided into two types, entity theories and incremental theories. Entity theorists believe that a person's possession of an amount of a characteristic is relatively fixed and would be very difficult or impossible to change. Conversely, incrementalists believe that a person's possession of a characteristic is malleable; that the characteristic is subject to change with a person's effort (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988). Implicit personality theories are domain specific, with the most research being done in the domains of intelligence, social skills, and morality. For example, an entity theorist in the domain of intelligence would believe that a person's level of intelligence is not subject to change, while an incremental theorist would believe that it can be increased.

Those who hold an entity theory tend to adopt performance goals while incremental theorists tend to adopt learning goals (Dweck and Leggett 1988). People with performance goals tend to measure their skill levels, while those with

learning goals challenge themselves to further develop their skills (Ames 1992; Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck 1986; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Weiner 1979). Subsequently, the goals one adopts influence one's choice of task behaviors, strategies in attempting to accomplish the goals, and cognitive and affective responses to both success and failure (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988).

A person's implicit personality theory has also been found to influence one's judgments about *other* people and their behaviors. Entity theorists tend to make stronger inferences than incrementalists about other people's character traits from limited observational information, even in the presence of situational variables that could better explain the observed behaviors. When compared to incremental theorists, entity theorists recommend harsher treatment and less forgiveness of others' inappropriate behaviors (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995). When entity theorists feel themselves wronged, they are also more likely to seek revenge, while incremental theorists are more likely to forgive (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995). The research studies that support these conclusions were largely done with students ranging from fourth grade to university levels (Chiu, Dweck, Tong, and Fu 1997; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995).

In a sales setting, it seems plausible that sales managers' implicit personality theory will affect how they manage their salespeople. For example, sales managers' implicit personality theories are likely to influence the sales managers' goals and attributions, thus affecting their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors toward their subordinate salespeople. An entity theorist sales

manager would tend to believe the adage that 'salespeople are born, not made.' Hence the entity theorist sales manager might believe that additional sales training would be unlikely to help a failing salesperson. Combined with other such common attributional errors (reviewed in Chapter II, Review of Related Literature), any weakness in performance on the sales-person's part would likely be attributed by the entity theorist sales manager to the salesperson, rather than to situational variables. An incremental theorist sales manager, however, would view salesperson failure as an opportunity for the salesperson to learn and improve in order to avoid such failure in the future.

The current study explored the relationship between the sales managers' implicit personality theories and several key organizational and salesperson variables. Figure 1.1 presents the conceptual model tested in this study.

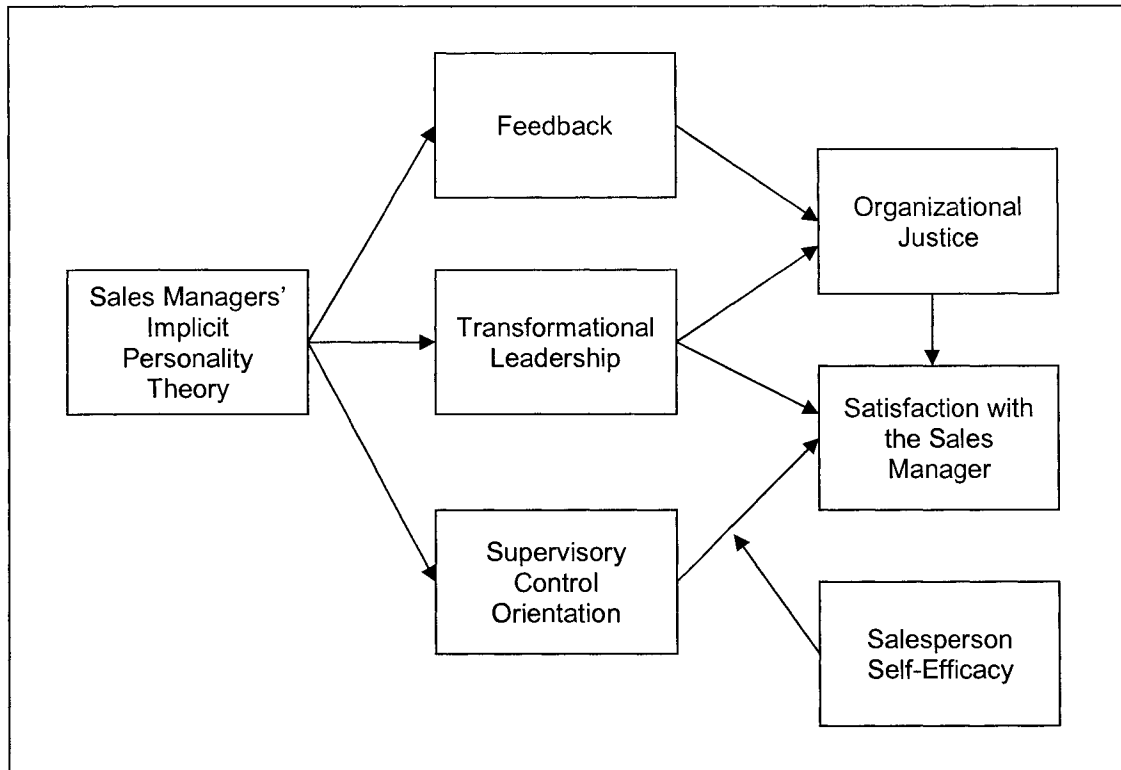


Figure 1.1. The effect of the sales manager's implicit personality theory on selected organizational and salesperson variables

Need for this Research Study

Dweck and Leggett (1988) published the seminal article that propounded implicit personality theory as a prime antecedent of an individual's goal orientation. People with a performance goal orientation are concerned with proving their competence to others, while those with a learning orientation are concerned with increasing their levels of competence (Dweck and Leggett 1988). The importance of goal orientation was introduced to personal selling research by Sujana, Weitz, and Kumar (1994). Since they found that a learning goal orientation was associated with better performance, they recommended that

future research investigate which “managerially controllable factors, other than positive and negative feedback, raise salespeople’s learning orientation (p. 45).”

In an educational setting, an individual’s implicit personality theory has been found to influence his/her goal orientation (Dweck and Leggett 1988). In a sales setting, Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) examined the effects of the supervisor’s control orientation (end-results, activity, and capability) on the achievement motivation orientation (learning and performance) of the salesperson. They also recommend more detailed study of the supervisory behaviors that affect a salesperson’s learning and performance goal orientation. Both Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar (1994) and Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998), then, have recommended further study into antecedents of learning and performance goal orientations. According to Dweck and Leggett (1988), and as previously discussed, an important determinant of these goal orientations is implicit personality theory. Furthermore, with one exception (Silver 2000), this construct has not yet been examined in the sales or marketing literature.

A review of the social science literature reveals that implicit personality theory is associated with a number of variables other than just goal orientation. For example, after observing an individual’s improper behavior, the observer’s implicit personality theory affects the level of revenge, punishment, counseling, and rehabilitation that is recommended (Chiu, Dweck, Tong, and Fu 1997; Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993). These findings have potential implications for the sales manager-salesperson relationship. It is reasonable to assume that entity and incremental theorist sales managers will react differently to the

performance—particularly the underperformance—of their salespeople. Since the sales managers' reactions affect salespeople's subsequent behavior and performance (Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Moss and Martinko 1998), the sales managers' implicit personality theories are a logical, if not compelling, topic for sales researchers to investigate.

Attribution Theory and Implicit Personality Theory

People attribute causation to phenomena based on the distinctiveness, consistency, and consensus of those phenomena when compared with previous experiences or cognitive heuristics (Jones and Davis 1965; Kelley 1967; Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest, and Rosenbaum 1971). Put another way, people use their cognitive schemas to test the consistency of current experiences with previous ones. Further, attribution is generally held to be measurable along three dimensions, namely, locus of causation, stability, and controllability (Badovick 1990; Weiner 1985). The attributions that people make, however, are not always accurate. There are, in fact, a number of recognized attributional errors, some of which are likely to be more common for entity theorists than for incremental theorists (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993).

One attributional error is so common that it is called the Fundamental Attribution Error (FAE). This is the error of attributing the causation of another person's behavior to that person's disposition or character traits rather than to situational influences (Harvey and McGlynn 1982; Jones and Davis 1965; Kelley 1967). Entity theorists are more likely than incrementalists to attribute the

causes of another person's success or failure to that person's possession of a certain, relatively fixed level of the relevant skill (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988).

The entity theorist sales manager, then, should be more likely than an incremental theorist to choose performance goals over learning goals (Dweck and Leggett 1988), to attribute a person's failure to the inherent inability of that person (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993), and to recommend more severe discipline for those with poor performances (Chiu Dweck Tong & Fu 1997; Dweck Hong & Chiu 1993). These choices, attributions, and recommendations could significantly impact all of the salespeople's (not just those who were failing) views of the sales manager in terms of leadership qualities, fairness, trustworthiness, and other managerial and personal qualities. In turn, these choices, attributions, and recommendations could potentially affect the salesperson's effort, performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to leave, among many key outcome variables.

The use of attribution theory in sales research has a long history. It has been used to understand the functioning of the salesperson-performance relationship (DeCarlo, Teas, and McElroy 1997; Johnston and Kim 1994; Simintiras, Cadogan, and Lancaster 1996; Sujan 1986; Teas and McElroy 1986), the salesperson-customer relationship (Porter and Inks 2000), the salesperson-sales manager relationship (DeCarlo and Leigh 1996; Dubinsky, Skinner, and Whittler 1989; McKay, Hair, Johnston, and Sherrell 1991), and other sales

management issues. The current research study employs attribution theory to explain, in part, the cognitive mechanism that links the sales manager's implicit personality theory to those behaviors that affect salesperson outcome variables.

The Sales Manager's Implicit Personality Theory and
the Salesperson's Perception of Managerial
and Organizational Variables

The salesperson's relationship with his/her organization and sales manager is a complex one. Most salespeople have a multifaceted evaluation of their management, rating various aspects of management separately, differently, and distinctly (Brown and Peterson 1993; Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1974). As a representative of management, the sales manager typically has more contact with the salesperson than any other member of the organization. Hence, the sales manager may have more influence on a salesperson's interpretation of the organization than anyone else. To some salespeople, the sales manager may, in fact, be the only direct link to the sales organization. It is in this light that the current study recognizes that a sales manager's implicit personality theory is likely to affect his/her behaviors, cognitions, and affect in the work-place, and more specifically, his/her relationships with, and management of, the salespeople.

This research study examined the relationship between the sales manager's implicit personality theory and key managerial and organizational variables that have commonly been associated with salesperson outcome variables. Five of these variables were measured and tested for association, directly or indirectly, with the sales manager's implicit personality theory. These

five variables are leadership, organizational justice, supervisory control orientation, sales manager feedback to the salesperson, and salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager. The first three of these variables are appropriate for study as they should be directly impacted by the sales managers' implicit personality theory. The primary focus of this study was the impact of the sales managers' implicit personality theory on these three variables. The last two variables, feedback to the salesperson and salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager, should, in turn, be affected by the first three variables. Ultimately, salesperson performance is the key outcome of interest. For the purpose of this study, satisfaction with the sales manager, an antecedent of salesperson performance, was considered the outcome of interest.

Leadership

The potentially differing reactions of entity and incremental theorist sales managers to the poor performances of their salespeople are likely to differentially affect salespersons' judgments regarding the sales managers' leadership. Sales managers' leadership has been found to affect several salesperson variables including performance (Dubinsky et al. 1995; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich 2001) and job satisfaction (Bass 1998; Dubinsky et al. 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter 1990).

If the salespeople were failing to meet their sales quotas (or otherwise displaying a disappointing performance), managerial differences would be likely to manifest themselves based on sales managers' implicit personality theory. More specifically, entity theorists would be more likely than incremental theorists

to attribute the problem to the salesperson's enduring lack of ability and to respond more severely. Incremental theorists would be more likely than entity theorists to respond with an attempt to identify the problem and to provide a solution—typically in the form of training, giving guidance, and mentoring. These differences would in all likelihood lead to differences in the salesperson's evaluation of the sales manager's leadership, and subsequently impact the salesperson's behavior.

A sales manager's leadership can be evaluated by the extent to which it is either transformational or transactional (Bass 1985). Transformational leaders engage in four activities: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass and Avolio 1993).

Transactional leaders point out to their salespeople how they can achieve their personal and professional goals through improved performance (Bass 1985). Sales managers may engage in both types of leadership simultaneously. It seems likely that entity theorist sales managers would provide less of both transformational and transactional leadership than would incremental theorist sales managers since the entity theorist would be less inclined to develop the salesperson's selling skills through leadership.

Organizational Justice

The differing reactions of entity and incremental theorist sales managers to their salespersons' poor performances are also likely to affect the salespersons' judgments regarding organizational justice. Organizational justice has been related to a variety of subordinate outcomes such as job satisfaction,

organizational commitment, evaluation of authority, trust, organizational citizenship behaviors, and performance (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng 2001). Thus, organizational justice is a critical variable since it forms part of the foundation of the sales organization-salesperson relationship.

Organizational justice is composed of four elements: distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational (Colquitt 2001; Colquitt et al. 2001). Studies have shown that although the manager will influence an employee's interpretation of each of these forms of justice, his/her major influence is on interpersonal justice and, to a lesser extent, informational justice (Colquitt et al. 2001).

Entity theorist sales managers believe that a person's selling ability is largely a fixed characteristic—that is, not subject to much improvement. Entity theorist sales managers are thus more likely than incremental theorists to view some types of training for poor-performing salespeople (e.g., selling strategies and sales techniques) as a poor use of time. Salespeople in need of such training, but not receiving it, are likely to find this situation unfair and unjust. Further, entity theorist sales managers would be more likely to focus time and attention on high-performing salespeople. Poor-performing salespeople who receive less managerial attention than they believe they deserve could be expected to view this situation as unjust, as well.

Control System Orientation

A control system is “an organization's set of procedures for monitoring, directing, evaluating, and compensating its employees” (Anderson and Oliver

1987, p. 76). Control systems have been viewed in the past as being either behavior-based or outcome-based (Anderson and Oliver 1987; Cravens, Ingram, LaForge, and Young 1993; Oliver and Anderson 1994, 1995). Behavior-based control systems have been further differentiated into activity-based and capability-based control systems (Challagalla and Shervani 1996; Challagalla, Shervani, and Huber 2000; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). The control system, then, can be focused on the salesperson's outcomes (e.g., number of sales, percentage of quota attained, or commissions earned), activities (e.g., number of calls or sales presentations made), or capabilities (e.g., abilities, skills, competence gained through training).

An outcome-based control system challenges the salesperson to "measure up" to some managerial performance-related standard (e.g., sales quotas) and, hence, should promote a performance goal orientation in the salesperson. A behavior-based control system encourages the salesperson to engage in a set of managerially sanctioned activities (e.g., making a certain number of sales contacts) that are believed to lead to sales success. If these managerially sanctioned activities are viewed by the salespeople as helping to define and structure the methods for achieving better performance, they are likely to encourage a learning goal orientation. If, however, the managerially sanctioned activities that are controlled by the sales manager are viewed by the salesperson as an imposition, the behavior-based control system is likely to lead to a performance goal orientation (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998).

Further, both learning and performance goal orientations have been positively related to performance (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994).

Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) found that outcome-based, activity-based, and capability-based control systems were all positively associated with performance goal orientations, but that only outcome-based and capability-based control systems were positively associated with a learning goal orientation. This further argues for the differentiation of activity and capability based control systems, since the two different behavior-based control systems have different affects on the salesperson's goal orientation.

In spite of the control system designed by an organization, it is likely that the control system will be strongly influenced by the behavior of the sales manager, as it is the sales manager who is normally responsible for implementing the control system. Much like results found in classroom settings between teachers and students (Elliot and Harackiewicz 1994; Elliot and Harackiewicz 1996; Elliott and Dweck 1988; Harackiewicz and Elliot 1993), it is likely that the sales manager's emphasis and personal control system orientation will be more important than the organizational structure of the control system.

Entity theorists are much more likely to adopt performance goals than learning goals (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Performance goals emphasize the outcomes accomplished and ignore the efforts and strategies needed to attain those outcomes. Therefore, entity theorist sales managers are more likely to emphasize outcome-based rather than behavior-based control systems.

Incremental theorists are much more likely to adopt learning goals rather than performance goals (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Those who adopt learning goals consider overcoming difficulties in achieving one's goals as a normal part of the goal attainment process. Hence, incremental theorist sales managers would be more likely to encourage their salespeople to perform the appropriate activities and gain the appropriate capabilities to attain their goals. Incremental theorist sales managers, then, would be expected to emphasize the behavior-based control systems—activity and capability control systems.

Sales Manager Feedback

The sales manager's feedback to the salesperson has been shown to be important to the improvement of the salesperson's behavior and performance (Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Moss and Martinko 1998), effort (Srivastava, Strutton, and Pelton 2001), satisfaction with supervision (Jaworski and Kohli 1991), goal orientation (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994), role clarity (Jaworski and Kohli 1991), and organizational citizenship behaviors (Rich 1999). Feedback can be differentiated based on: (1) whether it is positive or negative (Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Rich 1999; Srivastava, Strutton, and Pelton 2001; Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994), (2) whether its content refers to salesperson behaviors or outcomes (Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Kohli and Jaworski 1994), (3) its frequency (Moss and Martinko 1998), (4) its latency (Moss and Martinko 1998), and (5) its coerciveness or punitiveness (DeCarlo and Leigh 1996).

Both positive and negative feedback have been found to increase the salesperson's learning goal orientation, while negative (but not positive) feedback

increases performance goal orientation (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). Positive feedback has also been associated with performance (Jaworski and Kohli 1991), satisfaction with the supervisor (Jaworski and Kohli 1991), and “helping” organizational citizenship behaviors (Rich 1999). Negative feedback has been associated with increased salesperson efforts, while positive feedback had no such effect (Srivastava, Strutton, and Pelton 2001). Output feedback and behavioral feedback, whether positive or negative, have been associated with output role clarity and behavioral role clarity, respectively (Jaworski and Kohli 1991).

Punitive feedback is one form of negative feedback, while nonpunitive feedback is positive. No studies have linked the punitiveness of the sales manager’s feedback with any salesperson variables. In educational settings, entity theorists have been shown to have different reactions to unexpected, negative information about others. Specifically, entity theorists are more likely than incremental theorists to seek revenge or recommend more punitive reactions. In addition, they are less likely than incremental theorists to provide nonpunitive feedback in the form of forgiveness, counseling, or help for someone with a poor performance (Chiu et al. 1997; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993; Erdley and Dweck 1993). It seems logical and appropriate to expect the relationship between implicit personality theory and the punitiveness of feedback to similarly extend to sales settings. Specifically, entity theorist sales managers would be expected to provide more punitive and less nonpunitive feedback than incremental theorist sales managers.

Satisfaction with the Sales Manager

The salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager is a part of the larger construct of job satisfaction. Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1974) state that salesperson job satisfaction is an affective state related to: (1) the supervisor, (2) the work itself, (3) fellow workers, (4) company policies, (5) pay, (6) opportunities for promotion, and (7) customers. Job satisfaction has been shown to be related to several key subordinate variables such as effort (Brown and Peterson 1994), organizational commitment (Babakus, Cravens, Johnston, and Moncrief 1996; Brown and Peterson 1993), and propensity to leave (Babakus et al. 1996; Brown and Peterson 1993; Lucas, Parasuraman, Davis, and Enis 1987). Satisfaction with the sales manager has also been associated with leadership (Bass 1998), organizational justice (Colquitt et al. 2001), and the control system (Challagalla and Shervani 1996).

Higher levels of both transactional and transformational leadership are associated with higher levels of satisfaction with the manager (Bass 1998; Dubinsky et al. 1995; Pillai, Scandura, and Williams 1999). Satisfaction with the manager has also been associated with organizational justice, with procedural justice being more important to this relationship than distributive justice (Colquitt et al. 2001; Greenberg 1990; Konovsky 2000). Colquitt (2001) and Colquitt et al. (2001) viewed what Greenberg (1990) and Konovsky (2000) call procedural justice as containing three separate types of justice—interpersonal, informational, and procedural. Colquitt et al. (2001) conclude that only interpersonal,

informational, and distributive justices affect the subordinates' evaluations of their supervisors.

The organizational control system has also been found to affect employee satisfaction with the manager, with the behavior-based and capability-based control systems leading to higher satisfaction than the outcome-based control system (Challagalla and Shervani 1996; Challagalla, Shervani, and Huber 2000). Both attribution theory (Jones and Davis 1965; Kelley 1967) and the general theory of individual perceptions of personal causality (Deci and Ryan 1985) predict that such a relationship may exist. Thus, the current study explored the relationships among sales managers' implicit personality theory, transformational leadership, supervisory control orientation, and satisfaction with the sales manager as illustrated in Figure 1.

Research has shown that implicit personality theory affects an individual's choice of goal orientation, behavior, cognitions (including attributional processes), and affect. Thus, behaviors may vary between entity and incremental theorist sales managers. These behavioral differences may, in turn, affect the salesperson's perception of: (1) sales manager leadership, (2) organizational justice, (3) organizational control system, (4) sales manager feedback, and (5) satisfaction with the sales manager. These five variables should subsequently influence several key salesperson outcome variables in addition to salespeople's goal orientation.

Sales Manager and Salesperson Variables in Perspective

Previously mentioned research has shown that a person's goal orientation affects his/her motivation and behaviors, cognitions, and affect after both successes and failures. When free to choose, entity theorists normally choose performance goals, while incremental theorists choose learning goals. Research has shown that the individual's reaction to perceived failure differs between people who have performance goals, and those who have learning goals. In reaction to perceived difficulties or failure, people with performance goals tend to exhibit the learned helplessness response (Seligman 1990), which is a combination of negative cognitions and affect and off-task behavior. Conversely, when reacting to perceived difficulties or failure, people with learning goals tend to persist with on-task behaviors and to believe that their efforts—even in a failed attempt—were worthwhile. It has also been found that an individual's goal orientation can be altered by situational influences. Silver (2000) linked a salesperson's implicit personality theory to his/her goal orientation and subsequent performance, but no research has been done linking the sales manager's implicit personality theory to salesperson variables.

To the extent that the sales manager's implicit personality theory does indeed affect salesperson outcomes, it becomes an important characteristic to investigate. Selling is an important part of the U.S. economy, with many millions of people holding sales jobs. Better understanding of the sales manager-salesperson relationship in this regard may lead to better recruitment, selection and training of sales managers. This could result in a higher level of salesperson

satisfaction as well as more productive sales outcomes. Enhanced sales performance would, in turn, reduce salesperson turnover and increase the productivity of the sales organization.

This Study's Usefulness for Marketing Practitioners

The possibility exists that sales managers with entity implicit personality theories elicit lower performance from their salespeople than sales managers with incremental implicit personality theories. Although the implicit personality theory-to-performance relationship may be a direct one, it is more likely that it is mediated by variables such as leadership, organizational justice, sales training, and control system variables. These variables, in turn, influence salesperson performance.

Knowledge of the sales manager's implicit personality theory thus may provide critical insight for marketing practitioners and researchers alike. For example, knowledge of managerial applicants' implicit personality theories may help predict their managerial success. Furthermore, knowledge of sales managers' implicit personality theories could be useful for diagnosing current managers' problem areas, allowing for remediation and, ultimately, increasing managerial effectiveness.

Although no experimental research has tried to directly manipulate individuals' implicit personality theories, consequences of their implicit personality theories (e.g., goal orientations) have been manipulated. While entity theorists have a strong tendency to have a performance goal orientation and to choose performance goals, it has been surprisingly easy to manipulate subjects to the

acceptance of learning goals (c.f., Elliot and Harackiewicz 1994; Elliot and Harackiewicz 1996; Elliott and Dweck 1988; Harackiewicz and Elliot 1993). Hence, even entity theorist sales managers could be induced to accept learning goals for themselves and to promote learning goals for their salespeople. In a sales setting, such goals have been associated with enhanced salesperson performance (VandeWalle, Brown, Cron, and Slocum 1999). With proper training, sales managers identified as entity theorists may be able to adopt learning goals for themselves and, in turn, be able to help their salespeople create learning goals as well.

An entity implicit personality theory also leads to a predictable and potentially dysfunctional attributional pattern (Seligman 1990). The entity theorist's attributions are likely to be hastier and more prone to error than the incrementalist's attributions (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995). Attributional patterns, however, are learned, and can be modified with instruction. Seligman and his associates have been able to provide training that has successfully diminished the dysfunctional learned helplessness while replacing it with learned optimism (Schulman 1999; Seligman 1990). This training has been done specifically with sales personnel as well as other occupational groups.

When someone is promoted from salesperson to sales manager, it is expected that the new sales manager will positively impact the performance of his/her salespeople. The sales manager's effectiveness will depend in part on the sales manager's leadership, fairness in dealing with the sales staff, administration of the control system, quality of the feedback given, and the

training he or she provides. None of these things can be measured prior to the assumption of the leadership position. Implicit personality theory, however, can be measured on an *a priori* basis. The prospective sales manager's implicit personality theory, then, may be an important variable when making decisions about selecting new sales management personnel.

Plan of Study

The model tested in this study linked many of the variables discussed above as illustrated in the conceptual diagram shown in Figure 1. The linkages among these variables will be further explored in Chapter II, with formal hypotheses presented in Chapter III.

A study linking a sales manager's implicit personality theory with key managerial variables (leadership, organizational justice, feedback to the salesperson, organizational control system, and salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager) was conducted. Results from this study can be helpful to both academicians and marketing practitioners. Chapter II, Review of Related Literature, reviews attribution theory, implicit personality theory, achievement motivation and goals, transformational leadership, organizational justice, salesforce control systems, satisfaction with the sales manager, and feedback. Chapter III, Research Methodology, provides the study's hypotheses and provides information about the sample and the research design. Chapter IV, Results, reports the statistics used to test the hypotheses and their results. Finally, Chapter V, Conclusions, reports the conclusions that can be drawn from

this study, the implications for marketing practitioners, the limitations of the study, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This research study examined the effects of sales managers' implicit personality theories on their behaviors and the subsequent motivation, performance and job satisfaction of the supervised sales staff. Previous studies have linked these salesperson consequence variables with antecedent salesperson characteristics, situational determinants, customer characteristics, and certain organizational and supervisory characteristics. None, however, has attempted to link the sales manager's "worldview," as represented by implicit personality theory, with a series of managerial behaviors and salesperson consequences as the present study sought to do. Specifically, this study looked at the congruence between the sales manager's implicit personality theory and his/her managerial behaviors. These managerial behaviors were then associated with salesperson consequence variables.

This chapter reviews three main bodies of research. The first section summarizes attribution theory, detailing how people make sense of human behavior and the consequences of that behavior. This section will end with an explanation of how this work has been integrated into motivation theory. The second section summarizes implicit personality theory as a worldview that helps

to explain people's goal preferences and reactions to successes and failures. The concepts and terminology of attribution theory are useful in understanding these reactions to success and failure. The third section explores how previous studies have related sales manager's actions to key salesperson outcome variables, such as performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Attribution Theory

The attribution process is the cognitive process of assessing causation for events that one encounters in the environment. Perceivers seek causes for behaviors (and their subsequent consequences) that the perceivers have experienced or observed. Perceivers judge both their own behaviors and their consequences, as well as those of other people. In short, the perceiver seeks to find sufficient reasons to explain why a particular actor has behaved in a particular way, or why an event has occurred (Heider 1958; Jones and Davis 1965; Kelley 1967).

It is valuable to individuals to have an accurate view of what causes events to happen in their environments. Accurate attributions for the events in the environment can lead individuals to make reasonable predictions about the consequences of certain actions, allowing them a better opportunity to control the events surrounding them. The ultimate goals of the attribution process, then, are to aid in an individual's ability to explain, understand, predict, and control certain aspects of one's self and one's relationships to other people (Fletcher, Danilovics, Fernandez, Peterson, and Reeder 1986; Reeder 1985; Weiner 1985; Ybarra and Stephan 1999). Further, this search for causation and the meanings

of behavior appears to be a part of the universal human experience, as it is found in all cultures and across all boundaries of time (Weiner 1985).

Attribution can be used for either one of two fundamentally different explanatory purposes: (1) to discover the root causes of certain consequences, or (2) to determine who is to blame (Kelley 1971; Weiner 1985). When the determination of the root cause is the purpose, the perceiver is searching for the ultimate causes of observed behaviors and their consequences. In this case, the appropriate question to be answered is, "*Why* did this event occur?" Presumably, the perceiver wants to understand the event's causes so that desirable consequences can be repeated and so that undesirable ones can be avoided in the future.

When assessing blame is the purpose of the attribution, however, the perceiver looks at which actor(s) is culpable. The question to be answered here is, "*Who* is responsible for this consequence?" The perceiver is, perhaps, more interested in assigning credit or blame for past behaviors or outcomes than in gaining insights into preventing or repeating behaviors in the future (Hamilton 1980). This assessment of blame may further be used to judge traits of the blamed person such as their level of intelligence, trustworthiness, honesty, or other variables.

This difference in the fundamental purpose of attribution can be demonstrated with an example in a sales setting. The sales manager may wonder who caused his/her company to fail to meet its sales quota for the past quarter. If the company had six salespeople, the immediate blame can be placed

on the two salespeople who fell short of their sales quotas. This would be the answer if one simply wanted to know who was responsible for failing to meet the quota. However, for many purposes this answer is not sufficient. One could produce multiple answers if one wanted to assess blame. For example, a poor economy may have caused drastically lower sales in the territories served by the salespeople who failed to meet their quotas. The economy or the United States government's economic policies, then, might be viewed as ultimately to blame. In addition, competitors in the territories of the under-performing salespeople may have lowered their prices in response to a generally 'soft market.' The company may have declined to match these locally lower prices. Hence, the failure to meet quota might be attributed to competitive actions or the company's pricing policy.

Company sales managers might be interested in knowing whom to blame for failing to make quota. They might select either the under-performing salespeople or the people who made the pricing decision.

If the sales managers were interested in the root causes of not making quota, they might track a cause-and-effect chain of events starting with the United States government's economic policy leading to a soft market. The soft market led competitors to lower their prices and the company choose not to match those prices. Customers, acting in their own best interest, chose to buy more product from competitors than from the focal company.

The human attribution process, then, can be used to answer at least two very different questions. Typically, however, people do not stop to decide which

question they are trying to answer; they simply engage (consciously or unconsciously) in the attribution process and make their causal attributions.

Attribution Mechanisms and Workings

To make sense of the world around them, perceivers make correspondent inferences from an actor's behavior to the underlying traits that an actor is assumed to possess. The observed behavior may be viewed as an artifact of a specific trait that the actor is presumed to possess, or as the result of the situation that the actor found himself/herself in (Jones and Davis 1965). When making correspondent inferences from behavior to traits or situations, the perceiver may have to choose from several plausible causal explanations since the same behaviors may be indicative of several very different traits or situations. Which of the explanations the perceiver chooses to believe will be influenced by the perceiver's analytical abilities and past experiences, prior knowledge of the actor, knowledge of the situation, perception of the actor's intent and role responsibilities, the actor's personal interest in the outcome, and the social desirability of the behavior and its presumed consequences (Jones and Davis 1965). Correspondent inferences will also be affected by the perceiver's implicit personality theory and situational goals (Dweck and Leggett 1988) and the perceiver's level of learned helplessness or optimism (Seligman 1990). The individual's search for causality may consider only a few of the possible salient causes (Bradley 1978).

The attribution process may be done automatically—outside of the perceiver's conscious awareness—or it may be done as a conscious process

where evidence is gathered and judgments are rendered (Metalsky and Abramson 1981). Further, not all observed behaviors trigger the attribution process in a perceiver (Simintiras, Cadogan, and Lancaster 1996). It is presumed that if mundane, uninteresting, or “normal” events occur, attributional activity may be minimal or non-existent. However, unexpected behavior will require causal explanations (Teas and McElroy 1986). Perceivers may store many event schema (scripts of expected behavior) in their memories. Observed behavior (or its consequences) is then compared to these event schema in order to determine if this behavior has been encountered and examined before. Behavior that can be neatly categorized using a common event schema will quickly be judged as “normal” or “ordinary.” This may lead to automatic attribution, or it may dissuade the perceiver from paying further attention to it (Kelley 1967; Metalsky and Abramson 1981). Observed behavior for which no event schema exists, or where behavior and consequences seem incongruous, become prime candidates for the attribution process (Hansen 1985).

Principles Used in the Attribution Process

Kelley (1967) proposed that perceivers were like naïve scientists when engaged in the attribution process. They collect information about the covariation between actions and consequences (Heider 1958). People also collect information about the distinctiveness, consistency, and consensus attached to a given behavior and use the information in a kind of “mental F-ratio” to determine whether the causation resides within the person or in the situation (Kelley 1967).

Distinctiveness is the degree to which the actor responds differently to different stimuli. *Consistency* is the degree to which the actor responds the same to very similar stimuli on different occasions (like test-retest reliability). *Consensus* is the degree to which an actor's behavior is similar to the modal behavior of others (Kelley 1967).

Following is an example to clarify these three types of evidentiary information. Larry has recently failed to meet his quarterly sales quota for product W. Larry's sales manager may want to attribute Larry's failure either to Larry or to Larry's territory and its selling environment. *Distinctiveness* would be concerned with whether Larry normally met his sales quota. *Consistency* information would shed light on whether Larry met his quarterly sales quotas for other products, such as products X, Y, and Z. *Consensus* information would reveal whether many or few other salespeople had also failed to meet their quotas for product W. In cases of insufficient distinctiveness, consensus, and consistency evidence, people may still make strong causal attributions based on principles such as discounting and augmentation (discussed later), or on previous experiences and event schema (Kelley 1967; Metalsky and Abramson 1981).

Evidence Used in the Attribution Process

People make causal attributions after receiving and processing information from the surrounding environment. Causes are often not apparent, but are ambiguous. In cases of ambiguity, perceivers rely on the information they have, including situational information, knowledge of the actor(s) involved,

their general knowledge and beliefs, and their commonly used heuristics. The inclusion of general knowledge, beliefs, and commonly used heuristics allows old information from memories of different situations to be used to process current information about the covariation, distinctiveness, consistency, and consensus encountered in any given situation. Interpreting ambiguous information with the help of past memories or heuristics may allow the introduction of bias in the attribution process. Indeed, perceiver's cognitions go beyond the evidence gathered to allow stereotypes, biases, and prejudices to fill in the blanks as "errors of imagination" (Metalsky and Abramson 1981). Further, once a perceiver has made a trait impression of an actor, it is fairly resistant to change. A perceiver's impression of an actor's traits often stays the same even in the face of subsequent contradictory evidence (Ybarra and Stephan 1999).

In an attempt to simplify the attributional process, perceivers often use common sense attributional principles. They look for covariation between behaviors and consequences. They also use discounting and augmentation principles to correct initial attributional beliefs for the presumed motivations of the actor. Distinctiveness and consensus provide a starting place of what the observer considers the norm when making attributions. Differences from these norms can then be used to assign causation to an actor or to the situational influences. Since perceivers often use minimal processing, attributions are often made with inadequate information (Hansen 1985).

The attribution process is generally similar in terms of dimensions and types of evidence whether the focal actor is one's self or another person. The

tendency to attribute behaviors to the disposition of the actor while discounting the importance of situational factors is, however, different when assessing one's own behavior versus another's behaviors, because of the self-serving bias. The self-serving bias is only present with attributions about the self, although something similar may occur when forming causal attributions about an actor's behavior when that actor is a close friend or has otherwise gained the perceiver's good will (Smith 1984).

The Dimensions of the Attribution Process

Attribution contains three commonly accepted dimensions: (1) locus of causality, (2) stability, and (3) controllability (Badovick 1990; Weiner 1985). Two other dimensions appear in the literature as theoretical possibilities (intent and the degree of specificity), but there is little empirical support for them (Weiner 1985). Peoples' causal attributions may contain decisions in one or more of these areas.

The *locus of causality* dimension concerns whether an actor's behavior is the result of internal characteristics or external, situational pressures. The *stability* dimension addresses whether the temporal permanence of the causative factors leans more toward permanence or is assessed as temporary. When considering the *control* dimension, the perceiver rates the degree to which a behavior's consequences are subject to the actor's control. The *intent* dimension concerns the willfulness of the actor's behavior; that is, the relationship between the observed consequences and the intent of the actor. When attempts have been made to measure it empirically, it has been highly correlated with

controllability. Although it may be *a priori* theoretically distinct, it may not be a separate, measurable dimension. The *generality of causation* dimension (from one specific cause-and-effect to one cause having pervasive effects) is easily describable in the literature, but has not been empirically found in any study (Weiner 1985).

The two dimensions that have been most heavily researched are locus of causality and stability (Badovick 1990). In previous research, attributions to one's own ability are normally categorized as internal and stable, while those to one's own efforts or strategy are considered internal and unstable. Attributions to task difficulty are normally categorized as external and stable, while those to luck are considered external and unstable (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978; Ames and Archer 1988; DeCarlo, Teas, and McElroy 1997; Diener and Dweck 1978; Seligman 1990; Weiner et al. 1971).

Although people make causal attributions on a regular basis, this does not assure that these attributions are correct. Many studies have been done to ascertain the quality of attributions and the patterns of their errors [c.f., Olson and Ross (1985) for a review of the major literature from 1944-1980]. In addition to the sources of attributional error mentioned above, several others deserve consideration as discussed next.

Major Sources of Attribution Error

1. Insufficient correction of earlier decisions – Perceivers often have an initial inferential goal, either to learn about an actor or a situation. The perceiver may make the initial attribution in the direction of the inferential goal—

either to the situation or to the actor's disposition. This attribution will then be "corrected" with information from the other side of the situation/disposition dichotomy. There is some evidence that the correction is usually not sufficiently large to match reality (Lee, Hallahan, and Herzog 1996; Reeder 1985). In other words, the initial goal (to understand the actor or to understand the situation) is likely to bias the remainder of the attribution process. If a perceiver has decided that an actor's behavior was caused by a personality trait, the perceiver's mind works to reinforce that conclusion. Hence, the trait decision may remain unchanged despite subsequent evidence to the contrary (Ybarra and Stephan 1999). There is a primacy effect both in the short run and the long run (Reeder 1985) that appears because of this "anchor and adjustment" dynamic.

2. Stress on negative rather than positive evidence – Negative events seem to have a stronger influence on attribution than positive ones. This may be because positive events are expected, so that negative ones are more noticeable and more demanding of attribution. Further, one negative event can spoil the enjoyment of many more positive events (Kanouse and Hanson 1971). It is also generally believed that "good" people are capable of very good or mediocre behavior, but not of very bad behavior. "Bad" people, however, are viewed as capable of very good, mediocre, or very bad behavior. "Bad" people will perform good behaviors because of social expectations, witnesses to their actions, or to avoid censure and/or punishment. There are no commensurate social rewards for good people who do bad things. Immoral behavior, then, is viewed as stronger trait behavior than moral behavior (Reeder 1985; Reeder, Henderson,

and Sullivan 1982). In short, negative behaviors are viewed as more indicative of character traits (Choi, Nisbett, and Norenzayan 1999).

3. The Fundamental Attribution Error – One error was recognized early in empirical research and was found to be so widespread that it became formally known as the Fundamental Attribution Error (FAE) (Harvey and McGlynn 1982; Harvey, Town, and Yarkin 1981; Jones and Davis 1965; Kelley 1967; Miller and Ross 1975; Quattrone 1982). This error is also referred to as *dispositionalism*. It can be defined as the tendency to attribute behavior to the actor's character traits rather than using alternative explanations such as situational influences (Jones and Davis 1965; Kelley 1967). Past research studies with subjects from the United States show that even with a very small sample of an actor's behavior, subjects are willing to attribute that actor's behavior to personality traits and predict his/her future behavior (Choi, Nisbett, and Norenzayan 1999). Kelley (1967) recognized early that perceivers were subject to attributional errors, in spite of the process being a rough equivalent to the F-test. Reeder (1985) reported that behavior is programmed into a perceiver's brain as an actor's trait, and then adjusted with a situational correction. As previously noted, that correction is often too small, leaving attributional error in the direction of dispositionalism.

Dispositionalism may not be a universal phenomenon, however. Bem and Allen (1974) posited that people's traits were much more stable than previously measured so that the FAE was smaller simply because there was less error. The FAE may be culturally bound, being more pronounced in Western cultures (such

as the United States), but being weak or non-existent in Eastern cultures (Choi, Nesbitt, and Norenzayan 1999). One theory is that more individualistic cultures tend toward dispositionalism and collectivist cultures tend toward situationalism (Lee, Hallahan, and Herzog 1996). Further, even in a highly individualistic culture like the United States, experimental manipulation can produce over-attribution to the situation rather than to the actor's disposition (Quattrone 1982). It has also been found that dispositionalism is lower for attributions regarding the self than it is for those involving other actors (Smith 1984). For the purposes of this study, the conclusions of the vast majority of the empirical research will be accepted; that is, that the FAE is a real phenomenon, but one that should be readily accepted only for Western cultures.

4. The Self-Serving Bias – When evaluating one's own behaviors, people tend to accept responsibility for positive outcomes and to deny responsibility for negative ones. Success is viewed as more internal, while failure is viewed as externally caused (Bradley 1978; Eisen 1979). Further, positive outcomes for perceivers evaluating themselves are more associated with traits (and negative outcomes less so) than with states (Eisen 1979). Although the same evidentiary information is used for causal attributions about self and others—covariation, distinctiveness, consistency, and consensus—there are differences in the conclusions reached. Actors see their own negative behaviors as more distinctive (hence less apt to indicate a personality trait) than outside observers do (Eisen 1979). In some circumstances, the self-serving bias seems to be reversed. This can normally be explained as a result of a social situation

demanding modesty, or of not wanting to claim skills that may lead to a third party imposition in the future (Arkin, Appelman, and Burger 1980).

5. Discounting and Augmentation – Attributions may be adjusted when multiple forces could have caused an event (Hansen 1985; Reeder 1985). Discounting decreases the amount of causation assigned to one possible causal agent, while augmentation increases it. For example, the completion of an important sale may be attributed to the salesperson's efforts and strategy or to the selling company's superior product. Perceivers might *discount* their attributions to the salesperson's efforts and strategy if they knew that the company offered such a product. Conversely, perceivers might *augment* their attributions to the salesperson's efforts and strategy if they knew that the company's product was of mediocre value.

6. Attributional Style – People often have a consistent attributional style. For example, personal failures are usually attributed to external causes, even when contradictory evidence is strong. The negative behavior of others may normally be attributed to their personality traits, even when contradictory situational evidence exists. Over time, patterns of attributing positive and negative events become habitual for a perceiver and are used even in inappropriate situations (Seligman 1990).

7. Learned Optimism and Helplessness – Two attributional styles have particular relevance to personal selling and have been reported often enough to warrant special attention. *Learned helplessness* is a syndrome of responses that are used in the face of certain challenges. If individuals have learned that they

are impotent at changing their situation, they will quit trying, whether their learning is correct or not. The learned helplessness syndrome includes negative cognitions and self-talk, negative affect, a lack of perseverance, and a general withdrawal from the stimulus situation. Helpless subjects' attributions for their failures to change their situations are internal, stable, and global (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978; Seligman 1990). Conversely, some individuals learn to attribute their failures and disappointments to external, temporary, and unique causes. These people have developed *learned optimism*, and are likely to have more cognitive creativity, more persistence, and a more positive affect than those suffering from learned helplessness (Seligman 1990).

Motivation and Attribution Theory

Motivational theories generally fall into one of two schools, the mechanistic (based on drives and habits) or the cognitive (Weiner et al., 1971). The theory that has generally been adopted for use in the personal selling literature, expectancy theory, is a cognitive one (Vroom 1964). Many seminal articles in the personal selling literature have used this theoretical approach (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1979; Cron, Dubinsky, and Michaels 1988; Tyagi 1985; Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1977). The variables used in the motivational cognition process of expectancy theory are assumed to include three components: valence, instrumentality, and expectancy (Vroom 1964). *Valence* refers to the attractiveness of the goal for which the person strives. *Instrumentality* is the direct link between the behaviors to be performed and the

goal to be achieved. *Expectancy* is the probability that a certain amount of effort will achieve the desired goal. In formula form, then

$$M = f(V \times I \times E),$$

Where M = Motivation

V = Valence

I = Instrumentality

E = Expectancy

Expectancy theory uses a model of **stimulus → cognition → response**.

When attribution theory and expectancy theory are integrated, the cognition stage is the attribution process. Between the attribution and the response, however, both an emotional reaction to the attribution and an expectancy for future success or failure are established, as illustrated below in Figure 2.1 (Weiner et al. 1971, Weiner 1985). The attribution, then, results in both anticipatory emotions and an expectancy *before* the responsive behavior. If the stimulus is a previously successful (or unsuccessful) behavior, it can be shown that both the affective and the expectancy response generated through the attribution process can affect the attainment of future goals. This model of attributional motivation has received empirical support in a sales setting (Badovick 1990; Badovick, Hadaway, and Kaminski 1992).

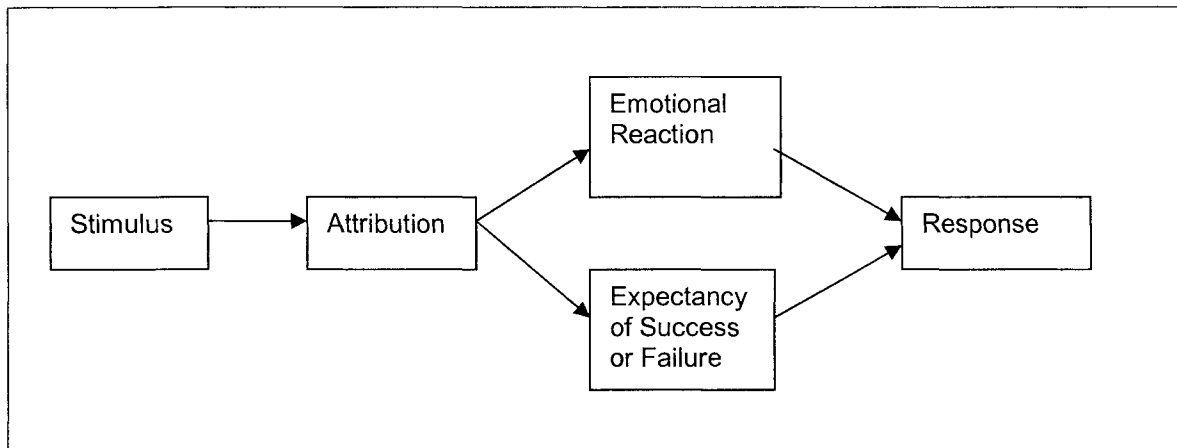


Figure 2.1. Attributional motivation model (Weiner et al. 1971)

Learned Optimism/Helplessness and Degree of Success

Attributions have consequences for future behaviors (Teas and McElroy 1986). Attributing the cause of personal failures to one's own efforts or abilities leads to lowered self-esteem (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978). Low and high self-esteem subjects have similar reactions to success, but differ after failure. Subjects with low self-esteem magnify and over-generalize the negative implications of failure (Brown and Dutton 1995). The individual's reaction to failure is usually negative affect and often depression. Hence, a destructive, circular dynamic is at work for those with low self-esteem. Failure leads to "catastrophizing" the results, negative affect and depression, and even lower performance (and higher chances for failure) in the future (Seligman 1990). Thus, low self-esteem has been found to cause failure, but failure has also been found to cause low self-esteem (Seligman 1990).

Certain attributions are associated with particular affective reactions. Pride and shame are associated with effort expenditure—assumed to be internal,

unstable attributions (Brown and Weiner 1984). Humiliation is linked to lack of ability—assumed to be an internal, stable attribution (Weiner 1985). Other emotions based on the locus of causality are anger, gratitude, guilt, pity, and pride. Other emotions based on stability include hopefulness and hopelessness (Weiner 1985). Hence, differing attribution patterns influence an individual's affective pattern.

Learned helplessness occurs when attributions for failure are generally internal, permanent, and global, while attributions for success are generally external, temporary, and unique (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978; Seligman 1990; Seligman and Schulman 1986). Learned optimism recognizes success as being attributed to internal, repeatable variables, while failure is attributed to external and temporary causes (Seligman 1990). Learned optimism is the self-serving bias “writ large.” Learned helplessness becomes chronic when the attribution for failure is stable (rather than temporary) and general (rather than due to unique, non-recurring circumstances). When desired outcomes are believed improbable, or when adverse outcomes are viewed as likely, and the focal actor believes that no action on his/her part will affect their probability of occurrence, helplessness and/or depression results (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978).

These two specialized attributional styles—learned optimism and helplessness—have been the focus of many studies by Seligman and his associates. The optimistic style has been associated with more persistence on tasks, quicker rebounding from failure, greater success, higher performance

levels, and lower levels of depression than the pessimistic style (Seligman 1990). The pessimistic style suffers on the other extreme of each of these variables. The pessimistic style has but one redeeming quality—it is associated with a more accurate view of situations (Seligman 1990). Seligman (1990) maintains that salespeople, athletic competitors, and politicians—those who must win and must persevere in the face of long odds—are well served by high levels of the optimistic attributional style. Safety officials, financial controllers, and the like, on the other hand, are more effective with lower levels of optimism.

Attribution has been shown to be manipulable (Quattrone 1982) although attributional styles have also been shown to be persistent (Seligman 1990; Ybarra and Stephan 1999). Attributional styles have also been shown to influence persistence at a given task, accepting defeat, performance, and affect (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale 1978; Brown and Dutton 1995; Brown and Weiner 1984; Teas and McElroy 1986; Seligman 1990; Weiner 1985). Although attributional styles have been shown to be persistent, Seligman and his associates have developed methods to teach the learned optimism attributional style so that its performance benefits might be enhanced in competitive positions in various organizations (Seligman 1990).

The Effect of Attribution on Motivation and Selling

After an attempt is made to achieve a goal, the actor will then assess the causes of the outcome. The outcome is viewed as a function of ability, effort, strategic choice, task difficulty, and luck (Weiner et al. 1971). Attributions for success and failure follow the same dimensions cited above—stability, locus, and

controllability (Meyer 1980), but again, most researchers have concentrated on the first two. Personal ability attributions are stable and internal, while personal effort or strategy attributions are unstable and internal. Ability, effort and strategic choice attributions can carry the implication of controllability and intention as well. Other internal attributions may not carry these same implications ("I didn't make the sale because I was sick."). While task difficulty and luck are both external attributions, task difficulty is normally viewed as stable, while luck is not (Kelley 1967; Weiner et al. 1971). Attributions to these different causes have differing consequences for the perceiver (Badovick 1990; Badovick, Hadaway, and Kaminski 1992; DeCarlo, Teas, and McElroy 1997; Teas and McElroy 1986).

There is evidence that attributions affect salespeople's expectancies and motivational levels. Prior experiences with success and failure lead to attributions about those experiences. Those attributions, in turn, affect the expectancy variable of motivation for additional attempts at similar activities (Weiner 1985). Badovick (1990) and Badovick, Hadaway, and Kaminski (1992) found that if salespeople fail to make quota, they are likely to make attributions for this. These attributions lead to emotional responses that, in turn, affect the salespeople's expectancies and motivational levels. This *past performance* → *expectancy* path is moderated by external/stable attributions (DeCarlo, Teas, and McElroy 1997). Low sales performance attributed to stable causes (either internal or external) has a negative effect on expectancies, while

internal/unstable attributions (e.g., effort) have a positive one (Johnston and Kim 1994).

A robust finding of the fundamental attribution error and/or the self-serving bias can be seen at work in the sales manager-salesperson relationship. Sales managers tend to attribute poor performance to the salesperson, while salespeople attribute poor performance to factors beyond their control (Churchill et al. 1985; DeCarlo and Leigh 1996; Ingram and Bellenger 1983; Ingram, Schwepker, and Hutson 1992; Morris, LaForge, and Allen 1994; Swift and Campbell 1995; Teas and McElroy 1986). Further evidence for the self-serving bias among salespeople is provided by Johnston and Kim (1994). They found that salespeople tend to make external attributions for failure and internal/stable ones (e.g., ability) for success. Results of a self-serving attributional style are reported by Seligman (1990) who found that salespeople with higher levels of learned optimism (a self-serving attributional style) were more likely to persist on their tasks and to succeed.

Attributions have also been linked with other aspects of sales performance, as well. More adaptable salespeople have been found to be more attributionally complex (Porter and Inks 2000). Badovick, Hadaway, and Kaminski (1992) differentiated between expectations (beliefs about the probability of outcomes) and expectancies (beliefs about the effort needed to achieve outcomes). Their research found that: (1) attributions to lack of effort or poor strategic choice led to effort intentions, and (2) attributions to competence led to expectations and task specific self-esteem. They further found that

surprising results led to expectations that further led to effort intentions, and that the feeling of doing well (meeting quota) led to decreased effort intentions. Sujan (1986) found that salespeople's attributions about their successes and failures affected their intentions to work "smarter" (learn new skills and strategies) or "harder" (increase effort).

Morris, LaForge, and Allen (1994) found several linkages between attributions and salesperson failure: (1) sales managers view failure as a valuable learning tool if it is attributed externally, (2) sales managers are more tolerant of salesperson failure if they attribute the failure externally, (3) sales managers whose companies have formal policies on salesperson failure are more likely to attribute failure to external causes, and (4) sales managers who attributed failure to the salesperson's internal causes perceived failure costs as higher.

Attributions have been related to salesperson job satisfaction (Simintiras, Cadogan, and Lancaster 1996) and performance (Seligman and Schulman 1986). Seligman and Schulman's study of beginning life insurance agents found that those who were high in learned optimism (attributing success to internal/stable causes and failures to external/unstable ones), had lower employee turnover and higher sales performance. Seligman (1990) states that attributional styles can be learned. Thus, negative salesperson results (measured as performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and propensity to leave) that are caused or compounded by a maladaptive attributional style (learned pessimism) could be corrected with proper training. Attributional training

is also recommended by Schulman (1999) and Sujan (1999a). DeCarlo, Teas, and McElroy (1997) recommend that sales managers try to influence their salespeople to make those attributions which are associated with higher motivation, job satisfaction, and performance.

Goals and Performance

“A goal is what an individual is trying to accomplish; it is the object or aim of an action” (Locke, Shaw, Saari, and Latham 1981; p. 126). Goals are concerned with more than merely finishing a task—but include finishing the task with a specified performance level. Goals also have two major attributes that have been extensively studied, *difficulty* and *intensity*. A goal may be *difficult* because it is complex and requires a high level of skill or knowledge, or because it requires a large amount of effort. *Intensity* refers to the goal-setting process and the determination of how to attain the goal. Intensity includes factors such as the scope of cognitive processing, the amount of effort assumed to be required, the goal’s importance, and the context in which the goal is established. Two other major attributes of goals have not been extensively studied, *complexity* and *goal conflict*. *Complexity* is the degree to which multiple goals contain interrelationships among desired results, while *goal conflict* refers to the extent to which the accomplishment of one goal precludes or increases the difficulty of accomplishing other goals (Locke et al. 1981).

Most importantly, goals influence performance. Although higher goals do not lead to higher success rates, they do lead to higher performance levels. However, goals that are externally imposed and not accepted as legitimate by

the subjects, do not lead to higher performance (Locke 1968). Locke et al. (1981) reviewed 125 studies related to goal setting and task performance. In general, they found that specific, challenging goals led to higher performance than no goals, easy goals, or non-specific “do your best” goals. Many aspects of goals and goal setting have been investigated, as discussed next.

Goal Characteristics that Affect Performance

Research studies linking goal difficulty to performance have yielded mixed results. Difficult goals were linked to higher levels of performance when goals were high and the actor received frequent feedback (rather than no feedback). Time pressure (an aspect of task difficulty) was found to increase performance on difficult tasks, as well. Finally, people whose goals were to earn higher amounts of money performed at higher levels than those whose goals were lower (Locke et al. 1981).

Higher performance has been associated with specific, challenging goals rather than with no goals or “do your best” goals (Locke 1968). This result has been a robust one through many studies. Some studies found that goals affected performance only when frequent feedback was given, or when the subjects had participated in establishing the goals. Moderate goals were not found to increase performance as much as challenging goals did. Specific goals were also found to affect performance more than general goals, which were more open to the subjects’ interpretation (Locke et al. 1981).

With a specific, challenging goal, performance is improved when feedback about the performance level is given during the task. In several reviewed

studies, with no feedback there was no performance difference between those with specific and those with non-specific goals. Further, when subjects had non-specific goals, there was no performance difference found between those who were given feedback and those who were not. Both goals and knowledge of results appear to work together to improve performance (Locke et al. 1981).

Neither education, race, job tenure, age, nor gender has shown a consistent relationship with goal-setting, goal acceptance, or performance levels (Locke et al. 1981). Of the personality variables tested, only ability to perform the task, self-esteem, and task-specific self-esteem have shown a relationship to performance levels (Locke et al. 1981).

Goals, then, motivate the person who holds them to action. Goals that are set by other people may not motivate people if they do not accept the imposed goals. The strongest links between goals and performance levels occur when: (1) the actor has participated in establishing the goals; (2) the goals are accepted by the actor; (3) the goals are specific and detailed; (4) feedback about progress is given while the actor is trying to achieve the goal; and (5) the goals are more (rather than less) difficult to achieve.

Achievement Motivation and Two Types of Goals

Achievement motivation theory posits that goals are the major determinants of action in achievement situations. Different goals have different effects for individuals, including different cognitions, affect, and behaviors (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Achievement goals are those upon which one focuses cognitive, affective, and behavioral effort in an achievement situation to gain

desired ends. Nichols (1984) states that people act rationally to attain their goals, that is, they use an economy of effort in their pursuit of goals. Two different types of goals have been identified in the psychological and educational psychology literature, *performance (or ego involvement) goals* and *learning (or mastery) goals* (Ames 1992; Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Elliot and Harackiewicz 1994; Elliott and Dweck 1988).

Performance Goals

The purpose of performance goals is to provide proof that one can perform at the desired level. The goal-seeker performs as if others are making judgments about his/her competence, and this affects the goal-seeker's self-worth (Ames 1992; Dweck 1986; Dweck and Leggett 1988). With a performance goal, it is important to accomplish the task in a manner that will prove one's competence, or at least not provide proof of one's incompetence (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Evidence of success at performance tasks involves accomplishing goals better or faster than others, or with very little effort (Ames 1992; Dweck and Leggett 1988). Extraordinary effort is seen as an indication of a lack of an adequate skill level (Ames 1992).

People with performance goals avoid the more challenging tasks, since the risk of failure is higher (Dweck 1986; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Elliott and Dweck 1988). Since the purpose of performance goals is to prove one's abilities, failure can be devastating—it proves one's incompetence instead. After failure, people with performance goals judges themselves to be lacking in ability and generally display a negative affect (Ames 1992; Dweck and Leggett 1988).

Conversely, pride and positive affect are displayed after a success achieved with little effort (Ames 1992). People with performance goals tend to adopt simple, superficial, short-term learning strategies (e.g., memorization) rather than more sophisticated strategies (Ames 1992).

Learning Goals

The purpose of learning goals is to develop new skills, thus improving one's sense of competence (Ames 1992). Effort and outcome are seen to covary, with the exertion of effort being necessary to successful outcomes (Ames 1992; Ames and Archer 1988; Weiner 1979).

Learning goals, as opposed to performance goals, have been associated with greater risk-taking; that is, learning goals are associated with a preference for more challenging goals. More challenging goals would involve greater effort and a higher risk of failure. Learning goals have also been associated with positive attitudes toward learning and intrinsic interest in the goal-oriented behaviors (Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988; Elliott and Dweck 1988). When learning goals have been chosen, increased time, effort, and persistence are observed (Elliott and Dweck 1988). Further, alternate, advanced problem-solving strategies are employed by those with learning goals (Diener and Dweck 1978; Elliott and Dweck 1988; Nicholls 1984).

It can be seen, then, that the goals one chooses make a difference in one's performance. Cognitions, affect, and behaviors all may vary based on the type of goal chosen. Much of the research completed in this area has been done in classroom settings by educational researchers. To promote maximal learning,

students should be encouraged to adopt learning goals. If these same phenomena exist in personal selling, it would seem preferable for salespeople to adopt learning goals as well. This would tend to encourage effort, improvement of skills, commitment of time, persistence, effective problem-solving, and the pursuit of challenging assignments—all attributes that sales managers should encourage and appreciate. What causes one person to select learning goals while another chooses performance goals? Research by Dweck and her associates suggests that an individual's implicit personality theory causes one to choose one type of goal over the other.

Implicit Personality Theory

People hold latent theories about themselves, other people, and their various personality characteristics. These theories are largely implicit, poorly articulated beliefs, but they nevertheless guide the way in which people process and understand information gained about people, including themselves. These latent theories are domain specific, such that the same person may hold different theories about different characteristics of human beings' personalities (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995).

Those who hold an *entity theory* believe that the amount of a given attribute that one possesses is a relatively fixed, stable quantity, while those subscribing to the *incremental theory* believe that an individual's possession of that certain characteristic is capable of being modified over time (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988). Faced with the same situations,

different people will experience different cognitions, affect, and behaviors based on which of two different implicit theories they hold.

Early work in this field (pre-1970) focused on those personality traits that respondents believed were highly correlated with each other (Schneider 1973). Implicit intelligence theory originally grew out of educational research into the learning motivations of children and their reactions to educational setbacks. This led to research into children's understandings of, and reactions to, differing educational goals. These differing understandings and reactions were then associated with the children's underlying implicit theories of intelligence. Entity and incremental theorists exhibited different reactions to their perceived educational failures (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Implicit theories have subsequently been studied with respect to intelligence, social skills, and morality (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988). Research into implicit personality theory originally followed two basic tracks: (1) the implicit theory's effect in the general biasing of the judgment of others, and (2) the extent of individual differences in perceiving others.

Implicit Theory and Challenging Goals

Entity and incremental theorists differ in their reactions to challenges. When entity theorists are faced with challenges that may test their ability in a given domain, they tend to adopt performance goals and attempt to *prove* their attainment of high performance levels. This is done by accomplishing tasks in a superior fashion with minimal effort. In the same situations, the incremental theorists' mindset leads them to adopt learning goals and try to *improve* their

abilities, shown by persevering in the face of setbacks (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Hence, entity and incremental theorists tend to adopt different goals.

Not all goals, however, are equal. With *performance* goals, one seeks to establish the adequacy of one's possession of a certain characteristic. With *learning* or *mastery* goals, one seeks to improve one's mastery by obtaining new skills. The purpose of many challenging tasks is to measure the attainment or possession of certain levels of a focal characteristic (e.g., college entrance tests to measure intellectual abilities or achievements), thus setting up performance goals. Other challenging tasks, however, seek to motivate participants to higher levels of attainment (e.g., problem solving to create several alternative solutions to a given problem), thus setting up learning goals.

Entity and incremental theorists react differently to their strategic successes and failures within these challenging tasks. Given the same tasks with ambiguous goal structures, entity theorists are more likely to establish performance goals while incrementalists establish learning goals. When given the choice of goals, entity theorists tend to choose easy or moderate ones that will allow them to *prove* their ability, while incrementalists tend to choose more challenging ones allowing them to *improve* their abilities (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988). Entity theorist students who perceive themselves as having a low level of the requisite ability are particularly prone to choosing easy goals (Elliot and Harackiewicz 1996; Elliott and Dweck 1988). Occasionally, entity theorists will adopt learning goals and incrementalists will adopt performance ones, as their perceptions of the given situation seems to

demand. “Thus adaptive individuals effectively coordinate performance and learning goals. It is when an over-concern with proving their adequacy (to themselves or others) leads individuals to ignore, avoid, or abandon potentially valuable learning opportunities that problems arise” (Dweck and Leggett 1988, p. 260). In other words, both learning and performance goals may be appropriate for the same individual in different circumstances, but entity theorists will tend to overuse performance goals, while the more adaptive incremental theorist will not.

When entity theorists and incrementalists achieve success, the reaction is similar whether the goal was a learning or a performance one. Their cognitions involve congratulating themselves, their affect includes pride and self-satisfaction, and their behavior is non-stressed (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Entity and incremental theorists, however, handle failure quite differently, as discussed next.

Implicit Theory, Failure, and Cognitions

Entity and incremental theorists have different cognitions when they experience difficulty in accomplishing tasks, at least as expressed in their self-talk. Several experiments have been performed that encouraged the subjects to verbalize what they were thinking while attempting the experimental task. When faced with frustration or failure, entity theorists were more likely to negatively internalize their problem (e.g., “I’m so stupid I’ll never get this”). Thus, their attributions for failure tended to be internal and stable. Entity theorists also tended to have more thoughts that were irrelevant to the problem-solving process (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988).

In contrast, incremental theorists were more likely to attribute the difficulty externally—to the situation rather than to themselves. They tended to persist on-task and not get sidetracked with irrelevant self-talk (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988).

Implicit Theory, Failure, and Affect

Entity and incremental theorists have also been found to have different affective reactions to frustration or failure with challenging tasks. Entity theorists who experience failure, or who accomplish success only after much effort, interpret this as an indication of a low level of ability. This threatens their self-esteem and leads to negative affect, anxiety, shame, and/or humiliation. Alternatively, to protect the self, the entity theorist may attempt to devalue the task or express boredom or disdain for it (Dweck and Leggett 1988).

In contrast, incremental theorists view frustrations or failures while accomplishing a task as mere obstacles or challenges to be overcome. Effort brings intrinsic rewards, and eventual success, even after much effort, is a source of pride. Eventual failure after a valiant effort is likely to lead to feelings of self-justification. The extensive effort that an entity theorist would perceive as indicating a lack of ability, the incrementalist instead views as an artifact of mastery. Indeed, incrementalists expressed boredom if a task were too easy or could be accomplished with too little effort (Dweck and Leggett 1988).

Implicit Theory, Failure, and Behavior

For entity and incremental theorists, failure also leads to different behaviors. While working on tasks, when intermediate frustrations or failures are encountered, entity theorists tend to produce more irrelevant thoughts and regress to less advanced problem-solving strategies. In the same circumstances, incremental theorists tend to stay on task with relevant thoughts and to maintain—or even improve—problem-solving strategies. Further, when faced with failure, entity theorists tend to quit, while incrementalists tend to persevere (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck and Leggett 1988).

Entity and incremental theorists may define failure differently. When difficulties occur in the problem-solving process, entity theorists tend to view these difficulties as failures, while incremental theorists tend to view these same difficulties as challenges to be mastered (Diener and Dweck 1978).

Mastery-Oriented and Helpless Responses

The mastery-oriented response to difficulty—typical for people with learning goals—is characterized by on-task, problem-solving cognitions, and the positive affect of involvement with, and enjoyment of, the exercise. Further, when faced with a challenge, new strategies are developed when trying to solve the perceived problem.

On the other hand, the helpless response—typical for people with performance goals—is characterized by cognitions that wander from the assigned task. One's affect becomes anxious and worried. Behavior reverts to strategies

that have not worked, and the helpless individual does little or nothing to develop other, potentially winning strategies. Besides being negative, the individual's self-talk "catastrophizes" this difficulty into a much larger problem.

These two response patterns—mastery-oriented and helplessness—have been well documented in the classroom setting. Preliminary results suggest that these response patterns also generalize to other situations. That is, these patterns extend at least to several other domains, including sports, life insurance sales, and political contests (Seligman 1990).

Why do these two different response patterns occur? As previously discussed, one explanation comes from implicit theory. A stream of empirical work conducted by Dweck and her research associates has found that those who hold an *entity* theory of intelligence choose performance goals for themselves. Those holding an *incremental* theory of intelligence choose learning goals. When put to the test, learning goal oriented people try to improve their level of skills. Those with performance goals try to prove their skills by performing with excellence and with ease; indeed, even their completion of a task would be viewed as a failure if it were accomplished at too high an effort level. Those with learning goals tend to face difficulties, setbacks, and failures with the mastery-oriented responses, while those with performance goals face these same situations with helpless responses. Thus, implicit personality theory's influence on goals appears to have potentially strong implications in a sales setting.

Organizational Justice Theory

Equity theory can be classified as one of the social exchange theories of human behavior. These are based on two primary assumptions: (1) individuals evaluate their social relationships and economic transactions similarly, and (2) individuals compare themselves to others in evaluating the social exchange. In social interactions, people behave similarly to the classic “economic man.” They are motivated to maximize outcomes while minimizing inputs (Vroom 1964). The major difference between the economic and social models is that social ones are ambiguous and have limited information available, while economic ones are assumed to be more straightforward and to exist in an environment of “perfect information” (Mowday 1983). Blau (1964) also contrasted economic and social exchange relationships, stressing that economic ones have a *quid pro quo*, while social ones are more ambiguous, as favors are exchanged for unspecified future considerations.

“Equity theory (Adams 1963; Adams 1965) draws from exchange, dissonance, and social comparison theories in making predictions about how individuals manage their relationships with others. Four propositions capture the objectives of the theory:

1. Individuals evaluate their relationships with others by assessing the ratio of their outcomes from, and inputs to, the relationship against the outcome/input ratio of some comparison other.
2. If the outcome/input ratios of the individual and the comparison other are perceived to be unequal, then inequity exists.

3. The greater the inequity the individual perceived (in the form of either overreward or underreward), the more distress the individual feels.
4. The greater the distress an individual feels, the harder he or she will work to restore equity and, thus, reduce the distress” (Huseman, Hatfield, and Miles 1987, p. 222).

There are several methods that individuals can use to reduce tension when they perceive an inequality. They may restore equity by: (1) altering inputs, (2) altering outcomes, (3) cognitively distorting inputs and outcomes, (4) leaving the field, (5) trying to change inputs/outcomes of the referent other, or (6) changing the comparison other (Mowday 1983).

Individual differences exist, however, in what people believe to be fair and equitable in different situations. Huseman, Hatfield, and Miles (1987) suggest that there are also individual differences in the degree of equity sought. They identify three classes of people: (1) *benevolents*—who wish to put in more than they receive in outcomes, (2) *equity sensitives*—who wish to have balanced inputs and outcomes, and (3) *entitleds*—who wish to get more outcomes than their inputs justify. More specifically, with benevolents, it is not so much that they wish to get less than comparison others, it is more that they are willing to tolerate getting less without becoming irritated.

Leventhal (1976) further suggested three different distribution rules, all of which might be considered equitable under certain circumstances: (1) under the *contribution (or equity) rule*, people receive outcomes in proportion to their inputs; (2) with the *needs rule*, people receive outcomes in proportion to their legitimate

needs; and (3) according to the *equality rule*, people receive equal outcomes regardless of their inputs. People also can differ on when each of these distribution rules is appropriate. However, some general guidelines are:

1. Use the contribution rule when the goal is to maximize group productivity, or a low degree of cooperation is necessary to complete tasks.
2. Use the needs rule when the rewards allocator and the receiver have a close relationship and the receiver's needs are seen as legitimate.
3. Use the equality rule when group harmony is important, when it is difficult to determine the cause and effect relationships between inputs and outcomes, or when a high degree of cooperation among group members is necessary to accomplish tasks (Levanthal 1976; Mowday 1983).

Equity theory can be adapted to become congruent with expectancy theory. Inequities can be assumed to affect an individual's expectancies and valences for various instrumental and non-instrumental outcomes. Behavioral predictions could then be made through the expectancy theory mechanism, rather than directly from equity theory (Mowday 1983).

Organizational theorists have long assumed the importance of equity and the perception of fairness and justice as a prerequisite to personal job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and for the most efficient and effective functioning of the organization (Brashear, Brooks, and Boles 2004; Greenberg 1990). Fairness is important to organizations for several reasons. First, fairness is viewed as fundamental value in legitimate organizations (Greenberg 1990; Konovsky 2000). Second, fairness may serve as a decision-making rule. This

fairness heuristic can aid employees in determining whether a supervisor's request is legitimate (Lind, Kulik, Ambrose and deVera Park 1993). This heuristic is congruent with Barnard's (1938) concept of the employee's "zone of indifference." As long as an authority's order is within this zone, it will be accepted (Konovsky 2000). Third, fairness is of particular interest where the preservation and development of relationships is concerned (Tripp, Sondag, and Bies 1995).

Pseudo-Fairness

Organizational justice theory assumes that the ultimate goal of all of its constituencies is the same; that is, that fairness can be established for all people involved in a decision. When there is a basic conflict of interest among the parties, as is often the case in organizations (e.g., between management and labor concerning wage negotiations), *pseudo-fairness* may arise. On the surface, pseudo-fairness may look like organizational justice, but the ultimate intent of one party is to manipulate the procedures to arrive at a pre-determined result. One or another of the parties may be intimidated into allowing something unfair to occur because of a perceived power differential.

To clarify the meaning of pseudo-fairness, consider the following example. In a university, the administration had long agreed that if an academic program were cancelled, the tenured faculty who were affected would receive twelve months' notice so that they might obtain other positions. Because of another clause in this unionized faculty's contract, however, if dwindling enrollments meant that fewer faculty would be needed to teach the fewer required sections,

only three months' notice was required. The university's administration wanted to cancel a program, which suffered both from low enrollments and from having too many highly paid, tenured professors. They announced that the program would be terminated and gave the affected faculty only three months' notice. After many faculty protests, the administration announced that they would not cancel the program after all, but merely "temporarily suspend" delivery of the program. Since temporary suspensions were not covered in the contract (none had ever occurred at any university in the state), only the three months' notice was required, and the professors were again notified of their imminent termination. The administration's actions were technically "within the rules" guiding systemic procedural justice, but only pseudo-fairness was present.

Types of Organizational Justice

Theorists have looked at several different dimensions of organizational justice. One primary determinant of the perceived justice of an organizational event is the distribution of outcomes among individuals—termed distributive justice. Often, however, individuals will wish to make determinations of justice when outcomes are unknown, either for lack of adequate information or because outcomes have not yet occurred. Making decisions about fairness when outcomes cannot be known is similar to Rawl's (1971) recommendation that just systems should be created under a "veil of ignorance" about *who* would receive *what* under the distribution system. If no veil of ignorance exists, parties to the creation of the policies and procedures may establish self-serving ones that can be manipulated to create pseudo-fairness. Under these circumstances, and

often even when outcomes are known, people will evaluate the policies and procedures used to allocate outcomes. A second form of justice, procedural justice, refers to the extent to which these policies and procedures are found to be fair. Hence, distributive justice focuses on the *content* of allocational decisions, while procedural justice focuses on the *process* used to determine that content (Greenberg 1990).

Distributive Justice

Distributive justice theory focuses on the individual making the justice decision. The individual receives some outcome and calculates his/her input/outcome ratio. S/he will then compare his/her input/outcome ratio with those of referent other(s) to determine if the outcome is fair. If the individual determines that his/her personal outcome is an overpayment or underpayment when compared with the referent other(s) then s/he will attempt to change the inequitable state. This may be accomplished behaviorally (by adjusting production quality and/or quantity) or psychologically (by changing the referent others or altering the perception of the production outcomes) (Greenberg 1990).

However, distributive justice theory has had limited results in explaining organizational behavior. Historically, Adams' (1963, 1965) equity theory has received the most attention by organizational researchers because it is the most fully developed theory (Greenberg 1990). Distributive justice was experimentally tested largely with "overpaid/underpaid" student subjects performing clerical work. Results were mixed and methodologically challenged because of alternative, plausible explanations (Greenberg 1990).

Procedural Justice

Procedural justice was originally conceived in terms of structural elements involved in the decision-making process. The meaning of the term *procedural justice* has changed over the years. As researchers investigated antecedents, they found that several identifiable components jointly created the subjective perception of procedural justice. *Systemic justice* (referred to as *procedural justice* by Colquitt 2001) refers to the perceived fairness of the overall system of rules, policies, and procedures used in allocation decisions. Systemic justice (hereinafter termed *procedural justice*) includes the concept of “voice,” the ability of those affected by the decision to have input before decisions are actually made (Greenberg 1990; Lind and Tyler 1988). *Interpersonal justice* refers to the interpersonal consideration people receive during the decision-making process and includes such variables as the degree of politeness, respect, and dignity accorded to the various participants (Bies and Moag 1986). *Informational justice* refers to the extent to which interested parties are kept informed of relevant information at the appropriate times throughout the decision-making process (Konovsky 2000). When decisions are made, perceptions of procedural fairness are enhanced if both the procedures and the outcomes are adequately explained and sincerely communicated to the affected employees (Bies, Shapiro, and Cummings 1988). A definitive study to determine the true factor structure and convergent and divergent validity of these various types of procedural justice has not been completed. However, Konovsky (2000) and Colquitt et al. (2001) state that there is value in retaining each of these separate components since the

empirical evidence shows that each uniquely adds to the explanation of obtained variance. Brashear, Brooks, and Boles (2004), however, published a new scale treating procedural justice as a single construct that in the sales setting is conceived of as “the salesperson’s perception of the manager’s fairness in developing and uniformly enforcing policies and procedures. (p. 87)”

Recent publications have supported a four-factor conceptualization of organizational justice: distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational (Colquitt 2001; Colquitt et al. 2001). Colquitt uses the term “procedural justice” as a limited term, indicating only the justice of those organizational procedures used in decision-making. By doing this, he is restricting the term more than did Bies and Moag (1986) or Konovsky (2000). Table 2.1 shows the primary question answered by each of the types of organizational justice suggested by Colquitt (2001) and Colquitt et al. (2001).

Table 2.1. Primary question answered by each organizational justice factor

1. Distributive Justice	Are the outcomes distributed fairly among the people in this organization?
2. Procedural Justice	Does this organization use fair methods and procedures to determine the distribution of outcomes?
3. Interpersonal Justice	Do my superiors in this organization treat both me and my peers with the respect we are due as human beings?
4. Informational Justice	Does this organization distribute information in a timely manner that allows us to determine the fairness of organizational decisions?

Models of Organizational Justice

Several theoretical models of organizational justice have emerged. The self-interest model contends that people seek control over procedures because

they are concerned with their own outcomes (Lind and Tyler 1988). Voice is the opportunity of organizational members to communicate their thoughts, feelings, and opinions about organizational matters to their superiors in meaningful ways (Greenberg and Folger 1983). Voice is important because it provides a possibility of affecting outcomes. Indeed, the assumed value of voice under this model is the possibility that an increase in the level of process control could result in more favorable outcomes (Greenberg and Folger 1983).

The group-value model contends that people want to make sure that the group with which they identify is properly represented and heard during the decision-making process. This model asserts that procedures that involve their reference groups provide symbolic respect to these groups (and thus to themselves, individually), promote and reinforce group solidarity, and help to institutionalize the group's perceived power and influence (Lind and Tyler 1988; Tyler 1989). This increases the respect, power, and influence that significant others accord to their group and, hence, to themselves. Empirical work has been used to support both the self-interest model and the group-value model (Greenberg 1990; Konovsky 2000).

Psychology of Procedural Justice

There are two accepted, non-competing theoretical explanations for the psychological processes involved with procedural justice. One is instrumental and the other concerns relational matters. According to the instrumental explanation, people affected by organizational outcome allocation decisions attempt to control the allocation process so that they can manipulate it to their

own instrumental ends (Thibaut and Walker 1978). Although influencing or controlling the process does not assure that desired outcomes will materialize, it could certainly increase the amount of voice and increase the probability of an acceptable outcome.

The relational explanation asserts that the various parties to an outcome allocation decision are concerned with the long-term relationships among the various parties. The procedures used give relative symbolic importance to the various parties. These procedures indicate the consideration, power, and influence that are accorded to these various parties and contribute to the group members' feelings of self-worth, group affinity, and procedural justice (Lind and Tyler 1988).

Empirical studies have supported both the instrumental and the relational explanations. Hence, both explanations may be considered as accurate while providing an incomplete view of the psychological workings of procedural justice (Lind and Tyler 1988; Taylor, Tracy, Renard, Harrison, and Carroll 1995).

Consequences of Organizational Justice

Thibaut and Walker (1975) led to the popularization of the concept of procedural justice in empirical work studying satisfaction with "inquisitorial" and "adversarial" legal systems. Other researchers began to adapt the procedural justice ideas to other areas such as encounters with police officers (Tyler and Folger 1980), classroom settings (Tyler and Caine 1981), and organizational performance evaluations (Greenberg 1986).

Empirical studies have shown that employees do distinguish between distributive and procedural justice principles (Greenberg 1986; Sheppard and Lewicki 1987). Greenberg (1986), in an employee evaluation study, identified two distributive justice factors: (1) evaluations based on job performance, and (2) salary/promotions based on those evaluations. He also identified five procedural justice questions that individuals answer when making decisions about the fairness of performance evaluations.

1. Does the organization solicit input before the evaluation?
2. Is there two-way communication during the performance review interview?
3. Does the employee have the right to challenge/answer the evaluation?
4. Is the rater familiar with the employee's work?
5. Are work standards consistently applied with all employees?

Trust can be a crucial factor in the relationship among supervisors and employees. Trust provides the basis for the social exchange relationship, since one party cannot force the other to perform some undetermined future action. Procedural justice helps to build trust (Konovsky and Pugh 1994). Further, managers are crucial to building trust among employees, through fair treatment and other behaviors (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, and Werner 1998).

Empirical studies have related procedural justice to several key employee variables including trust in management, supervisor evaluation, workplace conflict/harmony, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Colquitt et al. 2001; Konovsky 2000). Indeed, for these variables, procedural justice has been found to be more important than

distributive justice. The individual's perceptions of procedural justice can lead to cognitive, affective, and behavioral results (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, and Rupp 2001; Pillai, Schriesheim, and Williams 1999). Further, perceptions of unfair managerial treatment have been found to lead to retaliatory behaviors by the employees (Skarlicki and Folger 1997). Employees' judgments about procedural fairness have also been linked to their acceptance of tasks and goals (Earley and Lind 1987; Lind et al. 1993). Although procedural justice has also been related to propensity to leave the organization and satisfaction with pay, it has been found to be less important than distributive justice for these variables (Alexander and Ruderman 1987; Folger and Konovsky 1989). Procedures used to determine pay were found to be especially important for organizational commitment and trust in supervision (Folger and Konovsky 1989).

In a meta-analysis of 183 previously published studies, Colquitt et al. (2001) were able to trace the unique explanatory power of each of the four types of justice they considered. *Distributive justice* was strongly related to outcome satisfaction, organizational commitment, agent-referenced evaluation of authority, trust, and organizational withdrawal. *Procedural justice* was found to have a unique influence on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, system-referenced evaluation of authority, trust, organization referenced organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), and performance. *Interpersonal justice* added uniquely to explaining individual referenced OCBs and negative reactions. Lastly, *informational justice* added uniquely to explaining both agent-referenced

and system-referenced evaluations of authority and, to a lesser extent, to both categories of organizational citizenship behavior and trust.

Colquitt (2001), in two separate studies, was able to link various outcome variables to his four-factor solution of organizational justice. *Distributive justice* predicted both outcome satisfaction and instrumentality. *Procedural justice* predicted rule compliance and group commitment, as well as partially explaining leader evaluation. *Interpersonal justice* partially predicted leader evaluation, as well as explaining helping behavior. *Informational justice* was related to collective esteem.

Creating Perceptions of Organizational Justice

The following seven criteria have been suggested as helping to create the perception of fair treatment within an organization.

1. Each party should adequately consider the others' viewpoints (Folger and Bies 1989; Thibaut and Walker 1975; Tyler and Bies 1990).
2. Each party should suppress any personal biases (Folger and Bies 1989; Tyler and Bies 1990).
3. Each party should have and apply consistent standards (Folger and Bies 1989; Levanthal 1976; Tyler and Bies 1990).
4. Parties should provide timely feedback to each other (Folger and Bies 1989; Tyler and Bies 1990).
5. Managers should explain not only their positions, but also the bases and justifications for their decisions (Folger and Bies 1989; Tyler and Bies 1990).

6. Managers should treat employees with respect and civility (Bies and Moag 1986; Folger and Bies 1989).
7. Managers should maintain truthfulness in their communication with employees (Folger and Bies 1989; Leventhal 1976).

Organizational Justice Summary

Organizational justice is fundamental to the effectiveness of organizations and to the satisfaction of their members. It is composed of distributive justice, which focuses on outcomes, and procedural justice, which focuses on how the outcomes are determined. Procedural justice itself may be further divided into systemic justice (or simply procedural justice), focusing on the decision-making structure, interpersonal justice, focusing on the interpersonal relationships among the parties, and informational justice, focusing on the availability of relevant information to the parties.

Perceptions of organizational justice have important consequences for the affected individual's cognitions, affect, and subsequent behavior. Organizational justice has been related to many outcome variables, such as trust in management, supervisor evaluation, workplace conflict and harmony, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, employee turnover intentions, and satisfaction with pay. Salespeople's managers influence their perceptions of organizational justice to the extent that the salespeople perceive the manager to influence organizational justice. Colquitt (2001) shows that managers influence interpersonal and informational justice to a greater extent than distributive and procedural justice.

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

It has often been empirically demonstrated that the quality of the relationship between salespeople and their supervisors is important to salespeople's performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to leave (e.g., Behrman and Perreault 1984; DelVecchio 1998; Johnston and Futrell 1989; Jones, Katak, Futrell, and Johnston 1996; Teas 1981). A significant part of this relationship is contained under the concept of leadership. It is important, then, to understand what role leadership might play in the salesperson/sales manager relationship and how this might affect the salesperson's performance and other outcome variables.

Inspired by the earlier work reported in Burns' (1978) Pulitzer Prize winning book, Bass (1985) extended and popularized the idea that leadership could be either transformational or transactional. Transformational leadership was seen as (1) raising the follower's valuation of the target goal's valence, (2) encouraging the follower to transcend self-interest for the good of the group, or (3) altering the follower's motivational need level (e.g., from esteem to self-actualization on Maslow's hierarchy). Transactional leadership (1) helps followers to recognize and accept the leader's goals, (2) points out behaviors that will accomplish the goals, and (3) stresses the rewards that are earned through goal attainment.

Both forms of leadership can work toward increasing the follower's performance and satisfaction, but they accomplish this in different ways. In attempting to increase performance levels, transformational leaders encourage

the use of new, creative ideas and behaviors and are not averse to risk-taking. Transactional leaders, however, work to increase the efficiency of current processes by keeping followers focused on their goals and helping followers to understand and act on those behaviors most instrumental to goal attainment. In other words, “transactional leaders work within their organizational cultures following existing rules, procedures and norms; transformational leaders change their culture by first understanding it and then realigning the organization’s culture with a new vision and a revision of its shared assumptions, values, and norms” (Bass and Avolio 1994, p. 542).

Transformational Leadership

In theory, transformational leadership is composed of four factors: (1) charismatic leadership (or idealized influence), (2) inspirational motivation, (3) intellectual stimulation, and (4) individualized consideration. These four factors have come to be called the “Four I’s” of transformational leadership (Avolio, Waldman, and Yammarino 1991; Bass and Avolio 1993). Factor-analytical empirical work, however, often finds idealized influence and inspirational motivation loading on the same factor. There is thus some controversy about whether to consider transformational leadership as a three or four-factor construct. Indeed, Carless (1998) concludes that the widely used Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire© [MLQ] (Avolio, Bass, and Jung 1995; Bass 1985) assesses a single transformational leadership factor (Atwater and Yammarino 1993) rather than the three or four claimed by its authors.

Idealized influence refers to those aspects of the leader that the follower conceives as admirable, moral, and worthy of emulation. Charismatic leaders are admired, respected, and trusted by their followers. The follower identifies with the leader and believes the leader to possess capability, persistence, and/or determination in extraordinary quantities. Followers view the leader as a risk-taker in the service of a morally right cause (Bass 1998).

Inspired motivation refers to the affect presented by the leader and its effect on the followers' motivation. The leader encourages and displays team spirit, enthusiasm, and optimism. Participating in this team spirit, followers wish to display their commitment to organizational goals and the shared vision presented by the leader. This provides meaning to the followers' activities and challenges the followers to higher levels of productivity (Bass 1998).

Leaders provide followers with intellectual stimulation. They promote innovative and creative reframing of problems and encourage the creation of a larger number of high quality solutions to problems. In order to encourage this creativity, the transformational leader must maintain an atmosphere where followers' new ideas (particularly those disagreeing with the leader's) are not subject to public criticism or ridicule (Bass 1998).

Transformational leaders treat followers with individualized consideration. Since followers differ on many individual attributes, their needs as followers differ as well. Leaders recognize these individual needs and work to help individuals fill their needs by creating special opportunities for each of their individual followers. Delegation of duties and responsibilities is used as a developmental

tool. Leaders recognize and honor the different needs and abilities of their followers. Leaders act as a coach or mentor and two-way communication between the follower and the leader is encouraged. As a result of this individualized consideration, followers tend to feel supported rather than monitored by their leaders (Bass 1998).

Researchers from many empirical leadership studies conclude that transformational leadership is positively associated with the followers' (1) satisfaction with leadership, (2) perceptions of the leader's effectiveness, and (3) perceptions of the leader's performance (Fuller, Patterson, Hester, and Stringer 1996; Judge and Bono 2000; Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam 1996). In a classroom setting, Jung and Avolio (2000) found that transformational leadership had positive, direct effects on followers' trust in the leader, value congruence with the leader, and job performance, as well as a strong positive effect on the performance quality. They also found a positive, indirect effect of transformational leadership on performance mediated through trust and value congruence. Bass, Waldman, Avolio, and Bebb (1987) found that transformational leadership tended to cascade from one level of leadership to the next lower leadership level. When comparing transformational to transactional leadership in a selling context, Dubinsky et al. (1995) found increased commitment and reduced role ambiguity associated with transformational leadership, but no other differences in performance or satisfaction from those associated with transactional leadership.

Transactional Leadership

In theory, transactional leadership is composed of three factors, (1) contingent reward, (2) active management-by-exception, and (3) passive management-by-exception (Bass 1985, 1997). In factor-analytical empirical work, passive management-by-exception often loads with *laissez-faire* management rather than with active management-by-exception (Bass 1985; Bass 1998; Den Hartog, VanMuijen, and Koopman 1997). One additional type of management, *laissez-faire* management, is actually a lack of leadership and is often differentiated from the other factors of transactional and transformational leadership as a separate leadership type (Bass 1985; Bass 1998; Judge and Bono 2000).

The contingent reward factor is the one that assures that the follower understands the *quid pro quo* of organizational behaviors and rewards. The leader makes sure that the follower knows and agrees with the goals that must be accomplished. The leader further assures that the follower knows and acknowledges what his/her behavior must be to accomplish the goal. Further, the follower is made aware of the rewards that the leader or the leader's organization will provide to the follower for the successful completion of the goal (Bass 1998).

Under management-by-exception, the leader sets goals and standards for the followers and then looks for exceptions (usually failures). The leader monitors the followers' behaviors and punishes or discusses with the followers any deviations from the expected goals and standards. Active management-by-

exception is pro-active and seeks out information on the followers' behaviors so that any failures can be caught and corrected early before they become difficult to solve (or catastrophes). Passive management-by-exception is reactive. It does not seek out information but waits until negative results are reported. Blame is then assessed and corrective action is taken. Under similar circumstances, a passive management-by-exception leader would correct his/her followers fewer times than an active management-by-exception leader, but each correction would be a more important one (Bass 1998).

Laissez-faire leaders actually avoid leadership activities. Decisions and necessary actions are delayed or avoided. Often the *laissez-faire* leader will refuse to make a decision and place the decision back in the follower's hands. Although this may appear similar to the delegation of authority inherent in the individualized consideration factor of transformational leadership, it is quite different. In the case of delegation of authority, the leader will still retain the ultimate responsibility and will be available for coaching, advising, and mentoring. With *laissez-faire* leadership, the follower will have the issue pushed onto him/her with no support, resources, or supervision from the leader (Bass 1998). In the sales manager-salesperson relationship, *laissez-faire* leadership has been positively related to salesperson role conflict (Dubinsky et al. 1995).

The prototypical transactional leader can be viewed as a manager who concentrates on compromise with, and control of, followers to increase the efficiency of attaining the agreed upon goals. These leaders tend to focus on the process of getting things done and not on the content of the goals themselves.

To their followers, this focus may make them appear single-minded and manipulative in pursuit of their goals (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe 2001; Zaleznik 1993).

In a classroom context, the transactional factors of contingent reward and management-by-exception have been positively related to followers' trust (Jung and Avolio 2000). In a selling context, these factors have been positively related to the salespeople's job satisfaction, commitment, extra effort, and performance (Dubinsky et al. 1995). These same two factors of transactional leadership have also been negatively related to role conflict, role ambiguity, job stress, and burnout (Dubinsky et al.1995). In a classroom setting, Jung and Avolio (2000) found these factors to have no direct effect on performance, but to have an indirect effect on performance mediated through trust in, and value congruence with, the leader.

The Full Range of Leadership Model

Bass (1998) proposed that transformational and transactional leadership were not two independent aspects of leadership, but that the leadership components captured within these concepts were really part of the same continuum of leadership behavior. He proposed that empirical studies should show that most leaders simultaneously possess some of each of the leadership styles—transformational, transactional, and *laissez-faire*. Indeed the contingent reward of transactional leadership is highly correlated with the four transformational leadership factors. Whether a leader should be labeled as transformational or transactional depends on the relative emphasis of the leader

rather than the presence or absence of a certain level of one or more leadership factors (Bass 1998).

Transactional leadership—particularly contingent reward—provides a broad basis for leadership. Transformational leadership, however, can create an even higher level of follower effort, performance, and satisfaction. Additional results achieved by transformational leadership over those achievable by transactional leadership alone are called the augmentation effect (Bass 1998). In addition to higher levels of performance, effort, and satisfaction, augmentation is also associated with higher levels of innovation, risk-taking, and creativity (Avolio and Howell 1992; Bass 1998).

Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Sales Management

Several empirical studies have been done of transformational and transactional leadership in a sales management setting (Comer, Jolson, Dubinsky, and Yammarino 1995; Dubinsky et al. 1995; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich 2001; Russ, McNeilly, and Comer 1996; Yammarino and Dubinsky 1994). Using within and between analysis, Yammarino and Dubinsky (1992, 1994) found that transformational leadership theory operated at an individual level and did not hold at higher levels of analysis (e.g., between groups or within groups).

Dubinsky et al. (1995) found both transformational and transactional leadership provided by the sales manager to be positively related to the salesperson's job satisfaction, commitment, effort, and performance, and

negatively related to the salesperson's role conflict, role ambiguity, stress, and burn-out. However, transformational leadership provided significantly different levels of attainment for only two of these variables—commitment and role ambiguity.

MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich (2001) found transformational leadership affected the salesperson's performance and organizational citizenship behaviors both directly and mediated through lowered role ambiguity and the salesperson's trust in the sales manager. They also reported that transactional leadership had only indirect effects (through trust and role ambiguity) on performance and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Comer, Jolson, Dubinsky, and Yammarino (1995) found transformational leadership related to salespeople's effectiveness and satisfaction with supervision, and a weaker transformational leadership → effectiveness relationship for females than for males. Russ, McNeilly, and Comer (1996) found that sales managers' transformational leadership levels were positively related to their performance levels as well. In a study that included salespeople (29.7 percent of the respondents), Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) found a direct relationship between transformational leadership and employee trust and satisfaction, and both a direct and mediated relationship (through trust and satisfaction) between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Other Views of Transformational Leadership

Bass and his associates have conducted many research projects and written numerous articles about transformational and transactional leadership. Other researchers have also designed systems for understanding transformational and transactional leadership that are also worthy of note.

Podsakoff's Transformational Leadership Focus. Transformational and transactional leaders are fundamentally different in two ways. First, the process they use to influence followers is different. Transformational leaders work to change the values, goals, and aspirations of their followers, while transactional ones merely work to make the rewards-for-production exchange clearer and more efficient. Second, transformational leaders engage in different behaviors than transactional ones (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich 2001). Podsakoff and his associates have focused on the behaviors that transformational leaders display and have identified six: (1) articulating a vision, (2) providing an appropriate model, (3) fostering the acceptance of group goals, (4) expecting high performance, (5) providing individualized support, and (6) providing intellectual stimulation (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich 2001; Podsakoff et al. 1990).

A New Transformational Leadership Questionnaire. A recent effort to develop a new measure of transformational leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe 2001) has identified nine component factors. This study was unique in the transformational leadership literature since the 1,500 people used in the questionnaire development all had public sector employment (local

government and National Health Service) in the United Kingdom. The nine factors found were: (1) genuine concern for others, (2) political sensitivity and skills, (3) decisiveness, determination, and self-confidence, (4) integrity, trustworthy, honesty, and openness, (5) empowers and develops potential, (6) inspirational networker and promoter, (7) accessible and approachable, (8) clarifies boundaries and involves others in decisions, and (9) encourages critical and strategic thinking.

Reconciling the Three Approaches

The above three approaches to transformational/transactional leadership can be viewed as complementary explanations rather than competing models of leadership. Each finds some minor differences with the others but agrees on the overall scope and importance of transformational leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe's 2001). A comparative summary (Table 2.2) displays their areas of similarity and difference. Using the earliest model (Bass 1985) as a base, both the similar and dissimilar parts of the other two systems are detailed.

Table 2.2. A Comparison of three views of the components of transformational leadership

Bass (1985)	Podsakoff et al. (1990)	Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2001)
<i>Idealized Influence</i> : Leader is admired, emulated, respected, trusted, and identified with. Leader is seen as moral, as a risk-taker, and as possessing extraordinary capabilities.	Part of: <i>Providing an appropriate model</i> .	Partially includes: <i>Integrity-trustworthy-honest-open</i> . Partially includes: <i>Decisiveness, self-confidence, and determination</i> .
<i>Inspired Motivation</i> : Leader presents a vision, builds team spirit, enthusiasm, and optimism. Followers display their commitment to goals and share the vision.	Partially includes: <i>Providing an appropriate model</i> . Includes: <i>Articulating a vision</i> . Includes: <i>Fostering the acceptance of group goals</i> . Includes: <i>Expecting high performance</i> .	Partially includes: <i>Generalized concern for others</i> . Partially includes: <i>Inspirational networker and promoter</i> .
<i>Intellectual Stimulation</i> : Leader promotes innovative/creative analysis of problems and proposed solutions, and encourages new idea generation.	Essentially the same: <i>Providing intellectual stimulation</i> .	Essentially the same: <i>Encourages critical and strategic thinking</i> .
<i>Individualized Consideration</i> : Leaders recognize individual needs, help fill those needs by creating special opportunities for individuals, delegate authority to develop followers, coach, mentor, and encourage two-way communication. *	Essentially the same: <i>Providing individualized support</i> .	Partially includes: <i>Integrity-trustworthy-honest-open</i> . Partially includes: <i>Generalized concern for others</i> . Includes: <i>Empowers/develops potential</i> . Includes: <i>Accessible and approachable</i> . Partially includes: <i>Clarify boundaries; involve others in decisions</i> . **
<i>Other</i> : None.	<i>Other</i> : None.	Part of: <i>Inspirational networker and promoter</i> . Part of: <i>Clarify boundaries; involve others in decisions</i> . ** Political sensitivity and skills. ***
* Individualized consideration is classified by some scholars as transactional leadership. ** Part of this could also be subsumed under transactional leadership's contingent rewards. *** The authors suggest that this dimension may be unique to certain UK public sectors.		

Bass focuses on the effects of leadership on followers while Podsakoff concentrates on the observable behaviors of the leader. Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe include both leader behaviors and their effects on followers. Even with these differences in viewpoint, these three ways of viewing

transformational leadership have much in common. The Bass and Podsakoff views of transformational leadership are quite similar, even sharing some of the same measurement problems with multicollinearity. In later writings, Bass has combined *idealized influence* and *inspired motivation* into one factor, explaining that although they can be differentiated in theory, they have not yet been differentiated by measurement instruments. Likewise, Podsakoff recommends truncating into one factor the *appropriate model*, *vision articulation*, and *acceptance of group goals* factors because of multicollinearity.

Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2001) found three factors that do not comfortably fit into the Bass or Podsakoff classifications. In Table 2, these factors are: part of *inspirational networker and promoter*, part of *clarify boundaries and involve others in decisions*, and *political sensitivity and skills*. Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe's (2001) *accessible and approachable* component is partly subsumed under Bass' (1985) *individualized consideration*, partly covered in transactional leadership factors, and partly unnecessary to transactional leadership according to Bass (1985, 1998). Bass states that transformational leadership does not require the followers to be involved in the decision-making process. Part of Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe's (2001) component *inspirational networker and promoter* does not appear in either Bass' or Podsakoff's system. Both Bass and Podsakoff include the leader's allocation of resources to followers under *individualized consideration* (as do Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe), but Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe go further in including in this factor the leader's competing for resources with those outside

the focal organization. As stated in Table 2, Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe's (2001) *political sensitivity and skills* component is possibly unique to the subjects used in developing their nine components of transformational leadership.

In summary, the Bass and Podsakoff systems are quite compatible. While the Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe system shows some unique differences, it also generally supports the other factors found by both Bass and Podsakoff.

Salesforce Control Systems

An organization's control system is its set of procedures for monitoring, directing, evaluating, and compensating its employees (Anderson and Oliver 1987). A control system also provides a system for setting goals, providing feedback to the employees, and reinforcing employees on the basis of their performance (Challagalla and Shervani 1996). The control system allows management to influence the behavior of its employees (Anderson and Oliver 1987; Krafft 1999). A well-designed control system has benefits for both management and the employees, since employees would know what behaviors (or outcomes) are associated with key organizational rewards and punishments (Krafft 1999).

Control systems can be divided into two general categories, those that monitor the employees' productive outcomes (outcome-based) and those that monitor the employees' work-related activities (behavior-based). Both of these types of control systems are extensively used with employees whose primary function is selling. In addition, control systems can be devised that blend attributes of these two general types of control systems (Anderson and Oliver

1987; Cravens et al. 1993; John and Weitz 1989; Krafft 1999; Oliver and Anderson 1994, Oliver and Anderson 1995).

Outcome-Based Control Systems

Outcome-based control systems are characterized by having relatively little managerial monitoring or direction of the salesforce, relying instead on straightforward, objective measures of outcomes. "Salespeople are held accountable for their results (outcomes) but not for how they achieve the results (inputs or behaviors)" (Anderson and Oliver 1987, p. 76). Anderson and Oliver (1987) suggested that the more a salesforce control system was outcome-based, the better it would perform on outcome measures. Cravens et al. (1993), however, found the reverse to be true.

Outcome-based control systems give salespeople more behavioral discretion, more incentive, and more responsibility for behavioral adaptation. However, it also encourages the salesperson to adopt short-term strategies, is reactive, and may be incapable of preventing mistakes (Stathakopoulos 1996). Outcome-based systems assign income risk to the salesperson rather than to the organization (Stathakopoulos 1996) and have been associated with lower levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction and higher levels of extrinsic motivation (Cravens et al. 1993; Oliver and Anderson 1994).

Behavior-Based Control Systems

Behavior-based control systems are characterized by considerable monitoring of activity, high levels of managerial direction and intervention, and subjective evaluation (i.e., evaluation based on something other than output).

Anderson and Oliver (1987) refer to this type of control system as the “visible hand of management” (p. 77).

Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) further divide behavior-based control systems into two types, activity-based and capability-based control systems. While supervisors with an activity-based orientation focus on the performance of routine behaviors that are expected to result in sales success, those with a capability-based orientation focus on developing the salespeople’s skills that are necessary to achieving success. Capability orientation focuses on the quality of the behaviors rather than their mere existence (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998).

Activity-based (behavior-based) control systems keep managers and salespeople in contact with regard to their day-to-day activities. The sales manager can then become involved in monitoring, directing, evaluating, and providing feedback and guidance to the salesperson. For new or inexperienced salespeople, this may help to rapidly lower role ambiguity but, with more competent salespeople, it may be viewed as “big brother’s” constant spying (Challagalla and Shervani 1996).

In a study of chief sales executives from 144 companies, Cravens et al. (1993) tested Anderson and Oliver’s (1987) propositions. They found that selling organizations that emphasized behavior-based control systems were more likely than those with outcome-based control systems to have a salesforce that was: (1) professionally competent, (2) team-oriented, (3) risk averse, (4) intrinsically motivated, (5) motivated by company recognition, (6) planning-oriented, (7) sales

support-oriented, and (8) customer-oriented. Further, the more behavior-based the control system of an organization, the higher was the organizational effectiveness and salesforce performance on both selling and non-selling activities.

Clan Control Systems

Although most control systems will fall within the outcome-based or behavior-based systems (or a hybrid of these two systems), other useful control systems can be conceived (Challagalla and Shervani 1996; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998; Stathakopoulos 1996). Stathakopoulos (1996), using organization theory based on Ouchi's work (1979), describes a control system accomplished through socialization. He labels this a *clan control system*, where salespeople perform "right actions" in exchange for group acceptance, excellent working conditions, respect, and generous support and rewards. Under this control system, the salesperson is expected to learn the organizational culture and its values, and the personalities (and values) of individuals who are important to the salesperson's successful functioning. The salesperson is then expected to know what to do in virtually any situation because of the depth of knowledge of the principles of the organization and its people. This specialized control system would be most appropriate in circumstances where the outcome observability, behavioral observability, and the salespersons' transaction specific assets were all low (Stathakopoulos 1996).

Capability-Based Control Systems

The *capability control system* is described as emphasizing the development of individual skills and abilities (Challagalla and Shervani 1996; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Capability control systems are likely to increase the salesperson's intrinsic motivation, feelings of professionalism, and selling aptitude, and may work to improve his/her relationship with the supervisor as well. These in turn are likely to lead to lower role ambiguity, greater satisfaction, and better performance (Challagalla and Shervani 1996).

The clan control system could be viewed as a subset of capability control systems. The clan control system could be classified as that special case of the capability control system where the requisite capabilities would be possession of the social skills and psychological needs to make this control system function effectively rather than any particular capability involving instrumental job skills.

Comparing Consequences of the Different Control Systems

Challagalla and Shervani (1996) investigated the relationship between output, behavior, and capability based control systems and the salesperson's performance and satisfaction with his/her supervisor. Although they found little evidence directly relating the different types of control systems to salesperson performance, they found strong evidence linking behavior and capability control systems to the lowering of the salespeople's role ambiguity regarding both their supervisors and their customers. Lower levels of both of these role ambiguity variables were strongly associated with salesperson performance.

Oliver and Anderson (1994) investigated differences in behavior and outcome-based control systems among manufacturers' representative companies. They found little difference in objective performance but significant differences in several areas important to management. More emphasis on behavior-based control systems rather than outcome-based control systems was positively associated with the salesperson's (1) organizational commitment, (2) acceptance of authority, (3) cooperation in team selling and performance reviews, (4) job satisfaction, and (5) tendency to sell "smarter."

Krafft (1999) investigated the conditions under which organizations tended to use behavior or output-based control systems. He found that increased use of behavior-based control systems was associated with environmental uncertainty, immeasurability of outcomes, immeasurability of salesforce behaviors, and the salesperson's increased educational attainment level. A greater emphasis on outcome-based control was associated with companies having larger salesforces and more complex products.

In a unique study, Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) linked outcome, behavior, and capability control systems with learning and performance goal orientations among the salesforce members. They found that supervisory outcome orientation was positively related to both the learning and performance goal orientations of salespeople. A supervisory behavior orientation was positively related to salespeople's performance orientation but not related to their learning orientation. A supervisory capability orientation was positively related to both the learning and performance goal orientations of the salesforce. Further,

although the salesforce's performance goal orientation was positively related to performance, its learning goal orientation was not. The experience of the salesperson was also found to moderate some of the control system/goal orientation relationships.

Satisfaction with the Sales Manager

The salesperson's job satisfaction is a positive affective state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job related characteristics and activities (Brown and Peterson 1993). Satisfaction with the sales manager is one constituent part of the job satisfaction construct (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1974; Smith, Kendall, and Hulin 1969). Thus, the satisfaction with the sales manager is the positive affective state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job related characteristics and activities as influenced by the relationship between the salesperson and the sales manager.

The relationship between the salesperson and the sales manager has been recognized as important to many other organizational variables (Babakus et al. 1996; Brown and Peterson 1993; Busch 1980; Kohli 1989; Lagace 1990, 1991; Singh 1998; Teas 1983; Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1977). In a study specifically designed for industrial salespeople, Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1974) found seven components to be included in the construct of job satisfaction—the job, fellow workers, supervisor or supervision, company policy and support, pay, promotion and advancement, and customers. Since this study was focused on the sales manager-salesperson relationship, only the satisfaction with sales manager component was considered.

The salesperson's relationship with the sales manager has been associated with the satisfaction with the sales manager through a variety of variables. Comer, Machleit, and Lagace (1989) found that the sales manager's sources of power and closeness of supervision to be related to the satisfaction with the sales manager, while Brown and Peterson (1993) found closeness of supervision, sales manager's feedback, and the sales manager's arbitrary punishment to be so associated as well. Further, Lagace (1991) found that trust in the sales manager and satisfaction with the sales manager were also associated.

Role ambiguity has been negatively associated to the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager (Babakus et al. 1996; Comer, Machleit, and Lagace 1989; Teas 1983). Role conflict has been negatively associated with salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager as well (Babakus et al. 1996; Teas 1983). Further, the sales manager's aid in role clarification has been positively associated with the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager (Fry, Futrell, Parasuraman, and Chmielewski 1986; Johnston, Parasuraman, and Futrell 1989). Hence, it is apparent that role variables have a strong influence on the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager.

Several salesperson outcome variables have also been associated with the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager. The propensity to leave the job has been negatively associated with the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager (Babakus, et al. 1996; Comer, Machleit, and Lagace 1989; Sumrall and Sebastianelli 1999). The salesperson's amount of commission has

also been associated with satisfaction with the sales manager (Brown and Peterson 1993). Also, both performance and absenteeism have been associated with satisfaction with the sales manager (Sumrall and Sebastianelli 1999).

Satisfaction with the Sales
Manager and Supervisory
Control Systems

Challagalla and Shervani (1996) concluded that the supervisory control system affected the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager. In this study, output (often termed end-results), activity, and capability control were separately related to satisfaction with the sales manager. In addition, each type of control system was further distinguished by whether the focus of the control was to provide information, to provide rewards, or to assign punishments. Those parts of the output and activity control systems oriented toward providing rewards were found to be negatively correlated with satisfaction with the sales manager. That part of the capability control systems oriented toward providing rewards and information were found to be positively related to satisfaction with the sales manager, while capability controls oriented toward punishment were negatively associated with such satisfaction. Output and activity controls oriented to providing information and assigning punishment were found not to be related to satisfaction with the sales manager in a statistically significant way.

Satisfaction with the Sales
Manager and Leadership

Bass (1998) has found both transformational and transactional leadership to be associated with satisfaction with the leader. One component of transformational leadership is charismatic leadership, which Fuller et al. (1996),

in a meta-analysis of 32 studies, found to be associated with the respondents' satisfaction with the leader. Judge and Bono (2000) also found transformational leadership and contingent reward—a component of transactional leadership—to be associated with satisfaction with the leader.

In a sales setting, Russ, McNeilly, and Comer (1996) found that both transactional and transformational leadership were related to the sales manager's performance, which was further related to the salesperson's satisfaction with the manager. Dubinsky et al. (1995) also found both transactional and transformational leadership to be associated with job satisfaction in a sales setting, although their measure of job satisfaction was not fine grained enough to specifically measure satisfaction with the sales manager.

Satisfaction with the Sales Manager and Organizational Justice

Colquitt (2001) found interpersonal justice to be related to satisfaction with the leader, and Konovsky (2000) reported procedural justice (including interpersonal and informational justice) to be related to both job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision. Likewise, Pillai, Schriesheim, and Williams (1999) found procedural justice (including interpersonal and informational justice) to be associated with job satisfaction although satisfaction with supervision was not specifically measured. Further, Pillai, Scandura, and Williams (1999) found distributive justice, procedural justice (including interpersonal and informational justice), transformational leadership, and job satisfaction to all be significantly correlated, although, again, satisfaction with the supervisor was not differentiated from the more general job satisfaction construct.

Colquitt et al. (2001) conducted a meta-analytic review of 183 organizational justice studies. Procedural, interpersonal, informational and distributive justices were correlated with eleven other organizational and individual variables. Although satisfaction with supervision was not specifically included in these variables, the study's "Evaluation of authority—Agent referenced" variable measures the same concept. In a regression analysis, interpersonal, informational, and distributive justices all made its own significant contribution to predicting evaluation of authority—agent referenced.

Feedback

Feedback can be a very effective, useful method of improving individual performance (Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Moss and Martinko 1998). All feedback, however, is not created equal. Jaworski and Kohli (1991), using different feedback types as independent variables in a selling setting, found differences in (1) salesperson performance and (2) salesperson satisfaction with the supervisor based on the feedback's valence (positive or negative) and subject matter (salesperson's output or behaviors). DeCarlo and Leigh (1996), when using different feedback types as their dependent variables in a study of sales managers' attributions and feedback, found different attributional antecedents to coercive and nonpunitive feedback. Celuch and Williams (2001) found output information feedback (but not capability information feedback) related to role ambiguity, which in turn was related to self-efficacy. Moss and Martinko (1998) reported on a classroom experiment that used business students as subjects. This experiment linked (1) feedback, (2) the supervisor's outcome dependence,

and (3) the supervisor's attribution for low levels of subordinate performance. They measured both the number of times feedback was given, and its latency (lapse of time between the feedback generating event and the feedback being given), as well as whether the feedback was instructional or coercive. They reported finding more feedback with less latency when the supervisor's outcomes were dependent on the performance of the subordinates.

Supervisors are generally reluctant to give negative feedback to poor performers. Individuals may be reluctant to give "bad news" to others because it is uncomfortable for the giver of the bad news and threatening to the receiver. Further, the delivery of negative feedback may be delayed, distorted to seem less negative, or avoided altogether (Moss and Martinko 1998).

Feedback's Consequences

Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar (1994) found that both positive and negative feedback raise the salesperson's learning goal orientation, while only negative feedback raises performance goal orientation. Rich (1999) hypothesized that positive feedback would be associated with salesperson optimism but found this not to be the case. Rich (1999) did find that positive feedback was positively associated with "helping" organizational citizenship behaviors. Agarwal and Ramaswami (1993) found the effects of feedback on affective organizational commitment to be small or non-significant. Srivastava, Strutton, and Pelton (2001) reported that negative feedback was associated with higher salesperson efforts, but positive feedback had no effect. Their study, however, did not control for the difference between output and behavioral feedback.

Jaworski and Kohli (1991) found that greater supervisor's output feedback, whether positive or negative, was associated with the salesperson's output role clarity. Further, when that output feedback was positive, it was also associated with greater output performance and greater satisfaction with the supervisor. Similarly, when the supervisor provided greater behavioral feedback, either positive or negative, greater behavioral role clarity resulted. Again, only positive behavioral feedback was positively associated with the salesperson's behavioral performance and satisfaction with the supervisor. In an interesting study of coworker feedback, Kohli and Jaworski (1994) found the same relationships for behavioral feedback, but no significant relationships between coworker output feedback and role clarity, satisfaction, or performance. Apparently, the relationship between behavioral feedback and role clarity, satisfaction, and performance is robust concerning the feedback source, while the relationship between output feedback and the above variables is not.

The many relevant aspects of feedback that have been studied, then, include: (1) valence, (2) subject matter, (3) punitiveness, (4) frequency, and (5) latency. Considering implicit personality theory, there would be no reason to believe that entity and incremental theorist sales managers would differ in the valence, subject matter, frequency, or latency of the feedback they give to their salespeople. However, there is reason to believe that they would differ in the punitiveness and coerciveness of their feedback. When performance does not meet expectations, entity theorists are more likely than incrementalists to react with punitive actions, while incrementalists are more likely to react with

instruction or counseling (Chiu et al. 1997; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993; Erdley and Dweck 1993).

Summary

This section reviews the focal constructs of this study and relates them to their relationships with implicit personality theory. A person's implicit personality theory can be one of two types, entity or incremental theory. Entity theorists believe that the quantity of a certain personality attribute is fixed, while incremental theorists believe that the quantity of that attribute is malleable. This belief provides the holder's "worldview" for the focal cognitive or affective domain (Dweck and Leggett 1988).

In congruence with the implicit personal theory worldview, entity theorists and incrementalists reflect different attributional patterns, which tend to create higher levels of dispositionalism in entity theorists (Seligman 1990). In achievement motivation situations, people can be motivated by goals (Locke et al. 1981). Entity theorists are likely to choose performance goals, while incremental theorists choose learning goals (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Further, when faced with obstacles or failure, people with performance goals (who would be over-represented by entity theorists) are likely to adopt the attributional pattern of learned helplessness, while those with learning goals (who would be over-represented by incremental theorists) are likely to adopt learned optimism (Seligman 1990).

People high in learned optimism are prone to be more successful than people high in learned helplessness in competitive situations where failure is

likely a large portion of the time. Seligman (1990) found this increased success among athletic competitors, politicians, and life insurance salespeople. One of the keys to getting salespeople to develop learned optimism is to influence them to adopt learning goals.

Incremental theorists are likely to choose learning goals while entity theorists are likely to choose performance ones. These choices, however, are subject to situational influences (Ames 1992). Previous research has shown that the behavior of the sales manager affects salesperson outcomes such as performance (Challagalla and Shervani 1996; Churchill et al. 1985), job satisfaction (Challagalla and Shervani 1996; Dubinsky et al. 1995; Kohli 1985), organizational commitment (Dubinsky et al. 1995), and intent to leave the organization (Robbins, Summers, Miller, and Hendrix 2000; Roberts, Coulson, and Chonko 1999). This study tested the idea that a sales manager's implicit personality theory helps to explain certain of his/her behaviors with respect to his/her salespeople, and his/her salespeople's perceptions and interpretations of those behaviors.

A person's implicit personality theory influences his/her behaviors, cognitions, and affect (Dweck and Leggett 1988). As previously discussed, it seems likely that real differences exist between entity theorist sales managers and incremental theorist sales managers. To the extent that this is true, subordinate salespeople may then interpret and make differing judgments about the resultant sales managers' behavior, using their attributional processes to determine meanings. Salespeople will thus make different interpretations and

judgments about entity theorist sales managers than about incremental theory sales managers. That will, in turn, influence their behavior in key ways. This study has examined some of these interpretations and judgments; specifically, *organizational justice, transformational/transactional leadership, salesforce control system, and feedback from the sales manager*. Previous studies have shown that these variables help to explain the variance in salesperson outcome variables such as job satisfaction, satisfaction with the sales manager, effort, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, organizational commitment, intent to leave, organizational citizenship behaviors, and performance (Colquitt et al. 2001; Dubinsky et al. 1995; Oliver and Anderson 1994, Oliver and Anderson 1995).

Chapter III, Research Methodology, takes the ideas about the relationships of these variables and puts them in the form of testable hypotheses. These variables are then defined and operationalized, using scales that have previously been successfully employed in published research. The research methodology is then described, and the results of the actual research are reported in Chapters IV and V, Results and Conclusions, respectively.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research methodology that was used to explore the relationships among the variables examined in this study. The hypothesized relationships are shown graphically in Figure 3.1. This chapter presents: (1) the research hypotheses, (2) the operationalization of the variables, (3) the research design, and (4) the statistical techniques used in analyzing the data collected.

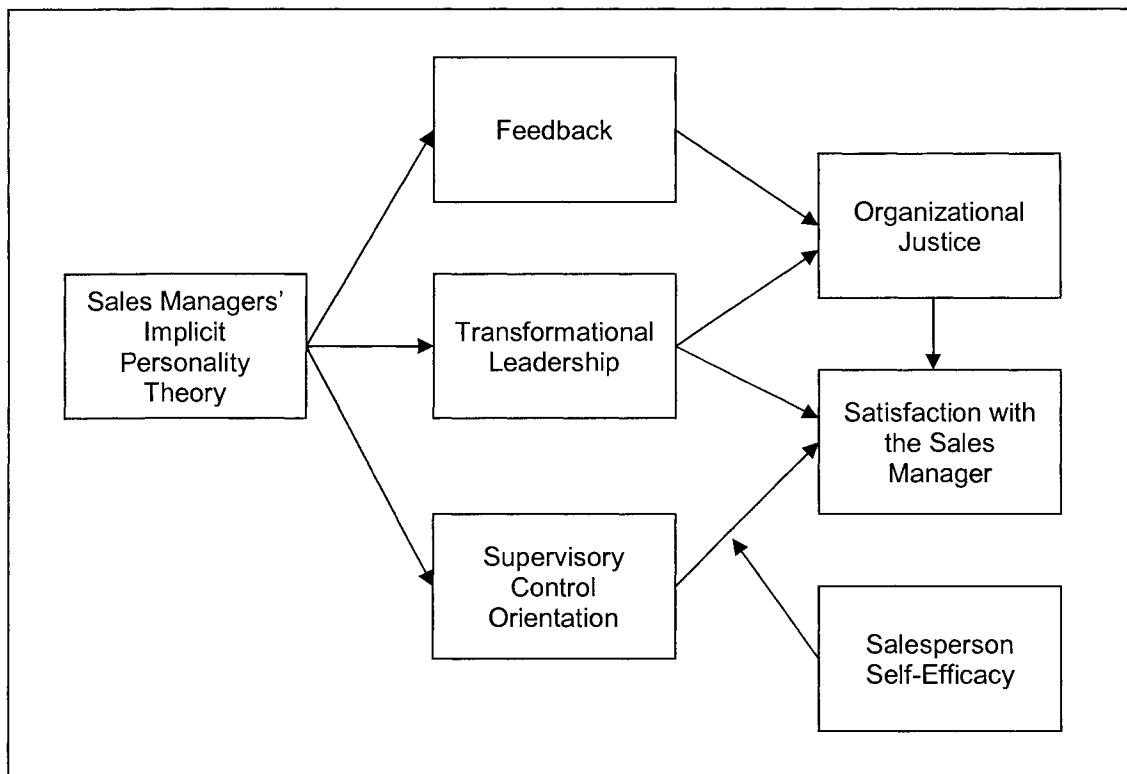


Figure 3.1. The effect of the sales manager's implicit personality theory on selected organizational and salesperson variables

Research Hypotheses

Individuals attempt to make sense of the world in a number of ways. Part of this sense-making involves cognitive processes that help to efficiently process and organize incoming stimuli. Implicit personality theories are cognitive “shortcuts” that humans use to achieve such cognitive efficiency. Implicit personality theories create worldviews for their holders. More specifically, people differ in their beliefs about the malleability of certain personality traits. Entity theorists believe that personality characteristics are relatively fixed; while incremental theorists believe these same characteristics are malleable (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Thus, when explaining the events occurring in the world around them, entity and incremental theorists differ in the interpretations of their observations.

Previous research suggests that individuals may hold different implicit personality theories for different domains. Empirical work has studied implicit personality theories in the areas of intelligence (Ames 1992; Ames and Archer 1988; Dweck and Leggett 1988), social skills (Erdley and Dweck 1993), morality (Chiu et al. 1997; Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993; Erdley and Dweck 1993), and selling ability (Silver 2000).

With regard to selling ability, entity theorists believe that selling ability is a stable or fixed characteristic, while incremental theorists believe it to be malleable and capable of being improved. Sales managers’ perceptions of their salespeople’s selling ability are critical to their managerial effectiveness as well as to the sales organization’s success. Sales managers are also likely to hold

their own “world views” of selling ability. It seems likely that there may be significant differences between sales managers holding differing implicit personality theories with regard to their perceptions of their salespeople’s selling ability. Such differences in implicit personality theory have been found to affect teachers’ behaviors toward students (Sweet, Guthrie, and Ng 1998) and may very well affect the behavior of sales managers toward their salespeople.

Attribution Theory and Implicit Personality Theory

Attribution theory holds that people seek causation in the events that occur in the world around them, suggesting a mechanism for the two implicit personality theories to differentially affect people’s cognitions, affect, and behaviors (Dweck and Leggett 1988; Seligman 1990). In fact, several attributional errors have been found to differ between entity and incremental theorists, as discussed next.

First, in the attributional process, there is a tendency to assign causation of events to a trait of the actor rather than to the situation (Harvey and McGlynn 1982; Harvey, Town, and Yarkin 1981; Jones and Davis 1965; Kelley 1967; Miller and Ross 1975; Quattrone 1982). This tendency is known as the Fundamental Attribution Error, or dispositionalism. With respect to implicit personality theory, entity theorists have been found to make this attributional error more often than incremental theorists (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997). They have also been found to believe that their dispositional attributions are more predictive of future behavior than incremental theorists (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997). Dweck, Hong, and Chiu (1993, p. 648) conclude that “entity theorists are ready and

willing to make dispositional judgments from small pieces of personal information.” Indeed, Chiu, Hong, and Dweck (1997) found that entity theorists are often willing to make a dispositional attribution based on a single observation.

A second attributional error is one of insufficient correction of earlier attributions when additional, incongruent evidence is obtained. Once a dispositional attribution was made in error, it is normally either (1) left unchanged or (2) adjusted less than is warranted by the new evidence (Lee, Hallahan, and Herzog 1996; Reeder 1985; Ybarra and Stephan 1999). With respect to implicit personality theory, entity theorists have been found less likely than incremental theorists to change a dispositional attribution once it is made (Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993).

A third attributional error causes negative information to be considered more indicative of personality traits than positive information (Choi, Nesbitt, and Norenzayan 1999; Kanouse and Hanson 1971; Reeder 1985; Reeder, Henderson, and Sullivan 1982). Indeed, negative and positive evidence seem to cause different attributional biases. More specifically, positive information is normally attributed to situational causes while negative information is attributed to an actor's dispositional characteristics (Ybarra and Stephan 1999). In this regard, implicit personality research has found that after a negative dispositional attribution has been made, entity theorists make fewer corrections than incremental theorists when confronted with additional positive evidence. Further, entity theorists are more likely than incremental theorists to generalize negative attributions from one domain to others (Erdley and Dweck 1993).

A fourth attributional error involves the discounting and augmentation of dispositional attributions (Hansen 1985; Reeder 1985). For example, when evidence arises that might encourage Actor A to change his or her previous dispositional attributions about Actor B's traits, Actor A will look for reasons to disregard that evidence. This allows Actor A to avoid the cognitive dissonance and effort involved in changing a previous attribution. Important evidence that differs from Actor A's expectations will be discounted or augmented by assigning it to situational rather than dispositional causes (Hansen 1985; Reeder 1985). Erdley and Dweck (1993) provide some evidence that entity theorists may engage in discounting and augmentation to a greater degree than do incremental theorists.

In summary, it can be seen that attribution theory provides explanatory mechanisms by which entity theorists and incremental theorists may differ in assigning causation to events. Further, empirical research has shown that these differences do exist. Such differences, if found to exist among sales managers, may have significant implications for sales force management effectiveness, as explained in the next section.

Entity Theorist Sales Managers and Low Performing Salespeople

Since it has been shown that entity and incremental theorists differ in applying attributional mechanisms, it is plausible that entity and incremental theorist sales managers will differ in attributing causes to their salespeople's performances. Positive information is more often attributed to the situation than

to the individual, while negative information is more often attributed to the person's disposition (Ybarra and Stephan 1999). It seems plausible, then, that salespeople with less than expected performance levels will be labeled by their sales managers as poor salespeople sooner than those performing well will be labeled as good salespeople. This conclusion is also congruent with the finding that negative information is more important than positive information when making dispositional attributions (Choi, Nesbitt, and Norenzayan 1999; Kanouse and Hanson 1971; Reeder 1985; Reeder, Henderson, and Sullivan 1982). Additionally, entity theorists make attributions on less evidence than do incremental theorists (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997), so a poor initial performance would be more damaging to a salesperson when the sales manager is an entity theorist rather than an incremental theorist.

Furthermore, as previously discussed, entity theorists are more prone to the Fundamental Attribution Error, dispositionalism, than incremental theorists (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997). Thus, when compared to incremental theorist sales managers, entity theorist sales managers would be expected to attribute a larger proportion of poor performance to the salesperson's personal characteristics rather than to situational influences. Further, entity theorists have been shown to reach dispositional attributions on less evidence than incremental theorists (Chiu, Hong, and Dweck 1997). Hence, it would be expected that entity theorist sales managers would make dispositional attributions about their salespeople sooner, and with less evidence, than would incremental theorist sales managers.

Once a dispositional attribution is made, entity theorists are less likely than incremental theorists to change it in the face of contradictory evidence (Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993). Hence, it would be expected that entity theorist sales managers would be less likely than incremental theorist sales managers to change their dispositional attributions about their salespeople. Entity theorists are also more likely to engage in discounting than are incremental theorists (Erdley and Dweck 1993). Thus, unexpectedly good performance by a salesperson who had previously been categorized as a poor performer would be more likely to be discounted (e.g., with a situational attribution) by an entity theorist sales manager than by an incremental theorist sales manager.

In addition to making differing attributions about their salespeople's performance, entity theorist and incremental theorist sales managers are likely to have different behavioral reactions to their salespeople's successes and failures. It seems likely that an entity sales manager would categorize a person as a poor salesperson after only a few (or even one) poor performances. A few good performances, however, would not result in a salesperson's being classified as a good salesperson by entity theorist sales managers, as they would attribute these performances largely to the selling situation. Hence, a salesperson having one or more poor performances in the first few sales encounters would be more likely to result in a sales manager's attribution as a poor salesperson if the sales manager were an entity theorist as opposed to being an incremental theorist. Entity theorists have been found to recommend lower rewards for good behavior and harsher punishment for bad behavior than incremental theorists (Chiu et al.

1997). It seems plausible, then, that entity theorist sales managers would discipline salespersons with poor performance more harshly than would incremental theorist sales managers. Entity theorist sales managers are likely to attribute positive performance to the selling situation and negative performance to the salesperson's disposition.

The attributional differences between entity theorist and incremental theorist sales managers, combined with their differing responses to salesperson success and failure, should be manifest in the sales managers' behaviors towards the individual salespeople. The following hypotheses examine this thesis.

Sales Managers' Implicit Personality Theory and Feedback

Reinforcement theory stresses the importance of feedback for salesperson learning (Rich 1997). Several different aspects of feedback have been identified in sales management, including valence, content, and contingency (Rich 1998). The valence of feedback—whether it is positive or negative—has been investigated by a number of researchers (Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Kohli and Jaworski 1994; Rich 1999; Srivastava, Strutton, and Pelton 2001). A subset of positive and negative feedback, coercive and nonpunitive feedback, has also been identified (DeCarlo and Leigh 1996). The content of feedback—whether it refers to salesperson outputs or behaviors—has also been studied (Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Kohli and Jaworski 1994).

Entity theorist sales managers are likely to interact with their salespeople differently than incremental theorist sales managers. Entity theorist sales managers would be more likely to use harsher discipline with poor performers and would be less likely to praise those who have performed well (Chiu et al. 1997). DeCarlo and Leigh (1996) found that the sales manager's dispositional attribution for a salesperson's poor performance was associated with increased coercive feedback.

Coercive feedback is feedback that threatens the salesperson with negative managerial attention (e.g., termination, salary deduction) in response to poor performance (DeCarlo and Leigh 1996). Since entity theorist sales managers are more likely than incremental theorist sales managers to make dispositional attributions, it could be expected that entity theorist sales managers would use more coercive feedback than would incremental theorist sales managers. As will be explained later in this chapter under the "Operationalization of the Variables" section, higher levels of implicit personality theory characterize incremental theorists while lower levels of implicit personality theory indicate entity theorists. The following hypothesis reflects this reasoning.

Hypothesis 1. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is negatively associated with coercive feedback.

When compared to incremental theorists, entity theorists have been found to recommend lower levels of praise for good performance (Chiu et al. 1997). Nonpunitive feedback is composed of supervisory behaviors such as counseling, mentoring, encouraging the salesperson, and spending individual time to help the

salesperson improve (DeCarlo and Leigh 1996). These supervisory behaviors enhance the salesperson's belief that he or she is a valued member of the sales organization since the time and effort involved would not otherwise be expended. Nonpunitive feedback can thus be viewed as a type of praise, reassurance, or reification of the salesperson's worth. Since Chiu et al. (1997) found that entity theorists were less likely to give praise than incremental theorists, entity theorist sales managers would be expected to use less nonpunitive feedback with their salespeople than would incremental theorist sales managers.

Path-goal theory (House 1996) would also suggest that entity theorist sales managers would give less nonpunitive feedback than incremental theorist sales managers. Feedback has subject matter as well as a valence (Jaworski and Kohli 1991). The incremental theorist sales manager, believing that basic sales skills are malleable, would offer constructive feedback on company products, competitive information, selling techniques, and account management. The entity theorist sales manager, believing selling skills are not malleable, would tend to offer feedback only on company products and competitive information. Expectancy theory (Vroom 1964) would predict that the entity sales manager, seeing little gain from offering feedback about selling techniques and account management, would minimize effort in this area. Since the entity theory sales manager would have less content to cover in nonpunitive feedback than would the incremental theorist sales manager, it is reasonable to expect that the entity theorist sales manager would actually give less nonpunitive feedback. The following hypothesis reflects this logic.

Hypothesis 2. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with nonpunitive feedback.

Sales Managers' Implicit Personality Theory and Leadership

Transformational leadership is leadership that aims for "higher order" improvement rather than just incremental change (Bass 1985). This higher order change involves changing the followers' attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors, which in turn works to change both the quality and quantity of the followers' performance. It can be viewed as being composed of four components:

1. Maintaining idealized influence over the follower;
2. Promoting inspirational motivation;
3. Providing intellectual stimulation; and
4. Engaging in individualized consideration of the follower (Bass and Avolio 1993).

Transformational sales managers tend to engage in motivational meetings, form one-to-one relationships with salespeople to better fill their individual needs, develop salespeople's abilities, and develop salespeople's intellectual capabilities (Shoemaker 1999). Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory views people as rationally motivated and unlikely to spend time and effort on work that they expect to be nonproductive. House's (1996) path-goal theory of leadership also views leaders as using their efforts to facilitate their subordinates' performance. Therefore, sales managers would be unlikely to spend much, if any, of their time and effort engaging in leadership behaviors that they believed would not improve their salespeople's performance.

According to expectancy and path-goal theory, then, entity theorist sales managers would be less likely to engage in leadership behaviors that would have little chance of improving their salespersons' performances. Since entity theorist sales managers would view selling ability as a relatively fixed, nonmalleable characteristic, they would be less likely to engage in intellectual stimulation and individual developmental activities toward their salespeople than would incremental theorist sales managers. As will be explained later in this chapter under the "Operationalization of the Variables" section, higher levels of implicit personality theory characterize incremental theorists while lower levels of implicit personality theory indicate entity theorists. The following hypothesis summarizes this discussion.

Hypothesis 3. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with transformational leadership.

Sales Managers' Implicit Personality Theory and Supervisory Control Orientations

Three key supervisory control orientations are identified in the sales literature (Challagalla and Shervani 1996; Challagalla, Shervani and Huber 2000; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998): capability, activity, and end-results. Expectancy theory (Vroom 1964) would predict that a sales manager would choose to use that supervisory control orientation that would be expected to provide the best sales results for the least effort.

A supervisor with a capability orientation identifies the skills and capabilities that the salesperson needs to possess, and monitors and evaluates

capability performance (Challagalla, Shervani, and Huber 2000). A supervisor with an activity orientation specifies the daily activities that are necessary for salesperson success, and subsequently monitors and evaluates the salesperson's compliance (Challagalla, Shervani, and Huber 2000). A supervisor with an end-results orientation sets end-result goals (e.g., sales volume) for the salesperson, and monitors and evaluates the salesperson's attainment of the goals (Challagalla, Shervani, and Huber 2000). These supervisory orientations are not mutually exclusive and sales managers may use more than one simultaneously (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998).

Sales Managers' Implicit
Personality Theory and
Supervisory Capability
Orientation

A sales manager with a supervisory capability control orientation helps the subordinate salespeople improve their selling skills [e.g., negotiating or making superior presentations] (Challagalla, Shervani, and Huber 2000). Since entity theorist sales managers believe selling abilities and skills to be fixed characteristics of the salesperson, expectancy theory (Vroom 1964) predicts that they would be less likely to use this supervisory orientation than would incremental theorist sales managers. Alternatively, since incremental theorist sales managers believe that selling skills are malleable, increasing salespeople's skills seems a logical, effective method of increasing sales force performance. Hence, incremental theorist sales managers, more than entity theorist sales managers, would be likely to use a supervisory capability orientation as a means of improving salesperson performance. As will be explained later in this chapter

under the “Operationalization of the Variables” section, higher levels of implicit personality theory characterize incremental theorists while lower levels of implicit personality theory indicate entity theorists. These observations lead to the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4. Sales managers’ implicit personality theory is positively associated with supervisory capability orientation.

Sales Managers’ Implicit
Personality Theory and
Supervisory Activity
Orientation

A sales manager with a supervisory activity control orientation monitors and evaluates the subordinate salesperson’s daily activities, with the understanding that the salesperson’s optimal performance is based on engaging in the appropriate activities (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Path-goal theory (House 1996) holds that the sales manager would be likely to engage in those activities that facilitate the salesperson’s improvement. Incremental theorist sales managers, to a greater extent than entity theorist sales managers, would be more inclined toward monitoring the day-to-day activities of the sales staff, with the intent of helping salespeople to improve their performance of the necessary activities. Since entity theorist sales managers believe that selling skills are not malleable, expectancy theory (Vroom 1964) predicts that they would not use valuable time and effort trying to monitor something that cannot be effectively changed. The following hypothesis summarizes this reasoning.

Hypothesis 5. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with supervisory activity orientation.

Sales Managers' Implicit
Personality Theory and
Supervisory End-Results
Orientation

A sales manager with a supervisory end-results control orientation monitors and evaluates the subordinate salesperson's outputs, such as sales performance, as opposed to their inputs. With an end-results orientation, goals are set and the salesperson is left to decide how those goals are to be achieved (Challagalla, Shervani, and Huber 2000). Implicit personality theory predicts that entity theorists are likely to prefer a performance goal orientation while incremental theorists are likely to prefer a learning goal orientation (Dweck and Leggett 1988). An entity theorist sales manager is thus likely to have a performance goal orientation, with the end result or outcome (not the effort or activity that led to it) serving as the measurement of the salesperson's competence (Dweck and Leggett 1988). Put another way, entity theorist sales managers would be more interested than incremental theorist sales managers in the end results themselves, rather than the means of attaining the performance results. This reasoning leads to the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 6. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is negatively associated with supervisory end-results.

Feedback and Organizational Justice

Organizational justice is composed of four components: (1) distributive justice, (2) procedural justice, (3) interpersonal justice, and (4) informational justice (Colquitt 2001). Subordinates' perceptions of distributive and procedural justice are system-referenced and depend heavily on the organization's systems rather than the immediate supervisor. Interpersonal and informational justices, however, are agent-referenced and depend heavily on the interaction with the immediate supervisor rather than an organization's systems (Colquitt et al. 2001).

To subordinates such as salespeople, interpersonal justice involves whether the sales manager treats them in a proper fashion—with respect, politeness, and dignity (Colquitt 2001). Since coercive feedback is interpreted as threatening and manipulative (DeCarlo and Leigh 1996), its use by a sales manager would not be likely to make the salesperson feel respected or otherwise treated in a proper manner.

The instrumental model of justice predicts that salespeople will view actions as fair when the actions contribute to the desired outcomes (Colquitt 2001). Threats and manipulation would not be the salespeople's desired outcomes, so threats and manipulation would be likely to be viewed as unjust. The following hypothesis reflects this reasoning.

Hypothesis 7. Sales managers who provide higher levels of coercive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing lower levels of interpersonal justice.

Informational justice addresses the adequacy of information provided by the organization to the individual. This adequacy includes its completeness, timeliness, and candidness (Colquitt 2001). The immediate supervisor is most often assigned the role as the organization's informational conduit to the employee. This is particularly the case in sales organizations. Thus, informational justice is more likely to be agent-referenced than system-referenced, particularly in sales organizations (Colquitt et al. 2001). Coercive feedback stresses potential punishments rather than providing a situational analysis or suggestions for improvement. It omits the completeness, timeliness and candidness inherent in informational justice. Social identity theory (Luhtanen and Crocker 1992) suggests that low informational justice gives a sense of exclusion and hence a perception of unfairness. Salespeople receiving coercive feedback are likely to share these perceptions. The following hypothesis is based on this line of reasoning.

Hypothesis 8. Sales managers who provide higher levels of coercive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing lower levels of informational justice.

Social exchange theory views interpersonal interactions as cost-benefit exchanges involving actions, cognitions, and affect of the parties. These exchanges, however, have no *quid pro quo*, as the exchange is tacit rather than explicit (Blau 1964). The exchanges envisioned by this theory assume an underlying trust in the exchange partner as well as a belief in the intention of the partner to reciprocate.

Nonpunitive feedback includes the sales manager's discussion of specific problems on a one-on-one, interpersonal basis, and the counseling and encouraging of the salesperson (DeCarlo and Leigh 1996). This individualized interaction gives the salesperson an opportunity for discussions with the sales manager. This ability to express one's views is termed 'voice' in the organizational justice literature, and has been associated with perceptions of greater procedural justice (Bies and Moag 1986; Greenberg 1990; Tyler 1986).

Nonpunitive feedback provides personalized attention that helps define the salesperson's role and implies that s/he is valued by the organization and the sales manager. The increased involvement and respect that the sales manager displays toward the salesperson increases the perception of interpersonal justice (Colquitt et al. 2001). Nonpunitive feedback, then, contributes to the salesperson's self-esteem and social identity. Social exchange theory (Blau 1964) predicts that this increase in self-esteem and social identity would lead to (or be exchanged for) positive cognitions and affect. The positive cognitions and affect generated by this social exchange should strengthen associated variables (Seligman 1990; Seligman and Schulman 1986) including the interpretation of opportunity for voice by the salesperson. This reasoning leads to the next hypothesis.

Hypothesis 9. Sales managers who provide higher levels of nonpunitive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing higher levels of interpersonal justice.

Since nonpunitive feedback includes discussion and counseling, it obviously includes personal communication between the sales manager and the salesperson. Because of its one-to-one nature, this feedback is likely to be tailored to the individual salesperson. To be interpreted as nonpunitive rather than coercive, it is likely that this feedback would be viewed as more helpful, realistic, and comprehensive (DeCarlo and Leigh 1996). These characteristics are congruent with the completeness, timeliness, and candidness characteristics of informational justice. Social identity theory (Luhtanen and Crocker 1992) suggests that the inclusiveness of nonpunitive feedback would lead to greater judgments by the salesperson of fairness. This reasoning leads to the next hypothesis.

Hypothesis 10. Sales managers who provide higher levels of nonpunitive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing higher levels of informational justice.

Transformational Leadership and Organizational Justice

Transformational leadership is composed of four components: (1) maintaining idealized influence over the follower, (2) promoting inspirational motivation, (3) providing intellectual stimulation, and (4) engaging in individualized consideration of the follower (Bass and Avolio (1993). Transformational leadership has been associated with higher levels of effort, performance, satisfaction, innovation, risk-taking, and creativity (Avolio and Howell 1992; Bass 1998; Dubinsky et al. 1995). Research has also found transformational leadership to be positively associated with procedural justice

when procedural justice is broadly defined to include interpersonal, informational, and procedural justice (Pillai, Scandura, and Williams 1999; Pillai, Schriesheim, and Williams 1999). When the manager provides transformational leadership, there is empirical evidence indicating that followers respond with enhanced performance and satisfaction (Bass 1985; Podsakoff et al. 1990).

According to social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1979), individuals use appropriate, relevant categories to determine and differentiate their own self-referenced identity from other people's identities. Since individuals desire a positive self-image, social comparisons between their own groups and other relevant groups are biased so as to differentiate their own groups in a positive way. Social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1979) predicts that the salesperson will tend to identify with, and increase commitment to, the sales manager who displays transformational leadership. The sales manager who is high in transformational leadership will provide a vision of the organization's goals (Bass 1985) as well as individualized consideration for the salesperson. The positive bias predicted by social identity theory should augment the salesperson's belief in the fairness of the goals and of the sales manager, thus increasing the perceptions of organizational justice.

Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) state that "...authentic transformational leadership fosters the modal values of honesty, loyalty, and fairness, as well as the end values of justice, equality, and human rights" (p. 192). Hence, it is plausible that transformational leadership is associated with organizational justice, since variables that the manager provides to the salesperson through

individualized consideration—support, attention, socialization, and communication—are also components of organizational justice.

Interpersonal justice refers to the extent to which the authority figure treats the subordinate with dignity and respect, in a polite manner, without making inappropriate comments or remarks (Colquitt 2001). Because of the inspirational motivation and individual consideration given by the authority figure, the salesperson is likely to feel that the sales manager's treatment is dignified, respectful, and polite, the hallmarks of interpersonal justice.

Informational justice refers to the extent to which the authority figure communicates to the subordinate candidly, thoroughly, reasonably, and in a timely manner about organizational matters (Colquitt 2001). Again, because of the individualized consideration provided by the transformational sales manager to the salesperson, the salesperson is likely to perceive the sales manager-salesperson communication as candid, thorough, reasonable, and timely. Therefore, the following hypotheses are offered.

Hypothesis 11. Higher levels of sales manager transformational leadership are positively associated with interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 12. Higher levels of sales manager transformational leadership are positively associated with informational justice.

Transformational Leadership and Satisfaction with the Manager

Job satisfaction is the positive emotional state that results from one's job experiences (Brown and Peterson 1993). Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1974) recognized that job satisfaction could be viewed as one's affective state

regarding “several job facets, including the supervisor, the work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, and coworkers” (Brown and Peterson 1993, p. 64). Satisfaction with the sales manager is thus a distinct component of the job satisfaction construct.

Path-goal theory predicts that when leaders help followers to lower their task ambiguity or involve subordinates in decision-making, subordinate satisfaction will increase (House 1996). The transformational leadership components of individualized consideration and inspirational motivation involve followers in decision-making, while individual consideration affords the opportunity to lessen task ambiguity. Indeed, several empirical studies in the sales area have also shown that transformational leadership is positively related to subordinate satisfaction (Dubinsky et al. 1995; Podsakoff et al. 1990; Russ, McNeilly, and Comer 1996). Hence, the following hypothesis is forwarded.

Hypothesis 13. Higher levels of sales manager transformational leadership are positively associated with salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager.

Supervisory Control Orientation and Satisfaction with the Sales Manager

Three different supervisory control orientations have been identified: end-results orientation (an output-focused control orientation), and two behavior-based control orientations—activity and capability (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). A supervisory end-results orientation places the emphasis on outcomes (such as amount of sales), while a supervisory activity orientation focuses on the day-to-day activities that are believed to lead to sales. A

supervisory capability orientation encourages actions that will lead to greater skills and abilities in the sales staff. These supervisory control orientations are not mutually exclusive, as “a supervisor might favor one particular orientation, some combination of two, or all three orientations simultaneously” (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998, p. 264).

Attribution theory (Jones and Davis 1965; Kelley 1967) suggests that when salespeople find a manager’s supervisory control orientation to be helpful to their performance, they would attribute this to the sales manager being a helpful person rather than to situational factors. This attribution would lead to salespeople’s concluding that the sales manager wishes to see them succeed, and will lead to a higher level of satisfaction than if they find the sales manager’s supervisory control orientation not helpful.

Path-goal theory (House 1996) predicts that the more the salesperson perceives the sales manager’s communication as: (1) clarifying the role expectations of the salesperson, and (2) establishing and maintaining a friendly, supportive relationship considerate of the salesperson’s needs, the higher will be the satisfaction of the salesperson with that sales manager. Hence, if the salesperson perceives the control system as lessening role ambiguity or improving the interpersonal relationship between the salesperson and the sales manager, the salesperson’s satisfaction with the sales manager should be higher than if the salesperson did not perceive the control system as helpful in these ways.

Supervisory End-Results Orientation

With a supervisory end-results orientation, a manager emphasizes the importance of end-results while leaving the means for attaining these results up to the individual salesperson (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). If the salesperson has a clear vision of how the job is to be performed, this may seem empowering, since the manager allows the salesperson to do things in his or her own way. The sales manager would be viewed as being helpful merely by 'staying out of the salesperson's way.' For the more self-efficacious salesperson, this would be more satisfying than having close supervisory control that might seem to be unnecessarily "irksome ... and ... bothersome" (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998, p. 266).

If the salesperson does not have a clear vision of how to achieve the end results expected by the sales manager, however, the supervisory end-results control orientation can lead to salesperson frustration. Although the salesperson knows what is expected, s/he does not have a clear idea of how to accomplish it. Path-goal theory would predict that less self-efficacious salespeople would consider the supervisory end-results orientation as providing little guidance and, therefore, congruent with path-goal theory, as not helpful, thus reducing their satisfaction with the sales manager (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Hence, both attribution theory and path-goal theory would predict that more self-efficacious salespeople would prefer the supervisory end-results orientation to a greater degree than would less self-efficacious salespeople. The following hypothesis is offered.

Hypothesis 14. A supervisory end-results orientation and salesperson self-efficacy influence salesperson satisfaction with the manager through their interaction effect. A supervisory end-results orientation with a salesperson high in self-efficacy results in greater satisfaction with the sales manager compared to that of a salesperson low in self-efficacy.

Supervisory Activity Orientation

Sales managers with an activity orientation direct and monitor day-to-day salesperson behavior. Salespeople high in self-efficacy tend to dislike this type of supervision since their sales managers are emphasizing activities—mundane or otherwise—rather than more important selling activities (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Salespeople who are high in self-efficacy are likely to be aware of the activities that will lead them to sales success. Further, they are likely to see this type of supervision as creating extra work (e.g., writing sales reports) that is not related to their sales production. As a result, they are likely to have low satisfaction with this type of supervision (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Path-goal theory suggests that since salespeople who are high in self-efficacy view this control system as not helpful to their performance, they will have lower satisfaction with the sales manager than if they perceived this control system as helpful. Since the salesperson high in self-efficacy would also be likely to attribute the sales manager's lack of helpfulness to a dispositional trait of the sales manager, attribution theory would also predict that salespeople high in self-efficacy would have lower satisfaction with the sales manager than if they perceived this control system as helpful to their performance.

Salespeople who lack self-efficacy may be unsure of which activities are necessary to achieve their sales goals and may prefer the close supervision and closely directed activities that the supervisory activity orientation involves. Path-goal theory would predict that since they are unsure of which activities are necessary for success, a sales manager's supervisory activity orientation may be viewed as helpful (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Since the salesperson low in self-efficacy would be likely to attribute the sales manager's helpfulness to a dispositional trait of the sales manager, attribution theory would predict that salespeople low in self-efficacy would have higher satisfaction with the sales manager than if they perceived this control system as unhelpful to their performance.

Furthermore, salespeople high in self-efficacy would be more likely than those low in self-efficacy to attribute their performance to their own ability and effort. Salespeople low in self-efficacy would be more likely than those with high self-efficacy to attribute their performance to the activities suggested or required by their sales managers. Attribution theory, then, would predict that those salespeople low in self-efficacy would have a higher satisfaction with supervisory activity orientation than would salespeople with high self-efficacy.

Salespeople high in self-efficacy, then, would not view a supervisory activity orientation as helpful in attaining their sales goals, while those low in self-efficacy would view this orientation in a positive light. Hence, path-goal theory would predict that less self-efficacious salespeople would prefer the supervisory

activity orientation to a greater degree than would more self-efficacious salespeople. This leads to the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 15. A supervisory activity orientation and salesperson self-efficacy influence salesperson satisfaction with the manager through their interaction effect. A supervisory activity orientation with a salesperson high in self-efficacy results in lower satisfaction with the sales manager compared to that of a salesperson low in self-efficacy.

Supervisory Capability Orientation

Sales managers with a supervisory capability orientation act as mentors or coaches who emphasize the development of salesperson skills and competencies. This tends to increase the salesperson's procedural knowledge, interest in the task, and intrinsic motivation (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998; Tyagi 1989).

Salespeople with high self-efficacy are likely to believe that they already have the capabilities and procedural knowledge necessary to accomplish their sales goals (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Salespeople with low self-efficacy, on the other hand, are more likely to welcome the sales manager's supervisory capability orientation. Since they are unsure of which activities and capabilities lead to success and goal attainment, they see coaching, mentoring, and training as helpful parts to their careers (Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998). Path-goal theory predicts that since the sales managers' activities consistent with a supervisory capability orientation are viewed as more helpful by salespeople low in self-efficacy than by salespeople high in self-efficacy, salespeople low in self-efficacy would have a higher level of satisfaction with a

sales manager higher in supervisory capability orientation. The value that the low self-efficacy salesperson receives from this supervisory orientation should directly lead to satisfaction with the sales manager.

Salespeople high in self-efficacy are more likely to attribute their level of performance to their own ability and efforts, while those low in self-efficacy would attribute a larger portion of the reason for their performance to the coaching, mentoring, and training that sales managers provide as an integral part of the supervisory capability orientation. Further, salespeople low in self-efficacy would be likely to make a dispositional attribution that the sales manager was a helpful person, while salespeople high in self-efficacy would not. Hence, attribution theory also predicts that salespeople low in self-efficacy would have a higher satisfaction with a sales manager who displayed a supervisory capability orientation than would salespeople high in self-efficacy.

Hence, both attribution theory and path-goal theory would predict that less self-efficacious salespeople would prefer the supervisory capability orientation to a greater degree than would more self-efficacious salespeople. The following hypothesis reflects this logic.

Hypothesis 16. The supervisory capability orientation and salesperson self-efficacy influence salesperson satisfaction with the manager through their interaction effect. A supervisory capability orientation with a salesperson high in self-efficacy results in lower satisfaction with the sales manager compared to that of a salesperson low in self-efficacy.

Organizational Justice and Satisfaction with the Sales Manager

Colquitt (2001) views organizational justice as composed of four separate components—distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice. Further, while distributive justice and procedural justice tend to be system-reference, both interpersonal justice and informational justice are agent-referenced. Within the salesperson-sales manager relationship, the sales manager is the agent of interest, so the level of both interpersonal justice and informational justice should affect the salesperson's perception of the sales manager. Indeed, Colquitt et al. (2001), in a meta-analysis of 183 previous studies found interpersonal justice associated with agent-referenced evaluation of authority and individual-referenced organizational citizenship behaviors, while informational justice was associated with these same two variables. Both interpersonal and informational justice made unique, significant contributions to the total r^2 of agent-referenced evaluation of authority and individual-referenced organizational citizenship behavior (Colquitt et al. 2001).

Interpersonal Justice

In a sales setting involving the salesperson and the sales manager, interpersonal justice would reflect the degree to which the sales manager treats the salesperson with respect and dignity, politely, and without making improper remarks (Colquitt 2001). Social exchange theory (Blau 1964) predicts that a sales manager's provision of dignity, respect, politeness, and refraining from inappropriate comments would be reciprocated by the salesperson. This reciprocation could take several forms, with higher levels of interpersonal justice

leading to higher levels of helping the sales manager through increased organizational citizenship behavior, more trust, more loyalty, and/or higher satisfaction with the sales manager.

Attribution theory (Jones and Davis 1965; Kelley 1967) predicts that salespeople will look for the causes of their sales managers' behavior. Attribution theory's fundamental attribution error (Harvey and McGlynn 1982; Harvey, Town, and Yarkin 1981; Jones and Davis 1965; Kelley 1967; Miller and Ross 1975; Quattrone 1982) predicts that salespeople will tend toward dispositionalism—attributing the causes of the sales managers' behavior to the character of the sales manager rather than to any situational or organizational influences. Hence, when the sales manager's actions provide a high level of interpersonal justice, the salesperson will view this as proof of the sales manager's inherent character. Higher levels of interpersonal justice should be reciprocated with higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior, trust, loyalty, and satisfaction with the sales manager. This discussion, supported by both social exchange theory and attribution theory, leads to the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 17. Higher levels of interpersonal justice are positively associated with salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager.

Informational Justice

In a sales setting involving the salesperson and the sales manager, informational justice reflects the degree to which the sales manager is honest and thorough in justifying managerial actions (Colquitt 2001). Social exchange

theory (Blau 1964) predicts that a sales manager's provision of honesty and thoroughness would be reciprocated by the salesperson. High levels of informational justice would be likely to be interpreted by the salesperson as reflecting the sales manager's personal integrity and opinion of the importance of the individual salesperson. Reciprocation could take several forms, with higher levels of informational justice leading to increased organizational citizenship behavior, more trust, more loyalty, and/or higher satisfaction with the sales manager.

Attribution theory's fundamental attribution error (Harvey and McGlynn 1982; Harvey, Town, and Yarkin 1981; Jones and Davis 1965; Kelley 1967; Miller and Ross 1975; Quattrone 1982) predicts that salespeople will tend toward dispositionalism—attributing the causes of the sales managers' behavior to the character of the sales manager rather than to any situational or organizational influences. When sales manager's actions provide a high level of informational justice, the salesperson will view this as being due to the sales manager him/herself and not to situational or organizational factors. Higher levels of informational justice should be reciprocated with higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior, trust, loyalty, and satisfaction with the sales manager. Predictions from both social exchange theory and attribution theory lead to the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 18. Higher levels of informational justice are positively associated with salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager.

Operationalization of the Variables

The following discussion will define and describe the scales to be used for each of the variables identified in the preceding hypotheses. These variables are all measured using multi-item scales that have been used in previous research. Table 3 provides brief definitions of each of the dependent and independent variables. Further, items for each of the scales discussed in this chapter are included in Appendix C.

Table 3.1. Definitions of variables

Variable	Definition
Implicit Personality Theory	A core assumption of a person's worldview that determines what an individual believes about the malleability of personality characteristics (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995).
Coercive Feedback	Coerciveness or punitiveness of feedback (DeCarlo and Leigh 1996).
Transformational leadership	Leadership that increases the follower's productivity by inspiring, stimulating creativity, encouraging enthusiasm and optimism, and providing mentoring and role modeling (Bass 1985, Bass 1997).
Organizational justice	The fairness (Konovsky 2000) and justice (Greenberg 1990) value within an organization.
Supervisory control system orientation	The focus of a set of procedures for monitoring, directing, evaluating, and compensating organizational employees (Anderson and Oliver 1987).
Satisfaction with the sales manager	Characteristics of the relationship with the sales manager which salespeople find rewarding, fulfilling, and satisfying, or frustrating and unsatisfying (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1974).
Self-efficacy	One's opinion of his/her ability to produce actions necessary to achieving desired outcomes (Bandura 1986).

Implicit Personality Theory

According to Dweck, Chiu, and Hong (1995) and Dweck and Leggett (1988), implicit personality theories are specific to the personality characteristic of interest to the research. Although no measure has been specifically designed for sales ability, Silver (2000) has successfully reworded and adapted the intelligence scale (Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995) for such use.

Silver (2000) also argued for using the social skills scale developed by implicit personality theory researchers (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995) since selling is inherently a social skill. An incrementalist would be one who believes that selling ability can be developed, while an entity theorist would believe that an individual's selling ability is a stable, unchangeable characteristic.

Psychometric Properties. The implicit personality theory of the respondents' sales managers was measured using a previously developed scale. This scale was the implicit personality scale for the social domain (Dweck and Bempechat 1983; Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995; Dweck, Hong, and Chiu 1993; Elliott and Dweck 1988; Erdley and Dweck 1993), as adapted by Silver (2000) for the selling skills domain. Salespeople were asked to assess their sales manager's implicit personality theory on a three-item Likert-type scale. Responses ranged from "1 = very strongly disagree" to "6 = very strongly agree." The implicit personality theory score for each respondent's sales manager was calculated by averaging the three scale items, with high scores indicating an incremental theorist and low scores indicating an entity theorist.

Reliability. In a previous study (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995), the test-retest reliability of the social and intelligence implicit personality theory scales was assessed. After a two-week interval, the correlation between the first and second administration was .82 for the social implicit personality scale, and .80 for the intelligence implicit personality scale. Dweck, Chiu, and Hong (1995) also report the coefficient alpha values for five administrations of the social implicit personality scale (coefficients alpha ranged from .90 to .96) and seven administrations of the intelligence implicit personality scale (coefficients alpha ranged from .94 to .98). Silver (2000) found the selling skills implicit personality scale to be unidimensional and reported a coefficient alpha of .88. These values exceed the .70 value recommended by Nunnally (1978) for exploratory research.

Validity. In a series of studies, Dweck, Chiu, and Hong (1995) found implicit personality theories uncorrelated to the demographic, attitudinal, or dispositional factors they studied. Specifically, they found no significant correlations with gender, age, political affiliation, self-monitoring, social desirability, Scholastic Aptitude Test scores, confidence in intellectual ability, self-esteem, confidence in other people's morality, or confidence in the world. Further, implicit personality theory was found uncorrelated with the political attitudes of right-wing authoritarianism, political conservatism, and political liberalism.

When administering their three implicit personality theory scales (social, intelligence, and morality) simultaneously, five separate factor analyses established that each of these scales was unidimensional with its items loading

separately on the three appropriate scales. Since these scales are unidimensional and unrelated to other demographic, attitudinal, and dispositional measures, sufficient evidence exists to accept the construct validity of implicit personality theory.

Coercive and Nonpunitive Feedback

The coercive feedback and nonpunitive feedback scales were developed and used by DeCarlo and Leigh (1996). Respondents were asked to report the likelihood of several possible sales manager reactions to their poor sales performance. The coercive scale contains six items while the nonpunitive scale contains three items. Each of these scales used a seven-point Likert-type scale anchored by "1 = strongly disagree" and "7 = strongly agree." Coercive feedback was then measured by averaging the responses to the six items, while nonpunitive feedback scores averaged the three appropriate items.

Psychometric Properties of the Coercive and Nonpunitive Feedback Scales. The coercive and nonpunitive feedback scales were developed specifically for DeCarlo and Leigh's (1996) study. Procedures were instituted to assess the unidimensionality, reliability, and validity of these and other original scales used in that study. First, these scale was factor-analyzed to assure unidimensionality and weak loading items (those with loadings under .3) were deleted. Second, confirmatory factor analysis procedures (LISREL 7.16) were used to establish the dimensionality and discriminant validity of the final set of items in the feedback item set. Finally, the internal consistency of these scales was established using Cronbach's alpha. DeCarlo and Leigh (1996) reported a

coefficient alpha of .80 for the coercive feedback scale and .71 for the nonpunitive feedback scale. These coefficient alpha scores exceed the .70 standard recommended by Nunnally (1978) for exploratory research.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership was measured using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire© (MLQ) by Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1995). This scale has been widely used in academic research and has exhibited sufficiently high levels of reliability and validity.

Organizational Justice

Although there has been some controversy through the years over whether to view organizational justice as a one, two, three, or four factor concept, confirmatory factor analysis of two studies with Colquitt's 20-item scale shows that four factors provide the best solution when compared to a one, two, or three factor solution.

Psychometric Properties of the Organizational Justice Scales.

Organizational justice was measured using Colquitt's (2001) 4-item interpersonal justice scale and his 5-item informational justice scale. All items were measured using a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by "1 = strongly disagree" and "5 = strongly agree." Items for these organizational justice scales are included in Appendix A. To arrive at a score for interpersonal, and informational justices, an average of the items for each type of organizational justice was computed, respectively.

Reliability. Colquitt (2001) assessed the internal consistency of the organizational justice scales with Cronbach's alpha. The 4-item interpersonal justice scale had coefficient alphas of .79 and .92 for two studies, the first with university students and the second with employees in an auto parts manufacturing facility. The coefficient alphas for the 5-item informational scale were .79 and .90, respectively. No other use of these scales has yet been reported in the literature. These coefficient alpha levels are well above the .70 recommended by Nunnally (1978) for exploratory research.

Validity. Generating the organizational justice items from the seminal works in this field helped to assure construct validity (Colquitt 2001). Further, predictive validity is a necessary part of content validity (Nunnally 1978), and this was tested in the two studies conducted by Colquitt (2001) in an educational and an industrial setting. In accordance with the organizational justice literature, Colquitt (2001) established variables that should be uniquely associated with one type of organizational justice rather than others.

For the study in an educational setting, Colquitt hypothesized that distributive justice would be associated with outcome satisfaction, procedural justice would be associated with rule compliance, interpersonal justice would be associated with leader evaluation, and informational justice would be associated with collective esteem. Each of these hypotheses was supported by the study. For the study in the industrial setting, Colquitt hypothesized that distributive justice would be associated with instrumentality, procedural justice would be associated with group commitment, interpersonal justice would be associated

with helping behavior, and informational justice would be associated with collective esteem. Again, each of these hypotheses was supported by the study. Evidence for the predictive ability of Colquitt's (2001) organizational justice scales was thus produced, providing evidence for construct validity.

Supervisory Control System Orientation

Supervisory control systems have been categorized into three types—end-results, activity, and capability (Challagalla and Shervani 1996). These control system differentiations are based on the extent to which the control system monitors and rewards the specific salesperson outputs, or the behaviors that go into producing those outputs. The supervisory control system orientation was measured using a 14-item, 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by “1 = strongly disagree” and “7 = strongly agree” (Challagalla and Shervani 1996).

Psychometric Properties of the Supervisory Control System Orientation Scale. This scale has three factors, measuring end-results, activity, and capability control orientations.

Reliability. The alpha coefficients reported by Challagalla and Shervani (1996) were .87, .89, and .90, respectively, for the end-results, activity, and capability scales. These same scales were used by Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla (1998) and had coefficient alphas of .88, .87, and .86, respectively, using a 5-point Likert-type scoring format anchored by “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree.” Silver (2000) also used these scales, and reported alpha coefficients of .94, .96, and .92, respectively.

Validity. Convergent validity was indicated since the path coefficients from latent constructs to their manifest indicators were statistically significant. Further, pairwise latent-trait correlations showed the constructs significantly different from one another providing evidence for discriminant validity (Challagalla and Shervani 1996; Kohli, Shervani, and Challagalla 1998).

Satisfaction with the Sales Manager

The instrument used to measure the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager was a nine-item scale adapted from the work of Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1974) and Childers, Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1980) who developed scales specifically for measuring salesperson satisfaction. Four of these items were recommended by Comer, Machleit, and Lagace (1989), and the other five were used by Jaworski and Kohli (1991). The original Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1974) scale contained 95 items which were organized into seven components of job satisfaction—satisfaction with the job, fellow workers, supervision, company policy and support, pay, promotion and advancement, and customers. The supervision component contained 16 items. In search of a more parsimonious scale, the Childers et al. (1980) study reduced this scale to 61-items without losing the seven-factor structure or compromising reliability. In Childer et al.'s (1980) study, supervision was reduced to ten items. Comer, Machleit, and Lagace (1989) further reduced this salesperson's job satisfaction scale to 28-items, of which four related to supervision, while maintaining the seven-factor structure and the measure's reliability.

Respondents self-reported their satisfaction with the sales manager on a five-point Likert-type scale anchored by “1 = strongly disagree” and “7 = strongly agree.” The four items were averaged to create a satisfaction with sales manager score.

Psychometric Properties of the Satisfaction with the Sales Manager Scale.

Reliability. Comer, Machleit, and Lagace (1989) reported a coefficient alpha for the satisfaction with the sales manager scale of .85, while Jaworski and Kohli (1991) reported a coefficient alpha of .89. Both of these research studies exceed the .70 recommended by Nunnally (1978) for exploratory research.

Validity. Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1974) addressed the validity of the 95-item version of the salesperson's job satisfaction scale that included 16 items concerning satisfaction with the sales manager. Their first step was to establish a large set of items by open-ended interviews with representative salespeople. This helped to establish the domain of the salesperson job satisfaction concept. Their next step was to determine the internal consistency of their items. The high coefficient alpha values achieved in their study strongly suggest that the items included in the scale all relate to the same underlying construct. They then tested whether this scale showed the relationship with other variables that is predicted by theory. They investigated actual turnover—whether salespeople who had recently quit their jobs had lower job satisfaction scores than salespeople who did not quit. Although the difference between the two groups was in the right direction, it was not statistically significant ($p < .28$). Churchill,

Ford, and Walker (1974) concluded that there was enough evidence to treat this instrument as valid.

Comer, Machleit, and Lagace (1989) tested the nomological validity of the 28-item salesperson job satisfaction scale that includes the 4-item satisfaction with the sales manager scale used in this study. This requires that the results generated with this scale be consistent with both theory and previous research. For comparison, they used four variables that have been found to have relationships with salesperson job satisfaction—role ambiguity, power, closeness of supervision, and propensity to leave the job. Comer, Machleit, and Lagace (1989) found that their scale as a whole, as well as the satisfaction with supervision scale, had statistically significant relationships with all of these variables as predicted, and supporting the scale's nomological validity.

Self-Efficacy

The self-efficacy scale has seven items and was developed by Sherer et al. (1982). Self-efficacy was measured by asking respondents to rate their self-efficacy in accomplishing tasks related to their jobs using a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by "1 = strongly disagree" and "7 = strongly agree" (Sherer et al. 1982). The seven items were then averaged to create a self-efficacy score for the respondent.

Psychometric Properties of the Self-Efficacy Scale.

Reliability. Sherer et al. (1982) reported a coefficient alpha of .86 for this scale. Other studies have reported coefficient alpha scores of .76, .86, .86, and .74 (Eden and Zuk 1995; Gardner and Pierce 1998; Riggs et al. 1994; Woodruff

and Cashman 1993). In a study with a sample frame similar to the current one, Silver (2000) found the scale to be unidimensional after removing two items. It achieved a coefficient alpha of .76. Each of these alpha coefficients is above the .70 threshold recommended by Nunnally (1978) for exploratory research.

Validity. Construct validity for self-efficacy was assessed by correlating the self-efficacy scale with measures of other personality variables that were predicted to have relationships with the self-efficacy construct. These other variables were ego strength, internal/external control, and social desirability. The predicted relationships were found, providing evidence to support the construct validity of the self-efficacy scale (Sherer et al. 1982). Similar results were reported by Woodruff and Cashman (1993) with other personality variables.

Nunnally (1978) stated that evidence for validity could also be provided if the measure had predictive power. Sherer et al. (1982) found a relationship between self-efficacy and past performance, while Woodruff and Cashman (1993) found a relationship between self-efficacy and ambitious goals and performance. Both of these studies, then, add further evidence of the criterion validity of the self-efficacy scale.

Research Design

A questionnaire was created by combining the previously discussed scales with questions to ascertain demographic information about the respondents. These questionnaires were sent to a random sample of approximately 2,000 life insurance agents who are licensed in the United States. A second mailing was sent to the same sample approximately two weeks after

the first one. A third mailing was also sent approximately ten days after the second one to the same sample. This allowed a comparison of the respondents of the first, second and third mailings to ascertain if there were differences in the respondents that might indicate the existence of response bias (Armstrong and Overton 1977).

Statistical Methodology

The hypotheses were tested using several different statistical techniques. As presented in Chapter IV, factor analysis, hierarchical regression, and moderated regression were used to test the measured variables and the various hypotheses, as appropriate.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of this research study. There are four sections to this chapter, with the first addressing the data collection method and the issue of nonresponse error. The second section describes the demographic characteristics of the sample, while the third section presents descriptive statistics for each of the variables included in this study. Finally, the fourth section provides evidence for each of the eighteen hypotheses tested in this study.

Data Collection

The sampling frame for this study was a subset of the 39,321 life insurance salespeople in the United States who are subscribers of *Life Insurance Selling* magazine. From the subscriber list, a sample frame was selected with two additional criteria: (1) the respondent had to have been self-identified as a "Life/Health Insurance Agent/Broker," and (2) the respondent had to have self-reported paid personal life insurance production in excess of \$2,000,000. From this sample frame, a list of two thousand names was randomly selected. The questionnaire was sent to each name on this list three times, with approximately ten days between mailings. Each of the mailing pieces contained a blank survey

form (see Appendix A), a postage-paid reply envelope, and a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research study (see Appendix B). From these three mailings, a total of 170 respondents returned questionnaires, 153 of which were found to be usable for this study. Eighty-five usable responses derived from the first wave, while 40 came from the second, and 28 from the third. Respondents resided in 49 of the 50 states in the United States. In addition, 121 addressees responded that they were not qualified for the study since they were self-employed and had no sales manager. Further, of the original 2,000 names on the mailing list, four were mailing list owner "seeds," and fifty-eight were undeliverable. Thus the net number of survey packages sent for each of the three waves was 1,938. According to the formula recommended by Churchill (1995, p. 664), the response rate was computed to be 15.02 percent (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1. Response rate calculations

CQ	=	Completed questionnaires	
NC	=	Not completed or refused questionnaires	
IN	=	Ineligible respondents	
		CQ	= Response Rate
		<hr/>	
CQ	+	[CQ/(CQ+IN)] [NC]	
Completed questionnaires		170	
Not completed or refused		1,647	
Ineligible		121	
		170	= 15.02%
		<hr/>	
170	+	[170 / (170+121)] [1647]	

Nonresponse Error

Nonresponse error is the failure to obtain information from some of the population members that have been selected to be in the sample (Churchill 1995). Although the response rate of 15.02 percent indicates the potential of nonresponse error, response rate is not the most critical aspect in survey research (Hunt 1990). Response rate alone should not be used to assume the presence of unacceptable nonresponse error unless there are good reasons to believe that nonrespondents are, indeed, different from respondents (Hunt 1990). Armstrong and Overton (1977) also agree that there is no reason to assume negative affects from nonresponse unless there are expectations of bias. No expectations of nonresponse bias were presumed for this study.

To determine the presence of differences based on nonresponse bias, Churchill (1995) recommends comparing the first and last mailings of a mailed survey to determine if there is a trend in the data that should be extrapolated to the nonrespondents. A t-test analysis was performed on the conceptual variables of interest as well as several key demographic variables to determine if there were differences between respondents in the first and third waves of the survey mailing. Table 4.2 summarizes the results of that analysis.

Of the sixteen comparisons made, there were no significant differences between the respondents on demographic variables, and only two of the study variables showed a significant difference between the first and third waves, control system-end results and control system-activity. Thus, it was concluded that nonresponse bias was not a serious problem.

Table 4.2. Comparison of early and late respondents on selected variables.

Variable	Wave	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-value (p-value)
Respondent Age	1	51.91	11.28	-1.028
	3	54.52	10.15	(0.306)
Respondent Education	1	3.87	.81	-0.305
	3	3.92	.64	(0.761)
Respondent Income	1	7.98	2.40	-0.044
	3	8.00	2.74	(0.965)
Commission as a Percent of Income	1	94.50	14.75	1.276
	3	89.54	22.14	(0.205)
Respondent Performance	1	5.108	.8736	-0.539
	3	5.219	1.085	(0.591)
Organizational Justice—Interpersonal	1	5.629	1.694	-0.387
	3	5.768	1.472	(0.700)
Organizational Justice—Informational	1	4.700	1.696	-0.537
	3	4.900	1.788	(0.592)
Transformational Leadership	1	3.417	.9783	-0.649
	3	3.554	.9471	(0.518)
Control System—End Results	1	4.597	1.781	-2.190
	3	5.420	1.532	(0.031)
Control System—Activity	1	3.579	1.829	-2.829
	3	4.714	1.882	(0.006)
Control System—Capability	1	3.339	1.902	-1.855
	3	4.141	2.127	(0.066)
Feedback—Coercive	1	2.240	1.285	-0.349
	3	2.337	1.165	(0.727)
Feedback-Nonpunitive	1	4.959	1.755	-.234
	3	5.048	1.711	(0.816)
Satisfaction With the Sales Manager	1	4.680	1.695	-1.003
	3	5.057	1.821	(0.318)
Self-Efficacy	1	5.952	.7756	0.345
	3	5.893	.8373	(0.731)
Sales Manager Implicit Personality Theory	1	4.373	1.360	-0.220
	3	4.441	1.569	(0.826)

Characteristics of the Sample

Several demographic variables as well as selected characteristics of the working environment are reported for this study's respondents in Table 4.3. The mean age of the respondents was 52.16 years while the median age was 53

years. A large majority of the respondents were married (86.7 percent) and male (92.6 percent), percentages that closely reflect the U. S. insurance industry as a whole (Life Insurance Marketing and Research Association 1998). Over two-thirds of the respondents (68.5 percent) had attained at least a bachelor's degree. Most respondents had considerable experience in life insurance selling, with 72.3 percent reporting that they had ten or more years of such experience.

Respondents were also asked to report on the environments in which they worked. The mean number of hours worked per week was 42.9, while the median number of hours worked was 45. Over half of the respondents (52.4 percent) reported that they were "captive" agents, that is, agents who sell for only one insurance company. The other 47.6 percent worked for independent agencies that might represent several different insurance companies.

Respondents were also asked to evaluate the competitiveness of the insurance market in which they worked. On a seven-point scale anchored by "1 = Not very competitive" and "7 = Highly competitive," the mean competitiveness score was 5.56, with a median of 6 and a mode of 7. Thus, respondents perceived that their insurance markets were generally very competitive.

Table 4.3. Characteristics of the study sample

	Age	Education	Average weekly work Hours	Percent of Business from New Customers	Percent of Income from Commission	Years in Life Insurance Sales	Level of Competition
N	139	146	141	144	142	141	145
Mean	52.16	3.86	42.90	51.17	93.50	18.63	5.56
Median	53	4	45	50	100	17	6
Mode	62	4	40	50	100	25	7
Standard Deviation	11.31	.74	11.55	24.86	16.20	12.01	1.39
Minimum	24	2	2	0	0	1	1
Maximum	76	5	70	100	100	49	7

Descriptive Statistics for the Study Variables

A summary of the descriptive statistics for the variables used in this study is provided in Table 4.4. The *sales managers' implicit personality theory* in the sales domain was measured with a three-item, six-point scale anchored by "1 = Strongly disagree" and "6 = Strongly agree." The items were reversed so that a high score indicates an incremental theorist and a low score indicates an entity theorist. A maximum likelihood factor analysis with a Varimax rotation of the *sales managers' implicit personality theory* scale items showed this scale to be unidimensional, that is, all items loaded on a single factor. The eigenvalue for the first factor was 2.532, and was .285 for the second factor. The scree plot also indicated that a one-factor solution was indicated. The mean for this summated scale was 4.3987, with a standard deviation of 1.3987.

Table 4.4. Descriptive statistics of the study variables

	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Managers' IPT	4.3987	5.0000	6.00	1.3987	-.710	-.555
Coercive Feedback	2.2697	2.0000	1.00	1.2621	1.065	.350
Nonpunitive Feedback	5.0779	2.0000	1.00	1.7087	-.651	-.656
Transformational Leadership	3.5108	3.6842	3.37 and 4.00	.9578	-.613	-.428
Control System – End Results	4.9167	5.0000	7.00	1.6729	-.642	-.211
Control System – Activity	4.0745	4.0000	7.00	1.9109	-.036	-1.281
Control System – Capability	3.6507	3.9000	1.00	1.9585	.031	-1.347
Organizational Justice – Interpersonal	5.6176	6.0000	7.00	1.6670	-1.328	.792
Organizational Justice – Informational	4.8131	5.2000	6.00	1.7080	-.625	-.719
Satisfaction with the Sales Manager	4.8523	5.2222	7.00	1.6709	-.475	-1.024
Salesperson Self-Efficacy	5.9474	6.0000	6.00	.7909	-.914	1.048

A factor analysis demonstrated the six-item *coercive feedback* scale to have two factors. This scale became unidimensional with the deletion of the sixth item, "Fire the salesperson." This seven-point scale was anchored by "1 = Very unlikely" and "7 = Very likely." The mean score for the reduced, five-item variable was 2.2697, with a standard deviation of 1.2621. This suggests that respondents as a whole received only a low level of coercive feedback from their sales managers.

A factor analysis of the three-item *nonpunitive feedback* scale found it to be unidimensional. This seven-point scale was anchored by "1 = Very unlikely" and "7 = Very likely." The mean score for this scale was 5.0779, with a standard

deviation of 1.7087. This leads to the conclusion that, as a whole, respondents expected high levels of nonpunitive feedback.

The *transformational leadership* score was obtained by averaging all of those items on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) related to transformational, rather than transactional or laissez-faire, leadership styles. These items were anchored by “1 = Not at all” and “5 = Frequently, if not always.” A factor analysis indicated that this scale was unidimensional with the deletion of one item, “Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs.” Thus, nineteen of the twenty transformational leadership items were retained. The mean score for transformational leadership was 3.5108 and the standard deviation was .9578.

The three *control systems* scales—end results, activity, and capability—were measured on 7-point, 4- or 5-item scales anchored by “1 = Strongly disagree” and “7 = Strongly agree.” A factor analysis showed each of these scales to be unidimensional. The control system-end results scale had a mean of 4.9167 and a standard deviation of 1.6729. The control system-activity scale had a mean of 4.0745 and a standard deviation of 1.9109, while the control system-capability scale had a mean of 3.6507 and a standard deviation of 1.9585.

This study measured two types of organizational justice, interpersonal and informational. Both were found to be unidimensional. Both were measured using a 7-point scale anchored by “1 = Strongly disagree” and “7 = Strongly agree.” Interpersonal justice, a four-item scale, had a mean of 5.6176 and a

standard deviation of 1.6670, while informational justice, a five-item scale, had a mean of 4.8131 and a standard deviation of 1.7080. Hence, respondents rated both types of organizational justice at relatively high levels.

Satisfaction with the sales manager was measured with a nine-item, 7-point scale anchored by “1 = Strongly disagree” and “7 = Strongly agree.” This measure was found to be unidimensional. The mean score was 4.8523 and the standard deviation was 1.6709.

A factor analysis of the measure used for *self-efficacy* found two distinct components as shown in Table 4.5. Component 1 could be named *general selling ability*, while component 2 could be named *impediments to selling*. At the .40 loading level, items 6 and 7 loaded on both components. Thus items 1 through 4 make up the *general selling ability* factor, while only item 5 is left for the *impediments to selling* factor. For this study, items 5 through 7 were dropped, and the more general component, composed of items 1 through 4, was used as the measure for self-efficacy.

Table 4.5. Factor Analysis of the Self-Efficacy Scale

	Component	
	1	2
1. I know the right thing to do in selling situations.	.742	.294
2. I am good at finding out what customers want.	.843	.191
3. It is easy for me to get customers to see my point of view.	.759	.308
4. I am good at selling.	.818	.109
5. It is difficult for me to put pressure on a customer. (R)	-.216	.725
6. I find it difficult to convince a customer who has a different viewpoint than mine. (R)	-.573	.507
7. My temperament is not well-suited for selling. (R)	-.462	.553

For each of the variables used in this study, the skewness and kurtosis of the distributions fell within an acceptable range. As such, they were not considered to be so extreme that they would affect the test results or the consequent conclusions.

Measurement of Constructs

Reliability

The previously discussed validity and reported reliability of each of the scales used in this study is included in Chapter III. Since reliability is a prerequisite to scale validity, Nunnally (1978) recommends that the reliability of a scale, as measured by coefficient alpha, to be used in exploratory research such as this study should exceed .70. As reported in Table 4.6, the coefficient alpha scores for the variables measured in this study all ranged between .8108 and .9638, exceeding the .70 recommended by Nunnally (1978).

Table 4.6. Coefficient alpha reliability scores for variables

Variable	Coefficient Alpha
Managers' Implicit Personality Theory	.9073
Nonpunitive Feedback	.9009
Coercive Feedback	.8108
Transformational Leadership	.9638
Control System – End Results	.9243
Control System – Activity	.9532
Control System – Capability	.9508
Organizational Justice – Interpersonal	.9638
Organizational Justice – Informational	.9461
Satisfaction with the Sales Manager	.9612
Salesperson Self-Efficacy	.8484

Correlations Among Study Variables

A matrix reporting the correlations among the variables included in this study is provided in Table 10. All of the correlations reported are consistent with the predictions derived from theory as discussed in Chapter III, with the exception of the association between control system-end results and sales managers' implicit personality theory. The predicted relationship was that entity theorist sales managers would provide higher levels of end-results control system orientation, while, in fact, the correlation shows that incremental theorist sales managers provided higher levels. Although this relationship was not significant at the $p < .05$ level, it approached that threshold with a significance of .117. It should be noted that control system orientations are not mutually exclusive, and that managers may score highly on all three orientations simultaneously. An examination of the correlations among these variables in Table 10 indicates that all three of the measured control system orientations—end-results, activity, and capability—were, indeed, strongly correlated.

Table 10. Pearson correlation matrix of study variables

	Smipt	Ojinp	Ojinf	Tflead	Csend	Csact	Cscap	Coerc	Nonpun	Mgrsat	Self
Smipt	1	.001	.000	.000	.117	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.125
Ojinp	.267	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.055
Ojinf	.414	.737	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.092
Tflead	.440	.627	.775	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.033
Csend	.127	.419	.528	.551	1	.000	.000	.036	.000	.000	.446
Csact	.369	.392	.572	.704	.627	1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.231
Cscap	.483	.348	.637	.752	.546	.834	1	.000	.000	.000	.522
Coerc	-.371	-.432	-.400	-.517	-.171	-.319	-.360	1	.000	.000	.216
Nonpun	.413	.453	.634	.681	.442	.512	.573	-.282	1	.000	.041
Mgrsat	.425	.651	.786	.915	.567	.698	.746	-.526	.614	1	.101
Self	.125	.156	.137	.175	.062	.098	.053	-.102	.167	.134	1

Numbers below the diagonal are correlations between the variables. Numbers above the diagonal report the significance of the relationship.

Smipt = Sales Managers' IPT
 Ojinp = Interpersonal Organizational Justice
 Ojinf = Informational Organizational Justice
 Tflead = Transformational Leadership
 Csend = Control System-End Results
 Csact = Control System-Activity
 Cscap = Control System-Capability
 Coerc = Coercive Feedback
 Nonpun = Nonpunitive Feedback
 Mgrsat = Satisfaction With the Sales Manager
 Self = Self-Efficacy

Tests of Hypotheses

Linear regression was used to analyze Hypotheses 1 – 13 and Hypotheses 17 and 18. Hypotheses 14 – 16 were analyzed using moderated regression. The results of these analyses are reported on the following pages.

Certain control variables were included in each regression equation to ascertain whether the effects found for the independent variables reflect additional explanatory power beyond that of other possible variables as

recommended by Neter, Wasserman, and Kutner (1996). Four control variables were included in each regression equation and its subsequent analysis. These four control variables were:

1. *Years managing this salesperson* (measured in number of years).
2. *Market competitiveness* (measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by "1 = Not very competitive" to "7 = Highly competitive").
3. *Managerial experience in insurance* (measured in number of years).
4. *Managers' span of control* (measured in number of salespeople supervised).

The first control variable, measuring the length of the sales manager-salesperson relationship, was included to account for any variation due to the sales managers' differential treatment of salespeople with longer working relationships. Longer working relationships could lead to differential treatment as the sales manager learns what supervisory actions lead to positive results for any particular salesperson. Thus, the length of the sales manager-salesperson relationship could be an important explanatory control variable.

If the life insurance market in which the salespeople sell is highly competitive, sales managers may feel compelled to provide more leadership, feedback, and supervisory control than if the market were less competitive. Hence, the degree of market competitiveness may influence the sales manager to provide more motivation and closer supervision to the sales staff, as well as trying to keep the sales staff working at peak efficiency. Hence, market competitiveness may affect how sales managers behave and, thus, how they are perceived by the salespeople. Hence, this was included as a control variable.

The third control variable is the number of years that the sales manager has been managing life insurance salespeople. Sales managers may engage in different supervisory behaviors based on their experience level as they learn which behaviors lead to desired results with the salespeople. This may, in turn, affect the salesperson's perception of those supervisory behaviors. Thus, tenure as a life insurance sales manager was included as a control variable.

The last control variable, the span of control, could affect the sales manager's *ability* to engage in extensive supervisory behaviors for each individual salesperson under his/her supervision. If a sales manager has a relatively large number of salespeople to supervise, the salesperson may not receive sufficient supervision. This would affect the salesperson's perception of important managerial variables.

For those hypotheses analyzed using hierarchical regression (Hypotheses 1 – 13, 17, and 18), the first model tested included only the control variables. Model 2 included the control variables followed by the predictor variable. The two models were then compared to assess the hypothesis.

The analysis of Hypotheses 14 – 16 used moderated regression models. This analysis generated four models for each hypothesis. As recommended by Sharma, Durand, and Gur-Arie (1981), these models were created as follows:

Model 1: All control variables were entered.

Model 2: All control variables and the proposed moderator (self-efficacy) were entered.

Model 3: All control variables, the proposed moderator, and the independent variable (supervisory control system orientation) were entered.

Model 4: All control variables, the proposed moderator, the independent variable, and the interaction between the proposed moderator and the independent variable (self-efficacy X supervisory control system orientation) were entered.

Hypothesis Evaluation

Hypothesis 1. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is negatively associated with coercive feedback. (Supported).

As reported in Table 14.8, higher sales manager implicit personality theory scores are associated with lower coercive feedback scores. This indicates that incremental theorist sales managers are less likely than entity theorist sales managers to provided coercive feedback. Hence, Hypothesis 1 is supported ($\beta = -.429, p < .001$).

Table 4.8. Hypothesis 1

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	1.695	.542		3.125	.002
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-5.07E-03	.026	-.019	-.194	.846
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	1.864E-02	.015	.124	1.241	.217
	Managers' Span of Control	-6.64E-03	.004	-.165	-1.828	.070
	Market Competitiveness	9.605E-02	.080	.110	1.201	.232
	2	(Constant)	3.500	.596		5.875
	Years Managing this Salesperson	9.809E-03	.024	.037	.413	.680
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	1.632E-02	.014	.109	1.201	.232
	Managers' Span of Control	-7.91E-03	.003	-.196	-2.401	.018
	Market Competitiveness	5.720E-02	.073	.065	.787	.433
	Sales Managers' IPT	-.371	.070	-.429	-5.334	.000

- Dependent Variable: Coercive Feedback
- Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .234 (.203)
- F Value: Model 1 = 1.809; Model 2 = 7.461***
- Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 2. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with nonpunitive feedback. (Supported).

The results of the regression testing Hypothesis 2 are reported in Table 4.9. This indicates that incremental theorist sales managers are more likely than entity theorist sales managers to provide nonpunitive feedback. The positive sign of the β and its high significance indicate support for Hypothesis 2 ($\beta = .416$, $p < .001$),

Table 4.9. Hypothesis 2

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.954	.744		6.658	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	5.291E-03	.035	.015	.151	.880
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	1.466E-02	.020	.073	.722	.471
	Managers' Span of Control	-4.60E-03	.005	-.085	-.930	.354
	Market Competitiveness	2.470E-02	.110	.021	.226	.822
2	(Constant)	2.602	.825		3.155	.002
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-1.53E-02	.032	-.044	-.475	.636
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	1.691E-02	.019	.084	.910	.364
	Managers' Span of Control	-3.16E-03	.005	-.058	-.698	.486
	Market Competitiveness	7.655E-02	.101	.065	.760	.449
	Sales Managers' IPT	.485	.096	.416	5.045	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Nonpunitive Feedback
- b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .182 (.149)
- c. F Value: Model 1 = .450; Model 2 = 5.541***
- d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 3. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with transformational leadership. (Supported).

As reported in Table 4.10, as sales managers' IPT increases, so does the level of transformational leadership, thus supporting Hypothesis 3 ($\beta = .479$, $p < .001$). This provides evidence that incremental theorist sales managers are likely to provide higher levels of transformational leadership for their salespeople than entity theorist sales managers.

Table 4.10. Hypothesis 3

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	3.338	.432		7.724	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	1.610E-02	.020	.080	.800	.425
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	5.414E-03	.012	.046	.460	.646
	Managers' Span of Control	-4.78E-04	.003	-.015	-.168	.867
	Market Competitiveness	1.276E-02	.064	.019	.200	.842
	2	(Constant)	1.793	.461		3.888
2	Years Managing this Salesperson	1.792E-03	.018	.009	.100	.921
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	6.117E-03	.010	.052	.588	.557
	Managers' Span of Control	4.791E-04	.003	.015	.190	.850
	Market Competitiveness	4.554E-02	.057	.067	.804	.423
	Sales Managers' IPT	.323	.054	.479	5.975	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Transformational Leadership
- b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .234 (.203)
- c. F Value: Model 1 = .379; Model 2 = 7.528***
- d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 4. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with supervisory capability orientation. (Supported).

A strong relationship sales managers' implicit personality theory and supervisory capability orientation was found in this regression equation ($\beta = .466$, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 is supported. Hence, incremental theorist sales managers are likely to use higher levels of supervisory capability orientation than are entity theorist sales managers. The results of this regression are reported in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11. Hypothesis 4

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	3.015	.884		3.411	.001
	Years Managing this Salesperson	.119	.040	.285	2.947	.004
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	2.884E-03	.024	.012	.118	.906
	Managers' Span of Control	-1.09E-02	.006	-.164	-1.846	.067
	Market Competitiveness	4.600E-02	.128	.033	.358	.721
2	(Constant)	-.336	.951		-.353	.725
	Years Managing this Salesperson	8.350E-02	.036	.200	2.321	.022
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	1.268E-02	.021	.052	.590	.556
	Managers' Span of Control	-7.46E-03	.005	-.112	-1.430	.155
	Market Competitiveness	.141	.114	.100	1.240	.217
	Sales Managers' IPT	.648	.106	.466	6.104	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Control System-Capability
 b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .322 (.294)
 c. F Value: Model 1 = 3.993**; Model 2 = 11.588***
 d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
 Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 5. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with supervisory activity orientation. (Supported).

A strong relationship was found between sales manager implicit personality theory and supervisory activity orientation ($\beta = .353$, $p < .001$), supporting Hypothesis 5. Thus, incremental theorist sales managers are likely to provide higher levels of supervisory activity orientation than are entity theorist sales managers. Results of the regression analysis are reported in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12. Hypothesis 5

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	3.453	.827		4.176	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	7.645E-02	.039	.191	1.972	.051
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	-4.97E-03	.023	-.022	-.221	.825
	Managers' Span of Control	-7.81E-03	.005	-.127	-1.423	.157
	Market Competitiveness	8.524E-02	.122	.063	.700	.485
	2	(Constant)	1.180	.940		1.255
	Years Managing this Salesperson	5.605E-02	.037	.140	1.529	.129
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	-2.64E-03	.021	-.011	-.125	.901
	Managers' Span of Control	-6.39E-03	.005	-.104	-1.240	.217
	Market Competitiveness	.135	.115	.100	1.178	.241
	Sales Managers' IPT	.469	.109	.353	4.279	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Control System-Activity
- b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .178 (.145)
- c. F Value: Model 1 = 1.911; Model 2 = 5.401***
- d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 6. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is negatively associated with supervisory end-results orientation. (Not supported).

No significant relationship was found between the sales managers' implicit personality theory and supervisory end-results orientation ($\beta = .084$, $p = .342$). Hence, Hypothesis 6 is not supported. Thus no relationship was found between the implicit personality theory of the sales manager and the level of supervisory end-results orientation. The statistical analysis of this hypothesis is reported in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13. Hypothesis 6

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.379	.726		6.035	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.444E-02	.034	.070	.718	.474
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	3.793E-02	.020	.189	1.920	.057
	Managers' Span of Control	1.332E-03	.005	.025	.276	.783
	Market Competitiveness	-1.71E-02	.107	-.014	-.160	.873
2	(Constant)	3.905	.880		4.438	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.018E-02	.034	.058	.588	.558
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	3.842E-02	.020	.191	1.943	.054
	Managers' Span of Control	1.626E-03	.005	.030	.337	.737
	Market Competitiveness	-6.71E-03	.107	-.006	-.062	.950
	Sales Managers' IPT	9.773E-02	.103	.084	.953	.342

- a. Dependent Variable: Control System-End Results
- b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .061 (.024)
- c. F Value: Model 1 = 1.813; Model 2 = 1.631
- d. Significance of F change: Model 2 = .342
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 7. Sales managers who provide higher levels of coercive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing lower levels of interpersonal justice. (Supported).

As hypothesized, a significant, negative relationship was found between coercive feedback and interpersonal justice ($\beta = -.457, p < .001$). This supports Hypothesis 7 and is reported in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14. Hypothesis 7

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	5.816	.741		7.844	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-7.60E-02	.036	-.211	-2.132	.035
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	2.179E-02	.021	.106	1.061	.291
	Managers' Span of Control	6.343E-03	.005	.115	1.277	.204
	Market Competitiveness	-4.09E-02	.109	-.034	-.375	.709
2	(Constant)	6.874	.688		9.990	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-7.92E-02	.032	-.220	-2.486	.014
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	3.342E-02	.018	.163	1.810	.073
	Managers' Span of Control	2.198E-03	.004	.040	.489	.626
	Market Competitiveness	1.902E-02	.098	.016	.194	.847
	Coercive Feedback	-.624	.110	-.457	-5.669	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Justice
- b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .252 (.221)
- c. F Value: Model 1 = 1.766; Model 2 = 8.199***
- d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 8. Sales managers who provide higher levels of coercive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing lower levels of informational justice. (Supported).

Analysis showed a significant, negative relationship between coercive feedback and informational justice ($\beta = -.425$, $p < .001$). This supports Hypothesis 8 and is reported in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15. Hypothesis 8

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.249	.755		5.625	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.293E-02	.036	.062	.631	.529
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	4.954E-02	.021	.234	2.368	.019
	Managers' Span of Control	2.109E-03	.005	.037	.417	.677
	Market Competitiveness	-3.90E-02	.111	-.032	-.350	.727
2	(Constant)	5.263	.712		7.397	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	1.989E-02	.033	.053	.604	.547
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	6.069E-02	.019	.287	3.179	.002
	Managers' Span of Control	-1.86E-03	.005	-.033	-.401	.689
	Market Competitiveness	1.852E-02	.102	.015	.182	.856
	Coercive Feedback	-.598	.114	-.425	-5.255	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Informational Justice
- b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .248 (.217)
- c. F Value: Model 1 = 2.575*; Model 2 = 8.030***
- d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 9. Sales managers who provide higher levels of nonpunitive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing higher levels of interpersonal justice. (Supported).

A significant, positive relationship was found between nonpunitive feedback and interpersonal justice as hypothesized ($\beta = .523$, $p < .001$).

Hypothesis 9 is supported as shown in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16. Hypothesis 9

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	5.800	.738		7.864	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-7.26E-02	.035	-.204	-2.089	.039
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	2.310E-02	.020	.113	1.148	.253
	Managers' Span of Control	6.886E-03	.005	.126	1.405	.162
	Market Competitiveness	-4.42E-02	.109	-.037	-.407	.685
2	(Constant)	3.177	.729		4.360	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-7.54E-02	.030	-.212	-2.556	.012
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	1.534E-02	.017	.075	.896	.372
	Managers' Span of Control	9.320E-03	.004	.170	2.233	.027
	Market Competitiveness	-5.73E-02	.092	-.048	-.621	.535
	Nonpunitive Feedback	.530	.075	.523	7.037	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Justice
- b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .324 (.297)
- c. F Value: Model 1 = 1.807; Model 2 = 11.912***
- d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 10. Sales managers who provide higher levels of nonpunitive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing higher levels of informational justice. (Supported).

Hypothesis 10 was supported by the significant, positive relationship between nonpunitive feedback and informational justice ($\beta = .640$, $p < .001$). The results of this analysis are exhibited in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17. Hypothesis 10

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.240	.749		5.663	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.253E-02	.035	.061	.638	.524
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	5.044E-02	.020	.240	2.470	.015
	Managers' Span of Control	2.159E-03	.005	.038	.434	.665
	Market Competitiveness	-3.83E-02	.110	-.031	-.348	.728
2	(Constant)	.937	.655		1.430	.155
	Years Managing this Salesperson	1.900E-02	.027	.052	.716	.475
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	4.066E-02	.015	.194	2.642	.009
	Managers' Span of Control	5.224E-03	.004	.093	1.392	.166
	Market Competitiveness	-5.48E-02	.083	-.044	-.662	.509
	Nonpunitive Feedback	.667	.068	.640	9.854	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Informational Justice
 b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .485 (.464)
 c. F Value: Model 1 = 2.758*; Model 2 = 23.322***
 d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
 Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 11. Higher levels of sales manager transformational leadership are positively associated with interpersonal justice. (Supported).

Hypothesis 11, positing the positive relationship between transformational leadership and interpersonal justice, was supported ($\beta = .639$, $p < .001$). The results of the analysis for Hypothesis 11 are presented in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18. Hypothesis 11

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	5.835	.745		7.829	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-7.05E-02	.035	-.198	-2.030	.045
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	2.284E-02	.020	.111	1.126	.262
	Managers' Span of Control	6.617E-03	.005	.121	1.345	.181
	Market Competitiveness	-5.12E-02	.110	-.042	-.465	.643
2	(Constant)	2.079	.690		3.012	.003
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-8.86E-02	.026	-.249	-3.344	.001
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	1.675E-02	.015	.082	1.084	.280
	Managers' Span of Control	7.155E-03	.004	.131	1.910	.058
	Market Competitiveness	-6.55E-02	.084	-.054	-.782	.436
	Transformational Leadership	1.125	.118	.639	9.546	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Justice
- b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .456 (.434)
- c. F Value: Model 1 = 1.741; Model 2 = 20.630***
- d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 12. Higher levels of sales manager transformational leadership are positively associated with informational justice. (Supported).

The positive relationship between transformational leadership and informational justice was supported by the regression analysis ($\beta = .759$, $p < .001$). The results of this test of Hypothesis 12 are shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19. Hypothesis 12

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.273	.757		5.646	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.500E-02	.035	.068	.709	.480
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	5.002E-02	.021	.236	2.428	.017
	Managers' Span of Control	1.881E-03	.005	.033	.376	.707
	Market Competitiveness	-4.47E-02	.112	-.036	-.400	.690
2	(Constant)	-.327	.571		-.574	.567
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.812E-03	.022	.008	.128	.898
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	4.256E-02	.013	.201	3.332	.001
	Managers' Span of Control	2.540E-03	.003	.045	.820	.414
	Market Competitiveness	-6.23E-02	.069	-.050	-.900	.370
	Transformational Leadership	1.378	.097	.759	14.143	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Informational Justice
 b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .650 (.636)
 c. F Value: Model 1 = 2.738*; Model 2 = 45.713***
 d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
 Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 13. Higher levels of sales manager transformational leadership are positively associated with salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager. (Supported).

A significant positive relationship was found between transformational leadership and the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager ($\beta = .914$, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 13 is supported as presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20. Hypothesis 13

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.726	.756		6.250	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.014E-02	.035	.057	.572	.569
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	2.427E-02	.021	.118	1.179	.241
	Managers' Span of Control	-3.17E-03	.005	-.058	-.635	.526
	Market Competitiveness	-3.31E-02	.112	-.027	-.297	.767
	2	(Constant)	-.653	.360		-1.815
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-5.81E-03	.014	-.016	-.421	.675
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	1.554E-02	.008	.076	1.929	.056
	Managers' Span of Control	-2.40E-03	.002	-.044	-1.229	.221
	Market Competitiveness	-5.37E-02	.044	-.044	-1.229	.221
	Transformational Leadership	1.612	.061	.914	26.218	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with the Sales Manager
- b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .852 (.846)
- c. F Value: Model 1 = .871; Model 2 = 142.035***
- d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 14. A supervisory end-results orientation and salesperson self-efficacy influence salesperson satisfaction with the manager through their interaction effect. A supervisory end-results orientation with a salesperson high in self-efficacy results in greater satisfaction with the sales manager compared to that of a salesperson low in self-efficacy. (Supported).

Using the moderated regression procedure described earlier, self-efficacy was found to moderate the relationship between supervisory end-results orientation and the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager ($\beta = 1.686$, $p = .009$). Thus, Hypothesis 14 is supported as presented in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21. Hypothesis 14

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.663	.747		6.242	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.008E-02	.035	.056	.573	.567
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	2.450E-02	.020	.120	1.205	.231
	Managers' Span of Control	-2.95E-03	.005	-.054	-.595	.553
	Market Competitiveness	-2.07E-02	.110	-.017	-.188	.851
2	(Constant)	2.275	1.265		1.798	.075
	Years Managing this Salesperson	7.953E-03	.035	.022	.228	.820
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	3.233E-02	.020	.158	1.595	.113
	Managers' Span of Control	-3.90E-03	.005	-.071	-.798	.427
	Market Competitiveness	-5.10E-02	.109	-.042	-.468	.641
	Self-Efficacy	.429	.185	.206	2.318	.022
3	(Constant)	.953	1.120		.850	.397
	Years Managing this Salesperson	1.192E-04	.030	.000	.004	.997
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	1.005E-02	.018	.049	.559	.577
	Managers' Span of Control	-4.22E-03	.004	-.077	-.991	.324
	Market Competitiveness	-3.07E-02	.095	-.026	-.324	.746
	Self-Efficacy	.266	.163	.128	1.632	.105
	Control System-End Results	.509	.079	.502	6.410	.000
4	(Constant)	8.479	3.049		2.781	.006
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.415E-03	.030	.007	.081	.935
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	8.307E-03	.018	.041	.473	.637
	Managers' Span of Control	-3.85E-03	.004	-.070	-.926	.356
	Market Competitiveness	-2.19E-02	.093	-.018	-.236	.814
	Self-Efficacy	-1.009	.508	-.484	-2.0	.049
	Control System-End Results	-.995	.574	-.981	-1.7	.086
	Interaction Term	.252	.095	1.686	2.644	.009

- a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with the Sales Manager
b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .337 (.299)
c. F Value: Model 1 = .872; Model 2 = 1.797*; Model 3 = 8.826***; Model 4 = 9.930***
d. Significance of F change: Model 2 = .022; Model 3 < .001; Model 4 = .009
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 15. A supervisory activity orientation and salesperson self-efficacy influence salesperson satisfaction with the manager through their interaction effect. A supervisory activity orientation with a salesperson high in self-efficacy results in lower satisfaction with the sales manager compared to that of a salesperson low in self-efficacy. (Not supported).

No effect was found for the interaction between self-efficacy and supervisory activity orientation on the salesperson's satisfaction with the manager ($\beta = .456$, $p = .286$). Hence, Hypothesis 15 was not supported as indicated in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22. Hypothesis 15

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.663	.747		6.242	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.01E-02	.035	.056	.573	.567
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	2.45E-02	.020	.120	1.205	.231
	Managers' Span of Control	-2.9E-03	.005	-.054	-.595	.553
	Market Competitiveness	-2.1E-02	.110	-.017	-.188	.851
2	(Constant)	2.275	1.265		1.798	.075
	Years Managing this Salesperson	7.95E-03	.035	.022	.228	.820
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	3.23E-02	.020	.158	1.595	.113
	Managers' Span of Control	-3.9E-03	.005	-.071	-.798	.427
	Market Competitiveness	-5.1E-02	.109	-.042	-.468	.641
3	(Constant)	1.213	.925		1.311	.192
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-3.4E-02	.026	-.095	-1.3	.191
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	3.19E-02	.015	.156	2.165	.032
	Managers' Span of Control	1.33E-03	.004	.024	.371	.711
	Market Competitiveness	-9.0E-02	.079	-.075	-1.1	.258
	Self-Efficacy	.238	.136	.114	1.753	.082
	Control System-Activity	.616	.058	.692	10.6	.000
4	(Constant)	2.776	1.726		1.608	.110
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-3.1E-02	.026	-.086	-1.2	.235
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	2.83E-02	.015	.139	1.875	.063
	Managers' Span of Control	1.30E-03	.004	.024	.363	.718
	Market Competitiveness	-.101	.080	-.085	-1.3	.207
	Self-Efficacy	-1.3E-02	.271	-.006	-.048	.962
	Control System-Activity	.245	.351	.275	.697	.487
	Interaction Term	6.28E-02	.059	.456	1.073	.286

- a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with the Sales Manager
b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .516 (.488)
c. F Value: Model 1 = .872; Model 2 = 1.797*; Model 3 = 21.605***; Model 4 = 18.705
d. Significance of F change: Model 2 = .022; Model 3 < .001; Model 4 = .286
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 16. The supervisory capability orientation and salesperson self-efficacy influence salesperson satisfaction with the manager through their interaction effect. A supervisory capability orientation with a salesperson high in self-efficacy results in lower satisfaction with the sales manager compared to that of a salesperson low in self-efficacy. (Not supported).

No interaction effect was found between self-efficacy and supervisory capability orientation on the salesperson's satisfaction with the manager ($\beta = -.394$, $p = .371$). As reported in Table 4.23, Hypothesis 16 is not supported.

Table 4.23. Hypothesis 16

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.681	.787		5.945	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.42E-02	.036	.068	.674	.502
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	2.33E-02	.022	.111	1.073	.285
	Managers' Span of Control	-3.4E-03	.005	-.059	-.640	.524
	Market Competitiveness	-2.4E-02	.114	-.020	-.207	.837
2	(Constant)	2.157	1.321		1.634	.105
	Years Managing this Salesperson	1.04E-02	.036	.029	.290	.772
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	3.30E-02	.022	.158	1.521	.131
	Managers' Span of Control	-3.9E-03	.005	-.069	-.750	.454
	Market Competitiveness	-4.7E-02	.113	-.039	-.414	.680
	Self-Efficacy	.442	.187	.212	2.357	.020
3	(Constant)	1.000	.882		1.134	.259
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-6.3E-02	.025	-.178	-2.6	.011
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	2.80E-02	.014	.134	1.939	.055
	Managers' Span of Control	3.44E-03	.003	.061	.988	.325
	Market Competitiveness	-6.9E-02	.075	-.058	-.926	.356
	Self-Efficacy	.298	.125	.143	2.385	.019
4	(Constant)	-.166	1.569		-.106	.916
	Years Managing this Salesperson	-6.5E-02	.025	-.184	-2.7	.009
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	3.02E-02	.015	.144	2.062	.041
	Managers' Span of Control	3.36E-03	.003	.059	.963	.337
	Market Competitiveness	-6.0E-02	.076	-.050	-.792	.430
	Self-Efficacy	.482	.239	.231	2.012	.046
	Control System-Capability	.972	.355	1.143	2.738	.007
Interaction Term	-5.2E-02	.058	-.394	-.899	.371	

- a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with the Sales Manager
b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .596 (.573)
c. F Value: Model 1 = .916; Model 2 = 1.871*; Model 3 = 29.469***; Model 4 = 25.335
d. Significance of F change: Model 2 = .020; Model 3 < .001; Model 4 = .371
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 17. Higher levels of interpersonal justice are positively associated with salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager. (Supported).

As shown in Table 4.24, interpersonal justice is significantly and positively associated with the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager ($\beta = .684$, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 17 is supported by the regression analysis.

Table 4.24. Hypothesis 17

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.663	.747		6.242	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.01E-02	.035	.056	.573	.567
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	2.45E-02	.020	.120	1.205	.231
	Managers' Span of Control	-2.9E-03	.005	-.054	-.595	.553
	Market Competitiveness	-2.1E-02	.110	-.017	-.188	.851
2	(Constant)	.681	.676		1.008	.316
	Years Managing this Salesperson	6.85E-02	.026	.193	2.600	.010
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	9.15E-03	.015	.045	.605	.546
	Managers' Span of Control	-7.6E-03	.004	-.138	-2.050	.042
	Market Competitiveness	9.20E-03	.081	.008	.113	.910
	Interpersonal Justice	.686	.067	.684	10.232	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with the Sales Manager
- b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .470 (.449)
- c. F Value: Model 1 = .872; Model 2 = 22.210***
- d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 18. Higher levels of informational justice are positively associated with salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager. (Supported).

Informational justice was significantly and positively associated with the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager ($\beta = .805$, $p < .001$). Thus, as presented in Table 4.25, Hypothesis 18 is supported.

Table 4.25. Hypothesis 18

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	4.663	.747		6.242	.000
	Years Managing this Salesperson	2.01E-02	.035	.056	.573	.567
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	2.45E-02	.020	.120	1.205	.231
	Managers' Span of Control	-2.9E-03	.005	-.054	-.595	.553
	Market Competitiveness	-2.1E-02	.110	-.017	-.188	.851
2	(Constant)	1.337	.523		2.557	.012
	Years Managing this Salesperson	6.54E-04	.022	.002	.030	.976
	Managerial Experience in Insurance	-1.4E-02	.013	-.070	-1.104	.272
	Managers' Span of Control	-4.5E-03	.003	-.083	-1.461	.147
	Market Competitiveness	8.80E-03	.069	.007	.128	.898
	Informational Justice	.783	.056	.805	14.070	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with the Sales Manager
- b. Full Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2): .623 (.608)
- c. F Value: Model 1 = .872; Model 2 = 41.381***
- d. Significance of F change: Model 2 < .001
Significance: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Summary

Chapter IV has reported the results of the statistical analyses that were performed for this study. Reported here were the descriptive statistics about the sample and the study variables. All of the measurement scales used in this study were found to be unidimensional except the self-efficacy and transformational leadership scales. After dropping three items from the self-efficacy scale and one item from the transformational leadership scale, these scales became unidimensional as well. All of the scales used to measure variables used in this study had acceptable alpha coefficients. The issue of nonresponse bias was also addressed. Further, the hypothesis tests for each of the 18 hypotheses included in this study are reported. A summary of the results of the hypothesis testing is included in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26. Summary of the results of the hypothesis analysis

Hypothesis		Results
H1	Sales managers' implicit personality theory is negatively associated with coercive feedback.	Supported
H2	Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with nonpunitive feedback.	Supported
H3	Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with transformational leadership.	Supported
H4	Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with supervisory capability orientation.	Supported
H5	Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with supervisory activity orientation.	Supported
H6	Sales managers' implicit personality theory is negatively associated with supervisory end-results.	Not Supported
H7	Sales managers who provide higher levels of coercive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing lower levels of interpersonal justice.	Supported
H8	Sales managers who provide higher levels of coercive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing lower levels of informational justice.	Supported
H9	Sales managers who provide higher levels of nonpunitive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing higher levels of interpersonal justice.	Supported
H10	Sales managers who provide higher levels of nonpunitive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing higher levels of informational justice.	Supported
H11	Higher levels of sales manager transformational leadership are positively associated with interpersonal justice.	Supported
H12	Higher levels of sales manager transformational leadership are positively associated with informational justice.	Supported
H13	Higher levels of sales manager transformational leadership are positively associated with salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager.	Supported
H14	A supervisory end-results orientation and salesperson self-efficacy influence salesperson satisfaction with the manager through their interaction effect. A supervisory end-results orientation with a salesperson high in self-efficacy results in greater satisfaction with the sales manager compared to that of a salesperson low in self-efficacy.	Supported
H15	A supervisory activity orientation and salesperson self-efficacy influence salesperson satisfaction with the manager through their interaction effect. A supervisory activity orientation with a salesperson high in self-efficacy results in lower satisfaction with the sales manager compared to that of a salesperson low in self-efficacy.	Not Supported
H16	The supervisory capability orientation and salesperson self-efficacy influence salesperson satisfaction with the manager through their interaction effect. A supervisory capability orientation with a salesperson high in self-efficacy results in lower satisfaction with the sales manager compared to that of a salesperson low in self-efficacy.	Not Supported
H17	Higher levels of interpersonal justice are positively associated with salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager.	Supported
H18	Higher levels of informational justice are positively associated with salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager.	Supported

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents the interpretation of the results of this study and discusses their implications. First, an interpretation of the results of the hypothesis testing presented in Chapter IV is provided. The second section of this chapter reports the contributions that this study makes to the marketing and sales management literature. The third section discusses the managerial implications of this study while the fourth section presents limitations of the study. The last section presents areas for future research based on the results of this study.

Interpretation and Discussion of the Research Findings

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the direct effects that sales managers' implicit personality theory has on key managerial variables and, indirectly, on consequent salesperson outcome variables, including satisfaction with the sales manager. The affect that sales managers' implicit personality theory has on the nature of sales managers' feedback, transformational leadership, and control system orientation was examined in Hypotheses 1 – 6. Furthermore, the affects of sales managers' feedback and transformational

leadership on agent-referenced organizational justice were tested in Hypotheses 7 – 12. Finally, the affects of transformational leadership, control system orientation, and agent-referenced organizational justice on salespersons' satisfaction with the sales manager were examined in Hypotheses 13 – 18.

Implicit Personality Theory and Feedback

Hypothesis 1. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is negatively associated with coercive feedback.

Hypothesis 2. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with nonpunitive feedback.

As reported in Chapter IV, the relationship between sales managers' implicit personality theory and the coercive and nonpunitive feedback that sales managers provide to their salespeople was tested through regression analysis. Those sales managers rating low in implicit personality theory—entity theorist sales managers—were found to provide higher levels of coercive feedback and lower levels of nonpunitive feedback than were incremental theorist sales managers who scored high on the implicit personality scale.

Previous research in social and judicial settings had found that when evaluating subordinates or peers, entity theorists were prone to recommend higher punishment levels for inappropriate behaviors and less praise for appropriate ones (Chiu et al. 1997, Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995). This study supports and extends these findings to the sales management literature by finding that a sales manager with an entity implicit personality theory behaves in a similar manner with respect to the salespeople they supervise.

Implicit Personality Theory and Transformational Leadership

Hypothesis 3. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with transformational leadership.

The regression analysis reported for Hypothesis 3 in Chapter IV shows a strong positive relationship between entity theorist sales managers who scored low on the implicit personality theory scale and lower levels of transformational leadership. As discussed in Chapter III, entity theorists believe that the level of certain attributes, such as sales ability, is relatively impervious to change. Simply put, such sales managers believe that 'salespeople are born, not made.' Thus, entity theorist sales managers could view their time and effort needed to provide transformational leadership as wasted, since they believe such efforts would be unlikely to affect the salespeople's performance outcomes.

Implicit Personality Theory and Control System Orientation

Hypothesis 4. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with supervisory capability orientation.

Hypothesis 5. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is positively associated with supervisory activity orientation.

Hypothesis 6. Sales managers' implicit personality theory is negatively associated with supervisory end-results.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 were supported by the regression analysis reported in Chapter IV. Thus, those sales managers low on the implicit personality theory scale—entity theorists—have lower levels of both supervisory capability and supervisory activity orientation. This is consistent with previous findings outside the sales and marketing research literature that found that entity theorists believe

that sales ability is relatively impervious to change. Hence, a control system that encourages learning new or better sales methods, such as the supervisory capability control system, would not be emphasized by an entity theorist sales manager. This is because such an orientation would be promoting a type of learning that the entity theorist sales manager would not believe can succeed.

Similarly, a control system based on monitoring and modifying the behaviors that a salesperson engages in, such as the supervisory activity control system, would be unlikely to be effective in the mind of an entity theorist sales manager. This is because they would believe that salespeople 'either know how to sell or they don't.' Thus, entity theorist sales managers do not appear to invest time and effort in control systems that are learning or improvement oriented because they believe they would be ineffective and bound to fail.

Analysis of the regression performed for Hypothesis 6 showed no significant relationship between implicit personality theory and supervisory end-results orientation. However, this relationship was in the opposite direction of that proposed in this hypothesis. Although it was hypothesized that implicit personality theory would be negatively associate with supervisory end-results orientation, that is, that entity theorist sales managers would exhibit higher levels of supervisory end-results orientation, they actually achieved lower levels than did incremental theorist sales managers. The reasoning for this hypothesis in Chapter III stated that since entity theorists prefer performance goals—where results are important and the means of attaining them are of lesser importance—they would be more focused on end-results than would incremental theorist sales

managers. Hence, they would be more likely to adopt supervisory end-results control systems. This study shows that entity theorist sales managers are not more likely than incremental theorist sales managers to adopt a supervisory end-results control system.

The results of Hypotheses 4 – 6 indicate that entity theorist sales managers are likely to be lower in all three of the control system orientations measured in this study. While entity theorists may not be higher in supervisory end-results control orientation than incremental theorists, they may be higher in a supervisory end-results control orientation than they are in supervisory activity or capability control orientations. This may indicate that entity theorist sales managers consider *any* control system to be unhelpful in increasing the productivity of the sales staff. To the extent that they believe that ‘salespeople are born, not made,’ this rationale appears logical. Alternatively, there may exist an untested intervening variable that may explain the entity theorists’ relatively low level of supervisory end-results orientation.

Feedback and Organizational Justice

Hypothesis 7. Sales managers who provide higher levels of coercive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing lower levels of interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 8. Sales managers who provide higher levels of coercive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing lower levels of informational justice.

Hypothesis 9. Sales managers who provide higher levels of nonpunitive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing higher levels of interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 10. Sales managers who provide higher levels of nonpunitive feedback are perceived by their salespeople as providing higher levels of informational justice.

This study has proposed that sales managers who provide more coercive feedback to their salespeople lessen the salespeople's perception of receiving both forms of agent-referenced organizational justice—interpersonal and informational (Hypotheses 7 and 8). It was also hypothesized that sales managers who provide more nonpunitive feedback increase the salespeople's perception of receiving these two types of organizational justice (Hypotheses 9 and 10). The relationships among these variables had not been tested before in a sales setting, but each of these four relationships was found to be as predicted in Chapter III by social identity theory (Luhtanen and Crocker 1992; Tajfel and Turner 1979). To salespeople, coercive feedback, that is, feedback they feel to be threatening, is likely to be viewed as unjust. Alternatively, nonpunitive feedback, feedback that indicates concern and carries no threats, is likely to be viewed as a managerial attempt to personally assist and support the salesperson. This nonpunitive feedback leads to the perception that they are being treated in a fair and just manner. Coercive feedback thus leads to lower perceptions of both interpersonal and informational justice, while nonpunitive feedback is associated with higher levels of both interpersonal and informational justice.

Transformational Leadership and Organizational Justice

Hypothesis 11. Higher levels of sales manager transformational leadership are positively associated with interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 12. Higher levels of sales manager transformational leadership are positively associated with informational justice.

There was a strong positive relationship found between transformational leadership and both types of organizational justice tested in this study, interpersonal and informational. This agrees with previous empirical studies reported by Pillai, Scandura, and Williams (1999) and Pillai, Schriesheim, and Williams (1999).

The association between transformational leadership and agent-referenced organizational justice supports the explanation based on self-identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1979) offered in Chapter 3. Transformational leadership encourages the follower to identify with the leader and the leader's organization. The self-serving bias found in attribution theory (Bradley 1978; Eisen 1979) explains that the follower would then interpret actions of the leader and his/her organization positively (rather than negatively) to support the self-identification with the leader. In summary, increased levels of transformational leadership will lead to the followers' increased perception of organizational justice.

Transformational Leadership and Satisfaction with the Sales Manager

Hypothesis 13. Higher levels of sales manager transformational leadership are positively associated with salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager.

The test of the relationship between transformational leadership and the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager resulted in a strong, positive relationship. This result is consistent with previous studies that found transformational leadership is associated with a general measure of job satisfaction (Avolio and Howell 1992; Bass 1995; Dubinsky et al. 1995; Podsakoff et al. 1990).

The behavior, affect, and attitude displayed by the transformational leader provide the follower with evidence that s/he is an important, valued member of the leader's team or organization. This may increase the followers' self-esteem and add to their general satisfaction with both the leader and the tasks promoted by that leader. Transformational leadership, then, is a key antecedent to the salespersons' satisfaction with the sales manager.

The Control System Orientation to
Satisfaction with the Sales
Manager Relationship
Moderated by
Self-Efficacy

Hypothesis 14. A supervisory end-results orientation and salesperson self-efficacy influence salesperson satisfaction with the manager through their interaction effect. A supervisory end-results orientation with a salesperson high in self-efficacy results in greater satisfaction with the sales manager compared to that of a salesperson low in self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 15. A supervisory activity orientation and salesperson self-efficacy influence salesperson satisfaction with the manager through their interaction effect. A supervisory activity orientation with a salesperson high in self-efficacy results in lower satisfaction with the sales manager compared to that of a salesperson low in self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 16. The supervisory capability orientation and salesperson self-efficacy influence salesperson satisfaction with the manager through their interaction effect. A supervisory capability orientation with a salesperson high in self-efficacy results in lower satisfaction with the sales manager compared to that of a salesperson low in self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy was found to moderate the relationship between a supervisory end-results orientation and satisfaction with the sales manager. Thus, as hypothesized, salespeople who were more confident in their ability to sell were more satisfied with a supervisory end-results control orientation than were salespeople who were less confident in their ability to sell. Salespeople high in self-efficacy believe that they know how to sell. Thus, they feel comfortable with a control system that holds them accountable for their end results without attempting to monitor how they do their jobs. Salespeople low in self-efficacy, however, may find that they are unsure what actions and efforts are required to achieve a desired performance level. Thus, they may feel uncomfortable with a control system that holds them accountable for end results without providing guidance on how to accomplish those results. Hence, salespeople who are higher in self-efficacy were found to be more satisfied with a supervisory end-results control system.

Self-efficacy had no such moderating effect for the relationships between supervisory activity control orientation and supervisory capability control orientation, and satisfaction with the sales manager. However, as indicated in Tables 24 – 26, a significant and positive main effect between these two control orientations and satisfaction with the sales manager was found. Thus,

salespeople high or low in self-efficacy had similar relationships between these supervisory control orientations and their satisfaction with the sales manager.

It was proposed in Chapter III that those low in self-efficacy would be dissatisfied with a supervisory end-results control orientation because this orientation would emphasize sales results without providing guidance on how to attain those results. This reasoning is supported by the analysis performed for Hypothesis 14. It was further proposed that those high in self-efficacy would view both a supervisory activity control orientation and a supervisory capability control orientation as unnecessary, interfering with their freedom to do the tasks that they already felt highly capable of performing. This dynamic was posited to lessen the salesperson's satisfaction with the sales manager if one of these two supervisory control orientations was emphasized. This relationship was not supported by the results obtained in testing Hypotheses 15 and 16.

An explanation for the failure to find the hypothesized moderating effect of self-efficacy follows. Salespeople high in self-efficacy may also recognize that no matter how confident they are in their selling abilities, there is always room for improvement. These high self-efficacy salespeople might then, in a manner similar to lower self-efficacy salespeople, appreciate sales managers' emphasis on improving their selling capabilities and engaging in activities that would make them more efficient and productive. This would result in a non-significant interaction effect and a positive, significant main effect between supervisory capability control orientation and supervisory activity control orientation, on the

one hand, and satisfaction with the sales manager on the other. These were the results found in this study.

Organizational Justice and Satisfaction with the Sales Manager

Hypothesis 17. Higher levels of interpersonal justice are positively associated with salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager.

Hypothesis 18. Higher levels of informational justice are positively associated with salesperson satisfaction with the sales manager.

The hypothesized positive relationship between interpersonal and informational justice and satisfaction with the sales manager was found. This result is consistent with Colquitt et al.'s (2001) meta-analysis of the organizational justice literature and with other studies concerned with both selling and other settings (e.g., Greenberg 1990; Konovsky 2000; Roberts, Coulson, and Chonko 1999; Taylor et al. 1995).

Colquitt et al. (2001) state that both interpersonal and informational justices are likely to be agent-referenced, that is, dependent on the actions of a particular person in a firm rather than the organization as a whole. In a sales setting, interpersonal justice examines the extent to which the salesperson is treated by the sales manager in an appropriate manner (e.g., with consideration and respect), while informational justice examines the timeliness and sufficiency of information flows within the organization. Sales managers who provide higher levels of these two forms of organizational justice increase the salespeople's self-esteem and feelings of being valued by the organization. Hence, the positive

relationship between these two forms of justice and satisfaction with the sales manager is a logical one.

Contributions of the Study

There are several significant contributions that this study offers to the sales and marketing literature. First, and foremost, this study introduced a new construct to the sales and marketing literature, implicit personality theory. It was hypothesized and found that a significant relationship existed between sales managers' implicit personality theory and several key managerial variables. More specifically, implicit personality theory was found to be associated with the coerciveness of sales managers' feedback, the level of sales managers' nonpunitive feedback, the level of transformational leadership provided to their salespeople, and sales managers' supervisory control orientation. This is the first study in sales and marketing to identify sales managers' implicit personality theory as an important influence on their managerial actions and behavior. In addition to being an important contribution to the sales literature, it is also a potentially important contribution to the management literature as well.

The relationship between coercive and nonpunitive feedback and salespeople's perception of organizational justice is a second contribution that had not been previously reported in the sales and marketing literature, nor has it been investigated in the managerial or organizational justice literature. As such, this study makes a unique contribution to the sales literature and, potentially, to the management literature as well.

This study's third contribution, in this case to the sales literature, is its finding of a strong relationship between transformational leadership and salespeople's perceptions of two forms of organizational justice. This relationship has previously been reported in the management literature (Pillai, Scandura, and Williams 1999; Pillai, Schriesheim, and Williams 1999), but this study extends those findings to a sales setting. Further, the current study found a significant, positive relationship between transformational leadership and salespeople's satisfaction with the sales manager, the first such finding in the sales literature. The relationship between transformational leadership and salespeople's job satisfaction has been previously reported in the sales literature (Dubinsky et al. 1995; Podsakoff et al. 1990), but has not been related specifically to satisfaction with the sales manager.

The fourth contribution of this study concerns the relationship among supervisory control system orientation, salesperson self-efficacy, and salespeople's satisfaction with the sales manager. Self-efficacy was found to moderate the relationship between a supervisory end-results control orientation and satisfaction with the sales manager; however it did not moderate the relationship between a supervisory activity or capability control orientation and satisfaction with the sales manager. It was hypothesized that those high in self-efficacy would have higher satisfaction with a sales manager who was high in a supervisory end-results control orientation, and the evidence supported this hypothesis. However, no evidence was found for the hypothesized moderating role for self-efficacy with either of the other two supervisory control system

orientations tested. In fact, as indicated in Chapter IV, Tables 24, 25, and 26, when the interaction term between supervisory control system and satisfaction with the sales manager was not entered into the regression equation, higher levels of each of the three supervisory control systems were associated with higher satisfaction with the sales manager.

The fifth contribution of this study to the sales literature is the finding that both interpersonal and informational justices affect the satisfaction with the sales manager. Other studies have also associated organizational justice with job satisfaction in a wide variety of employment settings (Colquitt et al. 2001; Fields, Pang, Chiu 2000; Greenberg 1990; Konovsky 2000). This is the first study, however, to separately test the affects of two constituents of organizational justice, namely interpersonal and informational justice, on satisfaction with the sales manager.

Managerial Implications

This study has implications for sales management in two major areas, the selection and training of sales managers. This study demonstrates that incremental theorist sales managers are more likely than entity theorist sales managers to provide leadership and feedback that leads to greater levels of satisfaction with the sales manager. Furthermore, incremental theorist sales managers are more likely than entity theorist sales managers to have higher supervisory end-result, activity, and capability orientations, which have, in turn, been associated in this study with greater satisfaction with the sales manager.

When potential sales managers are identified, selecting those with an incremental implicit personality theory is, based on this study's results, likely to lead to higher satisfaction with the sales manager, an integral and key element of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction, in turn, has been associated with higher levels of sales performance and other key organizational outcomes. During the selection process, the implicit personality theory of the prospective sales manager could be identified and used as one of the hiring criteria.

There may be times, however, when an entity theorist candidate is chosen, or has already been chosen, to be a sales manager. When this occurs, special training may be necessary to reduce or eliminate the deleterious affects such sales managers may have on the salespeople. Chiu, Hong, and Dweck (1997) showed that when research subjects were manipulated into accepting the incremental view, they chose behavioral-trait ideas consistent with that incremental view. Entity sales managers, then, might also be trained to accept the incremental view that sales ability and skills can be developed over time, that is, that salespeople are not necessarily 'born' but can, instead, be trained to be effective salespeople.

Limitations of the Study

This study has several limitations that may affect the interpretation of the results. These limitations need to be considered if the results of this study are generalized to other situations.

Sample Frame

The sample frame for this study was composed of those subscribers to *Life Insurance Selling* magazine who identified themselves as life insurance salespeople who sell more than \$2,000,000 worth of life insurance per year. This sample frame contained approximately 8,200 names. Two thousand names were randomly selected from this list. Since the respondents were exclusively life insurance salespeople, these results should be generalized to other insurance sales or industrial sales settings with caution.

Nonresponse

The response rate of 15.02 percent for this study raises the possibility of nonresponse error. However, nonresponse error was addressed in Chapter IV, and is not considered to have biased the results of this study. Respondents from the first and third mailing waves were compared and found to be statistically identical across the study variables. Indeed, nonresponse error should not be assumed unless there are good reasons for believing its presence (Hunt 1990). No such evidence for nonresponse error was presumed or found.

Self-Reporting of the Study Variables

The data collected for this study were obtained from mailed survey forms returned from voluntary, self-reporting respondents. The salesperson self-report method has been found useful and appropriate in previously performed sales research (Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994). It is believed that since the respondents are guaranteed anonymity, they are not likely to bias truthfulness of their responses (Behrman and Perreault 1982). Nonetheless, since the

respondents have access to all of the questions on the survey form prior to completion, answers to earlier questions could be influenced by the questions they know they will be answering later (Churchill 1995).

Cross-Sectional Nature of the Study

The variables of interest in this study perform the roles of antecedents and consequences of other variables included in this study. Although it would be interesting to study these phenomena longitudinally, practical considerations forced this to be a cross-sectional study. The cross-sectional nature of this study precluded measuring the dynamic nature of change in the variables. This is a limitation since respondents' evaluations of their sales managers develop and change over time. However, since the vast majority of the respondents had many years of experience in insurance selling with the sales manager that they evaluated, the initial learning about their sales managers had already occurred. Thus, the cross-sectional nature of this study provides no serious limitation on the interpretation of the results, given this study's exploratory nature and objectives.

Future Research

The strong relationships found between sales managers' implicit personality theory and managerial feedback, leadership, and supervisory control orientation suggest that sales managers' implicit personality theory may affect other managerial variables, as well. To the extent that this is true, future research could reveal valuable implications for both research and industry. Entity

managers—those scoring low on the implicit personality theory scale—engaged in behaviors that appear to be potentially detrimental to their relationships with the salespeople. Ultimately, this may also be detrimental to salesperson performance. The entity theorist ‘worldview’ may also influence managerial behavior in other negative ways. This study has thus provided evidence of a formerly unexamined, but potentially deleterious, trait that a subset of sales managers may possess. Future research should identify the affect that entity theorist sales managers have on salespeople in terms of key variables such as motivation, performance, intention to leave the firm, to name a few.

Other relevant managerial and salesperson variables were omitted from this study. Thus, the influence of sales managers’ implicit personality theory on trust of the sales manager, and salesperson-related variables such as organizational citizenship behavior, role ambiguity, role conflict, and goal orientation, to name a few, remain to be studied. Sales managers’ implicit personality theory may have direct effects on these variables, or the effects may be moderated or mediated through other variables such as leadership, feedback, or supervisory control orientation, as was found in the current study. Also, the relationships among supervisory control system orientation, self-efficacy, and satisfaction with the sales manager should be investigated further.

A second area of future research could involve investigating the relationship between implicit personality theory and supervisory control orientation. The goal for this research would be to discover why incremental theorist sales managers have been rated higher than entity theorist sales

managers in each of the three supervisory control orientations, rather than only in the hypothesized two supervisory control orientations.

This study investigated the effect of transformational leadership on the salespersons' satisfaction with the sales manager as well as its effect on perceptions of both interpersonal and informational justice. Future research might also look at the affects of transactional and laissez-faire leadership on these variables as well.

APPENDIX A
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Life Insurance Sales Survey

Please take a few minutes to complete this survey. We thank you in advance for your input.

- 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 experiences.
- Your participation in this important study is greatly appreciated.

I have read the above description of this study and wish to participate. ___ Yes ___ No
I understand that I may discontinue participation or leave items blank.

Section 1. First, we'd like to ask you a little about your manager; next we'll ask you about your thoughts and opinions about selling. For the following questions, please indicate how you believe your sales manager (the sales manager *to whom you report*) would respond to these statements.

Please tell us how your manager probably feels about these statements.		Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Strongly Agree
1.	Your ability to sell is something about you that you can't change very much.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○
2.	You can learn new things, but you can't really change your basic selling ability.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○
3.	You have a certain amount of sales ability and you really can't do much to change it.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○
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○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○
5.	Everyone is a certain kind of person, and there is not much that can be done to really change that.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○
6.	The kind of person you are is something very basic about you and it can't be changed very much.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○
7.	You can do things differently, but the important parts of who you are can't really be changed.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○
8.	You can always substantially change the kind of person you are.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○
9.	No matter what kind of person you are, you can always change very much.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○
10.	All people can change even their most basic qualities.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○
11.	Everyone, no matter who they are, can significantly change their basic characteristics.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○

Section 2. Please indicate your level of disagreement or agreement with the following statements.

A. The following statements relate to your sales manager's availability.		Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Strongly Agree
1.	My sales manager is available to meet with me.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○
2.	My sales manager spends time with me.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○
3.	My sales manager observes my performance in the field.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○
4.	My sales manager makes joint sales calls with me.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○
B. The following statements concern how you have been treated by your sales manager.		Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Strongly Agree
5.	My sales manager has treated me in a polite manner.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○
6.	My sales manager has treated me with dignity.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○
7.	My sales manager has treated me with respect.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○
8.	My sales manager has refrained from making improper remarks or comments.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○
9.	My sales manager has been candid in communications with me.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○
10.	My sales manager has explained the procedures thoroughly.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○
11.	My sales manager's explanations regarding procedures were reasonable.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○
12.	My sales manager has communicated details to me in a timely manner.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○
13.	My sales manager seems to tailor communications to individuals' specific needs.	1○ 2○	3○ 4○	5○ 6○ 7○

Section 3. This section describes the leadership style of your sales manager as you perceive it.

- If a question is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.
- Please judge how frequently each statement fits your sales manager. Use the following rating scale.

	1 Not at all	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently, if not always	
The sales manager I am rating . . .					Not at All	Frequently, if not always
1.	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
2.	Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
3.	Fails to interfere until problems become serious.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
4.	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
5.	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
6.	Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
7.	Is absent when needed.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
8.	Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
9.	Talks optimistically about the future.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
10.	Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
11.	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
12.	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	

The sales manager I am rating . . .					Not at All	Frequently, if not always
13.	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
14.	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
15.	Spends time teaching and coaching.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
16.	Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
17.	Shows that he/she is a firm believer in, "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
18.	Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
19.	Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
20.	Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
21.	Acts in ways that build my respect.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
22.	Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
23.	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
24.	Keeps track of all mistakes.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	

The sales manager I am rating . . .					Not at All	Frequently, if not always
25.	Displays a sense of power and confidence.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
26.	Articulates a compelling vision of the future.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
27.	Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
28.	Avoids making decisions.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
29.	Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
30.	Gets me to look at problems from many different angles.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
31.	Helps me to develop my strengths.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
32.	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
33.	Please leave this line blank for administrative purposes.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
34.	Delays responding to urgent questions.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
35.	Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
36.	Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	
37.	Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.				1○ 2○ 3○ 4○ 5○	

Section 4. Following are some questions about your manager.

A. In answering the following questions, please focus <i>only</i> on your SALES VOLUME or SALES QUOTA targets.		Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree				Strongly Agree
1.	My manager tells me about the level of achievement expected on sales volume or sales quota goals.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○ 7○
2.	I receive feedback on whether I am meeting expectations on sales volume or sales quota targets.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○ 7○
3.	My manager monitors my progress on achieving sales volume or sales quota targets.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○ 7○
4.	My manager ensures I am aware of the extent to which I attain sales volumes or sales quota goals.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○ 7○

B. For the following questions, please focus <i>only</i> on SALES ACTIVITIES (e.g., call rate, number of presentations, number of customers contacted, sales reports completed).								
5.	My manager informs me about the sales activities I am expected to perform.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
6.	My manager monitors my sales activities.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
7.	My manager informs me on whether I meet his/her expectations on sales activities.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
8.	If my manager feels I need to adjust my sales activities, s/he tells me about it.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
9.	My manager evaluates my sales activities.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○

C. For the following questions, please focus <i>only</i> on SELLING SKILLS / SELLING ABILITIES (e.g., negotiation, communication, presentation).								
10.	My manager has standards by which my selling skills are evaluated.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
11.	My supervisor periodically evaluates the selling skills I use to accomplish a task (e.g., how I negotiate).	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
12.	My manager provides guidance on ways to improve selling skills and ability.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
13.	My supervisor evaluates how I make sales presentations and communicate with customers.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
14.	My manager assists by suggesting <i>why</i> using a particular sales approach may be helpful.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○

Section 5. If a salesperson's performance is significantly below your sales manager's expectations, how likely would your sales manager be to engage in the following actions.

		Very Unlikely						Very Likely
1.	Take no immediate action.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
2.	Do nothing at all.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
3.	Meet the salesperson to discuss possible problems.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
4.	Encourage the salesperson to improve.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
5.	Counsel the salesperson.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
6.	Scold the salesperson.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
7.	Threaten to deduct a portion of the salesperson's commission or salary.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
8.	Threaten to fire the salesperson.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
9.	Deduct a portion of the salesperson's commission or salary.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
10.	Transfer the salesperson to another territory.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○
11.	Fire the salesperson.	1○	2○	3○	4○	5○	6○	7○

Section 6. Please rate your agreement with each of the following statements regarding the sales manager to whom you report.

A.		To a Very Little Extent					To a Very Great Extent	
1.	My sales manager keeps promises that s/he makes to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	My sales manager is not always honest with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I believe the information my sales manager provides me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	My sales manager is genuinely concerned that I succeed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	When making important decisions, my sales manager considers my welfare as well as his/her own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I trust my sales manager to keep my best interests in mind.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	My sales manager is trustworthy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I find it necessary to be cautious with my sales manager.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B.	Judge how frequently each statement fits your sales manager. <i>The sales manager I am rating . . .</i>	Not at All			Frequently, if Not Always	
9.	Is effective in meeting my job-related needs.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Is effective in representing me to higher authority.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Is effective in meeting my organizational requirements.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Leads a group that is effective.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Gets me to do more than I expected to do.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Heightens my desire to succeed.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Increases my willingness to try harder.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 7. Please indicate your level of disagreement or agreement with the following statements.

		Strongly Disagree		Neither Agree Nor Disagree			Strongly Agree	
1.	My sales manager really tries to get our ideas about things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	My sales manager has always been fair in dealings with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	My sales manager gives us credit and praise for work well done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	My sales manager lives up to his/her promises.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	My sales manager does a good job of helping me develop my potential.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	In general, I'm satisfied with my sales manager.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I enjoy working with my sales manager.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	My manager is too interested in his/her success to care about my needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	My sales manager sees that I have the things I need to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Please leave this line blank for administrative purposes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	My work gives a sense of accomplishment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	My job is exciting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	My work is satisfying.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	I'm really doing something worthwhile in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	My company's management is progressive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	Top management at my company really knows its job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	This company operates efficiently and smoothly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	Salespeople in this company receive good support from the home office.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 8. Now we'd like to know about your thoughts and feelings relating to sales . . .
Please indicate your level of disagreement or agreement with the following statements.

	What is <u>your</u> opinion about the following statements?	Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Strongly Agree
1.	Your ability to sell is something about you that you can't change very much.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○	
2.	You can learn new things, but you can't really change your basic selling ability.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○	
3.	You have a certain amount of sales ability and you really can't do much to change it.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○	
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○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○	
5.	Everyone is a certain kind of person, and there is not much that can be done to really change that.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○	
6.	The kind of person you are is something very basic about you and it can't be changed very much.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○	
7.	You can do things differently, but the important parts of who you are can't really be changed.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○	
8.	You can always substantially change the kind of person you are.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○	
9.	No matter what kind of person you are, you can always change very much.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○	
10.	All people can change even their most basic qualities.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○	
11.	Everyone, no matter who they are, can significantly change their basic characteristics.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○	

Section 9. Please indicate your level of disagreement or agreement with the following statements.

		Strongly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Strongly Agree
1.	I know the right thing to do in selling situations.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
2.	I am good at finding out what customers want.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
3.	It is easy for me to get customers to see my point of view.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
4.	I am good at selling.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
5.	It is difficult for me to put pressure on a customer.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
6.	I find it difficult to convince a customer who has a different viewpoint than mine.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
7.	My temperament is not well-suited for selling.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	

Section 10. Please rate your own level of performance in insurance sales for the last two (2) years.

A.	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	About Average	Far Above Average
1.	Sales commissions earned.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
2.	Exceeding sales objectives and targets.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
3.	Generating new-customer sales.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
4.	Generating current-customer sales (additional sales).	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
5.	Product knowledge and understanding.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
6.	Assisting your sales supervisor to meet his or her goals.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
7.	Quickly generating sales of <i>new</i> company products.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
8.	Number of current-customer contacts (phone, mail, or in-person).	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
9.	Number of prospecting contacts (phone, mail, or in-person).	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
10.	Customer satisfaction.	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
11.	Overall, compared to the typical agent in my firm, I rate my performance . . .	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
12.	How many new insurance sales (i.e., completed applications) have you averaged per month over the last year? sales / month.			
B.	How would you rate your chances of quitting your company . . .	Very Low		Very High
13.	. . . in the next three months?	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
14.	. . . in the next six months?	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	
15.	. . . sometime in the next year?	1○	2○ 3○ 4○ 5○ 6○ 7○	

Section 11. Please tell us some background information about your sales manager.

1. My sales manager's job title is: _____
2. How long have you worked for the sales manager to whom you report? _____ years
3. How long have you *known* the sales manager to whom you report? _____ years
4. How many salespeople report to / are supervised by your sales manager? _____
5. What insurance-related designations/certifications does your sales manager hold? _____
6. The sales manager to whom I report has the following years of experience:
 _____ years in insurance sales _____ years as an insurance sales manager
 _____ years in *all* types of sales _____ years in *all* types of sales management
7. The sales manager to whom I report is: Male Female → → → 8. and is about: _____ years old.
9. How many years of formal education did your sales manager complete? Less than high school High school Some college
 College degree Advanced degree (Masters, JD, etc.)
10. *About* how much does your sales manager earn per year? < \$25k \$25k-49k \$50-74k \$75-99k >\$100k

Section 12. Please answer the following background questions describing your present situation. All answers are strictly confidential.

1. My job title is: _____
2. Please indicate the type of product you *primarily* sell. Check up to **three** products that you sell the **most**:
 Term Life Whole/Universal Life Property/Casualty Ins. Other (specify): _____
 Disability Health Insurance Annuities
3. Would you consider yourself a *captive agent*? yes no
4. How competitive is the insurance market in which you compete? Is there a lot of competition or a little?

	Not very					Highly	
	Competitive					Competitive	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. On average, how many times per month does your sales manager meet with you on an individual basis? _____ times/month
6. Where would your typical customer's income fall within the following national income ranges?
 Bottom 25% Lower middle 25% Upper middle 25% Upper 25%
7. Approximately what percentage of your life insurance commissions come from:

New business—from new customers	_____ %
Repeat business—from current customers	_____ %
	+ _____ %
	100%
8. How many closing presentations do you conduct per month? _____ closings per month
9. How much training have you had in insurance sales:
 a. Pre-Contact Training – training **prior** to selling insurance _____ days
 b. Career Training – training in your first **two years** of insurance sales (e.g., company courses) _____ days
 c. Advanced Training – training in advanced forms of insurance sales (e.g., CLU, ChFC) _____ days
10. *Approximately* what percentage of your compensation is . . .
 _____ % Commission/Bonus (on personal production) _____ % Other—please describe: _____
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 with **all** insurance employers _____ years
 selling (in **all** types of sales) _____ years
13. On average, how many hours per week have you worked over the last year? _____ hours per week

Please tell us about yourself (for statistical purposes). All information is *strictly confidential*.

14. Are you: Male Female → → → 14. Your age: _____ → → → 15. Married Not married
15. How many years of formal education did you complete? Less than high school High school Some college
 College degree Advanced degree (Masters, JD, etc.)
16. Do you hold any insurance-related designations/certifications? If so, which one(s): _____
17. What is your average annual income over the last two years: < \$15k \$15-29k \$30-39k \$40-49k \$50-59k
 \$60-69k \$70-79k \$80-89k \$90-99k over \$100k

-- Thank you for participating in this study. Your help is greatly appreciated. --

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTERS

Cover Letter for the First Wave of the Survey Mailing

Dear Life Insurance Professional:

As a sales researcher and former salesperson, I am greatly interested in ways to increase salesperson productivity. I am presently conducting a nationwide study of life insurance professionals to identify the influence that managers have on insurance salesperson productivity. I would greatly appreciate your assistance in this regard.

Through your insights, opinions, and experiences, as well as those of others like you, I hope to determine how managers can help their salespeople become more productive and, most importantly, *stay* productive. Just as importantly, my objective is to identify how the sales manager-salesperson relationship affects salesperson motivation and, ultimately, their success.

Having spent 15 years in sales and sales management before going into education and research, I know how valuable your time is; however, please take about 15 minutes to complete the enclosed questionnaire. Unfortunately, I can send out only a limited number of questionnaires, so every response is important—your participation is *crucial* to my study.

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. To make the process convenient, I have enclosed a postage-paid reply envelope.

As a token of my sincere thanks, I would like to send you an Executive Summary of the results of this study. You should find it interesting, informative, and helpful to your business. Simply write “summary” on the back of your business card and enclose it with your questionnaire or, to preserve your anonymity, just drop your card in a separate envelope (or email your contact information to gmosley@troy.edu).

I hope that you can take a few minutes from your busy schedule, complete the questionnaire, and return it to me. Again, your cooperation and help are vital to my study. If you have any questions about the survey, please feel free to contact me at (334) 670-3146 or my research partner, Dr. Sean Dwyer, at (318) 257-3584 (dwyer@cab.LaTech.edu). Thank you in advance for your assistance. It is greatly appreciated.

Respectfully,

Gordon Mosley, Professor of Marketing

P.S. If you feel that the survey does not apply to you, *please* let me know this either in a note placed in the reply envelope or via email (gmosley@troy.edu). I will then be able to send it to another person.

Cover Letter for the Second Wave of the Survey Mailing

Dear Life Insurance Professional:

About ten days ago, we mailed you a questionnaire examining salesperson productivity and the relationship between salespeople and their sales managers. 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 supply is very important to our study. Our objective is to identify how sales managers influence and impact salesperson productivity. And remember, all of your responses to this survey are *anonymous*.

Again, as a token of my sincere thanks, I would like to send you an Executive Summary of the results of this study. You should find it interesting, informative, and helpful to your business. Simply write "summary" on the back of your business card and enclose it with your questionnaire or, to preserve your anonymity, just drop your card in a separate envelope (or email your contact information to gmosley@troy.edu). Additionally, you can still qualify for the gift certificate drawing (see box below).

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 (334) 670-3146.

Thank you in advance for your assistance. It is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Gordon Mosley
Professor of Marketing

P.S. If you feel that the survey does not apply to you, *please* let me know this either in a note placed in the reply envelope or via email (gmosley@troy.edu). I will then be able to send it to another person.

Cover Letter for the Third Wave of the Survey Mailing

Dear Life Insurance Professional:

As you may recall, we mailed you a questionnaire examining salesperson productivity and the relationship between salespeople and their sales managers. 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, another copy is enclosed. If you have not returned a completed copy, will you please take a few minutes to give us your response? This is our last attempt to gather the final few surveys that we can. The information that you supply is very important to our study. And remember, all of your responses to this survey are *anonymous*.

Again, as a token of my sincere thanks, I would like to send you an Executive Summary of the results of this study. You should find it interesting, informative, and helpful to your business. Simply write "summary" on the back of your business card and enclose it with your questionnaire or, to preserve your anonymity, just drop your card in a separate envelope (or email your contact information to gmosley@troy.edu). Additionally, you can still qualify for the gift certificate drawing at this time (see box below).

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 (334) 670-3146.

Thank you in advance for your assistance. It is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Gordon Mosley
Professor of Marketing

P.S. If you feel that the survey does not apply to you, *please* let me know this either in a note placed in the reply envelope or via email (gmosley@troy.edu). I will then be able to send it to another person.

APPENDIX C

ITEMS IN THE SCALES USED IN THIS STUDY

Implicit Personality Theory of Sales

1. Your ability to sell is something about you that you can't change very much.
2. You can learn new things, but you can't really change your basic selling ability.
3. You have a certain amount of sales ability and you really can't do much to change it.

Feedback

Nonpunitive Feedback

1. Meet the salesperson to discuss possible problems.
2. Encourage the salesperson to improve.
3. Counsel the salesperson.

Coercive Feedback

1. Scold the salesperson.
2. Threaten to deduct a portion of the salesperson's commission or salary.
3. Threaten to fire the salesperson.
4. Deduct a portion of the salesperson's commission or salary.
5. Transfer the salesperson to another territory.
6. Fire the salesperson.

Transformational Leadership

Idealized Influence (Attributed)

1. Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her.
2. Displays a sense of power and confidence.
3. Acts in ways that build my respect.
4. Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.

Idealized Influence (Behavior)

5. Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs.
6. Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.
7. Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.
8. Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.

Individual Consideration

9. Spends time teaching and coaching.
10. Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.
11. Helps me to develop my strengths.
12. Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.

Inspirational Motivation

13. Talks optimistically about the future.
14. Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.
15. Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.
16. Articulates a compelling vision of the future.

Intellectual Stimulation

17. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.
18. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.
19. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.
20. Gets me to look at problems from many different angles.

Organizational Justice

Interpersonal Justice

1. My sales manager has treated me in a polite manner.
2. My sales manager has refrained from making improper remarks or comments.
3. My sales manager has treated me with respect.
4. My sales manager has treated me with dignity.

Informational Justice

1. My sales manager has been candid in communications with me.
2. My sales manager has explained the procedures thoroughly.
3. My sales manager's explanations regarding procedures were reasonable.
4. My sales manager has communicated details to me in a timely manner.
5. My sales manager seems to tailor communications to individuals' specific needs.

Supervisory Control System Orientation

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 volumes or sales quota goals.

Supervisory Activity Orientation

1. My manager informs me about the sales activities I am expected to perform.
2. My manager monitors my sales activities.
3. My manager informs me on whether I meet his/her expectations on sales activities.
4. My manager evaluates my sales activities.
5. If my manager feels I need to adjust my sales activities, s/he tells me about it.

Supervisory Capability Orientation

1. My manager has standards by which my selling skills are evaluated.
2. My manager assists by suggesting *why* using a particular sales approach may be helpful.
3. My manager provides guidance on ways to improve selling skills and ability.
4. My supervisor evaluates how I make sales presentations and communicate with customers.
5. My supervisor periodically evaluates the selling skills I use to accomplish a task (e.g., how I negotiate).

Satisfaction with the Sales Manager

1. My sales manager really tries to get our ideas about things.
2. My sales manager has always been fair in dealings with me.
3. My sales manager gives us credit and praise for work well done.
4. My sales manager lives up to his/her promises.
5. My sales manager does a good job of helping me develop my potential.
6. In general, I'm satisfied with my sales manager.
7. My sales manager sees that I have the things I need to do my job.
8. My manager is too interested in his/her success to care about my needs. (R)
9. I enjoy working with my sales manager.

Self-Efficacy

1. I know the right thing to do in selling situations.
2. I am good at finding out what customers want.
3. It is easy for me to get customers to see my point of view.
4. I am good at selling.
5. It is difficult for me to put pressure on a customer. (R)
6. My temperament is not well-suited for selling. (R)
7. I find it difficult to convince a customer who has a different viewpoint than mine. (R)

(R) These items were reverse scored.

APPENDIX D

HUMAN USE COMMITTEE APPROVAL



LOUISIANA TECH
UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF UNIVERSITY RESEARCH

MEMORANDUM

TO: Dr. Sean Dwyer

FROM: Elizabeth Womack, University Research

SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW

DATE: 8/04/05

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been done for your proposed study entitled:

“The Influence of Implicit Personality Theory on Sales Managers' Leadership Effectiveness.”
HUC-187

The proposed study's revised 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. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. 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.

Projects should be renewed annually. This approval was finalized on August 4, 2005 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including data analysis, continues beyond August 4, 2006. Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

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

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conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

If you have any questions, please contact Dr. Mary Livingston at 257-4315.

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