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Salesperson Perceptions - An Examination of Sales Manager Leadership and Salesperson Engagement

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SALESPERSON PERCEPTIONS – AN EXAMINATION OF SALES MANAGER
LEADERSHIP AND SALESPERSON ENGAGEMENT

by
Marleen D. Pope

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements for the
Degree of
Doctor of Business Administration
in the
Coles College of Business
Kennesaw State University

Kennesaw, GA
2017

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DEDICATION

To my family and friends who supported me during the pursuit of my dream to obtain a doctorate. Your prayers and willingness to help were essential to me achieving this goal.

This dissertation is dedicated to:

My family—The Ellises and The Popes.

My grandparents' legacy of education.

My parents for carrying out that legacy.

My sister and brother for helping me continue the legacy.

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ABSTRACT

SALESPERSON PERCEPTIONS – AN EXAMINATION OF SALES MANAGER LEADERSHIP AND SALESPERSON ENGAGEMENT

by
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Employee engagement is vital to organizations because of its relationship with performance and retention. Specifically, salespeople, as boundary spanners, pose unique challenges to organizations. To date, the literature has given limited attention to salesperson engagement. This study explores the assertion that managers are the primary source of employee disengagement by examining the perceptions salespeople have of their sales manager and how their perceptions influence salesperson engagement. Salesperson perceptions are the focus of this study because what one perceives is one's reality.

Job-Demands Resource (J-DR) theory was used as the theoretical framework to investigate the relationships in the proposed model. First, this study examines the relationship between how salespeople perceive their sales manager's dispositional traits (extroversion/introversion and other/self-orientation) influence the perception of their sales manager's leadership orientation. Building upon recent work by Grisaffe, VanMeter, and Chonko (2016) on hierarchical servant leadership, the study explores if servant leadership, a higher form of leadership, has the greatest impact on salesperson engagement. Additionally, to provide more context, the impact of market dynamism and ethical climate on the perceived sales manager leadership-salesperson engagement

relationship was explored. Lastly, how salesperson engagement impacts performance (in-role and extra-role) and turnover intention was evaluated. This study contributes to sales management literature by adding to servant leadership research and providing empirical insights into salesperson engagement, which is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption.

The research objectives were accomplished through an online quantitative survey administered by Qualtrics. The total sample was 208 US business-to-business salespeople. Given the complexity of the proposed model, the investigative nature of the research, the relatively small sample size, and the focus on prediction, the proposed relationships were examined using PLS-SEM.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Only one-third of employees are engaged in their work and a primary cause of their disengagement are managers (Beck & Harter, 2014), a surprising and alarmingly low figure given engagement's relationship with the performance and retention of employees (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). Engaged employees are critical for organizations to have and maintain—they “work hard (vigor), are involved (dedicated), and feel happily engrossed (absorbed) in their work” (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008, p. 190). Ultimately employee engagement translates into productivity, customer satisfaction, and loyalty, which contributes to the profits of an organization (Harter, Schmidt, Agrawal, & Plowman, 2013; Harter et al., 2002; Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005; Verbeke, Dietz, & Verwaal, 2011). In essence, the engagement of an employee drastically impacts organizations, both internally and externally, in numerous ways.

Because employee engagement extensively impacts the organization, scholars have started to devote attention to understanding what impacts employee engagement and how employee engagement impacts the business environment. A key focus of this research is the extent to which manager support both directly and indirectly influences subordinate engagement (Breevaart et al., 2014; den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011). Reinforcing the impact of managers' influence on subordinate engagement, the Gallup Organization asserts that managers account for at least 70% of the variance in employee engagement (Beck & Harter, 2014). This estimate

indicates the critical importance for employees to feel their needs and interests are being taken care of by their leaders (Harter et al., 2002).

Despite recent developments in employee engagement research, boundary spanning sales employees pose unique challenges for managers. Specifically, manager support in the form of leadership behaviors (Kahn, 1990) may be even more important for enhancing salesperson engagement than the traditional non-boundary spanning employee. In part, this is due to most business-to-business salespeople working remotely from other employees, therefore limiting their access to job resources (e.g. work social support) (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Mulki, Locander, Marshall, Harris, & Hensel, 2008). Additionally, business-to-business salespeople deal with both internal and external factors to their organization (Jaramillo, Mulki, & Solomon, 2006; Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014) resulting in job demands that differ from non-boundary spanning employees.

While sales employees work in an atypical work environment, there is limited attention by researchers focused specifically on employee engagement in the sales context (Medhurst & Albrecht, 2011). Present sales research primarily defines salesperson engagement in ways that diverge from the classical definition of employee engagement. For example, Miao and Evans (2013) define salesperson engagement as adaptive selling behavior and selling effort. Additionally, other sales research defines salesperson engagement as the combination of employee satisfaction and organizational commitment (Zablah, Franke, Brown, & Bartholomew, 2012). Conceptual research by Medhurst and Albrecht (2011) is the only known research that defines salesperson engagement with the classical definition of employee engagement—“positive, fulfilling,

affective-motivational state of work-related well-being that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74).

Existing studies also do not address whether sales manager dispositional traits (i.e. personality and other/self-orientation) and leadership can positively influence salesperson engagement. For example, personality traits are regarded as a natural framework for understanding leadership behavior (e.g. Strang & Kuhnert, 2009). At the same time, other-orientation versus self-orientation is a trait associated with leaders who are concerned about the well-being of their followers (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2007). Finally, leadership positively affects employee engagement by placing importance on valuing, empowering, and developing followers (van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, & Alkema, 2014).

Given the importance of sales manager leadership in relation to salesperson engagement, the purpose of this study is to examine the influence of salesperson perceptions of sales manager dispositional traits and leadership on salesperson engagement, performance, and turnover intention. To accomplish the objectives of this study, Job Demand-Resources (JD-R) theory will be used as the theoretical framework to build the model presented in Figure 1. Sales literature has characterized both transformational and servant leadership as leadership orientations that are instrumental in motivating salespeople to meet customer needs (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009a; Jolson, Dubinsky, Yammarino, & Comer, 1993). Although conceptually distinct, transformational and servant leadership share many similarities (Graham, 1991; Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004). To address the challenge of empirically distinguishing

these two leadership orientations, this study will build upon the recent work of Grisaffe, VanMeter, and Chonko (2016) that examines hierarchical servant leadership (HSL). HSL suggests that servant leaders exhibit distinctive behaviors and also exhibit behaviors that overlap with transformational and transactional leadership (Grisaffe et al., 2016). Salesperson perceptions of their sales manager's dispositional traits (extroversion/introversion and other/self-orientation) will be examined as antecedents to salesperson's perceptions of sales manager leadership. Moreover, salesperson performance (in-role and extra-role) and turnover intention will be examined as outcomes of salesperson perceived sales manager leadership and salesperson engagement. To provide additional context to the study, two environmental moderators will be examined. First, market dynamism, the level of change or instability that is in a salesperson's market (Jansen, Vera, & Crossan, 2009). Second, ethical climate, salesperson perceptions of their organization's ethical standards and practices (McClaren, 2013). Both moderators will aid in better understanding environmental factors that may influence the relationship between salesperson perceived sales manager leadership and salesperson engagement.

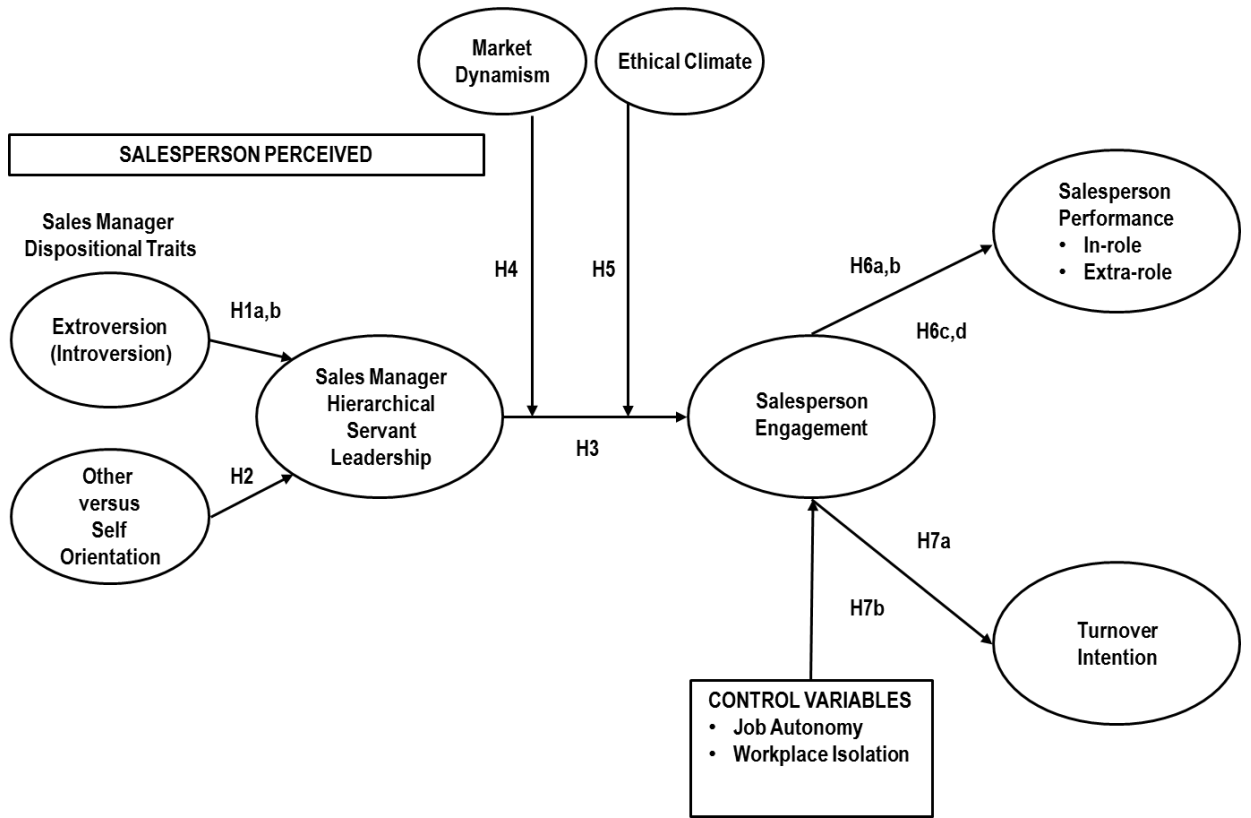


Figure 1. Proposed Conceptual Model

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter 2 begins with an overview of JD-R theory as the theoretical framework for this study. Then, a literature review of the constructs included in the proposed conceptual model is provided. Following the literature review, linkages between the constructs are explored and hypotheses developed.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

JD-R theory conceptualizes the interplay between job demands and job resources where resources are related to motivation and offset the strain that is linked to job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands are the physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained effort and are therefore associated with certain costs (e.g. exhaustion) to the employee (Demerouti, Nachreiner, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2001). Examples of job demands are workload, time pressure, activity control, and outcome control (Crawford et al., 2010; Miao & Evans, 2013). Job resources are the physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that support employees in achieving work goals, reduce job demands, and stimulate personal growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001). At the interpersonal and social level, job resources include peer and manager support (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004). Manager support may alleviate job demands—e.g. autonomy, feedback, and coaching (Menguc, Auh, Fisher, & Haddad, 2013; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The motivation resulting from job resources leads to employee engagement with their work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

The JD-R model is applicable to many diverse occupations and therefore is germane to job demands and job resources inherent to a particular role (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Based on a literature review, JD-R theory is a promising framework for sales management. For example, Zablah, Chonko, Bettencourt, Allen, and Haas (2012) utilize the framework to understand determinants of salesperson performance with new products by casting new product selling as a job demand and new product training, trustworthy managers, and a supportive team as job resources. Additionally, Miao and Evans (2013) examine the interactive effects of job demands (sales controls) and job resources (capability control) on salesperson performance mediated through job engagement (adaptive selling and selling effort) and job stress (role ambiguity and role conflict). Both studies illustrate the relevance and applicability of JD-R theory to the sales context.

2.2 Literature Review

This literature review provides an overview of the constructs that explain the relationships between salesperson perceived sales manager dispositional traits (personality and other/self-orientation) and leadership, salesperson engagement, and salesperson outcomes (performance and turnover intention). First, the focal construct in the model, salesperson engagement is introduced. Next, the antecedents (sales manager dispositional traits and leadership) are reviewed followed by the moderators (market dynamism and ethical climate). Then, the salesperson outcomes of performance (in-role and extra-role) and turnover intention are defined. Lastly, the control variables are summarized.

2.2.1 Salesperson engagement. Based on JD-R theory, employee engagement requires job resources to balance inherent job demands to achieve employee well-being and performance outcomes (Bakker et al., 2004; Medhurst & Albrecht, 2011). Schaufeli et al. (2002) define employee engagement as a persistent state that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. The vigor dimension of employee engagement describes an employee's high levels of energy and mental resilience, their willingness to invest effort, and persist even in difficult situations (netem& Salanova, 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2002). Dedication refers to an employee's involvement in their work and they experience a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Absorption is reflected by an employee being engrossed in their work and is akin to experiencing 'flow' such that they are reluctant to detach from their work (Schaufeli et al., 2006, 2002). Researchers predominately study employee engagement as a unitary construct because its three dimensions are closely related (Schaufeli, 2012).

The aforementioned definition of employee engagement is classified as state engagement. State engagement is a cognitive condition that is persistent and pervasive—it manifests over multiple experiences (Schaufeli et al., 2002). In addition to state engagement, the literature also considers employee engagement as a behavior and a trait. State engagement describes positive job affectivity and connotes feelings of persistence, vigor, energy, dedication, absorption, enthusiasm, alertness, and pride (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Schaufeli et al., 2006). Behavioral engagement is considered a result of state engagement and consists of adaptive behavior that describes employee actions that support organizational effectiveness (Kahn, 1990; Macey & Schneider, 2008). Lastly,

trait engagement describes the inherent characteristics that influence an employee's state and behavioral engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008).

Engaged employees know what is expected of them, have what they need, feel they have an impact, are fulfilled by their work, perceive they are a part of a team they trust, and have an opportunity to develop professionally (Harter et al., 2002). There is debate, however, regarding how to delineate engagement. The debate around employee engagement centers on whether engagement and burnout are essentially the same constructs. Job burnout and its origin in JD-R theory has been the catalyst for much of the research on employee engagement (Bakker et al., 2008). Job burnout is a prolonged response to chronic interpersonal job stressors (Maslach & Leiter, 2008) or stated another way, job burnout is the erosion of employee engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). An employee's psychological relationship with their job can be viewed as being a continuum from burnout (negative) to engagement (positive) (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Another perspective is they are distinct psychological variables, have different antecedents, are negatively related, and are empirically distinct (Schaufeli, 2013; Schaufeli et al., 2002). Yet, Cole, Walter, Bedeian, and O'Boyle (2012) suggest from their meta-analysis that they are highly correlated and lack discriminant validity. For the purpose of the present study, engagement is considered a unitary construct representative of a state that is distinct from burnout.

2.2.2 Salesperson perceived sales manager personality. Personality equates to a person's reputation and consists of the characteristics that are enduring and explain their consistent patterns of behavior (Andersen, 2006; Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994; Lanjananda & Patterson, 2009). A commonly used comprehensive framework for

personality is the Big Five or Five Factor Model of personality—extroversion (introversion), agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism (emotional stability), and openness to experience (McCrae & Costa, 1987; Mount & Barrick, 1998). These personality traits are considered higher level dispositional traits that influence work behavior and explain considerable variance in performance (e.g. Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Mount & Barrick, 1998; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991). The Big Five trait most often associated with sales professionals is extroversion (Costa, McCrae, & Holland, 1984; Yang, Kim, & McFarland, 2011). Extroversion is the focus of this study because it is a valid predictor of performance for managers (Barrick & Mount, 2005).

The origin of extroversion theory is attributed to Eysenck (1957) and is based upon variations in baseline cortical activity. In other words, extroverts desire more external stimulation than introverts (Geen, 1984; Stewart, 1996). Therefore, extroverts have a tendency toward sociability and aggression versus introverts who prefer privacy and independence (Stewart, 1996). Adjectives descriptive of extroversion include gregarious, affectionate, friendly, talkative, and assertive (McCrae & Costa, 1987). In contrast, adjectives ascribed to introverts are quiet, reserved, retiring, shy, silent, and withdrawn (McCrae & John, 1992). Although extroversion and introversion are clearly defined in the literature, the debate continues regarding which trait is most desirable for effective sales leadership (e.g. Bono & Judge, 2004; de Hoogh, den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005; Do & Minbashian, 2014; Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011; Spangler, Dubinsky, Yammarino, & Jolson, 1997).

Much of the research examining personality is self-rated (Barrick & Mount, 2005; Do & Minbashian, 2014). However, the perception of one's personality by others is also

an important consideration. “Perception involves how we see the world. Other than perception of ourselves, the most important target of our perceptions is other people” (Sager, Yi, & Futrell, 1998, p. 2). It could be argued that personality is best assessed by the individual, however, self-other ratings of personality are not very different (Kenny & West, 2010; Mount, Barrick, & Strauss, 1994). No known sales research has explored sales leader personality from the perspective of the salesperson. Investigating sales manager personality from the perspective of the salesperson instead of the sales manager can yield insight into how sales manager behavior influences salespeople (Sager, Naletelich, & Dubinsky, 2014).

2.2.3 Salesperson perceived sales manager other/self-orientation. Other-orientation theory explains how the motivational perspectives of others versus self and their corresponding judgment processes (heuristic vs. rational) relate to behavior (Korsgaard, Meglino, Lester, & Jeong, 2010). Other-orientation is defined as “the extent to which individuals are concerned with the welfare of others” (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2007, p. 59). Individuals who are other-oriented are less likely to make choices or act based on an assessment of the cost and benefits to themselves, instead, their actions are based upon social influence (Korsgaard et al., 2010). More specifically, other-oriented people focus their information gathering and processing on “group-level attributes, social cues, and consequences” (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009, pp. 913–4). Accordingly, other-oriented leaders seek to benefit their followers as opposed to benefiting themselves (Barrow & Mirabella, 2009; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2007).

In contrast, self-orientation or self-concern is conceptually and empirically distinct from other-orientation (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). Self-orientation is motivated

by an assessment of the cost and benefits of one's actions to self (Korsgaard et al., 2010). Leaders who are self-orientated tend to make antisocial decisions (Marinova & Park, 2014). These leaders use charisma to self-aggrandize and exploit others (House & Howell, 1992).

2.2.4 Salesperson perceived sales manager leadership orientation. Sales leadership is the ability to influence salespeople to act towards a joint purpose in a manner that is representative of the values and motivations of the sales organization, the leader, and the followers (Burns, 1978; Childers, Dubinsky, & Skinner, 1990; Ingram, LaForge, Locander, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2005). Within the overall literature, there are approximately 23 leadership theory categories consisting of 66 different leadership theories (Dinh et al., 2014), some of which apply better to sales settings. Historically neo-charismatic leadership theories—transactional, transformational, and charismatic—are the most studied (Dinh et al., 2014). Additionally, researchers find that transformational leadership results in greater sales performance (Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001; Shannahan, Bush, & Shannahan, 2013). Similarly, servant leadership is an up-and-coming theory that like transformational leadership emphasizes inspiring and motivating followers to achieve great things (Dinh et al., 2014; Graham, 1991). This study will examine salesperson perceived sales manager leadership through the lens of HSL. HSL is based on the premise that servant leaders have “distinctive characteristics that augment transformational leadership characteristics, which themselves augment transactional leadership characteristics” (Grisaffe et al., 2016, p. 41).

Transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional leadership is characterized by an exchange process or task orientation with the leader and follower

(Bass, 1985). Followers receive a reward (e.g. compensation, recognition) for meeting their leader's expectations (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Additionally, transactional leaders take corrective action when standards are not met (Bass, 1990). In contrast, transformational leadership is characterized by a focus on a shared goal or vision (Bass, 1985) and is viewed as the "superior" form of leadership (Seltzer & Bass, 1990). However, Dubinsky, Yammarino, and Jolson (1995) conclude that transformational leadership should not be thought of as an alternative for transactional leadership, but rather is a complement. Transactional leadership behaviors from a sales manager can positively influence salesperson in-role performance (Mackenzie et al., 2001). In fact, many leaders will exhibit behaviors that are inclusive of transactional and transformational leadership (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Transformational sales leaders differentiate themselves from transactional sales leaders by influencing salespeople to also support the goals of the team resulting in increased overall performance (Mackenzie et al., 2001).

Transformational and servant leadership. Transformational and servant leaders are desirable in a business-to-business sales environment because they serve as role models, show consideration for others, empower followers, generate trust, effectively communicate, and ultimately are supportive of salespeople meeting customer needs (Jaramillo et al., 2009a; Jolson et al., 1993; Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). The two orientations share many similarities yet are distinct leadership approaches. A transformational leader is one who "uses charisma, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation" (Bass, 1985, p. 26) to inspire employees to accomplish organizational goals (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). A servant leader's first desire and focus

is to serve; they use power for service (Greenleaf, 1977; Sun, 2013; van Dierendonck, 2011). The greatest point of difference is their means of influence—transformational leaders influence through charismatic approaches (Parolini, Patterson, & Winston, 2009; Stone et al., 2004) while servant leaders influence through servanthood (Russell & Stone, 2002).

Servant leadership distinctions. “Servant leadership is demonstrated by empowering and developing people; by expressing humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, and stewardship; and by providing direction” (van Dierendonck, 2011, p. 1229). A servant leader wants a social identification that is interpreted as someone who comes from a position of service; someone who uses power as a means to serve others (Greenleaf, 1977; Sun, 2013; van Dierendonck, 2011). Personal integrity, strong relationships with followers, and service to the community are key servant leader attributes (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). Servant leaders bring out the best in their followers and assist them in achieving their potential (Liden et al., 2008). Additionally, a servant leader is rooted in moral responsibility that leads to elevating themselves and their followers morally and ethically (Ehrhart, 2004; Greenleaf, 1977; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008). Servant leaders are beneficial to sales organizations because they build a sense of community, embody service, and model customer-oriented behaviors (Bande et al., 2016; Jaramillo, Bande, & Varela, 2015; Jaramillo et al., 2009a; Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009b). In distinguishing servant leadership from transformational leadership, Grisaffe et al. (2016) assert that serving first and selflessly focusing on others’ needs are characteristics of true servant leaders.

Salesperson perceived leadership. Most leadership research examines the follower's perception of leadership ability (Bono & Judge, 2004; Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008; Lord & Dinh, 2014), probably because followers typically are less biased assessors of their leader's use of a particular leadership orientation (Brown & Reilly, 2009). Additionally, perceptions of leadership translate into what the perceiver believes are the leader's leadership characteristics (Lord & Dinh, 2014)—in other words, perception is reality. The perceptions salespeople have of their sales manager's behavior influences how they feel about their job and their attachment to their organization (Sager et al., 1998). In sales research, salesperson perceived leadership orientation has been examined for both transformational (e.g. Dubinsky, Yammarino, Jolson, & Spangler, 1995; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2005; Mullins & Syam, 2014) and servant leadership (e.g. Bande et al., 2016; Jaramillo et al., 2009a, 2009b; Schwepker, 2016).

2.2.5 Sales environment moderators. As boundary spanning employees, many business-to-business salespeople work outside of their organization and their daily activities are shaped by both their organization and their external market (Aldrich & Herker, 1977; Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014). The sales environment is a conglomerate of factors that determine how salespeople behave. For example, industry and company characteristics, product portfolio and market position, customer types and complexity of customer relationships, collectively shape a salesperson's work environment. Two components of a business-to-business salesperson's work environment of particular interest are the dynamism of their market and ethical climate in their organization. Business-to-business salespeople, due to what they sell and/or the conditions of their market, vary in the degree of environmental instability they experience (Avila & Fern,

1986; Avlonitis & Panagopoulos, 2006). Additionally, as the face of their organization, salespeople and how the ethics of their company affect them has garnered attention. (e.g. Briggs, Jaramillo, & Weeks, 2012; Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2009; Valentine, 2009; Weeks, Loe, Chonko, & Wakefield, 2004). Because sales manager leadership behavior may also impact how a salesperson responds to market dynamism and to ethical climate, the interaction of these two environmental factors is germane to examine.

Market dynamism. Business-to-business salespeople experience diverse levels of dynamism in their market depending on their organization, what they sell, and where they sell. More specifically factors such as the type of industry, customer characteristics, product portfolio and life cycle stage, and competition influence the level of instability or change in a market (Jansen et al., 2009). Environments that experience constant change may negatively affect work engagement if job resources are not provided as a balance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Correia de Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2014).

Ethical climate. In sales, an ethical climate is comprised of salespeople's perceptions of ethical standards that are reflected in the organization's practices, procedures, norms, and values (McClaren, 2013; Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006) and it defines ethical behavior within an organization (Deshpande, 1996). An organization's ethical climate is shaped by leadership and is probably the most important factor in influencing the ethical behavior of employees (Weeks et al., 2004). Ethical climate influences salespeople in a personal manner in the form of job stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Babin, Boles, & Robin, 2000; Fournier, Tanner, Chonko, & Manolis, 2010; Pettijohn, Pettijohn, & Taylor, 2008; Schwepker, 2001). After a comprehensive literature review of personal selling and sales management

research, McClaren (2013) concludes that ethical climate moderates relationships between antecedents and salesperson personal outcomes, such as work engagement.

2.2.6 Salesperson performance. Performance encompasses the in-role and extra-role behaviors that an employee contributes directly and indirectly to organizational goals (Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010). Specifically for salespeople, these behaviors impact market share and sales (Miao & Evans, 2013). In-role salesperson performance—e.g. meeting sales goals and requirements established by the organization—is a central issue in sales management (Jaramillo, Mulki, & Marshall, 2005; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998). Because it is difficult to obtain objective in-role performance data, academic researchers primarily use subjective measures (Jaramillo et al., 2005). Subjective in-role sales performance equates to perceived salesperson behaviors that are indicative of achieving sales goals (Schwepker & Schultz, 2015).

Extra-role performance consists of an employee's discretionary behaviors that positively impact their organization yet are not required to meet job expectations (Bakker et al., 2004; Mackenzie et al., 2001). Extra-role behaviors are also characterized as organizational citizenship behaviors—for example, helping behavior and civic virtue (Marshall, Moncrief, Lassk, & Shepherd, 2012). For salespeople, extra-role performance includes the extent to which they go the extra mile to serve customers (Jaramillo et al., 2009a; Netemeyer, Maxham III, & Pullig, 2005).

2.2.7 Turnover intention. Retaining sales talent is important to organizations because of the economic impact associated with salesperson turnover, particularly when good salespeople leave to go to competitors (Jaramillo, Mulki, & Boles, 2013; Rutherford, Park, & Han, 2011). Turnover intention or the propensity to leave one's

organization is an accurate predictor of actual turnover (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007) and is used by many sales researchers as a surrogate for turnover (e.g. Mulki et al., 2008; Rutherford et al., 2011; Schwepker, 2001). Salespeople with higher turnover intentions are often disengaged, uncommitted to their organization, and/or stressed in their job (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Jaramillo et al., 2009b).

2.3 Linkages and Hypotheses Development

The following section builds upon the preceding review of each construct.

Antecedents are linked to their outcomes and the extent to which moderators may impact relationships is explored. Lastly, hypotheses are presented for empirical investigation.

2.3.1 Linking salesperson perceived sales manager extroversion (introversion) to perceived sales manager leadership. Academics historically regard extroversion as a consistent and strong indicator of leadership (e.g. Bono & Judge, 2004; Do & Minbashian, 2014; Judge, Ilies, Bono, & Gerhardt, 2002). Specifically, extroversion is considered a valid predictor of transformational leadership (e.g. Bono & Judge, 2004; Do & Minbashian, 2014). Yet, there is evidence in the literature to the contrary. For example, de Hoogh et al. (2005) find there is not a relationship between extroversion and transformational leadership in either dynamic or stable environments. Furthermore, in the sales management literature, Spangler et al. (1997) failed to support their hypothesis that transformational leaders are more likely extroverts. They instead conclude that because by nature introverts “tend to be highly principled, persistent, and steadfast”, introverted leaders with visionary capabilities are transformational (Spangler et al., 1997, p. 47).

New thinking has emerged asserting that when a leader is influencing proactive employees, for example sales professionals, being an introvert is more beneficial (Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2010; Grant et al., 2011). Proactive employees tend to exhibit extroverted behaviors by voicing their opinions, taking charge, and influencing their superiors (Grant et al., 2011). Consequently, a leader who complements instead of competes with proactive employee behaviors is desirable (Grant et al., 2011). Introverted leaders are characterized by their willingness to listen and openness to input from others (Hunter et al., 2013; Stephens-Craig, Kuofie, & Dool, 2015). Servant leaders share these attributes and are also likely perceived as introverts (Hunter et al., 2013). Therefore, to assess new thinking versus traditional thinking, the following competing hypotheses will be evaluated:

H1a: Sales managers who are perceived by salespeople as more extroverted, have higher levels of leadership.

H1b: Sales managers who are perceived by salespeople as more introverted, have higher levels of leadership.

2.3.2 Linking salesperson perceived sales manager other/self-orientation to perceived sales manager leadership. Leaders who are other-orientated act to benefit the well-being of others (Barrow & Mirabella, 2009). By definition, servant leaders are other-oriented as their focus is serving others (Barrow & Mirabella, 2009; Greenleaf, 1977). Additionally, transformational leaders are known to motivate follower's to put aside their own self-interests (Grant, 2012). Although they promote prosocial behaviors from followers, not all transformational leaders are other-oriented. For example, Bass

and Steidlmeier, (1999) assert there are pseudo-transformational leaders whose actions seem inspiring and for the good of the organization, however, they are concerned with only what can be achieved for their good. Accordingly, the following is hypothesized:

H2: Sales managers who are perceived by salespeople as more other-oriented, have higher levels of leadership.

2.3.3 Linking perceived sales manager leadership and salesperson engagement.

Job Demands-Resource theory surmises that engagement is a result of employee motivation from having job resources that offset job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). An important job resource is the employee's direct supervisor (Menguc et al., 2013). In order for employees to increase their engagement, they need to feel their needs and interests are being taken care of by their management (Harter et al., 2002). Supportive supervisor behaviors beneficial to employee engagement are those behaviors that can increase employee motivation, optimism, and trust (Breevaart et al., 2014; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Tims et al., 2011). Therefore, perceived supervisor support in the form of effective leadership is an important antecedent of employee engagement (Kahn, 1990; Saks, 2006). Effective leadership, for example transformational and servant, is a vehicle through which supervisor mediated job resources can be provided to employees to enhance their engagement (Saks & Gruman, 2014).

Transformational leaders' supportive behaviors boost the optimism of their employees and therefore their engagement (Tims et al., 2011). For example, when these leaders coach, inspire, motivate, and develop their employees this impacts engagement

(Tims et al., 2011). Salespeople under the leadership of managers who exhibit transformational behaviors are more committed and less stressed than salespeople with managers who exhibit transactional leadership (Dubinsky et al., 1995). This finding is analogous to tapping into the vigor component of employee engagement. By placing importance on valuing, empowering, and developing their followers, transformational leaders also affect employee engagement through fostering dedication and absorption in their followers (van Dierendonck et al., 2014).

Servant leaders, by focusing first on the interests and needs of their followers, are also able to increase employee engagement (De Clercq, Bouckenoghe, Raja, & Matsyborska, 2014; Greenleaf, 1977; Hunter et al., 2013; van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Servant leaders meet their followers' needs primarily through their personal support and coaching (Bass, 1985; De Clercq et al., 2014). Additionally, servant leaders are able to foster a sense of community among their employees (Greenleaf, 1977) and consequentially enhance employees' psychological safety and ensuing work engagement (De Clercq et al., 2014). By focusing on being a servant, servant leaders can be critical to stimulating an employee's feelings of vigor, dedication, and absorption (Correia de Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2014). Therefore, this study hypothesizes that:

H3: Sales managers who are perceived as having higher levels of leadership positively impact salesperson engagement.

2.3.4 Market dynamism moderator. Salespeople do not have the luxury of choosing their external environment and therefore must learn how to perform relative to the dynamism in their market (Avlonitis & Panagopoulos, 2006; Sohi, 1996). A market

that continuously changes and has high uncertainty increases job demands that can negatively affect engagement (Correia de Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2014). Job demands are those aspects of a job that require sustained effort and can cause stress and burnout (Crawford et al., 2010). For salespeople, job demands such as outcome and activity control may be amplified by market characteristics (Miao & Evans, 2013). When salespeople have access to job resources that mitigate the effect of their job demands, they perceive these demands as more manageable and therefore, are better able to maintain their engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Miao & Evans, 2013).

A job resource for employee engagement considered effective and preferred in a dynamic environment is the manager support received from transformational and servant leadership behaviors (Bass, 1985; Correia de Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2014; Shamir & Howell, 1999). Some scholars believe these leadership behaviors are more likely to emerge in environments that are dynamic versus stable (Bass, 1985; de Hoogh et al., 2005; Shamir & Howell, 1999). Transformational leaders stand out in dynamic environments because their behaviors communicate effectiveness (van Dierendonck et al., 2014), while the behaviors of servant leaders in the context of uncertainty communicate meeting individual needs by providing care and direction (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015). Van Dierendonck et al. (2014) find some evidence that dynamism moderates the relationship between transformational or servant leadership and employee engagement. Therefore, the following is hypothesized:

H4: Greater market dynamism strengthens the positive relationship between salesperson perceived sales manager leadership and salesperson engagement.

2.3.5 Ethical climate moderator. Sales studies suggest that ethical climate is a moderator in relationships between salesperson personal outcomes and their antecedents (e.g. Fournier et al., 2010; Jaramillo et al., 2009b; Schwepker & Schultz, 2015; Tanner, Tanner, & Wakefield, 2015). Although a literature review did not uncover specific studies examining the relationship between ethical climate and salesperson engagement, ethical climate affects salespeople in a personal manner in the form of job stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Babin et al., 2000; Fournier et al., 2010; Pettijohn et al., 2008; Schwepker, 2001). For example, Fournier et al. (2010) conclude that when there are lower levels of ethical climate, the negative effects of role overload on performance is enhanced and high performers are more likely to leave. Also, Jaramillo et al. (2009b) found that for person–organizational fit the importance of servant leadership increases for salespeople in an organization with a poor ethical climate.

In his review of sales ethical climate research, McClaren (2013), surmises that as a moderator, ethical climate strengthens the relationship between sales manager leadership behaviors and salesperson personal outcomes. More specifically, sales managers who reflect morals and values can mitigate the effects of a negative ethical climate (Schwepker & Good, 2010; Valentine, 2009). Therefore, for the level of salesperson engagement to increase in the midst of an unethical climate, the influence of transformational and/or servant leadership behaviors becomes more important.

Accordingly, this study hypothesizes that:

H5: A negative ethical climate strengthens the positive relationship between salesperson perceived sales manager leadership and salesperson engagement.

2.3.6 Linking antecedents to sales performance. Performance is an important consequence of employee engagement to organizations (Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). Engaged employees feel responsible for and are committed to excellent in-role performance (Crawford et al., 2010). They approach work tasks with energy and passion (Kahn, 1990) which translates into working with greater intensity, more focus on their responsibilities, and being emotionally connected to their work (Rich et al., 2010). In other words, they approach their work with vigor, dedication, and absorption (Medhurst & Albrecht, 2011). Ultimately, salespeople who focus on goals and show work engagement thrive in their roles and achieve higher levels of in-role performance (Verbeke, Dietz, & Verwaal, 2011). Consequently, the following is hypothesized:

H6a: Salesperson engagement is positively related to salesperson in-role performance.

Work engagement also is a predictor of extra-role performance (Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014; Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011; Kahn, 1990). Engaged employees are more likely to go beyond their role to benefit their organization because they feel they have sufficient resources (e.g. social support and autonomy) (Bakker et al., 2004). Salespeople who exhibit supportive behaviors to co-workers are also likely to exhibit supportive behaviors to their customers (Marshall et al., 2012). Specifically, engaged salespeople may also expend more time and energy to serve their customers (Jaramillo et al., 2009a; Marshall et al., 2012; Netemeyer et al., 2005). Accordingly, the following is hypothesized:

H6b: Salesperson engagement is positively related to salesperson extra-role performance.

Researchers also establish a relationship between leadership and in-role performance. Transactional leadership by definition (contingent reward and management by exception) facilitates in-role performance (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Also, Grant (2012) determines that transformational leadership and follower in-role performance are directly related. Similarly, Liden et al., (2008) surmise that servant leadership directly impacts in-role performance beyond what can be explained by transformational leadership and leader-member exchange. Specific to sales, Schwepker and Schultz (2015) find a direct relationship between servant leadership and in-role sales performance. Many sales researchers conclude, however, that the sales manager leadership and in-role sales performance relationship is mediated through other variables such as organizational factors or employee factors (Jaramillo et al., 2015, 2009a; Mulki, Caemmerer, & Heggde, 2015; Schwepker & Good, 2013; Shannahan et al., 2013). Therefore, this study will not hypothesize a direct link but will test if the relationship between salesperson perceived sales manager leadership and in-role performance is mediated through salesperson engagement.

H6c: Higher levels of salesperson perceived sales manager leadership are indirectly related to salesperson in-role performance through salesperson engagement.

Likewise, the literature establishes a relationship between leadership and extra-role performance. Transformational leadership augments the effect of transactional leadership on salesperson extra-role performance (Jaramillo et al., 2009a; Mackenzie et

al., 2001). Additionally, servant leadership is linked to extra-role performance for several reasons. First, as salespeople perceive support from their leader, they increase their extra-role behaviors (Jaramillo et al., 2009a; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). Second, servant leaders prioritize service to others which can cultivate extra-role behaviors in their salespeople (Grisaffe et al., 2016; Marinova & Park, 2014; Panaccio, Henderson, Liden, Wayne, & Cao, 2015). Third, high ethical standards are a hallmark of a servant leader which in turn can inspire salespeople to engage in extra-role behavior (DeConinck, 2015). Therefore, the following is hypothesized:

H6d: Higher levels of salesperson perceived sales manager leadership are indirectly related to salesperson extra-role performance through salesperson engagement.

2.3.7 Linking antecedents to turnover intention. A review of the literature did not uncover any research specific to salesperson engagement and their turnover intentions. However, salesperson turnover intention is a widely studied construct in sales literature (Jaramillo et al., 2013). Antecedents to salesperson turnover intention include organizational commitment (DeConinck, 2011; Jaramillo et al., 2009b; Rutherford et al., 2011) and job satisfaction (Fournier et al., 2010; Mulki et al., 2006; Rutherford, Boles, Hamwi, Madupalli, & Rutherford, 2009). Like the aforementioned antecedents of turnover intention, salesperson engagement can be characterized as a personal outcome (McClaren, 2013).

Salespeople are an organization's primary vehicle for generating revenue and the turnover of productive salespeople is detrimental to achieving profit goals (Jaramillo et

al., 2013; Rutherford et al., 2011). Actual turnover experienced by a business unit is influenced by the level of employee engagement (Harter et al., 2002). Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) find there is a negative relationship between employee engagement and turnover intention due to the reluctance of engaged employees to separate from a job where they have resources, have invested energy, and personally identify with their work. Accordingly, the following is hypothesized:

H7a: Salesperson engagement is negatively related to turnover intention.

Furthermore, sales manager leadership, by influencing how salespeople feel about their job and how they behave, also directly and indirectly affects salesperson turnover intention (Boles, Dudley, Onyemah, Rouziès, & Weeks, 2012). Hunter et al. (2013) support a direct and negative relationship between servant leadership and turnover intention. Similarly, servant leadership is believed to have an indirect relationship with turnover intention mediated through variables comparable to person-job fit and organizational commitment (Babakus, Yavas, & Ashill, 2011; Boles et al., 2012; Jaramillo et al., 2009b). Thus, this study will hypothesize an indirect link between leadership and turnover intention that is mediated through salesperson engagement.

H7b: Higher levels of salesperson perceived sales manager leadership are indirectly and negatively related to turnover intention through salesperson engagement.

2.3.8 Control variables

The two primary characteristics that distinguish business-to-business employees in boundary spanning roles from non-boundary spanners are job autonomy and isolation from other employees (Mulki et al., 2008; Pettijohn, Schaefer, & Burnett, 2014).

Business-to-business salespeople typically work physically separated from both their manager and colleagues (Pettijohn et al., 2014). They are empowered to make decisions on their own regarding what to do and how (Stock & Hoyer, 2005). Consequently, manager guidance may be perceived by the salesperson as less influential on their outcomes (Rapp, Agnihotri, Baker, & Andzulis, 2015). Therefore, managers may need to adapt their leadership approach with employees who are physically and socially separated from other employees (Mulki & Jaramillo, 2011). Because job autonomy and workplace isolation may affect the impact of leadership orientation on salesperson engagement, they are treated as control variables.

There is limited support in the sales management literature for a relationship between both the control variables and the outcome variables of sales performance and turnover intention. In regards to job autonomy, Wang and Netemeyer (2002) conclude an indirect relationship with sales performance mediated through self-efficacy. In contrast, Pettijohn et al., (2014) assert a direct relationship between job autonomy and performance. However, based on a literature review, there were no studies found establishing a relationship between salesperson job autonomy and turnover intention. Similarly, the empirical evidence for work isolation's indirect effect on performance is supported by one known study (Mulki et al., 2008). Yet, two studies support that work isolation is indirectly related to turnover intention (Marshall, Michaels, & Mulki, 2007; Mulki & Jaramillo, 2011). Therefore, job autonomy and workplace isolation are not considered controls for sales performance and turnover intention.

Additionally, this study will control for a negative relationship between salesperson performance and turnover intention (DeConinck & Johnson, 2009). Notably,

there is not a consensus regarding whether this relationship is direct or indirect. For example, DeConinck (2011) asserts an indirect relationship through organizational commitment which is in contrast to the direct relationship he found in an earlier study (DeConinck & Johnson, 2009). Also, Mulki, Jaramillo, and Marshall (2007) conclude that job satisfaction fully mediates the impact of sales performance on turnover intention. Furthermore, a direct and modest relationship is also supported by MacKenzie et al., (1998) and Zimmerman and Darnold (2009).

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Chapter 3 addresses the proposed design of the quantitative study. First, a description of the sample is outlined. Next, an overview of the construct measures is provided. Then, the data collection and analysis methodologies are explained.

3.1 Sample Description

Business-to-business salespeople are the focus of this research because they typically: (1) work remotely from their management and other colleagues, and (2) are involved in long-term customer relationships that involve selling complex products. This context should be conducive to HSL behavior (Grisaffe et al., 2016; Schwepker & Good, 2010; Schwepker & Schultz, 2015). Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was used due to the complexity of the proposed model, the investigative nature of the research, the relatively small sample size, and the focus on prediction (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012). PLS-SEM guidelines recommend a sample that is larger than either (1) ten times the number of formative items measuring any one construct, or (2) ten times the greatest number of structural paths leading into any latent construct (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). These guidelines indicate a minimum of 30 respondents. However, with seven independent variables in the model, 188 observations are needed to achieve a statistical power level of 80 % for detecting R^2 values of at least 0.10 (with a 1% probability of error) (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017). Therefore, a sample of 200 was targeted.

3.2 Construct Measures

Existing measures were utilized. Minor wording changes, as needed, were made to ensure the items were specific to business-to-business salespeople. Additionally, measures that are salesperson perceived were reworded to “my manager”. To ensure clarity of the questions, input was sought from a panel of experts consisting of both academics and practitioners. Collectively the measures include 79 items. Appendix A contains the unmodified measures with their respective original scaling parameters. Measures as worded in the main study are documented in Appendix B.

3.2.1 Salesperson perceived sales manager dispositional traits. Perceptions by the salesperson of their manager’s personality characterized as extroversion (introversion) were assessed with 10 items from International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg et al., 2006). Extroversion (introversion) items were measured using a seven-point Likert-type scale, with 1= very inaccurate and 7= very accurate. Salesperson perceived other versus self-orientation of their sales manager was measured with three items for each dimension (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). These items were measured using a nine-point Likert scale (1= not at all to 9= always).

3.2.2 Salesperson perceived sales manager HSL. Salesperson perceived sales manager HSL was assessed with a total of 17 items comprised of three levels (Grisaffe et al., 2016). The lowest level of transactional leadership was measured with six items that encompass the two dimensions of contingent reward behavior and contingent punishment behavior (Mackenzie et al., 2001). The next level, transformational leadership, was measured with seven items (Carless, Wearing, & Mann, 2000). The highest level, servant leadership has two dimensions—putting subordinates first and creating value for those

outside of the organization—was assessed with four items (Ehrhart, 2004). The items were measured using a seven-point Likert scale consisting of 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree.

3.2.3 Salesperson engagement. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale–9 measured salesperson engagement with their work (Schaufeli et al., 2006). There are three items for each of the three dimensions of work engagement—vigor, absorption, and dedication. The items were assessed with a seven-point Likert scale with 1= never to 7= always.

3.2.4 Moderators. Respondents assessed the dynamism of their market by evaluating five items (Jansen et al., 2009). A seven-point Likert scale with 1= strongly disagree and 7= strongly agree as the anchors was used. Additionally, for each item “our” was replaced with “my”. A seven-item scale, developed specifically for the sales context, was used to assess ethical climate (Schwepker, 2001). These items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale anchored by 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree.

3.2.5 Outcome variables. The outcome variables were self-reported by the salesperson respondent. “Self-report measures of salesperson performance essentially give the same results as performance evaluations provided by managers and peers” (Johnson & Sohi, 2014, p. 79). Salesperson performance was examined by evaluating both in-role and extra-role performance. For in-role performance, respondents were asked to rate themselves relative to their peers, using -5 (much worse) to +5 (much better), on seven performance items (Sujan, Weitz, & Kumar, 1994). Extra-role performance was evaluated with four items indicating to what extent the respondent exhibits extra-role behaviors that impact their customers (Jaramillo et al., 2009a;

Netemeyer et al., 2005). Responses were captured with a nine-point Likert scale ranging from 1= never to 9= as often as possible. Lastly, turnover intention was measured with a five-item scale representing how likely the respondent is to leave their organization (Ganesan & Weitz, 1996; Jaramillo et al., 2009b). A seven-point Likert scale from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree was used.

3.2.6 Control variables. Job autonomy was measured with four items developed by Stock and Hoyer (2005). A nine-point Likert scale, with 1=strongly disagree and 9= strongly agree as the anchors, measured job autonomy. For workplace isolation, the colleagues subscale containing five items developed by Marshall et al. (2007) was used. The items were assessed with a nine-point Likert scale indicated by 1= strongly disagree and 9= strongly agree.

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis

3.3.1 Data collection. First, a pre-test with a sample of 40 business-to-business salespeople in the researcher's personal professional network was administered. Based on input from a panel of experts and the pre-test results, refinements were made to the survey. Next, a total of 307 US business-to-business salespeople respondents were recruited by Qualtrics for the main data collection process. Respondents were screened out based on three criteria. First, the respondent failed the screeners of consent and business-to-business sales. Second, the respondent did not take adequate time to complete the survey (<3 minutes) or took significantly more time than needed to complete the survey (>30 minutes). Third, the respondent failed the attention question. Additionally, ten surveys were removed from the sample due to straight lining or

inappropriate responses, leaving a total of 208 usable respondents. Therefore, the main analysis consisted of 208 respondents.

The use of online panel data is an acceptable practice in sales research (Hartmann & Rutherford, 2015; Jaramillo et al., 2009a, 2009b; Johnson, 2016; Schwepker, 2016; Schwepker & Good, 2010). Furthermore, the quality of online panel data does not differ meaningfully from data collected through traditional methods (Hartmann & Rutherford, 2015; Johnson, 2016). Also, online panel data is a great way for researchers to cost effectively reach a specific yet diverse sample and gain data that is equally reliable to traditional methods (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Darrat, Amyx, & Bennett, 2010; Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava, & Oliver, 2004). The primary disadvantage to using online panel data is the potential for bias. Bias may include selection, condition, and response attrition (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Johnson, 2016; Lohse, Bellman, & Johnson, 2000; Nancarrow & Cartwright, 2007). To minimize bias, Qualtrics screened respondents based on the study's criteria and assured respondents that their responses are anonymous.

3.3.2 Initial analysis. The first step for data analysis was confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS to determine if the items load on their respective construct (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). After, CFA each variable was left with three items. Goodness-of-fit was assessed with the following indices, the goal based on sample size and number of observed variables is indicated in parentheses: CFI (>.90), SRMR (<.09), and RMSEA (<.08) (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Next, reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were examined using PLS-SEM. Coefficient alpha greater than .70 indicates reliability (Cronbach, 1951). Convergent

validity was determined by examining the factor loadings and average variance extracted (AVE) at a level of greater than .50 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Assessment of discriminant validity was made by two methods. First, an examination of cross-loadings and the average variance extracted being greater than squared interconstruct correlations (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Second, heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT), which is deemed a more reliable approach for assessing discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015)

3.3.3 Common methods bias. Because the survey was administered to only business-to-business salespeople, common methods bias (CMB) is a concern. However, it is not necessary to obtain another source because the study is capturing the respondent's "perceptions, beliefs, judgments, or feelings" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012, p. 549). In order to minimize this concern, the following was employed. First, predictor and outcome items were separated within the survey (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Second, a variety of scale properties (i.e. varying the scale format and anchors) were utilized throughout the survey (Feldman & Lynch Jr., 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Third, as previously mentioned a pre-test helped to ensure that the questions were unambiguous (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Furthermore, additional tests for CMB are not a necessity when steps are taken prior to collecting data to minimize bias (Babin, Griffin, & Hair Jr., 2016).

3.3.4 Hypotheses testing. The hypotheses were tested using Smart PLS 3.0 (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015). PLS-SEM was selected for analysis for three reasons. First, the primary objective of the research is to predict the dependent variable, and PLS-SEM like regression analysis maximizes the explained variance in the dependent variable

(Hair et al., 2012). Second, PLS-SEM has the ability to perform moderator analysis on both categorical and continuous variables (Hair et al., 2011). Third, the sample size is relatively small at 208 respondents and PLS-SEM is able to accommodate this limitation (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004). To ascertain the statistical significance of the model's relationships bootstrapping was applied (Hair et al., 2011). For this analysis, 5,000 bootstrapping samples were used to characterize the quality of the model's relationships.

As an alternative CB-SEM could be utilized, however, this is not the optimal choice. First, PLS-SEM is the preferred method when sample sizes are small (Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009). Second, although with CB-SEM it is possible to conduct moderator analysis, testing can only be done with categorical moderators (Hair et al., 2011).

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

This chapter focuses on the main study results. First, an overview of the development of the measurement model is shared. Second, the steps taken to evaluate the measurement model are provided. Third, results from the structural model analysis and hypotheses outcomes are reported.

4.1 Measurement Model Development

4.1.1 Survey pre-test. A survey pre-test was implemented to refine the survey instrument before launching it with a Qualtrics online panel. The survey pre-test was sent via email, accessed by hyperlink, to the researcher's professional network. If potential respondents were in business-to-business sales, recipients were asked to complete the survey pre-test. Additionally, recipients were asked to forward the survey pre-test to business-to-business salespeople in their personal network. A total of 40 individuals accessed the pre-test survey online. Qualitative feedback was gathered from five respondents who were deemed subject matter experts. After reviewing the survey responses and taking into account the feedback received, the researcher made modifications to the survey questions. Modifications included changing question wording, changing the placement of questions, deleting several demographic questions, and adding two demographic questions.

4.1.2. Respondent Demographics. The main survey respondents work in a variety of industries—e.g. construction, healthcare, technology, insurance, financial services, automotive, transportation, and energy. A majority of respondents work for a privately owned company (63%). Additionally, a majority of respondents have been in their current sales position for five years or less (46%). The average age of the respondents was 36.2. A little more than half of the respondents were male (56%). Also, the gender of the respondents' current sales manager was predominately male (68%). Table 1 provides additional demographic information.

Table 1: Survey Respondent Demographics

Respondent Demographics (n=208)				
	Variable	Number	Percent	Cum. Percent
Gender	Male	117	56%	56%
	Female	91	44%	100%
	Total	208		
Age	19-29	57	27%	27%
	30-39	84	40%	67%
	40-49	51	25%	92%
	50-59	11	5%	97%
	60+	5	2%	99%
	Total	208		
Years in Current Sales Position	1 - 5 years	96	46%	46%
	6 - 10 years	71	34%	80%
	11 - 15 years	23	11%	91%
	16 - 20 years	11	5%	96%
	Over 20 years	7	4%	100%
	Total	208		
Total Years in Sales	1 - 5 years	81	39%	39%
	6 - 10 years	66	32%	71%
	11 - 15 years	35	17%	88%
	16 - 20 years	18	9%	97%
	Over 20 years	8	3%	100%
	Total	208		
Company Type	Public	76	37%	37%
	Private	132	63%	100%
	Total	208		
Gender of Current Sales Manager	Male	141	68%	68%
	Female	67	32%	100%
	Total	208		

4.2 Measurement Model Evaluation

4.2.1 Measurement model results. The measurement model was evaluated by completing a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Using AMOS software (Arbuckle, 2016), the CFA analysis provided an evaluation of the quality of the measures in the model. Specifically, model fit was examined through goodness-of-fit indices. Additionally, construct validity was assessed using three parameters—reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. To obtain acceptable model fit, each construct was reduced to three items with the highest factor loadings (Hair et al., 2010) (refer to Table 3). Additionally, to confirm the CFA results, construct validity parameters were also assessed in SmartPLS 3 (Ringle et al., 2015).

Model fit. Model fit was examined to confirm measurement model theory. Goodness-of-fit was assessed using the following parameters and indices: Chi-Square, Degrees of Freedom, CMIN/DF, CFI, SRMR, and RSMEA (Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999). AMOS does not provide the SRMR index, therefore this index is from SmartPLS (Ringle et al., 2015). Table 2 summarizes the goodness of fit parameters that indicate all meet the standards for good fit.

Table 2: Goodness of Fit Indices

Chi-square	673.276
Degrees of Freedom	441
Probability level	.000
CMIN/DF	1.527
SRMR	0.06
CFI	0.938
RMSEA	0.05

Reliability. The standard of a coefficient alpha greater than 0.70 was the threshold used to indicate acceptable construct reliability (Cronbach, 1951). The exogenous variables (salesperson perceived sales manager extroversion, introversion, other-orientation, and self-orientation) all exceeded the reliability threshold. Additionally, the endogenous variables (salesperson engagement, in-role performance, extra-role performance, and turnover intention) also exceeded the threshold. Likewise, the moderators (market dynamism and ethical climate) exceeded the threshold. Refer to Table 4 for construct reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha).

Convergent validity. Convergent validity is assessed by examining the factor loadings and the average variance extracted (AVE) of each latent variable in the model (Hair et al., 2010). The items retained in the measurement model for each construct had factor loadings exceeding 0.70 with the exception of salesperson perceived sales manager self-orientation and job autonomy, a control variable. The perceived sales manager self-orientation measure has three items and one item (Q10_4) has a loading of 0.55. Job autonomy is a four-item measure, two of the retained items' loadings (Q21_3 and Q21_4) are respectively 0.69 and 0.63 (see Table 3). The second parameter, AVE, the amount of variance in the construct that the items explain, should be greater than 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010). All constructs achieved an AVE greater than the 50% (see Table 4).

Discriminant validity. Discriminant validity is an indicator of whether a construct is sufficiently distinct from other constructs (Hair et al., 2010). First, discriminant validity was assessed by examining if construct outer loadings were higher than cross-loadings with other constructs (Table 3). Second, the square root of the AVE was

calculated to determine if it is greater than the squared correlations of other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) (Table 4). Based on the aforementioned criteria, the constructs are sufficiently discriminated from each other.

To further substantiate discriminant validity, an assessment was also made using HTMT. HTMT is the ratio of between-trait and within-trait correlations (Henseler et al., 2015). Constructs are considered conceptually distinct if HTMT is lower than 0.85 (Hair et al., 2017; Henseler et al., 2015)—all constructs met this standard (see Table 5). Additionally, after bootstrapping and examining the 95% confidence interval for each construct relationship, none were found to include the value 1 thereby further supporting discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2017).

Table 3: Correlation Matrix

	Q10_Mgr Other Orientation	Q10_Mgr Self Orientation	Q16_Mgr Extroversion	Q16_Mgr Introversion	Q11_Mgr HSL	Q20_Ethical Climate	Q4_Mkt Dynamism	Q5_ Salesperson Engagement	Q8_In-Role Performance	Q9_Extra- Role Performance	Q24_ Turnover Intention	Q21_Job Autonomy	Q22_ Workplace Isolation
HSL_Rating	0.49	0.24	0.57	-0.06	1.00	0.48	0.31	0.49	0.36	0.39	-0.18	0.25	0.54
Q10_1	0.83	0.37	0.44	0.06	0.34	0.37	0.17	0.41	0.15	0.35	-0.07	0.18	0.24
Q10_2	0.91	0.30	0.58	0.02	0.50	0.46	0.36	0.58	0.26	0.46	-0.14	0.20	0.35
Q10_3	0.89	0.31	0.50	0.12	0.43	0.43	0.32	0.57	0.18	0.47	-0.09	0.13	0.32
Q10_4	0.05	0.55	0.01	0.13	0.02	0.01	0.08	-0.03	0.03	0.09	0.17	0.03	0.08
Q10_5	0.39	0.96	0.39	-0.03	0.27	0.19	0.23	0.26	0.18	0.25	0.07	0.03	0.28
Q10_6	0.19	0.73	0.11	0.12	0.09	0.13	0.09	0.15	0.13	0.28	0.06	0.10	0.13
Q16_2	0.55	0.32	0.91	-0.10	0.50	0.36	0.23	0.37	0.22	0.37	-0.13	0.09	0.48
Q16_3	0.51	0.33	0.93	-0.09	0.52	0.41	0.25	0.38	0.27	0.39	-0.07	0.12	0.49
Q16_6	0.55	0.28	0.91	0.07	0.55	0.37	0.32	0.44	0.31	0.36	-0.07	0.23	0.47
Q16_7	0.05	0.01	-0.07	0.94	-0.07	0.02	0.03	0.09	-0.06	-0.05	0.42	0.24	-0.07
Q16_8	0.13	0.04	0.03	0.80	-0.01	0.04	0.04	0.14	-0.02	0.01	0.34	0.35	0.04
Q16_9	0.07	0.04	0.01	0.86	-0.04	0.08	0.00	0.08	-0.04	0.00	0.43	0.31	0.01
Q20_2	0.43	0.13	0.31	0.14	0.38	0.90	0.25	0.38	0.21	0.22	-0.09	0.18	0.40
Q20_3	0.42	0.22	0.38	-0.02	0.43	0.91	0.22	0.38	0.27	0.33	-0.20	0.17	0.43
Q20_7	0.46	0.15	0.44	0.00	0.51	0.93	0.25	0.40	0.33	0.30	-0.26	0.20	0.42
Q4_2	0.35	0.19	0.30	0.03	0.31	0.18	0.86	0.38	0.21	0.23	0.04	0.12	0.23
Q4_3	0.17	0.20	0.20	-0.02	0.23	0.24	0.85	0.26	0.16	0.12	0.09	0.10	0.25
Q4_5	0.30	0.17	0.24	0.05	0.24	0.26	0.86	0.37	0.22	0.23	0.03	0.12	0.24
Q5_1	0.49	0.24	0.42	0.20	0.39	0.36	0.35	0.88	0.43	0.48	-0.09	0.23	0.37
Q5_3	0.56	0.23	0.37	-0.01	0.46	0.39	0.37	0.89	0.35	0.48	-0.17	0.20	0.42
Q5_4	0.56	0.17	0.37	0.08	0.45	0.39	0.35	0.89	0.30	0.47	-0.06	0.16	0.34
Q8_2	0.18	0.07	0.24	-0.04	0.33	0.28	0.21	0.34	0.83	0.32	-0.05	0.11	0.25
Q8_5	0.17	0.23	0.22	-0.12	0.29	0.20	0.28	0.30	0.79	0.34	-0.06	0.06	0.25
Q8_6	0.22	0.15	0.26	0.01	0.27	0.25	0.11	0.36	0.84	0.47	-0.09	0.07	0.23
Q9_1	0.45	0.26	0.41	-0.06	0.37	0.30	0.20	0.48	0.44	0.92	-0.11	0.06	0.37
Q9_3	0.39	0.24	0.34	-0.02	0.32	0.24	0.17	0.40	0.36	0.88	-0.09	0.07	0.32
Q9_4	0.49	0.28	0.36	0.00	0.37	0.30	0.25	0.57	0.45	0.93	-0.06	0.13	0.36
Q24_2	-0.10	0.08	-0.08	0.40	-0.15	-0.22	0.07	-0.13	-0.07	-0.10	0.93	0.21	-0.14
Q24_3	-0.05	0.02	-0.06	0.48	-0.15	-0.17	0.01	-0.08	-0.10	-0.08	0.88	0.27	-0.15
Q24_4	-0.15	0.12	-0.11	0.41	-0.18	-0.15	0.06	-0.12	-0.07	-0.08	0.91	0.20	-0.09
Q21_1	0.21	0.06	0.18	0.25	0.26	0.20	0.14	0.25	0.13	0.11	0.18	0.97	0.23
Q21_3	0.12	0.03	0.05	0.35	0.14	0.13	0.10	0.08	-0.04	0.04	0.34	0.69	0.21
Q21_4	0.02	0.09	0.04	0.32	0.03	0.10	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.28	0.63	0.15
Q22_3	0.30	0.23	0.45	-0.06	0.50	0.40	0.26	0.36	0.25	0.33	-0.11	0.22	0.90
Q22_4	0.33	0.22	0.51	-0.04	0.50	0.47	0.24	0.41	0.27	0.34	-0.18	0.20	0.93
Q22_5	0.33	0.27	0.47	0.00	0.47	0.39	0.26	0.39	0.30	0.39	-0.08	0.26	0.91

1 - Construct factor loadings are in bold font.

Table 4: Correlations, Cronbach's Alpha, Average Variance Extracted, Means, and Standard Deviations (Fornell-Larcker)

VARIABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Ethical Climate	0.91												
2 Extra-Role Performance	0.31	0.91											
3 In-Role Performance	0.30	0.46	0.82										
4 Job Autonomy	0.20	0.10	0.10	0.78									
5 Mgr Extroversion	0.41	0.41	0.29	0.16	0.91								
6 Mgr HSL	0.48	0.39	0.36	0.25	0.57	1.00							
7 Mgr Introversion	0.05	-0.03	-0.06	0.31	-0.04	-0.06	0.87						
8 Mgr Other Orientation	0.48	0.49	0.23	0.20	0.58	0.49	0.08	0.88					
9 Mgr Self Orientation	0.19	0.29	0.18	0.06	0.34	0.24	0.02	0.36	0.77				
10 Mkt Dynamism	0.26	0.23	0.24	0.14	0.29	0.31	0.03	0.33	0.22	0.86			
11 Salesperson Engagement	0.43	0.54	0.41	0.23	0.44	0.49	0.10	0.60	0.24	0.40	0.88		
12 Turnover Intention	-0.20	-0.10	-0.08	0.25	-0.10	-0.18	0.46	-0.12	0.09	0.06	-0.12	0.90	
13 Workplace Isolation	0.46	0.39	0.30	0.25	0.52	0.54	-0.03	0.35	0.26	0.28	0.43	-0.14	0.91
CRONBACH'S ALPHA	0.90	0.90	0.75	0.77	0.90	1.00	0.86	0.85	0.74	0.82	0.86	0.89	0.90
AVE	0.83	0.83	0.67	0.60	0.84	1.00	0.76	0.77	0.59	0.74	0.78	0.82	0.83
MEAN	5.80	7.92	3.16	4.45	5.53	2.74	3.09	6.91	7.16	5.31	5.48	2.54	7.25
STANDARD DEVIATION	1.26	1.27	1.34	2.24	1.34	1.40	1.72	1.73	1.51	1.35	1.11	1.66	1.69

1. The square root of average variance extracted for each construct is in bold along the diagonal

Table 5: Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 Ethical Climate												
2 Extra-Role Performance	0.35											
3 In-Role Performance	0.36	0.55										
4 Job Autonomy	0.21	0.08	0.11									
5 Mgr Extroversion	0.46	0.45	0.35	0.13								
6 Mgr HSL	0.51	0.41	0.42	0.20	0.60							
7 Mgr Introversion	0.09	0.05	0.10	0.50	0.09	0.05						
8 Mgr Other Orientation	0.55	0.55	0.28	0.19	0.66	0.52	0.12					
9 Mgr Self Orientation	0.18	0.32	0.22	0.13	0.27	0.18	0.15	0.33				
10 Mkt Dynamism	0.31	0.25	0.30	0.13	0.33	0.33	0.05	0.37	0.21			
11 Salesperson Engagement	0.49	0.60	0.50	0.18	0.49	0.53	0.15	0.70	0.23	0.47		
12 Turnover Intention	0.22	0.11	0.10	0.40	0.11	0.19	0.53	0.12	0.14	0.07	0.14	
13 Workplace Isolation	0.51	0.43	0.36	0.29	0.58	0.56	0.05	0.39	0.25	0.32	0.48	0.15

4.2.2 Guttman scaling. A key exogenous variable in the model is HSL. This variable was conceptualized as a Guttman scale to more fully represent the continuum of leadership. A Guttman scale is a composite measure that summarizes discrete observations to represent a comprehensive variable that is comprised of related sub-measures (Babbie, 2007). Specifically, HSL characterizes transactional as the lowest level of leadership, transformational as a higher level of leadership, and servant as the highest level of leadership (Grisaffe et al., 2016).

Items related to each of the three leadership levels were assessed with a 7-point Likert scale of strongly disagree to strongly agree. A respondent's summated composite score of 6.0 or greater indicated that their sales manager exhibits that leadership level. Each respondent was scored as agreeing or disagreeing that their sales manager exhibits each leadership level—1 indicated exhibits leadership level, 0 indicated does not exhibit leadership level. Note that a sales manager was considered transactional if they were perceived as exhibiting either contingent reward or contingent punishment (Grisaffe et al., 2016). Subsequently, a Guttman pattern was assigned to each respondent—1: [0,0,0]; 2:[1,0,0]; 3:[1,1,0]; and 4:[1,1,1]. The leadership levels are as follows—1) sub-transactional, 2) transactional, 3) transformational, and 4) servant. Zero was assigned to the 16 patterns that did not conform and therefore these respondents were eliminated from the structural model analysis (Babbie, 2007; Grisaffe & Jaramillo, 2007; Grisaffe et al., 2016). Additionally, a Coefficient of Reproducibility was calculated that reflects the degree to which responses confirm to the Guttman pattern (Babbie, 2007). It is recommended that this coefficient is 90 to 95 percent (Babbie, 2007), for this data set the coefficient was 98 percent. Table 5 provides a summary of the Guttman categories.

Table 6: Guttman Scale for Hierarchical Servant Leadership (HSL)

Coding	Patterns	TL	TFL	SL	#	%
Consistent Patterns						
1	0,0,0	0	0	0	35	17%
2	1,0,0	1	0	0	37	18%
3	1,1,0	1	1	0	19	9%
4	1,1,1	1	1	1	101	49%
TOTAL CONSISTENT					192	92%
Inconsistent Patterns						
0	0,0,1	0	0	1	2	1%
	0,1,0	0	1	0	4	2%
	0,1,1	0	1	1	4	2%
	1,0,1	1	0	1	6	3%
TOTAL INCONSISTENT					16	8%
Coefficient of Reproducibility (percent)						
					98%	
# Rows		208				
# Columns		4				
# Possible Errors		832				

TL = transactional; TFL = transformational; SL = servant

4.2.3 Assessment of Collinearity (VIF). A part of assessing the measurement model in PLS-SEM is examining if there are collinearity issues with the independent variables. Collinearity is measured by the variance inflation factor (VIF), which is the inverse of the independent variable's predictive capability that is not accounted for by other independent variables in a regression equation (Hair et al., 2010). A value of 1.00 indicates no multicollinearity and values between 1.00 and 5.00 represent moderate correlation and are considered acceptable levels of collinearity (Hair et al., 2017). The VIF values for all independent and dependent variables are less than 1.70 and all item VIF levels are less than 3.50. Therefore, collinearity will not be problematic in interpreting the results.

4.3 Evaluation of Structural Model

4.3.1 Results of the hypotheses tests. First, the direct effects between the salesperson perceived exogenous variables (sales manager dispositional traits and sales manager HSL) and the endogenous variables (salesperson engagement, salesperson performance, and turnover intention) were evaluated. Next, the indirect relationship between perceived sales manager HSL and the endogenous variables mediated through salesperson engagement was examined. Finally, the moderation effects of market dynamism and ethical climate on the salesperson perceived sales manager HSL and salesperson engagement relationship was explored. Table 7 is a summary of the hypotheses.

Table 7: Hypotheses

HYPOTHESES	Supported Y/N
H1a: Sales managers who are perceived by salespeople as more extroverted, have higher levels of leadership.	Y
H1b: Sales managers who are perceived by salespeople as more introverted, have higher levels of leadership.	N
H2: Sales managers who are perceived by salespeople as more other-oriented, have higher levels of leadership.	Y
H3: Sales managers who are perceived as having higher levels of leadership positively impact salesperson engagement.	Y
H4: Greater market dynamism strengthens the positive relationship between salesperson perceived sales manager leadership and salesperson engagement.	N
H5: A negative ethical climate strengthens the positive relationship between salesperson perceived sales manager leadership and salesperson engagement.	N
H6a: Salesperson engagement is positively related to salesperson in-role performance.	Y
H6b: Salesperson engagement is positively related to salesperson extra-role performance.	Y
H6c: Higher levels of salesperson perceived sales manager leadership are indirectly related to salesperson in-role performance through salesperson engagement.	Y Partial Mediation
H6d: Higher levels of salesperson perceived sales manager leadership are indirectly related to salesperson extra-role performance through salesperson engagement.	Y Partial Mediation
H7a: Salesperson engagement is negatively related to turnover intention.	N
H7b: Higher levels of salesperson perceived sales manager leadership are indirectly and negatively related to turnover intention through salesperson engagement.	N

Direct Effects. Hypotheses 1a and 1b are competing hypotheses that propose salesperson perceived sales manager extroversion or introversion positively influences a salesperson's perception of their sales manager's level of leadership. The path relationship between extroversion and HSL is positive ($\beta=0.430$) and significant ($\rho=.000$). Therefore, hypothesis 1a is supported. The relationship between perceived introversion and perceived sales manager HSL is negative and not statistically significant ($\rho=0.235$). Consequently, hypothesis 1b is not supported. Hypotheses 2 examined the relationship between perceived sales manager other-orientation and perceived sales

manager HSL. As predicted, there is a significantly positive relationship between these two variables ($\beta=0.323$, $\rho=.000$).

A key relationship in the structural model is between salesperson perceived sales manager HSL and salesperson engagement (H3). The relationship between HSL and salesperson engagement is positive ($\beta=0.471$) and significant ($\rho=0.000$). Additionally, hypothesis 3 was tested using ANOVA with the four Guttman categories for HSL as the independent variable and salesperson engagement as the dependent variable. Tests of Between-Subject Effects indicate that salesperson engagement is statistically significant and therefore there is a difference in this dependent variable between the Guttman categories for HSL. However, upon comparing the HSL categories this does not hold true for every level comparison. Specifically, sub-transactional (1) and transactional (2) are not significantly different in regards to salesperson engagement. Also, transformational (3) and servant (4) are not significantly different in regards to salesperson engagement. However, as shown in Figure 2, the mean for salesperson engagement increases as the level of leadership increases. Therefore, hypothesis 3 is supported.

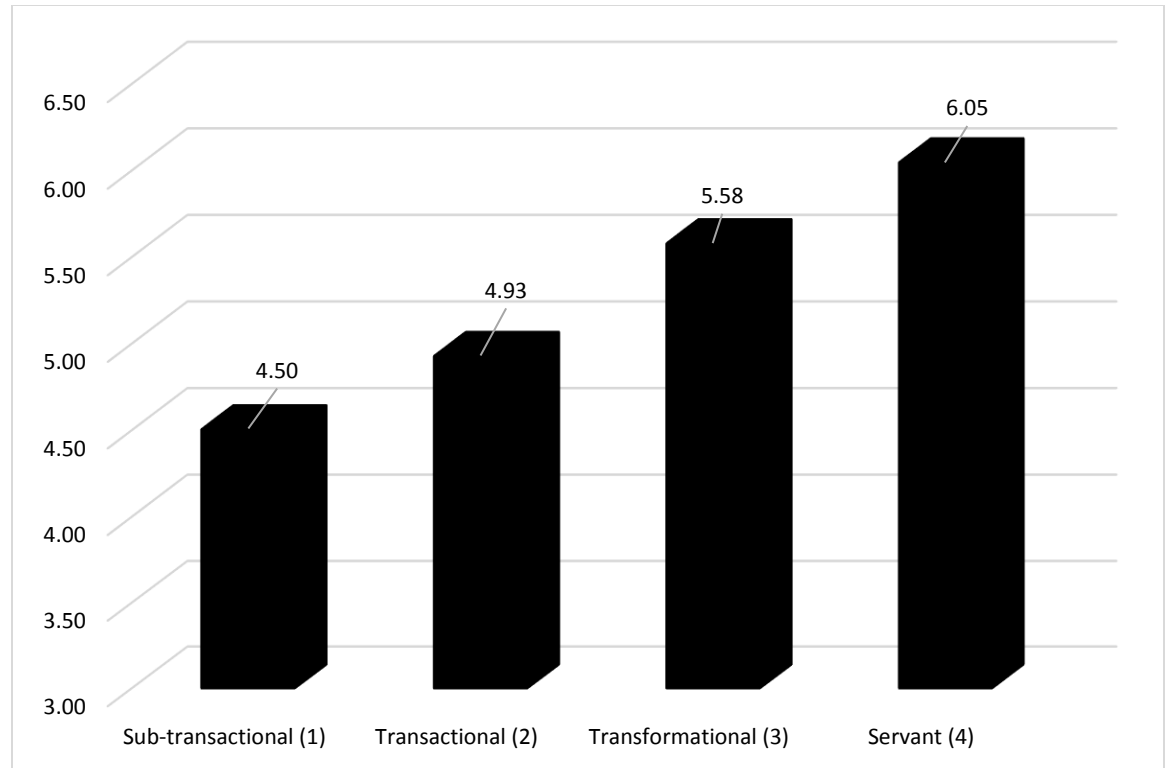


Figure 2: Salesperson Engagement Means across HSL Categories

Hypothesis 6 posits a positive relationship between salesperson engagement and salesperson performance (in-role and extra-role). The relationship between salesperson engagement and salesperson in-role performance is positive ($\beta=0.408$) and significant ($\rho=0.000$), supporting hypothesis 6a. Likewise, the relationship between salesperson engagement and salesperson extra-role performance is also positive ($\beta=0.519$) and significant ($\rho=0.000$) indicating support for hypothesis 6b. Although hypothesis 7a suggests a negative relationship between salesperson engagement and turnover intention, the analysis indicates that this negative relationship is not statistically significant ($\rho=0.272$). Therefore, hypothesis 7a is not supported. Refer to Table 8 for a summary of the direct hypotheses.

Table 8: Direct Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Relationship	β	ρ Value	Result
1a	Mgr Extroversion -> Mgr HSL	0.430	0.000	Supported
1b	Mgr Introversion -> Mgr HSL	-0.071	0.235	Not Supported
2	Mgr Other Orientation -> Mgr HSL	0.323	0.000	Supported
3	Mgr HSL -> Salesperson Engagement	0.471	0.000	Supported
6a	Salesperson Engagement -> In-Role Performance	0.408	0.000	Supported
6b	Salesperson Engagement -> Extra-Role Performance	0.519	0.000	Supported
7a	Salesperson Engagement -> Turnover Intention	-0.102	0.272	Not Supported

Indirect Effects. The model also posits salesperson engagement is a mediator between sales manager HSL and the endogenous variables (in-role performance, extra-role performance, turnover intention). Mediation analysis in PLS-SEM was conducted using two different procedures. In procedure one, the first step was to determine if the indirect effects are significant. The indirect effects of sales manager HSL on both in-role (H6c) and extra-role performance (H6d) through salesperson engagement are significant, indicated by beta coefficients of 0.099 (t value=2.120) and 0.183 (t value=3.859) respectively. However, the indirect effect of sales manager HSL on turnover intention through salesperson engagement (H7b) is not significant (t value= 0.314). The second step was to ascertain the significance of the direct relationships. The direct relationship between sales manager HSL and all three endogenous variables is significant as evidenced by their t values—in-role performance (t value =3.638), extra-role performance (t value =2.677), and turnover intention (t value =2.925). The third step examined if the product of the significant indirect and direct effects are positive. Procedure one provides evidence that salesperson engagement is a partial and complimentary mediator in the relationships between sales manager HSL and performance (in-role and extra-role), respectively H6c and H6d (Hair et al., 2017). However, salesperson engagement is not a mediator between sales manager HSL and

turnover intention due to the indirect effect being insignificant and the direct effect significant (H7b) (Hair et al., 2017). Table 9 summarizes the mediation effects.

Procedure two, like procedure one, first assesses the significance level of the direct and indirect effects. However, to determine the type of mediation, variance accounted for (VAF) is calculated (Hair, 2016; Nitzl, Roldan, & Cepeda, 2016). VAF is calculated by multiplying the indirect effects divided by the indirect effects multiplied plus the direct effect. A full mediation effect is indicated by a VAF > 80%, partial medication is a VAF that is less than or equal to 80% but greater than 20%, and no mediation is indicated by a VAF of less than 20%. The VAF for sales engagement mediating the relationship between sales manager HSL and in-role performance is 39% indicating partial mediation (H6c). Also indicating partial mediation, the VAF for sales engagement mediating the relationship between sales manager HSL and extra-role performance is 38% (H6d). For the relationship where sales engagement mediates between sales manager HSL and turnover intention, the VAF is -19% indicating no mediation (H7b). Therefore, hypotheses H6c and H6d are supported.

Table 9: Mediation

Significance Analysis of the Direct and Indirect Effects								
	Direct Effect	95% CI Direct	t Value	p < 0.05?	Indirect Effect	95% CI Indirect	t Value	p < 0.05?
Mgr HSL -> SE-> Extra-Role Performance	0.228	[0.063, 0.401]	2.677	Y	0.183	[0.101, 0.286]	3.859	Y
Mgr HSL -> SE-> In-Role Performance	0.342	[0.141, 0.510]	3.638	Y	0.099	[0.021, 0.205]	2.120	Y
Mgr HSL -> SE-> Turnover Intention	-0.222	[-0.368, -0.069]	2.925	Y	0.014	[-0.076, 0.100]	0.314	N

Interaction Effects. To better understand what influences salesperson engagement that may be unique to their role, market dynamism and ethical climate were posited as job demands, in the form of moderators, in the relationship between sales manager HSL and

salesperson engagement (H4 and H5). SmartPLS 3.0 has the capability to include moderators in the model analysis. Therefore, the moderators were added to the existing model. The output includes the path coefficients and significance for the moderator to the endogenous variable and the interaction effect.

The path coefficient from sales manager HSL to salesperson engagement is 0.336 and significant ($p=0.000$). From market dynamism to salesperson engagement the path coefficient is 0.179 and also significant ($p=0.005$). The interaction effect is -0.139 and significant ($p=0.024$) with an adjusted R^2 of 0.384. The effect size of the market dynamism interaction is small ($p=0.032$). When a salesperson perceives their market as having high market dynamism, sales manager HSL has less impact on salesperson engagement. These results are opposite to hypothesis 4— greater market dynamism strengthens the positive relationship between salesperson perceived sales manager leadership and salesperson engagement. Therefore, hypothesis H4 is not supported.

Ethical climate's path coefficient to salesperson engagement is 0.226 and significant ($p=0.013$) with an interaction effect that is not significant ($p=0.103$) and an adjusted R^2 of 0.364. Likewise, the effect size of the ethical climate interaction is small ($p=0.017$). Because the interaction effect of ethical climate on salesperson engagement is not significant, hypothesis 5 is not supported.

4.3.2 Overall model explanatory power – R^2 and Q^2 . *R^2 – Coefficient of determination.* The explanatory power of the model was evaluated by examining the adjusted R^2 resulting from the relationships between the exogenous and endogenous variables. First the control variables, job autonomy and workplace isolation, were examined as independent variables of salesperson engagement. Both job autonomy and

workplace isolation are independently significantly ($\rho=0.000$) related to salesperson engagement with beta coefficients of 0.225 and 0.425 respectively. Job autonomy produces an R^2 of 0.060 and workplace isolation an R^2 of 0.176—both are significant ($\rho=0.041, 0.001$). Collectively, the controls produce an R^2 of 0.193 ($\rho=0.000$) with beta coefficients of 0.151 for job autonomy ($\rho=0.030$) and 0.386 for workplace isolation ($\rho=0.000$). Note that as controls in-role and extra-role performance were not significantly related to turnover intention.

Next the model was examined without the moderators. The independent variables of salesperson perceived sales manager extroversion, introversion, other-orientation, and self-orientation yield an R^2 of 0.463 ($\rho=0.000$) in regards to HSL. HSL's relationship with salesperson engagement results in an R^2 of 0.338 ($\rho=0.000$). Therefore, the model yields an additional 0.145 in explanatory power over the controls for salesperson engagement. Additionally, the model yields significant ($\rho=0.000$) explanatory power (R^2) for in-role and extra-role performance, 0.162 and 0.266 respectively. The model's independent variables do not significantly ($\rho=0.784$) explain turnover intention.

Lastly, the model's explanatory power is examined with the moderators to salesperson engagement. Market dynamism adds an additional 0.046 ($\rho=0.000$) and ethical climate an additional 0.026 ($\rho=0.000$) in explained variance. Combined the moderators increase explanatory power by 0.067 to yield an R^2 of 0.406 for salesperson engagement.

Q^2 – *Predictive relevance*. Q^2 was assessed as an additional indicator of the predictive relevance of the model for the outcome dependent variables. Cross-validated redundancy is recommended to measure Q^2 as it utilizes estimates from the structural

model and the measurement model (Hair et al., 2017). Q^2 was calculated using blindfolding in SmartPLS 3.0. Q^2 should be greater than zero to indicate that the exogenous variables have predictive relevance to the endogenous variables (Hair et al., 2017; Sarstedt, Ringle, Henseler, & Hair, 2014). The rule of thumb for Q^2 is 0.02 – 0.14 represents small, 0.15 – 0.34 represents medium, and 0.35 and greater represents large predictive relevance. The model's predictive relevance for extra-role and in-role performance is small, respectively 0.136 and 0.027. Additionally, as established earlier the model does not have predictive power for turnover intention.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This chapter discusses and provides implications for the results in Chapter 4. First, the hypothesized relationships are discussed. Next, implications for industry will be offered. Followed by the implications the study has in regards to sales management research. Then, study limitations are provided followed by suggestions for future research. Lastly, concluding remarks are offered.

5.1 Discussion of Results

This is the first known study to examine the influence of salesperson perceptions regarding sales manager dispositional traits and leadership (HSL) on salesperson engagement, performance, and turnover intention in the business-to-business context. Additionally, the study explored sales environment (market dynamism and ethical climate) as moderators in the relationship between HSL and salesperson engagement. Most of the hypotheses were supported with the exception of the moderator and turnover intention hypotheses. The model explains respectively 46%, 34%, 27%, and 16% of the variance in HSL, salesperson engagement, extra-role performance, and in-role performance.

Salesperson perceived sales manager extroversion is an indicator of perceived sales manager HSL. Accordingly, introversion is not an indicator of HSL. Therefore, when a salesperson perceives their sales manager as extroverted they are also likely to perceive higher levels of leadership in their sales manager. This is also true of

salesperson perceived other-orientation in their sales manager. A concern for others over self is viewed by salespeople as indicative of HSL behavior in their sales manager.

HSL is a significant predictor of salesperson engagement ($\beta=0.47$, $p=0.00$). This study conceptualizes HSL as a leadership hierarchy where perceived leadership levels build upon each other beginning with transactional. Transactional leadership is foundational for transformational leadership and in turn transformational is foundational for servant leadership. The results indicate that as salesperson perceived sales manager leadership progresses up the hierarchy, the greater the resulting salesperson engagement. More specifically, salespeople who perceive their sales manager as sub-transactional in their leadership behavior have the lowest mean for salesperson engagement (4.50). Sales managers who are perceived as transactional achieve a higher mean for salesperson engagement (4.93). However, this difference between sub-transactional and transactional is not significantly different. The next leadership level, transformational is significantly different from transactional in terms of the positive impact on salesperson engagement (mean = 5.58). The highest leadership level, servant, also achieves the highest mean for salesperson engagement (6.05). However, servant leadership's impact on salesperson engagement is not significantly different from transformational leadership. Therefore, the highest levels of leadership, characterized as transformational and servant, are desirable antecedents to salesperson engagement.

This study adds to the body of evidence that engaged employees are better performers than non-engaged employees (Harter et al., 2002; Verbeke et al., 2011). For business-to-business salespeople, both performance regarding activities that are specifically required for their role (in-role performance) and activities that go beyond

their job requirements (extra-role performance) are positively impacted by salesperson engagement. Additionally, this study concludes that salesperson engagement is a partial mediator in the relationship between HSL and salesperson outcomes. Specifically, sales engagement accounts for 39% of the variance in the mediating relationship with in-role performance and 38% with extra-role performance.

Based upon JD-R theory, the study model depicts HSL as a resource that facilitates salesperson engagement and the resulting salesperson outcomes. Additionally, two sales environment moderators—market dynamism and ethical climate—are depicted as job demands that may strain the relationship between HSL and salesperson engagement. The presence of high market dynamism was hypothesized to strengthen the positive relationship between HSL and salesperson engagement. However, the results indicate that HSL becomes less important to salesperson engagement when there is high market dynamism. Furthermore, ethical climate does not strengthen or weaken the link between HSL and salesperson engagement.

5.2 Managerial Implications

The results of this study highlight the importance of understanding how perceptions held by business-to-business salespeople of their sales managers can influence their behavior and job outcomes. Ultimately one's perception of others is their reality regarding other people (Lord & Dinh, 2014; Sager et al., 1998). What salespeople perceive about their managers and environment is what actually influences their attitudes and actions. The perceptions salespeople have about their direct leadership play a crucial role in their work engagement and ultimately job performance.

Traditional thinking and the literature supports that extroverts have the ability to become effective leaders (Bono & Judge, 2004; Do & Minbashian, 2014). This study also supports this belief. However, recent research suggests that the introverted personality trait may be desirable in sales leaders (Grant, 2012; Hunter et al., 2013). Notably, this study examines how salespeople perceive their sales manager's personality, which may differ from their sales manager's true personality type. The personality of a sales manager may not matter, what may matter is how a sales manager's personality is perceived by their salespeople. This nuance suggests that it may be prudent for organizations to not overlook introverts for sales manager roles.

Sales organizations are interested in identifying leadership behaviors that are instrumental in achieving salesperson outcomes. This study supports that both transformational and servant leadership positively affect work engagement (van Dierendonck et al., 2014) of salespeople. Furthermore, the results indicate there is not a difference between the impact of sub-transactional and transactional leadership on salesperson engagement. Ideally sales managers would function at the highest levels of leadership where both transformational and servant leadership behaviors are exhibited. This study concludes that in regards to salesperson engagement, transformational and servant leadership have essentially the same impact. Therefore, in order to maximize salesperson engagement it is important for organizations to at a minimum develop their managers to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors. However, servant leadership is fundamentally follower-focused and emphasizes service to the community (Grisaffe et al., 2016). Consequently, servant leadership may be a preferred approach for salesperson engagement in the business-to-business setting because its behaviors may also engender

an increased focus on customer orientation that is often vital to industry relationships (Jaramillo et al., 2009a).

Given the importance of both in-role and extra-role performance to the success of salespeople, it is important for sales organizations to identify job resources that enhance and promote salesperson engagement. Higher levels of leadership, if cultivated by sales organizations in their sales managers can yield both an engaged and high performing salesforce. Interestingly, there is not a relationship between salesperson engagement and turnover intention. However, it is important to keep in mind that salesperson engagement is about the work the salesperson does (Schaufeli et al., 2006, 2002). Turnover intention may be more about a dissatisfaction with one's organization and not necessarily one's job (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008). A salesperson could be fully engaged in their job or work and be unhappy in their current organization. The optimal scenario is for a salesperson to be both engaged in their work and committed to their organization.

5.3 Academic Implications

One of the contributions that this study endeavored to make is to add to the growing body of literature about servant literature in the sales context, specifically business-to-business. Additionally, a goal was to add support to the empirical differences between transformational and servant leadership. However, the results indicate that in determining the level of salesperson engagement there is not a significant difference between the two leadership orientations. These findings do not concur with findings from Grisaffe et al., (2016) that transformational and servant leadership yield significantly different levels of salesperson satisfaction. Instead the results support the

assertion from researchers that it is difficult to empirically differentiate the two leadership orientations (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Grisaffe et al., 2016; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011).

This is the first study to examine the relationship transformational and servant leadership have with salesperson engagement. It also adds to the sparse research specific to salesperson engagement defined as vigor, dedication, and absorption (Medhurst & Albrecht, 2011). Additionally, study results support findings that transformational and servant leadership positively influence work engagement (De Clercq et al., 2014; van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Therefore, this study is a building block for future research on the antecedents and outcomes of salesperson engagement.

The sales environment moderators, market dynamism and negative ethical climate, were not supported by this study's data in regards to strengthening the relationship between HSL and salesperson engagement. This is a surprising finding and contrary to current literature. Literature outside of sales management indicates that in dynamic environments the link between higher levels of leadership and work engagement is strengthened (Correia de Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2014; van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Although there is no known research that examines how ethical climate moderates the HSL and salesperson engagement relationship, sales researchers conclude that when there is a negative ethical climate higher level leadership (i.e. servant leadership) strengthens the relationship (Jaramillo et al., 2009b; McClaren, 2013).

5.4 Limitations

Several limitations are notable regarding this research. First, this study is cross-sectional versus longitudinal. A longitudinal approach would provide the perspective of salesperson engagement as a persistent state (Schaufeli et al., 2002) versus what may be a short-term perspective for the respondent. Secondly, dyadic data with salesperson and sales manager respondents would enrich the study. Dyadic data would eliminate the concern for common methods bias. Also, objective performance data (i.e. from the manager's perspective) would make the findings more robust. Lastly, although this study focused on salesperson perception of their manager's traits and behaviors, it would be helpful to compare the perceptions of the salesperson and their sales manager.

5.5 Future Research

Future research should address the limitations of this study and build upon its findings. This study did not overcome the challenge of empirically differentiating transformational and servant leadership. Therefore, qualitative research may provide deeper insight into how these two leadership orientations may differ both in behavior and outcomes. Additionally, executing a study with dyads (sales representative and sales manager) may further clarify the findings.

Of note is that this study focused on perceptions held by salespeople about their sales manager's dispositional traits. Personality assessments are usually self-rated (Barrick & Mount, 2005; Do & Minbashian, 2014). A comparison of perceived personality and self-rated personality would be insightful. Furthermore, mixed methods research that explored if there are introverted sales managers whose behavior with their

sales teams is perceived as extroverted may help clarify the study results. Additionally, effective sales leaders being an extrovert or introvert may not be the panacea. Therefore, exploring the concept of an ambivert (a person who has characteristics of both extroverts and introverts) may provide insight.

Additionally, this study only explored one aspect of personality. There are five commonly accepted personality traits—extroversion/introversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience—that are viewed as a comprehensive framework for personality (Mount & Barrick, 1998). Exploring all five personality traits as perceived by the salesperson, would provide insight into what combination of personality traits are most important to perceived higher levels of leadership.

Two moderators were explored in this study, however, there are many other moderators that may provide additional information about the nature of the relationship between sales manager leadership and salesperson engagement. For example, the tenure of the salesperson in their sales job or tenure with their sales manager may make a difference in the relationship. Also, there may be differences across gender of the salesperson and gender of their manager. Finally, the type and frequency of communication a salesperson has with their sales manager may impact the sales manager leadership and salesperson engagement relationship.

Lastly, individuals who are engaged in their work may find it difficult to balance the demands of work and home life. Therefore, exploring how satisfied with life highly engaged salespeople are may uncover if there is an imbalance where job demands conflict with life demands. The relationship between work engagement and life

satisfaction for salespeople may also differ depending on, for example, if they are single, married, or have children.

5.6 Conclusion

Salesperson engagement is important to sales organizations because of its relationship with salesperson in-role and extra-role performance. This study highlights that higher levels of sales manager leadership, specifically transformational and servant leadership, is an important antecedent to salesperson engagement. Additionally, the perceptions that salespeople hold about their sales manager's dispositional traits and leadership influence their work engagement. Although, this study did not provide empirical evidence that transformational and servant leadership are empirically distinct, additional insight was gained about these two leadership orientations in the business-to-business sales context.

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APPENDIX A

Extroversion (Introversion)

(Goldberg et al., 2006)

10-item scale (Alpha = .87)

Scaling: 1= “very inaccurate” to 5= “very accurate”

1. Feel comfortable around people.
2. Make friends easily.
3. Am skilled in handling social situations.
4. Am the life of the party.
5. Know how to captivate people.
6. Have little to say.
7. Keep in the background.
8. Would describe my experiences as somewhat dull.
9. Don't like to draw attention to myself.
10. Don't talk a lot.

Other-Orientation

(De Dreu & Nauta, 2009)

3-item scales (Alpha=.83)

Scaling: 1= “not at all” to 5= “very much”

At work . . .

1. I am concerned about the needs and interests of others such as my colleagues
2. The goals and aspirations of colleagues are important to me
3. I consider others' wishes and desires to be relevant

Self-concern

(De Dreu & Nauta, 2009)

3-item scales (Alpha=.80)

Scaling: 1= “not at all” to 5= “very much”

At work . . .

1. I am concerned about my own needs and interests
2. My personal goals and aspirations are important to me
3. I consider my own wishes and desires to be relevant

Hierarchical Servant Leadership

(Grisaffe et al., 2016)

17-items

Scaling: 1 = “Strongly Disagree” to 7 = “Strongly Agree”

α_1 : Study 1 internal consistency reliability; α_2 : Study 2 internal consistency reliability

Transactional leadership (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich, 2001)

Contingent reward behavior ($\alpha_1 = 0.96$; $\alpha_2 = 0.92$)

1. Always gives me positive feedback when I perform well
2. Gives me special recognition when I produce at high levels
3. Commends me when I exceed my productivity goals

Contingent punishment behavior ($\alpha_1 = 0.93$; $\alpha_2 = 0.89$)

4. Would indicate his/her disapproval if I performed at a low level
5. Let's me know about it when I perform poorly
6. Points it out to me when my productivity is not up to par

Transformational leadership (Carless, Wearing, and Mann, 2000) ($\alpha_1 = 0.97$; $\alpha_2 = 0.95$)

1. Communicates a clear and positive vision for the future
2. Treats staff as individuals, supports and encourages their development
3. Gives encouragement and recognition to staff
4. Fosters trust, involvement, and cooperation among team members
5. Encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions
6. Is clear about his/her values and practices what he/she preaches
7. Instills pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent

Servant leadership distinctives (Ehrhart, 2004) ($\alpha_1 = 0.90$; $\alpha_2 = 0.88$)

Putting subordinates first

1. Makes me feel like I work with him/her, not for him/her
2. Works hard at finding ways to help others be the best they can be

Creating value for those outside of the organization

3. Encourages salespeople to be involved in community service and volunteer activities outside of work
4. Emphasizes the importance of giving back to the community

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-9
(Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006)
9-item scale (Alpha=.92)
Scaling: 0= “never” to 6= “always”

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy. (VI1)
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. (VI2)
3. I am enthusiastic about my job. (DE2)
4. My job inspires me. (DE3)
5. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work. (VI3)
6. I feel happy when I am working intensely. (AB3)
7. I am proud of the work that I do. (DE4)
8. I am immersed in my work. (AB4)
9. I get carried away when I am working. (AB5)

VI= vigor; AB = absorption; DE = dedication

Market dynamism

(Jansen et al., 2009)

5-item scale (Alpha = .91)

Scaling: 1= “strongly disagree” to 7= “strongly agree”

1. Environmental changes in our local market are intense
2. Our clients regularly ask for new products and services
3. In our local market, changes are taking place continuously
4. In a year, nothing has changed in our market
5. In our market, the volumes of products and services to be delivered change fast and often

Ethical climate

(Schwepker, 2001)

7-item scale (Alpha=.88)

Scaling: 1= “strongly agree” to 5= “strongly disagree”

1. My company has a formal, written code of ethics.
2. My company strictly enforces a code of ethics.
3. My company has policies with regard to ethical behavior.
4. My company strictly enforces policies regarding ethical behavior.
5. Top management in my company has let it be known in no uncertain terms that unethical behaviors will not be tolerated.
6. If a salesperson in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results in primarily personal gain (rather than corporate gain), he or she will be promptly reprimanded.
7. If a salesperson in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results in primarily corporate gain (rather than personal gain), he or she will be promptly reprimanded.

In-Role Performance

(Sujan, Weitz, & Kumar, 1994)

7-item scale (Alpha= 0.91)

Scaling: -5= “much worse, 0= “average”, +5= “much better

1. Contributing to your company's acquiring a good market share.
2. Selling high profit-margin products.
3. Generating a high level of dollar sales.
4. Quickly generating sales of new company products.
5. Identifying major accounts in your territory and selling to them.
6. Exceeding sales targets.
7. Assisting your sales supervisor meet his or her goals.

Extra-Role Performance

(Jaramillo et al., 2009a)

(Netemeyer et al., 2005)

4-item scale (Alpha = .95)

Scaling: 1= “never” to “7= “often as possible”

1. I go above and beyond the “call of duty” when serving the customers.
2. I am willing to go out of my way to make a customer satisfied.
3. I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements.
4. I often help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required.

Turnover Intention

(Ganesan and Weitz, 1996; Jaramillo et al., 2009b)

5-item scale: (Alpha= 0.83; 0.90)

Scaling: 1= "strongly disagree" to 7= "strongly agree"

1. I do not think I will spend all my career with this organization.
2. I intend to leave this organization within a short period of time.
3. I have decided to quit this organization.
4. I am looking at some other jobs now.
5. If I do not get promoted soon, I will look for a job elsewhere.

Job Autonomy

(Stock & Hoyer, 2005)

4-item scale: (Alpha=.93)

Scaling: 1= "strongly disagree" to 5= "strongly agree"

1. There is little autonomy in doing my job.
2. The way my job is performed is influenced a great deal by what others (supervisors, colleagues, etc.) expect from me.
3. I only have responsibility for decision making at lower levels.
4. I have restricted freedom to act in my job.

Workplace Isolation

(Marshall et al., 2007)

5-item scale: Colleague subscale (Alpha = 0.88)

Scaling: 1= “strongly disagree” to 7= “strongly agree”

“Colleagues” Subscale

1. I have friends available to me at work.
2. I have one or more co-workers available who I talk to about day-to-day problems at work.
3. I have co-workers available whom I can depend on when I have a problem.
4. I have enough people available at work with whom I can talk about my job.
5. I have people around me at work.

APPENDIX B

SURVEY QUESTIONS LIST	
MKT DYNAMISM (MODERATOR) <i>1-7 strongly disagree / strongly agree</i>	Q4_1 - Environmental changes in my local market are intense
	Q4_2 - My clients regularly ask for new products and services
	Q4_3 - In my market, changes are taking place continuously
	R_Q4_4 - In a year, nothing has changed in my market
	Q4_5 - In my market, the volumes of products and services to be delivered change fast and often
SALESPERSON ENGAGEMENT (DV) <i>1-7 never / always</i>	Q5_1 - At my work, I feel bursting with energy
	Q5_2 - At my job, I feel strong and vigorous
	Q5_3 - I am enthusiastic about my job
	Q5_4 - My job inspires me
	Q5_5 - When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work
	Q5_6 - I feel happy when I am working intensely
	Q5_7 - I am proud of the work that I do
	Q5_8 - I am immersed in my work
	Q5_9 - I get carried away when I am working
IN-ROLE PERFORMANCE (DV) <i>Slider: -5 much worse / +5 much better</i>	Q8_1 - I contribute to my company's acquiring a good market share
	Q8_2 - I sell high profit-margin products
	Q8_3 - I generate a high level of dollar sales
	Q8_4 - I quickly generate sales of new company products
	Q8_5 - I identify major accounts in my territory and sell to them
	Q8_6 - I exceed sales targets
	Q8_7 - I assist my sales supervisor meet his or her goals
EXTRA-ROLE PERFORMANCE (DV) <i>1-9 never/ every time possible</i>	Q9_1 - I go above and beyond the call of duty when serving the customers
	Q9_2 - I am willing to go out of my way to make a customer satisfied
	Q9_3 - I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements
	Q9_4 - I often help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required

PERCEIVED SALES MANAGER: OTHER ORIENTATION (IV) <i>1-9 not at all / always</i>	Q10_1 - My sales manager is concerned about the needs and interests of others such as my colleagues
	Q10_2 - My goals and aspirations are important to my sales manager
	Q10_3 - My sales manager considers other's wishes and desires to be relevant
PERCEIVED SALES MANAGER: SELF ORIENTATION (IV) <i>1-9 not at all / always</i>	Q10_4 - My sales manager is concerned about his/her own needs and interests
	Q10_5 - My sales manager's goals and aspirations are important to them
	Q10_6 - My sales manager considers his/her own wishes and desires to be relevant
PERCEIVED SALES MANAGER: HIERARCHICAL SERVANT LEADERSHIP (IV/DV) <i>1-7 strongly disagree / strongly agree</i> <i>Transactional Leadership</i> <i>Q11_1 - Q11_6</i>	Q11_1 - My sales manager always gives me positive feedback when I perform well
	Q11_2 - My sales manager gives me special recognition when I produce at high levels
	Q11_3 - My sales manager commends me when I exceed my productivity goals
	Q11_4 - My sales manager would indicate his/her disapproval if I performed at a low level
	Q11_5 - My sales manager lets me know about it when I perform poorly
	Q11_6 - My sales manager points it out to me when my productivity is not up to par
<i>Transformational Leadership</i> <i>Q11_7 - Q11_13</i>	Q11_7 - My sales manager communicates a clear and positive vision for the future
	Q11_8 - My sales manager treats staff as individuals, supports, and encourages their development
	Q11_9 - My sales manager gives encouragement and recognition to staff
	Q11_10 - My sales manager fosters trust, involvement, and cooperation among team members
	Q11_11 - My sales manager encourages thinking about problems in new ways and questions
	Q11_12 - My sales manager is clear about his/her values and practices what he/she preaches
	Q11_13 - My sales manager instills pride and respect in others and inspires me by being highly competent

<i>Servant Leadership</i> <i>Q11_14 - Q11_17</i>	Q11_14 - My sales manager makes me feel like I work with him/her, not for him/her
	Q11_15 - My sales manager works hard at finding ways to help others be the best they can be
	Q11_16 - My sales manager encourages salespeople to be involved in community service and volunteer activities outside of work
	Q11_17 - My sales manager emphasizes the importance of giving back to the community
PERCEIVED SALES MANAGER: EXTROVERSION (IV) <i>1-7 very inaccurate / very accurate</i>	Q16_1 - My sales manager feels comfortable around people
	Q16_2 - My sales manager makes friends easily
	Q16_3 - My sales manager is skilled in handling social situations
	Q16_5 - My sales manager is the life of the party
	Q16_6 - My sales manager knows how to captivate people
PERCEIVED SALES MANAGER: INTROVERSION (IV) <i>1-7 very inaccurate / very accurate</i>	Q16_4 - My sales manager does not talk a lot
	Q16_7 - My sales manager has little to say
	Q16_8 - My sales manager keeps in the background
	Q16_9 - My sales manager would describe his/her experiences as somewhat dull
	Q16_10 - My sales manager does not like to draw attention to himself/herself
ETHICAL CLIMATE (MODERATOR) <i>1-7 strongly disagree / strongly agree</i>	Q20_1 - My company has a formal, written code of ethics
	Q20_2 - My company strictly enforces a code of ethics
	Q20_3 - My company has policies with regard to ethical behavior
	Q20_4 - My company strictly enforces policies regarding ethical behavior
	Q20_5 - Top management in my company has let it be known in no uncertain terms that unethical behaviors will not be tolerated
	Q20_6 - If a salesperson in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior resulting in PERSONAL GAIN (rather than corporate gain), he or she will be promptly reprimanded
	Q20_7 - If a salesperson in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical

	behavior resulting in CORPORATE GAIN (rather than personal gain), he or she will be promptly reprimanded
JOB AUTONOMY (CONTROL) <i>1-9 strongly disagree / strongly agree</i>	Q21_1 - There is little autonomy in doing my job
	Q21_2 - The way my job is performed is influenced a great deal by what others (supervisors, colleagues, etc.) expect from me
	Q21_3 - I only have responsibility for decision making at lower levels
	Q21_4 - I have restricted freedom to act in my job
WORKPLACE ISOLATION (CONTROL) <i>1-9 strongly disagree / strongly agree</i>	Q22_1 - I have friends available to me at work
	Q22_2 - I have one or more co-workers available who I talk to about day-to-day problems at work
	Q22_3 - I have co-workers available whom I can depend on when I have a problem
	Q22_4 - I have enough people available at work with whom I can talk about my job
	Q22_5 - I have people around me at work
TURNOVER INTENTION (DV) <i>1-7 strongly disagree / strongly agree</i>	Q24_1 - I do not think I will spend all my career with this organization
	Q24_2 - I intend to leave this organization within a short period of time
	Q24_3 - I have decided to quit this organization
	Q24_4 - I am looking at some other jobs now
	Q24_5 - If I do not get promoted soon, I will look for a job elsewhere