

MOTIVATING SALESPEOPLE TOWARD GREATER PRODUCTIVITY

By

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ABSTRACT

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Company profitability depends on an active and engaged sales force; thus, managers continue to seek best practices for motivating salespeople to perform productively. This issue remains critical as salespeople typically have significant discretion in their work and serve as the face of the company to customers. Thus, I seek to develop a greater understanding of motivational forces to contribute to both personal selling theory and sales force management. The first essay of my dissertation is a meta-analysis, which synthesizes studies published between 1985 and 2019 on salesperson motivation to answer the following key questions: how are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation related to salesperson performance? In my second essay, I examine antecedents and outcomes of intrinsic motivation. In addition to the antecedents found in Self-Determination Theory, I explore the notion of sense of purpose and develop a scale for the construct, showing how it is distinct from related constructs in the literature. Using longitudinal, objective effort and performance measures provided by a large sales firm, findings reveal that intrinsic motivation is more positively associated with working hard, working smart, and salesperson performance than extrinsic motivation. In addition, the analyses demonstrate how sales managers' leadership styles can leverage both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for increased effort, adaptivity, and performance over time. Finally, in the third essay, I demonstrate how to motivate salesperson resilience. Findings indicate that intrinsically motivated salespeople are more resilient than extrinsically motivated salespeople, and resilience is associated with better performance through working harder and working smarter; however, certain managerial interventions are needed to activate the resilience within salespeople for increased effort.

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To God be the glory...

To my incredibly loving husband, Shawn: thank you for believing in me, encouraging me and supporting me through this journey. You are an incredible gift from God, and I can't imagine life without you. I certainly would not have had this opportunity if it weren't for you. I love you. To my three Good boys, Joshua, Caleb and Ryan: thank you for sacrificing time together so I could pursue my PhD. Your love and helpfulness throughout the program have kept me going even when it was tough. I hope you will always work hard to achieve your dreams and remember that God can do anything! I love each one of you to the moon and back. To Mom and Dad: thank you for not only believing in me but also praying for me daily. I believe in the power of prayer and am grateful for your covering. To my sisters and my sweet friends: thank you for always giving me a listening ear and praying for me when I asked; you mean so much to me. To Dr. Hughes: thank you for taking me on as a doctoral student and serving as my advisor throughout my entire time at Michigan State University. To Dr. Calantone: thank you for your kindness and support, particularly when I broke my ankle; I will never forget your goodness to me. To Dr. Kirca and Dr. Voorhees: thank you for your help and serving on my committee. Finally, to the friends I have made through the PhD program who have helped and supported me: thank you!

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INTRODUCTION

A Brief Background on Motivation Theory, Research Questions and Overall Dissertation Structure

Why do some salespeople become star performers for firms while others struggle to make sales? What makes one salesperson jump out of bed and want to go to work versus another salesperson take the time he or she should be spending with a customer to go golfing alone instead? One explanation resides in the phenomenon called motivation. In reading about motivation from its early history to present day, several theories surfaced, as shown in Table 1.

(Insert Table 1 about here.)

Thus, before diving into the main essays of the dissertation, the goal of this introduction is to offer a brief background on motivation with three key takeaways, as well as provide the structure for the rest of this dissertation.

Key Takeaway 1: Motivation Precedes Behavior

Motivation is defined as the “explanation for the direction, intensity and persistence of behavior” (Landy and Becker 1987). Simon (1956) emphasized that humans have “bounded rationality” and make decisions based on their perceptions and basic understanding of circumstances. The term “motivated behavior” was subsequently coined. Work motivation also has been deemed a “decision” theory or theory of employee “choice” (Vroom 1964). In fact, Expectancy Theory predicates that workers “choose among alternatives the option corresponding to the strongest motivational force” (Vroom 1964). In this theory, motivation was described as the force impelling a worker to perform an action, as determined by the interaction of the worker’s expectancy that this action will be followed by a particular outcome and the valence of that outcome. By the 1980s, expectancy theory was said to “dominate the sales motivation literature” (Badovick 1990, p. 123) because these effort-performance-reward relationships were

remarkably salient in the salesperson arena. However, despite its popularity and usefulness in salesperson motivation studies, past research has shown “a lack of support for the multiplicative nature of the theory’s components” and overall predictive ability (Kanfer, Frese and Johnson 2017, p. 344). In addition, Expectancy Theory focuses on outcomes from performing tasks rather than an internal draw to the task itself. Nonetheless, this line of research reveals an important notion in motivation theory – specifically that motivation precedes behavior and thus one can infer motivation has existed based on decisions made or actions taken.

The Theory of Planned Behavior likewise asserts that behavioral achievement depends jointly on ability and motivation. According to this theory, perceived behavioral control when combined with behavior intention (stemming from motivation) could be used to predict behavioral achievement (Ajzen 1991). While Ajzen (1991) likened perceived behavioral control to self-efficacy, motivation was merely described as an intention to perform the task. Nonetheless, the question can still be asked, what drives this intention to perform tasks (beyond attitude toward the behavior and subjective norms)?

Sujan (1986) proposed that salespeople’s attribution of failure (Attribution Theory) would motivate them to choose to work smarter or harder, but perhaps in the wrong direction. Thus, attributions on ‘what went wrong’ were said to provide a source of motivation to perform subsequent behaviors, likely as a corrective measure.

Other theories such as behavior control and goal theory also have been introduced into the academic literature. Therein, individuals possess goals (whether externally imposed quotas or self-set standards) for activities, such as making sales; in turn, salespeople actively monitor the discrepancies between these goals and their actual output, which causes them to adjust either the goals or their individual behaviors to reduce such discrepancies (Donovan and Williams 2003; Locke and Latham 1990).

At any given time, salespeople may have multiple goals (manager imposed and self-selected), and at times these goals may even conflict, causing the salesperson to make tough choices (Neil, Ballard and Vancouver 2017). For example, salespeople must choose where to spend their time, which customers to call on any given day, how much effort to exert, which strategies and approaches are best for the situation, and how to meet quotas within a deadline. Despite actively striving to meet goals, distractions and interruptions can occur from both internal and external sources – for example, competitors may shift pricing, a new technology may be introduced, or a customer may choose to unexpectedly churn. Likewise, the firm may choose to realign territories or push new products or services. As dynamic changes occur, salespeople may find it difficult to assess which goals require more effort and which goals are no longer feasible in the time allotted. This process has been deemed “self-regulation” (Neil, Ballard and Vancouver 2017).

Thus, Self-Determination Theory ultimately became the theory of choice for this dissertation for several reasons. First, Self-Determination Theory speaks to the process of self-regulation and provides a framework that connects many theories related to motivation from external sources of motivation (such as a manager-defined goals) to emphasizing ways to motivate salespeople from within (such as self-efficacy from the Theory of Planned Behavior). Likewise, Self-Determination Theory has been highlighted as one of the theories predominantly used in sales research (e.g., Khusainova et al. 2018; Hohenberg and Homburg 2016; Cadwallader et al. 2010), making a meta-analysis particularly useful in this regard for synthesizing motivation research in this context. Also, this theory has not only been employed in the past but was also deemed the “timeliest” for modern day sales (Khusainova et al. 2018). Moreover, often the dependent variable used in sales research is percent-to-goal, which already controls for the effects of the goals imposed by the firm. Finally, Self-Determination Theory was chosen because

it is based on meeting the needs of salespeople, which remains an important consideration in its own right.

Key Takeaway 2: Motivation Follows Needs

Notably, from its earliest inception, motivation theory was based on need fulfilment. People behave to solve problems such as hunger, loneliness, self-esteem, the need for achievement, and so forth (see Murray 1938). Maslow (1943), arguably the most widely cited and misunderstood motivational theorist, asserted that once basic, lower-level needs were at least partially filled (i.e. there was at least something in a man's belly), higher level needs would emerge as strong motivators, such as the need for routine, human connection and doing what one was fitted for, or self-actualization.

MacGregor (1960) similarly described lower-level and higher-level needs of workers with his Theory X (focused on micro-management with punishments and rewards, or “carrots and sticks”) and Theory Y (driven by limited supervision and greater emphasis on worker engagement and motivation). Importantly, within the context of employment, pay and working conditions have been equated to “hygiene factors,” which are expected by present-day employees, while true motivators are based on *higher level* needs like achievement, recognition and growth (Herzberg 1968).

Thereafter, the notion of two distinct forms of motivation – intrinsic and extrinsic – was introduced (Deci 1972). By definition, a person is intrinsically motivated to perform an activity if there is no apparent reward except the activity itself or the feelings which result from the activity (Deci 1972). On the other hand, extrinsic rewards are money or verbal reinforcement, which are mediated outside of the person (Deci 1972).

Extrinsic motivation has been regarded as meeting lower level needs of workers (like compensation, financial incentives, job security and fair working conditions) while intrinsic

motivation has been viewed as meeting higher level needs, as activities become ‘internalized.’ Importantly, research suggests monetary compensation (a form of extrinsic motivation) may not be truly motivating to people who have never experienced genuine hunger or poverty. Present-day workers have a sense of entitlement to fair wages and decent working conditions, and thus they are only really noticed if they are missing or fall beyond an expected distribution (on either side – far greater or far less than expectations). Consequently, understanding how to meet higher level needs in workers rather than a consistent focus on increasing pay and benefits remains essential. Thus, Self-Determination Theory – with its antecedents of meeting the salesperson’s need for perceived autonomy, competence and relatedness – seemed fitting, particularly in the personal selling context as highlighted below.

Key Takeaway 3: Motivation Remains a Challenge

Beyond the list of theories provided in Table 1, literally hundreds of studies have been published on motivation and its outcomes over the past half century. While researchers have created a large body of work on the topic, uncertainty continues to exist in terms of how to best motivate salesperson performance, and motivation was called “the No. 1 problem facing organizations today” (Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford 2014). Khusainova et al. 2018 emphasized, “inconsistencies and ambiguities remain within the domain of salesperson motivation, exacerbated by a number of conflicting research findings. As a result, it is difficult to articulate a clear and unambiguous set of advice for managers as to what works, when, and why.”

Moreover, the role of the salesperson has evolved from its origin of a traveling “door-to-door” salesman to the current boundary spanning position that includes customer relationship management software, information technology and “big data,” sales force automation, social media, and a continued challenge to build trust with buyers as a valued consultant in the age of machine learning and artificial intelligence. The dynamic, changing role of the salesperson and

increased complexities therein only intensify the need for a deeper understanding of salesperson motivation within the personal selling context.

Dissertation Research Questions and Structure

To help bridge this gap of how to best motivate salespeople to greater performance, the following research questions are addressed across four studies in three essays. First, *which is more positively associated with salesperson performance – intrinsic or extrinsic motivation?* To answer this question, the first essay synthesizes the literature from January 1985 to January 2019 using meta-analytic methodology to examine the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and salesperson performance, which allows the exploration of the differences between both types of motivation specifically in a context where extrinsic motivation such as pay is always present.

Second, since intrinsic motivation is positively associated with performance, *what drives intrinsic motivation in salespeople?* Beyond the three antecedents of intrinsic motivation from Self-Determination Theory, a fourth antecedent may be particularly relevant to study within the context of personal selling, which is a *sense of purpose*, defined as “the belief that one is making a contribution to a cause greater and more enduring than oneself” (Pink 2009). Sense of purpose highlights that people want to feel like what they do matters, that their work has significance beyond themselves or their paycheck. Thus, the third question, *is ‘sense of purpose’ as an important construct that drives intrinsic motivation?* To answer these two questions, using a newly developed measure for sense of purpose from a pre-study, the second essay explores sense of purpose along with the three antecedents from Self-Determination Theory to demonstrate that all four lead to intrinsic motivation. Third, in addition to exploring antecedents of intrinsic motivation, the second essay compares and contrasts the effects of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation on important salesperson behaviors – namely effort and adaptive selling –

that lead to salesperson performance over time. This essay also investigates the question, *how can leaders leverage different types of motivation for increased behavior and subsequent performance?* Thus, in addition to antecedents and outcomes of intrinsic motivation, this study compares the interaction effects of transactional and transformational leadership with extrinsic and intrinsic motivation to show the impact managers can have on the relationship between a salesperson's motivation and subsequent effort, adaptivity, and performance.

Finally, prior research shows that as many as 50% of salespeople miss their selling targets each year. Thus, the final question investigated in the third essay is *how can managers motivate salespeople to be more resilient?* This study explores the understudied concept of resilience, distinguishes it from other constructs, and shows that intrinsically motivated salespeople are more resilient than extrinsically motivated salespeople. While resilience is positively associated with working smarter, certain management interventions are needed to translate resilience into working harder, while both working harder and working smarter were significantly related to subsequent increased performance.

In this dissertation, each essay is structured as its own research paper with its own abstract, introduction, literature review, hypothesis development, methods explanation, results section, and discussion that includes managerial implications, limitations, and future research directions. Following the third essay, a conclusion is offered (much like this introduction) to tie the entire dissertation together.

ESSAY 1

Exploring the Relationship Between Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Incentives, and Salesperson Performance: A Meta-analysis

While companies devote extensive resources in salesforce monitoring and compensation, executives continue to puzzle over how to properly motivate their sales personnel to perform more effectively and efficiently. Which matters more for performance – financial incentives or intrinsic motivators? While motivation has been studied for decades, the phenomenon remains arguably the number one problem facing many organizations today. In this essay, a comprehensive literature review and meta-analysis from January 1985 to January 2019 builds the foundation for the importance of studying intrinsic motivation for increased salesperson performance. Findings from 294 effect sizes nested within 127 studies ($n=77,560$) reveal that not only is motivation significantly associated with salesperson performance ($r=.245$, 95% CI = .238 to .252) but also intrinsic motivation is more significantly associated with performance ($r = .298$, 95% CI = .287 to .308) than extrinsic motivation ($r = .176$, 95% CI = .166 to .186). Moreover, we investigate some potential moderators that provide several theoretical and practical implications for managers. Finally, this meta-analysis provides fruitful avenues for future research.

KEYWORDS: *Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, Personal Selling, Sales Management, Meta-analysis*

Companies spend more than \$800 billion each year on sales force compensation in the US alone, hoping to incentivize salespeople to be increasingly productive (Steenburgh and Ahearne 2012). Yet, executives continue to puzzle over how to properly motivate their sales personnel to perform more effectively and efficiently. Although motivation has been studied for decades, the phenomenon remains arguably the number one problem facing many organizations even today (Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford 2014). This issue is particularly critical in the sales department of firms as salespeople have significant discretion in how they spend their time, must employ considerable creativity to strategically solve customer problems, and function as one of the largest sources of revenue generation for businesses. Indeed, the context of personal selling is extremely unique, given the high pressure to perform, the multi-faceted boundary-spanning obligations required of salespeople, and the need to serve as the ‘face’ of the company while maintaining deep relationships with customers.

Two primary types of motivation – *extrinsic* (driven by expectations of external consequences) and *intrinsic* (acting because the task itself is inherently interesting or satisfying) – have been studied for many decades, particularly within the education and psychology field. However, in the workplace where extrinsic motivation is often emphasized, how important is intrinsic motivation? In one sense, intrinsic motivation exists within individuals; however, in another sense intrinsic motivation exists in the relationship between individuals and activities (Ryan and Deci 2000). Can intrinsic motivators drive behaviors that lead to salesperson performance? In other words, do salespeople typically perform to attain commissions, financial incentives or other external rewards, or does the challenge of the work or the fun involved with meeting others and solving their problems form intentions to work harder and smarter and sell more? Beyond laboratory settings, the personal selling context provides a rich, real-world setting to examine sources of motivation on financial performance.

A recent meta-analysis performed by Verbeke, Dietz and Verwaal (2011) on salesperson performance included motivation, but it was broken down into the two subcategories of *goal orientation* or “the underlying goals that people pursue in achievement situations” and *work engagement* or “a persistent positive affective-motivational state of fulfillment,” rather than extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (and the constructs found in Self-Determination Theory). Thus, this meta-analysis systematically excluded key constructs related to the theory that have been predominantly used in sales literature (Khusainova et al. 2018), which may bias overall results. Furthermore, the reported confidence intervals around the relationship between motivation and performance include zero, which calls to question the actual statistical significance of the constructs used (Verbeke, Dietz and Verwaal 2011, p. 415). Hence, a more comprehensive meta-analysis is needed to show the true relationship between motivation, particularly intrinsic motivation, and salesperson performance.

More recently, Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford (2014) emphasized that a major gap exists in the motivation literature because no previous quantitative reviews have examined the direct impact of intrinsic motivation on performance. While the authors attempted to fill this gap, their meta-analysis could be improved in three ways. First, these authors primarily focus on studies from the education and psychology literature, including samples of children and adolescents. As people age, their thinking matures and their motivation can likewise develop. What motivates a child to complete an educational puzzle and what motivates a worker who needs to feed his family may be vastly different. Hence, a gap remains in our understanding of the effects of intrinsic motivation in adult workers when extrinsic motivation is also present. Particularly in the context of personal selling and sales management, extrinsic motivators such as pay always exist – so does intrinsic motivation really matter for performance? Prior research suggests that motivation may best be studied in the "real world" since deep down motivation may not exist in

the lab. In addition, whereas extrinsic motivation can be completely removed in lab settings or education, some type of extrinsic motivation is always present in workplace settings by definition (otherwise, the sample would be called ‘volunteers’). Hence, from a theoretical perspective, studying salespeople in their work environments will provide a better understanding of the phenomenon.

Second, while Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford (2014) study a particular literature base, their study neglects many key studies found within the marketing and sales literature, which could bias the results for the research question at hand. While their findings reflected that intrinsic motivation predicted more unique variance in quality of performance whereas incentives were a better predictor of quantity of performance, in the sales context, such a distinction may not exist. What firms are most interested in is the number of units sold or the bottom line. Moreover, this topic remains critical, as salesperson performance generates significant revenue for businesses. Since a rich literature base on motivation within sales and marketing exists was potentially overlooked, this shortcoming must be resolved.

The third shortcoming is related to the operationalization of intrinsic motivation. While the authors mention Self-Determination Theory (SDT), their keyword searches only focus on ‘intrinsic motivation,’ ‘task enjoyment’ and ‘autonomous regulation’ (see Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford 2014). Beyond autonomy (having control over activities performed), SDT suggests intrinsic motivation also results when people feel competent performing tasks (*self-efficacy*) and a sense of connection, belonging or relatedness as they perform them (Ryan and Deci 1985). Indeed, autonomy, self-efficacy and connection have been shown, albeit in separate studies, to be important predictors of internal motivation in the workplace (Thomas and Velthouse 1990; Sujana, Weitz and Kumar 1994; Deci et al. 2001) and are specific components of the theory that were emphasized by the theory authors. Yet two of the three factors were missing from the

analysis performed by Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford (2014). Hence, if a published study examined a salesperson's self-efficacy in feeling capable to perform tasks well related to his or her performance – but the authors of that study did not mention ‘autonomous regulation’ or ‘task enjoyment,’ – the study would have been excluded from the analysis performed by Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford (2014), which may affect the overall results.

With this in mind, we aim to gain a broader understanding of motivation by pooling information found within studies that have been conducted since 1985 within the context of personal selling. Using meta-analytic regression methods, we seek to answer the following questions. First, what is the relationship between intrinsic motivation and salesperson performance? Second, which type of motivation – intrinsic or extrinsic – matters more for salesperson performance? Third, what may moderate these relationships?

In so doing, we contribute to the literature in the following ways. First, we show not only the importance of motivation to performance but also specifically the importance of intrinsic motivation – according to theory – within the personal selling context. Next, we highlight the impact of intrinsic motivation in comparison to extrinsic incentives. While extrinsic types of motivation have been studied more prevalently in the literature, our findings reveal that intrinsic motivation was more strongly associated with salesperson performance. These findings suggest managers should not only focus on how to “up the ante” by increasing financial incentives but also reflect on how to impact the intrinsic motivation of their sales force. Finally, we discuss potential boundary conditions that should serve as fruitful avenues for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

What is the Relationship Between Intrinsic Motivation and Salesperson Performance?

Intrinsic motivation is defined as doing an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence (Ryan and Deci 2000). Intrinsic motivation has been called

“autonomous motivation” or “free choice.” What do people choose to do if they are not given a reward or verbal reinforcement to complete a specific task? Another operationalization of this measure has been self-reports of interest and enjoyment of the activity. When intrinsically motivated, a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external prods, pressures, or rewards.

To develop a better understanding of intrinsic motivation, researchers have investigated what task characteristics make an activity interesting to create a pull to perform the task. Correspondingly, Ryan and Deci (1985) focused primarily on psychological needs—namely, the innate needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Self-Determination Theory (SDT) suggests intrinsic motivation results when people feel that they have control over the activities they perform (*autonomy*), feel competent performing them (*self-efficacy*), and feel a sense of belonging, connection or relatedness as they perform them (*connection*) (Ryan and Deci 1985). As our extensive literature review shows, research in the personal selling and sales management context has highlighted the importance of all three of these, albeit separately, for salesperson performance (e.g., Wang and Netemeyer 2002; Ahearne, Matieu and Rapp 2005; Terho et al. 2017). Based on SDT, we predict:

H1: Intrinsic motivation is positively associated with salesperson performance.

Which Type of Motivation – Intrinsic or Extrinsic – Matters More for Salesperson Performance?

Extrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome (Deci 1972). This type of motivation has been called “controlled motivation” because workers are expected to act according to what is rewarded by a separate party that controls what performance gets recompensed (Ryan and Deci 1985). In our literature search, we primarily focus on the compensation-seeking aspect of extrinsic motivation because most literature on salesperson motivation has focused on monetary rewards (e.g. Cravens et al. 1993; Oliver and

Anderson 1994; Roman et al. 2005; Patil and Syam 2018). Nonetheless, we also include rewards and feedback as mediated externally to the salesperson.

Given the emphasis on salesperson compensation, commission and financial incentives, a positive relationship between salesperson performance and extrinsic motivation is assumed (Rubel and Prasad 2015; Chung and Narayandas 2017; Patil and Syam 2018; Bommaraju and Hohenberg 2018). Nonetheless, we predict that intrinsic motivation will be more positively associated with salesperson performance as intrinsic motivators meet higher level needs in workers. McGregor (1960) described lower-level and higher-level needs of workers with his *Theory X* (focused on micro-management with punishments and rewards, or “carrots and sticks”) and *Theory Y* (driven by limited supervision and greater emphasis on worker engagement and motivation), noting that the latter are most important. Extrinsic motivation has been regarded as meeting lower level needs of workers (like compensation and financial incentives) while intrinsic motivation has been viewed as meeting higher level needs, as activities become ‘internalized’ (Herzberg 1968). Present-day workers have a sense of entitlement to fair wages and decent working conditions, and thus they are only really noticed if they are missing or fall beyond an expected distribution (on either side – far greater or far less than expectations) – thus, they are not said to be not truly motivating. On the other hand, since SDT is focused on meeting the higher-level needs of workers (including the need to belong, the need for autonomy and the need to feel competent), these should be more motivating and lead to greater salesperson performance.

H2: Intrinsic motivation is more positively associated with salesperson performance than extrinsic motivation.

Potential Moderators

Previous literature reveals that studies’ characteristics can serve as moderators to the relationships between independent variables and outcomes of interest in a meta-analysis (De

Matos 2008; Nicklin, Cerasoli and Ford 2014; You, Vadakkepatt, and Joshi 2015). Since our unit of analysis is bivariate correlations, we examined the data for systematic differences in the study characteristics, including sample gender, sample mean age, sample mean job tenure, type of customer (B2B versus consumers), origin of study (inside or outside the United States) and publication year. At this point, this analysis is exploratory in nature. Figure 1 reflects our *formally hypothesized* relationships and potential study characteristics as controls.

(Insert Figure 1 about here.)

METHOD

Literature Search

The first step in conducting a meta-analysis to test the hypotheses is the identification of relevant articles. Following the procedures of previously published meta-analyses (e.g., Geyskens, Steenkamp and Kumar 2006; Rubera and Kirca 2012), we collected data in four phases. In the first phase, we performed a Boolean search in the electronic databases ABI/Inform (PROQUEST) and EBSCO Business Source Complete using the following criteria. First, the abstract had to include the word “sales*” (the use of the asterisk will pick up salesperson, salespeople, salesman, sales force, and other keywords related to sales) and the word “performance.” Next, in addition to these criteria, the abstract had to include one of the following keywords: “motivation,” “extrinsic,” “incentives,” “contests,” “pay,” “wages,” “compensation,” “reward,” “feedback,” “intrinsic,” “task enjoyment,” “autonom*,” “connection,” “competence” or “self-efficacy.” The search was performed in January 2019, and we narrowed the search to articles published since January 1985 (since Self-Determination Theory was introduced into the literature in 1985). We also limited the search to only scholarly journals articles, dissertations or working papers. In the second phase, we consulted the reference section of previously published meta-analyses on related topics to ensure no studies were missed in our first phase of data

collection (Vinchur et al. 1998; Verbeke, Dietz and Verwaal 2011; Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford 2014). In the third phase, based on the rankings found in Baumgartner and Pieters (2000), we performed a manual search of leading marketing journals likely to publish quality articles on salesperson motivation and performance including *the Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of Marketing Research*, *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *Industrial Marketing Management*, *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, and *Marketing Science*. In the fourth phase, to address the “file drawer problem,” we reviewed American Marketing & Sales Association Conference Proceedings and solicited unpublished empirical work by posting a request on the electronic marketing list-server ELMAR and emailing the Personal Selling and Sales Management Special Interest Group (Sales SIG). The total number of non-duplicated manuscripts ascertained was 998.

The next step after identifying studies for potential inclusion in the data set included evaluating the appropriateness of each study. We used several decision rules to determine the articles that would be retained for the meta-analysis (Lipsey and Wilson 2001). First, ten studies were excluded because they were not published in English. Another rule was that a copy of the article must be available via Google Scholar, ProQuest, EBSCO, via the online library system or from the researchers themselves, which resulted in the exclusion of another 20 studies. The research had to relate to the field of personal selling and sales management rather than firm-level sales metrics, which resulted in 334 articles being removed from the sample. Performance had to be at the individual (not group) level, and the sample had to include actual salespeople, which resulted in an additional combined exclusion of another 152 articles. Conceptual exposés and editorial overviews are always excluded from meta-analyses, resulting in another 115 studies being dismissed. Likewise, the dependent variable had to be a type of individual salesperson performance or individual salesperson performance had part of the overall measurement model

for correlation purposes, which eliminated another 82 articles. Eligibility was also restricted to studies reporting a Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (r) between a specific keyword of motivation and some measure of salesperson job performance, or other statistics that can be converted to r (e.g. F-value, t-value, p-value, and x^2), eliminating another 158 articles. The final sample size was 1,242 total effect sizes (294 effect sizes specifically between motivation and performance) nested within 127 studies.

Coding Procedures

To develop the final database, we followed the procedures in recent meta-analyses in the marketing literature (e.g., Rubera and Kirca 2012; Verbeke, Dietz and Verwaal 2011). Specifically, we prepared a coding form specifying the information to be extracted from each study to reduce coding error, and the first author was responsible for identifying and coding the articles.

Data Analysis

To analyze the data, we followed Lipsey and Wilson's (2001) guidelines for conducting a meta-analysis, which has been previously used in marketing research (e.g., Kirca, Jayachandran, and Bearden 2005; Verbeke, Dietz and Verwaal 2011; Rubera and Kirca 2012). Zero-order correlations between the keywords associated with intrinsic motivation and salesperson performance, as well as the keywords associated with extrinsic motivation and salesperson performance, were obtained or calculated from each study and corrected for measurement error. Specifically, we adjusted for measurement error by dividing the correlation coefficient by the product of the square root of the reliabilities of the two constructs and transformed those reliability-corrected correlations into Fisher's z -coefficients (Hunter and Schmidt 2004). If reliabilities were not offered, we assumed they were one. Next, the z -coefficients were averaged and weighted by an estimate of the inverse of their variance ($N - 3$) to give more weight for

precision to studies with higher sample sizes. Thereafter, we transformed the z-scores back to correlation coefficients and calculated 95% confidence intervals around the estimate as a measure of accuracy for the effect size (Lipsey and Wilson 2001). We used the adjusted correlation coefficients calculated in our statistical models to test our hypotheses.

Next, we calculated the fail-safe sample size (N_{FS}) using Rosenthal's (1979) method to assess the possibility of publication bias or the file drawer problem, which refers to the number of unpublished studies with null results needed to reduce the cumulative effect across studies to the point of non-significance (Lipsey and Wilson 2001).

Subgroup Analyses

In addition to testing the univariate relationship between motivation and performance as a whole, we analyzed the bivariate relationships between the different types of motivation and performance by employing subgroup analyses for pairwise relationships to test the predictions of Hypotheses 1 and 2. Following Joshi and Roh (2009), we examined each subgroup within the sample by testing the confidence intervals for statistical significance and by comparing the effect sizes across subgroups whenever possible. For continuous moderators or control variables, however, we used HLM, which avoids the artificial categorization of continuous moderating variables (Joshi and Roh 2009).

Hierarchical Linear Modeling

We also tested the hypothesis of homogeneity of the population correlations using the Q-statistic [$Q = \sum (n_i - 3)(z_i - z)^2$] that has a chi-square distribution with (k-1) degrees of freedom (Hedges and Olkin 1985) to determine whether we estimate a common population effect size for the relationships involving both types of motivation and performance. Since the Q-value was significant, we tested for potential moderators using hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) on the Fisher z- transformed correlation, following the procedure of previously published meta-analyses

in marketing (Rubera and Kirca 2012; You, Vadakkepatt, and Joshi 2015; Edeling and Himme 2018). Since meta-analyses by nature include a nested data structure (effect sizes nested within studies), HLM is the appropriate technique to account for study-level variance on the motivation-performance effect sizes. We used an iterative maximum likelihood estimation (MLE), permitting simultaneous estimation of relationships at multiple levels using a Bayesian estimation approach, which improves the accuracy of inferences compared to OLS regression (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002).

Before running the analyses in HLM, we estimated the intraclass correlation coefficient (ρ) by running an unconditional model on the motivation-performance effect size outcome to show the proportion of within-study variance to the total variance (Raudenbush and Bryk 2001). For the first model, the within-study variance was .054 ($p < .01$), while the between-study variance was .033 ($p < .01$). Thus, the ICC (ρ) is .38 ($.033/ [.033+.054]$), meaning 38% of the variance in effect sizes lies between studies while 62% of the variance remains within studies. This statistic further confirms our choice to explore between-study characteristics in our model estimation, or at the very least control for different study characteristics to determine a more accurate inference of the relationship between motivation and performance.

The between-study (level-2) variance we investigated included continuous variables such as the year the study was published, the percentage of the sample that was female, the mean age of the respondents, the mean tenure with the company, and the mean years of experience in sales as all of these characteristics “naturally occur on the same scale across studies” (You, Vadakkepatt, and Joshi 2015). We also tested for type of customer (B2B versus consumers) and the origin of the study sample (within or outside the United States). Finally, we investigated cross-level interaction effects between level-1 predictors like motivation and level-2 study characteristics such as mean sample age.

To be more precise, we tested our hypotheses using the following hierarchical linear model specification:

$$(1) \quad \text{Level 1: } Z_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}X_{1ij} + \beta_{2j}X_{2ij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$(2) \quad \text{Level 2: } \beta_{nj} = \gamma_{n0} + \sum_{k=1}^k \gamma_{nk}U_{kj} + u_{nj}$$

where Z_{ij} is the i^{th} effect size reported within j^{th} sample and β_{1j} and β_{2j} denote the parameter estimates (slopes) for the two categorical variables X_{1j} and X_{2j} , specifically:

$$X_{1ij} = \text{Motivation Type (1 for Intrinsic Motivation; 0 for Extrinsic Motivation)}$$

$$X_{2ij} = \text{Performance Type (1 for Supervisor Ratings, 2 for Objective Performance; 0 for Self-Report.)}$$

The Level-1 equation (1) estimates the impacts of different types of motivation and performance, which vary within studies. The Level-2 equation estimates the effects of the various sample (i.e., age, gender tenure, experience) and study characteristics, which are listed below, on the intercept and slopes in the Level 1 equation:

$$U_{1j} = \text{Publication Year}$$

$$U_{2j} = \text{Origin of Sample (1 for outside of United States, 0 for within)}$$

$$U_{3j} = \text{Customer Type (1 for B2C, 0 for B2B)}$$

$$U_{4j} = \text{Gender of sample (percent female)}$$

$$U_{5j} = \text{Average age of the sample}$$

$$U_{6j} = \text{Average tenure with the company (in years)}$$

$$U_{7j} = \text{Average experience in sales (in years)}$$

Finally, γ_{n0} denotes the fixed effects in the intercept and slopes β_{nj} ; and u_{nj} denotes the unexplained variance (between studies) in the intercept and slopes after we partition the effects of study and sample variables.

RESULTS

Bivariate Analyses Results

First, we employed bivariate analyses to examine the correlations between motivation (both extrinsic and intrinsic) and salesperson performance. As shown in Table 3a, our findings reveal a significantly positive relationship between overall motivation and individual salesperson performance ($r = .25, p < .01$). In addition, both extrinsic motivation ($r = .18, p < .01$) and intrinsic motivation ($r = .30, p < .01$) were positively associated with salesperson performance. Thus, our first hypothesis was supported.

(Insert Table 3a about here)

Next, we conducted a sub-group analysis to test our second hypothesis. Our findings indicate that intrinsic motivation ($r = .298, 95\% \text{ CI} = .287 \text{ to } .308$) is more strongly associated with salesperson performance than extrinsic motivation ($r = .175, 95\% \text{ CI} = .166 \text{ to } .186$), as the confidence intervals around the mean effect size for both types of motivation do not overlap. Thus, our hypothesis was supported. Importantly, for these relationships, the fail-safe sample sizes (publication bias) were 2,302 for extrinsic motivation and 3,797 for intrinsic motivation, indicating that the positive overall correlations found in the bivariate analyses are unlikely to be susceptible to a file-drawer problem (Rosenthal 1979).

We likewise conducted a sub-group analysis on the types of performance studied, as shown in Table 3b. Unsurprisingly, the effect size between motivation and self-rated performance ($r = .303, 95\% \text{ CI} = .294 \text{ to } .311$) was significantly higher than supervisor ratings or objective performance, and likewise a majority of the studies (just over two-thirds of the effect sizes) included self-rated performance. What is somewhat more interesting is that the effect size for manager ratings ($r = .114, 95\% \text{ CI} = .094 \text{ to } .133$) was significantly lower than that of objective performance ($r = .173, 95\% \text{ CI} = .159 \text{ to } .188$), which we discuss below. The confidence intervals

around the mean effect sizes for the different types of performance are once again non-overlapping, and the fail-safe sample size numbers – though lower for objective and manager-rated performance – reflect that publication bias is unlikely to be problematic.

(Insert Table 3b about here.)

Thereafter, we examined the interaction between type of motivation and type of performance, as shown in Tables 3c-3e.

(Insert Tables 3c-3e about here.)

HLM Analyses

We ran the HLM analyses in three stages. In the first stage, we ran a model with all potential level-2 moderator variables (i.e., between-study characteristics) and the level-1 variables of motivation and performance on the corrected correlations. Because authors often neglect to report information on all their study characteristics, the sample size was reduced to 49 total effect sizes nested within 18 studies for this model, and none of the variables in the model were significant, as shown in Table 4a. Moreover, the variance of the slope the type of motivation was insignificant ($\sigma^2 = .049, p > .05$), which indicates that testing interaction effects between level-2 variables and motivation at the first level is unwarranted. These null results may be the result of an insufficient level-2 sample size (with 50 being the minimum recommended, according to Maas and Hox 2005) and accompanying lower power.

Because not all studies included all possible variables of interest, consistent with previous meta-analyses in marketing, in the second stage we used an imputation method of replacing missing values with variable means to test the full model with all possible control variables (e.g., Kirca and Rubera 2012). As shown in Table 4b, with missing data resolved through mean imputation, we find that study characteristics such as type of customer (B2B vs. consumer), tenure in the firm, experience in sales, gender (percent female), and origin (inside or outside the

United States) were all insignificantly related to the z-transformed values of the reliability-corrected correlations between motivation and performance. Moreover, the variance of the slopes for both the type of motivation ($\sigma^2 = .002, p > .05$) and type of performance ($\sigma^2 = .000, p > .05$) are not significant, which indicates that testing interaction effects is once again not warranted. Hence, we find some evidence that our findings that the type of motivation (intrinsic vs. extrinsic) is significant, even when controlling for the type of performance and level-2 study characteristics, as we will discuss below.

Finally, in the third stage, we decided to probe study moderators a bit further by analyzing specific moderators of interest (as sometimes authors reveal one characteristic about their sample but withhold another). Rather than mean imputation in this particular analysis, we singled out studies that actually reported the mean sample age to test if age would be a significant moderator for the relationship between motivation-type and performance (Level-1 $N=160$, Level-2 $N=82$). As shown in Table 4c, not only was the type of motivation significant ($\beta = .182, p < .01$), the interaction between the mean sample age and type of motivation was significant ($\gamma = -.021, p < .01$). This means that on average, the positive impact of intrinsic motivation on the corrected effect size with performance was reduced as the sample mean aged. We discuss this finding further below.

(Insert Tables 4a, 4b and 4c about here.)

DISCUSSION

While the need for a meta-analysis examining intrinsic motivation has been emphasized in the literature, prior research does not offer a comprehensive examination according to theory. Previous studies have excluded either key constructs related to intrinsic motivation according to Self-Determination Theory (e.g., Verbeke, Dietz and Verwaal 2011) or included contexts and samples that are outside of the typical salesperson scope (such as children and adolescents) while

overlooking the rich literature published in the sales and marketing domain, or both (e.g., Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford 2014). Our study provides more comprehensive insight into how intrinsic motivation impacts salesperson performance by gathering evidence from studies conducted from the introduction of Self-Determination Theory in 1985 to present using keyword searches specific to the theory.

Importantly, this study establishes that motivation is significantly related to performance. Moreover, intrinsic motivation is directly related to the performance of salespeople, emphasizing its importance to firms in generating revenue. Even though the relationship between motivation and performance was higher for self-reported data, the results remained significant for objective salesperson performance, i.e. a firm's bottom line. Thus, scholars and practitioners need not assume that intrinsic motivation is a better predictor of 'quality' in a lab-setting or school environment rather than a sales setting, where quantity of sales and hard dollar value to the firm is critical.

In addition, our analyses reveal how intrinsic motivation compares to extrinsic financial incentives, which historically have been touted as driving salesperson performance. Moreover, these findings are directly from studies that reside within the context of selling (i.e., a workplace setting where both types of motivation co-exist). While managers may intuitively try to motivate their workers with compensation packages, contests and incentives (and our study does, in fact, provide evidence that these are indeed related to salesperson performance), this research provides strong evidence that other considerations are also extremely critical. Namely, meeting the internal needs of workers – like the need to feel competent, connected, and autonomous – are more positively related to performance than extrinsic sources of motivation, including both compensation and recognition. Our subgroup analyses and HLM models provide evidence that this finding of the positive impact of intrinsic motivation to salesperson performance is robust.

Even when we control for between-study characteristics, the motivation type was significant (with intrinsic motivation being more positively associated with performance).

Finally, one interesting finding with further exploratory investigation was the interaction between mean sample age and the type of motivation studied on the motivation-performance effect size. One might infer from this finding that intrinsic motivation is even more important for younger generations. This finding may be considered extremely important, given recent research that emphasizes that the sales workforce is dramatically shifting toward a younger population as prior generations are retiring (Khusainova et al. 2018). Increasingly, salespeople are being recruited from the millennial generation, “which is predicted to reach almost 50% of the workforce by 2020” (Khusainova et al. 2018, p. 3). Some authors hint that millennials may be motivated differently than Baby Boomers or Generation Xers, while our study offers some empirical support for this conclusion.

Overall, this meta-analysis provides a more comprehensive synthesis of the motivation literature corresponding to Self-Determination Theory, specifically within the context of personal selling and sales management. Our study provides evidence for the importance of meeting the internal needs of salespeople rather than focusing on external prods and pressures to perform better.

Managerial Implications

The findings of this study support the notion that extrinsic incentives provided to salespeople are associated with their performance. Therefore, aligning contests, compensation packages and incentives with organizational goals remains a worthwhile endeavor. Nonetheless, our analyses also show that meeting the internal needs of workers – namely the need to feel competent, connected and autonomous – was even more positively related to salesperson performance than extrinsic sources of motivation. Thus, without neglecting extrinsic motivators,

managers should consider how to motivate their sales force based on meeting these internal needs.

Practically speaking, while managers are external to the salesperson, they can influence or inspire his or her intrinsic motivation. For example, building stronger self-efficacy in salespeople can stem from training opportunities, positive feedback highlighting the salesperson's competence, and empowering the salesperson to make important decisions. Likewise, advancing a company culture that develops organizational and team identification within the salesperson to make him or her feel accepted and a sense of belonging should help the salesperson thrive and perform better. Moreover, offering autonomy when possible in areas like scheduling, key account management, decision making in resolving customers' problems and so forth can develop a deep passion for performing well on the job that translates to a stronger bottom line for the firm. These are just some examples of ways to nurture the intrinsic motivation in salespeople.

As older generations retire and a younger sales force is entering the field, becoming more attune to intrinsic sources of motivation is even more critical. Many present-day workers have never experienced true poverty and thus seek to meet higher level needs via their employment. Our study provides some evidence that intrinsic motivation may be even more important to younger salespeople.

Limitations and Future Research

Our meta-analysis has some limitations that provide potential future research opportunities. First, we did not find support for the existence of all study moderators as a whole because some authors do not provide the necessary statistics to be included in these analyses. However, in future individual studies, probing the differences between gender, country, industry

or type of customer on the relationship between motivation and performance may be fruitful avenues for investigation.

Second, the results we offer are based on coded data and choices made in the coding process. For example, performance had to be at the individual salesperson level, and the searches included specific keywords related to intrinsic and extrinsic sources of motivation. To help alleviate potential concerns from our approach, we made all our coding decisions transparent and provided the database of studies for review.

Third, somewhat surprisingly, we find that no single study in our search investigated all constructs from Self-Determination Theory together in one single model. This is interesting, given the popularity of the theory and the interest in intrinsic motivation. Moreover, our findings provide empirical support that intrinsic motivation is more strongly related to salesperson performance than extrinsic motivation. Thus, future research may want to investigate the three antecedents together and their effect on salesperson performance.

Fourth, we find that the motivation-performance effect sizes are significantly lower for manager ratings of salespeople than not only self-reported data but also objective performance data. Does this indicate that managers are out of touch with their subordinates' motivation or performance? We do not make this assumption but simply suggest that this may be an interesting avenue for future research.

Finally, through our exploratory analysis, we found that intrinsic motivation may be more important for younger salespeople. However, none of the primary studies in the meta-analysis explicitly addresses this issue. Thus, we leave probing this interaction more as a suggestion for future inquiry.

ESSAY 2

Understanding and Leveraging Intrinsic Motivation in Salespeople

Much of the current research on motivation relates to extrinsic reward expectancy such as compensation, contests and normative pressures like quotas. However, extrinsic motivation incurs significant costs for companies, both in managerial oversight and providing incentives. Much less is known about intrinsic motivation in salespeople – not only what leads to it but also how to leverage it for better performance. In this study, we explore antecedents and outcomes of intrinsic motivation compared to extrinsic sources. Findings suggest that intrinsic motivation – driven by an inherent enjoyment or satisfaction from doing the task – is more positively associated with increased salesperson effort and adaptivity than a desire for money over time. Furthermore, while self-determination theory suggests that autonomy, self-efficacy and sense of belonging are the three drivers of intrinsic motivation, we empirically demonstrate that sense of purpose (the belief that one is making a contribution to a cause greater and more enduring than oneself) is also an important antecedent, which has not been previously studied. Not only do we show antecedents to intrinsic motivation but also show how leadership styles can leverage it for increased salesperson effort, adaptivity and subsequent performance.

KEYWORDS: *Intrinsic Motivation, Sense of Purpose, Personal Selling, Self-Determination Theory, Transformational Leadership*

Motivating salespeople persists as a hot topic for both academics and practitioners, as motivated salespeople provide immense value to companies through increased effort and strengthened productivity that ultimately generates revenue. Indeed, motivation has been a well-established predictor of performance (Churchill et al. 1985; Verbeke, Dietz and Verwaal 2011; Schmitz 2013; Khusainova et al. 2018). Two types of motivation proposed by Deci (1972) include *extrinsic motivation* (driven by expectations of external consequences) and *intrinsic motivation* (acting because the task itself is inherently interesting or satisfying). Consistent with managerial practice, most research on salesperson motivation has focused on extrinsic sources, such as compensation structure (Steenburgh and Ahearne 2012; Rubel and Prasad 2015), sales contests (Lim, Ahearne and Ham 2009), incentives (Chung and Narayandas 2017; Patil and Syam 2018; Bommaraju and Hohenberg 2018), normative pressures like quotas (Chowdhury 1993; Gillespie, Noble and Lam 2016), and the valence-instrumentality-expectancy of rewards (Vroom 1964; Teas 1981; Tyagi 1985; Ingram, Lee and Skinner 1989).

While extrinsic sources of motivation have been shown to affect salesperson performance at least temporarily, related costs to the firm are significant – both in providing financial resources for rewards and in putting systems in place to monitor behavior. Likewise, extrinsic motivation has been purported to encourage some unwanted side effects such as unscrupulous sales tactics, short-term orientation, and an unhealthy work climate marked by competition at all costs (e.g., Román and Munuera 2005). Finally, extrinsic motivation has been predicted to be a ‘hygiene factor’ – or expectation of the workforce – and not really a strong motivator (Herzberg 1968).

On the other hand, significantly less is known about the nature of intrinsic motivation. Studies have shown that intrinsically motivated individuals are more creative (Amabile 1993), foster better long-term relationships (Pullins 2001), and attribute their success to working

“smarter” (Sujan 1986). However, due in part to inconsistencies in defining intrinsic motivation and what leads to it, reported results on its impact on salesperson performance have been mixed (e.g. Tyagi 1985; Ingram, Lee and Skinner 1989; Ramarajan, Rothbard and Wilk 2017). While some have argued that intrinsic motivation is an inalterable trait, like personality, there is evidence that contextual aspects of motivation can be altered by job design and managerial practices that make work more inherently enjoyable and satisfying (Vallerand 1997; Kohli 1985; Pullins 2001). Thus, studying intrinsic motivation – both its antecedents and outcomes – remains a key consideration for both research and practice.

To address this gap, we partnered with a U.S. based sales firm in the financial services industry to gather both salesperson survey responses and objective longitudinal effort and performance data from company records (n=114, t=4). Using time-varying covariate analysis, our results reveal that intrinsic motivation is more positively associated with both working hard (effort) and working smart (adaptive selling) than extrinsic motivation over time. While recent literature has emphasized the importance of salesperson incentives, our study reveals that intrinsic motivation is more positively related to salesperson effort and adaptivity in a modern sales setting. Likewise, working hard was shown to relate more strongly than working smart to salesperson performance over time – in other words, as effort increased (decreased), subsequent performance increased (decreased). Thus, one contribution of our study is that instead of focusing on payouts and incentives for salespeople to perform better, concentrating on meeting the internal needs of salespeople can lead to better objective performance outcomes.

Second, to the best of our knowledge, no prior study has empirically tested all the purported antecedents of intrinsic motivation from Self-Determination Theory (i.e. a sense of autonomy, belonging and competence) together in one research model that investigates subsequent salesperson effort and performance over time. Thus, another albeit modest

contribution is that our results support the importance of each construct. A third, more significant contribution is that we propose that sense of purpose – *the belief that one is making a contribution to a cause greater and more enduring than oneself* – is an additional antecedent. We not only develop a valid and reliable scale for the construct but also empirically demonstrate that sense of purpose is positively associated with intrinsic motivation, net the effect of the other three antecedents. Finally, a fourth contribution is that we empirically demonstrate that sales manager leadership styles significantly impact the relationship between both types of motivation and subsequent salesperson behaviors, showing the influence that managers can have in leveraging motivation, even intrinsic motivation, to increased effort and performance. These findings are important not only theoretically but also practically.

The rest of this essay is organized as follows. First, we describe both extrinsic and intrinsic sources of motivation, introducing the concept of sense of purpose. Thereafter, we develop several hypotheses related to both types of motivation, effort, adaptivity, performance and salesperson leadership. After explaining our statistical approach, we provide results and a discussion of the findings, followed by a section on limitations and avenues for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Extrinsic Motivation refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome (Deci 1972). Although some scholars have broken down extrinsic motivation into a cognitive orientation called “compensation seeking,” and affective orientation called “recognition seeking,” (c.f. Miao, Evans and Zou. 2007), the latter has been questioned as partially belonging to intrinsic motivation. Truly, recognition and esteem are higher level needs that lie *within* a person. According to Deci (1972), “...verbal rewards may not be phenomenologically distinguishable from the feelings of satisfaction which the person gets for doing the activity. Hence, the verbal reinforcements strengthen his intrinsic motivation because they provide

additional positive value which becomes associated with the activity...by strengthening the person's sense of competence and self-determination.” (p. 224). Thus, depending on how the salesperson receives feedback and interprets it, the draw could be due to the source and desire to please others (extrinsic) or from the perception of how good he or she is at the task and feelings of esteem (intrinsic).

For this reason, in this study we focus on the compensation-seeking aspect of extrinsic motivation because most literature on salesperson motivation has focused on monetary rewards (e.g. Cravens et al. 1993; Oliver and Anderson 1994). Indeed, financial rewards have been called the most salient influencers of salesperson behavior and historically salesperson motivation has been linked almost exclusively to pay packages and financial incentives (Khusainova et al. 2018). Even recently, research has investigated the use of specialized personal incentives or cash rewards granted to salespeople for meeting interim performance goals within a quota period for increased salesperson performance (Chung and Narayandas 2017; Patil and Syam 2018; Bommaraju and Hohenberg 2018).

Alternatively, intrinsic motivation has been described as a “*pull* from the task versus the *push* of management” (Thomas and Velthouse 1990, p. 667). Thus, prior research has centered on what makes an activity more inherently interesting or satisfying. According to Self-Determination Theory (SDT), intrinsic motivation results from having a sense of autonomy, competence and relatedness or connection (Ryan and Deci 1985). Within the context of sales, job autonomy has been described as allowing salespeople to determine the nature of the sales task or problem and to arrive at a course of action (Wang and Netemeyer 2002). Autonomy provides employees with more ownership, and the ability to feel they have a more direct impact on outcomes; as such, autonomy has been linked with employee proactive behaviors (e.g., Rapp et al. 2015a). Designing jobs with more autonomy has been shown to lead to higher internal work

motivation, greater satisfaction, better performance and less turnover (Hackman and Oldham 1976). Because a sales job requires meeting changing marketplace demands, salespeople need autonomy to perform well, as increased freedom allows for learning on the job and flexibility to choose the best course of action (Wang and Netemeyer 2002). Literature suggests that people's perceptions of control induce a feeling of personal responsibility for performance outcomes and a pride of ownership for the job (Tyagi 1985). Furthermore, the controllability offered by an autonomous job allows salespeople to use their skills, knowledge and creativity to choose and formulate sales strategies without others' interference. Consequently, literature shows that autonomy enhances effort and job/sales performance (Christen, Iyer and Soberman 2006; Wang and Netemeyer 2002; Rapp et al. 2015a).

According to Ryan and Deci (2000), "perceived competence or self-efficacy" is the second driver of intrinsic motivation (p. 58). Competence includes having the skills, know-how and ability to perform a job. A sense of competence is therefore synonymous with self-efficacy, as the authors of Self-Determination Theory convey. By definition, the concept of perceived self-efficacy is concerned with "judgements of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura 1982, p. 122). In a sales context, research has shown that the higher one's self-efficacy, the more likely he or she is to engage and persist in task-related behavior (Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp 2005; Fu et al. 2010). Self-efficacious employees are said to perform better when challenging situations arise during customer encounters. In fact, self-efficacy has been linked to increased effort, persistence and coping mechanisms (Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp 2005). Because highly efficacious salespeople tend to work harder and exert more effort (Sujan, Weitz and Kumar 1994), they have been shown to increase customer satisfaction and overall performance. Indeed, prior studies and meta-analyses have demonstrated that self-efficacy is positively related to salesperson performance (e.g.,

Brown, Cron and Slocum 1997; Wang and Netemeyer 2002; Ahearne, Mathieu and Rapp 2005; Schmitz and Ganesan 2014).

The third need discussed in Self-Determination Theory is the need for relatedness, connection or a sense of belonging. According to Ryan and Deci (2000), even when work is not fascinating on its own, many times individuals are willing to do the job because they are valued by significant others to whom they feel (or would like to feel) connected. “This suggests that the groundwork for facilitating internalization [of work] is providing a sense of belongingness and connectedness to the persons, group, or culture disseminating a goal...” (Ryan and Deci 2000, p. 64). An example provided in the psychology literature was a student feeling respected and cared for by the teacher being essential for his or her willingness to participate in classroom values and behaviors (Ryan and Deci 2000). At work, this may mean that a salesperson pitches in to help another peer who was absent, not to earn any reward or commission but rather because the two consider each other to be friends and belong to part of a team. In fact, prior research shows that both peers and managers of salespeople can have a profound impact on their actions (Hayati, Atefi and Ahearne 2018). Likewise, team consensus and interpersonal climate quality have been shown to enhance team performance through both extra-role (team helping behavior) and in-role (team effort) behavior (Ahearne et al. 2010b). Not only is team performance improved, individual salesperson performance has been shown to be positively influenced by the intrafirm relationships that salespeople have and the salesperson’s ability to create value by leveraging internal resources to address customer needs (Bolander et al. 2015). Beyond leveraging intrafirm resources, developing relationships within the organization can meet deep internal needs of salespeople, namely to connect and belong. Being part of a team or organization offers a sense of identity and belonging that may make work more fun and more interesting overall. Often the relationships at work and company culture can spur employees to anticipate going to work and

even go the extra mile in helping each other. Indeed, Ellemers, De Gilder, and Haslam (2004) posited that employees can experience a strong social identity at work that leads to greater effort and group performance. Because, to the best of our knowledge, the three antecedents proposed in Self-Determination Theory have not been empirically tested together in a full model with salesperson motivation, behaviors and performance over time, we formally hypothesize for the relationship between each antecedent and intrinsic motivation.

H1: Autonomy (1a), self-efficacy (1b) and connection (1c) are positively associated with intrinsic motivation.

Sense of Purpose

Beyond these three antecedents of intrinsic motivation from Self-Determination Theory, a fourth antecedent may be particularly relevant to study within the context of personal selling. Having a *sense of purpose*, defined as “the belief that one is making a contribution to a cause greater and more enduring than oneself” can be particularly motivating to a generation of salespeople who have never experienced true poverty (Pink 2009). Sense of purpose highlights that people want to feel like what they do matters, that their work has significance beyond themselves or their paycheck. Many people long to be part of a greater good and leave a legacy after they are gone. Beyond social workers, teachers, nurses, and homeless shelter volunteers, professionals in diverse settings (including sales professionals) want to contribute to society through their work and help others. In addition, McLeod (2012) asserts that those who sell for more noble reasons can frequently outperform those focused on meeting quotas and making money. Certainly, many salespeople choose the profession because they want to help others and make a difference in the lives of customers. In an interview we conducted with the top salesman for a wheel manufacturer, he conveyed,

“Every morning I go into my home office and get right on the phone, knowing that every sale I make is saving lives on highways. When tractor trailers travel at high rates of speed and hit a pot hole, for example, an inferior wheel will bend and

even crack, causing the truck driver to lose control... and people in the other vehicles they collide with don't walk away from those types of accidents. I work hard because I know that moms and dads are returning safely home to their families when I make sales."

This salesman was not only the top salesman in his firm, he literally outsold the production capabilities of the firm within the first three months of that year.

Management and psychology literature provide some indication that sense of purpose may be an important motivator. In Grant's (2007) conceptual model of job impact, relational job architecture that included having an impact on beneficiaries lead to motivation to make a prosocial difference, which lead to greater effort, persistence and helping behavior. Perceived social impact is defined as the degree to which employees feel that their actions benefit other people; and in a fund-raising field experiment, perceived social impact was shown to improve performance (Grant 2008). In Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics model, the primary focus was on structural properties of job tasks; however, the construct 'task significance' therein offered "a clue that jobs may spark motivation to make a prosocial difference by shaping how employees interact and develop relationships with the people affected by their work" (Grant, 2007, p. 394). Task significance has traditionally been about the significance of the employee's job performance to co-workers or the company itself (Hackman and Oldham 1976; George 1992); however, an item was added to the original scale that extends to significance outside the organization as well (e.g., Morgeson and Humphrey 2006). Nonetheless, previous literature highlights that a distinction remains – whereas task significance illustrates that others are depending on employees' efforts, a perceived social impact [stemming from a sense of purpose] describes the extent to which employees feel that their own actions on the job improve the welfare of others (Grant 2008).

Beyond impacting internal constituents, sense of purpose relates to benefitting society, making a lasting contribution on others, and leaving a legacy. Because intrinsic motivation is defined as performing tasks because they are inherently interesting or internally satisfying, sense of purpose ought to be positively associated with this type of inner motivation as helping others and creating a lasting legacy can bring great internal satisfaction. Yet, this notion has not been empirically tested in a sales setting. Thus, we hypothesize:

H2: Sense of purpose is positively associated with intrinsic motivation, net the effects of autonomy, self-efficacy and connection.

Working Hard

Each decision made by a salesperson reflects the “strongest motivational force” (Vroom 1964). Effort is one of the ultimate predictors of salesperson performance and one of the best ways to infer that a salesperson was motivated to act (Hughes and Ahearne 2010). In fact, motivation has been defined as “the explanation for the direction, intensity and persistence of behavior” (Landy and Becker 1987). In other words, are salespeople motivated to spend their time at work making calls, advancing leads, problem solving, and developing strategic customer solutions? Or, does lack of motivation limit productivity? According to Sujjan, Weitz and Kumar (1994), working hard reflects the overall effort salespeople devote to their work. Effort has been operationalized a number of ways in past research, including anticipated effort, intensity of effort, hours spent and so forth; even so, working hard or effort has been shown to drive sales (e.g., Brown and Peterson 1994; Ingram, Lee and Skinner 1989; Hughes 2013).

Looking at each driver of intrinsic motivation – autonomy, self-efficacy, connection and sense of purpose – helps build the case for the importance of intrinsic motivation to predict effort. Literature suggests that people’s perceptions of autonomy and control enhances their effort expenditure and increases sales performance (Christen, Iyer and Soberman 2006; Wang and Netemeyer 2002; Rapp et al. 2015a). Moreover, Ingram, Lee and Skinner (1989) showed

“great freedom to do what I want on the job” was positively associated with salesperson effort and performance. Next, self-efficacy or feeling competent to perform the tasks has been shown to be directly related to behavior and planned action (Ajzen 1991). Literature reveals that highly efficacious salespeople tend to work harder and see increased performance (Sujan, Weitz and Kumar 1994; Ahearne, Mathieu, and Rapp 2005; Fu et al. 2010). Likewise, a connection with co-workers or sense of belonging in the group may make salespeople feel obligated to do their part and exert greater effort. Finally, having a sense of purpose should motivate salespeople to work harder. If the salesperson recognizes the importance of making the sale and how the customers’ lives will be impacted, that sense of importance and urgency should drive effort to make more sales. Thus, we predict:

H3a: Intrinsic motivation is positively associated with working hard.

From its earliest inception, motivation theory was based on need fulfilment. People behave to solve problems such as hunger, loneliness, self-esteem, and so forth. Maslow (1943), arguably the most widely cited and misunderstood motivational theorist, asserted that once basic, lower-level needs were at least partially filled (i.e. there was at least something in a man’s belly), higher level needs would emerge as strong motivators, such as the need for routine, human connection and doing what one was fitted for, or self-actualization.

MacGregor (1960) similarly described lower-level and higher-level needs of workers with his *Theory X* (focused on micro-management with punishments and rewards, or “carrots and sticks”) and *Theory Y* (driven by limited supervision and greater emphasis on worker engagement and motivation). Importantly, within the context of employment, pay and working conditions have been equated to “hygiene factors,” which are expected by present-day employees, while true motivators are based on *higher level* needs like achievement, recognition and growth (Herzberg 1968).

Extrinsic motivation has been regarded as meeting lower level needs of workers (i.e., compensation) while intrinsic motivation has been viewed as meeting higher level needs, as activities become ‘internalized.’ Importantly, research suggests monetary rewards may not be truly motivating to people who have never experienced genuine hunger or poverty. Present-day workers have a sense of entitlement to fair wages and decent working conditions, and thus they are only really noticed if they are missing or fall beyond an expected distribution (on either side – far greater or far less than expectations). Consequently, we predict that intrinsic motivation will be more positively associated with working hard than extrinsic motivation.

H3b: Intrinsic motivation is more positively associated with working hard than extrinsic motivation.

Working Smart

Alternatively, working smart concerns the strategic direction of effort (Sujan 1986). In his seminal paper, Sujan (1986) indicated that those who were intrinsically motivated attributed failure to not working smart enough while those who were extrinsically motivated attributed failure to not working hard enough – but perhaps in the wrong direction. While effort is undeniably important, strategic direction of that effort is likewise crucial to study within the personal selling context. While working hard is often discussed as effort intensity, working smart most often signifies effort direction. Ogilvie et al. (2017) describes working smart as “the use of knowledge to direct effort” and “optimizing effort allocation” (p. 101). Prior research has shown intrinsically motivated salespeople are more willing to work both harder *and* smarter than those who are extrinsically motivated (Khusainova et al. 2018; Jaramillo and Mulki 2008; Oliver and Anderson 1994).

Working smart has been conceptualized in marketing literature as adaptive selling behavior, or using sales knowledge to adjust the approach to fit customer needs within various customer interactions (Spiro and Weitz 1990). In a meta-analysis by Frank and Park (2006),

adaptive selling behaviors were shown to positively correlate with self-rated, manager-rated and objective performance measures of salespeople. Moreover, previous studies have demonstrated that intrinsically motivated salespeople are more likely to practice adaptive selling, which leads to enhanced performance (Jaramillo et al. 2007; Pettijohn et al. 2002; Román and Iacobucci 2010; Miao and Evans 2012). For these reasons, and because intrinsic motivation has been shown to positively influence creativity while extrinsic motivation has been shown as detrimental to inventiveness (Amabile 1993), we hypothesize that intrinsic motivation will not only have a positive association with working smart, which requires ingenuity in customizing selling techniques to meet individual customer needs, but also a stronger positive association than extrinsic motivation.

H4a: Intrinsic motivation is positively associated with working smart.

H4b: Intrinsic motivation is more positively associated with working smart than extrinsic motivation.

Our conceptual model is displayed in Figure 2. Ultimately, what most companies are concerned with is salesperson performance. Past research has demonstrated that effort/working hard (Sujan, Kumar and Weitz 1994; Brown and Petersen 1994) and adaptivity/working smart (Sujan 1986; Spiro and Weitz 1990; Frank and Park 2006) are critical behaviors that lead to greater sales. While we will not belabor the point because these relationships have been well-documented in the literature (Rapp et al. 2006; Fang, Palmatier and Evans 2004; Jaramillo and Mulki 2008; Ogilvie et al. 2017), we likewise formally hypothesize for them here because unlike a majority of cross-sectional studies, we are using a dynamic approach to demonstrate the relationships between working hard and working smart and subsequent performance over time. Moreover, prior research has emphasized that “there is comparatively little research on how effort directly relates to performance,” (Yeo and Neal 2004, p. 231). Therefore, we hypothesize:

H5: Working hard is positively associated with salesperson performance.

H6: Working smart is positively associated with salesperson performance.

(Insert Figure 2 about here.)

The Moderating Effect of Leadership

Finally, demonstrating that the relationship between intrinsic motivation and important salesperson behaviors can be strengthened or weakened by certain managerial behaviors remains critical for both theory and practice. Some scholars have suggested that research has focused on extrinsic sources of motivation because managers cannot influence the ‘heart and brains’ of a salesperson. However, leadership has been shown to affect the relationship between salesperson motivation and behavior (e.g., Kohli 1985). While leadership may not directly impact the internal workings of a salesperson, leadership can moderate the relationship between the motivation and subsequent behaviors by influencing how much attention the salesperson gives to these motivators.

Different leadership concepts (or theories) can be more or less appropriate for the personal selling context, given the dynamic aspects of the job, the autonomy given most salespeople and the typical high pressure to perform. Within a sales context, MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Rich (2001) investigated transactional leadership (focused on tasks and performance) and transformational leadership (focused on vision) and demonstrated that transformational leadership positively affected salesperson performance. Transformational leadership implies showing individual consideration for salespeople, intellectually stimulating as well as motivating them, and communicating a compelling vision for the organization (Alavi et al. 2018; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Rich 2001). These behaviors have been predicted to influence the cognition of employees, thereby increasing the relationship *between* their internal task motivation and engagement as well as creativity (Thomas and Velthouse 1990; Zhang and Bhartol 2010). Indeed, research in leadership suggests that transformational leaders more

effectively connect followers' humdrum work roles with collective goals and thus give rise to followers' perceived meaningfulness (Frieder, Wang and Oh 2018). By serving as role models, stimulating their followers mentally, and attending to each follower's unique career development needs, transformational sales leaders have been found to develop high quality relationships with salespeople in the sense of leader–member exchange (Alavi et al. 2018; Frieder, Wang and Oh 2018). Since transformational leadership has been associated with the internal needs of salespeople, we predict that transformational leadership positively moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and salesperson subsequent behaviors. By definition, motivation leads to behavior – that relationship continues – however, transformational leadership can strengthen this relationship by increasing the salesperson's awareness and consideration of their internal sources of motivation.

H7: Transformational leadership moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and working hard (7a) and working smart (7b) such that the relationships are stronger.

Just because transformational leadership has received extensive attention in scholarship does not mean that transactional leadership is not important. In fact, a meta-analysis by Judge and Piccolo (2004) indicates transformational leadership is not a substitute for transactional leadership but rather the former builds upon the foundation the latter provides. In transactional leadership, the key to influencing salesperson behavior is the manager providing positive and negative feedback (recognition or reprimand) to salespeople *contingent* on their performance – thus it has been called a leadership of compliance rather than internalization (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Rich 2001). Transactional leadership implies that followers meet expectations and then get rewarded accordingly (Judge and Piccolo 2004). Because transactional leaders are task and performance oriented, we predict that this type of leadership can be useful when a salesperson is extrinsically motivated. Specifically, by consistently giving feedback based on

performance and emphasizing rewards, transactional leadership should increase the salesperson's interest in performing tasks for subsequent payoffs and thus positively moderate the relationship between extrinsic motivation and subsequent behaviors. Hence, we formally hypothesize,

H8: Transactional leadership moderates the relationships between extrinsic motivation and working hard (8a) and working smart (8b) such that the relationships are stronger.

METHOD

Sample

A U.S. based sales firm in the financial services industry provided us with the contact information for 522 salespeople within its main office. The company also provided objective longitudinal effort and performance data for each salesperson in the sample both prior to and after the survey (four time points). Before the voluntary surveys were sent to the sales force, a company Vice President's secretary communicated with all employees via email, encouraging each salesperson to take the anonymous survey.

A total of 196 salespeople responded (a 37.55% response rate). Due to being incomplete on key variables or failing incorporated quality checks, 62 surveys were deemed unusable. Additional investigation following an outlier analysis revealed that another 20 responders served the company in other capacities than strictly a salesperson during at least one month of the investigation period, such as being promoted to leadership or participating in an initial onboarding time rather than the typical selling role. Thus, our final sample size was 114 salespeople (n=114). On average, respondents were 29 years old, worked at the company 2.5 years and had an average work experience in sales of six years. Approximately 78% of the sample was male. T-tests on mean scores on these demographic variables for early and late responders were not significantly different, indicating that nonresponse bias was not a problem.

Measures

Appendix D contains all scales used in this study. An extensive literature search provided published scales in reputable scholarly journals for all constructs of interest except for *sense of purpose*. Thus, we developed a scale according to standard procedures (Raykov and Marcoulides 2011; Churchill 1979; Hinkin 1995). After drafting items related to the definition of “*the belief that one is making a contribution to a cause greater and more enduring than oneself*” and eliciting feedback from subject matter experts, we tested the scale on a separate sample of 199 salespeople (over half of which work in a B2B environment with the rest focusing on consumer sales) via an online survey. In this first data set, composite reliability for the sense of purpose measure was estimated at .929, with a standard error of .008. The 95%-confidence interval for this reliability coefficient is (.914, .944). Next, we ran a split sample EFA then CFA in MPLUS (principal component analysis, oblique rotation), which showed only one eigenvalue greater than one. Likewise, the fit statistics for this unidimensional model show a reasonable fit to the data ($\chi^2=187.461$, 6 d.f.; CFI 1.00; RMSEA 0.000; SRMR .009). In addition, the loadings for each factor are significant and above the suggested .70 cutoff. Thus, these items created for sense of purpose can be concluded as congeneric (Raykov and Marcoulides 2011). The entire scale development study can be found in Appendix A. The composite reliability for this measure in the current (firm-provided) data set is .922.

Autonomy was measured using a three-item scale from Zhang and Bartol (2010) including items such as “I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.” The composite reliability for this measure is .944.

Call Duration is a measure provided by the company for its salespeople. This measure captures the average length of outbound phone calls made to customers in minutes. While this item was not formally predicted in our hypotheses, it was used in post-hoc analyses.

Competence, which is synonymous for self-efficacy, was measured with a seven-item scale from Sujon, Weitz and Kumar (1994) with items such as “I am good at selling” and “I am good at finding out what customers want.” The composite reliability for this measure is .935.

Connection was measured with the eight-item scale for sense of belonging created by Deci et al. (2001), including items such as “I get along with people at work” and “I really like the people I work with.” Reverse-scored items loaded on a separate negative factor, and thus were dropped from the measurement. The composite reliability for this measure is .905.

Extrinsic Motivation was measured with a three-item scale from Oliver and Anderson (1994) including items such as “If it were not for the money, I would not be in a selling job.” The composite reliability for this scale is .898.

Intrinsic Motivation was measured using a five-item scale from Oliver and Anderson (1994) including items such as “When I perform well, I know it’s because my own desire to achieve” and “Becoming successful in sales is something that I want to do for me.” The composite reliability for this measure is .868.

Salesperson Performance is an objective measure obtained from company archival data as “percentage of goal.” Using percentage of goal or quota, or total sales divided by expected sales target, has been deemed a “strong indicator of salesperson performance” and is common practice in sales research because it controls for potential contaminating factors such as territory size (Ahearne, Mathieu and Rapp 2005; Ahearne et al. 2013b).

Transactional Leadership was measured using a 7-item scale from MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Rich (2001) including items such as “my manager would indicate his or her disapproval if I performed at a low level” and “my manager commends me when I exceed my productivity goals.” The composite reliability for this scale is .911.

Transformational Leadership was measured using a 13-item scale from MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Rich (2001) including items such as “my manager articulates a vision” and “my manager challenges me to think about old problems in new ways.” The composite reliability for this scale is .937.

Working Smart was measured with a seven-item scale for selling adaptivity from Spiro and Weitz (1990) including items such as “I try to understand how one customer differs from another” and “Each customer requires a unique approach.” The composite reliability for this measure is .922.

Working Hard, or effort, is an objective measure provided by the company from archival data on the exact number of calls per month made by the salesperson.

Analysis

Since the company provided multiple months of data for each salesperson on effort, quality and performance ($n > 1$, $t \geq 3$), we employed a dynamic modeling approach – specifically, time varying covariate analysis – to account for the non-independence of observations over time within salespeople. To infer meaning from this type of data requires assessing how constructs such as effort and performance move through time as functions of themselves and each other, noting how the past constrains the future.

While a recent trend has been to model longitudinal data with linear growth curve models, this type of approach would not be appropriate given this data and our research questions (Xu, Dishop and DeShon, in press). When researchers estimate a growth curve and argue for a positive linear trend, they are mathematically implying that the trajectory increases forever, even if this is not their intended argument. On the other hand, in dynamic systems with reciprocal influence and constraints, there are boundaries on where processes can go. Salesperson performance may fluctuate month to month, and it may even increase steadily when

an individual first starts working in a sales role or for a new company, but it is unlikely that it will continue to increase or decrease without bound forever after the person has gained experience in the role. Instead of a growth curve model, the time varying covariate analysis allows us to answer if a salesperson's motivation is associated with his or her effort over time and if changes in effort relate to changes in the salesperson's subsequent performance.

To empirically confirm that the time varying covariate analysis is the appropriate modeling technique versus HLM or growth curve modeling, we first assessed stationarity with a Dickey-Fuller test, in which the null hypothesis is that the time series contains a time-dependent error term. If the series is non-stationary, it will contain a time-invariant error term and thus the ADF significance test will be rejected (Dickey and Fuller 1979). To explain stationarity, time-series data have a trajectory of performance, for example, for individual people over time. These individual trajectories have properties, i.e. a mean and a variance. If the mean is unstable then performance either grows or decreases unconditionally over time. If instead the mean is stable, then performance across time fluctuates but within the constraints of its memory and bounds on the system (Xu, Dishop and DeShon, in press). Growth models assume no stationarity in the data they model, whereas dynamic models assume that the data are realizations of a stationary process, i.e. constructs in the model have properties at time t that are the same as the properties at time $t + 1$. In simple terms, a stationary process has stable properties across time – data that demonstrate trend, growth, or random walk behavior are almost certainly non-stationary (Xu, Dishop and DeShon, in press). Previous research demonstrates that researchers are at risk of making spurious inferences when they use regression-based models with data that contain trends, random walks, or non-stationary variance across time – even if the series are independent/non-causal (Granger and Newbold 1974). If the data were non-stationary, a linear growth curve model would be more appropriate. However, for this data, the statistical results for the Dickey-

Fuller test were significant for the salesperson performance DV, as well as for the effort (number of calls) and call duration, meaning that the data are not consistent with a random walk and do not show evidence of trends or non-constant variance. Thus, the dynamic modeling approach chosen can be considered appropriate.

Dynamic modeling offers a more accurate inference than other approaches on whether a construct like individual effort displays a similar pattern with an individual's performance over time – i.e. they ‘dance’ together – if effort goes down, subsequent performance goes down; if effort rises in the next month, performance will subsequently rise, and so on. Figure 3 visually depicts this type of relationship.

[Insert Figure 3 about here.]

Within dynamic modeling, unobserved heterogeneity represents unmeasured variables in aggregate that are stable over time within units (i.e., time-invariant for each unit) but vary across units (Xu, Dishop and DeShon, in press). If unobserved heterogeneity is ignored, then serial correlation will be introduced into the errors. We controlled for unobserved heterogeneity because if it is modeled as independent but in fact correlates with other predictors in the model, then omitted variables bias is introduced into the parameter estimates (Wooldridge 2010). The modeling technique we chose a) conditions on the first observation of the outcome variable(s) to mitigate the initial condition problem, b) explicitly incorporates unobserved heterogeneity and contains the freedom to model it in a fixed or random effects approach, and c) is amenable to a variety of lag structures (Bollen and Brand 2010). Prior research shows this model results in less bias than the typical HLM application (Xu, Dishop and DeShon, in press).

RESULTS

Correlations are shown in Table 5, and results are listed in Table 6. In the first set of hypotheses, we predicted that autonomy (1a), self-efficacy (1b) and connection (1c) are

positively associated with intrinsic motivation. These hypotheses were supported; both autonomy ($b=.23, p<.05$) and self-efficacy ($b=.30, p<.05$) were significant, while connection was approaching statistical significance ($b=.19, p<.10$). In the second hypothesis, we predicted that sense of purpose is associated with intrinsic motivation, beyond these three antecedents from Self-Determination Theory. This hypothesis was supported; sense of purpose was significantly and positively associated with intrinsic motivation ($b=.17, p<.05$), net the effect of the other antecedents. In the third set of hypotheses, we predicted that intrinsic motivation is not only positively associated with working hard but also more positively associated with working hard than extrinsic motivation. These hypotheses were confirmed. The relationship between intrinsic motivation and number of calls made was significantly positive ($b=25.70, p<.05$) while the relationship between extrinsic motivation and number of calls made was significantly negative ($b=-24.23, p<.01$). We discuss this finding more below.

In the fourth set of hypotheses, we predicted that intrinsic motivation is positively associated with working smart (4a) and more positively associated with working smart than extrinsic motivation (4b). These hypotheses were supported. The relationship between intrinsic motivation and adaptive selling was significantly positive ($b=.47, p<.05$) while the relationship between extrinsic motivation and adaptive selling was not significant ($b=.07, n.s.$).

In the fifth hypothesis, we predicted that working hard is positively associated with salesperson performance. This hypothesis was confirmed. By modeling the relationship dynamically over time, our analysis shows that effort and subsequent performance follow the same pattern over time ($b=.05, p<.05$). In the sixth hypothesis, we predicted that working smart is positively associated with salesperson performance. While the adaptive selling measure was not significantly associated with salesperson performance ($b=1.35, n.s.$), post-hoc analyses reflect that call duration is statistically significantly related to salesperson performance above

and beyond the number of calls a salesperson makes ($b=.09, p<.05$). While the firm considers call duration another measure of effort, this measure could potentially likewise convey a form of working smart in spending more time with each customer. In fact, working smart was significantly related to call duration ($b=4.38, p<.05$) in post-hoc analyses.

In the seventh set of hypotheses, we predicted that transformational leadership moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and working hard (7a) and working smart (7b) such that the relationships are stronger. Results show that rather than a positive interaction, transformational leadership moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and working hard (number of calls) such that the relationship is weaker ($b=-5.28, p<.05$). We discuss possible reasons for this interesting finding below. That said, H7b was confirmed; transformational leadership positively moderated the relationship between intrinsic motivation and adaptive selling ($b=.07, p<.05$).

In the eighth set of hypotheses, we predicted that transactional leadership moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and working hard (8a) and working smart (8b) such that the relationships are stronger. While the effect on adaptive selling was not significant ($b=-0.08, n.s.$), H8a was confirmed; transactional leadership positively moderated the relationship between extrinsic motivation and effort ($b=3.04, p<.05$).

[Insert Table 5 and 6 about here.]

DISCUSSION

Khusainova et al. (2018) lamented that little consensus exists for how to best motivate salespeople, with a continued challenge remaining regarding whether it is best to use financial incentives, nonfinancial rewards, or rely on job design factors to generate intrinsic motivation. In addition, the need for better understanding of sales force motivation has been amplified by a variety of well-documented recent changes in the sales domain, including an increasingly

younger population of sales people as older generations retire (Khusainova et al. 2018; Zoltners et al. 2013). As salespeople span the boundary between customers and the firm, a dramatic shift has happened in recent years as salespeople have assumed multiple roles such as knowledge broker (Verbeke, Dietz and Verwaal 2018) and customer-consultant as a value co-creator in a service-dominant ecosystem (Hartmann, Wieland and Vargo 2018). The evolving nature of the sales role and increased complexities therein demands a fresh and more nuanced look at motivation. As such, a better understanding of motivation – including its antecedents and outcomes – in this dynamic environment of personal selling and sales management remains critical.

Thus, this study contributes to the sales literature in four main ways. First, we provide empirical evidence that intrinsic motivation is more positively associated with critical salesperson behaviors that ultimately lead to salesperson performance over time. While research on extrinsic motivation – including incentives, compensation, and contests – has dominated the literature in recent years, we show that intrinsic motivation is worthy of further consideration and research, even in this modern era. This study provides some empirical evidence that intrinsic motivation is more positively associated with actual objective effort over time, as well as salesperson adaptivity. While extrinsically motivating salespeople is costly to companies, stimulating intrinsic motivation is not only less expensive but also more effective. Importantly, these findings do not negate the fact that compensation and financial incentives are necessary within the context of sales, rather a key takeaway may be that financial compensation is an expectation of salespeople – a hygiene factor. A desire for money likely drives the decision to accept a position within a company, but it is not what explains variance in critical salesperson behaviors, at least over time. Instead, intrinsic motivation was positively associated with effort, adaptivity and performance.

Since our findings demonstrate that intrinsic motivation remains important within the context of personal selling, understanding what leads to it becomes essential, which is our second contribution. While several studies and theories exist on salesperson motivation, we chose to focus on Self-Determination Theory because it specifies antecedents to intrinsic motivation and has been widely used in sales literature (e.g., Hohenberg and Homburg 2016; Cadwallader et al. 2010; Brown and Peterson 1994). In fact, in a recent review of motivation in the sales domain, Self-Determination Theory was one of the most predominantly used in sales research over the past few decades (Khusainova et al. 2018). The findings of our study confirm the importance – in a modern sales setting – of the three previously proposed drivers of intrinsic motivation, i.e. the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. We also demonstrate a fourth antecedent *sense of purpose* is positively related to intrinsic motivation. Thus, developing the belief that the salesperson is making a contribution to a cause greater and more enduring than him/herself will help the salesperson sense the importance of the activities needed to sell and internalize them. Since sense of purpose had not been previously published in the scientific literature, we developed a reliable and valid scale for sense of purpose, which is our third contribution.

Our fourth contribution is demonstrating that managers can and do influence the relationships between motivation and subsequent behavior, both positively and negatively. Understanding the individual salesperson and what motivates him or her will help the manager in deciding how to best interact with and encourage the salesperson and his or her effort and subsequent performance. Interestingly, while transformational leadership has been praised in the literature, the effect of this leadership style on the relationship between intrinsic motivation and effort was significantly negative. One explanation for this result may be found in past literature, where Kerr and Jermier (1978) suggested that an intrinsically satisfying task can be a “substitute for leadership.” If a salesperson feels competent to perform the task, identifies with peers, and

has a sense of purpose in selling, additional leadership involvement may hinder the feeling of autonomy and be counterproductive. When leaders get involved – even with good intentions and great approaches – the very time that they take to interact with the salesperson could be limiting the time that salespeople could be spending to make more calls or sell. Some previous literature also suggests that imposing an external focus on tasks and performance outcomes may hinder intrinsic motivation and the autonomy that salespeople feel (Deci 1972; Amabile 1993). Specifically, interest and satisfaction in doing a task may be undermined by the imposition of salient external influences because the focus shifts from enjoying the activity for its own right to performing for an external reason, even if that reason is leader-member exchange. Thus, managers may be able to save time (and thus money) when the salesperson is intrinsically motivated.

On the other hand, transformational leadership positively moderated the relationship between intrinsic motivation and working smart. While the leadership-salesperson exchanges may have taken time away from making additional calls (i.e. effort), leaders did positively impact the adaptive selling intentions of their subordinates. Likely, by communicating a compelling vision for the organization, leaders were able to demonstrate the importance to salespeople of changing their approach if customers were resistant. Thus, managers practicing transformational leadership may want to have less frequent, but more focused time with their intrinsically motivated salespeople, emphasizing vision and purpose and leaving room for the salesperson to have a sense of autonomy and self-efficacy.

Managerial Implications

While intrinsic motivation has been likened to the ‘heart and brains’ of a person, management can leverage its relationship with subsequent salesperson behaviors. Firms do not have to continually look at incentives, contests and compensation to motivate, thinking they

cannot impact the internal workings of their subordinates. Rather, even though the manager is outside the inner workings of the salesperson, his or her management style and behaviors can strengthen the relationship between motivation and action. Transformational leadership significantly increased the positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and adaptive selling behavior. On the other hand, transformational leadership significantly weakened the relationship between intrinsic motivation and subsequent salesperson effort. Thus, when salespeople are intrinsically motivated, the “less is more” mantra may be best. Fewer interactions should not only draw awareness to the salesperson’s sense of autonomy and self-efficacy to perform tasks but also keep the salesperson focused on the interesting aspects of the job rather than the leader-member exchange. Moreover, fewer interactions will also save the manager time and increase the company’s bottom line when salespeople are intrinsically motivated.

If salespeople are extrinsically motivated, however, transactional leader behaviors were shown to positively impact the relationship between extrinsic motivation and the number of calls the salesperson made. By offering behavior-contingent feedback, transactional leadership influenced the salesperson’s attention to how their increased effort would lead to an increased pay day. However, while working hard increased, working smart did not. Thus, a key takeaway from this study for managers is to match the leadership style to the salesperson and desired outcome.

Our study also shows that sales managers should think about internal conversations with salespeople. Often company meetings with salespeople focus on quotas, quarterly numbers and projected forecasts. As McLeod (2012) asserts, “selling is not about numbers but about people – customers and salespeople working together to solve problems.” Based on the results of this study, managers should focus internal conversations with salespeople on sense of purpose and how company products and services benefit customers and society. Likewise, sales managers can

also examine their own sense of purpose in working for the company and delegating to sales associates. Leading by example in showing employees how their work leaves a greater impact on society will help not only the salesforce but also the company's bottom line.

In addition, managers can increase the attention salespeople give to their intrinsic motivation to perform in their role through certain actions. For example, by highlighting particular aspects of the job like the freedom to make important decisions, managers can increase the attention salespeople pay to the autonomy they feel at work. Providing positive feedback for a job well done is another way to help salespeople connect feelings of self-efficacy to increase their subsequent effort and performance. Finally, managers can work on building a culture conducive to salespeople connecting with co-workers. Although only marginally significant in this particular data set, having a sense of belonging can increase the salesperson's motivation to work harder and meet deep internal needs to connect with other people.

Limitations and Future Research

As with any study, there are some limitations that provide fruitful avenues for future research. First, we used a measure for extrinsic motivation that has been widely used in previous studies (e.g., Oliver and Anderson 1994; Noble 2008). However, we did not examine actual increased financial incentives but simply controlled for compensation by surveying salespeople from the same company within the same role over the same period of time. A future study may wish to conduct a field experiment in which intrinsic motivation is measured in addition to financial offerings to see which has a greater effect or how the two combine and interact. Furthermore, we captured motivation as a trait via a one-time survey. Future research may wish to employ an experience sampling methodology to see if motivation remains constant within salespeople or if it fluctuates over time.

Next, we intentionally sampled salespeople from one company in one industry (which helped us control for compensation effects). However, future research may wish to examine other industries, or other countries, to determine if boundary conditions may exist. As the selling landscape continues to evolve and become more automated, how will motivation and subsequent effort and performance be affected? This question would also serve as an interesting avenue for future research.

In addition, our study only examined transactional and transformational leadership behaviors; however, several additional theories and types of leadership exist within the literature. For survey length, we were only able to include these two. However, future research may want to examine empowering leadership (building on the work of Zhang and Bartol 2010) or supportive leadership (building on the work of Wendt, Euwema and van Emmerik 2009) behaviors and how they interact with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for subsequent salesperson effort, adaptivity and performance.

Finally, we found that working smart (as measured by adaptive selling) was not statistically significantly related to salesperson performance. Subsequent analyses showed that adaptive selling was related to call duration with customers (a measure provided from company records), which suggests that by itself working smart is not related to performance but when combined with effort (i.e., the strategic direction of effort), it is significantly related to subsequent performance. This is an interesting finding from post-hoc analyses that would be worth further exploration in future studies.

ESSAY 3

Resilience: A Key Link Between Motivation and Salesperson Performance

As the nature of the salesperson role is evolving, sales positions continue to be typified by high levels of role stress, consistent customer rejection, burnout and turnover. Moreover, half of salespeople fail to achieve their targets each year, demonstrating the difficulty that is inherent in this type of position. Thus, motivating salespeople to be more resilient remains critical for managers. Prior research defines resilience as the capacity to overcome or bounce back from adversity, conflict, failure, or other events that induce high levels of stress or pressure. However, salesperson resilience is understudied and not well understood. Indeed, a gap remains in our understanding of the construct resilience – how is it distinct from related constructs like persistence, perseverance, and grit? How does it manifest? When is it important? And how can managers influence it? Our analyses reveal that intrinsically motivated salespeople are more resilient than extrinsically motivated salespeople. In addition, resilience leads to sales performance through working both harder and smarter. However, our findings also show that certain managerial interventions are needed to activate resilience in a manner that increases salesperson effort.

KEYWORDS: *Resilience, Perseverance, Intrinsic Motivation, Personal Selling, Sales Management*

The importance of the sales force within firms is indubitable. Even in this modern era of increased automation, salespeople continue to assume multiple roles for firms such as the human face of the company to customers, trusted consultant, knowledge broker and value co-creator in a service-dominant ecosystem (Hartmann, Wieland and Vargo 2018; Verbeke, Dietz and Verwaal 2011). As the nature of the role is evolving and becoming increasingly complex, sales positions continue to be typified by high levels of role stress in comparison to other organizational functions (Friend et al. 2016).

In fact, personal selling has been called “ego-bruising, frightening and lonely” (Futrell et al. 2012) as many salespeople work with limited supervision and represent their companies to current and potential customers on a daily basis. To facilitate a continuous supply of customers, salespeople try to influence prospects from an “often cold, indifferent, or sometimes even hostile frame of mind” to a stimulated anticipation of the salesperson’s products or services (Futrell et al. 2012). Moreover, unexpected, negative outcomes such as customer refusal are “part of the job” when working in sales (Dixon, Spiro and Jamil 2001). The profession is marked by consistent rejection, stress and turnover. Work stress also has been shown to lead to emotional exhaustion, feelings of fatigue and a depletion of resources in customer-facing roles (Chen and Wan 2012). Failure, stress and emotional exhaustion also lead to turnover intentions (e.g., Sunder et al. 2017; Cho et al. 2017).

For firms, turnover and subsequent salesperson replacement costs are extremely expensive (e.g., Hale Jr., Ployhart and Shepherd 2016; Darmon 2008). Recent research conveys that frontline managers hesitate to fire underperformers because finding replacements can be difficult, training new hires can be time-intensive and territories remain vacant in the interim (e.g., Boichuck et al. 2019). Also, when a sales representative exits the firm, a crucial link with customers becomes severed (Sri et al. 2017). So rather than forcing (or allowing) salespeople to

leave, studying predictors of effort and performance after the salesperson has experienced difficulty remains extremely important for both scholarship and practice.

Just how prevalent is this issue? Recent research indicates that although companies invest hundreds of billions of dollars annually in the U.S. alone on sales force compensation, incentives and training, approximately *half* of salespeople still do not achieve their annual sales targets (Ahearne et al. 2013a; Lussier and Hartmann 2017). Thus, an important question remains – how can firms motivate their sales force to work harder and smarter and not give up?

Hence, the primary focus of this study is salesperson resilience. In their conceptual paper on psychological capital Friend et al. (2006) emphasized, “Resilience makes the difference between those who recover from adversity and those devastated by adversity.” Recent calls for future research confirm that studying “the ability of salespeople to recover from setbacks is critical due to the high rates of adversity and failure in personal selling positions as well as the dynamic job profile of salespeople and challenges posed by the sales role” (Krush et al. 2013; Friend et al. 2016). Empirical studies in the marketing literature have demonstrated that resilience has a negative relationship with both salesperson propensity to leave (Bande et al. 2015) and anxiety while displaying a positive relationship with selling adaptivity (Krush et al. 2013). However, salesperson resilience is understudied and not well understood. Indeed, a gap remains in our understanding of the construct resilience – how is it distinct from related constructs like persistence, perseverance, and grit? How does it manifest? When is it important? And how can managers influence it?

To address this gap, we partnered with a nationally recognized sales firm based in the Midwest. We gathered survey data on both salesperson motivation and resilience. Afterward, the company provided us with objective effort (calls initiated) and call duration information for the month following the survey and subsequent performance-to-goal measures (lagged by one

month), as well as company tenure. As a rule of thumb, the organization sends ‘warning letters’ to all salespeople who fail to reach 70% of their goal for the month, threatening repercussions.

Findings reveal that intrinsically motivated salespeople are more resilient than extrinsically motivated salespeople. In addition, resilience leads to sales performance through working both harder and smarter. However, certain managerial interventions are needed to activate resilience in a manner that increases salesperson effort. Whereas previous research suggests that the threat of punishment can have an immediate and sustained impact on the performance of laggards (Steenburgh and Ahearne 2011; Boichuk et al. 2019), the findings of our study reveal that threats alone were not enough. Rather, the firm threat when combined with salesperson resilience had a significant impact on subsequent effort and performance.

This study makes the following contributions to the sales and marketing literature. First, we extend our understanding of resilience as a construct. Resilience extends beyond just persistence or persevering but is related to evolving and becoming better in the process. We also empirically demonstrate how to motivate salesperson resilience. While financial compensation has historically been thought of as extremely important for motivating salespeople, our findings demonstrate that in contexts where salespeople are experiencing failure, intrinsic motivation is more associated with greater resilience, effort and performance. Thus, in this context, sales managers may want to focus on meeting the needs of building a sense of competence, relatedness, autonomy and purpose in their employees.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. First, we define resilience and distinguish it from related constructs found in the literature. Thereafter, we introduce our conceptual model that demonstrates the importance and outcomes of salesperson resilience and its antecedents, along with some boundary conditions. After formalizing our hypotheses, we present our research

methodology, empirical results and discussion of findings. Finally, we offer study limitations and future research directions.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Defining Resilience and Its Impact on Performance Through Working Hard and Working Smart

Webster's Dictionary offers the following definitions for *resilience*: 1) an ability to recover from or adjust easily to misfortune or change, and 2) the ability to become strong or successful again after something bad happens. Research on resilience within the context of personal selling has been somewhat limited, though interest in the construct is rising. Notable exceptions include Lussier and Hartmann (2017) who describe resilience as a psychological capacity "to overcome or bounce back from adversity, conflict, failure, or other events that induce high levels of stress or pressure" (p. 161), while Bande et al. (2015) define resilience as the "ability to bounce back from hardship, recover, emerge stronger than before, and develop social, academic, and vocational skills despite having been subjected to severe physiological stress" (p. 142).

Importantly, in each of these definitions, resilience requires a negative event – "misfortune," "change," "something bad happens," "adversity," "conflict," "hardship," and "physiological stress." Friend et al. (2016) confirm that resilience enables individuals to bounce back quickly and effectively *from adverse events*, emphasis added. In a workplace setting, resilience has been called a reactive resource and capability to rebound and 'bounce back' from adversity, uncertainty, conflict, failure, or changes like increased responsibility (Luthans 2002).

Likewise, by definition, resilience is becoming successful again, bouncing back, and emerging stronger than before. According to Richardson (2002), those higher in resilience recover to become equal to or better than what they were before the adverse event. In fact, previous research highlights that individuals become more resilient to an adverse situation each

time they effectively recuperate from a previous setback, initiating an upward spiraling effect (Friend et al. 2016).

Prior research within the sales context has examined related constructs like perseverance, persistence and grit, but as we will show, these fail to capture the full meaning of resilience. Perseverance is described as steadfastness and continued effort despite difficulties. Belschak, Verbeke and Bagozzi (2006) demonstrated that within the context of sales call anxiety, employing cognitive versus physiological coping strategies increased perseverance. Their questionnaire for measuring perseverance included, “In sales conversations, you might experience a certain amount of tension and uneasy feelings. The following questions refer to ways you might cope with and overcome those feelings,” with items such as “If customers use negative language or speak up against me, I am not afraid of asking them for their reasons” (Belschak, Verbeke and Bagozzi 2006, p. 416). Likewise, research has investigated perseverance as persistence, revealed as a combination of salesperson influence tactics (both nurture- and closure-related) to shape customer responses (Chaker, Zablah and Noble 2018).

While perseverance and persistence are undoubtedly important, they fail to capture the full essence of resilience because they miss the notion of rebounding, bouncing back or emerging stronger than before, which is inherent in its definition. According to Hills (2016), “Perseverance can be an important part of being resilient but a person with good resilience knows when to try something different.” Perseverance is steadfastness or trying and trying again. Resilience is more strategic in not only trying again but doing so in a way that is more likely to be successful or learning from past mistakes. Accordingly, Krush et al. (2013) demonstrated a significantly positive relationship between resilience and selling adaptivity. In addition, Agnihotri et al. (2014) note, “resilient employees are likely to develop *new ways* of doing things when facing difficulties, failures, and opportunities” (p. 58, emphasis ours). Finally, Bande et al. (2015)

describe resilience as the ability to bounce back, emerge stronger than before, and develop skills despite stress. Thus, resilience goes beyond simple perseverance.

Next, the concept of grit has been gaining popularity in popular press and scholarly journals (Duckworth et al. 2007; Eskreis-Winkler et al. 2014; Credé, Tynan and Harms 2017). In their seminal work on grit, Duckworth et al. (2007) defined grit as perseverance and passion for long-term goals, and they developed a scale for the construct based on two factors: consistency of interests and perseverance of effort. According to these authors, “a gritty individual approaches achievement as a marathon,” with the advantage being stamina and maintaining interest over time (Duckworth et al. 2007). Whereas disappointment or boredom may cause many to change trajectories, individuals that possess grit continue on the exact same path (Duckworth et al. 2007). Thus, in addition to perseverance, items in the scale for grit include “my interests change from year to year” and “I have difficulty maintaining my focus on projects that take more than a month to complete” (both reverse-coded) (Duckworth et al. 2007, p. 1090). Consequently, grit and resilience remain different constructs. Grit is described as maintaining the same trajectory whereas resilience may require altering plans to achieve desired results. For example, a salesperson with grit may keep knocking on the same doors day after day to achieve sales, even after they have experienced rejection. While resilient salespeople will likewise keep trying, they are more likely to learn from their mistakes and alter their strategy for success – perhaps trying a new neighborhood or varying their opening when initially meeting customers. Grit focuses on consistency of the same actions rather than trying again but perhaps with a new strategic focus.

Second, while grit also includes perseverance like resilience, grit relates to long-term goals – ones mentioned in the literature include education, military training and even marriage (Eskreis-Winkler et al. 2014). Resilience, on the other hand, need not relate to a specific, long-

term goal but could be related to a short-term (weekly or even daily) quota or even no specific goal at all. Accordingly, Dugan et al. (2018) both empirically and verbally showed the difference between grit and resilience, emphasizing, “While resilience emphasizes overcoming challenges and obstacles, it does not have the same goal focus as grit.”

Finally, resilience requires a negative event whereas grit is said to be a trait of passion and persistence toward long-term goals. In fact, a meta-analysis on grit notes that it is “...*not just resilience in the face of failure*, but having deep commitments that you remain loyal to over many years” (Duckworth as quoted in Credé, Tynan and Harms 2017, emphasis added). By definition, resilience requires a negative event, failure or obstacles.

Based on the definition of resilience, we introduce the following conceptual model that demonstrates the importance/outcomes of salesperson resilience and its antecedents along with some boundary conditions. First, resilience leads to salesperson performance through working hard and working smart.

(Insert Figure 4 about here.)

A plethora of studies have examined the importance of working hard and working smart to predict salesperson performance (e.g., Sujana 1986; Sujana, Weitz and Kumar 1994; Fang, Palmatier and Evans 2004; Rapp et al. 2006; Jaramillo and Mulki 2008; Ogilvie et al. 2017). Obviously, what companies are most concerned with when it comes to their sales force is revenue generation. Thus, our dependent variable is salesperson performance; and since so many studies have demonstrated that working harder and working smarter lead to greater performance, we do not formally hypothesize for these relationships but simply include them in our model and report the statistics. What remains understudied is the role of resilience or ‘bouncing back’ in the face of failure or adversity to work harder and smarter.

Based on the above discussion on the definition of resilience, which includes perseverance and trying again and again to become successful after something bad happens, we predict that resilience is positively associated with working hard (or a salesperson's subsequent effort).

H1: Resilience is positively associated with working hard.

Importantly, resilience is not simply synonymous with effort, in just knocking on more doors; stars and core performers can likewise work hard. Rather, resilience entails trying again and exerting effort – but perhaps using better methods and learning from past mistakes – even after experiencing failure within the selling process. Moreover, as the previous discussion highlighted, “resilient employees are likely to develop *new ways* of doing things when facing difficulties, failures, and opportunities” (Agnihotri et al. 2014, p. 58). Resilience includes learning and evolving in the process and bouncing back stronger than before by definition (Friend et al. 2016). Indeed, Krush et al. (2013) demonstrated that resilience is positively associated with adaptive selling.

While working hard is often discussed as effort intensity, working smart most often signifies effort direction. Ogilvie et al. (2017) describes working smart as “the use of knowledge to direct effort” and “optimizing effort allocation” (p. 101). Importantly, strategy on its own is not ‘working smart’ – that would be just ‘smart’ by itself; in other words, the actual working or effort is a key part of the construct. Thus, whereas we use the number of calls that the salesperson initiates as our measure of effort (trying and trying again), we use average call duration with customers as our measure of working smart. To keep the customer engaged on the phone, the salesperson will need to strategically uncover needs and match the product solutions to those needs to gain commitment. If the customer objects, the salesperson will need to spend time overcoming those objections and closing the deal. The longer the salesperson engages with

the customer, the more strategy the salesperson will need and the more likely the buyer is to actually buy. Thus, average call duration becomes a way to gauge the salesperson's working smart. We predict that the more resilient the salesperson is, the more he will be able to adapt his presentation to the buyer, learn from past mistakes, try again to engage customers in new ways, and become more successful in the process. Hence, we also predict that resilience is positively associated with working smart.

H2: Resilience is positively associated with working smart.

Motivating Resilience

What causes someone to choose resilience when faced with difficulty? While much research has been devoted to studying extrinsic sources of motivation – or behaving for a separable outcome from the task itself – like compensation (Steenburgh and Ahearne 2011; Rubel and Prasad 2015), sales contests (Lim, Ahearne and Ham 2009), and incentives (Chung and Narayandas 2017; Bommaraju and Hohenberg 2018; Patil and Syam 2018) to drive salesperson performance, these studies have not specifically examined salespeople who have experienced adversity in the selling process. In fact, Boichuk et al. (2019) highlights that motivating 'laggards' with sales contests and quota-bonus plans can be difficult. When salespeople have been experiencing failure, they may assume that all contest prizes will go to the 'rainmakers' in the company, and thus the very programs designed to entice salespeople to make more sales can actually be demotivating. Nonetheless, past research suggests that 'laggards' need quarterly rather than yearly bonuses to stay on track (Steenburgh and Ahearne 2011). While extrinsic compensation may drive performance as a whole, is it associated with resilience in overcoming obstacles? Reasonably, salespeople work to earn a paycheck, and the need to pay bills may influence them to persevere despite facing a hardship.

Even so, we predict that intrinsically motivated salespeople are more resilient than extrinsically motivated salespeople. Intrinsic motivation is defined as acting because the task itself is interesting or inherently satisfying. According to Self-Determination Theory (SDT), intrinsic motivation results when people feel that they have control over the activities they perform (*autonomy*), feel competent performing them (*self-efficacy*), and feel a sense of belonging as they perform them (*connection*) (Ryan and Deci 1985). In an extensive literature on resilience, Connor and Davidson (2003) listed characteristics associated with resilient people that were discovered in various studies. Among others, these characteristics included a realistic sense of control/having choices (e.g., autonomy), self-efficacy, a close secure attachment to others (e.g., connection), and personal or collective goals (Connor and Davidson 2003). Despite this literature base residing in the domain of psychology (and depression) rather than the personal selling context, these enumerated characteristics match the components of SDT; thus, some evidence exists that intrinsic motivation should matter more than extrinsic motivation for resilience.

Intuitively, having autonomy in how to make the call should increase the salesperson's ability to change or adapt and try again in a more strategic way. Since the salesperson has discretion in how to make the sales call and is not overly controlled by their managers, he or she has the room and flexibility to make adjustments in trying to overcome adversity in the selling process. Likewise, salespeople with greater autonomy should not pass the blame on the rigid structure or controlling behavior of others but rather understand that their current circumstances as well as those in the future are under their control. As such, those with greater autonomy should be more inclined to make necessary changes when trying again.

In addition, if a salesperson believes s/he is competent to make sales, experiencing setbacks should not discourage him or her as easily from trying again. The feeling of self-

efficacy – defined as salespeople's perceptions of their own ability to sell products or their beliefs that they possess the skills and resources necessary to succeed (Fu et al. 2010) – should help carry the salesperson through the tough times and adapt as necessary. Indeed, Brown, Jones and Leigh (2005) emphasize, "Individuals who have positive self-efficacy beliefs focus their attention and motivation on the tasks necessary for achieving targeted performance levels and persevere in the face of difficulties" (p. 974).

Likewise, those with a strong connection with others should sense a support system to help them when facing hardships. Having a connection to others can help ground the salesperson to not feel as isolated or lonely when dealing with rejection or adversity. This feeling of belonging or acceptance should help the salesperson not take the hardship being faced as personally. Likewise, past research has shown that highly stressed employees who also had high levels of social support and intrinsic motivation were able to handle customer complaints (i.e., perform) better (Chen and Wan 2012).

Finally, *sense of purpose* – the belief that one is making a contribution to a cause greater and more enduring than oneself – has been introduced as another antecedent to intrinsic motivation (Essay 2). When salespeople have a sense of purpose and believe what they do really matters, they should be able to better articulate how customers' lives or business will be improved by buying their products or services. This feeling of importance adds stamina in making the sale, as salespeople persist in trying to help the customer understand the positive effect of making the purchase, even after the customer has objected or the salesperson has experienced obstacles in the selling process. Trying to close a sale again after a refusal no longer feels selfish but rather altruistic in helping others (McLeod 2012). Taken together, we hypothesize:

H3a: Intrinsic motivation is positively associated with resilience.

H3b: Intrinsic motivation is a more positively associated with resilience than extrinsic motivation.

Managerial Intervention

In defining resilience above, the construct has embedded within it the prerequisite of a negative event. Resilience includes persevering and bouncing back from “misfortune,” “adversity, “hardship,” and so forth. Prior research confirms that resilience enables individuals to bounce back quickly and effectively *from adverse events*, (Friend et al. 2016, emphasis added). Thus, resilience may not be needed if a salesperson is doing well and everything is going according to plan. However, for many salespeople, not everything goes according to plan every month. Indeed, prior research shows that roughly 50% of salespeople are missing their yearly targets (Lussier and Hartmann 2017; Ahearne, Boichuck, Chapman and Steenburg 2012). Could missing monthly targets become so part of the norm for salespeople that they become impervious to just how poorly they are performing? Prior research shows that within the sales process, failure can lead to lower expectations of subsequent success – called ‘negative anticipatory emotions’ – which then affects a salesperson’s motivation and subsequent choices (Brown, Cron and Slocum 1997). Hence, a managerial intervention may be necessary to actually activate the salesperson’s resilience by opening the salesperson’s eyes to the magnitude of the problem.

Therefore, we predict that making salespeople aware of their poor performance and offering not only expectations but also repercussions will help activate the resilience of salespeople to work harder and smarter. In other words, the managerial intervention will strengthen the relationship between the salesperson’s resilience and the subsequent action she takes because she will pay more attention to the resilience within her to persevere, overcome, and bounce back better than before.

Prior research has demonstrated that the threat of punishment can have an immediate and sustained impact on the performance of underperformers (e.g., Steenburgh and Ahearne 2011; Boichuk et al. 2019). To motivate laggards, Boichuk et al. 2019 suggested telling the sales organization that trainees are being hired and will replace them at the end of the year if they fail to hit their quota or place last in their district. However, the mechanism (activating the resilience of the salesperson) was not investigated in these studies. Nonetheless, reasonably such threats can help salespeople sense the gravity of their situation and rouse their resilience to start working harder and smarter. Thus, we hypothesize,

H4: A manager warning moderates the relationship between the salesperson's resilience and working harder such that the relationship is stronger.

H5: A manager warning moderates the relationship between the salesperson's resilience and working smarter such that the relationship is stronger.

METHOD

Sample

A nationally recognized sales firm based in the Midwest provided us with the contact information for a division of salespeople and agreed to provide objective effort and performance measures for each salesperson one month after the survey was taken. A total of 120 salespeople responded to the survey (a 23% response rate). The mean tenure with the company was just shy of three years, and just over three quarters of the sample was male.

At this firm, all salespeople who do not hit 70% of their monthly goal in the preceding month receive a letter chastising them for their poor performance and warning them that if they do not perform better, repercussions may follow. The company provided us with information on performance-to-goal data, company tenure, number of calls initiated by the salesperson, and the average call duration in minutes, tracked by the firm's internal software.

Measures

Extrinsic Motivation was measured with a three-item scale from Oliver and Anderson (1994) including items such as “If it were not for the money, I would not be in a selling job.” The composite reliability for this scale is .88.

Intrinsic Motivation was measured using a five-item scale from Oliver and Anderson (1994) including items such as “When I perform well, I know it’s because my own desire to achieve” and “Becoming successful in sales is something that I want to do for me.” The composite reliability for this measure is .86.

Resilience was measured using a 10-item scale created by Campbell-Sills and Stein (2007) and previously published in marketing literature by Bande et al. (2015). It includes items such as “I can achieve goals despite obstacles” and “I am not easily discouraged by failure.” The composite reliability for this measure is .90. A complete list of scales and items used in this study are available in Appendix C.

Objective Measures Provided by the Firm

Working Hard was measured as number of calls initiated by the salesperson over the month following the survey (t+1).

Working Smart was measured as the average call duration in minutes for the salesperson for the month following the survey (t+1).

Salesperson Performance was an objective measure obtained from company archival data as “percentage of goal” lagged by one month. Using percentage of goal, or total sales divided by expected sales target, has been deemed a “strong indicator of salesperson performance” and is common practice in sales research because it controls for potential contaminating factors such as territory size (Ahearne, Mathieu and Rapp 2005; Ahearne et al. 2013b).

Tenure with the firm was provided by the company and is measured in years.

Analysis

Total number of calls and average call duration were both transformed using the natural log of each measure. The ‘warning letter’ was dummy coded as 1_received and 0_not received. Across early and later respondents, we found no significant differences in demographic characteristics (Armstrong and Overton 1977). Prior to running any statistical model, we performed an outlier analysis, missing data analysis, and skewness and kurtosis tests.

We also performed a confirmatory factor analysis in MPLUS on all latent variables from the salesperson questionnaire to ensure all items loaded on their intended constructs and no cross-loadings on unintended constructs were present. Model fit statistics show a reasonable fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 118.87$, 17 d.f.; CFI = .92; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .04).

The data was then analyzed using the Lavaan statistical package in R (Rosseel 2012). We tested the structural model by first estimating a main effects-only model and then adding the interaction effects to test the full model. Importantly, the model with interaction effects revealed a better fit than the main-effects-only model ($\chi^2_{diff} = 28.52$, 2 d.f., $p < .05$). In our analyses, the objective salesperson performance (percent to goal) was regressed on the total number of calls and call duration at time $t+1$, which were regressed on the latent variables from the surveys, answered by the salespeople at time t . In our model estimation, we also controlled for salesperson tenure with the company, as prior research has shown that the experience of salespeople can have a direct impact on their performance (c.f., Fu et al. 2010). Construct correlations can be found in Table 7, and Table 8 shows the results from the analysis.

[Insert Table 7 about here.]

RESULTS

In the first hypothesis, we predicted that salesperson resilience is positively associated with subsequent salesperson effort. Somewhat surprisingly, this hypothesis remains unsupported

($\beta=-.02$, *n.s.*). However, the interaction between the warning letter and effort (working hard/number of calls) was significantly positive ($\beta=0.20$, $p < .05$), in support of the fourth hypothesis. As we will discuss below, this means that resilience on its own without the warning letter is not significantly related to working harder; however, resilience can be ‘activated’ by managers to lead to greater effort. Moreover, the warning letter by itself was not significantly related to subsequent salesperson effort ($\beta=-.08$, *n.s.*). Figure 7 visually shows the results of our analyses, and the interaction appears in Figure 8.

[Insert Figures 7 and 8 about here.]

In the second hypothesis, we predicted that resilience is positively associated with a salesperson’s subsequent ‘working smart,’ or longer average call duration with customers. This hypothesis was partially supported, as the coefficient was close to reaching statistical significance ($\beta=0.06$, $p < .07$). In the fifth hypothesis, we predicted that the interaction between resilience and the warning letter is significantly associated with subsequent salesperson working smart/call duration the following month. This hypothesis remains unsupported ($\beta=-.08$, *n.s.*).

In the third set of hypotheses, we predicted that intrinsic motivation is positively associated with resilience (3a) and more positively associated with resilience than extrinsic motivation (3b). These hypotheses were supported. Intrinsic motivation was positively associated with resilience ($\beta=.57$, $p < .05$) while the relationship between extrinsic motivation and resilience was not significant ($\beta=-.12$, *n.s.*). Likewise, it is interesting to note that in post hoc analyses, both working hard/number of calls and working smart/call duration were more positively associated with intrinsic motivation ($\beta=.48$, $p < .05$, $\beta=.52$, $p < .05$) than extrinsic motivation ($\beta=-.12$, *n.s.*, $\beta=-.14$, *n.s.*), respectively.

Finally, salesperson subsequent performance (percent to goal) was indeed positively associated with working hard/number of calls ($\beta=.23$, $p < .05$), working smart/call duration

($\beta=.50, p <.05$), and job tenure ($\beta=.04, p <.05$). In our model, we also estimated the covariance between these two behavioral measures and discovered they are inversely related ($\beta=-.19, p <.05$). Sensibly, the longer the average call duration the salesperson makes, the fewer calls they may initiate (although this is not a requirement, as the amount of time the salesperson spends on the phone is at his or her discretion).

[Insert Table 8 about here.]

DISCUSSION

Our findings reveal that resilience on its own was unrelated to working harder the following month. However, when employees who were performing poorly received a warning letter, the interaction between resilience and the warning was a statistically significantly positive predictor of subsequent effort the following month. This means that being resilient is really only important when a salesperson is experiencing difficulty. While resilience is typically thought of as a positive feature, by definition, it's really only needed when a salesperson is experiencing stress or hardship. Just like the saying, "without fear, there cannot be courage" one could think of resilience as being vital only when adversity exists.

Next, whereas previous research suggests that the threat of punishment can have an immediate and sustained impact on the performance of laggards (Steenburgh and Ahearne 2011; Boichuk et al. 2019), the findings of our study reveal that threats alone were not enough to have a positive impact on the behaviors that lead to performance. Rather, the firm threat when combined with salesperson resilience had a significant impact on subsequent effort (or number of calls initiated). While the threat in our study was not a replacement by a 'man on the bench,' the firm in our sample does indeed send warning letters that threaten repercussions to salespeople who fail to achieve their targets.

Although the threat activated the salesperson's subsequent working hard to make more calls, the warning letter did not have a significant moderating effect on the positive relationship between resilience and subsequent working smart. One explanation for this finding could be that the only people receiving the warning letter are poor performers, and the following month may not be long enough to really see a significant transformation in the strategy of the salesperson. While by definition resilience extends beyond just persevering but is related to evolving and becoming better in the process, such evolution may take more time than a single month. We do see that the relationship between resilience and working smarter is approaching statistical significance. More importantly, to get a customer to stay on the phone longer, the salesperson would first have to initiate the call. Thus, a logical first step after receiving a letter would be increasing effort (i.e. making more calls) when a salesperson's performance has fallen below expectations.

Finally, our analyses reveal that intrinsically motivated salespeople are more resilient than extrinsically motivated salespeople. Thus, rather than trying to motivate salespeople with more contests and incentives, meeting higher level needs like autonomy, relatedness, self-efficacy and sense of purpose should add to the salesperson's resilience to bounce back when facing challenges, stress and adversity in the selling process. While financial compensation has historically been thought of as extremely important for motivating salespeople, our findings demonstrate that in contexts where salespeople are experiencing high stress or adversity, intrinsic motivation is more associated with greater resilience, effort and performance.

Managerial Implications

As the nature of the sales force role is evolving, these positions continue to be typified by high levels of role stress, consistent customer rejection, burnout and turnover. Moreover, close to a majority of salespeople fail to achieve their targets each year – showing the difficulty

that is present within this type of position. Thus, motivating salespeople to be more resilient remains critical for managers. Yet, motivating those who have been experiencing failure presents unique challenges. Findings from this study demonstrate that intrinsic motivation is a key antecedent to resilience versus the desire for money or increased financial incentives, which may seem counterintuitive to managers. Rather than higher commissions or more contests to get sales employees to expend greater effort, managers should think through training to increase self-efficacy, promoting a corporate culture that includes teamwork and a sense of belonging, emphasizing sense of purpose over quotas, and providing greater autonomy rather than exerting more managerial control. Likewise, according to Achor and Gielan (2016), resilience requires “recharging” rather than just endurance. Thus, managers can try to determine what obstacles and challenges salespeople are facing and how to enable them to overcome them in a strategic way.

In addition, our study shows that certain managerial interventions are needed to activate resilience in a manner that benefits salesperson performance. Resilience on its own was not enough – manager warning letters activated the resilience of salespeople to expend more effort and increase the number of calls initiated to customers. While managers may hesitate to broach the subject of underperforming with their employees, our study reveals that a warning with repercussions – when combined with salesperson resilience – made salespeople work harder. Thus, managers need to take action rather than think that salespeople will improve on their own.

Limitations and Future Research

Our study includes a few limitations that could serve as avenues for future research. First, since we were working with a firm that has policies and practices already in place, we did not have the option to have a ‘control’ group to test warning letters on poor performers compared to core performers or stars to compare the effects of such warnings on more than just those who had failed to meet a certain performance threshold. Even though the warning letter was only sent to

the low performers, the interaction between resilience and the warning letter was significantly associated with increased effort the following month. Since our entire sample was only 120 people, obtaining a larger sample size may help the significance between resilience and working smart or even the interaction between the warning letter and resilience to working smarter. Likewise, obtaining subsequent months of effort and performance may allow us to determine the trend of working smarter or continuing to make progress in this area.

Finally, a next step would also be employing an experience sampling methodology to see if resilience changes from week-to-week based on the salesperson's motivation. In other words, does a salesperson choose to be resilient one week when they are facing adversity and give up in another week? Such a study would explain more about the phenomenon and how managers can influence it week-to-week or even day-to-day. Our study provides a solid foundation that intrinsic sources of motivation are likely to be key in motivating resilience in salespeople, which can be built upon in future research.

CONCLUSION

The theme of this dissertation has been motivating the sales force – which matters more for performance, increased compensation and incentives or meeting higher-level needs in salespeople like freedom on the job, feeling capable, feeling connected to others and having a sense of purpose at work? Study 1 began with a meta-analysis of the published literature on salesperson performance and extrinsic motivators (pay, compensation, incentives, rewards and feedback) and intrinsic motivators according to Self-Determination Theory (autonomy, self-efficacy and connection) from January 1985 to January 2019. Findings reveal that the corrected correlation between intrinsic motivation and salesperson performance is higher than that of extrinsic performance. This study offers demonstrable proof of the power of intrinsic motivation in salespeople and its positive impact on desirable outcomes, despite industry's (and researchers') overreliance on extrinsic motivation.

The second essay not only investigated all three antecedents from Self-Determination Theory together in a single study but also demonstrated that '*sense of purpose*' is another driver of intrinsic motivation. This study offers not only a new construct into the literature but also offers further evidence that intrinsic motivation is more positively associated with the key behaviors that lead to greater overall performance. Beyond antecedents to intrinsic motivation, Study 3 investigated its outcomes compared to extrinsic motivation and how different leader behaviors can leverage the motivation within salespeople to work harder and smarter and perform better. Thus, this study emphasizes that not only is intrinsic motivation extremely important, but likewise managers can both build and leverage it, which is extremely important in both research and practice.

The third essay included an investigation of how to best motivate resilience in salespeople. Since past research shows that approximately 50% of salespeople fail to reach their

sales targets, the aim of this study was how to encourage and activate resilience in salespeople to not only persevere but also bounce back to become even more successful. Findings show that intrinsically motivated salespeople were more resilient than extrinsically motivated salespeople.

This research is valuable in that it introduces a new construct into the literature (sense of purpose), provides a deeper understanding of salesperson resilience, and continues the conversation on the importance of meeting internal needs in workers rather than consistently trying to motivate through increased financial incentives. Despite a current trend of focusing on extrinsic motivation, these studies provide evidence that intrinsic motivation is more strongly associated with salesperson behaviors and performance. Moreover, managers can strengthen or weaken this relationship; thus, this dissertation offers actionable advice for motivating the sales force toward greater productivity.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Construct Validation Study (ESSAY 2)

Sense of purpose is defined as “the belief that one is making a contribution to a cause greater and more enduring than oneself” (Pink 2009). Sense of purpose highlights that people want to feel like what they do matters, that their work has significance beyond themselves or their paycheck. Many people long to be part of a greater good and leave a legacy after they are gone. In fact, in a field experiment conducted by Grant (2008), fundraisers who perceived their efforts had a social impact – i.e., felt their actions benefited other people – outperformed those who did not. Likewise, salespeople who were selling for more ‘noble’ reasons were said to frequently perform better than those focused on meeting quotas or making money (McLeod 2012). Many salespeople choose the profession because they want to help others and make a difference in the lives of customers.

Scholars may question, however, if sense of purpose is tantamount to job meaningfulness. Relatedly, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) described the ‘meaning of work’ as “individuals’ understanding of the purpose of their work or what they believe is achieved in the work” while Pratt and Ashforth (2003) defined meaningful work as “work and/or its context are perceived by its practitioners to be, at a minimum, purposeful and significant” (p. 309). Importantly, though, some researchers have alluded to the fact that ‘job meaningfulness’ and the ‘meaning of work’ are separate and distinct. For example, Rosso, Dekas and Wrzesniewski (2010) defined the meaningfulness of work as “the amount of significance something holds for an individual” which contrasts with their definition of the meaning of work, “an individual interpreting what her work means, or the role her work plays, in the context of her life” (pp. 95-96). However, while literature on job meaningfulness and the meaning of work highlight that individuals want to feel their work is significant for the company and may include some form of

sensemaking from the work, sense of purpose is distinct in its definition of “making a contribution to a cause greater and more enduring than oneself.” Beyond impacting internal constituents, sense of purpose relates to benefitting society, making a contribution to an enduring cause, and leaving a legacy.

Item Development & Pre-Testing

Thus, our second study (or a pre-study for Essay 2), is a scale development for sense of purpose. Our objective was to develop a reliable and valid measure for sense of purpose, following generally recommended scale development procedures (e.g. Raykov and Marcoulides 2011; Churchill 1979; Hinkin 1995). Our first step included an extensive search of the literature using databases such as Business Source Complete (EBSCO) and ProQuest PsycTESTS, which produced no existing scales for sense of purpose. Thus, we wrote a total of 18 items relating to the conceptual definition of sense of purpose: *the belief that one is making a contribution to a cause greater and more enduring than oneself*. We chose a 7-point response format for items, anchored by “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree,” (Hilken 1995). Reverse-coded items were excluded based on published recommendations that such items can be untrustworthy as they incite respondent confusion, systematic error and artificial response factors (e.g., DeVellis 2003; Hinkin 1995).

Thereafter, we sought feedback from subject matter experts, including faculty and doctoral students with interest or experience in the area, on the items (Churchill 1979; DeVellis 2003). Based on the recommendations provided, we adapted the test battery, deleting inferior items and improving item wording as necessary. This resulted in a final scale of eight items to tap the construct domain for sense of purpose. The scale developed is found below the results in the measures section and includes items such as “my work allows me to make a contribution to

society,” “the work I do on my job impacts the lives of others,” and “the better I perform at this job, the more I improve the lives of others.”

Construct Validation Hypotheses

Our aim is to show that that sense of purpose is “indeed novel and not simply a reflection of some other variable” (Churchill 1979, p. 70). Previous literature has suggested that job meaningfulness may be a driver of internal motivation, which could be likened to sense of purpose. However, job meaningfulness has been shown to result from doing an identifiable piece of work, feeling responsible for it, feeling like the tasks have company impact, and getting supervisor feedback (Hackman and Oldham 1976). We maintain that sense of purpose is fundamentally different than job meaningfulness. First, prior research shows that job meaningfulness was based on the salesperson’s work having significance to co-workers or the company itself (Hackman and Oldham 1976; George 1992). Indeed, Tyai (1985) describes this construct as, “The extent to which the person feels the job makes a meaningful contribution and is important *to the organization*,” (p. 77, emphasis added). An additional item was later added to the original scale that extends this significance outside the organization (e.g., Morgeson and Humphrey 2006); nonetheless, previous literature emphasizes that a distinction remains – whereas meaningfulness develops from others depending on employees’ efforts, a sense of purpose is cultivated by the extent to which salespeople feel that their own actions on the job improve the welfare of others (Grant 2008).

Moreover, job meaningfulness is focused on the task itself and aspects of the job, whereas the focus of sense of purpose is on the outcomes of the task, or the contribution. To illustrate the point, in the context of sales, rather than making hundreds of cold calls to separate potential leads, a salesperson may feel that their work is meaningful if they are responsible for qualifying leads, planning, presenting, closing the deal and servicing the customer, i.e. an entire

sales cycle. Even if the salesperson does not feel like his or her selling is making contribute to a greater cause, a salesperson can feel the job is meaningful for having some decision-making authority and responsibility for a significant portion of the entire sales process, according to the definition of job meaningfulness. On the other hand, sense of purpose relates to the broader picture of how the worker is contributing to societal good or leaving a legacy through his or her work, such as selling pharmaceuticals that save lives or selling tractor-trailer wheels that contribute to safety on highways. A salesperson can have a sense of purpose about the importance of what is being sold and thus make hundreds of cold calls, but not experience ‘job meaningfulness’ based on the job design and lack of supervisor feedback. Nonetheless, given the importance of saving lives and an innate internal desire to contribute to society, we predict sense of purpose is a stronger intrinsic motivational force than mere task design.

In addition, job meaningfulness is inferred from performing the task and therefore is derived *after* the job is performed by definition (see Hackman and Oldham 1976). Conversely, a salesperson could feel intrinsic motivation to perform a *brand-new* from believing the task will have an impact on society. Therefore, we assert that job meaningfulness and sense of purpose are two reasonably independent constructs. Subject matter experts also agreed that definitionally, the two are different. Sense of purpose is a motivational force that *precedes* behavior whereas meaningfulness is inferred from the work itself and can be achieved through various aspects of job design – such as feeling like the tasks have personal or *company* (rather than customer or societal) impact – and supervisor feedback.

H1: Meaningfulness and sense of purpose are discriminant constructs.

The following hypotheses will provide evidence of predictive or criterion-related validity by examining the degree to which our measure for sense of purpose correlates with specified outcomes (established measures) in anticipated directions. Predictable correlations provide

discriminant validity evidence. Generally speaking, if Construct “A” and Construct “C” are related significantly differently than Construct “B” and Construct “C,” then Constructs “A” and “B” are not the same.

Because meaningfulness is related to job tasks (having significant variety and responsibility), we conclude that meaningfulness will be correlated to performance orientation, which has been shown to be focused on task performance. On the other hand, because sense of purpose relates to making a contribution to a cause greater and more enduring than oneself, we conclude that this construct will be positively correlated with customer orientation rather than task or performance orientation.

H2: Meaningfulness is positively associated with performance orientation.

H3: Sense of purpose is positively associated with customer orientation.

H4: The positive association between meaningfulness and performance orientation is significantly stronger than the positive association between sense of purpose and performance orientation.

H5: The positive association between sense of purpose and customer orientation is significantly stronger than the positive association between meaningfulness and customer orientation.

In addition, based on the definition of meaningfulness being inferred based on job design and feedback, we predict that meaningfulness will be positively correlated with a sense of belonging or connection with others within the company. Reasonably, if a salesperson feels connected with co-workers, the job itself may feel more meaningful overall. On the other hand, with sense of belonging relating to making a contribution to a ‘greater cause,’ there is no reason to speculate that this construct would be strongly positively correlated to a connection with co-workers.

H6: The positive association between meaningfulness and connection is significantly stronger than the positive association between sense of purpose and connection.

METHOD

Sample

To demonstrate construct reliability and validity, the test battery was shared with a sample of 199 salespeople via an online survey. Approximately 61% of these salespeople work in a business-to-business context with the other 39% working in a business-to-consumer setting that is not simply retail sales, food service or a customer service role. These “target raters” are representative of the population to which findings based on the scale are expected to generalize (Rossiter 2002).

Measures

For this scale development study, all measures are self-report. In addition, except for the new measure of sense of purpose, all measures have been published in reputable scholarly research journals.

Connection is measured with an eight-item scale from Deci et al. (2001) and includes items such as “I really like the people I work with” and “I get along with people at work.” The composite reliability for this measure is .904.

Customer orientation is measured with a nine-item scale from Saxe and Weitz (1982) and includes items such as “I try to help customers achieve their goals” and “I offer the product of mine that is best suited to the customer’s problem.” The composite reliability for this measure is .877.

Job Meaningfulness is measured with a seven-item scale from Thakor and Joshi (2005) and includes items such as “my job lets me make full use of my abilities” and “my job gives me a feeling of accomplishment.” The composite reliability for this measure is .895.

Performance Orientation is measured with a six-item scale from Sujana, Weitz and Kumar 1994 and includes items such as “I feel very good when I know I have outperformed other

salespeople in my company” and “I always try to communicate my accomplishments to my manager.” The composite reliability for this measure is .868.

Analysis

First, we performed a point and interval estimate of composite reliability to ensure it surpasses the suggested threshold of .70 (Bagozzi and Yi 2012; Raykov and Marcoulides 2011). Next, we used factor analysis for our test construction and development, as this technique renders the underlying dimensionality of a considered test of measures. We performed exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis using MPLUS to verify if the scale created for sense of purpose can be considered unidimensional. Both model fit statistics and eigenvalues greater than one substantiate the number of factors in the data. Likewise, factor loading coefficients provide evidence for both the nature of the latent construct and its relationship with other constructs in our model. Items that load significantly on the same factor – for example, questions specifically related to sense of purpose – are indicators of the same latent construct, providing convergent validity evidence. Items that load on different factors – for example test items related to autonomy and connection – can be viewed as indicators of different latent constructs, providing discriminant validity evidence. Importantly, as we conducted the factor analysis, we followed the suggested guidelines that oblique rotation is “more meaningful” than orthogonal rotation, since latent constructs or factors in behavioral sciences tend to be related to one another (Raykov and Marcoulides 2011). We also tested rival models and compared fit statistics using the chi-square difference test for the paired nested models to provide further evidence for the solution proposed (Anderson and Gerbing 1988).

To establish the discriminant validity of our measures, we computed the AVE-SV comparison, in which the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) is greater than the correlation between constructs, meaning each latent variable shares greater variance with its

indicators than with other latent variables (Fornell-Larcker 1981). We likewise examined the Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio (Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt 2015) for each construct to see if any measures breached the suggested cutoff of .85 (Voorhees et al. 2016).

Our hypothesis testing also provides evidence of predictive or criterion-related validity by examining the degree to which our measure for sense of purpose correlates with our hypothesized constructs in the anticipated direction.

RESULTS

In this data, composite reliability for the sense of purpose measures is estimated at .879, with a standard error of .014. The 95%-confidence interval for this reliability coefficient is (.851, .903). Next, using just the measures for sense of purpose, we ran a split-sample EFA and CFA in MPLUS (principal component analysis, oblique rotation), which showed only one eigenvalue greater than one. Likewise, the fit statistics for this unidimensional model show a reasonable fit to the data ($\chi^2=187.461$, 6 d.f.; CFI 1.00; RMSEA 0.000; SRMR .009). In addition, the loadings for each factor are significant and above the suggested .70 cutoff. Thus, the scale created for sense of purpose can be concluded as congeneric (Raykov and Marcoulides 2011).

Thereafter, we performed confirmatory factor analysis using all the scale items for sense of purpose and job meaningfulness, testing rival models to provide evidence for discriminant validity. Results show that a two-factor solution is preferred (two eigenvalues greater than one), and the model fit statistics for the two-factor solution show a reasonable fit to the data ($\chi^2=46.193$, 34 d.f.; CFI .986; SRMR .025; RMSEA 0.043). All items loaded on intended constructs, and there were no significant cross-loadings. Next, we constrained the model to a single-factor solution and ran a chi-square difference test on the paired nested models. Model fit statistics for the single-factor model were not acceptable ($\chi^2 = 250.356$, 44 d.f.; CFI = .759; RMSEA = .155; SRMR = .107), and a chi-square difference test revealed that the hypothesized two-factor model

fit the data significantly better than the alternative single-factor model ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 204.163, p < .05$). Thus, in support of our first hypothesis, we provide empirical support that sense of purpose is indeed ‘novel’ and distinct from job meaningfulness.

Next, we added the constructs for customer orientation and performance orientation to our model to test our hypotheses. To establish the discriminant validity of our measures, we computed the AVE-SV comparison (Fornell and Larcker 1981) and the Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio (Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt 2015) for each construct. The average variances extracted for the constructs are greater than the recommended threshold of .50 (Bagozzi and Yi 2012), indicating that our measures are reliable and that the latent constructs account for more than 50% of variance in the items. In Table 9a, the diagonal values represent the square roots of AVE values, which are greater than all the off-diagonal correlation values, meaning items created to measure sense of purpose share more variance with this latent construct than with other latent variables (Fornell-Larcker 1981). In addition, we examined the HTMT ratios to see if any measures breached the suggested cutoff of .85 (Voorhees et al. 2016), and no significant cross-loadings were found (see Table 9b).

(Insert Tables 9a and 9b about here.)

In examining criterion validity, our predictions were confirmed. In the second hypothesis, we predicted that meaningfulness is positively associated with performance orientation. This hypothesis was confirmed ($r=.455, p<.01$). In the third hypothesis, we predicted that sense of purpose is positively associated with customer orientation, which was also confirmed ($r=.327, p<.01$). In the fourth hypothesis, we predicted that the positive association between meaningfulness and performance orientation is significantly stronger than the positive association between sense of purpose and performance orientation. To test this hypothesis, we used a Fisher transformation of the correlation and z-test statistic, a procedure available on the

quantpsy.org web utility (Preacher 2002). In support of H4, our analyses show that the correlation between job meaningfulness and performance orientation ($r=.455, p<.01$) and the correlation between sense of purpose and performance orientation ($r=.198, p<.01$) are significantly different ($z=2.874, p<.01$), with the correlation being significantly more positive for job meaningfulness. In the fifth hypothesis, we predicted that the positive association between sense of purpose and customer orientation is significantly stronger than the positive association between meaningfulness and customer orientation. This hypothesis remains unsupported ($z=.565, n.s.$).

In the sixth hypothesis, we predicted that the positive association between meaningfulness and connection is significantly stronger than the positive association between sense of purpose and connection. This hypothesis was confirmed. Results show that the correlation between job meaningfulness and connection ($r=.429, p<.01$) and the correlation between sense of purpose and connection ($r=.254, p<.01$) are significantly different ($z=1.97, p<.05$), with the relationship being significantly more positive for job meaningfulness. Thus, the combined results suggest that the measure developed for sense of purpose is both unidimensional and reliable. Likewise, we provide evidence supporting both convergent and discriminant validity.

Separately, within this survey, we also ran a preliminary analysis or pre-test for our hypothesized relationships, using self-report performance data. The results are shown in the Figure 7. While self-report performance data are not ideal, these results simply provide some evidence that the hypothesized relationships are significant in multiple samples and contexts.

(Insert Figure 7 about here.)

APPENDIX B: FIGURES

FIGURE 1

Meta-analysis Conceptual Model (ESSAY 1)

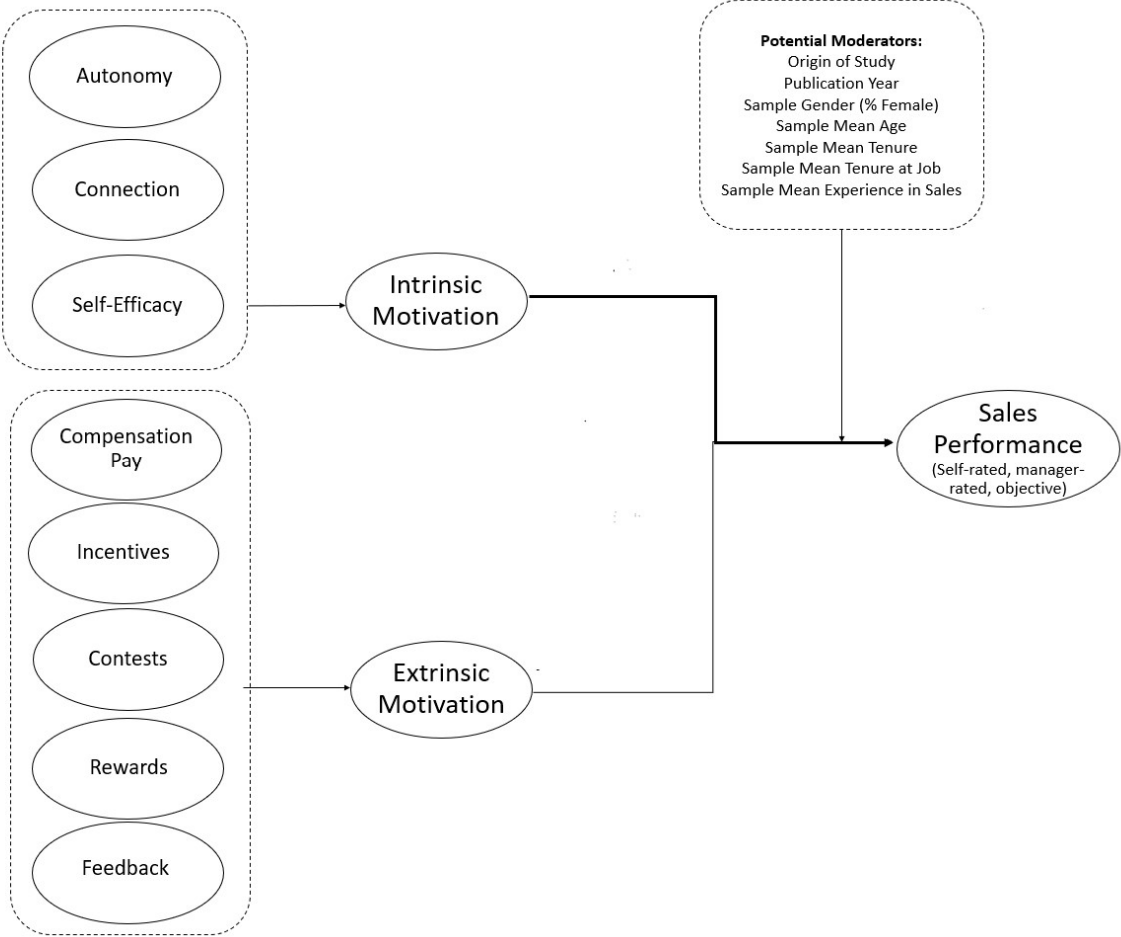


FIGURE 2

Conceptual Model (ESSAY 2)

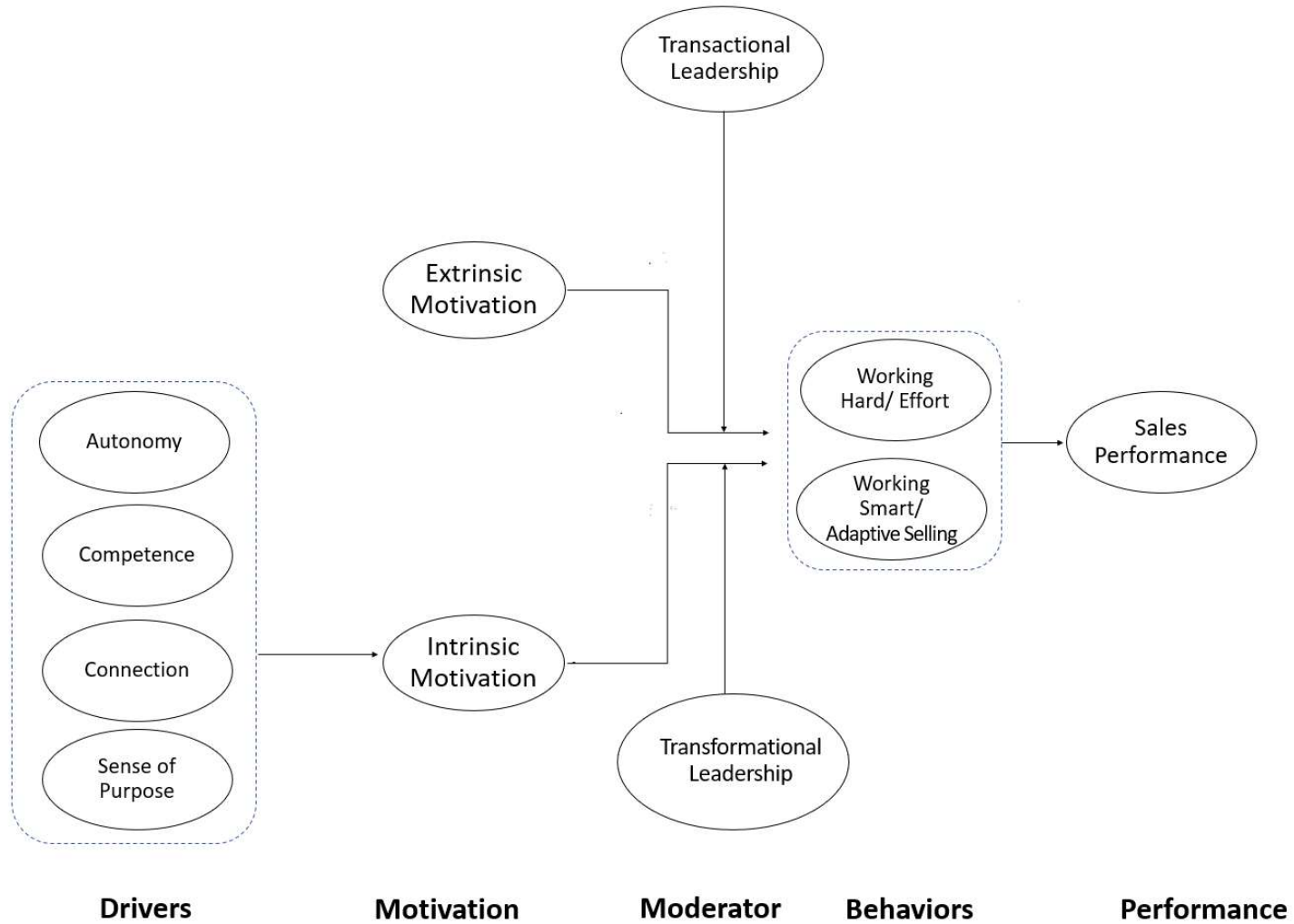


FIGURE 3

Dynamic Analysis Example (ESSAY 2)

Relating Effort_(t) to Performance_(t+1) Across People Over Time

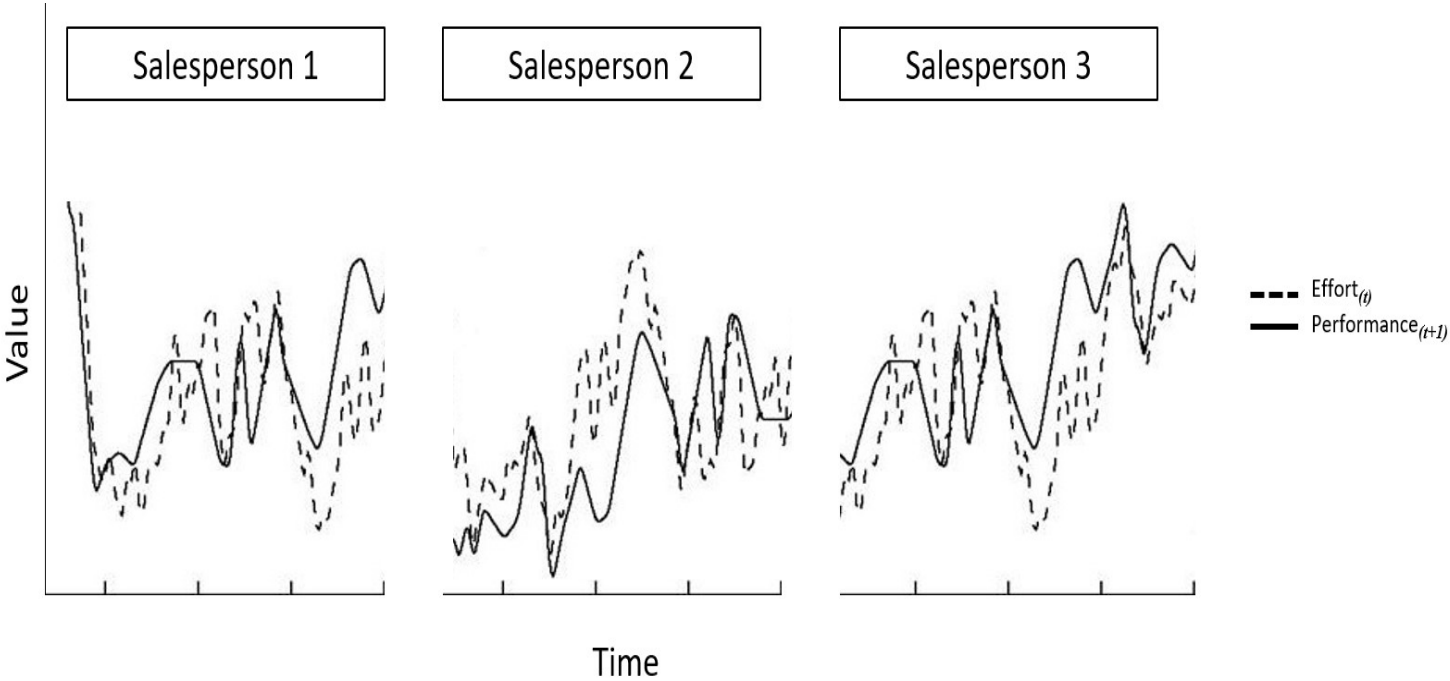


FIGURE 4
Conceptual Model for Resilience (ESSAY 3)

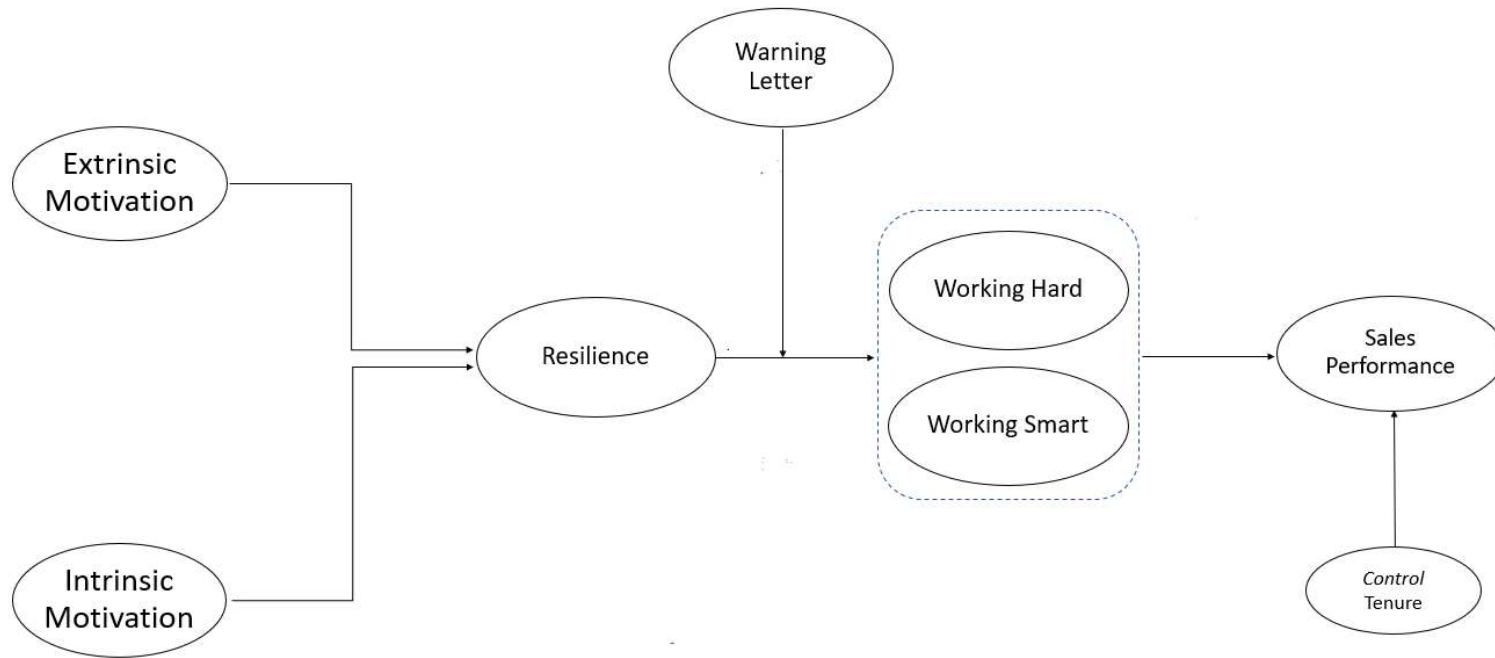


FIGURE 5

Resilience Results Model (ESSAY 3)

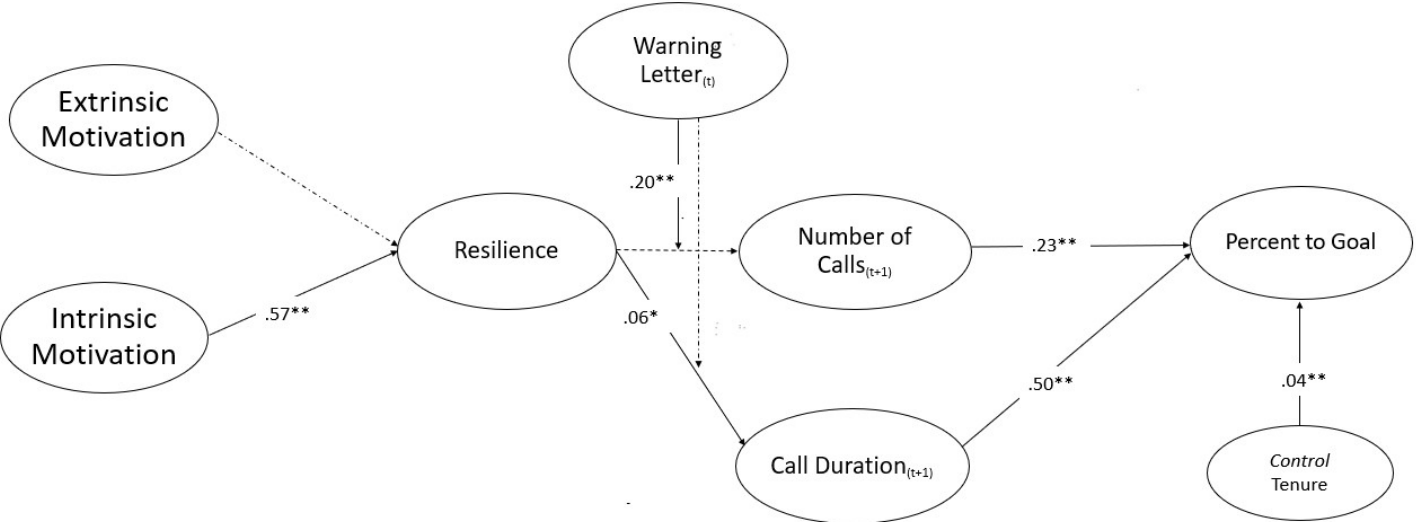


FIGURE 6

Interaction Plot (ESSAY 3)

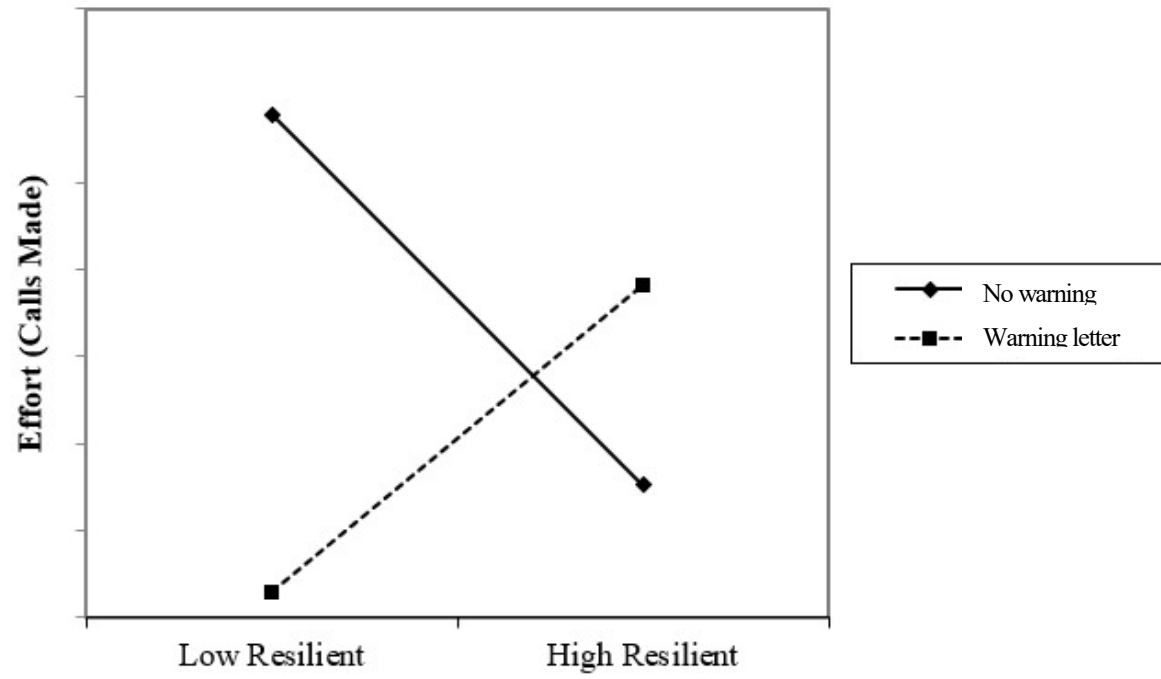
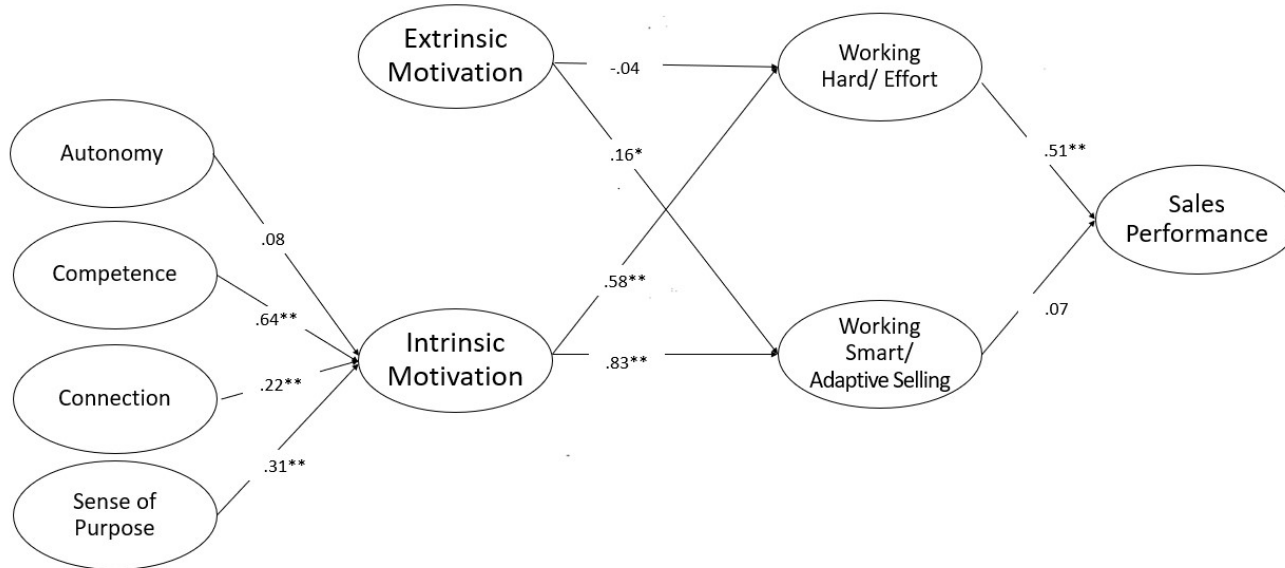


FIGURE 7
Pre-Test Results Model



APPENDIX C: TABLES

Table 1

Motivation Theories Table

Author	Date	Key Findings
Maslow	1943	Hierarchy of Needs: Needs are motivation for behavior. Lowest level is most salient until at least partially satisfied, at which point higher level needs emerge. Lowest level is physiological needs (homeostasis of the blood, hunger, material needs), followed by safety needs (routines, knowledge, comfort, protection). Next are needs for love (connection with other people), followed by needs for esteem (both self-esteem and recognition from others). Finally, the need for self-actualization (doing what one was fitted for or created to do, becoming all that one can be).
Simon	1956	Bounded Rationality: Decision-making is bounded by incomplete information, cognitive limitations, and finite time individuals possess.
McGregor	1960	Theory X, Theory Y: Two different managerial styles are based on two opposing sets of general assumptions of how workers are motivated. Theory X emphasizes strict supervision with rewards and penalties while Theory Y stresses job satisfaction and autonomy to work with limited supervision.
Skinner	1963	Operant Theory: All behaviors are motivated by rewards like food or money.
Vroom	1964	VIE Theory/Expectancy Theory: When deciding which activity to pursue, individuals evaluate the valence, instrumentality and expectancy of all options. Valence is the desirability, attractiveness, importance or anticipated satisfaction with outcomes associated with a goal; instrumentality is the perceived likelihood that goal attainment will lead to desired outcomes, and expectancy is the perceived likelihood that expending effort will lead to goal attainment.
Herzberg	1968	Motivator-Hygiene Theory: Hygiene factors are pay, security and working conditions which provide a lack of dissatisfaction rather than actual satisfaction. True motivators are job enrichment like interesting work, autonomy, responsibility for the work, and the feeling of achievement from accomplishing a difficult task.
Deci	1972	Cognitive Evaluation Theory: The purpose of the research was to examine the effects of external consequences on internal motivation. Findings show that rewards result in a decreased level of intrinsic motivation and satisfaction because the reward is perceived to negatively impact the autonomy and competence of the individual.
Csikszentmihalyi	1975	The Theory of Flow: Flow is a state in which performing a task that is so enjoyable that concentration and focus are centered on the activity to the point of losing track of time or working automatically because the task is inherently pleasing

Table 1 (cont'd)

Hackman & Oldham	1976	Motivation Through the Design of Work: Skill variety, task identity and task significance lead to experienced meaningfulness at work. Meaningfulness, autonomy and feedback leads to high internal work motivation, satisfaction, and performance and less turnover.
Ajzen	1985	Theory of Planned Behavior: Perceived behavioral control (ability), together with behavioral intention (motivation) can be used to predict behavioral achievement.
Deci & Ryan	1985	Self-Determination Theory: Intrinsic motivation is supported by autonomy, competence, and relatedness, which fosters stronger engagement in activities, enhanced performance, persistence, and greater creativity.
Sujan	1986	Attribution Theory: Salespeople's attribution of failure motivates them to choose to work harder (persistence and effort) or work smarter (better strategic choices and approach), depending on if they are extrinsically or intrinsically motivated, respectively.
Locke & Latham	1990	Goal theory: Goal characteristics influence performance through attentional focus, effort, persistence and strategy development. People perform better if defined, accepted goals are specific and difficult versus easy or do-your-best goals.
Vallerand	1997	Hierarchy of Motivation: From global (such as personality) to contextual (broad life views such as work, religion, technology, sports or others) to situational (here and now activities), certain types of motivation can be more influenced than others.
Steel & König	2006	Temporal Motivational Theory (TMT): In choosing between various rewarding activities, people have an innate tendency to put off tasks leading to distant but valuable goals in favor of ones with more immediate though lesser rewards. Thus, goal proximity is important due to temporal discounting (distal goals are substantially delayed, reducing the effectiveness of expectancy and value). Temporal Motivational Theory has four core components: value (utility), expectancy, time and different functions for losses vs. gains.
Vancouver	2008	Dynamic Process Theory of Self-Regulation: Both cognitive and affective processes are incorporated by using the notion of goal systems to understand a person's acting, thinking, learning, and feeling.
Hills et al.	2015	Exploration vs. Exploitation Theory: Search, or seeking goal satisfaction in uncertain conditions, involves trade-offs between exploiting known opportunities and exploring for potentially better opportunities elsewhere.

TABLE 2

Meta-Analysis Variables and Definitions (ESSAY 1)

VARIABLE	DEFINITION	CODING EXAMPLES
Motivation	The explanation for the direction, intensity and persistence of behavior.	“Work motivation is the degree to which salespeople are willing to expend effort on the job.” <i>Dubinsky and Hartley 1997</i>
Intrinsic Motivation	Acting because the task itself is inherently interesting or satisfying.	Intrinsic motivation is “the motivation to perform an activity solely for the pleasure and satisfaction that are inherent in that activity.” <i>Noble 2008</i> “Intrinsic motivation measures the extent to which salespeople are driven by a passionate interest and deep level of enjoyment in what they do.” <i>Miao & Evans 2012</i> Intrinsic motivation is “a self-determined sense of being inherently interested in and enjoying the work itself.” <i>Ramarajan, Rothbard and Wilk 2017</i>
Autonomy	Having control over activities performed.	Autonomy is “the degree to which a job provides the salesperson discretion in carrying out the work assignment.” <i>Singh 1998</i>
Self-Efficacy or Competence	Perception of having the skills, know-how and ability to perform a job; judgements of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations.	Self-efficacy is a salesperson’s “confidence in ability.” <i>Sujan, Kumar and Weitz 1994</i> Self-efficacy “refers to an individual's judgments regarding his or her capabilities to organize and execute specific courses of action.” <i>Frayne & Geringer 2000</i> Self-efficacy is “the judgments of what one can do with whatever skills one possesses.” <i>Schmitz and Ganesan 2014</i> Self-efficacy is “an employee's beliefs in their task performance capabilities.” <i>Panagopoulos and Ogilvie 2015</i>
Connection	A willingness to do the job because the salesperson feels valued by significant others to whom they feel (or would like to feel) connected; A sense of belonging or relatedness.	“By conveying support, identity, and acceptance, friendship networks made up of strong and interconnected ties will facilitate the development of social integration.” <i>Menguc, Hang & Auh 2007</i> Connection is “a salesperson’s ability to develop and manage relationships with relevant members of his or her firm” <i>Terho et al.2017</i>

Table 2 (cont'd)

Feedback	Recognition or reprimand provided based on activities performed.	<p>Feedback is “the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the individual obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his/her job performance.” <i>Tyagi 1985</i></p> <p>Feedback is “supervisors' positive evaluation of their salespersons' outcomes and behaviors.” <i>Sujan, Kumar and Weitz 1994</i></p>
Extrinsic Motivation	Behavior is driven by expectations of external consequences.	<p>Extrinsic motivation is “a person’s tendency to engage in activities for reasons related solely to earning money.” <i>Noble 2008</i></p> <p>“Extrinsic motivation reflects the extent to which salespeople treat work as a means for obtaining external rewards (e.g., money, recognition, and promotion).” <i>Miao & Evans 2012</i></p>
Contest	A company-sponsored event in which salespeople compete for prizes.	<p>“Contests are short-term incentives that managers use to raise sales effort.” <i>Lim, Ahearne and Ham 2009</i></p>
Compensation or Pay	A payment, typically money, awarded to a salesperson as a recompense for working.	<p>“Income or self-report yearly gross salary (including monthly salary plus incentives)” <i>Sager and Johnston 1989</i></p> <p>Compensations is how salespeople are “incentivized/ rewarded based on sales compared to base pay.” <i>Stewart 1996</i></p>
Incentives	Cash awards granted to salespeople for meeting interim performance goals within a quota period.	<p>Incentives were calculated as “the percent of incentive pay in the salesperson’s total compensation.” <i>Piercy, Low and Cravens 2004</i></p> <p>Incentives were dummy coded as 1_yes or 0_no if they existed for cross-selling. <i>Schmitz, Lee and Lillien 2014</i></p>
Reward	Reflects the extent of outcomes of performing a job well.	<p>Rewards include “whether employees perceive pay raises as directly linked to sales performance and how performance compares to the goals.” <i>Ramaswami and Sing 2003</i></p> <p>A reward system is “a set of processes through which behaviors are directed and motivated to achieve individual and organizational goals.” <i>Román and Munuera 2005</i></p> <p>Rewards are the “salesperson’s own financial compensation and recognition received.” <i>Miao, Evans and Li 2017</i></p>

TABLE 3a

Meta-Analysis Subgroup Analyses Motivation Type Results (ESSAY 1)

Relationships	Number of Effects[^]	Total Sample Size	Corrected Mean^a <i>r</i>	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	Availability Bias^b	Q-Statistic^c
Motivation – Salesperson Performance	294	77,560	.245**	.003	.238 to .252	9,899	37,201
Extrinsic Motivation – Salesperson Performance	144	36,264	.176**	.005	.166 to .186	2,302	9,176
Intrinsic Motivation – Salesperson Performance	134	37,746	.298**	.005	.287 to .308	3,797	9,030

[^] The motivation-salesperson performance number of effects (294) are more than the sum of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation effects (144+134) because 20 effects were coded based on the keyword ‘motivation’ that could not be classified as either extrinsic or intrinsic.

^a The corrected mean correlation coefficients (*r*) are the sample size weighted, reliability corrected estimates of the population correlation coefficients.

^b Availability bias refers to the number of unpublished studies reporting null results needed to reduce the cumulative effect size across studies to the point of non-significance.

^c Q-statistic provides a test of the homogeneity of the population correlations; significant Q-value suggests that study-level effect size estimates do not estimate a common population effect size, and the subsequent search for the moderating effects is warranted.

** *p* < .01

TABLE 3b

Meta-Analysis Subgroup Analyses Motivation Type Results (ESSAY 1)

Relationships	Number of Effects	Total Sample Size	Corrected Mean^a <i>r</i>	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	Availability Bias^b	Q-Statistic^c
Motivation – Salesperson Performance	294	77,560	.245**	.003	.238 to .252	3,367	11,040
Motivation – Objective Performance	57	18,719	.173**	.007	.159 to .188	630	9,057
Motivation – Manager Rated Performance	41	10,616	.114**	.001	.094 to .133	203	1,176
Motivation – Self-Rated Performance	198	48,225	.303**	.005	.294 to .311	6,472	20,611

^a The corrected mean correlation coefficients (*r*) are the sample size weighted, reliability corrected estimates of the population correlation coefficients.

^b Availability bias refers to the number of unpublished studies reporting null results needed to reduce the cumulative effect size across studies to the point of non-significance.

^c Q-statistic provides a test of the homogeneity of the population correlations; significant Q-value suggests that study-level effect size estimates do not estimate a common population effect size, and the subsequent search for the moderating effects is warranted.

** *p* < .01

TABLE 3c

Meta-Analysis Motivation Type by Performance Type Results (ESSAY 1)

Relationships	Number of Effects[^]	Total Sample Size	Corrected Mean^a <i>r</i>	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	Availability Bias^b	Q-Statistic^c
Motivation – Objective Salesperson Performance	57	18,719	.173**	.007	.159 to .188	630	9,057
Extrinsic Mot. – Objective Salesperson Perf.	20	4,438	.148**	.005	.118 to .177	80	920
Intrinsic Mot. – Objective Salesperson Perf.	34	13,371	.185**	.009	.168 to .202	336	6,370

[^] The motivation-salesperson performance number of effects are more than the sum of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation effects because some effects were coded based on the keyword ‘motivation’ that could not be classified as either extrinsic or intrinsic.

^a The corrected mean correlation coefficients (*r*) are the sample size weighted, reliability corrected estimates of the population correlation coefficients.

^b Availability bias refers to the number of unpublished studies reporting null results needed to reduce the cumulative effect size across studies to the point of non-significance.

^c Q-statistic provides a test of the homogeneity of the population correlations; significant Q-value suggests that study-level effect size estimates do not estimate a common population effect size, and the subsequent search for the moderating effects is warranted.

** $p < .01$

Table 3d

Meta-Analysis Motivation Type by Performance Type Results (ESSAY 1)

Relationships	Number of Effects[^]	Total Sample Size	Corrected Mean^a <i>r</i>	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	Availability Bias^b	Q-Statistic^c
Motivation – Manager-rated Salesperson Perf.	57	18,719	.173**	.007	.159 to .188	630	9,057
Extrinsic Mot. – Manager-rated Sales Perf.	21	4,365	.114**	.015	.084 to .144	60	241
Intrinsic Mot. – Manager-rated Sales Perf.	20	6,135	.117**	.013	.091 to .142	73	472

[^] The motivation-salesperson performance number of effects are more than the sum of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation effects because some effects were coded based on the keyword ‘motivation’ that could not be classified as either extrinsic or intrinsic.

^a The corrected mean correlation coefficients (*r*) are the sample size weighted, reliability corrected estimates of the population correlation coefficients.

^b Availability bias refers to the number of unpublished studies reporting null results needed to reduce the cumulative effect size across studies to the point of non-significance.

^c Q-statistic provides a test of the homogeneity of the population correlations; significant Q-value suggests that study-level effect size estimates do not estimate a common population effect size, and the subsequent search for the moderating effects is warranted.

** $p < .01$

TABLE 3e

Meta-Analysis Motivation Type by Performance Type Results (ESSAY 1)

Relationships	Number of Effects[^]	Total Sample Size	Corrected Mean^a <i>r</i>	Standard Error	95% Confidence Interval	Availability Bias^b	Q-Statistic^c
Motivation – Self-report Salesperson Performance	198	48,225	.303**	.005	.294 to .311	6,472	20,611
Extrinsic Mot. – Self-report Salesperson Perf.	105	4,438	.190**	.006	.178 to .202	1,574	4,449
Intrinsic Mot. – Self-report Salesperson Perf.	82	18,240	.441**	.007	.427 to .456	2,397	2,848

[^] The motivation-salesperson performance number of effects are more than the sum of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation effects because some effects were coded based on the keyword 'motivation' that could not be classified as either extrinsic or intrinsic.

^a The corrected mean correlation coefficients (*r*) are the sample size weighted, reliability corrected estimates of the population correlation coefficients.

^b Availability bias refers to the number of unpublished studies reporting null results needed to reduce the cumulative effect size across studies to the point of non-significance.

^c Q-statistic provides a test of the homogeneity of the population correlations; significant Q-value suggests that study-level effect size estimates do not estimate a common population effect size, and the subsequent search for the moderating effects is warranted.

** $p < .01$

TABLE 4a

Meta-Analysis HLM Results All Variables as Controls (ESSAY 1)

Variable	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-ratio
Intercept	-8.221	20.567	-0.400
<i>Main Effects</i>			
<i>Predictor Variables</i>			
Motivation Type	0.161	0.089	1.806
Performance Type	-0.156	0.105	-1.482
<i>Study Characteristics</i>			
Publication Year	0.004	0.010	0.408
Origin	-0.053	0.180	-0.296
Customer Type (B2B or B2C)	0.049	0.091	0.536
Gender (Percent Female)	0.001	0.004	0.183
Mean Age	0.005	0.023	0.231
Mean Tenure with Firm (in Years)	0.006	0.027	0.220
Mean Experience in Sales in Years)	-0.009	0.033	-0.257

Notes: B=unstandardized regression coefficient. The dependent variable corrected mean correlation coefficients (r) are the sample size weighted, reliability corrected estimates of the population correlation coefficients. Level-1 N=49, Level-2 N=18.

TABLE 4b

Meta-Analysis HLM Results with Mean Imputation (ESSAY 1)

Variable	Hypotheses	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-ratio
Intercept		-14.167**	4.430	-3.198
<i>Main Effects</i>				
<i>Predictor Variables</i>				
Motivation Type	H 1,2 (+)	.151***	0.032	4.691
Performance Type		-.071**	0.024	-2.950
<i>Study Characteristics</i>				
Publication Year		0.007**	0.002	3.200
Origin		-0.017	0.053	-0.315
Customer Type (B2B or B2C)		0.001	0.037	0.030
Gender (Percent Female)		-0.001	0.001	-0.883
Mean Age		0.003	0.005	0.538
Mean Tenure with Firm (in Years)		-0.010	0.010	-1.039
Mean Experience in Sales in Years)		-0.071	0.024	0.301

Notes: B=unstandardized regression coefficient. The dependent variable corrected mean correlation coefficients (r) are the sample size weighted, reliability corrected estimates of the population correlation coefficients. Level-1 N=287, Level-2 N=185. *** $p < .01$; ** $p < .05$.

Table 4c

Meta-Analysis HLM Age Moderator Results (ESSAY 1)

Predictor	Regression Coefficient	Standard Error	t-value
Intercept	.301***	.033	9.144
<i>Main Effects</i>			
<i>Predictor Variable</i>			
Motivation Type	.182**	0.062	2.932
<i>Study Characteristic</i>			
Mean Age	.003	0.004	.643
<i>Interaction</i>			
Age*Motivation	-0.021**	0.007	-2.850

Notes: B=unstandardized regression coefficient. The dependent variable corrected mean correlation coefficients (r) are the sample size weighted, reliability corrected estimates of the population correlation coefficients. Level-1 N=160, Level-2 N=82. *** $p < .01$; ** $p < .05$.

TABLE 5
Latent Variable Correlations and AVE-SQ (ESSAY 2)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1) CONNECT	0.811											
2) CALL DUR.	0.003	1										
3) CALLS (EFFORT)	0.028	0.422	1									
4) EXTRINSIC MOT.	0.076	0.033	0.016	0.863								
5) INTRINSIC MOT.	0.421	0.063	0.001	-0.162	0.828							
6) PERFORMANCE	0.015	0.244	-0.035	-0.068	0.042	1						
7) SENSE PURPOSE	0.456	0.05	-0.002	-0.281	0.392	0.054	0.865					
8) SMART	0.403	0.137	-0.043	-0.038	0.526	0.034	0.317	0.816				
9) SELF-EFFICACY	0.357	0.143	-0.063	-0.072	0.561	0.114	0.344	0.623	0.82			
10) TRANSACT	0.137	0.031	-0.003	-0.062	0.34	-0.048	0.184	0.248	0.224	0.88		
11) TRANSFORM	0.431	0.094	0.009	-0.087	0.377	0.039	0.391	0.393	0.248	0.308	0.865	
12) AUTONOMY	0.433	0.047	-0.026	-0.283	0.464	0.089	0.448	0.281	0.416	0.028	0.264	0.921

Note: The diagonal values represent the square roots of the AVE values. The off-diagonal values represent inter-construct correlations.

TABLE 6
Results (ESSAY 2)

	<i>Intrinsic</i>	<i>Adaptive Selling</i>	<i>Effort_(t+1)</i>	<i>Performance_(t+2)</i>
<i>Sense of Purpose</i>	0.17** (.08)			
<i>Autonomy</i>	0.23** (.07)			
<i>Connection</i>	0.19* (0.12)			
<i>Self-Efficacy</i>	0.30** (0.09)			
<i>Intrinsic</i>		0.47*** (0.08)	29.30** (11.52)	
<i>Extrinsic</i>		0.07 (0.07)	-24.33*** (7.65)	
<i>Transformational</i>		-0.18 (0.12)	57.40*** (14.27)	
<i>Transactional</i>		0.48 (0.35)	-27.67*** (9.11)	
<i>Transform_(t) × Intrinsic_(t)</i>		0.07*** (0.01)	-5.28** (1.56)	
<i>Transact_(t) × Extrinsic_(t)</i>		-0.08 (0.07)	3.04** (1.39)	
<i>Effort (Calls_(t))</i>			0.64*** (0.03)	0.05** (0.00)
<i>Call Duration_(t)</i>				0.09*** (0.00)
<i>Performance_(t)</i>				0.04 (0.07)

Note: *** significant at $p < 0.01$; ** significant at $p < 0.05$; * significant at $p < 0.10$. All autocorrelation estimates were constrained to be equal across time. Standard errors in parentheses below.

TABLE 7**Latent Variable Correlations and Descriptive Statistics (ESSAY 3)**

	Resilience	Intrinsic	Extrinsic	Warning	Tenure	lnCalls	lnDuration	%ToGoal
Resilience	.90							
Intrinsic Mot.	0.55	.86						
Extrinsic Mot.	-0.16	-0.16	.88					
Review	0.03	0.01	-0.01	—				
Tenure	-0.03	-0.11	-0.02	-0.21	—			
lnCalls	0.03	-0.01	-0.11	-0.08	-0.09	—		
lnCallDuration	0.13	0.10	0.05	-0.22	0.07	-0.37	—	
Perf(% to Goal)	0.11	0.17	-0.05	-0.36	0.26	0.07	0.46	—
Mean	-0.04	0.01	-0.05	0.22	2.89	6.67	4.96	0.82
Stand. Dev.	1.01	0.94	0.94	0.41	2.27	0.42	0.36	0.33

Notes: Composite reliability reported on the diagonal.

TABLE 8**Results (ESSAY 3)**

	Estimate	Std.Err	z-value	P(> z)
RESILIENCE				
Intrinsic Motivation	0.573	0.083	6.933	0
Extrinsic Motivation	-0.106	0.083	-1.278	0.201
HARD (lnCalls)				
Warning Letter	-0.08	0.09	-0.884	0.377
Resilience	-0.018	0.037	-0.492	0.623
Warning*Resilience	0.195	0.094	2.063	0.039
SMART (lnDuration)				
Warning Letter	-0.192	0.077	-2.499	0.012
Resilience	0.057	0.031	1.82	0.069
Warning*Resilience	-0.066	0.08	-0.823	0.411
PERFORMANCE				
Hard (lnCalls)	0.232	0.064	3.646	0
Smart (lnDuration)	0.504	0.073	6.875	0
Tenure	0.036	0.011	3.354	0.001

TABLE 9a

Latent Variable Correlations and AVE-SQ (Construct Validation Study)

	Sense of Purpose	Autonomy	Competence	Connect	Customer Orientation	Extrinsic Motivation	Hard	Intrinsic Motivation	Meaning	OCB	Perform Orientation	Perform (Self-Rated)	Resilience	Smart
Sense of Purpose	.819													
Autonomy	.343	.924												
Competence	.334	.330	.762											
Connection	.274	.174	.236	.809										
Customer Orientation	.311	.257	.361	.338	.766									
Extrinsic Motivation	-.439	-.234	-.313	-.285	-.213	.838								
Hard	.320	.183	.417	.265	.176	-.295	.856							
Intrinsic Motivation	.535	.345	.584	.343	.321	-.495	.418	.746						
Meaning	.590	.441	.462	.429	.383	-.512	.344	.694	.771					
OCB	.394	.188	.339	.527	.462	-.315	.320	.398	.419	.681				
Performance Orientation	.293	-.006	.204	.268	.260	-.132	.113	.254	.458	.243	.731			
Performance (Self-Rated)	.214	.233	.456	.323	.283	-.308	.594	.445	.445	.514	.266	.828		
Resilience	.292	.291	.642	.367	.441	-.285	.407	.423	.307	.457	.079	.520	.781	
Smart	.399	.386	.655	.173	.317	-.298	.424	.496	.399	.358	.113	.413	.587	.738

Note: The diagonal values represent the square roots of the AVE values. The off-diagonal values represent inter-construct correlations.

TABLE 9b
HTMT Ratios (Construct Validation Study)

	Sense of Purpose	Autonomy	Competence	Connect	Customer Orient.	Extrinsic Motivation	Hard	Intrinsic Motivation	Meaning	OCB	Perform. Orientation	Perform. (Self-Rated)	Resilience
Autonomy	.363												
Competence	.368	.363											
Connection	.298	.193	.272										
Customer Orientation	.336	.286	.417	.402									
Extrinsic Motivation	.493	.249	.337	.305	.221								
Hard	.365	.204	.489	.299	.196	.352							
Intrinsic Motivation	.621	.398	.678	.401	.372	.598	.515						
Meaning	.649	.482	.520	.484	.436	.632	.402	.825					
OCB	.397	.201	.375	.572	.532	.336	.360	.432	.431				
Performance Orientation	.249	.108	.299	.281	.375	.140	.168	.318	.528	.284			
Performance (Self-Rated)	.312	.259	.507	.345	.307	.339	.680	.518	.494	.564	.376		
Resilience	.312	.321	.737	.424	.507	.328	.476	.507	.341	.522	.205	.569	
Smart	.448	.459	.743	.217	.431	.373	.491	.596	.478	.433	.197	.473	.699

*Note: Suggested cutoff is .85; no items breached this criterion

APPENDIX D: CONSTRUCT MEASURES

Constructs and Scale Items (Construct Validation Study)

Sense of Purpose

Current Authors

1. My work allows me to make a contribution to society.
2. The work I do on my job is part of the legacy I will leave on this earth after I am gone.
3. The work I do on my job impacts the lives of others.
4. The work I do on my job is meaningful to others.
5. I give back to society through the work I do on my job.
6. My work allows me to be part of something bigger than just myself.
7. The better I perform at this job, the more I improve the lives of others.
8. I work for a cause greater than my own paycheck.

Job Meaningfulness

Thakor and Joshi 2005

1. My job lets me have the chance to be somebody.
2. My job gives me a feeling of accomplishment.
3. My job lets me make full use of my abilities.
4. My job allows me to have control over my life.
5. My job is exciting and challenging.
6. My job allows me to grow and develop as a person.
7. My job is mostly comprised of selling (e.g., making sales presentations) rather than servicing customers.

Customer Orientation

Saxe & Weitz 1982

1. I try to help customers achieve their goals.
2. A good salesperson has to have the customer's best interest in mind.
3. I offer the product of mine that is best suited to the customer's problem.
4. I try to find out what kind of product would be most helpful to a customer.
5. I try to get customers to discuss their needs with me.
6. I try to sell as much as I can rather than necessarily to satisfy the customer.
7. If I am not sure the product is right for the customer, I will still apply pressure to get him or her to buy.
8. I spend more time trying to persuade a customer to buy a product than I do trying to discover his or her needs.
9. I keep alert for weaknesses in a customer's personality so that I can use that to put pressure on him or her to buy.

Performance Orientation

Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994

1. It is very important to me that my supervisor sees me as a good salesperson.
2. I very much want my coworkers to consider me to be good at selling.
3. I feel very good when I know I have outperformed other salespeople in my company.
4. I always try to communicate my accomplishments to my manager.
5. I spend a lot of time thinking about how my performance compares with other salespeople's.
6. I evaluate myself using my supervisor's criteria.

Sense of Belonging (Connection)

Deci et al. 2001

1. I really like the people I work with.
2. I get along with people at work.
3. I pretty much keep to myself when I am at work. (R)*
4. I consider the people I work with to be my friends.
5. People at work care about me.
6. There are not many people at work that I am close to. (R)*
7. The people I work with do not seem to like me much. (R)*
8. People at work are pretty friendly towards me.

**Dropped from analysis due to loading on a separate, reverse-coded factor.*

Self-Rated Performance

Sujan, Weitz and Kumar 1994

Self-performance related to other salespeople at same company:

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. Identifying major accounts in your territory and selling to them.
5. Exceeding your targets.
6. Assisting your sales supervisor in meeting his/her goals.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994

1. I willingly give my time to help other salespeople who have work-related problems.
2. I willingly take time out of my own busy schedule to help with recruiting or training new salespeople.
3. I "touch base" with others before initiating actions that might affect them.
4. I take steps to try to prevent problems with other salespeople and/or other personnel in the company.
5. I encourage other salespeople when they are down.
6. I act as a "peacemaker" when others in the company have disagreements.
7. I am a stabilizing influence in the company when dissension occurs.
8. I attend functions that are not required but help the company image.
9. I attend training/information sessions that salespeople are encouraged but not required to attend.
10. I attend and actively participate in company meetings.

Constructs and Scale Items (ESSAY 2)

MOTIVATION

Sense of Purpose

Current Authors

1. My work allows me to make a contribution to society.
2. The work I do on my job is part of the legacy I will leave on this earth after I am gone.
3. The work I do on my job impacts the lives of others.
4. The work I do on my job is meaningful to others.
5. I give back to society through the work I do on my job.
6. My work allows me to be part of something bigger than just myself.
7. The better I perform at this job, the more I improve the lives of others.
8. I work for a cause greater than my own paycheck.

Autonomy*Zhang and Bartol 2010*

1. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
2. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
3. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.

Self-Efficacy*Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994*

1. I am good at selling.
2. It is not hard for me to convince a customer to buy from me.
3. I know the right thing to do in selling situations.
4. I find it difficult to overcome a customer's objections (R)
5. My temperament is well suited for selling.
6. I am good at finding out what customers want.
7. It is easy for me to get customers to see my point of view.

Sense of Belonging (Connection)*Deci et al. 2001*

1. I really like the people I work with.
2. I get along with people at work.
3. I pretty much keep to myself when I am at work. (R)*
4. I consider the people I work with to be my friends.
5. People at work care about me.
6. There are not many people at work that I am close to. (R)*
7. The people I work with do not seem to like me much. (R)*
8. People at work are pretty friendly towards me.

**Dropped from analysis due to loading on a separate, reverse-coded factor.*

Intrinsic Motivation*Oliver and Anderson 1994*

1. When I perform well, I know it's because my own desire to achieve.
2. I don't need a reason to sell; I sell because I want to.
3. Becoming successful in sales is something that I want to do for me.
4. If I were independently wealthy, I would still sell for the challenge of it.
5. I wish I didn't have to retire someday so I could always continue selling for the pleasure of it.

Extrinsic Motivation*Oliver and Anderson 1994*

1. If it weren't for the money, I would not be in a selling job.
2. I sell because I get paid to sell.
3. After a long hard day, I realize that if it weren't for the money, I wouldn't put up with this job.

Adaptive Selling (Working Smart)*Spiro and Weitz 1990*

1. When I feel that my sales approach is not working, I can easily change to another approach.
2. I like to experiment with different sales approaches.
3. I am very flexible in the selling approach I use.
4. I can easily use a wide variety of selling approaches.
5. I try to understand how one customer differs from another.
6. Each customer requires a unique approach.
7. I feel that most buyers can be dealt with in pretty much the same manner. (R)*

Transactional Leadership

MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Rich 2001

1. My manager always gives me positive feedback when I perform well
2. My manager gives me special recognition when I perform at a high level.
3. My manager commends me when I exceed my productivity goals
4. My manager frequently does NOT acknowledge my good performance.
5. My manager would indicate his or her disapproval if I performed at a low level.
6. My manager lets me know about it when I perform poorly.
7. My manager points it out to me when my productivity is not up to par.

Transformational Leadership

MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Rich 2001

1. My manager articulates a vision.
2. My manager provides an appropriate model.
3. My manager facilitates the acceptance of group goals.
4. My manager considers my personal feelings before acting.
5. My manager shows respect for my personal feelings.
6. My manager acts without considering my feelings.
7. My manager will not settle for second best
8. My manager insists on only the best performance.
9. My manager makes it clear to me that he or she expects me to give 100% all the time.
10. My manager challenges me to think about old problems in new ways.
11. My manager asks me questions that prompt me to think about the way I do things.
12. My manager has stimulated me to rethink some of the ways I do things.
13. My manager has ideas that have challenged me to reexamine some of my basic assumptions about work.

Constructs and Scale Items (ESSAY 3)

MOTIVATION

Intrinsic Motivation

Oliver and Anderson 1994

1. When I perform well, I know it's because my own desire to achieve.
2. I don't need a reason to sell; I sell because I want to.
3. Becoming successful in sales is something that I want to do for me.
4. If I were independently wealthy, I would still sell for the challenge of it.
5. I wish I didn't have to retire someday so I could always continue selling for the pleasure of it.

Extrinsic Motivation

Oliver and Anderson 1994

4. If it weren't for the money, I would not be in a selling job.
5. I sell because I get paid to sell.
6. After a long hard day, I realize that if it weren't for the money, I wouldn't put up with this job.

Resilience

Campbell-Sills and Stein 2007

1. I am able to adapt to change
2. I can deal with whatever comes
3. I try to see humorous side of problems
4. Coping with stress can strengthen me
5. I tend to bounce back after hardship

6. I can achieve goals despite obstacles
7. I can stay focused under pressure
8. I am not easily discouraged by failure
9. I think of myself as a strong person
10. I can handle unpleasant feelings

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