Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Salesperson Performance

Scott B. MacKenzie
Philip M. Podsakoff
Indiana University

Gregory A. Rich
Bowling Green State University

This study examines the impact of transformational and transactional leader behaviors on the sales performance and organizational citizenship behaviors of salespeople, as well as the mediating role played by trust and role ambiguity in that process. Measures of six forms of transformational leader behavior, two forms of transactional leader behavior, trust, and role ambiguity were obtained from 477 sales agents working for a large national insurance company. Objective sales performance data were obtained for the agents, and their supervisors provided evaluations of their citizenship behaviors. The findings validate not only the basic notion that transformational leadership influences salespeople to perform "above and beyond the call of duty" but also that transformational leader behaviors actually have stronger direct and indirect relationships with sales performance and organizational citizenship behavior than transactional leader behaviors. Moreover, this is true even when common method biases are controlled. The implications of these findings for future research are discussed.

In recognition of the fact that the sales function is vital to the success of organizations, practitioners have long attempted to identify variables that influence the performance of individual salespeople. According to Kohli

(1989), these variables can be categorized into one of three general classes: (1) salespeople's characteristics and role perceptions (Bagozzi 1980; Behrman, Bigoness, and Perreault 1981; Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1976; Cron, Dubinsky, and Michaels 1988; Ingram and Bellenger 1983; Sujan, Sujan, and Bettman 1988), (2) task characteristics (Becherer, Morgan, and Richard 1982; Teas and Horrell 1981; Tyagi 1985), and (3) supervisory behaviors (Kohli 1985, 1989; Teas and Horrell 1981; Teas, Wacker, and Hughes 1979; Tyagi 1982; Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1975, 1977). This research focuses on the third category of variables—that is, on *what a sales manager can do* to enhance the attitudes, role perceptions, and performance of his or her salespeople.

Transactional and Transformational Leadership Behaviors

Research examining supervisory behaviors in a sales context has drawn extensively from leadership theories of organizational behavior. Perhaps the most commonly studied leader behavior in the sales management literature is supervisory feedback (cf. Becherer et al. 1982; Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Kohli 1985; Teas and Horrell 1981; Teas et al. 1979), which relates to the theory of leader-reinforcing behavior (e.g., Hollander and Julian 1978; Podsakoff, Todor, Grover, and Huber 1984; Scott 1977). According to this approach, the key to influencing salesperson performance is for the manager to provide positive feedback (e.g., recognition and/or approval) and negative feedback

(e.g., reprimands and/or disapproval) to salespeople *contingent* on their effort or performance. Because of the give-and-take exchange process associated with this style of leadership, supervisory feedback behaviors such as contingent reward and punishment behaviors have come to be called *transactional* leader behaviors (Bryman 1992). As such, the underlying influence process is one of *instrumental compliance* (cf. Kelman 1958) rather than internalization or identification.

In general, research on transactional leadership has been somewhat disappointing, in that these leader behaviors have not accounted for as much of the variance in performance and other criterion variables (Bryman 1992) as initially expected. In reaction to this, theories of leadership began to emphasize the effects that *exceptional* leaders can have on their subordinates and their organizations (cf. Bass 1985; Bennis and Nanus 1985; Burns 1978; Conger and Kanungo 1987; House 1977; Kuhnert and Lewis 1987; Sashkin 1988; Trice and Beyer 1991). House refers to these types of leaders as "charismatic leaders" (House 1977; House and Shamir 1993), while Bass (1985) prefers to call them "*transformational* leaders." We will use the broader term *transformational* because charisma is viewed as a component of transformational leadership. However, regardless of which term is used, transformational leadership differs from transactional leadership in two fundamental ways.

Differences between transformational and transactional leadership. First, the process through which transformational leaders influence their followers is different. Transformational leadership involves fundamentally changing the values, goals, and aspirations of followers, so that they perform their work because it is consistent with their values, as opposed to the expectation that they will be rewarded for their efforts. For example, as noted by Kuhnert and Lewis (1987), transformational leadership "is made possible when a leader's end values (internal standards) are adopted by followers thereby producing changes in the attitudes, beliefs, and goals of followers" (p. 653).

Similarly, Bryman (1992) has noted that

transforming leadership entails both leaders and followers raising each other's motivation and sense of purpose. This higher purpose is one in which the aims and aspirations of leaders and followers congeal into one. . . . Both leaders and followers are changed in pursuit of goals which express aspirations in which they can identify themselves. (P. 95)

Thus, in contrast to transactional leadership, transformational leadership influences followers through a process of *internalization* and/or *identification* (cf. Kelman 1958) rather than instrumental compliance.

Second, the behaviors through which transformational leaders influence their followers are also different. Indeed, a review of the leadership literature by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) indicates that transformational leaders get followers to perform above and beyond expectations by articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, providing individualized support and intellectual stimulation, and expressing high performance expectations. These forms of behavior are quite different from contingent reward and punishment behavior, which is typically associated with transactional leadership. Thus, the forms of transformational leadership behaviors are distinct from the forms of transactional leadership behaviors, and the processes through which they work are different.

The potential augmenting effects of transformational leadership behavior. However, despite these differences, the two forms of leadership are hypothesized to be complementary rather than competing. For example, Bass and his colleagues argue that transformational leadership behaviors are important because they *augment* the effects of transactional leadership behaviors:

A key concept of this model of leadership involves . . . the "augmentation effect." The augmentation effect predicts that by measuring transformational leadership behaviors, we can achieve a higher level of precision in predicting extra levels of effort and other relevant criteria, than if we simply rely on previous models of transactional leadership. In the same vein, transformational leadership theory can be viewed as building on earlier theories of leadership in a constructive and integrative manner to explain more fully the range of behaviors and outcomes impacted by various styles of leadership. (Bass and Avolio 1993:53)

Although conceptually distinct, contingent-reward and charismatic leadership both may be displayed by the same individual leader. . . . Thus contingent-reward behavior can be viewed as the basis of effective leadership, and charismatic leadership can be viewed as adding to that base for greater leader effectiveness. (Waldman, Bass, and Yammarino 1990:384)

In other words, theories of transformational leadership posit that most leaders engage in transactional forms of leader behavior by providing feedback contingent on performance, but exceptional leaders go beyond this and also engage in transformational forms of leader behavior. Consequently, these transformational leader behaviors augment or enhance the effectiveness of the leader over and above what she or he could achieve through transactional leadership alone.

Purpose of the Study

Although the augmenting effects of transformational leadership behavior have been examined across a wide variety of samples in both business and nonbusiness settings (see Shamir, House, and Arthur 1993), a number of key issues have not been addressed by previous research. First, Bass's research has focused almost exclusively on the augmenting effects of transformational leadership on self-reported measures of extra effort, rather than objective measures of in-role sales performance. This is important because (1) it is not clear that the concept of extra effort is the same as performance; (2) research by Bommer, Johnson, Rich, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie (1995) indicates that subjective measures of performance and objective measures of performance are not highly correlated and therefore may be differentially affected by these forms of leader behavior; and (3) Bass's measures of extra effort have typically been obtained from the same source as the ratings of leader behavior, which may introduce common method variance (Cote and Buckley 1987; Podsakoff and Organ 1986) into the relationships.

Second, very little research has looked at the augmenting effects of transformational leadership behavior on extra-role behavior. This is important because virtually all theories of transformational leadership (e.g., Bass 1985; Burns 1978; House 1977; House and Shamir 1993) argue that the key attribute of transformational leaders is that they cause followers to perform "beyond expectations." Although this may take the form of higher than expected levels of in-role performance, it is more likely to take the form of extra-role behavior. Indeed, Podsakoff et al. (1990) have hypothesized that transformational leaders (e.g., those who motivate followers "beyond expectations") should have greater effects on extra-role than in-role behaviors.

Third, little is known at the present time about the mechanisms through which these forms of leader behavior influence performance. For example, previous research has documented relationships between various types of transformational leadership and extra effort, but this research provides little insight into why these leader behaviors are associated with higher levels of extra effort. Yukl (1989) has speculated that one of the reasons why followers are motivated by transformational leaders to perform "beyond expectations" is that followers trust and respect them. Indeed, Kouzes and Posner (1987) cite several studies indicating that honesty, integrity, and truthfulness are the leader characteristics most valued by followers. Thus, trust may play an important *mediating* role in the transformational leadership process. Alternatively, it is possible that transformational leadership is associated with extra effort because it provides followers with a clearer perspective on their work and reduces role ambiguity. Thus, role perceptions may also mediate the impact of transformational leadership on performance, as previous research (cf. Kohli 1985, 1989; Teas 1983; Teas et al. 1979; Walker et al. 1975) has shown that role ambiguity mediates the relationship between other forms of leader behavior and subordinate criterion variables. Clearly, a better understanding of the factors mediating the relationship between transformational leadership and performance is needed.

Fourth, little is known about the effects of transformational leadership on the job attitudes, role perceptions, or performance of salespeople. This is important since there are many reasons why the unique nature of the sales job should especially lend itself to the influence of transformational leadership. Relative to those in most other occupations, salespeople experience more role stress and are more likely to face heavy emotional demands (cf. Chonko, Howell, and Bellenger 1986; Cordes and Dougherty 1993). In addition, salespeople often operate with little or no direct supervision and yet must work closely with a divergent set of role partners (cf. Singh, Goolsby, and Rhoads 1994). Finally, salespeople have a tendency to "plateau" or experience career "burnout" (cf. Cron et al. 1988; Singh et al. 1994). Transformational leadership should be especially effective in these types of situations because Bass and his colleagues (Bass, Seltzer, and Numerof 1989) have reported that transformational leadership reduces employee stress and burnout, and Bryman (1992) has argued that transformational leadership plays a major role in establishing core values, which guide the behavior of employees even when the leader is not present.

Therefore, the objective of this research is to examine the effects of transformational leadership behaviors on salespeople in the context of transactional leadership behaviors. In the remainder of this article, we discuss the forms of transactional and transformational leadership identified in the research literature. Following this, a conceptual model is developed that links these leader behaviors to the in-role (i.e., sales productivity) and extra-role (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior) performance of salespeople. Both transformational and transactional leader behaviors are included so that the augmenting effects of transformational leadership can be examined. Finally, a set of hypotheses that ties the leader behaviors to performance, both directly and indirectly through two potential mediators (job satisfaction and trust in one's sales manager), is presented and tested.

TRANSACTIONAL LEADER BEHAVIORS

The vast majority of sales leadership research has examined the effects of supervisory behaviors that have come to be known as transactional leadership (Bryman

1992). Transactional leader behaviors involve an exchange between the leader and follower, such that the leader provides rewards in return for the subordinate's effort (Burns 1978). According to Bass (1985), there are two main forms of transactional leadership behavior. One is contingent reward behavior, which is analogous to positive supervisory feedback—perhaps the most commonly studied supervisory behavior in sales research (cf. Becherer et al. 1982; Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Kohli 1985; Teas and Horrell 1981; Teas et al. 1979). Sales researchers generally regard positive feedback as a sales manager's praise or recognition directed toward a subordinate salesperson performing at or above expectations (e.g., "you did a super job on that sale"). The other form of transactional leadership is called "management by exception" by Bass (1985) and contingent punishment by others (Podsakoff et al. 1984). This behavior consists of a variety of forms of negative feedback (e.g., correction, criticism, and/or other forms of punishment), administered by the manager contingent on poor performance. It is the *contingency* of the punishment that makes this a transactional behavior and distinguishes it from what Kohli (1985) called "arbitrary and punitive behavior."

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADER BEHAVIORS

Although transformational leadership theories (cf. Bass 1985; Bennis and Nanus 1985; Burns 1978; House 1977) are complementary, they each specify a somewhat different set of leader behaviors. In a review of this emerging stream of research, Podsakoff et al. (1990) identified six key classes of transformational leadership behaviors: articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model (e.g., leading by example), fostering the acceptance of group goals, having high performance expectations, providing individualized support, and providing intellectual stimulation. The construct definition of each of these transformational leadership behaviors is presented in Table 1, along with a brief discussion of why each behavior is especially relevant to a sales context.

The basic types of transformational leadership summarized in Table 1 differ from transactional leadership behavior in several ways. First, the most obvious difference is that the forms of transformational leadership behavior involve far more than just the administration of rewards and punishments. Second, as previously noted, the process through which transformational leadership influences followers is different from the process involved in transactional leadership. Transformational leadership involves fundamentally changing the values, goals, and aspirations of followers, so that they perform their work because it is consistent with their values, as opposed to the expectation that they will be rewarded for their efforts.

Finally, the transformational behaviors tend to be more *proactive* ways of influencing subordinates, whereas the transactional behaviors tend to be more *reactive*.

THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The conceptual model to be tested in this research is portrayed in Figure 1. The leader behaviors are hypothesized to affect the performance dimensions, both directly and indirectly through the two mediators (role ambiguity and trust in one's manager). This model indicates that transactional and transformational leadership behaviors may have their effects on in-role and extra-role performance directly (independent of trust and role ambiguity), indirectly (mediated by trust and role ambiguity), or both directly and indirectly. In the figure, the indirect paths from the leader behaviors to the performance dimensions are represented by solid lines, and the direct paths are represented by dotted lines. Thus, trust and role ambiguity are hypothesized to be *partial* mediators of the relationships between transformational and transactional leadership and in-role and extra-role performance. In the following section, the specific hypotheses regarding these direct and indirect effects are discussed.

### Direct (Unmediated) Effects of Leader Behaviors on Performance

In-role sales performance. In this study, a distinction is made between in-role and extra-role performance. In-role performance is defined as those activities or formal requirements that a salesperson is expected to perform to meet the prescribed requirements of the job (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter 1991, 1993; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994; Williams and Anderson 1991). Indeed, this is the construct of interest in the vast majority of sales performance studies (cf. Churchill, Ford, Hartley, and Walker 1985). In particular, sales performance is generally defined narrowly and associated with the salesperson's sales productivity or sales volume (Brown and Peterson 1993). This stems from the fact that salespeople are traditionally evaluated on sales output measures, which tend to be easily assessed and readily available—not to mention vital to the success of the firm.

As discussed previously, transformational leader behaviors should inspire salespeople to perform beyond the minimum levels specified by the organization and thus should positively affect in-role sales performance. This link between transformational leader behaviors and in-role performance has been established in both a laboratory experiment (Howell and Frost 1989) and a number of field studies (Bass 1985). The one exception to this is intellectual stimulation. As noted earlier, leaders who continually encourage or exhort followers to search for new and

TABLE 1
Forms of Transformational Leadership Behavior and Their Potential Importance in a Sales Context

Types of Transformational Leadership	Potential Importance in Sales Context
Articulating a vision—behavior on the part of a manager that is aimed at the identification and expression of a clear vision of the future	All transformational leadership theories regard "vision" as an important component of the transformational leadership process. According to House and Shamir (1993), a vision is "an ideological goal that describes a better future for followers" (p. 97). Given the variable nature of sales situations and the fact that salespeople often face these situations by themselves, such a vision should be especially effective at clarifying a salesperson's role, which should alleviate stress and help them to focus their efforts on the appropriate objectives. Of course, to be useful, the vision should be both viable and consistent with the goals of the organization. Furthermore, unless the vision is clearly expressed in a persistent and vigorous manner, it will never be realized.
Providing an appropriate model—behavior on the part of the sales manager that sets an example for salespeople to follow that is consistent with both the values the sales manager espouses and the goals of the organization	By providing an appropriate role model, a leader becomes an image that helps define for followers just what kinds of traits, values, beliefs, and behaviors it is good and legitimate to develop (House and Shamir 1993). As with a viable vision, a leader who "leads by example," by modeling behaviors that are consistent with an organization's goals, should be particularly effective at clarifying a salesperson's role within that organization.
Fostering the acceptance of group goals—behavior on the part of the sales manager aimed at promoting cooperation among subordinates and getting them to work together toward a common goal, even at the expense of their personal goals and aspirations. In other words, leaders exhibiting this behavior emphasize collective identities and encourage self-sacrifice for the sake of the group.	This leader behavior is important in a sales context because salespeople typically work closely with a divergent set of role partners (which has become even more true with the growing prominence of team selling in organizations). Hence, an organization greatly benefits from having sales managers who can successfully persuade subordinates to sacrifice their own personal goals for the sake of the team.
High performance expectations—behavior that demonstrates high expectations for excellence, quality, and/or high performance on the part of salespeople	Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) found this behavior to be negatively associated with employees' trust in their leaders. This suggests that high performance expectations may have both beneficial and harmful effects. High performance expectations may have beneficial effects on sales productivity (e.g., "in-role" performance) but harmful effects on other aspects of performance (e.g., "extra-role" performance) through its negative effect on trust. However, since Podsakoff et al. (1990) did not use a sales sample or include measures of in-role performance in their study, this hypothesis could not be tested. In view of the revenue-producing responsibilities of salespeople and the fact that a selling organization is greatly served by having its sales force operate at high levels of performance, this hypothesis warrants further testing in a sales sample in which both in-role and extra-role measures of performance are obtained.
Providing individualized support—providing individualized support is defined as behavior on the part of a manager that indicates that he or she respects subordinates and oversees their individual development with concern about their personal feelings and needs	Less consensus is reached regarding whether this behavior is indicative of transformational leadership. However, Bass (1985) does identify "individual consideration" as a transformational leader behavior and has found empirical support that "charismatic" leaders are generally perceived as being "considerate." Providing individualized support may be particularly important in a sales context because salespeople are under heavy emotional demands due to the inevitable ups and downs associated with their job and because their boundary-spanning roles are inherently more stressful. Certainly, the practitioner literature (e.g., Pacetta 1994:42, 55, 58) recognizes that providing individualized support is especially effective in helping sales managers motivate their salespeople.
Intellectual stimulation—behavior on the part of a sales manager that encourages salespeople to reexamine assumptions about their work and to find creative ways of improving their performance	Although Bass (1985) originally hypothesized that this type of leader behavior would have positive effects (perhaps because it is an effective way of enhancing learning and combating "plateauing" and "burnout"), subsequent empirical research has not supported this prediction. Instead, intellectual stimulation has frequently been found to be (1) negatively related to trust and job satisfaction (Podsakoff et al. 1990), (2) positively related to role conflict (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer 1996a), and (3) positively related to burnout and stress (Bass, Seltzer, and Numerof 1989). One possible reason why intellectual stimulation may be dysfunctionally related to subordinate criterion variables may have to do with the destabilizing nature of intellectual stimulation itself. According to Avolio and Bass (1988), intellectual stimulation causes a "cognitive reappraisal of current circumstances," thus possibly reversing an individual's "figure-ground" and leading to a questioning of "old" and perhaps comfortable assumptions. It may be that this process is dissatisfying and that leaders who continually do this are less predictable and/or dependable, or they are viewed as being impossible to please. In the short run, this may lead to increases in role ambiguity, conflict, or stress and decreases in trust and satisfaction. However, in the long run, the effects could be beneficial if intellectual stimulation causes salespeople to experiment with different sales techniques or methods—some of which may prove to be more effective than the ones they are currently using.

FIGURE 1
A Conceptual Model of the Relationships Between Transformational and
Transactional Leadership Behaviors and Salesperson Performance
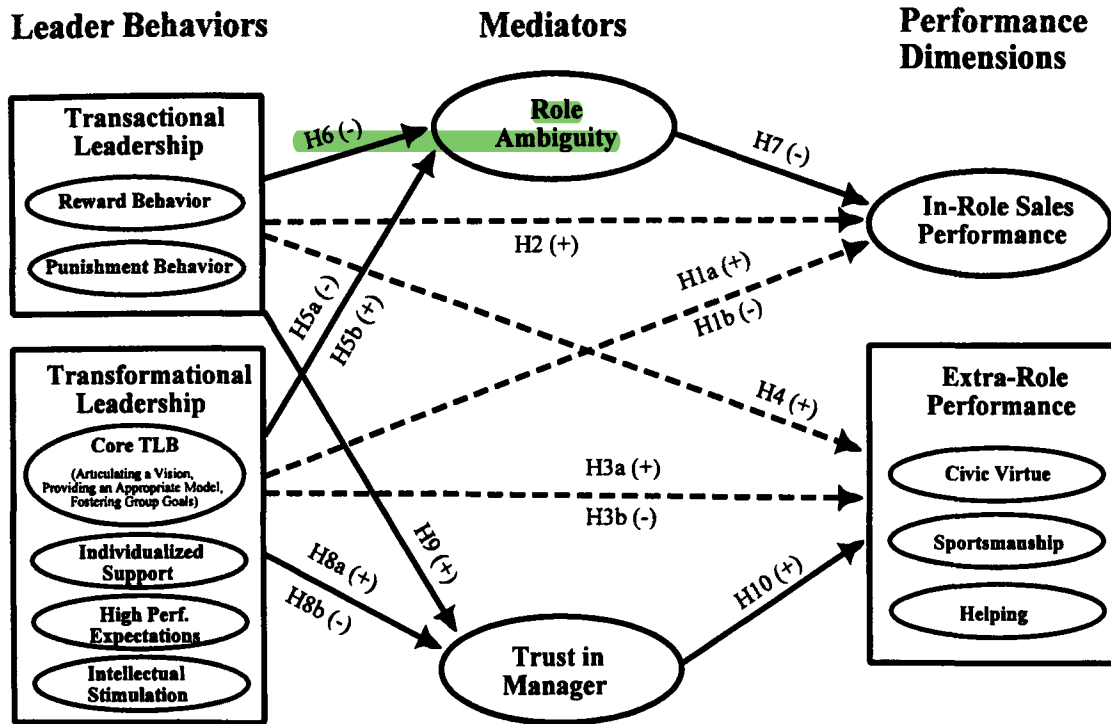
NOTE: Solid arrows are used to depict indirect, mediated relationships; dashed arrows represent direct relationships.

better methods of doing things may increase in-role performance in the long run but decrease it in the short run. The reason for this is that intellectual stimulation may cause salespeople to focus more of their attention on identifying ways of working "smarter" at the expense of working "harder." Another reason that intellectual stimulation may have negative effects on in-role sales performance is that continually pressuring salespeople to search for new and better ways of selling is likely to result in more trial and error, and some of the methods tried simply may not be as effective as the current ones.

Transactional leadership should also lead to greater in-role performance. This behavior should serve a motivational function (cf. Podsakoff et al. 1984; Porter and Lawler 1968), reminding salespeople that their performance is being monitored and that future rewards and punishments are contingent on their level of performance. Thus, a direct linkage should exist between both forms of transactional leader behavior and in-role sales performance. In general, the empirical evidence supports the relationship between contingent reward behavior (positive supervisory feedback) and in-role performance (Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Tyagi 1985) but is less supportive of the relationship between contingent punishment and in-role performance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer

1996a). Nevertheless, based on the above discussion, we expect the following:

Hypothesis 1a: The *core transformational leadership behaviors* (i.e., articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, and fostering the acceptance of group goals), *individualized support,* and *high performance expectations* will be positively related to a salesperson's in-role sales performance.

Hypothesis 1b: Intellectual stimulation will be negatively related to a salesperson's in-role sales performance.

Hypothesis 2: Transactional leader behavior, in the form of *contingent reward behavior* and *contingent punishment behavior,* will be positively related to a salesperson's in-role sales performance.

Extra-role performance. Another distinct aspect of performance that has been found to be important to the success of an organization is extra-role performance. As noted by MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Paine (1999), extra-role performance is defined as behavior on the part of a salesperson that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that is believed to promote the effective functioning of the organization. Typically, these are *not* behaviors that (1) are part of one's

job description, (2) one is trained to perform, and/or (3) one would be punished for failing to exhibit. Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) found that several forms of extra-role behavior (helping, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) had significant effects on sales unit performance and together accounted for approximately 17 percent of the variance. Similar results have also been reported by Walz and Niehoff (1996), who found that the combination of helping behavior, sportsmanship, and civic virtue accounted for an average of about 29 percent of the variance in six objective measures of unit performance (operating efficiency, revenue to full-time equivalent, food cost percentage, customer satisfaction, customer complaints, and overall quality of performance) in limited-menu restaurants. Finally, Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie (1997) examined the effects of helping behavior, sportsmanship, and civic virtue on both the quantity and quality of the paper produced by work crews at a paper mill. These predictors accounted for nearly 26 percent of the variance in production quantity and almost 17 percent of the variance in production quality.

Interestingly, Podsakoff et al. (1990) argue that "the most important effects of transformational leaders should be on extra-role performance, rather than in-role performance" (p. 109). Such leadership is proposed to "lift ordinary people to extraordinary heights" (Boal and Bryson 1988:11) and to cause followers to "do more than they are expected to do" (Yukl 1989:272) and "perform beyond the level of expectations" (Bass 1985). All of this points to behaviors that are of a discretionary nature that are not part of the employee's formal role requirements. Hence, there is strong conceptual support for the notion that transformational leaders motivate their followers to exhibit extra-role behaviors. The one exception to this is intellectual stimulation, which is expected to be negatively related to extra-role performance because the continual pressure to think of new and better ways of selling is likely to cause salespeople to increase their focus on in-role aspects of their behavior at the expense of extra-role behavior and/or cause salespeople to discount the importance of extra-role behavior.

The question of whether transactional leadership results in higher levels of extra-role performance is complex. Certainly, if sales managers provide positive feedback contingent on particular "citizenship behaviors," then a positive relationship should exist. Podsakoff et al. (1990) used this rationale to explain their finding of a significant, direct linkage between contingent reward behavior (i.e., feedback) and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). Indeed, it makes sense that if rewards are administered on a contingent basis, then employees will perceive that they are being treated fairly and trust their managers, thus increasing the likelihood that they would be willing to engage in extra-role behavior (cf. Farh, Podsakoff, and

Organ 1990). By a similar logic, punishment administered contingent on low levels of OCBs should be perceived as fair, thus leading to higher levels of citizenship behavior. Thus, two hypotheses are advanced with regard to the relationship between leader behaviors and extra-role performance:

Hypothesis 3a: The *core transformational leadership behaviors* (i.e., articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, and fostering the acceptance of group goals), *individualized support*, and *high performance expectations* will be positively related to a salesperson's extra-role performance.

Hypothesis 3b: Intellectual stimulation will be negatively related to a salesperson's extra-role performance.

Hypothesis 4: Transactional leader behaviors, in the form of *contingent reward behaviors* and *contingent punishment behaviors*, will be positively related to a salesperson's extra-role performance.

Indirect (Mediated) Effects of Leader Behaviors on Performance

As previously suggested, leader behaviors are likely to have important indirect effects on performance through potential mediator variables. This section addresses the mediating role of two variables: role ambiguity and trust in the sales manager. These variables are important in their own right as criterion variables. However, they are of special interest to us here because of their potential to help us better understand the mechanisms through which transformational and transactional leader behaviors influence in-role and extra-role performance.

Role ambiguity. Role ambiguity is defined as the discrepancy between the amount of information that a person has and the amount that is required to perform the role adequately (cf. Kahn 1973:9) and has been frequently studied in the marketing literature (cf. Teas et al. 1979). Contingent reward and punishment behaviors involve a timely assessment (e.g., through praise or reprimand) of a salesperson's performance. This should increase a salesperson's understanding of his or her role in the organization and thus lead to reduced role ambiguity. This proposed relationship between feedback in the form of contingent reward and punishment behavior and role ambiguity has received both conceptual (Walker et al. 1977) and empirical support (cf. Kohli 1985, 1989; Teas et al. 1979; Walker et al. 1975).

With the exception of intellectual stimulation, transformational leadership behavior should also decrease role ambiguity. For example, transformational leaders clarify a salesperson's role in the organization in two ways: (1) by clearly identifying and articulating a vision that followers are inspired to pursue and (2) by being role models that set an example for their salespeople to follow.

However, as noted earlier, in the case of intellectual stimulation, it can be argued that leaders who continually urge or exhort followers to search for new and better methods of doing things can create ambiguity, conflict, or other forms of stress in the minds of those followers. Based on this rationale, the following is expected:

Hypothesis 5a: The *core transformational leadership behaviors* (i.e., articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, and fostering the acceptance of group goals), *individualized support,* and *high performance expectations* will be negatively related to role ambiguity.

Hypothesis 5b: Intellectual stimulation will be positively related to role ambiguity.

Hypothesis 6: Transactional leader behaviors, in the form of *contingent reward behavior* and *contingent punishment behavior,* will be negatively related to role ambiguity.

Role ambiguity has been found to negatively influence in-role performance in a number of studies (e.g., Jaworski and Kohli 1991), including Brown and Peterson's (1993) meta-analysis. In fact, in another meta-analysis, Churchill et al. (1985) reported that role perceptions were more strongly associated with salesperson performance than any other category of variables examined. The reasoning is simply that salespeople can better focus on appropriate objectives and thus achieve higher performance when they are clear about what they are expected to accomplish. Thus, the next hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: Role ambiguity will be negatively related to salespeople's in-role sales performance.

Trust in the leader. Trust in one's leader is defined as the amount of confidence salespeople have in the fairness and integrity of their leader. The development of a follower's trust in his or her leader is a central element of many transformational leadership theories. For example, Bennis and Nanus (1985) stress the importance of this concept for effective leadership by writing that "trust is the lubrication that makes it possible for organizations to work" (p. 43). Trust also plays a critical role in the transformational leadership writings of Boal and Bryson (1988), Kouzes and Posner (1987), and Yukl (1989). The only empirical study to examine this variable with respect to transformational leadership has been the study by Podsakoff et al. (1990). In this study, trust was conceptualized as faith in and loyalty to the leader and was found to be directly influenced by transformational leadership behaviors. Trust was also important in that it was a key mediator of the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors (see discussion below). Additional support for this relationship was recently provided by Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, and McMurrian (1997),

who found that perceptions of fairness (which are likely to be related to trust) were positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors.

However, intellectual stimulation is expected to have the opposite effects on trust. This is because, as noted by Avolio and Bass (1988), intellectual stimulation causes a "cognitive reappraisal of current circumstances," thus possibly reversing an individual's "figure-ground" and leading to a questioning of "old" and perhaps comfortable assumptions. This process may create emotional distress and cause leaders who continually do this to be trusted less because they are perceived as being less predictable, dependable, and/or impossible to please.

Contingent reward and punishment behaviors are also expected to increase a salesperson's trust in his or her sales manager, for several reasons. Several authors have noted that an employee's trust in his or her leader is fundamentally based on the extent to which the employee feels the manager treats him or her fairly (cf. Alexander and Ruderman 1987; Folger and Konovsky 1989), and these perceptions of fairness depend on the extent to which employees perceive that significant rewards and punishments are distributed according to agreed-on criteria. Thus, as noted by Farh et al. (1990:707), the allocation of feedback contingent on performance can be viewed as an attempt on the part of the leader to fairly administer rewards and punishments according to these criteria. This leads to the next hypotheses:

Hypothesis 8a: The *core transformational leadership behaviors* (i.e., articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, and fostering the acceptance of group goals), *individualized support,* and *high performance expectations* will be positively related to salespeople's trust in their sales manager.

Hypothesis 8b: Intellectual stimulation will be negatively related to salespeople's trust in their sales manager.

Hypothesis 9: Transactional leader behavior, in the form of *contingent reward behavior* and *contingent punishment behavior,* will be positively related to salespeople's trust in their sales manager.

In a nonsales sample, Podsakoff et al. (1990) found trust to be the key mediator of the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and extra-role performance. This relationship is proposed to hold up in a sales context. A sales manager with honesty, integrity, and truthfulness will not only be trusted but will also probably encourage subordinates to demonstrate the same characteristics toward each other—in the form of extra-role behaviors. Thus, the final hypothesis:

Hypothesis 10: Trust will be positively related to extra-role performance.

METHOD

Sample and Data Acquisition

The sample for this study comprised 477 sales agents working for a large national insurance company. The agents in this sample sold multiple lines of life insurance and were paid primarily on a commission basis. Data were collected via questionnaires distributed to sales agents (for the measures of transformational leadership, supervisory feedback, role ambiguity, and trust in one's manager) and their managers (for measures of helping, sportsmanship, and civic virtue), primarily at regional sales meetings. Completed surveys were returned by the respondents directly back to the researchers, mostly in person but a few by mail. Given that most surveys were obtained at regional sales meetings, the response rate was very high (91%). Data on commissions, policies sold, and percentage of quota were obtained from company records. Approximately three quarters of the respondents (77.8%) were male, and their average age was 35 years. About two thirds (66.5%) of the agents had obtained a bachelor's or advanced college degree. The agents had an average company tenure of 3.51 years and had worked with their managers an average of 2.38 years.

Measures

Transformational leadership behaviors. Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) transformational Leadership Behavior Inventory (TLI) was used to assess the leader behaviors measured in the study. This scale measures six dimensions of transformational leadership, including articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, having high performance expectations, providing individualized support, and providing intellectual stimulation. Previous research (cf. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer 1996b; Podsakoff et al. 1990) has provided strong evidence supporting the hypothesized factor structure, internal consistency reliability, and concurrent and discriminant validity of the scale. However, three dimensions (articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, and fostering the acceptance of group goals) were found to be highly intercorrelated and were modeled as indicators of a second-order construct called core transformational leader behavior, as in Podsakoff et al. (1990).

Transactional leadership behaviors. A four-item contingent reward behavior scale (cf. Podsakoff et al. 1984; Podsakoff and Organ 1986) was used to assess the degree to which a leader provides positive feedback, such as recognition, informal rewards, and approval, contingent on high performance levels. Contingent punishment was assessed with three items from Podsakoff et al.'s (1984) con-

tingent punishment scale. Prior research (Podsakoff et al. 1984; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Fetter 1993; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie, and Williams 1993) has shown these two scales to be unidimensional and to possess good psychometric properties.

Role ambiguity. A six-item version of Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman's (1970) scale was used to measure role ambiguity—the discrepancy between the amount of information that a person has and the amount that is required to perform the role adequately (cf. Kahn 1973:9). This scale was selected because it is the most commonly used measure of role ambiguity in both the marketing and management literatures (Jackson and Schuler 1985); it appears to be reasonably reliable and valid (Schuler, Aldag, and Brief 1977), and it is substantially shorter (6 items vs. 45 items) than some of the more "fine-grained" measures that have recently been developed (e.g., Singh and Rhoads 1991).

Trust in the manager. Trust was assessed with a modified version of the scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990, 1996b). Their scale measured both trust in a leader and loyalty to him or her. However, to maximize the comparability between this research and Netemeyer et al.'s (1997) recent research, only the items related to how fairly agents felt they were treated by their managers were used: "I feel quite confident that my supervising manager will always try to treat me fairly," "My supervising manager would never try to gain an advantage by deceiving his/her agents," and "I have complete faith in the integrity of my supervising manager." Thus, the trust scale taps the agent's perceptions of the fairness and trustworthiness of their managers.

In-role performance. In-role sales performance was measured using company records. A salesperson's total commissions, number of policies sold for the year, and percentage of sales quota attained were obtained approximately 6 months after the agents' survey. These measures were then used as multiple indicators of the latent in-role sales performance construct.

Extra-role performance. The scales to measure *extra-role performance* were developed by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994). Three aspects of extra-role behavior were measured—helping behavior, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Helping behavior is a second-order latent construct, consisting of Organ's (1988) altruism and courtesy constructs, both of which share the theme of helping co-workers to solve or avoid work-related problems. This more abstract helping behavior construct was preferred over its more specific subdimensions because previous empirical research by MacKenzie et al. (1991, 1993) indicates that even though altruism and courtesy are conceptually distinct, managers have difficulty making these fine distinctions and tend to lump them together. Perhaps this should not be too surprising since even Organ (1988:12)

has noted the potential difficulty of making some of these discriminations.

Seven-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) were used to assess all of the constructs measured in the present study, with the exception of the objective "in-role" performance measures, which were obtained from company records. The means and standard deviations for the measures are provided in Table 2.

Analytical Procedures

The data analysis was conducted in four major phases. First, we investigated the factor structure, reliability, and discriminant validity of all constructs. Next, we estimated the hypothesized model shown in Figure 1 and tested whether the four transformational leader behaviors, as a group, *augmented* the effect of the two transactional leader behaviors on the criterion variables. Following this, we removed the nonsignificant paths and examined the mediating effects more closely. Finally, since the leader behavior, trust, and role ambiguity data all came from similar response scales (5- to 7-point paper-and-pencil scales) and from the same source (the salespeople), we evaluated the extent to which the relationships among these constructs might be due to common method variance.

RESULTS

Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Assessment of Reliability and Discriminant Validity

The first step in the analysis was to evaluate the factor structure, reliability, and discriminant validity of all constructs using confirmatory factor analysis. The overall fit of the 11-construct confirmatory factor model to the data was good, even though the χ^2 (*df*) was 1515.86 (792). Bentler's (1990) Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was .94, Jöreskog and Sörbom's (1993) Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) was .88, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .04, and the associated probability of a close fit was 1.00. In addition, each of the hypothesized factor loadings was statistically significant at the .01 level, and the completely standardized factor loadings were quite high. As shown in Table 2, only 2 of the 43 loadings were below .50.

Table 3 reports the Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliabilities, average shared variance estimates, and latent construct intercorrelations. Construct reliability was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha and average shared variance estimates. As indicated in this table, the Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliability estimates were all above Nunnally's (1978) recommended level of .70, except for

helping behavior, which had an alpha of .69. Fornell and Larcker's (1981) index of the average amount of variance of each latent factor accounted for in its indicators ($\rho_{vc(\eta)}$) was above the recommended level of .50 for all of the constructs, except for role ambiguity (.42) and civic virtue (.47). Evidence of discriminant validity comes from the fact that all the construct intercorrelations were significantly ($p < .05$) less than 1.00, and the shared variance among any two constructs (i.e., the square of their intercorrelation) was less than the average variance explained in the items ($\rho_{vc(\eta)}$) by the construct (Fornell and Larcker 1981). The only exception to this was in the case of intellectual stimulation and the core transformational leader behavior construct, which met the first requirement but did not quite meet the second. Thus, taken together, the αs, $\rho_{vc(\eta)}$s, and tests of the construct intercorrelations provided good evidence of the convergent and discriminant validity of the constructs.

Test of the "Augmentation" Effects of Transformational Leadership

Since the hypotheses predicted that the transformational leader behaviors (as a group) would augment the impact of the transactional leader behaviors (as a group) on the mediators and criterion variables, it was important first to establish whether this was true. This required the estimation of three models: (1) a combined effects model that included all of the hypothesized effects of both transactional and transformational leadership behaviors, (2) a model that included only the hypothesized effects of the transactional leadership behaviors, and (3) a model that included only the hypothesized effects of the transformational leader behaviors. The results of this analysis are summarized in Table 4. The top row in this table shows the total proportion of variance in the criterion variables (role ambiguity, trust, sales performance, helping behavior, sportsmanship, and civic virtue), accounted for by the combination of the transactional and transformational leadership constructs. The next two rows show the proportion of variance in the criterion variables accounted for by either transactional leadership alone (row 2) or transformational leadership alone (row 3). The difference between the amount of variance accounted for by the combination of transactional and transformational leadership constructs, and the proportion accounted for by transformational leadership alone, is the unique proportion of variance accounted for by the transactional leadership behaviors (see row 4). Similarly, the difference between the amount of variance accounted for by the combination of transactional and transformational leadership constructs, and the proportion accounted for by transactional leadership alone, is the unique proportion of variance accounted for by the transformational leadership behaviors (see row 5).

TABLE 2
Item Means, Standard Deviations, and Standardized Factor Loadings

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standardized Loading
Core transformational leader behavior			
X_1 Articulating a vision[a]	5.11	1.43	0.77
X_2 Providing an appropriate model[b]	5.13	1.62	0.88
X_3 Facilitating the acceptance of group goals[c]	5.18	1.44	0.78
High performance expectations			
X_4 Makes it clear to me that she or he expects me to give 110 percent all of the time	5.29	1.70	0.79
X_5 Insists on only the best performance	5.44	1.49	0.93
X_6 Will not settle for second best	5.01	1.73	0.74
Supportive leader behavior			
X_7 Acts without considering my feelings (R)	5.10	1.96	0.68
X_8 Considers my personal feelings before acting	4.94	1.74	0.83
X_9 Shows respect for my personal feelings	5.44	1.66	0.87
X_{10} Treats me without considering my personal feelings (R)	5.26	1.83	0.71
Intellectual stimulation			
X_{11} Challenges me to think about old problems in new ways	5.12	1.56	0.80
X_{12} Asks questions that prompt me to think about the way I do things	5.29	1.53	0.85
X_{13} Has stimulated me to rethink the way I do some things	5.23	1.56	0.89
X_{14} Has ideas that have challenged me to reexamine some of my basic assumptions about my work	5.16	1.53	0.83
Contingent reward behavior			
X_{15} Always gives me positive feedback when I perform well	5.92	1.53	0.74
X_{16} Gives me special recognition when I produce at a high level	5.68	1.48	0.75
X_{17} Commends me when I exceed my productivity goals	5.86	1.36	0.82
X_{18} Frequently does not acknowledge my good performance (R)	5.73	1.53	0.75
Contingent punishment behavior			
X_{19} Would indicate his or her disapproval if I performed at a low level	5.77	1.55	0.70
X_{20} Lets me know about it when I perform poorly	5.55	1.52	0.80
X_{21} Points it out to me when my productivity is not up to par	5.64	1.46	0.74
Role ambiguity			
Y_1 I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my career as an agent. (R)	2.50	1.54	0.56
Y_2 I know when I have divided my schedule properly. (R)	2.42	1.35	0.48
Y_3 I know what my responsibilities are as an agent. (R)	1.65	0.93	0.71
Y_4 I know exactly what is expected of me as an agent. (R)	1.97	1.24	0.79
Y_5 I feel certain about how much authority I have as an agent. (R)	2.64	1.55	0.58
Y_6 The agent's job has been clearly explained to me. (R)	2.18	1.44	0.72
Trust in manager (fairness)			
Y_7 I feel quite confident that my supervising manager will always try to treat me fairly.	5.88	1.51	0.82
Y_8 My supervising manager would never try to gain an advantage by deceiving his or her agents.	5.61	1.83	0.85
Y_9 I have complete faith in the integrity of my supervising manager.	5.68	1.72	0.88
Objective sales performance			
Y_{10} Total commissions (in $100.00s per week)	3.10	1.38	0.84
Y_{11} Number of applications per week	1.13	0.44	0.68
Y_{12} Percentage of weekly quota	0.98	0.37	0.94
Helping behavior			
Y_{13} Altruism[d]	5.30	1.15	0.65
Y_{14} Courtesy[e]	5.42	1.06	0.81
Sportsmanship			
Y_{15} Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters (R)	5.08	1.80	0.79
Y_{16} Always finds fault with what the agency/company is doing (R)	5.32	1.67	0.80
Y_{17} Tends to make "mountains out of molehills" (makes problems bigger than they are) (R)	4.81	1.77	0.78
Y_{18} Always focuses on what's wrong with his or her situation, rather than the positive side of it (R)	4.92	1.64	0.75
Y_{19} Is the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing (R)	4.92	1.86	0.66
Civic virtue			
Y_{20} "Keeps up" with developments in the agency/company	4.72	1.68	0.81
Y_{21} Attends functions that are not required but that help the agency/company image	4.32	1.65	0.45
Y_{22} Reads and keeps up with the agency/company announcements, messages, memos, etc.	4.96	1.61	0.75

NOTE: (R) indicates that the scores on the items have been reversed. All estimates significant at $p < .01$. Comparative Fit Index = .94; Normed Fit Index = .88; Goodness-of-Fit Index = .88; root mean square error of approximation (pclose) = .044 (1.00); and χ^2 was 1515.86 with 792 degrees of freedom ($p < .01$).
a. Five-item scale from Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990).
b. Three-item scale from Podsakoff et al. (1990).
c. Four-item scale from Podsakoff et al. (1990).
d. Three-item scale from MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1993).
e. Two-item scale from Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994).

TABLE 3
Construct Intercorrelations and Reliability Estimates

	α	$\rho_{vc(\eta)}$	CPB	CRB	Core-TLB	SUP	HPE	IS	ROLAMB	TRUST	SALES PERF	HELP	SPORT	CIVIC
Contingent punishment (CPB)	0.87	0.56	1.00											
Contingent reward (CRB)	0.79	0.59	0.56	1.00										
Core transformational leadership (Core-TLB)	0.86	0.66	0.55	0.77	1.00									
Individualized support (SUP)	0.85	0.60	0.14	0.68	0.70	1.00								
High performance expectations (HPE)	0.90	0.68	0.80	0.57	0.72	0.32	1.00							
Intellectual stimulation (IS)	0.88	0.71	0.60	0.71	0.85	0.59	0.64	1.00						
Role ambiguity (ROLAMB)	0.81	0.42	–0.38	–0.34	–0.48	–0.28	–0.38	–0.35	1.00					
Trust (TRUST)	0.88	0.72	0.41	0.74	0.85	0.76	0.55	0.66	–0.43	1.00				
Sales performance (SALES PERF)	0.86	0.68	–0.06*	0.07*	0.05*	0.13	0.01*	–0.05*	–0.20	0.08*	1.00			
Helping (HELP)	0.69	0.54	0.23	0.22	0.29	0.20	0.20	0.21	–0.12	0.27	0.06*	1.00		
Sportsmanship (SPORTS)	0.87	0.57	0.16	0.13	0.23	0.13	0.23	0.23	–0.06*	0.18	0.06*	0.73	1.00	
Civic virtue (CIVIC)	0.70	0.47	–0.09*	0.04*	–0.02*	0.10	–0.05*	–0.07*	0.03*	–0.02*	0.13	0.61	0.26	1.00

*Not significant at .05 level.

TABLE 4
Partitioning of Variance in Subordinate Criterion Variables by Transformational and Transactional Leadership Behaviors

	Role Ambiguity (%)	Trust (%)	Objective Sales Performance (%)	Helping Behavior (%)	Sportsmanship (%)	Civic Virtue (%)	χ^2	df
Total variance accounted for by both transactional and transformational leadership behavior	29	80	10	11	7	6	1518.16	797
Variance explained by transactional leadership alone	21	75	7	8	5	4	1694.89	821
Variance explained by transformational leadership alone	26	80	9	9	6	5	1549.07	809

|							$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
Unique variance attributable to transactional leadership	3	0	1	2	1	1	30.91	12 (p < .01)
Unique variance attributable to transformational leadership	8	5	3	3	2	2	176.73	24 (p < .01)

As shown in the bottom two rows in this table, transformational leadership uniquely accounts for more variance in every one of the criterion variables than transactional leadership. This pattern is particularly strong for the mediators, in which transformational leadership accounts for almost three to five times more variance than the transactional leadership behaviors. Moreover, the additional variance uniquely attributable to transformational leader behaviors is statistically significant. This was tested by calculating the difference between the chi-square associated with the combined model in the top row of the table ($\chi^2 = 1518.16$, $df = 797$) and the chi-square associated with the transactional leadership–only model in row 2 of the table ($\chi^2 = 1694.89$, $df = 821$). This difference of 176.73 was significant ($p < .01$) at 24 df and indicates that the transformational leader behaviors have a significant effect over and above the effect of the transactional leader behaviors. Thus, as predicted, the findings indicate that transformational leadership augments the impact of transactional leadership.

Hypothesis Testing

Next, the hypothesized model shown in Figure 1 was estimated, nonsignificant paths were trimmed from the model, and the overidentifying restrictions were tested.

FIGURE 2
Corrected[a] and Uncorrected[b] Standardized Estimates for the Confirmed Relationships
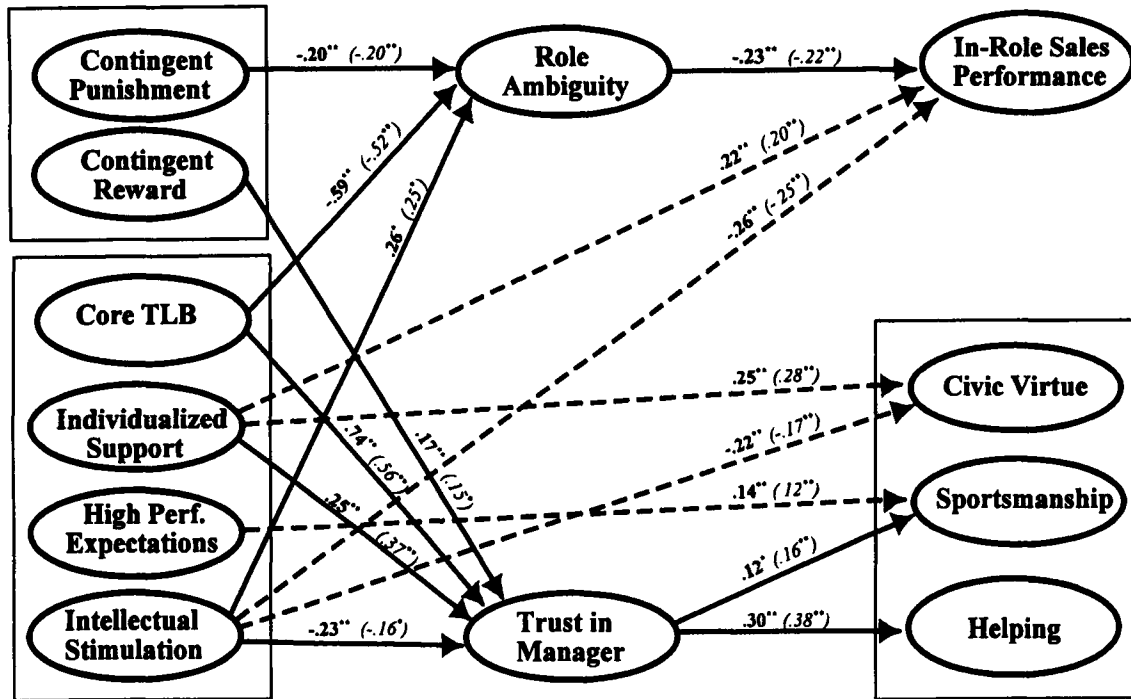
a. Standardized estimates corrected for measurement error and common method variance are shown in italics and parentheses.
b. Standardized estimates corrected for measurement error only are shown in bold.
*p < .05, one-tailed. **p < .01, one-tailed.

The results are shown in Figure 2. Overall, this model adequately fit the data. The chi-square (df) was 1548.52 (822), the CFI was .94, the GFI was .88, the RMSEA was .04, and the associated probability of a close fit was 1.00. In the remainder of this section, the tests of the individual hypotheses will be reported.

Direct relationships with in-role sales performance. Hypothesis 1a predicted that the transformational leader behaviors (core transformational leader behaviors, individualized support, and high performance expectations) would be positively related to in-role sales performance. As indicated in Figure 2, this hypothesis received mixed support. Individualized support was positively related (β = .22) to in-role sales performance, but high performance expectations and the core transformational behaviors were not. Hypothesis 1b predicted that intellectual stimulation would be negatively related to in-role sales performance, and this hypothesis was confirmed (β = -.26). Finally, transactional leader behavior was predicted in Hypothesis 2 to be positively related to in-role sales performance. However, this hypothesis was not confirmed for either contingent reward or contingent punishment behavior.

Direct relationships with extra-role performance. Generally speaking, the direct relationships between the leader

behaviors and extra-role performance predicted by Hypothesis 3a, Hypothesis 3b, and Hypothesis 4 received only minimal support from the data. Of the 18 relationships predicted, the only significant ones were the positive relationship between individualized support and civic virtue (β = .25), the positive relationship between high performance expectations and sportsmanship (β = .14), and the negative relationship between intellectual stimulation and civic virtue (β = -.22). Thus, the findings provide only modest support for Hypothesis 3b, weaker support for Hypothesis 3a, and no support for Hypothesis 4.

Indirect relationships mediated by role ambiguity. Hypothesis 5a predicted that the core transformational leader behaviors, individualized support, and high performance expectations would be negatively related to role ambiguity. This hypothesis received mixed support. As expected, the core transformational leader behaviors were negatively related to role ambiguity (β = -.59). However, high performance expectations were not related to role ambiguity. Hypothesis 5b predicted that intellectual stimulation would be positively related to role ambiguity, and it was (β = .26). Hypothesis 6, which predicted that contingent reward and contingent punishment would have negative relationships with role ambiguity, was partially confirmed. Contingent punishment was negatively related to role am-

biguity ($\beta = -.20$) as expected, but contingent reward behavior was not. Finally, Hypothesis 7 predicted that role ambiguity would be negatively related to in-role sales performance. This hypothesis was supported ($\beta = -.23$).

Indirect relationships mediated by trust. Trust was hypothesized to be positively related to the core transformational leader behaviors, individualized support, and high performance expectations (Hypothesis 8a); negatively related to intellectual stimulation (Hypothesis 8b); and positively related to both contingent reward and punishment behaviors (Hypothesis 9). Generally speaking, these hypotheses received a considerable amount of support. The core transformational leader behaviors were positively related to trust ($\beta = .74$), as were individualized support ($\beta = .25$) and contingent reward behavior ($\beta = .17$). Intellectual stimulation was negatively related to trust ($\beta = -.23$). Finally, reasonably strong support was found for Hypothesis 10. Trust was positively related to helping behavior ($\beta = .30$) and sportsmanship ($\beta = .12$), as expected, but was not related to civic virtue.

In summary, if one only looks at the direct relationships between the transformational and transactional leader behaviors and the performance constructs, or only at the direct relationships between the leader behaviors and the mediators, support for the hypothesized effects is only modest. Greater than chance to be sure (12 of 36 relationships were supported), but not overwhelming. However, when the direct and indirect relationships are taken together as summarized in Table 5, a more interesting and coherent picture of the impact of these two fundamental forms of leader behavior emerges. As indicated in this table, two forms of transformational leadership behavior (individualized support and intellectual stimulation) had direct or indirect relationships with in-role sales performance and all three forms of extra-role behavior. Core transformational leadership behavior had indirect relationships with in-role sales performance and two of the three forms of extra-role behavior. The leader behavior with the fewest relationships was high performance expectations, having only a direct relationship with sportsmanship. Finally, contingent reward behavior had an indirect relationship with helping behavior and sportsmanship, and contingent punishment behavior had an indirect relationship with in-role sales performance. Overall, this indicates that transformational leadership has some significant effects on in-role and extra-role performance over and above those produced by transactional leadership behaviors.

Proportion of Variance Accounted for by Predictor Variables

Generally speaking, the findings indicate that the transformational and transactional leader behaviors

accounted for substantial proportions of the variance in trust and role ambiguity and more modest proportions of variance in the performance constructs. Trust was influenced by both transformational and transactional leadership, and together these behaviors accounted for 79 percent of the variance of a salesperson's trust in his or her manager. Both forms of leadership also influenced role ambiguity, and together these behaviors accounted for 26 percent of the variance in this criterion variable. Similarly, the direct and indirect effects on in-role sales performance involved both forms of leader behavior, and together they accounted for 9 percent of the variance in in-role sales performance. This is significant, in that the in-role sales performance construct was measured with three different objective measures of sales performance. Finally, the direct and indirect effects of the transformational and transactional behaviors accounted for 9 percent of the variance in helping behavior, 5 percent of the variance in sportsmanship, and 5 percent in civic virtue.

Assessment of the Effects of Common Method Variance

One partial explanation for these rather dramatic differences in the amount of variance explained in the different criterion variables is that the leader behaviors, trust, and role ambiguity measures were all filled out by the same person, and thus they may share common method variance (cf. Cote and Buckley 1987; Podsakoff and Organ 1986). The performance measures, on the other hand, do not share this source of bias because they were either obtained from sales managers or company records. As noted by Cote and Buckley (1987), common method biases can increase or decrease the observed relationships.

To assess the potential impact of this form of bias on the hypothesized relationships, we refit the model with a same-source first-order factor added. This extra factor was defined as having all 30 of the salespersons' self-report measures as indicators (i.e., the 14 transformational and 7 transactional leader behavior measures, 3 trust measures, and the 6 role ambiguity measures) and thus captures any additional systematic method variance common to these measures (e.g., common rater bias, social desirability, "yea saying," etc.). This procedure of controlling for common method artifacts has been employed in several previous studies (cf. MacKenzie et al. 1991; MacKenzie et al. 1993; MacKenzie et al. 1999; Podsakoff et al. 1990). The estimates of the relationships after correcting for common method variance are shown in italics in Figure 2.

Three conclusions are warranted. First, as shown by the differences in the corrected and uncorrected parameter estimates, common method variance had little effect on the strength or significance of the observed relationships. Thus, the relationships between the leader behaviors, mediators, and criterion variables were not substantially

TABLE 5
Summary of Significant Direct and Indirect Relationships
Between Leader Behaviors and Salesperson Performance

Leader Behaviors	In-Role Performance	Extra-Role Performance		
		Helping Behavior	Sportsmanship	Civic Virtue
Core transformational leadership	Indirect effect (via role ambiguity)	Indirect effect (via trust)	Indirect effect (via trust)	—
Individualized support	Direct and indirect effect (via role ambiguity)	Indirect effect (via trust)	Indirect effect (via trust)	Direct effect
Intellectual stimulation	Direct and indirect effect (via role ambiguity)	Indirect effect (via trust)	Indirect effect (via trust)	Direct effect
High performance expectations	—	—	Direct effect	—
Contingent reward behavior	—	Indirect effect (via trust)	Indirect effect (via trust)	—
Contingent punishment behavior	Indirect effect (via role ambiguity)	—	—	—

influenced by common method variance. Second, we found that the inclusion of a common method factor reduced the amount of variance accounted for in both trust and role ambiguity. The proportion of variance in trust decreased from 79 percent to 71 percent, and the proportion of variance in satisfaction decreased from 26 percent to 20 percent. Third, when this factor was added, the proportion of variance accounted for in helping behavior increased from 9 percent to 14 percent, and the proportion of variance accounted for in both civic virtue and sportsmanship increased from 5 percent to 6 percent. This happened because adding the common method factor slightly changed the factor loadings for the leader behavior, role ambiguity, and trust constructs, which in turn affected the relationships between these constructs and the extra-role performance constructs.

DISCUSSION AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study indicate that transformational leader behaviors augment the impact of transactional leader behaviors on a variety of mediators and criterion variables, thus validating the basic notion that transformational leader behaviors influence followers to perform above and beyond the call of duty. Moreover, this pattern of effects is impressive because the transformational leader behaviors generally had stronger direct and indirect relationships with the mediators and the criterion variables than the transactional leader behaviors studied so frequently in the sales literature (cf. Becherer et al. 1982; Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Kohli 1985, 1989; Teas et al. 1979). At a minimum, this suggests that sales managers may be able to improve their effectiveness substantially by paying more attention to their transformational leadership behavior. This means that they need to think more carefully about how they can do a better job of articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model,

fostering the acceptance of group goals, and providing individualized support.

However, it is one thing to say a sales manager should do a better job of "articulating a vision," "providing an appropriate model," "fostering the acceptance of group goals," and "providing individualized support"; it is quite another matter to specify exactly *how* a sales manager might exhibit these behaviors. Although future research should examine more closely the particular form these behaviors should take (being careful to recognize that it might vary across sales contexts), Table 6 takes a first step in this direction by outlining how one sales manager exhibited these forms of behavior in a difficult situation. In his book, titled *Don't Fire Them, Fire Them Up*, Frank Pacetta (1994), a sales manager for Xerox Corporation, discussed the style of leadership he used to turn around the poor performance of his sales force. Although unaware of the theories of transformational leadership, Pacetta recommended a variety of leadership practices that are clear examples of these forms of leadership behavior.

For example, Pacetta (1994) emphasizes the importance of vision articulation when he says, "Troubled organizations don't have the faintest idea where they are going, and the uncertainty is corrosive. Whether you see yourself as the coach or the cavalry, tell 'em where they're headed! That's job one" (p. 24). Similarly, he notes the importance of providing an appropriate model when he states, "I believe in the power of personal example. You can rant and rave and threaten, but the most effective way to get results is to show someone what you want done" (p. 22). The importance of fostering the acceptance of group goals is reflected in his comment that "the hardest, most rewarding thing a leader is called on to do is to build a team. The flashiest rhetoric, slickest marketing strategy, and most sophisticated marketing techniques are useless without an effective team" (p. 103). Finally, Pacetta's recognition of the importance of providing individualized support is clear from his comment that "to succeed in a turnaround situation as I did . . . what you need—and I don't care

TABLE 6
Examples of Transformational Leader Behaviors in a Sales Context

Transformational Leader Behaviors	Excerpts From Don't Fire Them, Fire Them Up, by Frank Pacetta (1994)
Articulating a vision	"Many times—probably most of the time—[failure is due to] poor leadership. That's why on a sports team, when there's a losing streak, the coach gets fired, not the players. The players have the skills and the desire, otherwise they wouldn't have made the cut; what's missing is the direction, the coordination, the motivation that can only be provided by a leader. Making a statement early—and itself, that's powerful and reassuring news. Even more important, though, is the central message of this truism—if you don't know where you're going, you'll never get there. Troubled organizations don't have the faintest idea where they're going, and the uncertainty is corrosive. Whether you see yourself as a coach or the cavalry, tell 'em where they're headed! That's job one." (pp. 23-24)
	"As I spoke, I had been clutching a black knitted ski cap in my left hand. I held it up so they could see the logo of a popular New York State resort. 'This is where we're headed next year,' I said. 'I want all of you to join me there to celebrate. We're going to have an tremendous blowout. And you're going to deserve it because we're going to be back on top, where we belong.' The ski cap was a symbol of the vision—Cleveland number one district—and I carried that damned cap to every meeting." (p. 35)
Providing an appropriate role model	"I believe in the power of personal example. You can rant and rave and threaten, but the most effective way to get results is to show someone what you want done. . . . I was at my desk the first day—and every day—by 7 am. The management staff didn't have to be charter members of Mensa . . . to know that it made sense for them to roll in at about the same time." (p. 22)
	"At the end of our first meeting, I turned to my managers and said, 'I hope everybody has a full day planned. I know I do.' I told them that when the meeting adjourned, all of us were going to hit the street. All of us—myself included." (p. 52)
Fostering the acceptance of group goals	A rep has "to get the message and get it straight: A lone wolf doesn't succeed. The team succeeds. . . . So who cares if a rep is standoffish as long as he or she is selling copiers? I care. I need forty people selling copiers, not just a handful of hotshots. If one person doesn't make his or her budget, the whole district will be dragged down. I want the strongest performers to help energize the not-so-strong." (p. 57)
	"The hardest, most rewarding thing a leader is called on to do is build a team. The flashiest rhetoric, slickest marketing strategy, and most sophisticated management techniques are useless without an effective team." (p. 103)
	"I often head off trouble by suggesting that the strongest performers help those who are struggling. If I have reps who have difficulty closing a sale, I'll approach my best closers and ask them to work with those people and give them some pointers. I could do it myself, but it's better to foster interaction between colleagues. I'm dissolving and merging the isolated pockets of excellence and mediocrity. Also, the attitude that success comes at the expense of one's colleagues (talk about poison!) can be held in check." (p. 146)
Individualized support	"In Cleveland my objective was to mentor each of my managers directly. In turn, I wanted them to serve as mentors to the reps." (p. 42)
	"To succeed in a turnaround situation, as I did . . . what you need—and I don't care where it comes from—is respect for people. If it's not there, please do something else with your career. Forget management. Leadership starts and ends with people." (p. 55)
	"Before I set foot in Cleveland, I knew the names of my new managers and reps. I had reviewed their business backgrounds and acquainted myself with important aspects of their personal lives—spouses, kids, hobbies. Believe me, it isn't hard to do. . . . By hitting the road with the reps immediately after the first meeting, I did two things: one, I let them know I was going to be a hands-on manager—a leader—who gets out in front of the customer, and two, that I intended to stay in close personal contact with the reps and managers." (p. 58)

where it comes from—is respect for people. If it's not there, please do something else with your career. Forget management. Leadership starts and ends with people" (p. 55). These quotes, along with the more specific examples provided in Table 6, show how a sales manager can begin to exhibit key transformational leadership behaviors in the workplace.

Of course, this is not to say that sales managers should ignore the potential impact of transactional leadership behaviors. In the present study, we found that contingent reward behavior had positive effects on helping and sportsmanship, mediated by trust; contingent punishment

behavior also had a positive effect on in-role sales performance, mediated by role ambiguity. The indirect effect of contingent reward behavior on helping behavior and sportsmanship suggests that sales managers who carefully monitor the performance of their sales personnel and make a point of commending, praising, and/or recognizing their contributions to the organization will be rewarded by higher levels of employee performance. Similarly, sales managers who make a point of disciplining sales representatives who are not living up to performance expectations will increase in-role sales performance by reducing role ambiguity.

The functional effects of contingent punishment on role ambiguity and in-role sales performance observed in the present study are particularly interesting when compared with Kohli's (1985) research on the effects of supervisory reward and punishment behaviors. Kohli hypothesized that arbitrary and punitive supervisory behavior would be positively correlated with role clarity (or negatively correlated with role ambiguity) but found that it was negatively correlated with role clarity. He speculated that

> punishment may have a negative impact [on role clarity] primarily when a leader is indiscriminately punitive. That is, punishment meted out in response to and with the intention of modifying specific undesirable subordinate behaviors may have a positive rather than a negative impact. (P. 429)

This is precisely what we found. Indeed, our results suggest that contingent punishment (e.g., punishment that is administered in response to poor or ineffective sales behavior) reduced role ambiguity. Thus, as suggested by Kohli (1985), punishment has beneficial effects, when it is made contingent on inappropriate or dysfunctional behavior, and harmful effects, when it is arbitrarily administered. Overall, this suggests that in addition to transformational behaviors, leaders also need to be careful to administer verbal rewards and punishments contingent on appropriate performance.

Finally, the results showed that managers who continually try to get their subordinates to identify better and better ways of doing their jobs tend to have subordinates who are less productive and are less willing to help others, be good sports, and exhibit civic virtue. In part, this is because intellectual stimulation tends to diminish trust and increase role ambiguity. At a minimum, these findings suggest that the effects of intellectual stimulation are more complex than Bass (1985) originally thought. Although intellectual stimulation may indeed produce the desirable effects expected by Bass in the long run, it appears that in the short run, leaders who continually urge or exhort followers to search for new and better methods of doing things create ambiguity and thereby diminish in-role performance and are perceived as less trustworthy, thus reducing extra-role performance. Indeed, this is consistent with recent research (cf. Podsakoff et al. 1990) that also suggests that intellectual stimulation decreases citizenship behavior (e.g., helping behavior and sportsmanship) by decreasing trust.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of this study suggest several interesting avenues for further investigation. One might be to examine additional consequences of transformational leadership. The relationship between transformational leadership and

a salesperson's goal orientation (cf. Sujan, Weitz, and Kumar 1994) could be a good place to start. For example, it would not be unreasonable to expect a manager's intellectual stimulation behavior to enhance a salesperson's learning orientation (and perhaps diminish his or her performance orientation) or to expect a manager's constant emphasis on high performance expectations to increase a salesperson's performance orientation, perhaps at the expense of his or her learning orientation. It might also be worthwhile to examine the effects of transformational leadership on job attitudes and turnover. For example, one could hypothesize that when sales managers articulate a vision, their salespeople become more satisfied with their jobs (perhaps because articulating a vision enhances their perceptions of the meaningfulness of their work and/or convinces them that the manager knows what she or he is doing), more committed to the organization (perhaps because they are excited by the plans for the future of the organization or unit), and, as a result, less likely to voluntarily leave the organization. Finally, Boal and Bryson (1988) suggest that transformational behavior on the part of the leader will enhance the self-esteem of subordinates, arouse their needs, prompt them to accept challenging goals, and enhance their performance expectations; Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) also note the ability of transformational leaders to "motivate followers to accept and accomplish difficult goals that followers would have not normally pursued" (p. 653) and get followers to internalize the values of the leader. Thus, there may be additional benefits of transformational leadership that need to be examined.

It might also be interesting to investigate the dynamic effects of transformational leadership over time. This would not only serve to better confirm the hypothesized direction of causality but might also help us to better understand the nature of some of the relationships examined in this research. For example, intellectual stimulation was negatively related to performance in the short run, but it is not clear whether this would also be true in the long run. If, indeed, intellectual stimulation increases a person's learning orientation, and if learning orientation increases effort and performance (cf. Sujan et al. 1994), it may be that the benefits of intellectual stimulation will only be seen after a strong learning orientation (or learning culture) develops. This might also suggest that the potential benefits of this form of behavior will only be found in environments where employees stick around long enough to learn from the trial-and-error experimentation process stimulated by a manager's intellectual stimulation behavior. The life insurance industry that provided the context of this research is notorious for high rates of turnover, as are several other industries such as retailing. Perhaps in sales environments with less turnover, the observed relationship between intellectual stimulation and performance would be different.

Finally, future research should also examine why a number of hypothesized effects were not supported. When the pattern of nonsignificant relationships is examined, it is clear that almost all of the nonsignificant relationships either involved the hypothesized effects of high performance expectations or were hypotheses positing a direct relationship between a leader behavior and extra-role performance. Although it is not immediately obvious why high performance expectations had so few effects, it may have had to do with the way in which high performance expectations were measured. House (1977) suggests that two aspects of high performance expectations are important. One is that the leader must demonstrate high expectations for excellence to his or her subordinates. The other is that the leader must express confidence that his or her followers can achieve the expected level of performance. In retrospect, our measures do a good job of tapping the former component but not the latter. It may be natural for a salesperson to distrust a manager who continually demands high levels of performance without ever expressing any confidence in his or her ability to achieve those expectations. Therefore, future research focusing on the effects of high performance expectations should be careful to measure both the level of expectations set as well as the extent to which the leader expresses confidence in the salesperson's ability to meet those sales expectations.

In retrospect, the fact that many of the direct effects of the transformational and transactional leader behaviors on extra-role performance were nonsignificant is perhaps easier to understand. The overall pattern of findings demonstrates that trust is a key mediator of the relationships between transformational and transactional leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors. Indeed, with the exception of high performance expectations, all of the leadership behaviors influenced trust, and trust subsequently influenced two of the three forms of extra-role performance. This is consistent with the findings of Podsakoff et al. (1990) and suggests that anything leaders can do to build the trust of their sales representatives will improve the effectiveness of their sales unit. Indeed, there has been an increasing amount of interest in the sales literature during the past decade on the importance of building trust in relationship marketing (cf. Morgan and Hunt 1994), in channel relationships (cf. Ganesan 1994; Morgan and Hunt 1994), and in marketing research providers (cf. Moorman, Deshpande, and Zaltman 1993; Moorman, Zaltman, and Deshpande 1992). Our study suggests that sales managers would be wise to pay additional attention to the trust they develop with their salespeople as well.

Ganesan (1994) and Ganesan and Hess (1997) have proposed two distinct dimensions of trust (credibility and benevolence). Each of these dimensions of trust can be conceived of as relating to several levels within an organization (e.g., coworkers or supervisors) or to the organization itself. It may be that these dimensions of trust have differential effects on extra-role behaviors and/or are differentially affected by transformational leadership. For example, it may be that sportsmanship and civic virtue are driven more by a person's trust in the benevolence of one's supervisor (i.e., faith in his or her good intentions and concern for you) than by other forms of trust directed at other levels; civic virtue may also be determined less by trust in the benevolence of one's coworkers than by trust in the benevolence of one's supervisor or in the organization. Similarly, it is possible that articulating a vision has a stronger effect on subordinates' trust in the credibility of a manager (i.e., belief in his or her competence, dependability, and predictability) than on trust in the benevolence of a manager, while individualized support has a stronger impact on trust in the benevolence of a manager than on trust in the credibility of a manager. Thus, future research needs to investigate the nature of the role played by trust in mediating the impact of specific forms of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors on salesperson performance.

REFERENCES

Alexander, S. and M. Ruderman. 1987. "The Role of Procedural and Distributive Justice in Organizational Behavior." *Social Justice Research* 1 (2): 177-198.

Avolio, Bruce J. and Bernard M. Bass. 1988. "Transformational Leadership, Charisma, and Beyond." In *Emerging Leadership Vistas*. Eds. James G. Hunt, B. Ram Baliga, H. P. Dachler, and Chester A. Schriesheim. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 29-49.

Bagozzi, Richard P. 1980. "Salesforce Performance and Satisfaction as a Function of Individual Difference, Interpersonal, and Situational Factors." *Journal of Marketing Research* 15 (November): 517-533.

Bass, Bernard M. 1985. *Leadership and Beyond Expectations*. New York: Free Press.

————— and Bruce J. Avolio. 1993. "Transformational Leadership: A Response to Critiques." In *Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directives*. Eds. Martin M. Chemers and Roya Ayman. New York: Academic Press, 49-80.

—————, J. G. Seltzer, and R. E. Numerof. 1989. "Transformational Leadership: Is It a Source of More or Less Burnout and Stress?" *Journal of Health and Human Resources Administration* 12 (1): 174-185.

Becherer, Richard C., Fred W. Morgan, and Lawrence M. Richard. 1982. "The Job Characteristics of Industrial Salespersons: Relationship to Motivation and Satisfaction." *Journal of Marketing* 46 (Fall): 125-135.

Behrman, Douglas N., William J. Bigoness, and William D. Perreault, Jr. 1981. "Sources of Job Related Ambiguity and Their Consequences Upon Salespersons' Job Satisfaction and Performance." *Management Science* 27 (11): 1246-1260.

Bennis, Warren G. and Burt Nanus. 1985. *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge*. New York: Harper & Row.

Bentler, Peter M. 1990. "Comparative Fit Indexes in Structural Models." *Psychological Bulletin* 107 (2): 238-246.

Boal, Kimberly B., and J. M. Bryson. 1988. "Charismatic Leadership: A Phenomenological and Structural Approach." In *Emerging Leadership Vistas*. Eds. James G. Hunt, B. Ram Baliga, H. P. Dachler, and Chester A. Schriesheim. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 5-28.

Bommer, William, Jonathan L. Johnson, Gregory A. Rich, Philip M. Podsakoff, and Scott B. MacKenzie. 1995. "On the Interchangeability of Objective and Subjective Measures of Employee Performance: A Meta-Analysis." *Personnel Psychology* 48:587-605.

Brown, Steven P. and Robert A. Peterson. 1993. "Antecedents and Consequences of Salesperson Job Satisfaction: Meta-Analysis and Assessment of Causal Effects." *Journal of Marketing Research* 30 (February): 63-77.

Bryman, Alan. 1992. *Charisma and Leadership in Organizations*. London: Sage.

Burns, James M. 1978. *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.

Chonko, Lawrence B., Roy D. Howell, and Danny N. Bellenger. 1986. "Congruence in Sales Force Evaluations: Relation to Sales Force Perceptions of Conflict and Ambiguity." *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management* 6 (May): 35-48.

Churchill, Gilbert, Jr., Neil M. Ford, Steven W. Hartley, and Orville C. Walker, Jr. 1985. "The Determinants of Salesperson Performance: A Meta-Analysis." *Journal of Marketing Research* 22 (May): 103-118.

———, ———, and Orville C. Walker, Jr. 1976. "Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction in the Salesforce." *Journal of Marketing Research* 13 (November): 323-332.

Conger, Jay A. and Rabindra N. Kanungo. 1987. "Toward a Behavioral Theory of Charismatic Leadership in Organizational Settings." *Academy of Management Review* 12 (4): 637-647.

Cordes, Cynthia L., and Thomas W. Dougherty. 1993. "A Review and Integration of Research on Job Burnout." *Academy of Management Review* 18 (4): 621-656.

Cote, Joseph and M. Ronald Buckley. 1987. "Estimating Trait, Method, and Error Variance: Generalizing Across 70 Construct Validation Studies." *Journal of Marketing Research* 24 (August): 315-318.

Cron, William L., Alan J. Dubinsky, and Ronald E. Michaels. 1988. "The Influence of Career Stages on Salespeople's Job Attitudes, Work Perceptions, and Performance." *Journal of Marketing* 52 (January): 78-92.

Farh, Jing Lih, Philip M. Podsakoff, and Dennis W. Organ. 1990. "Accounting for Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Leader Fairness and Task Scope Versus Satisfaction." *Journal of Management* 16 (4): 705-721.

Folger, Robert and Mary A. Konovsky. 1989. "The Effects of Procedural and Distributive Justice on Reactions to Pay Raise Decisions." *Academy of Management Journal* 32 (1): 115-130.

Fornell, Claes and David F. Larcker. 1981. "Evaluating Structural Equation Models With Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error." *Journal of Marketing Research* 18 (February): 39-50.

Ganesan, Shankar. 1994. "Determinants of Long-Term Orientation in Buyer-Seller Relationships." *Journal of Marketing* 58 (February): 1-19.

——— and Ron Hess. 1997. "Dimensions and Levels of Trust: Implications for Commitment to a Relationship." *Marketing Letters* 8 (4): 439-448.

Hollander, Edwin P. and James W. Julian. 1978. "Studies in Leader Legitimacy, Influence, and Innovation." In *Group Processes*. Ed. Leonard Berkowitz. New York: Academic Press, 115-151.

House, Robert J. 1977. "A 1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership." In *Leadership: The Cutting Edge*. Eds. James G. Hunt and Lars L. Larson. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.

——— and Boas Shamir. 1993. "Toward the Integration of Transformational, Charismatic, and Visionary Theories." In *Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions*. Eds. Martin M. Chemers and Roya Ayman. San Diego: Academic Press, 81-107.

Howell, Jane M. and Peter J. Frost. 1989. "A Laboratory Study of Charismatic Leadership." *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 43 (April): 243-269.

Ingram, Thomas N. and Danny N. Bellenger. 1983. "Personal and Organizational Variables: Their Relative Effect on Reward Valences of Industrial Salespeople." *Journal of Marketing Research* 20 (May): 198-205.

Jackson, Susan E. and Randall S. Schuler. 1985. "A Meta-Analysis and Conceptual Critique of Research on Role Ambiguity and Role Conflict in Work Settings." *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 36 (1): 16-78.

Jaworski, Bernard and Ajay K. Kohli. 1991. "Supervisory Feedback: Alternative Types and Their Impact on Salespeople's Performance and Satisfaction." *Journal of Marketing Research* 28 (May): 190-201.

Jöreskog, Karl G. and Dag Sörbom. 1993. *LISREL 8: Analysis of Linear Structural Relations by the Method of Maximum Likelihood*. Chicago: International Education Services.

Kahn, Robert L. 1973. "Conflict, Ambiguity and Overload: Three Elements in Job Stress." *Occupational Mental Health* 3 (1): 2-9.

Kelman, Herbert C. 1958. "Compliance, Identification and Internalization: Three Processes of Opinion Change." *Journal of Conflict Resolution* 2:51-60.

Kohli, Ajay K. 1985. "Some Unexplored Supervisory Behaviors and Their Influence on Salespeople's Role Clarity, Specific Self-Esteem, Job Satisfaction, and Motivation." *Journal of Marketing Research* 22 (November): 424-433.

———. 1989. "Effects of Supervisory Behavior: The Role of Individual Differences Among Salespeople." *Journal of Marketing* 53 (October): 40-50.

Kouzes, James M. and Barry Z. Posner. 1987. *The Leadership Challenge: How to Get Extraordinary Things Done in Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kuhnert, Karl W. and Philip Lewis. 1987. "Transactional and Transformational Leadership: A Constructive/Developmental Analysis." *Academy of Management Review* 12 (4): 648-657.

MacKenzie, Scott B., Philip M. Podsakoff, and Richard Fetter. 1991. "Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Objective Productivity as Determinants of Managerial Evaluations of Salespersons' Performance." *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 50 (October): 123-150.

———, ———, and ———. 1993. "The Impact of Organizational Behavior on Evaluations of Salesperson Performance." *Journal of Marketing* 57 (January): 70-80.

———, ———, and Julie Beth Paine. 1999. "Do Citizenship Behaviors Matter More for Managers Than for Salespeople?" *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science* 27 (October): 396-410.

Moorman, Christine, Rohit Deshpande, and Gerald Zaltman. 1993. "Factors Affecting Trust in Marketing Research Relationships." *Journal of Marketing* 57 (January): 81-101.

———, Gerald Zaltman, and Rohit Deshpande. 1992. "Relationships Between Providers and Users of Marketing Research: The Dynamics of Trust Within and Between Organizations." *Journal of Marketing Research* 29 (August): 314-328.

Morgan, Robert M. and Shelby D. Hunt. 1994. "The Commitment-Trust Theory of Relationship Marketing." *Journal of Marketing* 58 (July): 20-38.

Netemeyer, Richard G., James S. Boles, Daryl O. McKee, and Robert McMurrian. 1997. "An Investigation Into the Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors in a Personal Selling Context." *Journal of Marketing* 61 (July): 85-98.

Nunnally, Jum C. 1978. *Psychometric Theory*. 2d ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Organ, Dennis W. 1988. *Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good Soldier Syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Pacetta, Frank. 1994. *Don't Fire Them, Fire Them Up: A Maverick's Guide to Motivating Yourself and Your Team*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Podsakoff, Philip M., Michael Ahearne, and Scott B. MacKenzie. 1997. "Organizational Citizenship Behavior and the Quantity and Quality of Work Group Performance." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 82 (April): 262-270.

——— and Scott B. MacKenzie. 1994. "Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Sales Unit Effectiveness." *Journal of Marketing Research* 31 (August): 351-363.

———, ———, and William H. Bommer. 1996a. "Meta-Analysis of the Relationships Between Kerr and Jermier's Substitutes for Leadership and Employee Job Attitudes, Role Perceptions, and Performance." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 81 (4): 380-399.

———, ———, and ———. 1996b. "Transformational Leader Behaviors and Substitutes for Leadership as Determinants of Employee Satisfaction, Commitment, Trust, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors." *Journal of Management* 22 (2): 259-298.

———, ———, and Richard Fetter. 1993. "Substitutes for Leadership and the Management of Professionals." *Leadership Quarterly* 4 (1): 1-44.

———, ———, Robert H. Moorman, and Richard Fetter. 1990. "Transformational Leader Behaviors and Their Effects on Followers' Trust in Leader, Satisfaction, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors." *Leadership Quarterly* 1 (2): 107-142.

————, Brian P. Niehoff, Scott B. MacKenzie, and Margaret L. Williams. 1993. "Do Substitutes for Leadership Really Substitute for Leadership? An Empirical Examination of Kerr and Jermier's Situational Leadership Model." *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 54:1-44.

————— and Dennis W. Organ. 1986. "Self-Reports in Organizational Research: Problems and Prospects." *Journal of Management* 12 (4): 531-544.

————, William D. Todor, Richard A. Grover, and Vandra L. Huber. 1984. "Situational Moderators of Leader Reward and Punishment Behaviors: Fact or Fiction?" *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 34 (1): 21-63.

Porter, Lyman W. and Edward E. Lawler. 1968. *Managerial Attitudes and Performance*. Homewood, IL: Dorsey-Irwin.

Rizzo, John R., Robert J. House, and S. I. Lirtzman. 1970. "Role Conflict and Ambiguity in Complex Organizations." *Administrative Science Quarterly* 15 (1): 150-163.

Sashkin, Marshall. 1988. "The Visionary Leader." In *Charismatic Leadership: The Elusive Factor in Organizational Effectiveness*. Eds. Jay Conger and Rabindra Kanungo. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schuler, Randall S., Ramon J. Aldag, and Arthur P. Brief. 1977. "Role Conflict and Ambiguity: A Scale Analysis." *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 20 (October): 111-128.

Scott, William E. 1977. "Leadership: A Functional Analysis." In *Leadership: The Cutting Edge*. Eds. James E. Hunt and Larry L. Larson. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.

Shamir, Boas, Robert J. House, and Michael B. Arthur. 1993. "The Motivational Effects of Charismatic Leadership: A Self-Concept Based Theory." *Organization Science* 4 (November): 577-594.

Singh, Jagdip, Jerry R. Goolsby, and Gary K. Rhoads. 1994. "Behavioral and Psychological Consequences of Boundary Spanning Burnout for Customer Service Representatives." *Journal of Marketing Research* 31 (November): 558-569.

————— and Gary K. Rhoads. 1991. "Boundary Role Ambiguity in Marketing-Oriented Positions: A Multidimensional, Multifaceted Operationalization." *Journal of Marketing Research* 28 (August): 328-338.

Sujan, Harish, Mita Sujan, and James R. Bettman. 1988. "Knowledge Structure Differences Between More Effective and Less Effective Salespeople." *Journal of Marketing Research* 25 (February): 81-86.

————, Barton A. Weitz, and Nirmalya Kumar. 1994. "Learning Orientation: Working Smart and Effective Selling." *Journal of Marketing* 58 (July): 39-52.

Teas, R. Kenneth. 1983. "Supervisory Behavior, Role Stress, and the Job Satisfaction of Industrial Sales People." *Journal of Marketing Research* 20 (February): 84-91.

————— and James F. Horrell. 1981. "Salespeople Satisfaction and Performance Feedback." *Industrial Marketing Management* 10 (February): 49-57.

————, John G. Wacker, and R. Eugene Hughes. 1979. "A Path Analysis of Causes and Consequences of Salespeople's Perceptions of Role Clarity." *Journal of Marketing Research* 16 (August): 355-369.

Trice, Harrison M. and Janice M. Beyer. 1991. "Cultural Leadership in Organizations." *Organizational Science* 2 (May): 149-169.

Tyagi, Pradeep K. 1982. "Perceived Organizational Climate and the Process of Salesperson Motivation." *Journal of Marketing Research* 19 (May): 240-254.

————. 1985. "Relative Importance of Key Job Dimensions and Leadership Behaviors in Motivating Salesperson Work Performance." *Journal of Marketing* 49 (Summer): 76-86.

Waldman, D. A., Bernard M. Bass, and Francis J. Yammarino. 1990. "Adding to Contingent Reward Behavior: The Augmenting Effect of Charismatic Leadership." *Group & Organization Studies* 15:381-394.

Walker, Orville C., Jr., Gilbert A. Churchill, Jr., and Neil M. Ford. 1975. "Organizational Determinants of the Industrial Salesman's Role Conflict Ambiguity." *Journal of Marketing* 39 (January): 32-39.

————, —————, and —————. 1977. "Motivation and Performance in Industrial Selling: Present Knowledge and Needed Research." *Journal of Marketing Research* 14 (May): 156-168.

Walz, Sarah M. and Brian P. Niehoff. 1996. "Organizational Citizenship Behaviors and Their Effect on Organizational Effectiveness in Limited-Menu Restaurants." In *Academy of Management Best Papers Proceedings*. Eds. J. B. Keys and L. N. Dosier. Madison, WI: Omnipress, 307-311.

Williams, Larry J. and Shiela E. Anderson. 1991. "Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment as Predictors of Organizational Citizenship and In-Role Behaviors." *Journal of Management* 17 (3): 601-617.

Yukl, Gary A. 1989. *Leadership in Organizations*. 2d ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Scott B. Mackenzie (Ph.D., UCLA, 1983) is the IU Foundation Professor of marketing at the Kelley School of Business, Indiana University. His research on advertising effectiveness, organizational citizenship behavior, and leadership issues can be found in the *Journal of Marketing Research, Journal of Marketing, Journal of Consumer Research, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, Journal of Applied Psychology, Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, Personnel Psychology, Journal of Management*, and *The Leadership Quarterly*. Currently, he serves on the editorial boards of the *Journal of Marketing Research, Journal of Marketing, Journal of Consumer Research, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, and *Journal of Consumer Psychology*.

Philip M. Podsakoff (DBA, Indiana University, 1980) is a professor of organizational behavior and human resources and the John F. Mee Chair of Management at the Kelley School of Business, Indiana University. He is the author or coauthor of more than 65 articles and/or scholarly book chapters that have appeared in such journals as the *Journal of Marketing, Journal of Marketing Research, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Academy of Management Journal, Psychological Bulletin, Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, Journal of Applied Psychology, The Leadership Quarterly, Organizational Dynamics, Research in Organizational Behavior, Journal of International Business Studies, Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, and the *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*. He serves on the Board of Editors of the *Journal of Applied Psychology, Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, and *The Leadership Quarterly*.

Gregory A. Rich (Ph.D., Indiana University, 1996) is an assistant professor of marketing at Bowling Green State University. His primary research interest is in the application of leadership theory to issues of sales management, and his work has been published in the *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, Personnel Psychology, Journal of Business-to-Business Marketing*, and several conference proceedings.