

A Multi-component View of Procedural Justice: Effects on Satisfaction and Performance

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ABSTRACT

Previous studies suggested that perceptions of procedural justice can enhance salesperson job satisfaction and performance. However, limited research has outlined the impact of salesforce procedural justice perceptions on salesforce performance. In this study, we present a theoretical model that examines the effect of five procedural justice components (decision influence, manager knowledgeability, explanation, positive feedback, and standing) on salesperson satisfaction and job performance. We tested the model with a sample of B2B salespeople and the results highlight the importance of employing a multi-component model of procedural justice for understanding and enhancing salesperson job satisfaction and performance. The mediating effects of satisfaction are supported. The results of the study have important managerial and theoretical implications.

INTRODUCTION

The sales force plays a critical role in a B2B context as the primary link between buying and selling firms. Salespeople, as the selling firm's boundary spanners, drive the buying firm's perceptions of the selling firm's reliability, the value proposition, and the relationship between the firms (Weitz and Bradford 1999, p.241). Salespeople's job dissatisfaction and poor performance directly lead to lost productivity, extra managerial time devoted to underperforming employees, poor customer service, and ultimately affects customer satisfaction and retention (Netemeyer et al. 2004). It is therefore crucial to identify the factors that can enhance sales force job satisfaction and performance.

Industrial and organizational psychologists have identified the perceived justice of the processes through which reward allocations decisions are made to be an important influence of employee attitudes and behaviors (Chang and Dubinsky 2005). Accordingly, prior research has isolated justice concerns to be important predictors of performance (Konovsky and Cropanzano 1991). Perceived injustice of the processes through which allocation decisions are made may affect salespeople's job performance (Podsakoff and Mackenzie 1994). However, limited sales research has focused on the role of procedural justice in influencing salesforce performance (Roberts et al. 1999). The extant research that has isolated the importance of justice perceptions in driving performance but in doing so has conceptualized procedural fairness primarily in global terms (e.g. Ramaswami and Singh 2003). Research in procedural justice (Colquitt et al. 2001) has identified a variety of elements related to procedural justice (e.g., decision control, decision influence, explanation, manager knowledgeability, positive feedback, and standing) however prior studies in marketing and sales have generally neglected a multiple component view of procedural justice. We believe that this global conceptualization presents an incomplete picture of the effect of procedural justice on sales force performance.

The purpose of this research is to explore how perceptions of procedural justice about managerial behaviors may affect sales force job satisfaction and performance. We achieve this by presenting a theoretical model of procedural justice (Figure 1) that separately considers the distinct components of procedural justice and attempts to capture their various influences on job satisfaction and performance. Specifically our theoretical model attempts to highlight what salespersons consider when making procedural justice judgments and posits that components of procedural justice effect salesforce performance through the mediating variable of job satisfaction. The five key procedural justice elements examined in our model cover multiple theories and models, such as the group value model (Tyler and Lind 1992) and Leventhal's criteria (Leventhal 1980). Our

research considers the impact of procedural justice perceptions and their effect on salesperson job satisfaction and performance since justice research generally shows that job performance is more closely linked to procedural justice than other types of justice (Colquitt et al. 2001). We empirically test our theoretical model with a sample of business-to-business salespeople.

This research thus contributes to the extant literature on justice in the salesforce in the following ways. Our first contribution is that we introduce the multiple components of procedural justice to the research in salesforce in marketing and highlight their distinct effects on salesperson performance. Prior studies in sales have not examined these elements simultaneously. In doing so we extend the research on procedural justice perceptions in the salesforce. Second, we test both the direct of the distinct components of procedural justice elements on job performance as well as the indirect effects of these components through the mediating variable of job satisfaction since these relationships have not been tested in a sales management context. Managerially, this approach is more useful than a single-component approach (Kumar, Stern, and Achrol 1992; Kumar, Scheer, and Steenkamp 1995). Managers can now use their understanding of the multiple components of procedural justice and develop specific strategies to enhance salesforce performance.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. We first develop hypotheses with regard to the relationships among procedural justice elements, job satisfaction and performance. We then highlight the methodology for our research. This is followed by presentation of the analysis and results of our study. We conclude by forwarding a discussion of the findings and implications for future research.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Our research model (Figure 1) includes five procedural justice elements as predictors of job satisfaction, which, in turn, predicts job performance. The framework positions job satisfaction as mediating the effects of procedural justice on salesforce performance. The following section develops the hypotheses relating the constructs in our research model.

Procedural Justice Elements and Job Satisfaction

Five key procedural justice elements are examined in this study: decision influence, manager knowledgeability, explanation, positive feedback and standing. We follow the theoretical suggestions of Lind and Tyler (1988) and Colquitt, et al. (2001) to look at broader conceptions of procedural justice that include multiple perspectives and constructs from the differing models. Likewise, we look to previous studies such as Tyler (1994) and Brashear, Manolis and Brooks (2005) that have merged constructs from multiple theoretical models to test the combined affects of procedural justice. In choosing the constructs we aimed to be inclusive while also focus on parsimony. To that end, we look at elements of procedural justice that match with various streams of research in sales management related to leadership, control, coaching, and relationships to have a representative construct from areas salient to the sale literature and sales management practice. These elements cover various models and frameworks in the justice literature and reflect salespeople's justice concerns.

Decision Influence

In this study, decision influence is defined as the degree to which a salesperson can influence the sales manager's decision-making process and the actual decisions made. Thibaut and Walker (1975) created a control-oriented model depicting the drivers of fairness judgments in dispute resolution procedures. They argued that the key procedural characteristic that shapes people's

opinions about the fairness of the procedures is the distribution of influence between disputants and the third-party decision maker. The more the procedure's structure allows disputants to influence the process, the more the disputants would perceive the procedure as fair.

Decision influence is highly valued for two reasons. Firstly, decision influence is instrumental to obtaining satisfactory and favorable outcomes (Tyler and Lind 1992). Decision influence provides outcome control by informing the decision maker. Salespeople believe that the sales manager, once informed, will take their expressed views into consideration and make decisions in their favor (Folger 1977). Moreover, decision influence allows salespeople to accept decisions they consider as desirable and reject unfavorable decisions, and therefore, satisfy their self-interests. Secondly, decision influence is valued because it affirms the salesperson's status with the sales manager and the selling firm. Salespersons feel respected and valued when they have decision influence. They like to participate in decision-making and express their views and opinions. If managers listen to their "voice," they will feel satisfied. This satisfaction involves something beyond instrumental concerns. Even when their opinions do not really accomplish anything, they still feel satisfied (Lind et al. 1990). Therefore, salespeople are concerned with decision influence when they assess their job satisfaction.

H1: Decision influence is positively related to job satisfaction.

Manager Knowledgeability

Manager knowledgeability describes a manager's familiarity with the salesperson's work (Greenberg 1986). It refers to a manager's familiarity with the local conditions under which the salesperson operates (Kumar et al. 1995). These conditions include the roles the salesperson plays in the company, the importance of job, the challenges of job, and how to succeed in job. Manager knowledgeability is related to perceived consideration and quality of decisions. Salespeople expect the managers to be aware of the difficulties of their sales conditions and provide rewards not only for sales but also for the time invested in cold calls. When a manager is knowledgeable about the salesperson's local conditions, the salesperson perceives that the manager considers these conditions in the decision-making and decisions, which are based on good information, are accurate and favorable. On the contrary, if the manager is not familiar with the salespeople's work, evaluation of their performance is likely to be error-ridden and inaccurate. Previous studies found that employees reported injustice and felt unsatisfied when their evaluations were made by uninformed supervisors (Cederblom 1982; Greenberg 1986; Landy et al. 1978). Thus, we propose that:

H2: Manager knowledgeability is positively related to job satisfaction.

Explanation

Salespeople's perceptions of job satisfaction are influenced not only by the formal procedures used to allocate rewards, but also by the quality of interpersonal treatment in the decision-making procedures (Greenberg 1990). One aspect of this treatment is the adequate explanations of decisions (Tyler and Bies 1989). Explanation is the degree to which the sales manager provides the salespersons with a coherent rationale for decisions and policies (Kumar et al. 1995).

Explanations provide the salespeople with the information about how decisions are made (Bobocel and Zdaniuk 2005). Salespeople often have little knowledge on how the organizational decisions are made, and therefore explanations offered by the sales managers are critical for

salespeople to evaluate whether a decision is fair or not. Even though explanation occurs after decisions have been made and people do not participate in the decision-making process, people still feel satisfied with the job and their relationships with the manager and the organization (Folger and Cropanzano 1998). A recent meta-analysis (Shaw et al. 2003) also shows that explanations can enhance perceived fairness. Although no study has explicitly examined the role of explanations in the sales management context, we can infer from the results of organizational studies that the explanation provided by the sales manager can significantly enhance the salespeople's job satisfaction. Thus, we propose that:

H3: Explanation provided by the sales manager is positively related to the salespeople's job satisfaction.

Positive Feedback

Supervisory feedback is a useful mechanism for enhancing salespeople's job satisfaction (Teas and Horrell 1981; Teas, Wacker and Hughes 1979). It refers to "a sales manager's praise or recognition directed toward a subordinate salesperson" (Rich 1998, pp. 57). A supervisor may provide salespeople feedback on their sales, gross profits, selling strategies and work procedures. Salespeople appreciate receiving feedback (positive or negative) from their supervisors, since it helps them learn what are the appropriate behaviors and perform in line with organizational policies and objectives (Jaworski and Kohli 1991). Although it is generally found that positive feedback is positively related to job satisfaction and performance, the relationship between negative feedback and job outcomes is not well supported (e.g. Jaworski and Kohli 1991; Rich 1998).

There is an exchange between the manager and the salesperson involved in positive feedback. The manager provides this reward to the salesperson in return for his effort in the work (Bass 1985). Positive feedback validates the salesperson self-identity. It indicates that they have high status within the organization. On the other hand, positive feedback also makes salespeople believe that the organization is functioning properly and fairly. Therefore, positive feedback from the sales manager can enhance salespeople's job satisfaction. Chang (2004) also showed that positive feedback could effectively improve sales representatives' job satisfaction and raise sales. Thus, we propose that:

H4: Positive feedback is positively related to job satisfaction.

Standing

Standing refers to "the quality of treatment that people experience in their interactions with group authorities" (Tyler and Lind 1992). It reflects the degree to which salespeople are treated with politeness, dignity and respect by their supervisors. Standing is important because it provides information to people about their status in the group (Tyler and Blader 2000). Treating people with politeness and dignity can make them feel welcome as members of a group (Tyler and Lind 1992). Courteous treatment by the manager indicates that the salesperson is a valuable group member. This knowledge that one is valued and worthy should increase his job satisfaction and job performance.

A number of studies confirm the importance of the standing issue in assessing job satisfaction and performance. For example, Masterson et al. (2000) integrated organizational justice theory and social exchange theory to study the different effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. They found that employees' perceptions of their standing are positively related to their performance and job satisfaction. Malatesta and Byrne (1997) also found similar results in

their field study. In the sales management context, Kashyap et al. (2007) found standing makes an impact on both sales force perceptions of procedural justice and the manager-sales force relationalism. Brashear et al. (2003) found standing influences on sales force job satisfaction and relationalism through two trust-building processes (predictive and identification). Thus, we propose that:

H5: Standing is positively related to job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction and Performance

Job satisfaction is generally defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke 1976, pp. 1300). In sales management literature, it has been investigated as a salesperson’s affective state relative to some job facets, such as the supervisor, the work itself, pay, promotion opportunities and co-workers (Brown and Peterson 1993). Job satisfaction is widely studied in sales force research because of its close relationship with job performance. Job performance captures a salesperson’s behavior in the workplace. Generally, most researchers believe that job satisfaction is positively associated with job performance (Organ 1977; Petty et al. 1984). However, there are conflicting opinions on whether job satisfaction precedes job performance, or job performance causes job satisfaction. In a recent sales force meta-analysis (Franke and Park, 2006), which combined findings from 155 samples of more than 31, 000 salespeople, the test of reciprocal relationships indicated that job satisfaction leads to job performance rather than performance preceding satisfaction. Conceptual and empirical supports for the satisfaction-performance relationship are also found in general organizational studies (Harrison & Newman 2006). Thus, we propose that:

H6: Job satisfaction is positively related to job performance.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The sample frame of this study is a list containing B2B salespeople from a wide range of B2B products, services and industries in the northeastern United States. Salespeople were contacted by phone to examine whether they were qualified and willing to participate in the study. In order to be qualified, salespeople had to have worked full-time in B2B markets, with a minimum of 6 months tenure working with their immediate supervisors. Surveys were distributed to 621 salespeople who met the requirements and were willing to participate. After eight weeks, 408 surveys were received. Because of missing data, six surveys were eliminated, resulting in a sample size of 402 with response rate of 64.7%.

The mean age of the respondents was 37 years. 64% of the respondents were married, and 78% were male. The respondents had an average of 11.92 (SD = 8.93) years of total sales experience. The average sales experience at their current firm was 7.2 (SD = 6.52) years. In order to test non-response bias, we compared the top and bottom quartile based on time of response (Armstrong and Overton 1977). No significant differences were found regarding age, gender, industry, type of product or service, income, length of employment, length of the sales manager-sales person relationship, or the constructs of interest.

Measures

All constructs were measured using multi-item scales adapted from previous literature. These measurements have high reliability, with Cronbach’s alpha values larger than 0.80 and average

variance extracted (AVE) values higher than 0.65. Table 1 lists the items, the sources, psychometric properties, item-factor correlations (LAMBDA) and factor loadings. For manager knowledgeability, positive feedback, standing and job satisfaction, respondents were asked to state their agreement or disagreement on a 7-point scale from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. For decision influence, respondents were asked to indicate their participation in decisions that directly affect them. The endpoints on the response scale were from “Never” to “Always”. For performance, the salespeople were asked to self-rate their job performance in terms of sales generated, goal achievement and assisting their managers. The 7-point scale was from “among the worst in the company” to “among the best in the company”.

[Insert Table 1 about here]

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

We used structural equation modeling with LISREL 8.30 for data analysis. The multivariate normality was evaluated with D’Agostino module in SAS (D’Agostino et al. 1990). Our results showed that the variables are normally distributed, thus justifying our use of maximum likelihood (ML) as estimation method. We followed the recommended two-step approach by first finding an acceptable CFA model, then estimating a structural path model. Potential advantages of two-step method over one-step modeling are: it is easier to locate the source of poor model fit and easier to avoid potential interpretational confounding (Kline 2004). To investigate the effects of common-method variance, we followed the procedures described by Netemeyer et al. (1997). We re-estimated the research model in Figure 1 by adding a common method factor to the indicators of all model constructs. The results show that the difference in fit between the constrained model (i.e. the research model M1) and the unconstrained model (i.e. the common method factor model) is significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 230$, $\Delta df = 32$, $p < 0.01$), indicating that a common method factor is evident. However, the magnitude and significance of the path estimates did not change much after introducing the common method factor to the model. Hence a common method was not regarded to be a problem in this study.

Measurement Model Analysis

First, we specified a CFA model with all possible unanalyzed associations among the factors and indicator error variances were estimated. The overall model fit is very good. ($\chi^2_{413} = 1469.21$, $p < .001$, CFI = .97, SRMR = .096, RMSEA = .08). The ratio of Chi-square to degree of freedom is 3.56, which is in the acceptable range. Table 2 provides descriptive statistics and the estimated correlations among constructs. The estimated factor correlations are not very high (i.e. .20 to .75), showing discriminant validity (See Table 2). The items also show strong convergent validity by all loading on their own factors with loadings much higher than their standard errors. From Table 1, we find that all indicator-factor correlations are higher than 0.60. The average variance extracted estimates are also included in Table 1, which assess the amount of variance captured by a construct’s measure relative to measurement error (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw 2000). The AVE for all the measures is higher than .65, indicating validity of these measures. Discriminant validity was evaluated using both the Fornell and Larcker (1981) approach comparing AVE to the squared correlations between each re-test was performed for each pair of variables. A second Chi-Square difference test of all items loading on one construct and the conclusion supports the discriminant validity of our measures.

[Insert Table 2 about here]

Structural Model Analysis

We then proceeded to analyze the structural model as presented in Figure 1. The results showed that the model has a good fit ($\chi^2_{418} = 1627.92$, CFI = .97, SRMR = .07, RMSEA = .08). A ratio of Chi-square to degree of freedom is 3.89, in the acceptable range. Table 3 presents the results of our analysis. Five of the six hypothesized paths are significant ($p < .05$). Explanation to job satisfaction is not significant ($\gamma_{72} = -.15$, $t = -1.92$). Satisfaction is positively related to performance, supporting H1 ($\beta_{67} = .35$, $t = 6.87$). The relationship between decision influence and satisfaction (H2) also receives support ($\gamma_{71} = .23$, $t = 4.17$). Manager knowledgeability is positively related to job satisfaction, as predicted in H3 ($\gamma_{73} = .31$, $t = 4.05$). H5 predicts a positive relationship between the positive feedback of the manager and the job satisfaction of the salesperson. This path is significant ($\gamma_{75} = .14$, $t = 1.97$). Standing is also positively related to satisfaction ($\gamma_{74} = .21$, $t = 2.61$), supporting H6. The ability of the model to explain the endogenous variables is reasonably strong with the R-squares for the endogenous variables are 0.13 for job performance and 0.39 for job satisfaction.

[Insert Table 3 about here]

Mediation Model Analysis

To test the mediating effects of job satisfaction in the relationship between the multiple components of procedural justice and job performance, we added direct paths from the five independent variables to job performance to our research model (M1). This mediation model (see Figure 2) yielded the following fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 1598.19$, $df = 413$, $\chi^2/df = 3.87$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .97, SRMR = .06. The chi-square difference test shows that the mediation model is statistically better than the original model (M1) ($\chi^2_D = 29.73$, $df = 5$, $p < .001$). However, none of the new parameter estimates were statistically significant except decision influence. Sobel test (Sobel 1982) in LISREL was used to measure the amount of mediation or indirect effects. An examination of effects decomposition (Table 4) shows that only the indirect effects for decision influence and knowledgeability are significant. The estimate of the indirect effect for decision influence is .06 while that of knowledgeability is 0.04. Since the direct effect of knowledgeability on job performance is insignificant, the influence of manager knowledgeability is fully mediated by job satisfaction. A direct effect for decision influence on job performance is significant, but smaller than its total effect. Thus the effect of decision influence on job satisfaction is partially mediated by job satisfaction. Because the indirect effect is not significant for explanation, standing and positive feedback, the effects of these variables on job performance are unmediated.

[Insert Table 4 at here]

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Overall, the results of this study confirm the theoretical model regarding the relationships among procedural justice elements, job satisfaction and performance. Of the six hypotheses tested, only the hypothesis between explanation and job satisfaction was not supported. These results indicate the robustness of the underlying theoretical framework.

Decision influence, which is based on the control-oriented model, has the greatest effect on job satisfaction and job performance in our model. This is not consistent with the findings of Kim et al. (1991), who studied the effect of procedural justice on two lower-order attitudes. They found that knowledgeability has the greatest impact on trust in head office management. Explanation was found to have the greatest effect on outcome satisfaction. This difference may reflect context-specific procedural justice. Kim et al. (1991) examined the concept in the global strategic

management context, focusing on the justice of strategic decision-making process while our research considers salesperson-manager relationships, which has a more interpersonal element to it.

Explanation was found to have a negative effect on job performance and an insignificant effect on job satisfaction, which runs counter to our proposed hypothesis. The reason behind this could be that our study did not consider the content of the explanation. Perceptions of fairness are not only influenced by the existence of an explanation but also by the content of the explanation (Shaw et al. 2003). Inadequate and unacceptable explanations have negative impacts on job attitudes and behaviors. Moreover, Folger and Cropanzano (1998) specified two different types of communicated explanations – excuses and justifications. Excuses are beneficial in creating a long-term relationship and social harmony. Justifications are related with personal satisfaction (Greenberg 2001). A consideration of both excuses and justifications has the potential to further inform our model.

The results of this study have important theoretical implications. Most previous studies have combined different procedural justice elements into a single variable. This approach makes it difficult to judge the influences of different elements and evaluate their merits. Our research introduces five elements of procedural justice – decision influence, explanation, manager knowledgeability, positive feedback, and standing to the sales management literature. Discriminant validity is found among these variables, indicating that these elements are distinct constructs that build fairness from different aspects. Therefore, it is not appropriate to put them into one construct. Furthermore, our results demonstrated that these five elements have distinct relationships with salespeople's attitudes and behaviors. Measuring them separately allows for a more detailed understanding of the differences among these elements. This study also showed the usefulness of employing a justice framework for understanding salespeople's job satisfaction and performance.

The results of our study have important managerial implications for both sales managers and sales firms as well. According to Colquitt et al. (2001), procedural justice can be a function of both a decision-making agent, and an organization. For sales managers, an effective approach to enhance salespeople's job performance and satisfaction would involve making each salesperson feel that he is important to the group. "Stylish considerations are as important as substantive rewards." (Tyler and Lind 1992, pp.) Managers should focus on developing the appearance of fairness as a management strategy (Greenberg 1990). Specifically, they must be polite, respectful and knowledgeable about their employees' work. They should also convince salespeople that they are willing to consider their point of view in decision-making and give them timely positive feedbacks on their work. The results of this study also provide guidance for organizations about how to best utilize scarce resources to promote procedural justice. Since decision influence and manager knowledgeability have greater impacts on job satisfaction and performance than other elements, organizations might choose to invest resources in the development of fair procedures, such as granting of voice over processes and outcomes, and requiring managers to be familiar with the salesperson's work situations, rather than training managers to be fair.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study has some limitations. First, the cross-sectional nature of our study limits our ability to draw cause-effect inferences. Second, job performance is measured using self-reported scores by the salespersons. Manager-rated performance and objective data can be used to supplement with self-reported scores to measure performance more accurately and completely. Despite these limitations, this study provides useful insights on how to improve salesperson job satisfaction and performance.

This study also suggests several directions for future research. First, although the study considers five key procedural elements in the model, future studies can expand this list by finding more actionable strategies as being a part of procedural justice. Second, some firm characteristic variables may affect the relationships between procedural justice elements and salesperson work outcomes. Another direction for future research is to examine the effects of some firm-level variables, such as firm size, vertical involvement and formalization, on the salesperson-manager relationship. Future studies can also consider the content of explanation and differentiate between the two explanation types of explanation and justification.

Table 1: Individual Measurement Items

	Mean	S.D.	λ^*
Decision Influence (Folger 1977) $\alpha = .92$, AVE = .79			
I have a great deal of influence in decisions made by my manager.	4.52	1.38	0.83
My manager asks for my opinions when making decisions.	4.65	1.52	0.91
My manager actively seeks my ideas when making decisions.	4.53	1.49	0.92
When making decisions, my manager shows high regard for what I think.	4.91	1.41	0.90
Explanation (Kumar et al. 1995) $\alpha = .93$, AVE = .80			
My manager provides valid reasons for any changes in policies.	5.04	1.37	0.87
My manager communicates new policies and their implications.	5.15	1.42	0.93
My manager distributes information about new decision making.	5.10	1.46	0.88
My manager takes time to explain new policies.	4.97	1.45	0.89
Manager Knowledgeability (Kumar et al 1995) $\alpha = .93$, AVE = .78			
My manager is knowledgeable about the local situations faced by me.	4.99	1.46	0.80
My manager recognizes the important activities of my job.	5.44	1.30	0.90
My manager knows the roles I play in the organization.	5.64	1.24	0.88
My manager has a clear understanding of the challenges of my job.	5.28	1.36	0.92
My manager realizes what it takes to succeed in my job.	5.59	1.31	0.90
Standing (Tyler 1994) $\alpha = .91$, AVE = .79			
My manager treats me with respect.	5.92	1.23	0.96
My manager is polite and well-mannered in our interactions	5.89	1.27	0.90
My manager treats me like an individual.	5.92	1.19	0.89
My manager is concerned with my rights.	5.22	1.40	0.79
Positive Feedback (Rich 1998) $\alpha = .95$, AVE = .75			
When my manager thinks I perform well, he or she provides me with positive feedback.	5.24	1.44	0.85
My manager makes it a point of telling me when he or she thinks I manage my time well.	4.60	1.53	0.84
My manager commends me when he or she thinks I am using the "right" selling techniques.	4.85	1.39	0.86
My manager lets me know when he or she thinks I am producing good results.	5.17	1.33	0.92
When I make an important sale, my manager makes it a point of mentioning it to me.	5.33	1.39	0.86
My manager expresses his or her approval when he or she sees me going about my job as expected.	4.80	1.45	0.84
When my manager is satisfied with my sales output, he or she comments about it.	5.04	1.37	0.89
Job Satisfaction (Brown and Peterson 1993) $\alpha = .90$, AVE = .77			
My job is very pleasant.	5.39	1.30	0.94
My job is very worthwhile.	5.60	1.25	0.91
My job is better than most.	5.69	1.21	0.77
I am very content with my job.	5.24	1.46	0.87
Performance (Brown and Peterson 1993) $\alpha = .81$, AVE = .67			
How would you rate yourself in terms of sales generated?	5.59	1.08	0.87
How would you rate yourself in terms of your ability to reach your sales goals?	5.69	1.00	0.94
How would you rate yourself in terms of assisting your manager in meeting his or her goals?	5.79	0.99	0.61

* Completely standardized estimates

Table 2: Estimated Factor-Factor Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Decision Influence	1.00						
2. Explanation	0.47	1.00					
3. Manager Knowledgeability	0.51	0.74	1.00				
4. Standing	0.53	0.73	0.75	1.00			
5. Positive Feedback	0.55	0.71	0.59	0.69	1.00		
6. Job Performance	0.39	0.20	0.31	0.31	0.24	1.00	
7. Job Satisfaction	0.49	0.43	0.54	0.53	0.47	0.35	1.00

Table 3: Structural Model Coefficients

Parameter	R-Square	Unstandardized Estimates	SE	Standardized Estimates
H1: Decinf->Jobsat	0.39	0.28*	0.07	0.23
H2: Mgrkno->Jobsat		0.18*	0.05	0.31
H3: Explan->Jobsat		-0.15	0.08	-0.15
H4: Feedback->Jobsat		0.17*	0.11	0.14
H5: Standing->Jobsat		0.09*	0.09	0.21
H6: Jobsat->Perf	0.13	0.44*	0.06	0.35

Structural Model Fit: $\chi^2(418)=1627.92$, CFI=0.97, RMSEA=0.08, SRMR=0.07.

*p<0.05

Table 4: Effects Decomposition

Causal variables	Job Performance		
	Unstandardized	SE	Standardized
Decision Influence			
Direct effect	0.41*	0.10	0.27
Indirect effect	0.06*	0.03	0.04
Total effect	0.47*	0.10	0.31
Explanation			
Direct effect	-0.19	0.11	-0.16
Indirect effect	-0.03	0.02	-0.03
Total effect	-0.22*	0.11	-0.19
Knowledgeability			
Direct effect	0.10	0.07	0.14
Indirect effect	0.04*	0.02	0.05
Total effect	0.14*	0.06	0.19
Standing			
Direct effect	0.05	0.05	0.11
Indirect effect	0.02	0.01	0.03
Total effect	0.07	0.05	0.14
Positive Feedback			
Direct effect	-0.04	0.12	-0.03
Indirect effect	0.03	0.02	0.02
Total effect	-0.004	0.12	-0.003

*p<0.05

Figure 1: The Theoretical Model M1

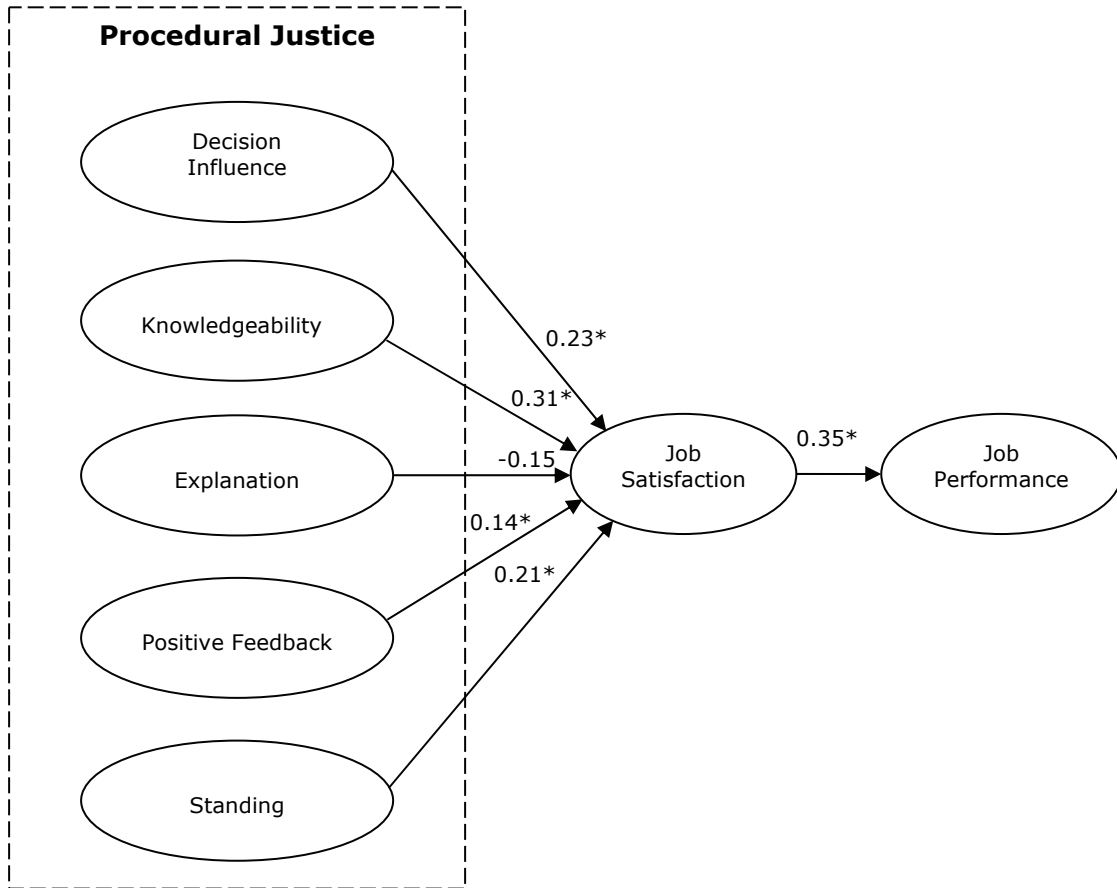
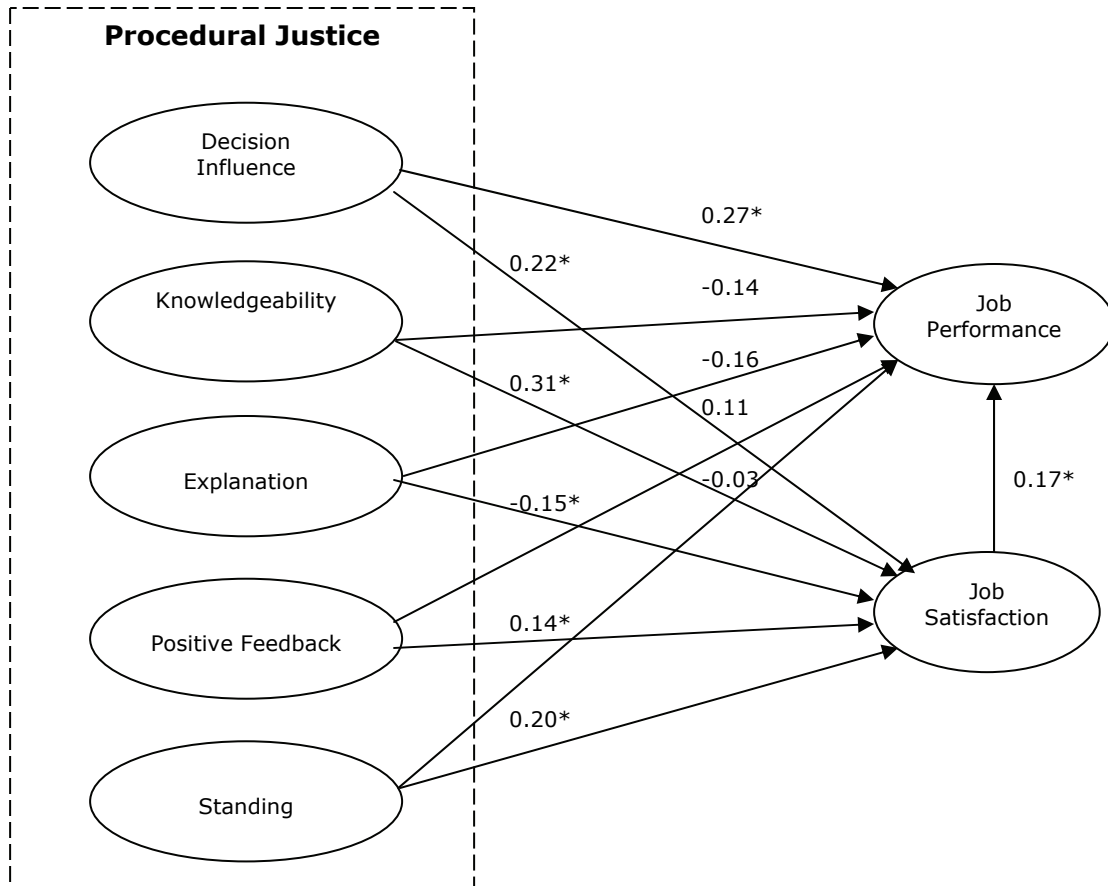


Figure 2: The Mediation Model M2



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