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Senior management is becoming increasingly convinced of what marketers have long advocated: staying close to customers in order to serve them well is a critical competitive advantage in a competitive marketplace. Companies are increasingly committing themselves to win *and retain* customers (Jackson, 1985a, 1985b). They have increased their commitment to relationship marketing through such organizational forms as national accounts and team selling approaches in order to analyze and service the needs of important customers and to provide a comprehensive, coordinated approach to meeting those needs over time (Barrett, 1986; Bertrand, 1987). Developing effective interaction within the salesforce and between the marketing and other functional departments in the company has consequently become a high priority issue as senior management attempts to operationalize the fundamental precepts of relationship marketing inherent in team and national account selling systems.

A major difficulty associated with development of relationship marketing oriented approaches, however, lies with the problem of effective program implementation. Two related issues in particular merit discussion.

The first implementation problem relates to the actual buyer/seller interface and, as a consequence, focusses on the interaction of the sales representative and the purchaser. A substantial amount of marketing research has been conducted in this area and those articles that are particularly germane will be discussed shortly.

The second problem of implementation is related to the difficulties of establishing an effective internal interface among all of the employees and functional departments in the vendor's organization so that one of the fundamental requirements of relationship marketing can be established. Specifically, relationship marketing requires that individual members of the salesforce work in concert with each other to meet customer needs and, of equal importance, that the marketing department in total effectively interacts with the other areas of the firm toward the same objective. Should this form of concerted interaction fail to be implemented, relationship marketing

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strategies, in all likelihood, will be seriously compromised from the outset.

It is this second implementation issue that is the focus of our research because successful achievement of a corporate-wide consensus within the vending organization, namely the value of relationship marketing goals is the logical precursor to attempting a close and long-lasting relationship with the customer.

Regrettably, there is little marketing research that deals directly with the measurement or achievement of internal goal consensus within the context of establishing a relationship marketing system in the seller's firm. Through meshing the rather substantial body of literature available in organizational behavior research, however, with the findings from business marketing studies, some insights regarding the development and problems of creating a system of internal consensus in the vendor's organization can be acquired.

This study examines the network of people within a company that salespersons turn to as they try to serve customers. No matter how committed and skilled individual salespeople are, they often cannot by themselves provide high quality service. Rather, they must turn to managers and specialists to help them structure specific agreements and to facilitate their effective implementation. This study proposes that the theory of cooperative, independent, and competitive goal interdependence can be used to analyze these networks.

An examination of the business marketing literature yields a number of studies that indirectly bear on this research. A number of authors have examined relational marketing in terms of conflict, negotiation and conflict resolution (Day and Perdue, 1988; Lambert *et al.*, 1986; Perdue *et al.*, 1986). An integral aspect of the research in this area is concerned with identifying the conditions under which cooperative negotiations between the buyer and seller will occur versus those situations and individual characteristics that will promote competitive and confrontational behavior between the vendor and the purchaser. Clopton (1984), for example, found that Pruitt's (1981) "problem solving for integrative bargaining" perspective was useful to analyze the negotiations between industrial buyers and sellers. In particular, cooperative behaviors with clear messages by sellers of their interests promoted beneficial integrative resolutions in negotiations with buyers. Conversely, competitive negotiation behaviors which were intended to convey inflexible bargaining positions and force compliance, especially when combined with ambiguous information from the seller, tended to induce competitive distributive negotiation behavior in the buyer. In a similar vein, Graham's (1986) results suggested that where sellers used a cooperative, integrative and information-based approach to negotiations, they were able to achieve better returns as well as create greater customer satisfaction.

Results of the preceding research are of interest because of the potential for a cooperative goal orientation also to yield benefits to the internal operation of the vendor's organization, i.e. the existence of cooperative versus competitive goals among the salesforce and other functional personnel in the firm should lead to an organization that is better able to serve the needs of its customers.

Research that bears more directly on the implementation problem of establishing cooperative goals among members of the vendor's firm has been introduced by Spekman and Johnston (1986). These authors emphasized the need for relationship management in marketing to interact with the purchaser's buying center and to coordinate the different departments within the vendor's organization under a functionally integrated marketing plan. Three major management tasks for achieving interdepartmental coordination were identified: "1) creating and maintaining shared appreciations of interdependences; 2) reaching agreement concerning appropriate coordination and control strategies; and 3) implementing and maintaining these strategies" (Spekman and Johnston, 1986, p. 522). While these prescriptions for functional internal coordination are certainly valuable, the article stops short of defining *how* management can identify those situations where employees and departments do *not* share an appreciation of the goal interdependences needed to make relationship marketing work. Other researchers have also examined the buyer/seller interface and suggested frameworks for managing it effectively (Dwyer *et al*., 1987; Frazier *et al* ,1988). Again, however, the emphasis did not concentrate on establishing internally coordinated functions in the vendor firm as a prerequisite to managing effectively the interface between seller and purchaser.

Finally, Crosby *et al*. (1990) found that future sales opportunities [for the vendor] depend mostly on relationship quality (i.e. trust and satisfaction). These results concerning buyer/seller interaction reinforce the contention that increased attention must be given to the need for establishing internal coordination within the vendor's operations because buyer trust and satisfaction with the sales representative are clearly a function of the salesperson's ability to deliver on commitments to the purchaser. These commitments can be severely compromised if support personnel in the vending organization do not share the same goal of delivering on promises to the customer.

In many cases, it appears to be assumed that people within the vending firm will work together harmoniously and that senior management will ensure the necessary collaboration. Marketing researchers and practitioners have recognized the importance of this internal collaboration, but little in the way of frameworks to analyze its nature have been developed. It is at this juncture however that organizational behavior research may offer some useful insights.

This study uses cooperative, independent and competitive goals to analyze the network interaction of salespersons as they serve customers. Deutsch (1949, 1973) proposed that the dynamics and outcomes of interaction could be analyzed in terms of how people perceive that their goals are related. Goal interdependence focusses on the conclusions people make about how they depend on each other. Managers, in turn, are expected to use their work linkages, tasks, rewards, roles and sources of information in fostering the development of goal interdependence (Tjosvold, 1991a).

Deutsch distinguished three kinds of interdependence. In cooperation, people believe their goals are positively linked so that as one moves toward goal attainment, others move toward reaching their goal. They understand that their goal attainment helps others, in turn, reach their goals, i.e. they can be successful together. In competition, people believe their goals are negatively related so that one individual's success interferes with that of others, i.e. one's successful goal attainment makes others less likely to reach their goals. With independent goals, employees consider their interests unrelated so that the goal attainment of one neither helps nor hinders others' goals. Most situations are mixes of these interdependences. The dominant goal interdependence, however, is expected to affect interaction and its consequences.

Studies have shown that people with cooperative goals discuss problems and controversies openly and constructively and assist and influence each other effectively (Deutsch, 1973; Tjosvold, 1986a, 1986b, 1989). Recent meta-analyses support the propositions that these interactions contribute to problem solving and morale (Johnson and Johnson 1989; Johnson *et al.*, 1981; Johnson *et al.*, 1983). Competitive goals, on the other hand, are suggested to result in avoidance or escalation of conflict, low productivity (except on some simple tasks), and low morale. (Conflict can be defined distinctly from goal interdependence as incompatible activities, where one person is interfering with, obstructing, or in other ways making the behavior of another less effective (Deutsch, 1973).) Independent goals have been found to have a similar though not as strong an impact on conflict dynamics and outcomes as do competitive goals.

Tjosvold (1985, 1991b) has summarized a series of studies that identify constructive controversy as the productive dynamics within cooperative goals. Controversy occurs when people propose different ideas and positions as they try to solve problems. Confrontation with an opposing view has been found to create uncertainty about the adequacy of one's own position and curiosity and information seeking to understand the contrary view. When people understand opposing ideas and information and appreciate each other's perspective, they are able to see the limitations in their own views and incorporate other arguments. They combine the most reliable information and best ideas to make a high quality decision that they are willing to implement (Tjosvold, 1982; Tjosvold and Deemer, 1980; Tjosvold and Field, 1984). Conversely, people who interact on the basis of competitive goal structures are determined to win and dominate each other. They closed-mindedly reject the opposing position and the person arguing it, refuse to incorporate other ideas into their own decision making, and fail to reach an agreement with parties holding different views.

Studies also indicate that discussing conflicts without appearing to challenge others' competence enhances these cooperative dynamics (Tjosvold and Andrews, 1983). Knowing that others respect them although they disagree with them helps people to be open-minded about opposing ideas. In addition, people who influence one another without trying to dominate one another were found to use controversy advantageously (Tjosvold and Deemer, 1980).

Recent studies suggest that the dynamics of cooperation and constructive controversy occur in a variety of organizational settings. Constructive controversy has been found to promote innovation in an educational bureaucracy (Tjosvold and McNeely, 1988), aid in restructuring organizations (Tjosvold, 1990a), and help crews to cope with threats to the safety of airplanes (Tjosvold, 1990b). In addition, cooperative goals and constructive controversy may help departments coordinate in order to respond to customers' problems (Tjosvold, 1989).

Based on this research, the major hypothesis of this study is that salespersons who believe they share goals that are cooperative (compared with competitive or independent) with people in their selling network also perceive that they can discuss their views constructively with others, solve differences and effectively serve their customers.

A caveat is required here. It is readily acknowledged that many more company personnel than the firm's sales representatives may be involved with the customer in a true relationship marketing strategy. In this study, however, the analysis is restricted to the interaction of the firm's sales representatives with their own support personnel because the vendor essentially pursued a policy of restricting customer contacts to its salesforce, i.e. only the firm's sales representatives had any real experience in directly contacting customers and attempting to serve their needs. Consequently, only the sales representatives could assess whether they were "effectively serving their customers".

METHOD

One of the North American divisions of a large industrial supplier with a client base in lumber, pulp and mining agreed to participate in a study on the network of its salespersons. All but one of those asked to participate agreed and a total of 30 salespersons (all males) were interviewed. They averaged just under 37 years old with ten years of experience.

Three researchers underwent a coordinated training program in efforts to reduce interviewer bias. The objective was to standardize the interviewing process and hopefully mitigate the problem of inadvertently leading respondents in their confidential answers. The interviewers were instructed to have the respondent describe a dyadic interaction with one of their company colleagues as they worked on a sales-related incident and to answer specific questions about that interaction. The researchers were not told about the theory or hypotheses being investigated.

The critical incident method was used to develop the interview schedule (Flanagan, 1954). Respondents were asked to describe in detail a recent, significant incident involving coordination with someone in their company as they tried to serve a customer. Interviewees first described the setting, what occurred and the consequences. They then answered specific questions in order to allow coding of the incident. If time permitted, the salesperson was asked to describe a second incident. A total of 59 incidents was collected.

Interviewees responded to several questions pertaining to the incident before the interaction with their colleague. They indicated on a seven-point Likert scale the extent to which they were confident that they could work with the other person successfully. Respondents also specified their own goals as well as identifying the goals of the person with whom they interacted. cooperative, competitive and independent goals were then described, and respondents again rated on a seven-point scale the extent to which they believed that they had cooperative, competitive and independent goals. The interviewer then asked the respondents to describe the reasons for their goal interdependence ratings.

Interviewees next responded to a series of questions using seven-point scales to code the interaction behavior of the incident. These questions were based on previous findings on cooperation and constructive controversy (Deutsch, 1973; Tjosvold, 1985). The respondents rated the extent to which they: expressed their own views freely; considered the other person's views open-mindedly; tried to understand the other's concerns; disclosed all important information; perceived that they could work together; felt accepted as a person by the other individual in the dyad. The interviewer then asked the respondent to provide a similar assessment of how he/she perceived the other person in the dyad would have rated these same dimensions of interaction. The "self" interaction scale based on these questions had a Cronbach alpha reliability of 0.78 while the "other" interact scale had a reliability of 0.93. Respondents also indicated on a seven-point scale the extent to which their feelings were positive or negative as the interaction came to an end.

Following those questions that explored the salesperson's perceptions during the incident, respondents were asked to indicate their responses regarding the interaction after they had a chance to evaluate it. They indicated on seven-point scales the extent to which they: were motivated to serve customers well; learned from the interaction; found new ways to serve customers; concluded that support from others was needed to serve customers successfully. These scales formed the customer effectiveness scale with a Cronbach alpha reliability of 0.73. The salespersons also indicated the degree to which they: made progress on the incident-related task; worked efficiently; experienced positive or negative feelings as the interaction was concluded; felt that they could work with their co-worker successfully in the future. These items (identified at the conclusion of the interaction) formed the personal effectiveness scale with an alpha of 0.93.

Salespersons were also asked to indicate the degree to which company personnel could help them improve their service to customers. Respondents identified those people on whom they relied for assistance in the process of serving their customers. These individuals included: the general manager; regional controller; regional operations managers; regional sales manager; branch manager; purchasing department buyers; merchandising manager; automotive sales managers; industrial sales manager; sales specialists; and "other" head office functional staff (e.g. accounts receivable, wholesale distribution manager).

Results support the major hypothesis that cooperative compared to competitive or independent goals contribute to an open, constructive discussion of differences with co-workers that help salespersons serve customers. Salespersons who considered their goals highly cooperative discussed their views openly and believed others were also frank and open-minded. In these strong cooperative relationships salespeople felt motivated to serve customers. They also felt that the interaction helped them learn how to improve their performance in order to become better at serving customer needs. These cooperative interactions also appear to facilitate task completion, efficiency, confidence in future collaboration and positive effect.

However, when salespersons believed that they had competitive or independent goals with other people in the selling network, they reported little constructive discussion of views and experienced unproductive outcomes. They and members of the network: were unable to voice their views openly and constructively; were less motivated and unable to learn to serve customers; felt less inclined to complete tasks or perform efficiently; indicated a weakened confidence in future collaboration; had negative feelings about their interactions with others.

LISREL analysis was used to examine the underlying causal structure between goal interdependence, dynamics and outcomes (Hayduk, 1987; Joreskog and Sorbom, 1984). Based on the ideas of work flow and goal interdependence, it was proposed that work and goal interdependence, conflict dynamics, and outcomes are latent variables and are related as indicated in Figure 1.

Results of the Q-plot show residuals were generally linear and normally distributed around an approximate 40° slope. Residual analysis indicated that the data were in conformance with the assumptions of the LISREL model (Table I). The adjusted goodness of fit (0.81) suggested a reasonably good overall performance of the model.

Sample size ($n = 59$)	
Chi-square with 11 d.o.f.	31.70*
Adjusted goodness of fit index	0.81
Root mean square residual	0.10
Squared multiple correlations:	
Structural equations	
Dynamics	0.34
Outcomes	0.88
Total coefficient of determination	0.36

Note: $^*p < 0.01$

TABLE I.
Table of LISREL Estimates

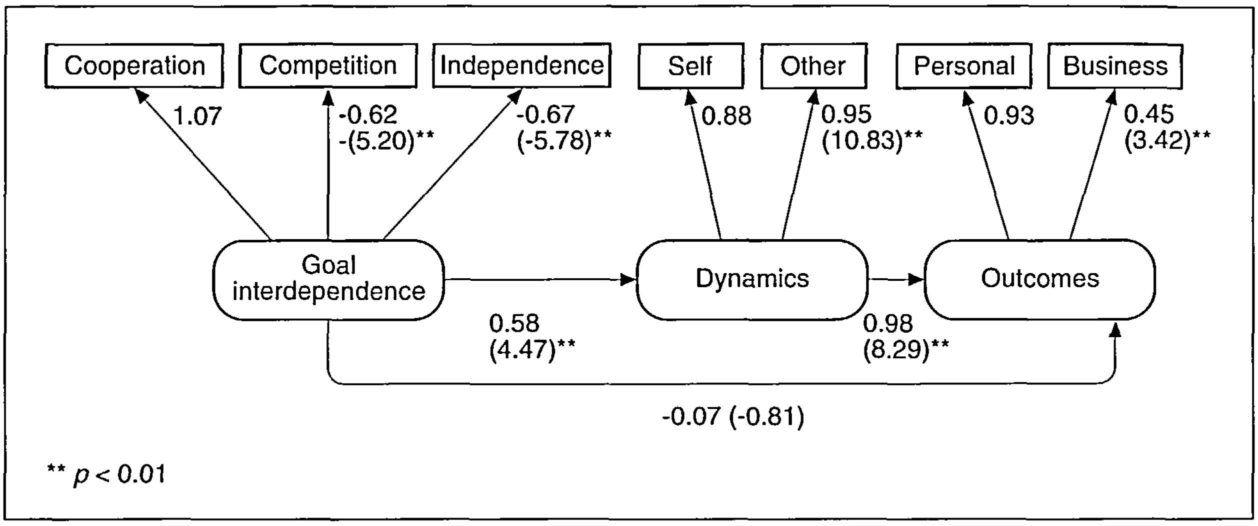

FIGURE 1.
Covariance Structural Model

The main findings suggest that goal interdependence strongly affects dynamics and that dynamics in turn strongly affect perceived outcomes. The effect of goal interdependence on outcomes was not significant, indicating that the apparent effect of goal interdependence shown in Figure 1 is mediated by the impact of dynamics rather than from goal interdependence directly. The total coefficient of determination for the structural equations was 0.546, indicating that the hypothesized model provides a fair explanation of the relationships among the latent variables. (Correlations applicable to the model are shown in the Appendix.)

All paths for the latent variables to observed indicators were significant. The standardized coefficients are presented on each path of the latent variables, with *t*-values in parentheses. For the coefficients of the indicator scales, the first paths from latent variables to indicators were set to 1.0 to standardize the latent variables. For the scales measuring goal interdependence, the subsequent coefficient for competitive goals and independent goals are both significant. These results provide support for the contention that cooperative goals are the most important indicators of goal interdependence, followed by independent goals and then competitive goals. For the indicator scales measuring dynamics, the "other" interact scale was found to be a stronger contributor than the "self" interact scale.

Results (Table II) indicate that many people within the firm could be useful to the salesperson. The branch manager, purchasing department buyers and sales specialists were considered to be among the leading sources

Advisor's position in firm	Percentage of mentions as a reference source
General manager	2.49
Regional controller	2.99
Regional operations manager	3.98
Regional sales manager	6.47
Branch manager	13.93
Purchasing department buyers	13.43
Merchandising manager	10.45
Automotive sales manager	9.95
Industrial sales manager	10.45
Sales specialist	13.93
Other	11.94

TABLE II.
Salesforce Reference Sources

of help to the salesforce in terms of supplying assistance, namely dealing with customers.

Salespersons often turn to others within their firm to help them in the challenging task of serving customers well. Providing valued quality service to customers is not something that can be left solely to the individual salesperson (Jackson, 1985a, 1985b). Rather, coordinated effort appears to contribute substantially to sales success even in a low/medium technology market such as that surveyed in this study.

Salespersons who believed their goals were cooperative rather than competitive or independent with the members of their network were prepared to discuss their views openly and skillfully and, in turn, to make use of these decisions for consequences productive for themselves, the organization and the customer. Findings suggest that developing a strong cooperative context is an important way of providing the coordination needed to serve customers.

National account management and other similar structural forms such as team selling appear to be increasingly popular, especially for advanced technology-oriented companies that have potentially large buyers (Bertrand, 1987). Teams are thought to be able to combine their information to better analyze the clients' needs, analyze the buying center and influence buying decisions effectively. But as recent writers emphasize, managing these teams is challenging (Flavey, 1990). They must be able to work together and exercise leadership. They must make selections about the efficient deployment of many company and marketing-related resources (Tutton,1987). These teams also have to cooperate in using relationship marketing to develop strong customer bonds that will lead to future business as well as close sales and service current shipments. Long-term marketing strategies such as developing new products and service requires coordination extending beyond the marketing department (Jackson, 1985a, 1985b).

Goal interdependence has the potential to examine the integrative and coordinative potential: within sales teams as well as sales networks; between sales personnel and other departments such as research and development; and between the vendor's sales team and the customer's buying center. If future research supports this potential, goal interdependence could be a parsimonious and powerful theoretical framework for examining these central marketing issues.

The results of this study are of course limited by the nature of the sample size and sampling procedures employed. The data are self-reported and subject to qualitative perceptual biases (e.g. hindsight and halo biases) that may not accurately describe the interactive situations. These data are also correlational and do not provide direct evidence of causal links between goal interdependence, interaction and serving customers. However, because respondents reported on specific events, there should be less distortion and results should be less subject to the problems of common method variance than questions that ask for generalizations (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). Recent evidence also indicates that people often accurately perceive their social environment (Funder and Dobroth, 1987) and that common method variance may not be as much of an artifact as commonly assumed (Spector, 1987). Limitations of the study should be considered in the context of previous research that provides experimental support with behavioral measures for the major findings of this study.

MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS

If successfully replicated and extended, results could offer a number of useful insights with regard to the practical implementation of relationship marketing structures. Although conjectural at this point, implementation might be improved by considering the following issues.

First, the structure of some salesforce compensation systems may be contributing to difficulties in the implementation of relationship marketing systems. Compensation has often been considered to be one of the more important issues in establishing an effective salesforce (Langley, 1987; Mott, 1989; Moynahan, 1980). Incentive plans for salespersons, however, have traditionally focused on improving the motivation and abilities of individual salespersons, but, as this study underlines, even when they are not formally part of a selling team, salespersons must often work effectively with other people. Incentives aimed at just the individual's sales performance may not improve, and indeed may interfere with the intra-firm coordination needed to serve customers. This is because other individuals on whom the salesperson or selling team rely may feel less commitment to servicing the customer effectively when the reward structure does not acknowledge their contribution to the success of the selling effort. Obviously, a caveat is required here in that group remuneration systems also have implementation problems because of difficulties in establishing how much of the successful selling effort is attributable to any given individual. From the management perspective, however, this difficulty will likely be considered subordinate to the fundamental problem of trying to establish a functional relationship marketing program that may be necessary to attract sales in the first place.

Second, the fairly widespread accounting practice of establishing separate cost centers within the vendor organization may contribute to relationship marketing implementation problems. The difficulty is that the objective of individual department cost minimization may not be consistent with the corporate objective of effectively servicing the account. Individual department cost minimization (or profit maximization, for that matter) could give rise to a series of independent or even competitive goals when juxtaposed to the objectives of the marketing group or senior management. Why, for example, should a functional department manager incur the costs of meeting special customer requests if, by doing so, extra expenses will be incurred?

Third, knowledge about goal interdependences in the organization may provide a useful role in helping direct senior management in their deliberations regarding internal marketing policies. If, for example, evaluations of the kind introduced in this research indicate an extant high degree of cooperative goals throughout the organization, internal marketing programs may be superfluous. If, however, the evaluation procedure indicates the existence of independent and competitive goal structures, management can parsimoniously and quickly identify those individuals and departments where an internal marketing program might provide useful results.

While identification of impediments to the application of relationship marketing in the firm constitutes an important first step toward resolving implementation problems, it concomitantly introduces the need for prescriptive suggestions concerning the kind of organizational environment that might be conducive to the development of cooperative goal interdependences.

Results of this study provide an empirical rational for applying knowledge about developing cooperative teamwork to support the selling function (Tjosvold, 1991a; 1993). Cooperative interdependence, however, cannot be assumed or decreed, people must come to their own conclusion that what is good for one is good for all; success for one is success for all. Moreover, cooperative interdependence needs to be a shared conclusion. One person cannot cooperate alone. The salesperson and the network members must comprehend the importance of positively related goals and be willing to work together to accomplish them.

An effective vision and commitment to serve customers can help to develop feelings of being united in a common effort. cooperative goals can also be developed by working on common projects for a single product, receiving feedback on team productivity, and being rewarded and recognized as a team. Effective internal marketing is also required to help all members of the organization recognize that, with limited resources and increasingly stringent customer service demands, they need the information, knowledge, ideas and support of everyone including that of departments which do not usually interface with customers if the vendor's firm is going to be successful. Through mechanisms such as these, individuals may achieve a better appreciation of how their personal contributions and roles complement each other and contribute to joint success.

Employees also need skills training and the development of procedures to aid in their open and constructive discussion of controversies within a cooperative team context (Tjosvold, 1991b). This implies directly confronting diverse views about issues; learning to evaluate the validity of their own ideas; developing an understanding of each other's perspectives and communally gathering and sharing information in order collectively to identify opportunities and threats. Resolution of intra-organizational controversy can be difficult to achieve because, in spite of interpersonal and interdepartmental disagreements, training must be oriented toward helping personnel focus on concrete customer-related common goals that will ultimately provide company revenues. Ongoing training and successful experiences can aid in refining the necessary cooperative skills, but senior management can also assist the process by providing established settings (e.g. sales and production meetings) where personnel are given a forum for discussing and rectifying their differences through joint problem solving.

Serving customers well today is a complex task that typically requires coordinated effort. Salespersons are boundary spanners who make critical links with buyers. Their expertise, credibility, interpersonal skills and sensitivity to buyer needs contribute directly to marketing success especially with long-term customers. However, they also have to be skillful in developing the support networks of people within the firm. Top management can, results of this study suggest, support these productive networks by structuring cooperative goals and helping to develop the skills necessary to discuss opinions effectively and skillfully.

Although work on goal interdependence may most readily find application in business marketing contexts because of the need for effective implementation of relationship marketing systems, other potential uses should be explored. It may well be that the goal interdependence framework can also be used to analyze and guide the development of mutually advantageous relationships with customers. Within the consumer marketing spectrum, applications may prove helpful in those industries where service levels and/or relationship marketing orientations are considered especially important in garnering repeat sales (e.g. airlines, financial institutions). Clearly, more research is necessary to substantiate the tentative results presented in this research. Whichever context is chosen for further work, the need for improved implementation of relationship marketing structures can be expected to have a significant impact on the success of these systems.

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Appendix: Correlations

	Cooperation	Competition	Independence	Expectations	Self-interact	Other-interact	Feelings	Learn	Serve	Progress	Efficiency	New	Support	Confidence in future
Cooperation	1.00													
Competition	−0.63**	1.00												
Independence	−0.71**	0.17	1.00											
Expectations	0.38**	−0.31*	−0.27*	1.00										
Self-interact	0.64**	−0.53**	−0.47**	0.43**	1.00									
Other-interact	0.62**	−0.42**	−0.58**	0.51**	0.83**	1.00								
Feelings	0.59**	−0.41**	−0.45**	0.43**	0.70**	0.78**	1.00							
Learn	0.36*	−0.17	−0.33*	0.13	0.28*	0.22	0.25	1.00						
Serve	0.56**	−0.44**	−0.36*	0.33*	0.45**	0.52**	0.56**	0.53**	1.00					
Progress	0.24*	−0.31*	−0.28*	0.37*	0.51**	0.55**	0.70**	0.13	0.45**	1.00				
Efficiency	0.52**	−0.37*	−0.49**	0.48**	0.79**	0.88**	0.81**	0.28*	0.45**	0.60**	1.00			
New	0.09	−0.01	−0.14	0.14	0.19	0.18	0.12	0.52**	0.55**	0.19	0.15	1.00		
Support	0.10	−0.11	−0.18	0.15	0.20	0.23	0.21	0.33*	0.26	0.13	0.21	0.18	1.00	
Confidence in future	0.55**	−0.37*	−0.42**	0.45**	0.73*	0.83*	0.90**	0.28*	0.60**	0.67**	0.87**	0.16	0.22	1.00

Notes: $n = 59$
* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

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